2013 Congress & Exposition
Houston, Texas
October 8 --10, 2013

Abstracts from the
2013 Leisure Research Symposium

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22377 Belmont Ridge Road
Ashburn, Virginia 20148
PREFACE—2013 LEISURE RESEARCH SYMPOSIUM

We are pleased to present the abstracts for the 36th annual Leisure Research Symposium (LRS) held in conjunction with the National Recreation and Parks Association Congress in Houston, Texas, October 8-10, 2013. This year we received 84 abstracts, which included one panel presentation, for review. Of those, 51 oral paper presentations plus 1 panel session and 18 posters were accepted for inclusion in this year’s symposium. The oral presentations and posters are blind peer reviewed in a process where the reviewers do not know if the abstract is to be considered for a poster or an oral presentation. Dr. Ed Gómez, from Old Dominion University is coordinating this year’s poster session.

The 2013 LRS commences with the Butler Lecture in the afternoon, on Tuesday October 8th, by addressing the topic of “Forging Common Ground between Research, Policy, and Practice.” Dr. Vivian Tseng, Vice President of the William T. Grant Foundation, will deliver the main keynote speech. Following Dr. Tseng’s remarks, there will be an opportunity for questions and discussion.

The LRS oral presentations will begin the next morning, Wednesday October 9th at 8am, with a range of themed sessions. After the abstracts were reviewed, we grouped the presentations into themes. This year we received a significant number of submissions related to physical activity and health, leisure within an international context, leisure and diversity, and outdoor and adventure recreation, broadly defined. Overall, the presentations represent an impressive diversity and depth. The moderators have been asked to facilitate discussions on a particular theme at the end of each session, so please stay and engage in some lively debate.

The organization of the LRS always involves a collaborative effort. Our thanks go to the review coordinators and reviewers whose dedication and willingness to serve are much appreciated. We want to extend thanks and appreciation to both NRPA staff liaisons, Danielle Price and Tom Crosley, who have worked diligently once again this year and Dr. Ed Gómez for coordinating the poster session. We also extend our thanks to the presenters for sharing their work and the moderators for facilitating the sessions. We are looking forward to seeing you in Houston and enjoying the 36th Leisure Research Symposium with you.

Jason Bocarro and Jim Sibthorp
2013 Leisure Research Symposium Co-Chairs
# Reviewers for the 2013 Leisure Research Symposium

LRS Co-Chair: Jason Bocarro, North Carolina State University  
LRS Co-Chair: Jim Sibthorp, University of Utah  
Poster Coordinator: Ed Gomez, Old Dominion University

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Gendered realities permeate most, if not all aspects of social life including leisure and tourist experiences (Fullagar & Brown, 2003; Gibson, 2001; Swain, 1995). All-female leisure contexts can act as sites for gendered identity construction, autonomy, and empowerment (Green, 1998); sources of social support and positive emotions contributing to women’s health and well-being (Hutchinson et al., 2008; Son et al., 2007); as well as liminal contexts for freedom and play (Yarnal, 2006). As a form of leisure, tourist experiences can be a means for (re)constructing identity (Elsrud, 2001; Wearing & Wearing, 1996), experiencing existential authenticity (Wang, 1999), and contributing to women’s quality of life (Anderson & Littrell, 1995). While women are faced with gender specific constraints to travel (Valentine, 1989; Wilson & Little, 2005, 2008), their ability to resist these constraints and the feelings of empowerment and independence accrued through travel (Harris & Wilson, 2007; Jordan & Gibson, 2005; Obenour, 2005) may turn these experiences into a sphere for self-expression and self-exploration facilitated by the liminoid quality of travel spaces (Lett, 1983; Turner, 1974). Yet, these potential outcomes are virtually invisible in the mainstream narrative of tourism advertising where a sexualized gaze and discourses of female passiveness and subordination prevail (Jordan, 2007; Pritchard, 2001).

Girlfriend getaways (GGA), a term created by the media, is a type of leisure-travel gaining popularity (Balneg, 2010), which is reflected in the proliferation of travel guides for girlfriend getaways (cf., Bailey, 2009; Bond, 2008; Kasanicky, 2009). This type of travel refers to women taking trips with female friends and/or relatives offering opportunities to get away from everyday stressors and gender roles, to (re)create relationships and to (re)construct ways of self-understanding (Gibson et al., 2012). The purpose of this study was to explore women’s perceptions of the term GGA as used in the mass media and popular literature, as well as its congruence with their own experiences of travelling with female friends and family members.

Method

Data were collected in 11 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 flyers, newsletters, and e-mails. The sample includes 83 participants with diverse socio-demographic backgrounds in terms of age (21-87 years), marital status, children, and education. Following open coding, the data focusing on women’s perceptions of the term GGA were analyzed drawing upon discourse analysis (DA). Discourses are the practices that constitute the objects spoken about. As such, they are simultaneously products and producers of historical and social circumstances (Foucault, 1972). Gee’s (2005) framework of analyzing language-in-use for conducting DA was adopted in this study. People construct situations through language by carrying out seven building tasks (significance, activities, identities, relationships, politics, connections, sign systems and knowledge). According to Gee, DA includes asking questions about these seven building tasks using tools of inquiry such as social languages (casual, professional), intertextuality (cross-references to other kinds of text), situated meanings (grounded in actual specific experiences and practices), discourses, Discourse models (theories explaining why words have various situated meanings in different contexts), and Conversations (all the talk and writing on a certain theme in a social group). Validity was assessed based on the principles of convergence, agreement, coverage, and linguistic structure.
Findings

Building significance refers to using language to signify how and what different things mean and reflect. Some women interpreted the term GGA broadly as “travelling with other women, no matter the details” and found it to be “pretty accurate.” Others felt the term “describes a very specific type of travel,” typically referring to short term, relaxation focused beach and/or spa vacations or city escapes. Yet, some participants could not relate to the term arguing that it does not reflect their experiences. These women had problems with either the ‘girlfriend’ or ‘getaway’ part. For example, “It’s the girlfriend part, I don’t like to be pigeon holed like that” and its connotations “conjure up for me the twee, cute, giggling, girly image.” The ‘getaway’ part was also controversial. While some participants argued that the significance of GGA is the “escape from real life,” others stated that “it’s going for adventure, rather than getting away.”

Building activities indicates using language to build activities as part of a situation. Some participants offered a rather broad perspective on activities involved in GGA such as “doing something different from your normal routine with a bunch of your girlfriends.” Others indicated that the term GGA invokes an image of activities on “an all-inclusive packaged thing” and the triplex of “wine, dine, and shop.” Many women stated, “a girlfriend getaway is the spa… get pampered.” Beach related activities and hobby driven GGA were also discussed. Yet, some women argued that the term does not capture “outdoor and active things” and “sporty trips.”

Building identities means using language in building identities, since performing and recognizing social identities through language is an essential component of any situation. Women’s adopted identities were bound with their perceptions of the ‘girlfriend’ part of GGA. Those who could relate to it, indicated that GGA is associated with an existentially authentic identity through the “comfort of being myself, not being so self conscious,” “the freedom from all of the labels and restrictions you have at home.” Yet, women who could not relate to the ‘girlfriend’ part argued that it describes an identity that could not be applied to them since they perceived it as “frou frou, like pink and frilly, like sorority sisters… I just don’t want to be associated with that.” Women who struggled with the ‘getaway’ part argued that their identities would be better described as “seeker, not escaper” where the defining factor of the enacted identity would be challenge, adventure, or a hobby that motivated the trip with female friends.

Building relationships pertains to using language to build operative and consequential relationships involved in the situation – e.g., (ir)relevant, ignored, challenged relationships. Women explained that familial relationships became less relevant on GGA giving way to constructing different relationships, “you kind of lose that other role… Mom and I were two friends travelling together.” Conversely, some women constructed their relationships with female friends on GGA as familial, “we are more like sisters than just friends. I wouldn’t give up those trips for anything.” Women emphasized the uniqueness of the woman-to-woman bond, “with women it’s easier, I get to be who I am, do what I want, I get intimate conversations you don’t get with a guy,” linking it back to the idea of an existentially authentic identity.

Building politics relates to using language to construct perspectives about the distribution of social goods (e.g., power, status, class). Some participants critically discussed “a commercialized cliché of a girlfriends’ weekend” represented by “spending money on spa and shopping.” Some women were concerned that it represented them as shallow, portraying GGA as consumption purposed “to make a buck by convincing girls that this is what you have to do to get away from your mundane lives.” Some women argued that “the title ‘girlfriend getaway’ is a bit stereotypic” and expressed preference for more diversity in the implied experiences, “I’d like to see more options… girls like other things too, besides shopping and hair.”
Building connections denotes using language to build, mitigate, break relevant connections between the current situation and institutions, discourses, texts, and people. It is particularly relevant to intertextuality. Participants established connections between GGA and popular culture and literature (e.g., “chick lit” kinda genre,” “sorority sisters’ culture”), mass media, movies (e.g., ‘Sex in the City,’ ‘Girls Gone Wild’), and books (e.g., ‘Eat, Pray, Love,’ ‘The Bad Girl’s Guide to the Open Road’). With respect to advertising, some women advocated for gender specific marketing of GGA, while others were bothered by it, “I don’t like it when companies paint themselves pink or blue... for it [advertisement] to say ‘women only”? Nahh.”

Building sign systems and knowledge specifies using language to (dis)privilege certain sign systems via assigning differential value to various ways of knowing and believing. Women who were critical of the term GGA, particularly of its ‘girlfriend’ part, used various words undermining its value such as “frou frou/pink/fluffy/frilly,” “bimbo and tarty,” “goofy and lame,” and “stereotypic.” Conversely, women who were in favor of the GGA term rendered it legitimate and privileged by expressions like, “I think girlfriend getaway is fine, I like the term... All my girlfriends do girlfriend getaways,” as well as it is “fun and cute,” “girly,” “inspirational,” “empowering and expanding,” and “it’s our oyster and we are going to open it.”

Discussion and Conclusions

The analysis reveals that GGA is a term with controversial situated meanings. The language recruited to navigate the ambivalence in sign systems and significance is intriguing. While some women liked it for sounding cute and girly, others disliked it and found it stereotypical for these same reasons. In terms of identities, some women described the sense of intrapersonal existential authenticity (Wang, 1999) associated with GGA, while others struggled with the term, feeling that it fails to identify adventurous women. Risk and adventure in tourism are traditionally constructed as a masculine domain (Elsrud, 2001), which might explain why ‘girlfriend,’ having such a feminine ring, prevents some women from applying it to narrate the identity of adventurous women. Likewise, GGA were related to various transformations and interpersonal existential authenticity (Wang, 1999) in (re)constructing relationships with other women, including friends and family members. Intertextuality was particularly interwoven in the building tasks of politics and connections, as women frequently alluded to mass media. Much of the tourism advertising material appeals more to men, portraying women as sexualized product adornments (Pritchard, 2001), passive and available (Jordan, 2007), subordinate, submissive, and dependent (Sirakaya & Sönmez, 2000). This study reveals that even messages geared to women, such as GGA, are perceived by some as perpetuating stereotypic homogeneity, commercialized cliché, and conspicuous consumption. The discourses of commercialization of leisure experiences as a means of achieving certain status in a society have been criticized by leisure scholars since materialistic patterns of conspicuous consumption may prove unfulfilling in the long run (Juniu, 2000; Veblen, 1899/2008). Conversely, marketing messages focusing on the discourses of women’s activeness, adventurousness, independence, and empowerment through leisure experiences (like GGA) may be more successful. That is not to say that the term GGA should be abandoned, as it clearly worked for some women in this study. Yet, if the purpose is to appeal to those women who felt alien to connotations associated with GGA, either effort should be invested in diversifying the implied touristic experiences and underlying perceived meanings of the term or a bundle of terms needs to be developed to appeal to a diverse female clientele.

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Selected references
Beliefs are common in the United States that women are expected to be “nurturant, suggestible, talkative, intuitive and sexually loyal” while men are supposed to be “aggressive, tough-minded, taciturn, rational, analytic, and promiscuous” (Connell, 2009, p. 60). These beliefs are pervasive across a wide variety of social practices and can influence how individuals negotiate lived experiences. Leisure involvement and coping strategies related to stress and mental health seem to be two areas where men negotiate gender expectations making their intersections an important site for research (Addis & Mahalik, 2003; Agahi & Parker, 2008).

Research has demonstrated that leisure can be therapeutic. Caldwell (2005) argued that empirical research has demonstrated that leisure contributes to “physical, social, emotional, and cognitive health through prevention, coping (adjustment, remediation, diversion) and transcendence” (p. 16). However, the choices of what leisure individuals engage in may be affected by their understandings of gender expectations. Studies have demonstrated that men strategically position themselves in regard to masculinity in specific leisure contexts (Wetherell & Edley, 1999; Robinson & Hockey, 2011). Our first research question explored to what degree participants negotiated their leisure contextually in relation to gendered expectations.

In addition to leisure involvement, help seeking behaviors and coping strategies related to mental health seem to be contexts where men negotiate gender expectations. For college freshman, specific coping strategies with stress were found to play a large role in predicting depressive symptoms, with avoidant coping having the highest correlation with depression (Dyson & Renk, 2006). Studies have argued that men’s perceptions of masculinity may limit their ability to acknowledge mental health issues, specifically stress and depression, and to adopt positive behaviors for dealing with them (Courtenay, 2000; Addis & Mahalik, 2003). In their examination of freshmen adaption to university life, Dyson and Renk (2003) found that levels of stress, coping strategies and depressive symptomology were similar among male and female college freshmen. However, men were more likely to engage in problem-solving coping whereas women were more likely to engage in emotion-focused coping. Li, DiGiuseppe and Froh (2003) identified rumination and distraction as two types of emotion-focused behavior. Men more likely engaged in problem-focused coping and used distraction as an emotion-focused coping method. Men are also less likely to seek professional help for physical or mental health issues than women (Courtenay, 2000; Galdas, Cheater, & Marshall, 2005), and often engage in behaviors compliant with popular conceptions of masculinity to cope with mental health issues (Dyson & Renk, 2006; Li, DiGiuseppe, & Froh, 2006). Courtenay (2000) noted “Although nothing strictly prohibits a man from demonstrating masculinities differently, to do so would require that he cross over socially constructed gender boundaries, and risk reproach and sometimes physical danger for failing to demonstrate gender correctly” (p. 1397). The second research question explored to what extent gendered expectations affected the leisure choices men made to negotiate stress.

The primary purpose of this study was to explore if and to what extent college age men's use of leisure as coping to stress was affected by gendered expectations. Additionally, this research examined the type of coping strategies specifically used by college-age males.

Methods
Inductive qualitative methods were used during this study. Charmaz (2006) defined induction as “a type of reasoning that begins with a study of a range of individual cases and extrapolates patterns from them to form a conceptual category” (p. 188). Key traits of inductive qualitative methods include simultaneous data collection and analysis and the development of inductive categories. In this study, we talked with men who were currently enrolled at universities in order to learn more about patterns related to masculinity, leisure and mental health. Ten males between the ages of 21 and 24 were purposefully solicited for participation in this study. The participants were all enrolled at large public universities and participated in face-to-face semi-structured interviews during the winter and spring of 2012. Participants were selected because they were experienced, knowledgeable and represented a wide variety of perspectives in relation to leisure involvement. Three of the men were, or had been, enrolled at community colleges, and two were completing graduate degrees. Among the participants, six were Caucasian and two were African-American. The other participants self-identified most strongly as second-generation immigrants; one was of Latino descent, and the other identified as multi-racial with parents from Europe and the Middle East. Three of the men self-identified as non-heterosexual. Several participants grew up in lower socioeconomic neighborhoods, and there was variation in their current economic positions.

The interviews centered on questions about both meanings and behaviors. For example, the men were asked for adjectives they would use to describe someone as masculine, stressed and depressed. Questions asked participants to explain to what extent they felt masculinity affected their leisure choices and how leisure might play a role in helping them face behaviors they associated with stress and depression. We analyzed and interpreted the phenomena using open and focused coding practices. Transcriptions were initially open coded into large categories, such as: gender expectations and leisure, leisure as coping, coping with stress. These coded segments were then broken down and clustered into themes. By moving back and forth between large categories, clustered themes and constantly checking with participants, it was possible to discover new questions that deepened findings. Specifically, we asked participants to clarify their leisure purposes (e.g. coping, escaping, avoiding) in relation to stress and depression. Findings were checked for accuracy and depth through emails and follow-up conversations with participants (Charmaz, 2006).

Key Findings

Responses from participants overwhelmingly supported the premise that college-aged males’ leisure involvement is mediated by contextual understandings of masculinity. Leisure activities were often conceptualized as being within three distinct categories: those which supported and enhanced masculinity, those which were perceived as gender neutral, and those which would detract from outward perceptions of masculinity. While many participants took part in, and were not ashamed of, gender neutral activities, the most desirable activities were those that were seen as enhancing masculinity. These categorical distinctions were also differentiated within activities that are commonly grouped together. For instance, recreation and leisure literature will often conceptualize “physical activity” as a type of recreational activity. However, participants applied gender divisions within this realm. Activities such as football, basketball, and weight lifting were seen as optimally masculine and therefore the most desirable activities. Other types of physical activity, such as ultimate frisbee, were gender neutral activities which were acceptable for participation, but did not enhance outward perceptions of masculinity. Finally, activities such as
ballet and field hockey, while extremely physically demanding, were perceived as feminine and therefore unacceptable. Some participants indicated that trying these types of activities may have been enjoyable; however, potential impacts to their reputations prevented their participation.

In response to research question two, interviewees stated that experiencing stress was indicative of masculinity and gender appropriate leisure could be used to negotiate and cope with it. However, it should be noted that coping primarily took the form of avoidant and escapist coping instead of active coping. Respondents were also careful to point out that they experienced stress in their daily lives, but did not regularly experience depression. While stress was seen as acceptable, and perhaps even necessary, for appropriate masculine expression, depression was seen as detrimental to masculinity. As one participant stated “whenever you think of masculinity you think of someone that's strong and depression is kind of the exact opposite because you're kind of weak in a way.” Even though stress was expected, participants indicated it was often dealt with through their leisure. Popular forms of escapism included technology such as movies and video games, physical activity, and various forms of substance abuse. While these strategies were seen as useful in dealing with stress, the expectations of appropriate masculinity were never forgotten. Participants expressed that there were “right” movies and video games that could be watched/played as escapes from stress. The narratives indicated that while physical activity could help ease stress it should be aggressive in nature. Participants also highlighted that masculine expectations allowed alcohol and substances to be consumed as part of dealing with stress, but that only certain alcoholic beverages (e.g. beer) and substances (e.g. marijuana) should be consumed. Interestingly, many of the participants admitted potentially unhealthy consequences of some of their coping techniques. This recognition was especially true for high levels of media use and substance abuse. The men in this study also recognized that this method of avoidant coping did not necessarily help with the root causes of their perceived stress; it merely allowed them to temporarily withdraw. The participants’ narratives suggest that masculinity expectations are constantly present during leisure and stress-coping negotiations.

Discussion
While these findings cannot be generalized beyond these participants, we believe this study contributes to the literature on masculinity, leisure, and stress because the results clearly suggest these men have consistently encountered and negotiated social practices associated with their understandings of masculinity, leisure and stress. Ironically, it is these masculine expectations that often added additional stress into the men’s lives. Participants often felt pressure to exemplify masculine norms, and perceived difficulties and failures to do so were often brought substantial increases in stress. In fact, stress was seen as a byproduct of success. Since there was an expectation that a “masculine” man would be successful in his exploits, stress was something that a man should experience. However, a man should also be successful in coping or “dealing” with the stress that he does experience. Leisure activities that were perceived as gender appropriate were often used as the preferred method to escape. Better understandings of how college aged men use leisure to negotiate the positive and negative aspects of stress and masculinity expectations may help practitioners and educators devise strategies and programs that could help better negotiate the challenges of university education.

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Selected References


EXPLORING OLDER MEN’S SOCIAL LIVES & WELL-BEING WITHIN A COFFEE GROUP
Katherine Broughton, University of Illinois
Laura Payne, University of Illinois

Introduction

Older adults will consist of 20% of the population in 2030 doubling the number from 2000 (www.aoa.gov, 2011). In 2010 women who reached the age of 65 had a life expectancy of 84.9 whereas men had a life expectancy of 82.2(ibid) and today men are living longer, narrowing the life expectancy gap between men and women. With a longer life expectancy and being a large portion of the population, older adults will have a major effect on society and it will be important for them to age successfully. Leisure and social support are important factors that assist in the process of successful, healthy aging. Leisure time allows people to participate in freely chosen and meaningful activities and can be an important resource for health and wellness (Iso-Ahola & Mannell, 2004; Mannell, 2007). As men grow older they often transition from work to a more leisurely lifestyle, often changing or taking away a significant network of social interaction and social support (Der Ananian & Janke, 2010). However, very little research has focused on older men’s leisure, and specifically their social lives. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to understand how participation in a men’s coffee group affected their socio-emotional health and well-being and to determine if this group was a form of social support for the men. The objectives were: 1) Discover how (e.g., via social support, companionship, social interaction) participating in this group shaped their health and well-being; 2) Discover explanations as to why the men continued to belong to such a group; and 3) Examine the relationships among group members and determine if social support is received.

Methods

The epistemological framework used was phenomenology (Bloor & Wood, 2006). This framework was used to understand and interpret the meanings people receive from life experiences. The study took place over a 6 month period at two locations in a medium-sized Midwestern city: a local senior center and a local fast food restaurant. The first two months were spent observing and participating in the group then individual interviews were conducted in conjunction with participating and observing the coffee hour group. Each group met for approximately 90 minutes, Monday through Friday at the designated location. The inclusion criterion for this study was defined as men over the age of 60 in attendance at the coffee hour. Fourteen men were interviewed ranging in age from 63-93.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted using a responsive interviewing paradigm (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Interviews were structured to best fit each individual and gave a voice to an under researched segment of the population. Research questions focused on how this group affects their health and well-being and their relationships in the group (e.g., Describe your relationships? How has being a part of coffee hour affected your life?). Interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) was used to analyze the data. This approach allowed a better understanding of how individuals perceive the situations they face and what it is like in their personal and social world (Smith & Osborn, 2008). All interviews were transcribed verbatim, pseudonyms assigned and completed detailed field notes from participant observations were analyzed. Transcripts were reviewed one case at a time and significant or interesting passages were noted in the margins. Anything of importance including similarities, differences and contradictions was noted. Then the transcripts were reviewed again and emerging themes were
written down. Once the themes were identified, the interviews were examined to match actual text to themes to gather quotes. Field notes were also used to support themes that emerged from both interviews and observations. To help reduce the threat to validity at the end of every interview the men’s answers were repeated back and they were asked if that is what they wanted to say. Transcripts were also reviewed and coded by another researcher and then shared their findings, discussed the similarities and differences in analysis and compared emerging themes.

**Results**

Two major themes emerged from the data; the coffee group served as facilitator to emotional health and well-being and as facilitator to social health and well-being. Within the broader theme of emotional health and well-being, several sub-themes were also identified: 1) emotional outlet 2) engagement with life, 3) sense of belonging and, 4) fun.

The men have been attending coffee hour from 2 -20 years. The men shared that social interaction was important to why they continue to participate in the coffee group. Regarding *emotional outlet*, the men feel this group is a place where they can express their emotions and feelings, thus benefiting their emotional health. For example, Bob said, “It has probably [made my health] better, we have a good time sitting around talking and that is part of your health.” The men also thought this group was a way for them to *engage with life*, as it provided them a place to get together and helped get them out of the house and socialize. A common quote from the men was, “It gives me something to do”, and many expressed that attending coffee group motivated them to start their day, kept them connected to friends, kept them from just sitting around the house, watching television, and added structure to a relatively unstructured retired lifestyle. In addition, the men have found a group where they *feel like they belong*. According to the men, it is nice for them to have a group to belong to away from their significant others. The final sub-theme is *having fun*. The men all enjoyed their time during the coffee hour, including laughing, joking and having a good time with their buddies. According to Kevin, “It is a place where you can come and really have fun.”

As a component of the larger theme social health and well-being, the men in this study expressed meaningful levels and types (i.e., emotional, informational, instrumental, appraisal) of social support exchanged while participating in the men’s coffee groups. The men were asked if their coffee group participants would be there for them if a loved one were to fall ill or pass away. There was an overwhelming response of “yes” and “of course they would, just like I would for them.” One example of *emotional support* was if someone was feeling ill or has been at the hospital, the men supported each other. According to Rob, “Recently I had an injury and was in the hospital here in town; most people here came over to see me and I was only there for two weeks.” Another type of social support identified is *informational support*, since these men, share advice and ideas about everything. They provide information to each other to assist with fishing, places to eat, athletics and politics. The men often brought in newspapers or emails to discuss various topics with each other. *Instrumental support* was shown through stories the men told. There were several situations when someone would often help out each other by providing material aid or tangible support. There was also *appraisal support* within these groups, these men really enjoyed being a part of a group and gave them something to do. For Donald, “It means I'm established and solid in the group and in the area”.

**Discussion**

These findings begin to fill the gap in our understanding of older men’s social lives and how participation in a men’s coffee group affects emotional and social health. This group provides the men with a meaningful and effective way to engage in life, thus positively affecting their health
and well-being. The coffee groups served as one strategy these men used to maintain involvement in social relationships and connect to the larger community. Considering the numerous emotional and social benefits they described from their participation, it appears participating in a coffee group contributes to successful aging according to Rowe & Kahn’s (1998) criteria.

A common theme with the coffee hour men is that they strengthened their relationships with each other. This is consistent with research, where leisure also assists with maintaining social relationships. Nahpriet and Ghoshal (1998) asserted that it is important for the maintenance of social relationships to strengthen them through interaction, because sometimes they will fizzle if not maintained. The men described their relationships as friends and these friendships are very important in the health and well-being of older adults.

While much aging research in the past 15 years has focused on physical activity and cognitive function, it is important to acknowledge the important role of social activity in promoting emotional and social wellness among older adults (Glass et al., 1999; Holt-Lundstad, Smith & Layton, 2010), particularly among men. Despite the fact that Cheang’s (2002) study found no social support was exchanged among coffee group participants, the men in this study expressed meaningful levels and types of social support exchanged while participating in the men’s coffee groups. Studying older men’s social lives is also important because later life is associated with numerous transitions such as retirement, onset of chronic disease which limits mobility, loss of spouses and loved ones, and loss of friends due to retirement related migration. All of these factors can negatively affect older men’s ability to engage in social leisure and can lead to increases in loneliness, which has been connected with poor health outcomes such as increased blood pressure and increased risk of mortality (Hawkley, Thisted, Masi, & Cacioppo, 2010; Holt-Lundstad et al., 2010). For example, in a 5-year longitudinal study, Hawkley et al. (2010) found that higher levels of loneliness were associated with greater increases in systolic blood pressure, independent of health conditions, cardiovascular risk factors, medications, depressive symptoms, and stress. Therefore, as Ory and colleagues (Ory, Yuma, Wade, Kaunas, & Bramson, 2008) asserted, social health and specifically social activity, should be discussed in medical visits between primary care physicians and older adults.

There were a few limitations that should be addressed. The sample consisted of white retired men and because this study took place at only two locations in the Midwest, the results are not transferable to other older men in different coffee groups across the country. These findings could be applied to other retired men in this Midwest town. The beliefs, values and culture make these older men unique and the findings are specific to this group of older men. The major contribution to the literature of this study is that these older men who participate in these coffee groups experience a variety of social support, are meaningfully engaged in social relationships in the community, and their involvement in this group facilitates their health and well-being. This cohort of the population is growing in size and men are living longer and more studies need to be done on older men’s social lives and there need to be more opportunities for older men to socialize casually. As shown in this study, participating in a coffee group is beneficial to their health and well-being. Other leisure agencies should consider different programming to facilitate casual interaction with older adults. Perhaps other local businesses or fast food restaurants could encourage groups to meet at their establishments.

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References


AN EXAMINATION OF BULLYING THAT OCCURS DURING LEISURE
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Bullying, as a threat to children’s well-being, has caused widespread public concern because it has a significant impact on healthy youth development. A recent study on bullying in the United States indicates that in the last 2 months 20.8% of children (whether they bully others, are being bullied, or both) report that they have been involved in physical bullying (hitting, fighting, locking a person in a room), 53.6% have been involved in direct verbal bullying (name-calling, taunting), 51.4% are involved in indirect relational bullying (such as rumors spreading when the person is not around), and 13.6% have indicated that they were involved in cyber bullying (through both computer and cell phone use) (Wang et al., 2009). These findings have led to continued research into the bullying behaviors of youth and have also prompted an examination into how children cope with being bullied.

Concerns with bullying among youth and the characteristics and reasons why bullying occurs have been examined previously (Eslea & Smith, 2000; Fekkes et al., 2005; Papanikolaou et al., 2011; Tenenbaum, Varjas, Meyers, & Parris, 2011). However, much of this research focuses on bullying that happens in schools (Eslea & Smith, 2000; Fekkes et al., 2005; Papanikolaou et al., 2011) and little research focuses on leisure settings specifically. Although, this previous research has noted that bullying typically occurs in leisure-like settings such as afterschool, during lunch, and while children are at recess and not under direct adult supervision (Tenenbaum et al.). Thus, it seems necessary to examine bullying that occurs during leisure-time activities such as structured afterschool programs and recreational sport activities.

In addition to bringing awareness to when bullying occurs, it is important to be aware of parents’ and children’s attitudes about bullying. Children’s and parents’ attitudes towards bullying can influence how they may cope with this occurrence. Children and parents alike tend to sympathize with victims of bullying and also feel that those who bully should be punished (Eslea & Smith, 2000; Fekkes et al., 2005). Furthermore, when children are bullied, some tend to cope with the situation in a variety of ways including avoiding the situation or ignoring the actions of others. Yet other children may choose to approach the bully by actively addressing the situation and the behavior of the other child (Roth & Cohen, 1986; Tenenbaum et al., 2011). This is known as the approach-avoidance coping strategy theory.

The approach-avoidance theory has been used to explain how people respond to trauma or stress in their lives (Roth & Cohen, 1986). Previous research indicates that a child’s personality may play a role in determining how they make respond to a particular type of stress; however, some children may alter their response to a particular stress over time which impacts their ability to cope and overcome the stress or trauma in the future. An approach response to a traumatic experience such as bullying is most beneficial to a child’s ability to overcome any fear or distress that may result from the experience because it allows a child to confront the trauma in a way that enables them to overcome fear of another person. It does not encourage physical violence or fighting back but rather positive recognition of the fear. Avoidance may lead to on-going worry and fear that the traumatic event may occur again because children choose to ignore the individual or activity that they associate with a certain trauma. These coping strategies are particularly important to the examination of bullying and the recognition that some children result to serious self-injury that stems from repressed trauma-related fear or worry including bullying (Tenenbaum et al., 2011).
The approach-avoidance theory was used a framework for this study to better understand how both children and parents cope with bullying. This framework was also used to better understand how bullying is conceptualized among parents and youth. This study attempts to help recreation and leisure professionals address these issues and make them aware of the need to provide services that address the concerns of various community members.

This study also attempts to fill a gap in our understanding of bullying by examining the prevalence of bullying during leisure time utilizing the approach-avoidance theoretical framework. Such an approach could help leisure and recreation professionals better understand how children and parents perceive bullying and the types of leisure and recreation settings that may be more likely to have occurrences of bullying. Thus, purpose of the study was to better understand bullying behaviors that occurred during recreation and leisure settings and to examine the strategies used by youth and parents to address bullying situations.

Methods

Children participating in at least one leisure program (i.e., structured afterschool programs and youth sports) offered by local leisure agencies and their parents or guardians were asked to participate in this study. For subject recruitment, a letter inviting youth and their families to participate in the study was distributed by leaders and supervisors at the agencies. An informed consent form was attached to the letter, asking the parents to return the consent form to the agency if they agreed to be interviewed or to have their child participate. After contacting the initial participants that returned signed consent forms, we utilized of snowball sampling to reach out to other potential participants.

The participants in this study included 7 White children and 2 Black children who were between the ages of 8 and 16. Three of the children were boys and six were girls. Additionally, one parent of each of the children participated in the interviews. In all, 2 Black parents and 7 White parents were interviewed. The parents who included 8 mothers and 1 father were between the ages 30 and 45. Additionally, most parents indicated that they had completed high school and some had attended a few years of college. Only two parents had completed college. With the exception of one parent who indicated a higher income level, all the parents noted that their annual household income was less than $30,000. All of the participants lived in a small northeastern rural community.

The interviews with both parents and children lasted approximately 30 minutes and were conducted individually; meaning that parents and children were interviewed separately in private conference rooms at the local library. All interviews were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim. The authors read through the transcriptions to identify themes and major trends. The methods suggested by Huberman and Miles (1998) were used as a guide to code the transcripts. The first author chose two transcripts and developed an initial codebook. Next, the second author coded all the transcripts, adding, merging, and refining the themes that emerged from the data. The interviews and codes were then reviewed by a graduate assistant who provided an additional verification check on the data (Creswell, 2007). The authors met to reach agreement on all codes.

Results and Conclusion

Three major themes emerged from the data: Conceptualizing bullying, strategies for coping with bullying, and leisure-related bullying. Parents and children seemed to conceptualize bullying in similar ways and described it as on-going behavior that included teasing, name-calling, or physical interactions such fighting or spitting on other children. Additionally, they described bullies to be people who were considered popular, dressed in clothes that were thought to be name-brands, and those who were athletic or regularly participated in sporting activities.
Typically, both parents and children felt that bullying occurred because children noticed differences in one another including being overweight, being too small or too tall compared to others in their grade or peer group, and also because children did not appear to have money or be talented at sports.

Parents and children had differing opinions when it came to strategies for coping with bullying. Many parents encouraged avoidance behaviors because they felt that if their child ignored the behaviors, it would stop. This encouragement to ignore comments or altercations with bullies is similar to the avoidance coping strategy. However, it is important to note that the children found this strategy to be ineffective in helping them cope with the trauma. Additionally, it is necessary to note that children often mirror their parents’ attitudes and behaviors especially as it relates to bullying (Eslea & Smith, 2000; Fekkes et al., 2005) and may use this strategy for obedience reasons rather than their experiences with its effectiveness. Children tended to combine both avoidance and approach-oriented suggestions related to dealing with bullying including walking away, suggesting the creation of a buddy system that required youth to befriend a bully, and also encouraging them to express their feelings through writing and drawing. Children also felt that communication with one another could help them to actively solve bullying-related problems and expressed a desire to develop these skills.

Leisure-related bullying was the third theme that emerged from the data. Both parents and children felt that bullying was more likely to happen when adults were not present and most indicated that it occurred during recess or during afterschool activities. Parents who felt that their child has little experience with bullying also mentioned that their child did not regularly participate in leisure activities with other children. Many of these children preferred to play video games, read, or write stories. An avoidance coping strategy has been linked to preventing children from participating in activities they enjoy and from interacting with others (Roth & Cohen, 1986). While this does not entirely explain why a child might prefer solitary and sedentary leisure activities, it may have some impact on these behaviors. Additionally, when the children were asked about past leisure experiences, many mentioned their active leisure participation and how they had stopped participating for various reasons including money concerns within the family and moving to a new school. They also mentioned times where they were bullied when trying to rejoin these active recreation activities such as basketball or soccer and were reluctant to continue because they felt they were bullied for not remembering some of the rules or were no longer as talented as their peers.

Implications

One implication of this study is that the avoidance strategy to cope with bullying that is often encouraged by parents and potentially other adults that interact with children could be restricting children’s ability to properly cope and overcome the experience. Additionally, if avoidance is encouraged, children may be reluctant to address any concerns about bullying with parents or leaders because they have been told to ignore the situation. By continuing to encourage avoidance as the ideal coping strategy, parents and others who interact with youth, including leisure and recreation professionals, may be encouraging the continuation of fear of various activities and restrict the children’s interactions in leisure activities they prefer (Roth & Cohen, 1986). Essentially, this may empower the fear and discourage participation in various leisure activities that may otherwise be beneficial to a child’s well-being.

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LEISURE, STRESS, AND AUTONOMIC NERVOUS SYSTEM AMONG OLDER ADULTS
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The autonomic nervous system (ANS) is the part of the peripheral nervous system that acts as a control system functioning largely below the level of consciousness. Most autonomous functions are involuntary but a number of ANS actions can work alongside some degree of conscious control. Everyday examples include breathing, swallowing, and sexual arousal, and in some cases functions such as heart rate.

Age leads to autonomic nervous system dysfunction among older adults. Because the dysfunction can result in a variety of diseases such as chronic renal failure, congestive heart failure, and diabetes mellitus, it is crucial for older adults to maintain ANS functions in order to reduce the risk of various diseases.

A rapid decline in ANS functions among older adults is often attributed to lacks of physical exercise and healthy lifestyle. However, studies indicate that stress has a stronger effect on ANS functions than do lacks of physical exercise and healthier lifestyle (Lee, 1997). Therefore, it is important that older adults effectively cope with stress.

Based on self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985), Weinstein and Ryan (2011) proposed that autonomy, competence, and social support can enable one to reduce stress levels. Autonomy refers to free choice and initiative in one’s activities. Competence corresponds to one’s capacity to deal with the activities in which one participates. Relatedness pertains to one’s connectedness with others. They further indicated that autonomy can facilitate a fuller processing of emotions related to stressful events over time. Autonomy enables one to decrease stress by promoting better emotional health. Competence can also result in positive emotions that prevent incursion of stress. Social support enables one to decrease stress by emotion-focused comfort and/or aid to solve problems.

Leisure-based studies show that leisure activities, in contrast to necessary tasks such as daily routines and obligatory work, provide participants with more opportunities to exercise autonomy and contribute to their sense of competence (Caldwell, 2005; Trenberth, 2005). Participation in leisure activities can also serve as an effective avenue for participants to develop larger networks of friends who become leisure companions, thus helping them receive and perceive more social support (Chalip, Thomas, & Voyle, 1992). From the above, a combination of the findings from SDT-related and leisure-based studies implies that promoting the leisure autonomy, leisure competence, and leisure social support of older adults may be a more accessible manner to decrease their stress.

Craike and Coleman (2005) showed that leisure autonomy significantly moderated the negative effects of life stress on psychological health among older adults. Sasidharan, Payne, Orsega-Smith, and Godbey (2006) confirmed that leisure social support significantly
contributed to stress reduction among older adults. However, an empirical study of the relationship between leisure competence and stress is lacking.

This study not only examined the relationship between leisure competence and stress, but it also determined whether leisure competence indirectly contributed to ANS functions through stress reduction.

**Method**

Potential participants were derived from a pool of participants in Chang’s (2012a) large sample study. There were two eligibility criteria for participants: (1) aged 65 years and older and (2) were free from mental health issues including dementia and previous suicide attempts. Health issues were evaluated by accessing family reports. The assistants visited older adults’ homes and asked them to participate in the study. Six hundred older adults were willing to participate in the study. They were aged 65-92, with a mean age of 76.55 years (SD = 7.00). There were 407 women (67.8%) and 193 men (32.2%). Among these, 171 (28.5%) were illiterate, 311 (51.9%) were primary school graduates, 61 (10.2%) were high school graduates, and 48 (8.0%) had a university degree or above (9 missing data). In addition, 13 (2.2%) were unmarried, 32 (5.4%) were divorced, 299 (49.8%) were widowed, and 243 (40.5%) were married (with a spouse) (13 missing data).

Leisure competence was measured using Chang’s (2012b) leisure competence scale. The scale contains six items related to older adults’ perceived effectiveness of their ability to participate in leisure activities. Here are two examples of the items: (1) I feel competent when participating in leisure activities and (2) Leisure is what I am best at. The participants were asked to rate the degree to which they agreed with each of the items on a 5-point scale, from 0 (*not at all*) to 4 (*completely*). Stress and ANS functions were measured using SA-3000P (Medi-core ® Korea) which was widely used in stress and ANS studies (Choi, Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2005; Im, Kim, Kim, & Choi, 2010). After the participants rested for 30 minutes, electrocardiography recording was done for about 5 minutes with the participants sitting and was then analyzed by SA-3000P. Stress was also analyzed. When participants’ stress scores are more than 50, they have stress. ANS functions were assessed by standard deviation of N-N interval (SDNN), the square root of the mean squared differences of successive N-N intervals (RMSSD), low frequency (LF), and high frequency (HF). When an SDNN value is less than 30 or an RMSSD value is less than 20, one suffers from autonomic nervous system dysfunction. When an LF/HF ratio is less than 0.5 or more than 2, one’s autonomic nervous system is dysfunctional.

A regression analysis was conducted to examine whether leisure competence was significantly negatively related to stress and whether stress was significantly negatively related to ANS functions (SDNN and RMSSD). A logistic regression analysis was conducted to examine whether stress was significantly negatively related to ANS functions (LF/HF ratio, 0 = 0.5-2 ratio, 1 = less than 0.5 ratio or more than 2 ratio).
Results

The participants’ average scores of leisure competence, stress, SDNN, and RMSSD were 11.83 (SD = 4.58), 166.01 (SD = 257.75), 32.64 (SD = 35.11), and 29.36 (SD = 29.55), respectively. Only 47.8% of the participants \( (n = 287) \) had a 0.5-2 LF/HF ratio. The results of the regression analysis indicated that (1) leisure competence was significantly negatively related to stress \( (\beta = -0.28, p < 0.01) \) and (2) stress was significantly negatively related to indicators of ANS functions including SDNN \( (\beta = -0.32, p < 0.01) \), RMSSD \( (\beta = -0.37, p < 0.01) \), and LF/HF ratio \( (\text{odds} = 1.09) \).

Discussion

Not surprisingly, this study confirmed that leisure competence was significantly negatively related to stress among the participants. The result is consistent with self-determination theory which posits that competence can enable people to decrease stress (Weinstein & Ryan, 2011). The study also showed that stress was significantly negatively related to ANS functions. The result is similar to Lee’s (1997) findings. It seems that leisure competence indirectly contributes to ANS functions through stress reduction. Therefore, it is important for older adults to promote leisure competence in order to maintain their ANS functions.

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In November 2011, former PSU football Defensive Coordinator Jerry Sandusky was accused of sexually abusing 10 boys over the course of 15 years; some of the instances having allegedly taken place in the PSU football facilities. In the days following Sandusky’s arrest, news that upper level administrators including the President, Vice-Presidents, and Joe Paterno, the long admired and beloved Head Coach of the PSU football team, had been aware of Sandusky’s behavior for years and had conspired to cover it up, rocked the sports world. Paterno and Sandusky as a coaching team had led the PSU football program in several decades of highly successful seasons. News that Sandusky had committed such atrocities, and that Paterno might have been an accomplice in covering them up, was mind-blowing to fans of the team. Popular public opinion among non-Penn Staters contended that the idolization and power afforded PSU football by the university and community made anyone who identified with the team appear as accessories to the crimes. In the weeks and months following the arrest, the “Penn Stater” identity was widely vilified, thus making it a threatened social identity. This study is an examination of the ways in which adults who identify as Penn Staters used online social media (OSM) to connect with others, exchange and seek information, and cope with the breaking news of the Sandusky Scandal (SS).

OSM in Leisure Research

Kaplan & Haenlein (2010) defined OSM as internet-based software programs that facilitate communication between individuals, communities, and corporations and allow for the creation and exchange of “user-generated content” (p. 61). Use of sites such as Twitter and Facebook has risen exponentially in the United States as a means of exchanging information, sharing interests, developing friends, recreation, and social support (Ridings & Gefen, 2004). In her LRS George Butler Lecture address, Nimrod (2011) contended that research exploring use of the internet, and in this case OSM specifically, is widely understudied among leisure researchers, yielding a rich field for research that could inform leisure behavior in the 21st Century.

Traditionally, users of OSM are thought to be teens and emerging adults, however data have indicated that the most frequent users in the United States are between the ages of 35-54 (Ignite, 2011). Furthermore, despite concerns that use of the internet and OSM sites as a means to communicate can lead to isolation and a “disconnect” from others, recent research suggests that it in fact helps to develop a shared community, and can reduce loneliness and depression among users (Nimrod, 2010). Overall however, there has been little research conducted exploring how people use OSM and how it affects them personally.

Theoretical Framework: Threatened Social Identity

According to Tajfel and Turner (1979) a social identity links a person’s self-concept with associations with a social group. The theory posits that being tied to a social group improves well-being, sense of belonging, and goal accomplishment. The effects and manifestation of social identities have been explored in regard to race, gender, and nationality, but fewer studies have been conducted exploring “chosen” identities such as religions, fandoms, community organizations, and alma maters (Yssledyk, Matheson, & Anisman, 2010). Seeking and choosing an identity with a group is rooted in shared beliefs and principles toward the goal of being part of...
an in-group. However, when a social group is devalued or marginalized by outsiders, it results in a threatened social identity (Major & O’Brien, 2005) and degree of association becomes particularly salient. “High identifiers” express solidarity and commitment to the group, while “low identifiers” are more likely to disassociate from the group as a means of saving their personal identity (Hutchison, Jetten, Christian, & Haycraft, 2006; Jetten, Postmes, & McAuliffe, 2002).

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to explore how adults who identified as Penn Staters used OSM in the wake of the SS to cope with a threatened social identity. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were employed for this study. Quantitative data was used to explore the differences in the use of OSM between high Penn Stater identifiers and low Penn Stater identifiers. Further analyses were conducted to determine if degree of identification and use of OSM were influenced by demographic characteristics. Qualitative data was used to discover specific details and further understand how OSM may or may not have served as a coping tool for Penn Staters.

**Methods**

Participants were recruited via personal and PSU alumni Facebook pages, and provided with a link to a self-administered questionnaire on Survey Monkey. In addition to demographic data, the instrument assessed social identity by combining scales measuring identification as a Penn Stater ($\alpha=.94$) and place attachment to PSU ($\alpha=.94$). The instrument also included a coping scale assessing the degree that respondents used OSM to cope ($\alpha=.94$), or avoided OSM to cope ($\alpha=.78$). The last question on the survey was an open ended question to understand how participants used OSM as news of the SS unfolded.

A total of 133 people completed the survey, but only 101 completed the scales used in this analysis in full, and 92 provided written responses to the open-ended question. Quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS. Linear regression was used to assess whether the degree of identity as a Penn Stater was related to use of OSM to cope with news of the SS. For the qualitative component, researchers independently conducted topic coding to search for key words in the context of the responses, which were then placed in common categories. Following the initial topic coding and categorization, the researchers compared categories for inter-rater reliability and finalized the themes. Respondents included representation from 25 states, 71% were female, the mean age was 40, and the group was highly educated with nearly 40% having an undergraduate degree. Many respondents were affiliated with PSU because they had received their undergraduate degree there (61%) but 5% had no affiliation. Overall, respondents were high identifiers, with a mean of 4.1 out of a 5-point scale.

**Results**

Results of the linear regression indicated that highly identified Penn Staters were likely to use OSM to cope with news of the SS ($\beta=.36$, $p=.001$). However, results also indicated that highly identified Penn Staters were also apt to stop using OSM ($\beta=.24$, $p=.03$).

The qualitative data provided greater insight into Penn Staters use of OSM. Researchers identified three overarching themes that served to describe the role that OSM played for respondents during the SS: (1) information sharing (staying up-to-date on news/new information, access to varied perspectives, and educating others), (2) connection/social support (connection to Penn State/State College and connection to like-minded others/the greater PSU community), and (3) negative experiences (OSM avoidance).

**Discussion**
The findings indicated that there were a multitude of roles that OSM sites played for adults during the unfolding of the SS, both positive and negative. Although many of the respondents indicated that they used OSM sites to stay informed, the results suggest the influence and role of OSM sites is much more complex. Individuals used OSM sites as a support system to help them process the information received regarding the SS and cope with their emotions and threat to their social identity. The quantitative and qualitative components of this study found that people who identified as Penn Staters used OSM to cope with the SS, but also signed off of OSM sites to get away from the negative portrayals of PSU and those who supported them. Although the quantitative data yielded some interesting statistical tests to establish the degree of identification and correlate it with use of OSM, the qualitative data provided greater insight into the use and value of OSM to the respondents. For example, the significance in the relationship between those who identify highly as Penn Staters and use of OSM, as well as the getting off of OSM, suggests that there might be some greater influence at work. Among the qualitative themes was one that suggested people used OSM to connect with others because they lived far away. This finding suggests that there might be a relationship between proximity to PSU and the community where the fallout to the SS itself (e.g., arrests, suspensions, etc.) was taking place, and use of OSM to stay informed and connected.

The fact that the sample was generally made up of high identifiers may be an indication of a limitation in the data collection technique. According to previous research, low identifiers would have disassociated themselves from PSU (Hutchison, Jetten, Christian, & Haycraft, 2006; Jetten, Postmes, & McAuliffe, 2002) and would have offered an interesting dimension to this study. By sending a link out on Facebook for people to voluntarily participate limited the sample to self-selected individuals; many of whom likely had not disassociated from the Penn Stater identity. Naturally, those who had disassociated would have been unlikely to take the time to complete a questionnaire on this topic. Because of this, inferences regarding the relationship between degree of identification as a Penn Stater and coping response to threatened social identity cannot be made for this current study.

The results of this study are an interesting foray into the populations’ use of OSM as a coping tool in the case of a threatened social identity. Among other things, these data support previous research that has contended that computers and the internet can serve as a valuable tool for people to connect, share ideas, and exchange information (Nimrod, 2010; Ridings & Gefen, 2004). OSM has had a major influence on how we communicate and it is unlikely that it will go away. Therefore, developing a better understanding of how people use it, and how it affects development and communication, is an important contribution to understanding human behavior. The SS and the experiences of Penn Staters is but one example of ways people may use OSM in their leisure.

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ATMOSPHERIC CUES OF RELIGIOUS TOURISM: A CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND IMPLICATIONS

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Introduction

The ways and extent of tourism development in religious sites have been controversial and multi-criteria issues in both academic and practical fields (Henderson, 2010; Li, 2011; Zhang, 2008). One of the key points is the designing and managing of the tourism commercial atmosphere and environment in these religious sites. Tourists’ behavior and emotion are influenced by the environment in the whole process of tourist activities (Moore, 1995; Zhang, 2004). Religious scenic environment and atmosphere have a profound impact on the behavior of visitors. The special atmosphere and environment in scared place, “communitas”, encourage visitors to develop good behavior (Turner, 1969). The colours, shapes, textures, and other physical qualities of the landscape, include the spiritualized environment through which the ‘pilgrim’ passed, and the place itself combined spiritual search with physical journey (Konstantinos, 2008). Besides, due to different motivation and behavior pattern between secular tourists and pilgrims (Cohen, 1998), a balance need to reach in satisfying the need of visitors in environment and atmosphere designing. Thus, the main focus of religious site managers should be on creating and maintaining both an atmosphere conducive for worship and contemplation and enhancing the aesthetic quality of the site to improve religious experiences (Bremer, 2004). First, there should be an emphasis on “welcome,” where visitors felt comfortable entering the site and were not intimidated by the environment or the people who run the site (Olsen & Timothy, 2006). Yet, compared to the analysis of characteristics and travel patterns of religious tourists, environment-behavior researches in religious sites have received scant attention (Bitner, 1992). Thus, to consolidate the knowledge gained in this area and to encourage additional research, this study focuses on the atmospheric cues of religious sites and further explores the relationships between atmospheric cues, emotional response and perceived value, which have been identified as three major antecedents based on the preliminary research on Environmental psychology (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). A better understanding of these relationships provides managers in sacred places with religious visitors’ need on atmospheric cues and perceived value, and adjusts their services to meet visitors’ needs. According to the assumptions of the SOR paradigm and various studies on the atmospheric cues, the hypothesizes are as follows:

H1. The emotional response will mediate the relationship between atmospheric cues and perceived value.

H2. The atmospheric cues of religious sites will affect their perceived value directly.

H3. The relationship among atmospheric cues, emotional responses and perceived value of religious tourists will vary by their degree of religious belief.

Methods

A self-administrated questionnaire survey was conducted to collect empirical data from religious tourists in Putuo Mountain, a Buddhist attraction in Zhejiang, China. The questions in the questionnaire were designed based on a review of the literature and specific characteristics of religious tourism. The survey questionnaire was first reviewed by an expert panel consisting of professors, community leaders, and business owners, and then pilots were tested to ensure
content validity and clarity. The questionnaire was pre-tested and revised to ensure content validity. The questionnaire consisted of five parts.

Part 1 of the questionnaire dealt with the measurement of atmospheric variables with 17 items. Part 2 dealt with the measurement of emotional responses with 10 items. Part 3 dealt with perceived value measurement with 5 items. Part 4 dealt with the measurement of religious belief and precepts with 2 items. Finally, Part 5 reported respondent information with 6 items including age, gender, marital status, occupations, monthly income, past religious tourism experience and travel characters. Apart from respondent information measured by a categorical scale, all items of the first four parts were measured by a 7-point Likert-type scale from ‘strongly disagree (=1)’ to ‘strongly agree (=7)’.

The questionnaire survey was conducted at four major cultural heritage sites in Putuo Mountain during November and December, 2011. Due to limited time and manpower, a convenience sampling method was adopted. Visitors who finished their visitation at a religious site were asked their willingness to take part in the questionnaire survey. Given a yes answer, they were then asked to complete the questionnaire. A total of 600 questionnaires were distributed and 542 usable responses were obtained after removing incomplete samples, yielding a response rate of 90.3%.

In the respondents’ profile, 54.7% were female visitors and about 45.1% were aged between 25 and 35, while 33% respondents were single and around 72% held a university degree. The respondents, who were students or business people, account for 50% of the sample, and 78% of the sample had a monthly income less than ¥ 6,000.

A Four-step procedure was used in this study for the scale development. First, atmospheric cues, emotional responses and perceived value attributes were examined by using Cronbach reliability as a preliminary data analysis. Second, delineating underlying factors of atmospheric cues, emotional responses and perceived value attributes were identified by using an exploratory factor analysis and validated by using a confirmatory factor analysis. Third, the analysis was conducted by estimating a path model to assess how atmospheric cues could influence perceived value of tourists through emotional responses. Based on the literature review, the model had four exogenous construct (i.e. the exterior, the interior, layout & design, and human factors), two mediating variables (i.e. positive response, negative response) and one endogenous constructs (i.e. perceived value) (Figure 1). All of the CFA and path analysis procedures were conducted by using maximum likelihood parameter estimates and appropriate correlation matrix with AMOS 20.0.

Findings

H1. Does emotional response mediate the relationship between atmospheric cues and perceived value?

Positive responses of religious tourists were not significantly mediating the relationship between atmospheric cues and perceived value. While negative responses of the tourists played a mediating role between atmospheric cues and perceived value.

Results confirmed that atmospheric cues affect religious tourists’ Negative responses. No such association, however, was found between atmospheric cues and positive responses.

H2. Are the atmospheric cues religious tourists perceive related with their perceived value?

The interior cues were not significantly related to the perceived value of tourists. Rather, the other three cues (the exterior, layout & design, and human factors) reported higher levels of association with perceived value.
H3. Do the atmospheric cues religious tourists perceive their emotional responses and perceived value differ with the degrees of religious belief of tourists?

First, atmospheric cues were significantly associated with tourists with lower religious belief, but there was no such association among tourist with high religious belief. Second, the higher level the tourists’ religious belief was, the higher the value they perceived.

Details about the parameter estimates for the model could be seen in figure 1.

Discussion

The results of the study show that the atmosphere cues do affect the tourists’ perceived value. The exterior, layout & design, and human factors are directly associated with tourists’ perceived value, while the interior cues affect perceived value of tourists through negative responses. Tourists of higher religious belief value higher of the religion scenic than those of lower belief, this could be explained from the prosocial behavior theory. As religion could improve the respondents’ prosocial behavior and positive emotion (Saroglou, 2005; Shariff, 2007), they are more inclined to value high of the tourism attractions. Since it seems that atmosphere cues of the religion tourism spot affect the tourists’ perceived value through their emotional responses, it is important to not only provide proper service atmosphere from the exterior, interior, layout & design, and human aspects, but also to pay attention to tourists’ emotional response. To that effect, increasing the exterior facilities like transportation service instructions; maintaining hygiene of the religious tourism spot; providing suitable layout & design for the religion theme; expanding service training to employees of religious tourist attractions. The difference responses on the atmospheric cues between pilgrims and tourists needs to be further investigated in future studies.

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Since the publication of Louv’s (2005) *Last Child in the Woods*, significant public attention has been given to the perceived lack of youth’s time spent outside. If youth are spending less time outdoors, as anecdotal evidence suggests, this trend has significant implications. Research findings suggest multiple benefits arise when youth spend time outdoors including: increased physical activity (Cleland et al., 2008), lower levels of attention deficit disorder, (Taylor & Kuo, 2009) and reduced stress (Wells & Evans, 2003). While the health implications of declines in youth’s outdoor time is important, there are also significant concerns about the educational and environmental consequences. If young people are not spending time outdoors, some have argued they will not develop curiosity about the natural world and therefore may be less likely to seek education and careers in natural sciences and have less interest in environmental stewardship (Kahn & Kellert, 2002). This perceived crisis has produced an increased demand for investment in policy, education, and management practices directed towards getting youth outdoors. Although a multitude of both public and private sector initiatives exist, a scarcity of youth generated time-use data is available to guide these efforts.

While multiple youth time use studies exist (e.g., Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1986; Larson, Green, & Cordell, 2011; Larson & Verma, 1999), a diversity of approaches makes it difficult to develop consensus around specific time use patterns. For example, experience sampling methodology (ESM) has been employed with youth (Csikszentmihalyi & Hunter, 2003; Csikszentmihalyi, Larson, & Prescott, 1977). Though some concern exists regarding whether or not an ESM approach can lead to self-selection bias or even alter the phenomenon under consideration due to its potentially intrusive nature (Green, Rafaeli, Bolger, Shrout, & Reis, 2006). Additionally, drawing a random selection of samples across multiple days may make it difficult to make conclusions about actual time spent in different activities or activity duration fluctuations over time (Reis & Gable, 2000). One of the largest and most recent time use studies that also focused specifically on time outside employed a telephone recall methodology (Larson et al., 2011). While this methodology represents a pragmatic approach to collect a large amount of data within a comparatively short period of time, conclusive evidence for strong, positive correlations between recall reports and actual time spent remain lacking. Physical activity research has started to combine accelerometry and global positioning systems that offer promise for objective measures of time use. However, limitations remain with lost data, signal interruption, and the need to triangulate data with other time use methods (Southward et al., 2012). A potentially more practical approach to collecting robust time use data involves the use of time diaries. Diaries most often require respondents to provide detailed evidence about what they do each hour of the day over a certain number of days. Some studies will collect time diary data for one or two days, usually choosing one weekday and one weekend day (Hofferth & Sandberg, 2001), while some suggest more days are required to collect enough data to account for daily activity fluctuations (Witkow, 2009).

Thus a quandary exists. On the one hand, a pressing need exists for accurate data documenting youth time spent outside to inform the development of policy and practice. On the
other, time use data requires significant time and financial resources to collect and consensus is lacking regarding the most efficacious data collection strategy for use with youth. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to pilot test a 7-day time diary to document adolescent outdoor time and compare the results of this method with other real and simulated time use data collection methodologies with a sample of urban, suburban, and rural youth. The overarching goal of this study was to determine the most efficient method for accurately understanding the amount of time youth spend outside.

Methods

The population for the study was comprised of 7th grade students in three middle schools in Texas. Schools were sampled using a stratified approach to ensure that one middle school was included from each of the three community types (i.e., urban, suburban, and rural) designated by the National Center for Educational Statistics. One class at each of the schools agreed to participate in the study. Participants were asked to complete paper and pencil time diaries to document all activity (e.g., primary and secondary activities, duration, location, and others present) for seven consecutive days (Robinson & Godbey, 1999). Due to differential school calendars, each of the schools participated on three consecutive weeks, with data collection beginning on Monday and ending on Sunday. It should also be noted that the weather in all three communities was partly cloudy with no precipitation during the data collection timeframe. A face-to-face presentation was designed and delivered in each of the classrooms to assist participants in the process of accurately completing their time diaries each day. Participants were also asked to complete an online 24-hour recall survey once during the week to document their time in minutes during the previous day in predetermined categories derived from the adolescent time use literature (e.g., Larson & Richards, 1989; Timmer, Eccles, & O'Brien, 1985).

Following completion of time diaries, data were entered verbatim into a computer spreadsheet. Duration in each activity was calculated in minutes based on the entered start and end times. Following a standard methodology of content analysis (Ryan & Bernard, 2003), two independent researchers reviewed entries for each activity and assigned tentative categorical codes and definitions. After completing initial analysis, the two researchers met and reached consensus on activity codes. Based on previous studies, codes were further categorized into broader activities. Diagnostics of the 7-day time diary were analyzed to determine whether participants were able to fully record time during each day or whether the quality of data declined over the course of the week. The primary variable examined for this study was time spent outside. The results of data collected with the 7-day time diaries were then compared to the results of the online recall survey, a simulated 2-day time diary (i.e., taking one weekday and one weekend day from the 7-day time diary data), and a simulated ESM (i.e., six activities per day per participant were randomly selected from the time diaries). Following Schmitz et al. (2004), descriptive statistics, paired t-tests, and Pearson correlations were examined to determine the relationship between results across the different methods.

Results

A total of 43 participants returned time diaries at the end of their assigned week. The mean total time recorded, based upon codable data, was 9,293.6 minutes (SD 1,862.9) or 92.2% of the maximum recordable time of 10,080 minutes. Overall, 34 participants recorded at least 98% of their minutes across the week and 39 participants competed all seven days. One participant’s time diary was incomplete for all days. No correlation was found between percentage of complete data and time across the week ($r = -.055, p = .351$).
Based on the results of the full 7-day time diary, participants in our sample spent a mean of 695.1 minutes outdoors during the week (S.D. = 473.8), a daily average of 99.3 minutes. A statistically significant difference was found between daily time outdoors recorded in the 7-day time diary (mean = 99.5, SD = 67.68) and outdoor time reported in the recall survey (mean = 66.4, S.D. = 73.5) (t = 2.42, p = 0.20). Additionally, there was not a significant correlation (r = .259, p = .107) between estimates from the 7-day time diary and the recall survey. More agreement was found between estimates between the 7-day time diary and the simulated 2-day time diary and ESM. When using Saturday as the one weekend day, the 2-day time diary method overestimated outdoor time while the use of Sunday underestimated outdoor time. The combination of Tuesday and Saturday (mean = 764.5, SD = 621.8) demonstrated the closest relationship with results from the 7-day time diary (r = .895, t = -1.57, p = .124). The combination of Monday/Sunday had demonstrated the lowest levels of relationship (r = .728) although the combination of Wednesday/Sunday (mean = 553.7, SD = 423.9) produced the greatest mean difference in estimated weekly outdoor time (t = 2.87, p = .006). The simulated ESM also produced results (mean = 825.6, SD = 618.4) that were not significantly different from those reported in the 7-day time diary (t = -.992, p = .328). However, the relationship between individual-level results between the time diary and ESM method were not as strong (r = .610).

**Discussion**

The need to accurately assess youth time outside is important to support policy and practice development that has often relied on inconsistent and often anecdotal methods. This study presents one step in the right direction to exploring the effectiveness of different methods to document adolescent time outside. The results of our comparison of multiple methods to record and estimate youth time use suggested that time diaries, ESM, or similar methods of recording daily activities may be more valid approaches to assessing time outdoors than recall surveys. While recall surveys remain a popular way of collecting data from large samples in a short amount of time, the accuracy of recall data has been questioned (Witkow, 2009). Our results support that assessment.

Overall, simulated 2-day time diaries performed well in comparison to the 7-day time diary. The ability to collect two days of data may be more appealing for both participants and researchers. However, it is important to understand the validity of the data may be reliant on choosing the right two days to represent “typical” days. We also found that, despite suggestions to the contrary (e.g., Reis & Gable, 2000), it may be possible to extrapolate ESM to estimate weekly time outdoors. Using a simulated ESM, the overall mean of outdoor time was comparably equivalent to the results of the 7-day time diary, even with an overestimation of 18 minutes/day. However, the lower correlation found between time diary and ESM observations suggested that a large sample of participants across several days might be needed to effectively use ESM in this way.

As electronic technology becomes more accessible in the future, we expect the development and utilization of applications for electronic devices and other means will enhance our ability to document youth time outside. Our assessment was the 7-day time diary method might currently provide the most accurate data on adolescent time outside. However, the 2-day diary and ESM, both of which have the potential to be less time intensive for participants and researchers, may be sufficiently comparable to suggest their use when a 7-day time diary is not feasible.

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Female body image dissatisfaction is a topic that has received much attention from researchers for over 40 years. Body image dissatisfaction occurs when a perceived discrepancy exists between an individual’s current body and the ideal figure they strive to emulate (Furnham, Badmin, & Sneade, 2002). The consequences of body image dissatisfaction are far-reaching. A negative body image often plays a part in individuals’ development of eating disorders such as anorexia and bulimia, restrained eating, depression, and low self-esteem (Paquette & Raine, 2004; Field et al., 1999). Research has largely focused on the catalysts for body image dissatisfaction and has identified the important function sociocultural pressures and the media play in establishing and perpetuating a thin “ideal” body shape that is unachievable for most women (Cusumano & Thompson, 1997; Furnham, Badmin, & Sneade, 2002). Recent research has begun to identify the ways in which physical activity may be beneficial in building more positive body image beliefs among females (Abbott & Barber, 2011). While research indicates differences in how well varying types of physical activity impact female’s body image, the results indicate generally that any participation in physical activity leads to a more positive body image than non-participation (Abbott & Barber, 2011).

College is a particularly critical time for females in the development of identity and self-worth, particularly as it applies to physical appearance (Crocker & Wolfe, 2001). As compared with domains such as academics, athletics, and popularity, Harter (1986) concluded that self-evaluation of one’s physical appearance is the strongest predictor of global self-esteem. For female college students, this focus on physical appearance tends to concentrate on weight gain and weight fluctuation (LaCaille, Dauner, Krambeer, & Pederson, 2011). Despite the potentially positive link between physical activity participation and positive body image, many college students note hurdles to participation in physical activity. These include physical (e.g., tiring, difficult), structural (e.g., no time, heavy academic schedules), and competence (e.g., lacking necessary skills) constraints (Grubbs & Carter, 2002; Tsai & Coleman, 2009; LaCaille, Dauner, Krambeer, & Pederson, 2011).

As such, identifying interventions that can help college women build more positive body image beliefs can provide a valuable addition to the growing body of literature working to identify links between physical activity participation and more positive body image beliefs. Formal leisure education courses may be one form of intervention that can also help college students overcome constraints to participation in physical activity. Leisure education courses are for-credit classes for which students register and receive grades just like academic courses. Taught by experienced instructors, leisure education courses provide students with an environment in which they are held accountable for their attendance while also being taught the skills and techniques needed to participate safely and effectively in the activity. Instruction is focused on providing students with the foundation for meaningful lifelong leisure participation. This structure creates an environment that addresses the most common constraints (e.g., physical, structural, competence) to college student physical activity participation identified in previous research. The purpose of this study was to explore how participation in leisure education courses may impact females’ body image beliefs.
The leisure education program examined in the study was created to serve the educational, recreational, and personal development needs of students through the teaching of leisure and life skill activities. The program offers more than 140 one-credit courses each semester serving approximately 2,500 undergraduate students. Nine class sections representing seven unique course offerings were chosen from courses focused on varying forms of physical activity including dance, fitness, and sports. The Body-Esteem Scale for Adolescents and Adults developed by Mendelson, Mendelson, and White (2001) was used in data collection. The scale is a 23 item 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Never” to “Always” measuring global body esteem and includes three subscales: appearance (general feelings about appearance), weight (weight satisfaction), and attribution (others' evaluations about one's body and appearance). Exploratory Factor Analysis conducted by Mendelson, Mendelson, and White (2001) confirmed the three subscales as well as the scales' internal consistency and test-retest reliability. A researcher visited each class within the first three weeks of the semester to explain the protocol for the study and administer the initial questionnaire. A researcher re-visited each class during the final three weeks of the semester to re-administer the questionnaire. Upon completion of the second questionnaire, students were asked to volunteer to participate in follow-up interviews aimed at better understanding their experiences, within the context of their physical experience and body image, in their leisure education course. The interviews were semi-structured and required approximately 30-40 minutes for completion. Instructors were also interviewed at this time to better understand how they had structured their courses to, directly or indirectly, address body image. Researchers completed nine student interviews and six instructor interviews.

Prior to analysis, the data were screened for statistical outliers with five cases being deleted due to their contribution to normalized multivariate kurtosis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Next, the missing data points were analyzed at which time it was confirmed that the missing data were Missing Completely at Random, so the data could be imputed using Expectation Maximization (Kline, 2005). This imputation resulted in 174 complete sets of data. Next, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was completed using EQS 6.1 to confirm the scale and dimensions. Following confirmation of the scale, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used to identify any statistically significant differences that existed in the pre- and post-class body esteem scores of the participants. To analyze the qualitative interview data, three independent researchers using constant comparison analyzed the transcribed student and instructor interviews independently. The data were first organized into sub-themes common among the interviews. These sub-themes were then compared for inter-rater reliability and subsequently grouped into overarching themes. The results of the quantitative and qualitative data collection were then merged to formulate the results of the study.

The results of the CFA confirmed the three dimensions (appearance, weight, attribution) of the scale. For measurements occasions 1 and 2, the CFI (.908, .910) and the RMSEA (.080, .080) were both at acceptable levels of fit (Kline, 2005). The results of the mean comparison using SEM indicated that students who participated in Leisure Skills courses showed statistically significant improvement in global body esteem ($\Delta M = .044, p<.05$). The three sub-dimensions (appearance, weight, attribution) were also analyzed for significant change. Both the Appearance and Weight dimensions were found to have a statistically significant increase ($\Delta M = .052, p<.05$; $\Delta M = .081, p<.05$). The qualitative analysis identified three themes from the student and instructor interviews: focus on the individual, physical improvement, and physical activity outside of class. Within the first theme, instructors consistently identified their focus on each individual in their class. For instance, the Pilates instructor emphasizes to her class that they “all come in...with...
different backgrounds [and] they don’t have to keep up with whoever is next to them.” Students mirrored this focus. One student noted her instructors “individual focus” while another recounted her Yoga instructor’s directions that all students should “listen to [his or her] own body” and to focus on themselves rather than comparing their abilities to others in the class. Students and instructors also indicated actual physical improvement. Students indicated feeling more “toned”, “sporty”, and “healthy” because of their participation in their leisure education course. Instructors also highlighted this physical change in their students. The Power/Ashtanga Yoga instructor noted seeing “major shifts” in the physical abilities of her students: “they come in weak. The shifts from beginning to end are amazing.” Similarly, the running/jogging instructor discussed students who at the beginning of the semester cannot “breathe going up the hill…[are] able to continue going [and] feel really good.” Finally, students and instructors describe an increase in outside of class physical activity. A running/jogging student discussed that she and other students in the class had begun running together throughout the week. Instructors also acknowledged promoting continued out-of-class participation. The belly dance instructor instructs her students to “keep dancing…even if just for your fish in the living room” while students from the Power/Ashtanga Yoga class arrived thirty minutes prior to class, during our interview with the instructor, to practice poses.

There have been recent calls by researchers to identify student interventions that may be effective in building positive body image beliefs in college students (Lowery et al., 2005). The purpose of this study was to explore how participation in leisure education courses may impact females’ body image beliefs. The results of this study indicate that a structured, for-credit leisure education course may be efficacious in improving the body image beliefs of college-aged females (Abbott & Barber, 2011; Burgess, Grogan, & Burwitz, 2006). The overall change in the appearance dimension indicates that these courses may be associated with a general change in students’ feelings about their appearance. That is, the courses may help students foster a more positive, general feeling about their appearance. Students and instructors discussed an acute focus on one’s self and one’s own body and abilities in the class. For females, the literature suggests that much of what leads to body image dissatisfaction is a constant comparison to an idealized, unattainable image (Cusumano & Thompson, 1997). As such, by teaching and helping students focus on their bodies and individual abilities, they may have begun to feel better about themselves. The significant change in the weight dimension was also supported by students’ testimonies of feeling healthier and in better shape. These are direct indications that their participation in their respective course may have improved not only their feelings about their body, but also their body shape. Finally, students noted an increased participation in physical activity outside of class time due to their participation in their leisure education course. The literature is clear that individuals who participate in physical activity tend to have a more positive body image than those who do not (Abbott & Barber, 2011). Based on this, by participating in their physically active leisure education course and additional physical activity outside of class, students are engaging in the necessary activity levels that research indicates can improve females’ body image beliefs. Leisure education courses are positioned, due to the focus on lifelong leisure pursuits, to encourage student participation and persistence in physical activity. This study provides empirical support for the role that such courses can play on campus, specifically in improving the body esteem beliefs of female college students.

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LATINOS’ ENVIRONMENTAL ATTITUDES AND RECREATION PARTICIPATION IN URBAN NATURAL ENVIRONMENTS
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By 2050, the non-Hispanic White population is expected to be a minority in the United States, with the Latino population being the second largest group in the country (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). In regards to recreation, an increase in the migration of Latinos to a community may present challenges to recreation service providers who are not accustomed to meeting the needs of this growing population. The race and ethnicity leisure research has shed some light on Latinos’ recreational needs indicating that Latinos are more likely to recreate in large groups with their families (Dunn, Kasul, & Brown, 2002), participate in passive pastimes (Cronan, Shinew, & Stodolska, 2008; Hutchinson, 1987), and enjoy developed recreational areas (Bass, Ewert, & Chavez, 1993). A number of scholars have also stressed the need to account for the heterogeneity among Latino populations and addressed how acculturation affects their leisure choices and participation patterns in natural environments (Carr & Williams, 1993; Floyd & Gramann, 1993; Johnson, Bowker, & Cordell, 2004). A separate but interrelated body of literature has examined environmental attitudes and behaviors among Latinos and established that Latinos tend to show more pro-environmental attitudes than mainstream Americans (Lynch, 1983; Noe & Snow, 1990) and that their environmental attitudes and behaviors evolve with acculturation levels (Schultz, Unipan, & Gamba, 2000). The attempts to connect the research lines on environmental attitudes and behaviors and recreation participation among minority populations are infrequent and so far are focused mostly on Asian Americans (Deng, Walker, & Swinnerton, 2006). Therefore, the objectives of the present study were to examine the following: 1) differences in environmental attitudes and behaviors, access to natural environments, and recreation participation among Latinos residing in two urban communities in Chicago, IL; 2) effects of acculturation on Latinos’ environmental attitudes and behaviors and recreation participation; and 3) influence of access to natural environments on recreation participation.

Methods
Data were collected with the use of a questionnaire survey distributed to 392 residents of two predominantly Latino Chicago communities with varying access to natural environments. Little Village (pop. 79,288) has access to only two parks, one of which was rarely utilized by Latino residents due to it being considered a “Black park.” Conversely, East Side (pop. 23,042) has extensive access to outdoor environments, including two parks located on the shores of Lake Michigan. Each of the neighborhoods was divided into a grid with numbered plots in order to ensure a spatially uniform distribution of surveys. Surveys were distributed door-to-door by trained survey workers. The questionnaire survey had seven major sections, including sections regarding respondents’ level of acculturation (a 12-item Bidimensional Acculturation Scale for Hispanics; Marin and Gamba, 1996), level of access to urban natural environments, recreation participation patterns, environmental attitudes (a modified 15-item NEP scale by Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig, and Jones, 2000), and environmental behaviors (a modified 9-item scale based on the research of Schultz et al., 2000 and others). For the purpose of this study, we defined urban natural environments as city parks, trails, outdoor playing fields, forest preserves, and other public green spaces. In East Side, more males (59.8%) than females (40.2%) participated in the study, while in Little Village the sample was well-balanced (50% vs. 50%). Respondents from
Little Village were characterized by lower levels of education and income as compared to respondents from East Side. The majority (75.1%) of East Side Latinos were born in the U.S. with 15.5% being born in Mexico, whereas only a quarter (24.6%) of respondents from Little Village were born in the U.S., with 66.2% being born in Mexico. The analyses of data included ANOVAs and Chi-square tests to determine differences in environment attitudes and behaviors and recreation participation patterns. OLS regression was performed to examine the relationships between the study’s key variables.

**Findings**

**Differences between Communities**

*Differences in environmental attitudes and behaviors.* The present study found significant differences in pro-environmental attitudes \((F = 595.20, p<.01)\) among Latinos residing in the two different communities. Little Village residents displayed higher pro-environmental attitudes than did East Side residents \((M = 53.68 \text{ vs. } M = 34.23)\). However, there were no statistically significant differences between neighborhoods in terms of pro-environmental behaviors \((M = 1.91 \text{ for Little Village and } M = 1.96 \text{ for East Side})\).

*Differences in access to natural environments.* The community of Little Village has less access to natural environments than does East Side. Nonetheless, respondents from Little Village attached a higher level of importance to natural areas than did their East Side counterparts \((F=13.38, \text{ d.f.}=1, p<.01)\). For example, 66.3% of Little Village respondents indicated that natural areas are “very important” to them compared to 50.8% of East Side respondents. Moreover, slightly more than 7% of East Side respondents rated natural areas as “not important” compared to 0.5% of Little Village respondents.

*Differences in recreation participation.* ANOVA results indicated there were statistically significant differences in recreation participation between neighborhoods. Latinos residing in Little Village participated more frequently in the sedentary activities, such as sitting/resting/relaxing \((F = 14.08; p<.01)\) and sightseeing/hanging out \((F = 10.5; p<.01)\), and the moderate exertion level physical activity of walking \((F = 4.7; p<.05)\) whereas East Side Latino residents participated more frequently in the moderate or vigorous level physical activities, such as football \((F = 10.1; p<.01)\) and lake swimming \((F = 20.8; p<.01)\), as well as in activities more often associated with outdoor recreation, including boating/canoeing/kayaking \((F = 48.6; p<.01)\), hiking \((F = 6.3; p<.05)\), camping \((F = 28.5; p<.01)\), fishing \((F = 57.1; p<.01)\), hunting \((F = 7.2; p<.01)\), ATV riding \((F = 16.8; p<.01)\), and motorcycling \((F = 23.4; p<.01)\).

**The Effects of Acculturation on Pro-Environmental Attitudes and Behaviors**

Level of acculturation was an important predictor of Latino’s pro-environmental attitudes. Latinos with low acculturation levels had stronger pro-environmental attitudes than highly acculturated individuals \((p<.01)\) and bicultural individuals \((p<.05)\). More affluent individuals \((p<.01)\) also had better pro-environmental attitudes. The level of acculturation had no effect on their engagement in pro-environmental behaviors, but more affluent \((p<.05)\) respondents were more likely to display more pro-environmental behaviors.

**The Effects of Acculturation on Recreation Participation Patterns**

Level of acculturation was an important predictor of participation in passive activities such as sitting/resting/relaxing \((p<.01)\) and talking/socializing \((p<.01)\). Participation in these activities was lower among bicultural individuals than among individuals with low acculturation levels. Acculturation was an important predictor of participation in physical activities such as walking. Participation in walking was lower among highly acculturated individuals \((p<.01)\) and bicultural individuals \((p<.01)\) than among those with low acculturation levels. Acculturation was
a significant predictor of participation in appreciative activities such as camping. Participation in camping \((p<.05)\) was higher among highly acculturated individuals than among people with low acculturation levels. Acculturation was not a significant predictor of participation in active pastimes such as soccer, biking, jogging/running and lake swimming.

**The Effects of Access to Natural Environments on Recreation Participation Patterns**

The level of access to natural environments positively affected Latino’s participation levels in physical activities such as biking \((p<.05)\), football \((p<.10)\), golf \((p<.05)\), and lake swimming \((p<.01)\). The level of access to natural environments positively affected Latino’s participation in appreciative activities such as camping \((p<.01)\) and boating/canoeing/kayaking \((p<.01)\) as well as consumptive and motorized/abusive activities such as fishing \((p<.05)\), ATV-riding \((p<.01)\), and motorcycling \((p<.01)\). Latino’s access to natural environments was not a significant predictor of their participation in walking, soccer, basketball, baseball, tennis, pool swimming, roller skating, and volleyball.

**Summary and Discussion**

This study examined the roles of acculturation and level of access to urban natural environments on Latinos’ environmental attitudes and behaviors and on their recreation participation patterns. The study involved two distinct Latino communities in Chicago. Interestingly, despite having less access to natural environments, Little Village respondents reported stronger pro-environmental attitudes and greater appreciation for the natural environment than did East Side respondents. This may have been due to the high number of Mexican immigrants in the Little Village sample pool, who may have been influenced by the fairly recent Green Movement that took place in Mexico during the 1980s through the late 1990s before migrating to the United States (Diez, 2008). Additionally, although the agricultural-based economy in Mexico has declined in recent year, subsistence farming and relying on natural resources for survival played an important role in Mexico’s history (De Janvry, Dutilly, Muñoz-Piña, & Sadoulet, 2001). East Side residents were also more likely to be involved in outdoor activities. Thus, the level of access to natural environments seemed to impact the activities that Little Village and East Side residents participated in on a regular basis. Additionally, level of acculturation was an important predictor of passive, physical and appreciative activities indicating that acculturation level is an important variable in understanding the Latinos’ leisure activity patterns. Although acculturation was not an important predictor of environmental behaviors, more affluent individuals displayed more pro-environmental behaviors than less affluent individuals. Current research suggests that Latinos do not engage in pro-environmental behaviors unless financial rewards are present (McCabe & Corona, 2011). More research is needed to corroborate this line of research. Overall, the study findings help demonstrate the heterogeneity among the Latino population, which is relevant to both researchers studying this growing population as well as practitioners who are attempting to serve their recreational needs. It is critical that we stop viewing Latinos as one large subgroup that seeks the same types of recreational opportunities and examine such variables as residential neighborhood, access to resources, acculturation level, and environmental attitudes and behaviors.

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THE ROLE(S) OF RECREATION IN CREATING AN (UN)WELCOMING COMMUNITY
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This research unites the fields of immigration, recreation, and urban planning by engaging African Canadian newcomer youth in a participatory dialogue about their new surroundings. Its purpose is to (1) understand and appreciate how newcomer youth “read” the urban landscape(s) within their adopted community, and (2) assess the role(s) of recreation in advancing a “welcoming community”. In doing so, the project forwards an inclusive, community based model of recreation planning.

Literature Review

Planning practice is aimed at conformity and imposing order on places rather than shifting toward more emancipatory understandings of place that privilege diversity, difference, and heterogeneity (Goonewardena et al., 2004). Accordingly, planners have traditionally operated under a model of formal equality (Milroy, 2004) or what Burayidi (2003) described as “the assumption of sameness” (p. 259). Under the premise of rationality, planners serve the public good by treating everyone identically, and so planning practice necessarily concentrates on resource distribution (Milroy, 2004). Of course, a more critical appraisal of the planning profession suggests distribution decisions are “biased towards the white upper and middle classes, and towards business and propertied interests, rather than the public (even an imagined homogenous public)” (Rahder & Milgrom, 2004, p. 33), thereby exacerbating inequities within multicultural contexts. Notwithstanding this critique, planners have traditionally worked closely with aggregated data to determine allocation decisions, therein making the erroneous assumption their decisions reflect common values among groups. Difference, under this approach, is perceived as a “deviation from the norm”. As North American cities become increasingly diverse, however, scholars have called upon the planning profession to recognize “social, cultural, and ethnic differences from the perspective of the various communities involved and . . . develop new skills, not for managing diverse communities, but for learning and working with these communities to achieve a diversity of human possibilities – making space for difference” (Rahder & Milgrom, 2004, p. 29). This study takes up this challenge.

Regrettably, when it comes to land-use planning, host cultures often impose representations on newcomers. Where newcomers are consulted using traditional planning methods, planners sometimes assume they can reproduce newcomer needs and values and make the transfer to practice without loss of content (Goonewardena et al., 2004). To the planning profession’s credit, this crisis of representation has spawned an emerging field of multicultural planning practice (MPP) aimed at “anticipating and responding sensitively and creatively to complex differences of standpoint, background, race and gender, cultural and political history” (Forester, 2000, p. 147). Despite strong support to address diversity in planning, however, Burayidi (2003) argued planning techniques are “designed to address multicultural problems after they arise not before they occur” (p. 270). In short, planners need proactive approaches.

Using proactive planning techniques sensitive to a multicultural audience is crucial if North American cities are to establish themselves as “welcoming communities.” The attraction and retention of newcomers is of increasing interest to local policymakers as birth rates drop and future labour shortages loom with the imminent retirement of the “baby boom” generation. Only proactive cities stand to succeed in their recruitment attempts. “Sustainable immigrant settlement
is more likely to succeed,” argued Wulff et al. (2008, p. 123), “if it is community driven and entails a long-term and broad-based model of incorporating immigrants into communities as community builders and stakeholders.” In other words, full integration and inclusion depends upon the extent to which newcomers are engaged in the planning process as “community builders.” How can planners enable newcomers to be community builders in their adopted cities?

As Florida (2002) pointed out, leisure amenities attract people to move to certain areas, evidently more so than job prospects. His analysis, however, focused exclusively on what he described as the “creative class”, a group of adults with careers within “science and technology, arts, media, and culture, traditional knowledge workers, and the professions” (Florida, p. vii). Irrespective of whether leisure attracts all immigrants, irrespective of the “class” to which they belong, questions remain about the role recreation plays in creating a welcoming community, that is, one that is inviting and makes newcomers feel safe and at home. Does recreation ease transition into a new community or worsen it? Does it connect newcomers to others or isolate them? Moreover, what roles does it play for youth who are often lost in such discussions?

Methods

To advance the goals of this project, the principal investigator worked in collaboration with the African Canadian Association of Waterloo Region, in Waterloo, Canada, to create a newcomer youth leadership program designed to develop in youth participants effective leadership and critical analytic skills. In this sense, the research objectives of this project were embedded into a user-friendly format for participants. Participants engaged in a variety of activities designed to encourage a critical “reading” of the urban landscape, including drama activities, photography/videography, and mental map making. These activities intentionally encouraged the youth to discuss their homelands and the features of their homelands they valued, the desirable and undesirable places they saw in their new community, and what would make their new community a more welcoming place for newcomers. The program ended with a civic discovery forum, a citizen-centred assembly hosted by the youth to share their ideas with invited guests from the broader community, including city staff, elected officials, and family. The forum was meant to foster dialogue among all attendees and encourage social learning, the sharing of knowledge between individuals through interaction in an environment where new opportunities and spaces of possibility could be explored.

Data sources for the project included transcripts of conversations with participants about the products of their work in the program, including maps, performances, and commentaries. Taken together, these sources told a story of each participant’s settlement experience. Thus, analysis involved piecing together historical accounts of participants’ settlement experiences and determining the role(s) the urban landscape played in making them feel welcome or unwelcome. Results of this analysis were intended to guide the development of newcomer-friendly policies in Waterloo Region, the location of the project.

Results

Findings from this project fall under three themes: (1) dislocation & isolation, (2) restriction, and (3) disconnection. The first, dislocation & isolation, refers to the sense of detachment participants felt in being separated from their homelands and activities native to the places they had come from. The places and activities they enjoyed in their home country were often unavailable, significantly different, or in some cases spurned in their new community. As such, participants spoke to their sense of “being away from home”, a common feeling that
implied their new community was not a home to them yet. The contrast between their leisure behavior in their homeland versus their new community exacerbated this feeling. In Vamba’s words, “For me, in my country, at night you see everybody just get together playing all kinds of games, right? We had these games called hide and seek. We had everybody come around and beat drums and dance, and we just play all kinds of games. But now, coming to this here, we don’t have much of that. All you do at night is go to sleep. Got to school, come home, watch TV, got to school, home, TV, sleep”. This pattern of behavior led to an increasing sense of isolation.

The second theme, restriction, youth participants discussed the cultural and spatial restrictions imposed on their leisure. That is, they expressed not being allowed to engage in certain activities in certain places, being made to feel scared about engaging in certain activities, and being constrained by their gender and race. For example, Sita explained, “Here, they make you scared of going into the forest by yourself. Like, in Africa, you can go to the forest by yourself. Like, here they make it sound like someone is going to kidnap you. Somebody is going to kill you.” Meanwhile, Kiteh explained she didn’t play soccer because “girls don’t play soccer”. Most of the participants noted soft forms of discrimination because of the colour of their skin and language difficulties. These and other restrictions constrained their participation.

The third theme, (dis)connection, was discussed in terms of the feeling participants expressed about recreation activities and spaces in forming social ties. Abdi discussed his sense of disconnection when he described his avoidance of a park where other youth played because he was scared of the dogs people brought to the park. In his country, dogs roamed freely and often threatened people’s safety. Other youth discussed how certain activities, like soccer, helped them meet people and make friends. Mohammad, for example, explained how he made the high school soccer team and felt welcomed into the community almost immediately, despite his language struggles. Most, however, discussed the challenge of making genuine friendships with domestic youth, therein underscoring the difficulties associated with engaging in leisure with others outside of their ethnic group.

Discussion & Conclusions

Interpersonal, intrapersonal, and structural constraints to leisure all loomed large in the settlement stories the youth told, but they also suggested leisure does not always effectively facilitate a newcomer’s transition into a new community. In some cases, it makes matters worse. Recreation activities and spaces did prove positive if participants could overcome constraints, but often they remained significant impediments to meaningful settlement. Accordingly, this study provides support for the marginality thesis that minority recreation is “frustrated” by discriminating and hegemonic factors largely beyond the control of minority groups (Washburne, 1978). Moreover, it finds support for Putnam’s (2007) constrict theory, the notion that ethnic diversity can reduce in-group and out-group trust. In Putnam’s words, participants “hunkered down”, choosing not to “engage” meaningfully within their new community. There was also strong evidence of the absence of bridging social capital (Putnam, 2000) insofar as the newcomer youth failed to connect with and accessing resources from domestic youth. All told, these results underscore the need for planners, recreation and otherwise, to engage newcomers and identify ways recreation can be used to make a community more welcoming.

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References


This study sought to test Driver’s Typology of Leisure Benefits (TLB) (2008) consisting of three outcome-based sub-areas: (a) a change to a more desirable condition than a preexisting condition (improvement benefits/IMPV), (b) the continuance of a desired condition to prevent an undesired condition (prevention benefits/PREV), and (c) the realization of a psychological experience (psychological benefits, intrinsic value/PSYC). While Driver’s TLB has existed for years, little empirical research exists on the measurement of the typology in the recreation literature. The purpose of this paper was to empirically test Driver’s TLB, represented by the Benefits of Recreation Scale (BRS), using recommended best practices for testing factor structure: (a) internal replication analysis, (b) external replication analysis, and (c) confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (see below). Researchers often do not assess the factor structure’s consistency across samples for generalizability, and one of the most critical concerns in psychometrics is replicability of factor structure (Osborne & Fitzpatrick, 2012). Additionally, Osborne and Fitzpatrick argued that authors should directly estimate the replicability of their EFAs, as a precursor to CFA, when the intent is to present a scale for broad usage.

Scale Development

BRS question development has been discussed at length elsewhere (Freidt, 2008; Freidt, Hill, Gómez, & Goldenberg, 2010). Freidt (2008) began with 30 items, but 14 items did not pass item reliability and validity checks (low factor loadings, cross-loadings), leaving 16 items (see Appendix for list of items, means, and SDs) used in the current study to assess factor structure.

Methods

Data were collected from the Appalachian Trail (AT) (N=430), the Pacific Crest Trail (PCT) (N=311), and First Landing State Park (FLSP) (N=300) during the summers of 2007, 2009, and 2012, respectively, via online surveys, utilizing members and visitors of clubs and associations related to the AT and PCT, and face to face interviews at FLSP. The three datasets represent users from the U.S. East Coast (AT), the U.S. West Coast (PCT), and an urban-proximate state park (FLSP). The analysis followed three general approaches. First, an EFA is performed on the AT data to assess basic issues related to validity and reliability following suggestions for analysis and reporting by Field (2009). Second, replicability analysis is conducted by performing an internal EFA replicability analysis (a single sample randomly split) on the AT data, and an external EFA replicability analysis (two independently gathered samples) between the AT and PCT data (Osborne & Fitzpatrick, 2012). Third, a CFA is performed on the FLSP data. The data were analyzed with SPSS v21 and AMOS v21. A p-value of .05 was used for statistical significance. The 16 items were assessed for factor structure, and any items that had a factor loading < .40, or cross-loaded on other factors, were deleted from the EFA (Stevens, 2002). Both eigenvalues >1 and scree testing indicated a 3-factor solution using promax rotation, and maximum likelihood estimation. Osborne (personal communication, December 5, 2012) suggested the following steps for internal replicability:

1. Split (randomly) the sample into two equal groups
2. Perform identical EFA analysis in both subsamples
3. Compare results for
   a. Overall pattern of item assignment to factor
   b. Factor statistics such as eigenvalues
   c. Item statistics such as communalities (look at range)
   d. Substantial discrepancies in magnitude of factor loadings.

Substantial discrepancies are defined as squared differences between the factor loadings (compare factor loadings in congruent factors across the two subsamples) larger than .04 (Table 1). External EFA replication analysis follows the same basic steps, except instead of splitting the same dataset; one uses two separate datasets (Table 2).

Driver’s Typology of Leisure Benefits has established sufficient information for the CFA’s conceptual framework. Also, given the successful internal and external replication of factor structure, the AT and PCT data established sufficient information for the structural framework for CFA. The BRS was subjected to a CFA on a separate dataset from FLSP (N=307). All individual-level items fell within normal distribution limits. Additionally, Amos computed a Mahalanobis distance to screen for outliers in the data. Seven outliers were removed from the database, leaving N=300 for the final CFA.

**Results**

The BRS for AT users indicated a 3-factor structure, where the items loaded correctly on the hypothesized three factors (left side of Table 2). Means and SDs were reported in previous studies and will not be reported here due to space constraints. Table 1 indicates the AT database split into two subgroups (Steps 1 and 2). PREV2 was deleted due to cross-loading. The overall pattern of item assignment was the same in both subsamples (Step 3a), indicating the same items loaded on the same three factors. Eigenvalues and communalities were approximately equal (Step 3b and 3c). There were no substantial discrepancies between the two subsamples (Step 3d, Table 1). External replicability analysis, using the PCT data, showed no significant differences between the factor structure for AT and PCT users (Table 2). Lastly, CFA modification indices showed that with the deletion of PSYC4, PREV2, and IMPV1 (redundant items), the fit of the 3-factor solution/model indicate good fitting model where $\chi^2 (51) = 169.88$, $p < .0001$; NFI=.95; TLI=.95; CFI=.97; and RMSEA=.08 (Byrne, 2010).

**Discussion**

Informed by the extant literature on leisure benefits as a theoretical foundation, we set out to conceptualize, construct, and test the Benefits of Recreation Scale for measuring improvement, prevention, and psychological benefits perceived from recreation participation. The factor analysis supported three factors for benefits – prevention, improvement, and psychological benefits, which supports the typology espoused by Driver. The factor structure was supported utilizing both internal and external EFA replicability analyses, providing support for the generalizability of the BRS scale. Use of replicability analysis in EFAs provides a “check” on the factor structure. The BRS demonstrated strong factor structure/item loadings, internal and external replicability confirmation, and a well-fitting model using CFA. The EFA and CFA results indicated the BRS has adequate psychometric properties, and the three subscales (factor structure) were cross-validated using three separate databases collected in different locations, and at different time periods. Future studies should conduct invariance analyses to assess differences between groups (e.g., gender, race/ethnic) or locations (AT, PCT, or FLSP). Because respondents in the three studies were users of the AT, PCT, and FLSP, we emphasize the need to explore non-users and their perceptions of recreation benefits.

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Table 1. Three Factor BRS Replicability Analysis, Maximum Likelihood Extraction, Promax Rotation with 25 max iterations – Random 50% Sample of Appalachian Trail (AT) Users
Table 2. Three Factor BRS Replicability Analysis, Maximum Likelihood Extraction, Promax Rotation with 25 max iterations – Appalachian Trail (AT) and Pacific Crest Trail (PCT)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>50% Sample of AT (n=215)</th>
<th>50% Sample of AT (n=215)</th>
<th>50% Sample of AT (n=215)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYC1</td>
<td>0.736</td>
<td>0.831</td>
<td>0.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYC2</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td>0.812</td>
<td>-0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYC3</td>
<td>0.490</td>
<td>0.673</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYC4</td>
<td>0.489</td>
<td>0.541</td>
<td>0.164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYC5</td>
<td>0.637</td>
<td>0.781</td>
<td>0.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYC6</td>
<td>0.671</td>
<td>0.781</td>
<td>-0.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYC7</td>
<td>0.727</td>
<td>0.807</td>
<td>0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREV1</td>
<td>0.534</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREV3</td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>0.794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREV4</td>
<td>0.816</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREV5</td>
<td>0.772</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>0.808</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPV1</td>
<td>0.931</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>0.069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPV2</td>
<td>0.822</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPV3</td>
<td>0.550</td>
<td>0.128</td>
<td>0.156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPV4</td>
<td>0.516</td>
<td>0.204</td>
<td>0.202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Var.</td>
<td>45.65</td>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>50.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach's α</td>
<td>0.945</td>
<td>0.955</td>
<td>0.955</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Edwin Gómez, Department of Human Movement Sciences, Old Dominion University, Norfolk, VA 23529-0196; (757) 683-4995; egomez@odu.edu
Selected References


Appendix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items and Subscales</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I hike because …</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Realization of a Psychological State Subscale (PSYC)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYC1. I recognize that hiking causes me to appreciate life more</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYC2. I recognize that hiking causes me to enjoy life more</td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>1.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYC3. I recognize that hiking gives me a sense of self-reliance</td>
<td>6.14</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYC4. I recognize that hiking gives me a sense of higher self-esteem</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYC5. I recognize that hiking makes me more aware of who I am</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>1.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYC6. I recognize that hiking is connected to other positive aspects of my life</td>
<td>6.20</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSYC7. I recognize that hiking causes me to be more satisfied with my life</td>
<td>5.86</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Prevention of a Condition Subscale (PREV)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREV1. I feel hiking reduces my chances of developing diabetes d</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>2.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREV2. I feel hiking reduces my chances of weight gain c</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>2.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREV3. I feel hiking reduces my chances of having a heart attack</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREV4. I feel hiking reduces my chances of premature death</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>2.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREV5. I feel hiking reduces my number of illnesses</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>2.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Improvement of a Condition Subscale (IMPV)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPV1. I feel hiking improves my overall fitness d</td>
<td>5.91</td>
<td>1.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPV2. I feel hiking improves my overall health</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPV3. I feel hiking improves muscle strength</td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>1.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPV4. I feel hiking improves my physical flexibility</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>1.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a - items on a 7-point scale from Likert-type scale where 1=never like me, 2=very much not like me, 3=moderately not like me, 4=somewhat not like me, 5= somewhat like me, 6=moderately like me, and 7=very much like me.
b - the word “hike/hiking” could be replaced by “bike/biking, walk/walking, use trails,” etc. to make the scale adaptable to specific contexts

c - cross-loaded on two or more factors, item discarded
d - CFA in Amos indicated better fit with the deletion of these items, items discarded
This study explores rock climbers’ personal networks to understand the dispersal of social capital in the climbing community. Squamish, British Columbia (Canada) is an international destination for rock climbers, has an established climbing community, and supports rock climbers with differing degrees of recreation specialization and climbing styles. Recreation is a socially significant pursuit as recreation experiences provide opportunities for socialization. It is not separate from other aspects of people’s lives – it is an intrinsic part of many different aspects of people’s lives. Through the creation of opportunities for socialization, recreation creates social capital; social capital can be considered social goods, such as information and social influence, which are produced and dissipated through social relations (Coleman, 1990). In this context, the act of socialization accesses social capital through social networks, or those sets of “relations that apply to a set of actors, as well as any additional information on those actors and relations” (Prell, 2012, p. 9). Reviews of social network analysis suggest that it is well suited to recreation studies as it permits the examination of social structure beyond typical groups, and can encompass broader, non-geographically-bounded communities of interest. Ditton, Loomis and Choi (1992) conceptualized specialization as the segmentation of social worlds (i.e., groups) into sub-worlds (i.e., smaller groups) based on degree of specialization/commitment a recreationist possesses. These authors noted that as specialization increases, so too does dependency on mediated interaction (e.g., clubs) as means of communication. Several authors (e.g., Hemmingway, 1999; Putnam, 1995; Stokowski, 1990) have noted that recreation opportunity does not exist in a vacuum: leisure and recreation play roles in socialization, the creation of weak ties (i.e., relationship with acquaintances), and the maintenance of strong ties (i.e., relationships with close friends and family). Traditional social aggregation variables (e.g., age, gender, income) do not completely explain leisure participation; recreation specialization is one way of contextualizing leisure participation among recreationists undertaking the same activity. Recreation specialization provides a basis for differentiating recreationists holding various goals, preferences, and behaviors by examining the cognitive, behavioral, and psychological components of individual recreationists.

Socio-economic characteristics influence people’s pursuit of amenity values (Inglehart, 1977), and participation in, and experiences with, outdoor recreation (Searle & Jackson, 1985; Manning, 1999). However, socio-economic characteristics do not fully explain social influences on recreation specialization (Ditto et al., 1992). Parisi, Taquino, Grice and Gill (2003) noted that social capital “can facilitate the flow of information and expertise across various stakeholder groups, and therefore it can help develop a common language among participants” (p. 99): the greater the number of different ties to diverse structural locations a person has, the greater the diversity of information that they have access to. Manning (1999) noted that people that have diverse strong and weak social ties have more diverse recreation interests; as recreation specialization increases, the number of social ties a person ought to become smaller and less diverse. I hypothesize that social capital, as a product of social networks, influences the degree of recreation specialization a person achieves, as social networks influence the type of information (i.e., the knowledge/skills necessary for advancement in rock climbing) a person has access to.

Methods
Data was collected through an intercept survey at eleven rock climbing staging areas in the summer of 2012. A criticism of the recreation specialization framework is that its application has been inconsistent in its conceptualization and measurement (Choi, Loomis & Ditton, 1994; McFarlane, 2001; Scott & Shafer, 2001;). All three specialization dimensions were examined using an adapted sixteen-item index developed by Needham, Sprouse and Grimm (2009). Confirmatory factor analysis was used to test whether the three specialization dimensions were present; Cronbach’s Alpha was employed to test the reliability of each specialization dimension; and K-means cluster analysis was used to differentiate levels of recreation specialization (Oh & Ditton, 2006). To measure the influence of structural location on recreation specialization, a social position generator (Erickson, 1996; Lin, Fu & Hsung, 2001) was used. A number of structural positions (i.e., different social classes and/or occupations) that have relatively unique relationships to rock climbing and natural resources were presented to respondents, who indicated what relationship they had with each position. Range of ties is used to measure the number of relationships that a person has to diverse social locations (Burt, 1980). A score of one was assigned to each position that had an acquaintance association; a separate score of one was assigned to each position that had either a close friend or relative association. Summative scales were constructed to indicate the range of weak and strong ties. Respondents were also asked to indicate the percentage of their friends who were rock climbers. Bivariate correlations amongst the independent variables were analyzed. Ordinal regression was used to examine the relationships between range of strong and weak ties, and the percentage of a climber’s friends who also climb and degree of recreation specialization; age and gender were controlled for.

Results

A total of 385 completed questionnaires were received between June 6 and September 19 (299 surveys were returned on-site; 86 surveys were completed on-line). Respondents’ age ranged from 18 - 79 years (M = 30.99 ± 0.92; SD = 8.999); 65% of the sample were male. Range of strong and weak ties were correlated (r = .537, p < .001); range of weak ties and percentage of friends who rock climb was correlated (r = .125, p < .05); and range of strong ties and percentage of friends who rock climb was correlated (r = .258, p < .001). Cluster analysis delineated four levels of recreation specialization: casual, intermediate, focused, and veteran climbers; there was variability among these specialization levels for most independent variables (Table 1). Casual climbers had a significantly smaller range of weak ties (Levene = 3.948, p < .05; Welsh F(3, 361) = 5.783, p < .05), and strong ties (Levene = 3.651, p < .05; Welsh F(3, 361) = 8.847, p < .001) than the other three climbing groups; focused climbers had a significantly smaller range of strong ties than veteran climbers. Casual climbers had a significantly smaller percentage of friends that were rock climbers (Levene = 3.453, p < 0.05; Welsh F(3, 359) = 22.058, p < .001) than the other three climbing groups; focused climbers had a significantly smaller percentage of friends that were rock climbers than veteran climbers did. The ordinal regression model provided modest support for the posited relationship between social networks and recreation specialization; however, this relationship is not in the expected direction (Table 2). Range of strong and weak ties did not make significant contributions to the model. However, for every increase in the percentage of a climbers friends that also climb the odds of increasing specialization decrease by 9%; for every additional year of age a climber is, the odds of increasing specialization decrease by 36%; and if a climber is male, the odds of increasing specialization increase by 59.8%.
Table 1. Descriptive statistics of dependent variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Degree of Specialization</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>95% CI</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Range of Weak Ties</td>
<td>Casual</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>6.90</td>
<td>± 1.05</td>
<td>4.765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26.00</td>
<td>9.55</td>
<td>± 1.64</td>
<td>6.942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Focused</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26.00</td>
<td>8.92</td>
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<td>Focused</td>
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<td>9.11</td>
<td>± 0.89</td>
<td>5.680</td>
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Table 2. Parameter estimates.

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Cox & Snell $R^2 = 0.072$; Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.077$; $-2$ log likelihood $= 916.444$, $\chi^2 = 27.035$, d.f. $= 5$, $p < .001$; $n = 364$.

Discussion & Conclusion

Social network theory suggests that the more diverse a person’s network, the more diverse the types of information that they are exposed to. However, this relationship is not clear in this examination of the influence of the range of strong and weak ties on recreation specialization. The range of weak ties appears to increase as climbers’ progress from casual to focused specialization levels, and then decrease for veteran climbers; this suggests a focusing of behavior in veteran climbers, as tangential relationships may not provide novel information. The range of strong ties decrease from casual to intermediate climbers, and then increase for focused and veteran climbers; this suggests that there is a reinforcement of ideas about climbing for new climbers that diminishes slightly among intermediate climbers – it is possible that intermediate climbers socially withdraw somewhat as they focus on skill development. Although range of weak and strong ties generally increases with specialization, they do not seem to play significant roles in consistently explaining increased levels of recreation specialization. It must be noted that the ties examined here are ties to rock climbing and natural resources, including management and planning positions; the investigation of broader social network positions may help to better understand the influence of social structure on recreation specialization. The next step in this study is to distinguish between the contributions of social ties to climbing-related and natural resource management structural positions to the progression of recreation specialization.

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References
Park systems across the U.S. are grappling with budget reductions, changing demographics, accessibility, declining interest in outdoor recreation activities among youth, and aging facilities. To address these and other issues the Statewide Comprehensive Outdoor Recreation Plan (SCORP) process has recently launched a newly developed perspective on relevancy. The Society of Outdoor Recreation Professionals developed a position paper that recommends, among other factors, that a SCORP plan include information on children and youth, minorities, special populations, aging, and disadvantaged groups. A review of the America’s Great Outdoors Report encouraged an emphasis within SCORPs on underserved populations, youth, and health programs (Support for the Great Outdoors America, 2009).

Contemporary approaches to survey design, methodology, and questions asked as an element of SCORP surveys have occurred in several states including California, Georgia, and Oregon. Three papers are introduced in this panel session that offer insights regarding physical activity in parks, diverse populations, youth, and aging. The California study compares 2008 and 2012 findings from the Physical Activity in a Park Setting (PA-PS) survey examining differences in physical activity levels and park usage between Latinos and non-Latino populations. In Georgia, a state confronted with a growing childhood obesity problem, the researchers utilized the System for Observing Play and Recreation in Communities (SOPARC) to investigate physical activity levels of youth among racially diverse groups. The Oregon SCORP presents an application of the study’s findings to address Oregon’s needs relating to an aging population, youth lacking outdoor skills, a diverse population, and physical activity. Key points of the studies include Latinos increased use of parks, higher levels of physical activity, and higher levels of usage of specific facilities in California; differences in the types of activity engagement among youth in Georgia by race and overall reports of active youth during visits to state parks; and application of results from the Oregon survey that include acquisition of non-motorized trails, the development of play areas that are innovative and encourage interactions with nature, a focus on funding projects that meet the needs of diverse populations by developing day-use areas, sports fields, and camping opportunities.

As issues presented in the America’s Great Outdoors Report relating to conservation, youth, stewardship, and connecting Americans to their heritage of parks and recreation continues to challenge planners and researchers, the application of contemporary findings is crucial to initiate and sustain relevancy of the SCORP process. Furthermore, surveys that continue to focus on youth, changing demographics, and activity trends are necessary to provide advocacy, methodological improvements, and an understanding of the contributions of parks and outdoor recreation to combat obesity problems, provide services for aging and diverse populations, and to recognize newly emerging recreation activity patterns, preferences, and latent demand.

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LONGITUDINAL VIEW OF PHYSICAL ACTIVITY AMONG CALIFORNIA LATINOS AND NON-LATINOS
Kelly S. Bricker, University of Utah
William W. Hendricks, California Polytechnic State University
Jerusha B. Greenwood, California Polytechnic State University
Zachary Schwing, University of Utah

The Physical Activity in the Parks Setting (PA-PS) instrument has recently garnered attention as a component of statewide comprehensive outdoor recreation plans (SCORP). Researchers and outdoor recreation planners in Pennsylvania and California utilized the PA-PS as an element of 2008 surveys in their respective states. In California, researchers have recently replicated the PA-PS survey in a 2012 survey. With these and other studies, a focus has been to understand the outdoor recreation patterns and physical activity levels of diverse groups (e.g. Greenwood, et al., 2009; Mowen, Trauntvein, Graefe, & Son, 2012; Stodolska, Shinew, & Li, 2010; Whiting, Larson, & Green, 2012). The purpose of this study was to explore longitudinally, ethnicity, physical activity, and the use of parks and open spaces in California.

Random telephone surveys were conducted in spring and summer of 2008 and 2012, resulting in 2,780 and 3,080 telephone interviews respectively. In order to reach a goal of 3,700 completed interviews in 2012, an online panel was also employed resulting in an additional 1,355 subjects. For both studies, California residents were asked to report frequency of park visits, physical activity levels, time engaged in physical activity in a park setting, use of facilities, and race/ethnicity. Based on findings from the 2008 study, we focused on patterns emerging from Latinos versus non-Latino populations in reporting results for 2012.

In 2008, Latinos spent more time in minutes engaged in moderate and vigorous activity than the rest of the sample in a given week. However, in 2012, Latinos did not differ from other ethnic or racial groups with respect to these variables. When asked about their level of activity during a typical park visit, response options ranged from “mostly sitting” to “mostly vigorous.” In 2008, Latinos did not differ significantly from other ethnic or racial groups on reported levels of PA when visiting parks. However, in 2012, Latinos differed on two levels—reporting less “moderate” activity on a typical park visit, and more “mostly vigorous” activity on a typical park visit compared to other groups. In 2008 and 2012, Latinos indicated slightly more visits (about once per week) to parks and other recreation areas than other ethnic and racial groups. With respect to facilities, in 2008, Latinos used some facilities at parks with more frequency than other groups including picnic tables and pavilions, playgrounds, and open spaces at parks. In the 2012 study, along with facilities noted in 2008, Latinos also differed significantly from other ethnic groups in their utilization of amusement areas, swimming pools, tennis or basketball courts, organized sports fields, and skate parks by reporting higher frequency use levels than the other groups.

Through longitudinal studies of ethnic groups and physical activity, the California SCORP results identify trends that may challenge previous results regarding park visitation and physical activity. Trends over 10 years indicate that Latinos use of parks for PA is increasing, as well as the diversity of types of activities compared to other ethnic groups overall.

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Georgia consistently ranks among the most obese states in the country, and childhood obesity has become a rapidly growing problem. Therefore, a primary management priority of Georgia’s 2008-2013 statewide comprehensive outdoor recreation plan (SCORP) was to promote physical activity and healthy lifestyles, especially among youth in racially diverse populations. Researchers examining obesity and potential solutions to this obesity epidemic around the U.S. have discovered positive associations between youth body weight and physical activity levels, outdoor time, and park proximity. By providing opportunities for outdoor recreation and physical activity, parks represent a promising remedy for the childhood obesity problem.

Three state parks in northern Georgia were selected based on anecdotal reports of high racial diversity among site visitors. The focal parks contained facilities and attributes (e.g., lake, beach, hiking trails, picnic areas, campgrounds) found in many state parks throughout Georgia and around the U.S. Data were collected in 2010 using intercept surveys with adult proxies (n = 1039) and observations (N = 9072) using the System for Observing Play and Recreation in Communities (SOPARC).

Surveys showed that most youth (89.2%) engaged in at least one hour of moderate or vigorous physical activity (MVPA) during state park visits (mean MVPA > 3 hours per visit). SOPARC data showed that most youth (67.3%) were active at the time of observation. Significant predictors of park-based MVPA in regression models included age, physically active days per week, and parent perceptions of health-related park use benefits. Overall, the most popular recreation activities for youth during state park visits were swimming (70.1%) and beach activities (65.0%). In beach and picnic areas, the logistic regression model predicting MVPA revealed significant effects for gender, age, race, and time of day. African American youth were more likely to be active in these areas than children of other races. At trailheads, the race effect was significant: Latino children were less likely to be observed engaged in MVPA at trailheads than other youth. Trailhead activity levels were highest in the evening. White children were most likely to be observed hiking at trailheads (69.5%). African American children were observed playing basketball (24.0%) at a higher rate than other groups; Latino and Asian/Other children were more likely to be observed using playgrounds or playing soccer.

This study found the majority of youth were active during their state park visits. In fact, MVPA during park visits exceeded the CDC’s recommended daily activity levels for children, suggesting state parks may play a vital role in providing opportunities for physical activity. State park-based physical activity differed across racially diverse groups of youth, both in terms of participation levels and recreation preferences. Results highlight the need for managers to consider the value of their parks and certain site attributes in meeting the physical activity needs of their constituents, particularly youth. Data are currently being used to inform future Georgia SCORP reports and help state park managers account for increasing diversity among younger visitors and their varying physical activity preferences.

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THE OREGON SCORP PROCESS: TARGETING CRITICAL STATEWIDE RESIDENT NEEDS
Robert C. Burns, West Virginia University
Terry Bergerson, Oregon Parks and Recreation Department

Oregon’s 2008-2012 SCORP includes a series of research projects that address emerging issues regarding park usage. This abstract describes the key results from these research projects and how they are being used in Oregon to identify projects that meet funding priority recommendations, including the following four components: A rapidly aging population, fewer youth learning outdoor skills, an increasingly diverse population, and the physical activity crisis.

A statewide survey was conducted using a random sample of Oregon residents born between 1946 and 1964 (boomers) and between 1926 and 1945 (pre-boomers). Names and addresses for the sample were drawn from Oregon Department of Motor Vehicle records. A total of 4,562 surveys were mailed with 1,219 completed surveys returned. The response rate was 31% after adjusting for undeliverable surveys. Survey results were adjusted for non-response and to fit the population characteristics based on U.S. Census and Portland State University population data. The statewide mail survey was designed to identify current outdoor recreation participation among the two sub-groups and how they expect to recreate in the coming years.

Based on the results of this analysis as well as previous literature, key recommendations include supporting close-to-home non-motorized trail development, promoting the use of trail networks by providing information about existing trails, promoting the health benefits of outdoor recreation, and identifying and targeting at-risk people and communities. A Rapidly Aging Population: According to SCORP data, walking is the top outdoor recreation activity engaged in by the boomer and pre-boomer populations. A comparison across five-year age categories within these populations shows that a variety of trail activities are in the top five activities in terms of participation intensity including walking, jogging, and bicycling. As a result, greater priority will be given for non-motorized trail acquisition and development of grant proposals. This could be one of the most cost-effective investments that the state of Oregon can make in terms of preventative efforts to stem the rising health costs predicted as a result of an aging Oregon population. Fewer Youth Learning Outdoor Skills: Parent and youth survey findings show that the state’s children are spending considerably less time than their parents did in outdoor play while not at school. Subsequently, greater priority will be given to the development of innovative natural play areas that are conducive to youngster learning about and interacting with nature targeting the 3-11 age demographic. An Increasingly Diverse Population: Hispanic and Asian-American survey respondents and focus group participants identified a desire for more picnic areas, campgrounds and sports fields. As a result, greater priority will be given to project proposals for developing group day-use, outdoor sports field, and camping and alternative camping opportunities. This investment will strategically focus resources towards appropriate facilities in specific areas of the state where most needed. The Physical Activity Crisis: Counties with higher adult physical activity rates were strongly associated with non-motorized trail use and participation in other outdoor activities. Based on these findings, priority is given to projects developing close-to-home non-motorized trail opportunities in high priority counties in the state.

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Selected References


BENEFITS OF RECREATION AT FIRST LANDING STATE PARK, VIRGINIA
Eddie Hill, Old Dominion University
Edwin Gómez, Old Dominion University

First Landing State Park (FLSP) in Virginia Beach (VB), VA is atypical among Virginia state parks because its 2,888 acres and twenty miles of trails are encapsulated by the most populated city in Virginia. Little research exists on the demographics, motivations, and interests of urban park trail users (Hill, Goldenberg, Gómez, Fellows, Freidt & Hill, 2010). The purpose of this study was to understand the benefits of FLSP trail users. The Benefits Movement arose in the 1990s from the increasing need to quantify and communicate the benefits of recreation. Research demonstrating objective, measurable benefits is needed to justify funding, advocate for and guide the development of new facilities, improve best practices for management and programming, and increase participation (Driver, 2008). Empirical evidence of benefits is also instrumental to position and promote recreation and parks as a means to address current public issues, especially those related to health and quality of life. The Benefits Movement implores recreation professionals not to assume that recreation is inherently rewarding, but instead to identify and measure the beneficial consequences (Allen & Cooper, 2003).

A benefit of leisure, as defined by Driver (2008), is an outcome that causes (a) a change resulting in a more desirable condition than the preexisting state, (b) the continuance of a desired condition in order to prevent an undesired condition from occurring, or (c) the realization of a satisfying experience with regards to recreation. The Benefits of Hiking Scale (BHS) has been used in previous research on two National Scenic Trails (Hill et al, 2010). The BHS is composed of two subscales: the Means-End Recreation Scale (M-ERS) and the Benefits of Recreation Scale (BRS) based on Driver’s typology. The purpose of the current study was to expand the use of the BRS to better understand trail users at First Landing State Park (FLSP). This research study considers (a) the factor structure of the BRS, (b) male and female differences, (c) frequency of usage, (d) residential differences, and (e) trail user types.

Method

The purpose of this study was two-fold: (a) to assess the factor structure of the newly developed 15-item BRS, and (b) to examine differences of benefits among users of FLSP trails. Data were collected in the summer of 2012 (N=307). The BRS was used to measure benefits on a 7-point scale ranging from “1”= never/not applicable to “7”= very much like me. Preventative and improved benefit factors were each measured by four items, while the psychological benefits factor was measured with seven items. Osborn and Fitzpatrick (2012) noted that replicability analysis is conducted via internal (a single sample randomly split) and external (two independently gathered samples) replication. Osborne (personal communication, December 5, 2012) suggested the following steps for external replicability:

1. Perform identical EFA analysis in two separate samples
2. Compare results for
   a. Overall pattern of item assignment to factor
   b. Factor statistics such as eigenvalues
   c. Item statistics such as communalities (look at range)
   d. Substantial discrepancies in magnitude of factor loadings.
Results

The majority (84%) of participants live in the Hampton Roads (HR) area, 50% of whom lived in Virginia Beach. The most frequent (17%) length of residency was 2-3 years. While the majority of trail users arrived by car, 15% used active transportation to get to the park. Forty percent learned of the park from friends; 12% discovered it by driving; 11% found it through internet resources. The overwhelming majority (97.3%) supports more state parks. The most popular activity was hiking/walking at 39%, followed by participants who use the trails for hiking and biking (26%), running (19%), biking (9%) and other (6%). Participants’ gender was almost evenly split with 54% male, while 80% indicated they are Caucasian. Forty percent were single, 50% married, and 5% divorced. Nearly 52% held a Bachelor’s degree or higher.

Means and SDs were reported in previous studies (Hill et al., 2010). Additionally, all KMOs and Cronbach’s alphas ranged from .85 to .92. The BRS for AT users indicated a 3-factor structure, where the items loaded on the hypothesized three factors (Table 1). Table 1 compares the AT (original BRS) to the FLSP factor structure (Step 1). PREV2 was deleted due to cross-loading (see appendix). The overall pattern of item assignment was the same in both subsamples (Step 2a), indicating the same items loaded on the same three factors. Eigenvalues and communalities were approximately equal (Step 2b and 2c). There were no substantial discrepancies between the two subsamples (Step 2d). Thus, external replicability analysis, using the FLSP data, showed no significant differences between the factor structure for AT and FLSP users. Given the rather strong factor structure and item loadings, the external replicability confirmation, these EFAs demonstrate the BRS meets reasonable and basic expectations for replicability.

T-tests and ANOVAs were performed to answer the research questions at p <.05. T-test analysis showed no significant differences between men and women in terms of overall benefits, prevention, improvement, or psychological realization of benefits. Although a weak, but significant correlation ($r = .18, p <.001$) was found between frequency of use and benefits. An ANOVA of the frequency of use (less than 1 day a week, 1 day a week, 2-3 days a week, 4 or more days a week) and benefits indicated no significant differences. Locals (VB, HR) and non-locals (non-HR) were also compared. Differences were found between VB (M=6.1) and non-HR (M=5.6) residents in terms of improved condition benefits, and between VB (M=5.7) and HR (M=5.3), in terms of realization of psychological benefits. Lastly, the “other” user type (i.e., camp, fish or visit the beach) was significantly different on all aspects of benefits (overall, improved, prevention, and psychological) when compared to the bikers, hikers, and runners.

Discussion

This study demonstrates the critical role of urban parks in providing opportunities for wellness, access to nature, and improving quality of life. Retesting the factor structure of Benefits of Recreation Scale is essential before it can be widely used. The data suggest the 15-item BRS is an effective tool to measure the three typologies of benefits. Its previous use on national scenic trails (Hill et al., 2010) was helpful, and now is recommended for use on urban trails to measure benefits attained by users.

Finding no significant difference between males and females is contrary to recent motivation research on running (Hill, Gómez, Shapiro, & Ridinger, 2012), suggesting males and females gain similar benefits from hiking. This may be valuable when promoting, advocating, and programming hiking as a beneficial recreational activity for males and females. Other research (Hill, Swain, & Hill, 2008) suggests hiking has a positive impact on health and wellness. The significant difference between Virginia Beach (VB) residents and non-Hampton Roads residents
on the improved condition factor could suggest VB residents view hiking as a more effective approach to increasing quality of life. The VB residents also scored significantly higher than other Hampton Roads (e.g., Norfolk) residents on the typology of realizing a satisfying experience factor. Virginia Beach residents by default are much closer in proximity to the park than other-HR residents; some of their higher scores could be explained by the place attachment literature (Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2003). Finally, no significant differences were found among hiker, biker, and runner user types when compared on the Benefits of Recreation Scale (BRS). However, significant differences were found on all three typologies of benefits when the user types were compared to the “other” user type. Upon further investigation, the “other” user type consisted of people who camp, fish, go to the beach, and chose less physically active recreation. This might be explained by the literature on passive versus active recreation, especially on well-being (Holder, Coleman, & Sehn, 2009) and outdoor recreation users (Tarrent, Manfredo & Driver, 1994). Seminal research on quality of life (QOL) and active versus passive recreation began in the 1970s (e.g., Flanagan, 1978), but still has challenges. The perception that passive and active recreation users may expect different outcomes, and how those outcomes impact QOL should be further investigated. This study further supports the need for local trails, especially in urban areas, as well as the need to increase awareness of the benefits derived from park visitation. Continued research should be completed using the BRS for other active forms of recreation and explore the relationship between recreation and well-being.

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Selected References


Appendix

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a. items on a 7-point scale from Likert-type scale where 1=never like me, 2=very much not like me, 3=moderately not like me, 4=somewhat not like me, 5=somewhat like me, 6=moderately like me, and 7=very much like me.

b. the word “hike/hiking” could be replaced by “bike/biking, walk/walking, use trails,” etc. to make the scale adaptable to specific contexts

c. cross-loaded on two or more factors, item discarded
Participation in organized youth sport has been associated with the development of skills that help youth overcome challenges and eventually succeed as adults (Brunelle, Danish, & Forneris, 2007; Papacharisis, Goudas, Danish, & Theodorakis, 2005; Petitpas, Cornelius, Van Raalate, & Jones, 2005). Though life skills development is not inherent to sport (Smith & Smoll, 2002), programs that use sport as a vehicle to teach life skills in an intentional and systematic manner are inherently different from general sports programs and can facilitate the acquisition of life skills. Such specialized programs have the greatest potential for enhancing both the overall well-being of youth participants and transfer of life skills to other life domains (Petitpas et al.).

Life skills development and transference is especially important among populations of underserved youth who are at greater risk of negative social outcomes (Bradley, & Corwyn, 2002; Garmezy, 1991). Youth from low socioeconomic status (SES) environments experience greater risk of poor nutrition and health, social deprivation, school failure, drug and alcohol use, unemployment, and higher levels of stressful life events and family instability (Bradley, & Corwyn; Garmezy). Furthermore, youth who are economically disadvantaged are less likely to experience positive youth development (PYD) outcomes associated with participation in out-of-school activities (Holt, Tink, & Mandigo, 2008; Posner & Vandell, 1999).

Successful transference of life skills may also be related to parental and family support. Ward and Zabriskie (2011) suggested families may be one of the most fundamental influences on PYD outcomes because the family is the strongest and most prevalent context within a youth’s life. They called for greater attention to the relationship between families and PYD through sport. In addition, regarding research on sports-based life skills programs, Gould and Carson (2008) have called for more longitudinal studies as well as more research employing qualitative approaches to gain more in-depth understanding of how life skills are developed and transferred.

To address these research gaps the current study examined participant outcomes of a sport-based development program of the National Hockey League (NHL)—the aim of which is to provide youth of all backgrounds the opportunity to play hockey. The NHL hockey development program was also integrated with the Sports United to Promote Education and Recreation (SUPER) curriculum to create a sport-based life skills program (Danish, 2002). The purpose of this study was to understand the role of families in supporting and reinforcing life skills. The study also sought to examine participant outcomes of a sports-based life skills program delivered to underserved youth and whether those outcomes were sustained over time.

Methods

Sample and instrumentation. Members of the local Boys & Girls were invited to participate in a 13-week ice hockey instruction program. Thirty-six participants completed the pretest, 33 completed the posttest, and 29 completed the three-month follow-up. The average age of participants was 11.3 years. Three-fourths (27) of respondents were male. Nearly half of participants were Black or African American (44.4%). The Personal and Social Responsibility Scale (PSRS) was used to measure attitudes, competence, and efficacy of goal setting, positive thinking, time management, and changing negative thoughts to positive ones (Conrad & Hedin,
The Youth Experience Survey (YES) 2.0 (Hansen & Larson, 2005) was used at posttest and three-month follow-up to assess developmental experiences reported by participants.

**Procedures.** Participants were given an online survey administered at the program site or at Boys and Girls Club facilities using laptop computers provided by the researchers. A research assistant and program staff members provided assistance with any technical difficulties or question interpretation. The first survey (pre-test) was collected at the beginning of the program, a second survey (post-test) was completed at the end of the program, and researchers conducted a three-month follow-up survey. Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with youth and parents. Youth were selected at random to be interviewed. Interviews were conducted at the time of post-testing at the program site and at the time of three-month follow-up at Boys and Girls Club facilities. Youth participants were asked to recall and discuss life skills by topic, provide examples of applying life skills to other life domains, and discuss what role parents or other family members played in their program experience. Parents were invited to attend the final practice session and were selected at random for interviews. Parent interviews addressed any changes they had seen in their children attributable to program participation, whether their children discussed life skills, whether parents asked about life skills lessons, and general feedback on the program. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. Parental consent and consent forms were collected for all study participants and all data collection procedures were approved by the Institutional Review Board at the researchers’ university.

**Analysis.** Descriptive statistics and t-tests were assessed using SPSS 19.0. Data matching protocol failed, therefore independent sample t-tests were used. Significance was assessed at the p < .05 level. A content analysis of the transcribed interviews was conducted, and the content was coded for key themes that emerged in the interviews. Once the primary themes were identified, they were reviewed externally to ensure accurate interpretation of themes in the qualitative data.

**Results**

Pretest, posttest one, and posttest two scores for all scales fell within normal parameters. Independent-samples t-tests were conducted to compare participants’ pretest, posttest, and three-month follow-up scores. There were no significant changes in scores between waves. Four themes emerged from the interview data. First, parent and youth interviews suggested there was a relationship between participating in an integrated life skills sport instruction program, acquiring life skills knowledge, and applying life skills. Overall, most parents acknowledged at least some level of influence of the integrated life skills sports program on their children’s attitudes and behaviors. One mother noticed her children “being leaders” and “stepping up” after a life skills lesson in leadership. A father also noted improvements in his sons’ academics, relationship with their mother, and pro-social engagement. Likewise, youth interviews revealed a substantial level of knowledge and an ability to apply that knowledge to contexts inside and outside of sport participation. Participants provided examples of using life skills such as goal setting, positive thinking, changing negative thoughts to positive ones, accepting and appreciating differences, living a healthy life, meeting new people, emotion control, and teamwork. These examples included sports-related and other contexts such as home and school.

Second, creating positive adult relationships emerged in youth interviews as a key facilitator to positive outcomes. Youth reported their coaches created a safe, supportive, and encouraging environment where they could be instructed in and improve upon basic hockey skills. This was an environment where players felt they could make mistakes without reproach or criticism.
The third and fourth themes emerged as we explored the role of parents, siblings, and other family members in reinforcing and supporting the outcomes of the program. These were family presence and family involvement. Family presence encompassed physical presence at hockey practice and games. Parents who came to practices considered themselves to be highly supportive of their children’s participation. Interestingly, youth responses to family presence ranged from positive affect such as excitement and feeling proud to negative affect like stress and pressure. Family involvement encompassed the off-site, after-hours role parents and other family members played in either supporting general program participation or reinforcing life skills and hockey lessons. Parents reported routinely engaging their children in conversation about what they were learning, and likewise youth participants reported sharing the life skills lessons with their parents, siblings, and other family members. Sibling relationships appeared here as an important influence among some youth who were enrolled in the program with a brother or sister. For some participants, family involvement was not positive. In one case a boy reported his family had “pretty much forgotten” about his participation. One girl’s parents discouraged her from participating in the program because they considered hockey a boys’ sport.

Discussion

There were no significant differences between pre and posttest measures of PYD outcomes. The lack of significant findings may be attributable to the small sample size ($n = 33$). More importantly, participants may have had already elevated scores on the PYD scales because of their involvement with Boys & Girls Clubs where PYD principles are consistently reinforced. Additionally, although pretests were administered on the first day of the program, participants had been aware of the program and its purposes for some time prior. Many participants were also returning to the program for their second or third years. This previous exposure to the life skills programming may have increased their pretest scores.

Interview responses suggested that participants acquired and retained a knowledge of and ability to apply life skills. According to human development theory, a well-structured intervention program can foster the development of positive character traits, habits, and behaviors (Lerner, Almerigi, Theokas, & Lerner, 2005). Families appeared to play an important role in PYD outcomes in two ways: by being physically present at practices and games and by supporting and reinforcing life skills in contexts outside of practice and game settings. For most youth, having family members at games and practices was especially meaningful; it made them feel good to have their family’s support. Parent and sibling involvement created a laboratory of sorts in which HIFE participants could talk about, apply, and practice the life skills they learned in the program. However, our findings also indicated that for some youth, families were either absent or their involvement caused feelings of stress or pressure. In Kanters, Bocarro, and Casper’s (2008) article, youth hockey players reported feeling either supported or pressured in response to their parents’ involvement in their sport participation, and there was discrepancy between youth perception of parental pressure and parent reports of pressuring their children. The environment of support or pressure created by the family may directly moderate the outcomes associated with a sports-based life skills program, and requires future research. Therefore, future sports-based life skills programs should consider adding a parental education component to increase positive parental involvement. Overall, the role of families in sports-based life skills programs requires more attention from practitioners and scholars.

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References


Although developments in medical care have successfully lengthened the life expectancy of children with progressive illnesses or disabilities, many of these children need to continually battle with their complex chronic conditions throughout their lives (Goldsmith, Hendrix, & Gentry, 2006). Caring for these children can be a stressful undertaking and, to meet the continual demand, their parents often make sacrifices in both their work and home lives (Goldsmith et al., 2006). Some may argue that every parent sacrifices their personal time to care for their child and experiences moments of stress as a result. However, studies have found that compared to middle-aged parents living with a child without a disability, parents within the same cohort providing care for children with disabilities experienced more negative emotions and stressors in their daily life due to their caregiving responsibilities (Seltzer, Greenberg, Floyd, Pettee, & Hong, 2001). In addition, over the course of normal life, most of parents expect to be gradually released from their parental duties as their children become self-sufficient. The parents of a child with developmental disabilities, though, deviate from the typical family life cycle and continually serve as a major support for their child while managing their own aging needs.

Reviewing disability and leisure literature, there is a strong belief that family recreation serves a great function in improving overall family quality of life and promoting children’s skill development (Dodd, Zabriskie, Widmer, & Eggett, 2009). In addition, previous studies have found that parental caregivers often identified themselves as the major resource in providing social-recreational activities for their children with developmental disabilities (Piskur et al., 2012) and have discussed possible leisure constraints experienced by family of children with disabilities (Hsieh & Van Puymbroeck, 2008). It is clear that participating in recreational activities with the adult child with a disability remains as an important part of the caregiving experience for the parental caregivers (Yoong & Koritsas, 2012). However, there is a lack of research investigating the role of leisure in the lives of these parental caregivers.

The existing literature on parental caregiving suggests that these parents experience tremendous physical and psychological strain as a result of their caregiving. Previous literature has suggested that allowing these parents to be away from their children temporarily and to pursue their own interests can prevent them from burn out and enhance their life satisfaction (Todd & Shearn, 1996). Consistent with other researchers who call attention to the needs of this population (Blacher, 2001), the aims of this study were to understand what leisure means to these parental caregivers and to examine how caregiving influences their leisure participation.

**Methods**

This study used a qualitative approach with in-depth, semi-structured interviews to allow parental caregivers to express their caregiving experience, to think freely about the role of leisure in their lives, and to describe any constraints they face in pursuing leisure time. Snowball sampling was used to access participants, beginning with key informants who worked with individuals with disabilities and their families to identify any potential participants who were providing care to a co-resident adult child with a disability. The interviews were audio recorded and were transcribed verbatim by a professional transcriptionist. The guiding questions for the interview were developed based on the leisure literature and research related to families with children who have disabilities.
Data analysis. A constant comparison method was used throughout the analysis (Glaser, 1965) to compare similarities and differences between individuals and groups of individuals for attaining maximum credibility. The multiple levels of comparison revealed both individual perceptions of caregiving and the experiences shaped by social characteristics.

Issues of validity. Before data analysis, member checks were used to determine the validity of the original transcription of the data. Second, to address concerns about “subjective” interpretation and to increase this work’s trustworthiness, authors read and analyzed transcriptions independently and then compared and negotiated their interpretations of the data.

Participant Description. Two fathers and eight mothers participated in this study, ranging in age from 35-76. Their adult children (half male, and half female) were all between 19-45 years old. Most participants were married and considered themselves to be in good health.

Findings
Regardless of the level of their functional ability, all of the care recipients were central to the operations of family life across the families. Most parents devoted the majority of their time to providing care and often expended significant energy and financial resources to the needs of the care recipient. The diversity of caregiving situations and personalities of people involved created diverse definitions, needs for, and abilities to carry out desired leisure activities. The two most salient themes that arose to answer the research questions were identified as conceptualizing leisure and negotiating normalcy.

Conceptualizing leisure. A common theme that was identified across several transcripts was the way leisure and recreation was viewed. Caregivers in this study often viewed recreation as a family activity that focused on the needs of the care recipient. This co-recreation was an emphasis due to logistics, and/or co-participation in care recipient’s chosen (or prescribed) structure and activities. Even though some identified participation in recreation with care recipients as enjoyable, most defined “leisure” as an individual experience that ideally represented an ‘escape from’ worry and responsibility related to care provision. However, the ongoing implied presence of the care recipient and the feeling of always being ‘on call’ prevented most from obtaining this ideal leisure experience, except when well trusted and skilled respite care was available.

Several caregivers mentioned their preference in participating in activities that were easy to start and stop, that required little skill or other resources to conduct, and which fit into the lifestyle of being ‘on-call’ and to accommodate rapidly arising needs of care recipients. Due to the nature of the caregiving experience, the caregivers focused more on quality of leisure experience than quantity of time spent in the activity. For example, even though they could be interrupted frequently when participating in religious activities, a few identified prayer as a free-time outlet, which was a ‘protected space’ that provided solace.

Many considered any individual time with spouse as leisure time and often tried to participate in one-on-one outings and leisure activities with their partner. However, arranging appropriate respite care for the care recipient was often cited as difficult, and therefore, they were only able to do this for short times, if at all. Even though most of the narratives presented leisure as constrained, many negotiated these constraints by re-framing their expectations of “normalcy.”

Negotiating normalcy. Several caregivers were aware of the developmental differences between their lives and the lives of peers who were ‘empty nesters’, but chose to intentionally avoid cross-comparison. Even though some caregivers yearned for a different life, most adjusted their expectations and had learned to succeed with their situation by embracing it as the life they were meant to lead.
Creating detailed schedules helped families deal with shared time and needs, but also created a foundation of normalcy for the family. Parental caregivers often identified themselves as ‘positive people’, sometimes explicitly identifying this as a coping skill. Further, by focusing on the strengths of their adult children and their situation, they were able to focus more on what was right within their family than what was missing or difficult. Most caregivers identified this as a benefit of care provision, as family members had become more caring and compassionate through the process.

In contrast to many peers, these parental caregivers frequently adjusted to a more collective way of living than is typical in American culture. Even though those with other children tried to provide the best care for all, the other children were often enculturated into this ideal, focusing the most support on the one with the highest needs. For many, this naturally led to framing family leisure as a priority and a norm, rather than the individual focus often placed on family member leisure, with the exception of unique leisure needs of the care recipients.

Discussion

Some may see the struggles related to leisure constraints and negotiating normalcy similar to those faced by parents of young children. What is significant with these cases is the fact that from a life-cycle perspective, these parental caregivers were stuck in a stage of high child dependence, continuing care-provision and collective ethics of living with adult children who continue to age and change. Many of these caregivers were cognizant to treating the care recipient as an adult as much as possible, and would often put in additional time and effort to create at least the ‘illusion’ of increased independence. In addition, while travel, retirement, or grandchildren are frequently valued within our society in middle and later adulthood, these parental caregivers clearly deviated from the normal family life cycle and did not have the transition of launching children out of the home. It is, however, noted that through negotiation and positive attitude, these caregivers tried to maintain a stable, relatively constant lifestyle. Of course, the more resources that were available to the families, the more flexibility was available to caregivers in terms of self-care, leisure, and holistic health.

As Prezant and Marshak (2006) reported, American parents of children with disabilities do not perceive all of the professional services they receive as helpful. Through the voice of these parental caregivers, the findings of this study could provide practitioners with insight concerning how to facilitate leisure participation in this population. It is clear that being able to accommodate the care recipient’s needs is the key concern for these caregivers. Hence, when provide leisure counseling to this population, both quality of leisure experience and structure of the recreation activity should be considered to ensure leisure satisfaction. Second, though previous studies have investigated the travel patterns of families with a member with a disability (Mactavish, McKay, Iwasaki, & Betteridge, 2007), the role of leisure in the daily lives of parental caregivers of adult children with a disability has not been intensively researched. This study provided initial information on what leisure means to these parental caregivers, how leisure is influenced by their caregiving duties, and what leisure-related needs they require. This study also furthered the current understanding of leisure participation and leisure constraints in this population. Finally, the findings of this study might reveal elements of leisure that can contribute to these parental caregivers’ well-being in terms of coping with caregiving stress, and support the continuing investigation of the relationship between leisure and stress in this population.

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References


As Chick (1998) and Iwasaki (2008) have noted, knowledge about leisure in non-Western countries is severely lacking. Such limited understanding leads not only to the distortion of existing histories of leisure (Fox & Klaiber, 2006), and to leisure studies disciplinary ethnocentrism (Walker & Wang, 2008, 2009), but also to an underestimation of leisure benefits cross-culturally. In North America, researchers have reported a variety of psychological benefits resulting from leisure including enhanced sense of control (Kleiber et al., 2011; Mannell, 2007).

Although leisure studies has paid little attention to the distinction, there are two different types of control: primary and secondary control. Whereas the former describes direct actions that change the existing environment to fit the individual’s needs, the latter describes indirect actions that change the individual’s feelings and thoughts thus allowing them to adjust to the objective environment (Rothbaum et al., 1982). Weisz et al. (1984) held that individualistic cultural patterns such as in America stress primary control more than secondary control, whereas collectivistic cultural patterns such as in Japan stress secondary control more than primary control. This proposition suggests that Japanese and Canadian cultures may also emphasize different aspects of leisure as psychological experience. Importantly, primary and secondary control greatly affects subjective well-being (Wrosch et al., 2000). Employing the cross-cultural research concept of primary and secondary control is a line of inquiry based on a generalization of knowledge regarding the influence of leisure on health and well-being (Mannell, 2007). Thus, the purpose of this study is to examine the effects of culture and leisure participation on university students’ control. To this end, this study will employ an experience sampling method (ESM: Hektner et al., 2007) based on Ito et al. (2012) and Morling et al.’s (2002) recommendations for cross-cultural research on, respectively, leisure experiences and control.

**Method**

Forty-one Japanese and 36 Canadian undergraduate students from the Kobe University and the University of Alberta, respectively, participated in the ESM. Each participant received a watch alarm that was programmed to ring randomly six times a day, every weekend (i.e., Saturday and Sunday), for four weekends. Days were divided into six 2-hour time blocks between 10 am and 10 pm, and one signal was randomly programmed per block.

Participants responded to the following questions when an alarm rang: (a) what time did the alarm ring?; (b) what time did they begin their report?; (c) what was the main activity they were doing when the alarm rang?; (d) would they say the activity was leisure or non-leisure?; and (e) to what extent were they experiencing primary and secondary control? Because, to date, no studies have employed the ESM to examine primary and secondary control, an expert review was conducted to develop a control measure. Based on Morling and Evered (2006) and Morling et al.’s (2002) studies, the authors developed nine items for each type of control. Nine primary control items were developed to measure how much participants felt they had “influenced” and “changed” the surrounding people, activity, and event according to their own wishes. Similarly, nine secondary control items were developed to measure how much they felt they had “adjusted themselves to” and “accepted” the surrounding people, activity, and event. Ten expert judges evaluated these 18 items. Following Dunn et al.’s (1999) procedure (e.g., Aiken’s $V^2$ coefficient), three primary control items and six secondary control items were selected. Based on Morling and Evered’s (2006) recommendation, this study measured two aspects of secondary control (i.e.,
adjustment, acceptance) by using three items for each. ESM participants answered the nine items by using a Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The questionnaires were back-translated into Japanese (Brislin, 1970).

Results

Of 1,968 and 1,728 possible diary reports for Japanese and Canadian participants, respectively, 666 (33.8%) and 277 (16.0%) were unusable because they were either missing responses or they were made 30 minutes or more after the alarm had rung (Scollon et al., 2003). To satisfy Paterson and Goldstein’s (1991) recommendation for multilevel modeling, seven Japanese and two Canadian participants’ data were deleted, as they had completed less than 25 diaries. In addition, 79 reports (i.e., 25 for Japanese, 54 for Canadians) were deleted because of too many missing data. This subsequently deleted one Japanese and three Canadian participants’ data resulting in less than 25 reports. As a result, 33 Japanese (1,136 reports) and 31 Canadian participants (1,290 reports) remained for data analyses.

Confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) were conducted to examine construct validity of the control measurement. One item for each construct related to “the surrounding people” was deleted based on the results and the model showed a good fit (CFI = .99, RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .03). Multigroup CFAs were subsequently performed to ensure that the instruments were equivalent across cultures. The comparison between the configural and metric invariance models and between the metric and scalar invariance models, respectively, identified metric (ΔCFI = .004, ΔRMSEA = .002) and scalar (ΔCFI = .006, ΔRMSEA = .005) invariance (Chen, 2007).

Hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) was performed to examine the effects of culture and leisure participation on control. In the HLM analyses, model testing proceeded in two phases: null model and random intercepts and slopes model. First, null models were examined containing no explanatory variables. All chi-squared tests for random effects (U₀) were statistically significant, and the intraclass correlation coefficients showed moderately high values (i.e., .30 for primary control, .30 for acceptance, .42 for adjustment). These results indicated that there is variance in each dependent variable by the individuals, which support the use of HLM. Second, random intercepts and slopes models were tested using leisure (level-1) and culture (level-2) as predictors. Table 1 reports the results of the random intercepts and slopes models. Although we conducted HLM with Canada = 0 and Japan = 1 regarding culture, these analyses provided information whether the effect of leisure participation was significant or not only for Canadian students. Thus, we reran HLM analyses with Canada = 1 and Japan = 0.

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<td>-0.66**</td>
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<td>Culture (γ₁₁)</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.72**</td>
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Note. Leisure is dummy coded 0 = non-leisure, 1 = leisure. Culture is dummy coded 0 = Canada, 1 = Japan, but for the results of JPN-Leisure, culture is dummy coded 0 = Japan, 1 = Canada. *<.05 **<.01.
Discussion and Conclusion

The data analyses indicated that, with respect to the effects of culture, the regression coefficients ($\gamma_{01}$) for only secondary control—acceptance and adjustment—were statistically significant in the negative direction. This means that Japanese students significantly felt less secondary control than Canadian students. These results did not support Weisz et al.’s (1984) proposition. However, McCarty et al. (1999) held that taking the situation into account is necessary when examining primary and secondary control cross-culturally. For example, in their study, American children exerted primary control more than Thai children when coping with separation from a friend, but American children exerted secondary control more than Thai children when coping with physical injury. McCarty et al. held that this is because traditional healing in Thailand stresses activity more than passivity. Therefore, taking the leisure situation into account may, similarly, be critical to understanding the effects of leisure participation on primary and secondary control, especially given that “leisure is probably part of an adaptive package of cultural elements” (Chick, 1998, p. 127).

The regression coefficients relating leisure ($\gamma_{10}$) to primary control and the acceptance aspect of secondary control were significantly positive and negative, respectively, across cultures. These findings are not in line with our expectations given that Japanese culture de-emphasizes and emphasizes primary and secondary control, respectively (Morling et al., 2002; Weisz et al., 1984). Having acknowledged these unexpected results for Japanese students, however, this outcome is in line with past research concerning the relationship between leisure and control. As Coleman and Iso-Ahola (1993) and others (e.g., Kleiber et al., 2011; Mannell, 2007) held that one of leisure’s key properties is that it provides opportunities to experience a sense of control, it is not too surprising to discover the enhancement of primary control through leisure participation in both cultures. In a similar manner, leisure participation may also provide people with opportunities where they do not have to accept an activity or situation’s circumstances against their wishes. More importantly, our results established that this leisure property is common in both Japan and Canada and, as such, they may provide a preliminary answer to the fundamental question of “whether or not leisure…is itself a human universal” (Chick, 1998, p. 116).

On the other hand, leisure participation was found to increase and decrease, respectively, the adjustment aspect of secondary control for Japanese and Canadian students. These findings are in line with our expectations given the cultural emphasis and de-emphasis in Japan and North America, respectively, on secondary control (Kitayama et al., 2007; Morling et al., 2002; Weisz et al., 1984). The following relationships among adjustment, the self, and leisure provide a further insight into these results: (a) this aspect of secondary control focuses on adjusting the self (Morling & Evered, 2006); (b) the self and culture mutually constitute each other (Kitayama et al., 2007); and (c) the self is usually the center of focus during leisure participation (e.g., opportunities for self-actualization, -awareness, and -expression, Kleiber et al., 2011; Tinsley & Tinsley, 1986). Contrary to primary control and acceptance, this result indicates that the effects of leisure participation on adjustment may not be universal.

In conclusion, a fuller understanding of the effects of leisure participation can only be achieved if attention is paid to cultural contexts. Thus, future research should examine other aspects of leisure experience cross-culturally. By doing so, we believe that leisure studies has the potential to correct existing distortions of leisure and to overcome its disciplinary ethnocentrism.

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Selected References
EVALUATING THE IMPACT OF USING A NATURAL PLAYSCAPE

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It is now well established that outdoor free play in green settings benefits children’s overall well-being. Research illustrates that it not only has the potential to benefit children’s physical health but also their cognitive, social and emotional health (Burdette & Whitaker, 2005). For instance, children’s engagement in free play has been linked to improved mood, increased social connections and more opportunities to engage in problem solving, creative thinking and decision making (Burdette, Whitaker, & Daniels, 2004; Pica, 1997; Williamson, Dewey, & Steinberg, 2001). However, children’s chances to directly experience nature and the amount of time they spend outdoors has drastically declined (Kellert, 2005; Louv, 2006). Therefore, there is a push for park and recreation professionals to address this issue and work towards creating opportunities for children’s increased positive contact with nature. One way public officials have responded to the loss of access to the natural world is through the development of purposefully designed Natural Playscapes in local, community settings. A Natural Playscape is a landscape comprised of natural features and is designed for play with the express purpose of connecting people to nature. In this study, the term “Natural Playscape” refers to a playground made of all natural materials like streams, plants, boulders, logs, and earth mounds to provide a highly creative, interactive play experience. It is designed to foster a variety of developmental benefits including focused exploration and increased interaction with natural materials (Keeler, 2008). Although there is a Nature Playscape Initiative occurring at the local level within nature centers, schools and municipal agencies that have begun to develop and implement Natural Playscapes in their communities (Luken, Carr, & Brown, 2011), there is little empirical evidence on the direct impact of this feature and how it benefits children over traditional playgrounds.

This paper will examine the impact of using a new Natural Playscape in a community Forest Preserve setting. The outcomes of the study can help practitioners, researchers, and parents/guardians to understand the potential benefits of using a Natural Playscape. The results may also be used to inform public agencies that may be considering plans to build a Playscape in their own community.

The goals of this exploratory case study were: 1) To understand the demographic of participants who utilize the Playscape, 2) To understand the motivations and interests of Playscape participants, 3) To identify preferred Playscape features among participants and 4) To identify participants self-reported perceived benefits of using the Playscape.

Methods

Setting. The study took place at a new Natural Playscape that opened to the public in September of 2012. The Natural Playscape is located near the center of an 814 acre Forest Preserve that features an 80 acre lake utilized for fishing and boating, 10 miles of hiking trails, an Interpretive Center, outdoor amphitheater and rental facilities for social events. This Playscape included 7 distinct play areas including, a sand play area, a creek, hill slide, log, boulder and stump area, human-sized bird house, a large climbing tree and spider web climber.

Procedures. A mixed methods approach was utilized to collect the data. This entailed an on-site questionnaire (n=152), online questionnaire for youth group leaders (n=8) and one-on-one interviews (n=15) with parents and grandparents. The on-site questionnaires were distributed to adults at the site from August through November 2012 throughout the week and weekend at
different times of the day. The questionnaire contained a series of questions regarding demographic information, favorite features of the Playscape, motivations/interests to participate and perceived benefits of use. Using an online group questionnaire, group leaders of youth (i.e., school, summer camp, scout leaders) were recruited through purposeful, convenience sampling. The contact person of the group received an email invitation from Forest Preserve personnel to complete an anonymous online survey after the group's visit to the Playscape. A series of one-on-one semi-structured interviews with parents and grandparents of children who utilized the Playscape were conducted. Participants were recruited to participate in an interview from the initial on-site questionnaire and through recruitment flyers posted in the Interpretive Center. Participants had the option to participate in an interview over the phone or in-person. Participants received a $5 coupon to use toward any Forest Preserve program as an incentive to participate.

Analysis. Descriptive statistics were computed for all variables for this preliminary analysis. The final paper will also include more detailed analyses to examine patterns of participation among demographic groups. A thematic analysis was also conducted to evaluate the qualitative data and inductively derive themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The data was utilized in conjunction with each other as the interview questions were designed to complement the on-site questionnaire in order to gain a deeper understanding of how and why respondents were utilizing the Nature Playscape. This type of exploratory, descriptive case study is useful for exploring a phenomenon that has no clear, single set of outcomes and the goal of the study is to describe the phenomenon in relationship to the real-life context in which it occurs (Yin, 2003).

Preliminary Results

Who uses the Playscape? The Natural Playscape served a wide variety of individuals as the 557 Playscape users that were accounted for in the questionnaires ranged in age from a few months old to the mid-70’s. Of the 152 respondents that completed the individual questionnaire, 67.8% were female, 50.3% had a graduate degree, 88% were Caucasian and 53.3% had an annual household income of $75,000 or more. Over 62% of respondents reported that it was their first time visiting the Natural Playscape and 14.5% indicated that it was their first ever time visiting the Forest Preserve. Among the first time visitors to the Forest Preserve, 68% indicated that visiting the Natural Playscape was the main reason for their visit. Over 79% of users came to the Natural Playscape with a group of 3 or more people. Visitors came from 33 different zip codes, ranging from as close as 1 mile to as far as 1,972 miles away.

Why do they use the Playscape? Respondents reported that they chose the Playscape over other playgrounds because it provided access to nature (61.2%), it was easy to reach (28.9%) and inexpensive (28.3%). The majority of respondents heard about the Natural Playscape from a “Friend/relative/word of mouth” (41.4%) and a “Previous visit” (38.2%). Many respondents indicated that they had not been to the Forest Preserve in years but the Natural Playscape motivated them to revisit. Participants were especially attracted to the Natural Playscape because it “is unique and fun”, “a place that the kids love” and “something the whole family could enjoy together”. A theme that emerged from the qualitative data as to why families utilized the Playscape was to connect children with nature. It is clear that time spent at the Playscape allowed children to engage in outdoor play experiences that allowed them to expel energy and be active, interact with nature and fulfill parents’ and children’s desire to be in nature. For instance, Cathi (a mother of three children) commented, “…When I go to the Playscape, it’s like I feel that connection to nature again. It’s like I’ve found a place around here where I enjoy being around nature. And it’s a place that’s easy to take the kids to that we all really enjoy”.
**What is their favorite playscape feature?** Based on the survey responses, the three most popular features at the Nature Playscape were the water/creek (n=66), logs/fallen trees (n=17) and rocks/boulders (n=16). A theme that emerged from the qualitative data was that the features of the Playscape provided children with unique play opportunities compared to at a traditional playground. Participant’s commented that the Playscape is a place that allows their children to dig in rocks, water and sand, get their feet wet and dirty, and play with a lot of different textures while being surrounded by plants, trees and other natural elements. For example, Marge (a mother of three children) said, “…the water feature is where they spend the most time…they love using the pump and getting the water up and they also like controlling the flow of the water… they like just being in the water. But finally, they definitely like creating and kind of engineering their own little dams out of the rock structures and things like that and they could arrange and rearrange those rocks in the damming system for hours”.

**What do participants get out of the Playscape?** Over 88% of survey respondents indicated that the Natural Playscape is better than most other outdoor parks or play areas in promoting a connection with nature. Additionally, over 69% of survey respondents also rated it as better than other parks in promoting fun, imaginary play and quiet reflection. The qualitative data showed that the Natural Playscape was considered a unique outdoor environment that fostered children’s development in a different way compared to home, school and traditional playgrounds. Interviewees also reported that compared to other playgrounds, the Playscape was more likely to promote imaginary play, exploration, creativity, physical activity, learning, and socialization with new friends. For instance, Jon (a father of 2 children) commented, “…whereas when we’re out at [the Forest Preserve], there’s logs and sticks and rocks and water but you have to kind of make your own situation, and so I think that they get to explore creativity and be more verbal with each other and create scenarios that they don’t do in a built play structure”.

**Discussion**

The results of this study illustrated that the Playscape has the potential to connect children to nature and provide them with unique play opportunities. It is important that children connect and facilitate a bond with nature at an early age because children’s early experiences in natural environments are linked to increased positive environmental attitudes and behaviors in adulthood (Chawla, 2006; Wells & Lekies, 2006). The research studies that have been conducted on Natural Playscapes thus far have primarily focused on its positive association with enhanced physical activity (Fjortoft, 2001; Fjortoft, 2004). The results of this study expand upon previous research by providing valuable information on the Playscape user’s demographics, motivations, preferred features and self-perceived benefits. A limitation of the study is that the data suggests a selection effect: Most of the respondents were Caucasian, highly educated and relatively affluent. Visiting the Playscape takes a concerted effort. Because of this, it is clear that children who benefitted the most from the Natural Playscape may already have high motivation to seek outdoor opportunities. Overall, these initial findings support how participants perceive (or agree that) the Natural Playscape is not just a park, but an opportunity to get children excited about and connected to nature.

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Selected References


GENDER DIFFERENCE OF SPECTATOR MOTIVATION IN KOREAN FAN FESTS: IN THE CASE OF 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP
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Hee Youn Kim, University of Florida
Yonghwan Chang, University of Florida
Yong Jae Ko, University of Florida
Jeounghak Lee, Kyunghee University

Introduction
FIFA Fan Fests become a place where friends and family members not only watch soccer games but also enjoy festivals and other leisure activities. In 2002 FIFA World Cup, for example, over 10 million poured into the streets for cheering Korea soccer team to support the semifinal match against Germany (Korean National Police Agency, 2002). Along with the phenomenal growth of events, numerous business companies started sponsoring the Fan Fest as a means of developing their corporate image and cultivating loyalty for potential consumers (Jeong, Lee, & Kim, 2011).

Sport spectator behavior literature offer meaningful insights on a fundamental reason why people attend such sporting events. For example, James and Ross (2004) developed Sport Consumer Motivation which includes empathy, social interaction, family, team effort, affiliation, achievement, entertainment, skill, drama, and escape. Similarly, Trail, Fink, and Anderson (2004) identified ten (10) factors of Sport Consumption Motivation including vicarious achievement, competition, identification, expectancy, disconfirmation, escape, excitement, satisfaction, socialization, and fandom. Additionally, several scholars highlighted the differential impact of gender on sport consumption behavior. Sargent, Zillmann, and Weaver (1998) found that male and female fans are distinctly interested in different types of sports. While male spectators are more attracted by athletic confrontations that emphasize combative coordination, whereas female are gratified when watching competition that avoids aggressiveness and highlights the stylish movement. Gill (1988) found that males are motivated by competitiveness of sport games than females.

However, there has not been any systematic research targeted to understand sport consumption behavior in the context of events associated with mega sport events such as FIFA Fan Fests. Additionally, gender influence in the context did not receive scholarly attention to date. Therefore, this study was conducted to (1) identify specific motivational factors of spectators in FIFA Fan Fest and (2) examine gender difference by using Latent Mean Analysis. For the purposes of this study, the authors identify Fan Fest participation motivation (FFPM) as psychological mechanism to arouse participating in events and festivals related to mega-sport events based on the two broadly examined motivation theories including sport consumption motivation.

Measurements & Participants
This research generated an initial pool of 75 items by undertaking a comprehensive literature review and in-depth interviews. The authors then employed item screening process through a panel of expert to eliminate redundant, double-barrel, ambiguous, and leading statements reduced the pool of items to 50 statements. Specifically, measures of Fan Fests Participation Motivation (FFPM) were adopted and modified by previous studies related sport spectator motivation (Trail, Fink, & Anderson, 2003; McDonald, Milne, & Hong, 2002), including Vicarious Achievement, Competition, Identification, Escape, Excitement, and
Socialization. Vicarious Achievement, Competition and Identification came from SSCM, whereas Escape, Excitement and Socialization were more related to LPM. The response format for all items was 5-point Likert-type scale anchored by 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

A total of 574 surveys were collected from Korean participants in 2012 FIFA World Cup Fan Fest. The survey and respondents were randomly selected to reduce the biased data. After eliminating incomplete data, a total 495 completed data was included in data analysis. Of the respondents, 61.4% (n=282) were male and 38.6% (n=177) were female.

**Statistical Results**

All statistical procedures were conducted by SPSS 18.0 and AMOS 18.0. The first step was to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess the measurement properties of the extracted factors. The measurement model was finalized with 18 items that representing six factors ($\chi^2/df = 406.31/120 = 3.366$, RMSEA = .072, CFI = .952, and SRMR = .045). The fit indices and item loadings indicated that psychometric property of the scale is acceptable. The average variance extracted (AVE) values ranged from .54 competition to .85 excitement. Internal consistency of the scale was also acceptable ($\alpha_{competition} = .75$ to $\alpha_{excitement} = .95$). The correlation among factors was ranged from .24 to .70, lower than suggested .80 criterion of multicollinearity (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006).

Based on the result of CFA, latent mean analyses (LMA) was employed. LMA is similar with traditional mean difference tests such as t-test or analysis of variance (ANOVA). Since LMA are measured based on the factor mean itself instead of variances of factors, LMA enables us to assess accurate mean differences (Vandenberge & Lance, 2000). To compare latent means of FFPM factors, three separate measurement invariance tests were conducted to confirm invariance of metric, scalar and factors of each group as indicated by Table 1. For further test of substantive analysis, at least one accepted model difference should be invariant (Steenkamp & Baumgarten, 1998). Baseline model (model 1) was examined ($\chi^2/df = 623.040/240$, RMSEA = .059, TLI = .919) to determine other model patterns across different gender. Metric invariance (model 2: $\chi^2/df = 642.759/252$, RMSEA = .058, TLI = .919) tested to manifest item-construct relationships. The third model was scalar invariance model (model 3: $\chi^2/df = 704.455/264$, RMSEA = .061, TLI = .915) to hypothesize the equality of measurement errors or residual variances (Woo, Gibbons, & Thornto, 2007). The last model of factor invariance (model 4: $\chi^2/df = 735.386/270$, RMSEA = .061, TLI = .913) was conducted to suggest the variability and relationship among factors by constraining the intercepts to be equal (Hong, Malik, & Lee, 2003). The difference of measurement invariance models was evaluated against the previous invariance model using $\chi^2$ difference tests. Since metric model was invariant, the further test of latent means analysis (LMA) was continued on the basis of the results of metric variance model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model (Male vs. Female)</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model 1: Configural invariance</td>
<td>623.040</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>.919</td>
<td>.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 2: Metric invariance</td>
<td>642.759</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>.919</td>
<td>.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 3: Scalar invariance</td>
<td>704.455</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>.915</td>
<td>.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 4: Factor invariance</td>
<td>735.386</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>.913</td>
<td>.061</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Invariance Model</th>
<th>$\Delta\chi^2$ (p)</th>
<th>$\Delta$df</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model 1 vs. Model 2</td>
<td>19.719 (.073)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 2 vs. Model 3</td>
<td>61.696 ***</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Denied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 3 vs. Model 4</td>
<td>30.931 ***</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Denied</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
<Table 1> Measurement Invariance Tests

LMA was performed to test mean differences on FFPM across different gender. According to LMA where female was used as the reference group, male participants showed significantly higher latent mean in two factors: competition (.437) and identification (.632). Also, Cohen’s $d$ effect size index was calculated to convert the latent mean to familiar metric (Hong, et al., 2003). The computed effect sizes of two factors were .519$_{competition}$ and .664$_{identification}$, which are defined as bigger effect based on Cohen’s guideline (Cohen, 1988).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latent Variables</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female (Baseline)</th>
<th>Effect Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Latent $M$</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>S.D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vicarious Achievement</td>
<td>-.092</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>.870</td>
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<tr>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>.437</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>.886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identification</td>
<td>.632</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escape</td>
<td>.128</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>1.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excitement</td>
<td>-.036</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>.973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialization</td>
<td>.099</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>.910</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<Table 2> Latent Mean

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the latent means of FFPM factors across male and female participants in Fan Fest of 2010 FIFA World Cup. The results of this study indicated competition and identification were found to be significant FFPM factors that distinguish male from female participants. This finding implied that competition and identification were more significant to induce male participants into sport events among other factors. Additionally, the differences of these two factors were medium effect sizes. Interestingly, vicarious achievement and excitement were perceived as FFPMs for female participants. Although vicarious achievement and excitement were not statistically significant, sport event managers should pay attention on these affective aspects to attract female participants. Based on these results, several managerial implications were developed. For male participants, it would be effective to be sponsored by male-related companies for fan fests of competitive sport events such as soccer games. In fact, many men’s shaves companies support FIFA soccer games. As this example implied, sponsors supporting international sport game events should provide amenities for male participants because male participants tend to focus on sport game itself. Otherwise, for female participants, event managers should provide special events related to entertainment rather than sport game itself. Since female participants tend to participate in fan fests for the sake of excitement and achievement, entertainment events focusing on these factors should be provided outides of sport games. Accordingly, the result of this study indicated male and female participants are likely to participate in fan fests for mega-sport events with different motivations. Therefore, event managers have to provide different types of fan fest events depending on participants’ expectations and motivations.

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Key References


Theories of community have become widespread in all aspects of society, including research, practice, and politics (Taylor, 2003). Community, a fundamental concept in social theory and one of the most important forms of organization in society, has been a topic of study since Aristotle and Plato, and continues as an important and worthwhile concept in modern society. Issues surrounding notions, existence, and the nature of community are pervasive in the leisure literature. As Glover and Stewart (2006) noted, “community is especially relevant to leisure studies. Building a sense of community and forging social webs are at the very core of leisure provision, leisure participation, and the traditions of leisure research” (p. 325). Community is a broad social structure through which individuals maintain contact with one another. The importance of community to leisure scholars is not trivial; community is an important feature in the social well-being of both individuals and societies.

The study of community and, more specifically, the loss of community has become an increasingly important topic among contemporary social scholars (e.g., Arai & Pedlar, 2003; Bauman, 2001; Etzioni, 1995; Putnam, 2000; Sennett, 1998). These scholars often position the loss of community in relation to capitalism (Bauman, 2001), globalization (Rifkin, 1995), neoliberalism (Sennett, 1998), consumption (Hemingway, 1996), and commercialization (Arai & Pedlar, 2003). Cook (2006) suggested that although consumption, consuming, and consumer culture are inherent in Western society, many leisure researchers believe that consumption has and continues to threaten the public nature of leisure goods and spaces. However, despite such claims, community has rarely been examined in relation to acts and spaces of consumption (Muniz & O’Guinn, 2001). This research is concerned with how people come together to enact community in a commercial space. Specifically, the purpose of this research is to examine the significance local residents attribute to an everyday place of consumption as a site for the enactment and performance of community.

Research Design

This research examines how community is created or enacted in a place of consumption. A local farmers’ market was selected as the study site because the space combines public and private spaces and consumption practices. Vendors at the farmers’ market offer for sale to local residents an assortment of products, including meat, vegetables, fruit, dairy products, herbs, fish, honey, and flowers. While many of these products are locally produced or organically grown, the market examined in this research is not exclusively a local and/or organic food market. The farmers’ market attracts visitors/tourists, but it is widely considered to be a local’s market. Market patrons are regular customers who depend on the market for food products, social interaction and community engagement.

The research methodology used in this study was visual ethnography. Visual ethnography is a process comprised of many overlapping steps that combine to create a representation of a community group based on a shared culture. A total of twenty participants were provided with cameras and asked to photograph social and structural aspects of the market that they considered desirable and undesirable. This photo-elicitation method provided the means through which research participants were able to narrate their values, beliefs, and experiences (Glover, Stewart, & Gladdys, 2008). Informal, in-depth interviews complemented the photo-elicitation process and acted as the main source of qualitative data. The interviews used the respondents’ photographs as a basis for discussion about consumption and community at the farmers’ market. Because each
participant presented different photographs to illustrate the study site and their experiences, a prescriptive interview guide was not followed. Instead, interviews were unstructured and began with general questions about each photograph: why the participant took the picture, what the picture means to the participant, what the picture represents, what they like/dislike about the picture, or what they would like to change about the picture. This informal, conversational interview approach allowed respondents to fully discuss their issues and interests, thus providing information about the farmers’ market and how it contributes to the enactment of community.

Consistent with tenets associated with ethnography and qualitative methods, a combination of several research methods were used to examine the same phenomenon. Accordingly, findings and themes were drawn from different, yet complementary methods to explore the creation and enhancement of community in the farmers’ market space. While findings and interpretations were primarily based on data gathered from in-depth interviews, field work, informal conversations, and participant observation methods supported interpretations of the phenomenon. Through the incorporation and combination of observations, interviews, and photographs, a more complete portrayal and understanding of the farmers’ market community was presented. Interviews, photo-elicitation, observations, and informal conversations were mutually confirming and provided a detailed and balanced understanding of the market community.

Findings

The landscapes and interactions that served as the subject of the participants’ photographs and conversations were diverse, including sites of consumption, objects of consumption, subjects of consumption, processes of consumption, and social interactions. The use of photo-elicitation allowed the participants to explore the specific features of the farmers’ market that they considered meaningful and important. The participants and the researcher examined the photographs together to gain insight into how groups and individuals perceive, use, and interact in the farmers’ market space and how community is enacted. Findings indicate that for participants, the consumption activities that occur within the farmers’ market contribute to community development and a sense of community, in general. Two themes were drawn from the data: (1) communal space and (2) shared consumption experiences.

First, the farmers’ market was recognized by participants as a “communal space.” This theme reinforces the accessible nature of the farmers’ market as a public place. The communal space was viewed by participants as necessary to create a heterogeneous and diverse community. Participants suggested the market provides a comfortable community space that is inclusive and accepting for everyone. Hilda supported this notion when she said, “I go almost every Saturday and I haven’t seen anybody who is uncomfortable. You know you can tell when people are uncomfortable. I haven’t seen that at all.” For Karrie, “the market offers everything. There is nothing this market can’t offer. I mean that’s the beauty, that was the goal of this market, that it could be all things to all people, to any people.” Participants underscored the significance of the market as a public space with private interests. About the mix of private and public enterprise one participant said, “I think that’s very important... even though individuals make money it’s still a public space... it’s for the community.” This theme reveals that spaces that combine both public and private interests are important for community and community development.

Second, “shared consumption experiences” was drawn from the data as important in creating community. Created by the market community and encompassed by the market space, the connection to these experiences was demonstrated through consumption practices. Various activities occur within the confines of the market space, including buying, selling, consuming, interacting, and socializing. For many participants, the market acts as a space where activities
associated with resistance to mainstream consumption practices may occur. Participants, for example, spoke about the anonymity they experience at a grocery store in contrast to the market experience. As Melody said, “it (the market) is very vibrant and organic... you know people need that. You know you go to the grocery store and you don’t feel that. You get your metal cart and you walk around and nobody looks at you.” Personal interactions during consumption experiences contributed to feelings of community. All participants spoke about the relationships they have formed with other members of the market community. As Molly pointed out, “we have this relationship, you know, it’s a little community, it’s kind like going to a little, small town.” The social experiences provided within the market space were believed to create a stronger sense of community. This theme suggests community is created by shared consumption experiences and the nature of the interaction within the market space.

**Discussion**

Following concerns about consumption practices, commercial spaces, and the loss of community, this study reveals the significance members of a farmers’ market community attribute to communal spaces and shared consumption experiences. The results of this research draw attention to a specific place of consumption and the reproduction and performance of community. Findings suggest that the farmers’ market community is supported by the understanding of the space as communal and the shared consumption experiences of individual community members. In addition, findings indicate that community members engage in complex interrelationships based on consumption activities. These interrelationships are both reinforcing and supportive.

As a place of consumption, the farmers’ market encompasses a combination of activities and experiences and supports a variety of behaviors and acts of consumption. Participants in this study acknowledged the relationships formed around consumption activities and experiences, including social and cultural rituals associated with consumerism and private enterprise in the farmers’ market. The extended networks of consumption processes evident in the farmers’ market, therefore, not only contribute to the enhancement and production of community but create and maintain a community based on shared consumption experiences. The relationships and rituals formed in the farmers’ market emphasize the importance of places of consumption as imperative in the enactment and performance of community (Mort, 1998).

This research contends the characteristics of the farmers’ market space are important in the formation of community. The farmers’ market examined here and other spaces of consumption should not be considered “passive backdrops to human relations” (Mort, 1998, p. 891). Instead these spaces are characterized by local community “with close emotional ties, connectedness between people, caring, spontaneity, immediacy, participation and collaboration” (Mackay, 1997, p. 7). As Lefebvre (1991) suggested, space has the potential to recreate and reproduce social relations. In this sense, people create places, but places also create people (Thrift, 1997). Results of this research suggest the farmers’ market creates and builds community by providing a place for social interaction and joint consumption. The relevance of this research, therefore, is a comprehensive understanding of the implications of spaces of consumption in the enactment and performance of community.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOC AND HRQOL OF FEMALE CANCER SURVIVORS
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Background and Significance
Currently there are roughly 12 million individuals alive today with a history of cancer (USCS, 2010). Research has shown that cancer and its treatment exact significant psychosocial and quality of life effects, and that further research on the relationship between the survivor’s perceptions of their association with their family, community and larger society and their Health-Related Quality of Life (HRQOL) is an important question to investigate (ACS, 2010; Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999; IOM, 2005; NCI, 2010). Due to the nature of the disease and treatment modalities typically utilized, many cancer survivors report psychosocial and HRQOL effects (Aziz, 2002, 2007; Bloom, 2008). In the case of women who are diagnosed with cancer, research has shown that female survivors report more psychosocial and emotional distress than men (Langeveld, Grootenhuis, Voute, & de Haan, 2004; Taieb, Moro, Baubet, Revah-Levy, & Flament, 2003). Dependence and/or independence issues, altered and/or reduced support, isolation and loneliness as a result of the sequelae associated with diagnosis and treatment are often reported (Montazeri, 2008; Robb, et al., 2007; Zebrack et al., 2008). As cancer and its treatment often leave its victims highly vulnerable, the perception of community, or Sense of Community (SOC), one receives from the communities they are associated with prior to and throughout the continuum of care has been suggested to positively influence their HRQOL (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999). As survivors of cancer generally associate with more than one community of individuals within their social milieu, there is a need to better understand how the SOC derived from these multiple communal relationships may be related to a survivor’s HRQOL. Recently the American Cancer Association [ACS] (2010), National Cancer Institute [NCI] (2005) and the Institute of Medicine [IOM] (2005) have all called for further investigation into the relationship between cancer survivors’ communities of support and their HRQOL. The purpose of this study was therefore to investigate the relationship between the SOC of five selected community types commonly researched in the SOC literature (Social Support, Neighborhood, Leisure, Faith, and Work-based community types) and the HRQOL of adult female cancer survivors.

Methods
This study implemented a single-method research design, aimed at collecting both quantitative and qualitative data. For the purposes of this study, only the quantitative portion of the survey was analyzed. Peterson, Speer, and McMillan’s (2008) four domain (8-item) Brief Sense of Community Scale (BSCS) was used to assess respondents SOC across the five community types. HRQOL was assessed using Avis et al.’s (2005) 12 domain (5 cancer-specific and 7 generic QOL items) Quality of Life in Adult Cancer Survivors Scale (QLACS). Additional questions were added to measure socioeconomic and demographic characteristics. Data was collected through a mailed survey to all participants (N = 800) of an exercise based cancer support program located in the Southwest United States. All correspondence between respondents and the researchers was conducted through the programs main office in order to maintain confidentiality. The data collection period lasted from October 2011 to December 1st, 2011. Data (n=100) was analyzed using descriptive statistics, parametric statistics and Principal
Component Analysis. Preliminary analyses of the BSCS revealed violations with normality and multicollinearity. In addition, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with orthogonal (varimax) rotation revealed that SOC as measured by the BSCS comprised of a unidimensional solution for each specific community type. After attempting several transformational processes for the SOC data, it was determined that a median split would be the most appropriate transformation to correct for issues with assumptions for parametric data analyses. With regard to the measurement of HRQOL (QLACS), factor solutions for the two subscales (generic and cancer-specific) were found to be similar to those of Avis et al. (2005). As a result of the issues with the SOC scale, MANCOVA was used for analyzing the relationship between respondents various SOC and HRQOL.

Results and Discussion

Findings revealed that, after controlling for educational attainment and time since diagnosis (survivorship), the Leisure and Work-based SOC were significantly related to the HRQOL subscale G-QOL’s domains of interest. With regard to the Leisure-based SOC, analysis further revealed that Leisure SOC was related to greater levels of Positive Feelings, and lower levels of Energy Fatigue and Social Avoidance. Bishop and Hodgett (1986) posited that involvement and investing of one’s self into a given community based on leisure interests plays a large part in developing the emotional connections between members that buoy them up through difficult times. Mullen (1985) also posited that many cancer survivors, during treatment and throughout the cancer continuum, commonly experience less personal involvement in the various social relationships and with their individual community-based groups than they may have associated with previous to being diagnosed with cancer. In their investigation into communities based on recreational interest, Bishop and Hoggett also noted that leisure based communities provide the opportunity to formulate community and influence QOL in four ways: (1) as a vehicle through which social exchange can take place; (2) through opportunities to create a commonly held product (i.e., friendship); (3) via opportunities for making friends and meet people; and (4) through opportunities of mutual aid. As this study found a significant relationship between survivors’ G-QOL domains and their Leisure-based SOC, it would suggest that respondents felt they were more a part of this community type (i.e., Membership), felt that they had a greater ability to influence and be influenced (i.e., Influence), had a greater sense of reinforcement (i.e., Fulfillment of Needs), and had a greater shared history and/or relationship (Shared Emotional Connection) with this type of community. This then would lead to greater opportunities for social exchange to take place, for opportunities for developing and maintaining friendships and to provide aid when needed. However, as preliminary findings did not confirm the four-factor model, the above interpretation can only be regarded as speculative.

Other leisure researchers using primarily qualitative methods of inquiry have also found similar findings between cancer support communities that are leisure-based and relationships with HRQOL. Investigating Gilda’s Club in Toronto, Glover and Parry (2008) found that organizations like this offered therapeutic benefits and opportunities for survivors of cancer to meet and support one another in a non-clinical, social environment. Gilda’s Club provides members and participants of the Club with what Bishop and Hodgett have termed as “mutual aid.” Mutual aid is a concept wherein individuals are able to assist one another in a reciprocal exchange of resources (including friendship) and other services for the benefit of each other and/or the larger group. Glover and Parry further argued that friendships based on mutual aid and that are created through a common leisure-based interest help to counteract the effects of social
isolationism. Son, Yarnal, and Kerstetter (2010) obtained similar findings in their research on older women’s participation in the Red Hat Society® (RHS). Results from their study suggested that participation in an interest-based community such as RHS contributed significantly to members’ health and well-being. Son et al. further argued that these benefits were accomplished by “creating bonding opportunities with other women, giving and receiving social support, providing a [sense of community], and facilitating opportunities for linking into the larger communities in which they lived” (p.80). In essence, communities that are based on recreational interest (“Leisure-based”) do more than provide participants with an opportunity to fill discretionary time.

In regards to the results for respondent’s Work-based SOC, as most participants reported working at least part-time with more than half of those numbers employed full-time, results found that their Work-based SOC was significantly related to their Positive Feelings. Montazeri (2008), in his meta-analysis of the QOL literature, found that a diagnosis of cancer, especially for women who experienced mastectomy due to breast cancer, heavily impacted their identity and life role. As cancer is not just a single event, but rather considered by many to be an enduring chronic condition characterized by ongoing uncertainty, cancer survivors have been shown to experience altered social roles and identities (e.g., partner, wife, mother, sister, employee(r), religious figure, student, etc.), ultimately impacting their HRQOL (Ferrell, Grant, Funk, Otis-Green, & Garcia, 1997; Zebrack, 2000).

**Future Research**

Based on the findings from this research, the varied nature of multiple senses of community need to be considered when assessing the relationship between a cancer survivor’s SOC and HRQOL as not each community type SOC may influence their HRQOL in the same manner or to the same extent, especially on the HRQOL subscale domain level. These results add to the HRQOL literature that when investigating the relationship between this construct and various psychosocial contexts, the multiple and varied nature of the communal SOC context as perceived by the individual needs to be strongly considered.

Future research between domain level HRQOL will therefore need to take into account not only how a SOC may influence the HRQOL of cancer survivors, but also the underlying domains that comprise each construct. As these findings suggest, more than one community type was related to the domains of Positive and Negative Feelings that comprise general QOL. Further investigation to understand how multiple senses of community are related to the positive and negative affect of cancer survivors is clearly warranted.

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Mediation analysis quantifying causal agents between independent and dependent variables has played an important role in postpositivism and theory verification in the social and behavioral science literature. Early approaches of mediation analysis such as Sobel test (1982, 1986) and Baron and Kenny test (1986) used a set of hypotheses to test coefficients of paths among variables by estimating the standard error of the indirect effect, the ratio of the estimated indirect effect to its estimated standard error, and a p-value for this ratio under the assumption of normal distribution. The approaches do not allow categorical variables to be used unless researchers alternatively modified their data to produce dichotomous variables. As a result, inferential tools such as bootstrapping (Shrout & Bolger, 2002), the product of coefficients approach (MacKinnon et al., 2007), and Monte Carlo confidence intervals (MacKinnon et al., 2004) have been developed. Hayes and Preacher (2011) also introduced a general linear model approach in which mean differences among categorical variables could be represented by a set of \( k-1 \) variables \( (k=\text{the number of groups}) \) and by using dummy coding, \( k-1 \) dummy variables \( (D) \) are equated. If a case belongs to group \( i \), the value of \( Di \) is 1 and the values of the rest of cases are coded as 0. With this approach, a simple mediation model can be parameterized with two linear models, presented in the following equations.

\[
M (\text{mediating variable}) = \beta M + a_1D_1 + a_2D_2 + \ldots + a_{k-1}D_{k-1} + eM \quad (1) \\
Y (\text{dependent variable}) = \beta Y + c_1D_1 + c_2D_2 + \ldots + c_{k-1}D_{k-1} + bM + eY \quad (2)
\]

In the equations, a group not coded functions as a reference category implicitly represented in the coding scheme, and parameters of other categorical variables can be quantified compared to the reference group (Hayes & Preacher, 2011). With this, this study was purposed to conduct a mediation analysis of Time Perspectives (TPs), Enduring Involvement (EI), and flow, presented in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. Proposed Conceptual Model](image)

What follows is a theoretical justification of employing the psychological variables because causality is built by logical and theoretical argument, not by statistical applications that only show the associations between variables and strengthen the soundness of the causal relationships. TPs are defined as “the totality of the individual’s views of his psychological future and psychological past existing at a given time” (Lewin, 1951), and they consist of five time biases: a) past-negative, a biased thought to the present in light of a generally unhappy view of the past, b)
past-positive, a biased thought to the present in light of a warm, sentimental attitude toward the past, c) present-fatalistic, a biased thought to the present in light of a hopeless attitude toward life, d) present-hedonistic, a biased thought to the present in light of a hedonistic, risk-taking, “devil may care” attitude toward life, and e) future, a biased thought to the present in light of anticipated goals and rewards (Shores & Scott, 2007). These five TPs have been found to influence a broad spectrum of people’s cognitive and affective processes (Cotte & Ratneshwar, 2001; P. G. Zimbardo, 2002), and this study hypothesized that TPs can influence EI and flow.

EI reflects the degree to which one devotes oneself to an activity or associated product (Peter & Olson, 1987; Slama & Tashchian, 1985; Zaichkowsky, 1985). In this study, EI is referred to as a leisure participant’s devotion or psychological attachment to a currently participating Leisure Time Physical Activity (LTPA). EI has multidimensional constructs, including: a) attraction, a combination of interest in and pleasure from leisure participation, b) sign, symbolism associated with participation, c) risk probability, associated with choosing one activity over other opinions, and d) risk consequences, associated with a poor choice (Havitz & Mannell, 2005). It was posited that recreational activities tend to engender high levels of involvement (Kyle, Kerstetter, & Guadagnolo, 2002). Csikszentmihalyi and Rathunde (1993) stated that flow is a positive experience, and it is likely to occur when people are involved wholly in a task. This study assumed that the higher people have EI with their LTPA, the easier they are wholly involved with their LTPA, and subsequently the easier they experience flow. Because of this, this study hypothesized that EI positively relates to flow experience. For all this, this study was purposed to examine a mediation model from TPs (categorical variables), EI, and flow.

**Method/Results**

Self-administered questionnaires from 779 respondents were used. The majority of respondents were White (65.0%) and Asian (26.8%) in their 20s, and gender evenly splits (male, 48.1% & female, 51.4%). A questionnaire package was developed by combining three instruments, including Zimbardo’s Time Perspective Inventory (P. G. Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999), modified Consumer Involvement Profile (Haviz & Mannell, 2005), and flow questionnaires (Omodei & Wearing, 1990). Exploratory factory analyses were conducted on EI items, using Eigenvalue above 1 and factor loading above .5, and the factor analyses showed that the items were adequate to be factorized into three with KMO and Bartlet’s test scores 0.695. To cluster respondents based on TPs, K-Means cluster analysis was conducted, and assigning six TPs was found to be the best because the content of every item rightly corresponded to the characteristic of each cluster. The six clusters were future, present-fatalistic, past-positive, and past-negative/present-hedonistic TPs and two “dummy” clusters. This study operationally named two clusters “dummy” because each dummy cluster only contained one respondent, and one respondent cannot constitute a cluster. In addition, it was considered that disregarding two out of 779 respondents was trivial in overall data analysis, so were excluded from the data analysis. Consequently, the four TP clusters served as independent variables, three subsets of EI served as mediating variables, and a flow variable served as a dependent variable in the mediation analysis. Table 1 shows the dummy coding of categorical independent variables, and Figure 2 shows statistically significant paths and their coefficient values relative to the reference category. Findings indicate that respondents with past positive TP have risk consequence EI .40 units stronger than do respondents with past negative/present hedonistic TP at $p < .01$. Respondents with past positive TP also have risk probability EI .40 units stronger than do respondents with past negative/present hedonistic TP at $p < .01$. Respondents with future TP have sign/attraction EI .16 units stronger than do respondents with past negative/present hedonistic TP at $p < .05$. 
Respondents with future TP also have risk probability EI .26 units stronger than do respondents with past negative/present hedonistic TP at $p < .05$. The relative indirect effects of TPs to flow is that respondents with future TP have -.09 (-.1737 ≤ CI ≤ -.0106) units more than respondents with PNPH through EI to flow. Relative total effects are calculated adding up the relative direct and indirect effects, which is .67. This indicates that respondents with future TP show .67 units more than respondents with PNPH.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dummy coding</th>
<th>Dummy 1</th>
<th>Dummy 2</th>
<th>Dummy3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PNPH</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. PF</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. PP</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. F</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. Estimated model coefficients

Discussion

In this study, a simple extension to previously developed approaches to examine indirect and direct effects in multicategorical variable mediation analysis is presented. With literature support for employing variables, this approach is able to provide relative direct, indirect and total effects between multicategorical independent variables to a dependent variable, which may not be able to be estimated by other existing means. This study also shows that respondents with future TP are most likely to experience flow through leisure involvement. In a practical implication, this finding can be used for those who allocate resources to recreation and leisure services. For example, more support toward people with past negative present fatalistic TP and people with present fatalistic TP are necessary because they are less likely to be involved with leisure activity and less likely to experience flow, compared to people with future TP or people with past positive TP. This finding can help to prioritize limited resources for better leisure and recreation services. In addition, future research endeavors may need to be directed to find a way to alter past negative TP, present fatalistic TP, and present hedonistic TP to future TP. This may also provide an important implication to how we can design early leisure education. In addition, more studies addressing TPs and leisure-related psychological variables such as leisure constraints, serious leisure, and motivation will lead us to a better understanding of leisure.

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"BECOMING ME": EXPERIENCING LEISURE AFTER ACID ATTACK
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Linda Caldwell, Pennsylvania State University

Introduction
This ethnographic study portrays the significance of leisure experience in the lives of the female acid attack survivors in Bangladesh. Historical inequality has given rise to various gendered problems in the country, among which acid attack on young women has become an emerging concern. Among various types of abuses and violent acts against women, the heinous act of acid attack has become another means to take away the freedom of living a normal life from many girls and young women, causing them both physical and psychological suffering from the pain of disfigurement and social discrimination. In a patriarchal Bangladeshi society, still following traditional cultural values and norm, a girl’s life is usually considered to be incomplete without marriage. The acid attack therefore placed the young women into a different trajectory of their life path as most families would hesitate to accept a disfigured woman as their son’s bride in a culture where most women tend to be judged by their physical appearance to be eligible for marriage.

During her involvement at a project with UNICEF Bangladesh in the year 2000, the first author, who is a Bangladeshi woman, observed how some survivors showed robust resiliency and optimism towards life despite their present conditions. Further exploration into the survivors’ lives through a preliminary field work later in 2002 and a follow-up study in 2003 provided an insight on the significance of leisure and leisure related activities that facilitated the process of bringing them back to normalcy.

Prior to this study, various annual reports and newspaper articles (e.g., Acid Survivors Foundation (2005-2011); World Fact book (2010); Bangladesh National Women Lawyer’s Association; UNICEF Bangladesh; and Bangladeshi National Newspapers) as well as data collected from the preliminary field work allowed us to understand the various context in which the survivors live. A critical review on the available literature (Berger, Wagner & Baker, 2005; Dupuis & Smale, 1995; Henderson, et. al, 1995; Hutchinson, et.al. 2003; Tirone & Shaw, 1997) also provided information on issues and problems pertinent to women and marginalized population. Finally, literature on leisure motivation (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 2008) was also consulted prior to the study to help the first author better understand Western perspectives of why people might engage in leisure. Although no research on leisure motivation of Bangladeshi women existed, this literature from Western culture provided a solid foundation for the study’s conceptualization as well as interpretation of results.

To this end, this study was undertaken to understand the different types of leisure involvement among the survivors and tried to understand the emotions and motivations behind leisure participation amidst the cultural backdrops of Bangladesh. Thus, the study explores the different perception of leisure among the survivors in different contexts that involved family, peers and friends, and the community. The following research questions guided the exploration of this phenomenon. 1. Do the female survivors of acid attack perceive to have leisure in their lives? If yes, what are their preferred leisure activities and why? 2. What are the motivations behind their preferred choice of leisure activities? 3. What kinds of constraints, if any, do they experience during leisure participation of their choice?
Methods

Due to the nature of the study, which focused on the lived experience of the acid attacked survivors, a qualitative research method with an ethnographic approach seemed to be most appropriate technique to attain the tacit knowledge from the cultural setting in Bangladesh. The study emanated from a series of interviews and prolonged contact with 13 female survivors, ages ranging from 18-27, who seemed to be a fair representation of young acid attack victims in Bangladesh. These women were chosen using purposive sampling, and selection was based on the women’s availability during the time frame, their willingness to share their stories with the researcher, and their ability to provide rich descriptions of their experiences.

As this study required exploring the experience of leisure in the lives of the survivors, in-depth interviews, site visits and observations were the major techniques used to elicit information. Observation took place during specific events that were meaningful to the acid attack survivors. Annual reports, articles, documentaries and books also played a significant role in understanding the acid attack phenomenon from different perspectives. The annual reports and newsletters also had various pictures, poems and event descriptions written by and for the acid attack survivors that provided an idea about the survivors’ active involvement in various leisure activities. Apart from the core respondents who were the acid attack survivors, the other sources were comprised of counselors, a singing instructor, a social activist and friends, and family members of the survivors.

To make sense of the massive amount of data gathered from observation, interviews and documents, the volume of raw information was reduced into identifiable significant patterns and thus constructing a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal (Patton, 1990). Based on Kumar’s (2005) approach to analyzing qualitative data, a process similar to content analysis was adopted involving detailed coding techniques. This meant analyzing the content of the interview or observation in order to identify the main themes emerging from the responses of the participants of the study. The text data that included verbatim transcription from the interviews and field notes from observations during site visits were transcribed and coded accordingly.

Results and Discussion

Similar to various studies on women’s leisure by Henderson, et al. (1989), the survivors tended to associate leisure experiences with positive emotions that evoked happiness, contentment, enjoyment, pleasure, sense of belongingness, excitement, and a way to provide them with a sense of normalcy. For many survivors, leisure was at least one area of their lives that allowed them to be in control and experience a sense of independence. Spending time in leisure activities of their choices provided them with a sense of freedom and also a connection to their past that was important to bring them back to normalcy.

The primary motive for participation in leisure activities was to seek enjoyment for one’s self. The activities that provided enjoyment were watching movies, listening to music, watching TV, reading, and singing. The second most frequently mentioned motive for participation included being connected to others that included activities such as attending social events sponsored by Acid Survivors Foundation (ASF), attending family events and spending time with other survivors and staff working at ASF. An example of these ideas is reflected through the following extract:
“I enjoy celebrating the Bengali New Year as I get to spend wonderful time with my friends. Every year, the girls from Acid Survivors Foundation perform songs, drama, poetry recitation and plays at ASF to welcome the New Year. We all rehearse for the program and wear the traditional white and red bordered Sari. It is an exhilarating feeling to be able to sing the song, “Esho hei Baishakh. Esho Esho” (A song welcoming the Bengali New Year) especially with my close friends. My mother knows how I love entertaining my friends in our house. That is why; she always cooks all traditional Bengali food during that day and we invite my friends to my place. I really love that day. And the atmosphere is so uplifting with all the concerts going on and vendors selling tasty Bengali food everywhere. Laughing and smiling people all around.”

It was interesting to find that the activities requiring some level of self-determination and chosen entirely for self were meaningful to a very insignificant number of survivors, while leisure activities that allowed the participants to be with friends, family and peers were ranked higher. Sense of belongingness and connecting to others therefore seemed to be two major motivations for the survivors in choosing leisure related activities.

Due to the societal and cultural background, physical leisure activities and structured leisure activities like institutionalized leisure activities did not seemed to be highly valued or participated by most Bangladeshi acid attack survivors. This phenomenon is true not only for the survivors but also for the majority of Bangladeshi girls and women due to the existing cultural, structural, interpersonal and intrapersonal constraints. Cultural constraint (Chick & Dong, 2005) seemed to be the most significant overarching constraint that influenced and created other barriers to participation and thus impacted their overall leisure behavior and lifestyle.

The study thus delineated the relevance of leisure participation that prepared the survivors to bravely face the world with rejuvenation, confidence, acquiring certain skills transferrable to other areas of their lives and through their realization of not being alone due to the support discovered through leisure-related friendships. Overall, the study recognizes the significance of leisure in the lives of the survivors and identified how the victims of acid attack found a sense of purpose in life after the tragic event. According to Wearing and Wearing (1998), leisure not only provides a social space for expressivity and role enforcement, but also creates a place for learning new roles, playing and developing individual identities. These attributes of leisure in the lives of the survivors were also observed as they explained how through leisure participation they discovered their hidden talents such as singing, writing, volunteering and above all finding happiness again when the society stigmatized them for their looks. With these understanding, more research on leisure related intervention on marginalized population could be further explored. Leisure activities that promote self-determination can be an area of study as well. Based on the information on constraints and what motivates the survivors to feel positive emotion, studies on therapeutic intervention programs can be undertaken.

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Active living and physical activity can contribute to health and well-being for people of all ages. Physical activity is essential for older adults as it can reduce or prevent declines linked to aging by improving cardiovascular functioning as well as reducing the risk of osteoporosis, falling, and loss of muscle mass and strength (Goggin & Morrow, 2001). Even though no amount of physical activity can stop the biological aging process, regular physical activity can minimize the potential losses associated with older adulthood. Understanding the meanings that influence activity behavior in older adults may be useful in promoting the values of activity across the lifespan. One program that has promoted physical activity and health for older adults is North Carolina Senior Games (NCSG). NCSG is part of a national movement based on participation aimed to encourage older adults to be active in sports and fitness programs as well as creative arts. A culminating opportunity for participants is State Finals where older adults participate in age group competition with other older adults from across the state. Research studies have focused on the value of NCSG using quantitative measures (e.g., Cardenas, Henderson, & Wilson, 2009a, 2009b; Henderson, Casper, Wilson, & Dern, 2012). However, these studies have not focused on the participants’ interpretations of their experiences. More qualitative studies about sports involvement and older adults have been recommended (Dionigi, 2006).

**Purpose**

The purpose of our research was to use photo elicitation to examine the meanings associated with physical activity participation by older adults in NCSG State Finals. These meanings were linked to physical, cognitive, and social/emotional development. Opportunities to be physically and socially active contribute to development across the lifespan. Because of the aging population and the decline in physical activity for all age groups, greater visibility in sports and physical activity involvement has been recommended for older adults. In addition, physical activity linked to health benefits across the lifespan has been widely documented (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2010). The guiding framework for examining the meanings associated with physical activity participation by older adults in NCSG State Finals was symbolic interactionism. This framework proposes that symbols such as words and objects, and in this case photos, have meanings for people. Stewart and Floyd (2004) called for the use of visual images in conducting leisure research. We used photo elicitation as the technique to ascertain the meanings linked to physical activity participation in State Finals for older adults. Photo elicitation entailed inserting photos taken by individuals into personal interviews (Harper, 2002).

**Methods**

Six NCSG participants in the 2012 State Finals were asked to take photos of their involvement during the week of State Finals. A total of 137 useable photos (i.e., not practice photos or photos with low resolution) were discussed to explore the meanings associated with the participation of these older adults. Each participant took between 17-27 photos. Potential participants were contacted by the NCSG staff to seek initial agreement to participate. Once
willing participants were identified, they were given a disposable 27-shot camera and instructed to take photos of what they considered important and meaningful about NCSG and the NCSG State Finals. After the photos were developed, a personal interview was conducted using a semi-structured interview guide that focused on the photos—why each photo was taken, where it was taken, and what was important about the photo. All data from the interviews were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim (Charmaz, 2006). The data were entered into MAXQDA software and analyzed using a grounded theory approach. An iterative process among research team members was used throughout the data analysis process to assure trustworthiness. Data in the form of quotations and photos portrayed the findings that were uncovered.

**Results**

Four overarching themes emerged from the photo elicitation project related to the meanings associated with physical activity participation by older adults in NCSG State Finals. These themes included: distinguishing oneself through competition, transforming identity, being part of a collective experience, and redefining aging. Interviewees described photos that indicated participation in NCSG was a means to set themselves apart from others. By making the decision to participate in the NCSG, these participants saw themselves as different from other older adults primarily related to their abilities and opportunities to participate in physical competition. Through the competition, participants had the opportunity to compare themselves to others relative to gender and age specific characteristics. Elements of this competition included competing against others, self-assessment through competition, and persevering through and overcoming challenges. One aspect of distinguishing oneself related to receiving medals as shown in the following photo.

![A volunteer congratulates a winning participant.](image)

Participation in NCSG also appeared to provide a mechanism for transforming the identity of individuals from aging older adults to competitive athletes. The image of a competitive athlete usually is not often associated with older people. However, several participants used photos to show their perceptions of how NCSG was linked with identity changes resulting from their participation. Even after competition was over and they rejoined the routine of everyday life, a transformation was noted due to the specialness of NCSG experiences related to preparing for competition, the competition ritual, and the formality of the events. For the participants we interviewed, NCSG was not only about the opportunity to set oneself apart and to experience individual transformation, but also provided an opportunity to develop a sense of collective community through competition and friendship. Although some participants seemed to compete more seriously than others, all participants reaped social benefits by participating. Participants were grateful for opportunities to connect with like-minded older adults who viewed the games as fun, respectful, caring, and supportive in various dimensions. Distinguishing themselves through competition, transforming identity, and a collective experience all resulted in a fourth
theme related to opportunities for participants to reflect on and redefine the concept of aging. Through the decision to participate in the NCSG, participants seemed to resist the stereotypes of aging imposed upon them by society, and were defining what successful aging meant. Our interviewees discussed perceptions about age, overcoming obstacles, maintaining physical health, addressing social and emotional health, recognizing weaknesses, and advocating for re-conceptualizing aging.

Discussion

The patterns that were identified regarding how older adults found their activity meaningful had implications for further theorizing about lifespan development for older adults as well as had implications for recreation and sports programming for aging populations. Aging is a part of life, and inevitably people who are fortunate to live into older adulthood will likely face age-related physical, cognitive, social, and emotional declines. However, aging also can present physical and social opportunities for older adults as revealed through previous research about older adults as well as through our interviews. Participants we interviewed were aware of the challenges of aging but also saw NCSG as a way to find meaningful opportunities through their competitive involvement in the State Finals. We theorized that participating and competing in the NCSG as well as the State Finals was a mechanism for older adults to make positive adjustments to aging. Although we did not ask questions about participants’ motivations for competing in the NCSG, our data confirmed what other researchers (e.g., Cardenas et al., 2009a; Merrill, Shields, Wood, & Beck, 2004) found related to the importance of fun, fellowship, and fitness. However, the meanings of this participation in State Finals was deeper in that participants saw themselves as competitors who were resisting traditional perceptions of older adulthood and defining their individual, as well as a collective, understanding of getting older. Adjustments toward positive aging related to what Baltes (1997) described in lifespan development as balancing gains and losses. Baltes claimed biology is responsible for many age-related declines and losses. As a result, the need or demand for culture-based compensation (i.e., psychological, social, material, and symbolic culture) increases. In this study, the NCSG was a cultural creation that provided opportunities for older adults to maintain or achieve higher levels of functioning that appeared to improve overall quality of life despite biological age-related declines. The NCSG State Finals seemed to provide a supportive community of athletes and volunteers with the common goals of enriching their lives by distinguishing themselves, transforming their identities, being a part of a collective experience, and redefining aging as they grew older. Positive adjustments to aging have been emphasized in research about the values of staying physically active in later life. However, this study added information about the value to older adults of having higher levels of competition available to them. Further, this study provided an opportunity to practice a photo elicitation technique for data collection with older adults. The photos were a way to encourage reflection and interpretation of the experiences that older adults had. The photo experience also provided a way for the participants to self-assess their motivations and behaviors regarding the competition. In summary, the participants in these State Finals that we interviewed had found ways to use the NCSG opportunities as a way to adjust to aging and older adulthood, and also were able to participate in anticipation of optimal benefits to mitigate the inevitable declines of growing older. The findings from ours study emphasized the values of physical activity for older adults as well as the importance of enabling a range of competitive opportunities.
References
CONSUMING PRINCESS TIANA: SHARED MOTHER AND DAUGHTER LEISURE THROUGH CONSUMERISM
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Whether eating, playing with a toy, going on vacation, or watching a movie, many leisure experiences are imbued with consumerism. Leisure consumption is a significant piece of our identity and the impact of consumerism can enhance or restrict the leisure experience. As Bloch and Bruce (1984) detail “consumers' enduring involvement with products is essentially a type of leisure experience” (p. 201). In other words, the close connections between identity and leisure consumption will affect leisure experiences by enhancing or damaging identity development. Leisure consumption in youth also impacts the ways they identify themselves. Chin (2001) describes “children’s consumer lives not only speak of these connections between themselves and the world at large but also embody them” (p. 6). Specifically for African American women and girls there is a unique experience of both gendered and racial socialization that impact leisure experiences (Thomas & King, 2007). In addition, distal contextual factors of media images and stereotypes impact the identity development of African American girls (Thomas, Hoxha & Hacker, 2013). Using a qualitative approach this study explores how African American mothers and their daughters’ leisure experiences are enhanced by consuming Disney products with the release of Disney’s The Princess and the Frog, which featured the first African American Disney princess. This qualitative research provides insight into how consumption, a product of leisure experiences and leisure itself has been enhanced by Disney’s introduction of culturally influenced animation. As one of the most powerful media conglomerates in the world, with a brand spanning multiple leisure and lifestyle products, Disney understands the connection between leisure experiences and consumption. One of the most powerful brands Disney has utilized is the Disney Princess brand. With the fastest growing reach of the Disney Consumer Products (DCP) (2011) and research indicating nearly universal brand awareness—DCP indicates 95% of moms with children ages 2-5 years old know Disney Princesses—these images have not only a way of performing identity, but also a way of governing and authorizing aesthetic and social norms and identities. DCP (2011) has even described a symbiotic relationship between their characters (products) and consumers as one of “fairytale, fantasy, romance, royalty and transformation.” As cultural pedagogy, Disney “appeals to many of us through a complex affective process where we negotiate our beliefs, values, desires, and expectations in the realm of pleasure and meaning” (Tavin & Anderson, 2003, p. 23). Our social identities are constructed through these cultural signs and representations, and in turn, may thwart human agency and interest in certain activities or images of what is beautiful (Giroux, 1995). The ubiquity of Disney’s most prominent princess, Cinderella, in American popular culture participates in identity construction, not merely for Disney’s princesses, but for the little girls wanting to embody Cinderella as a symbolic ideal of beauty and partake in her consumption (i.e., dolls, gowns, and beauty products). The arrival of the first African American princess, Princess Tiana, in Disney’s Princess and the Frog, put to test the historical social standard of beauty and its influence on the types of activities, the social settings, and the physical locations are the “containers” in which African American girls undertake leisure opportunities. The consumption of Princess Tiana products is closely related to the ways in which young African American girls learn social order through leisure activities. Within the context of leisure
consumption, individuals (mothers) and groups (school districts) all over the United States (US) planned Tiana parties, purchased princess gowns and limited edition beauty products all over the country in an attempt to not only define social identities but also to create “mechanical solidarity” (Durkheim, 1893) as a form of cultural cohesion.

**Methods**

Focus groups were utilized to garner audience responses following viewing of the film *The Princess and the Frog* between December 2009 and January 2010 in six major US cities, to include New Orleans, the setting in which the film takes place. Responses were sought in 10 key thematic areas, including but not limited to, beauty, consumerism, connection to Disney, and perceptions of New Orleans. With over seventy-five African American women and girls (ages 5 to 89 years) who participated in this study, we discovered participation in leisure activities within the private spaces of the home, family and community were critical to African American girls consumerism of princess culture. The study findings are presented as reflexive vignettes and field notes from the first author’s interaction with grandmothers, mothers and daughters.

**Results**

Group discussions elicited participant perspectives on the identification of beauty through the lens of Disney princesses, media, pop culture, family, and peer influences. A large proportion of female participants reflected upon how hair, fashion, body shape, eye and skin color, race, personality characteristics, and image comparisons shape their perspectives of beauty through each of the influences stated above.

*Conflicted Beauty* - Gazing around a crowded coffee shop a mother looked in frustration as she recalled the depiction of beauty so pervasive in her young preschool daughter’s life. *I think that from the age of two on looking at princesses, well, at two in daycare, she came home and said, “Mom, why can’t I have hair like the princess? Why can’t I have long hair?” And I said, “Your hair is long, but it doesn’t matter if it’s long or if it’s short. That’s what God gave you.” And she goes, “Well, I don’t have hair like Snow White,” and then she named some of her classmates, and then she said another princess, and then she named some more friends, and all of her friends at school are white. But it never stopped. I mean, it never stopped. She wanted long hair.* For many of the mothers I talked to, it is as if they are operating in a unique mode of double consciousness (DuBois, 1903/2010). Operating in bicultural frames, one mother recognizes a misrepresentation of beauty in the Disney Princess brand of the past and has wanted to negate Disney’s stronghold, but specifies how their environment and the system in their culture entices her to make it a part of her daughter’s leisure space, despite the negative perceptions it might induce. For many of the mothers in this study, Disney princesses have made the top of their list of popular media that have undermined what they have tried to do with their children; instilling self-esteem and concepts of African American beauty normally absent in the media. Nevertheless, one particular mother, like many others, are now using Disney’s concept of beauty, depicted through the animation of Tiana, as an example for their daughters during their leisure activities. This authorization and acceptance of Disney’s concept of beauty, and now African American beauty, through their consumption of these Disney inspired products, reflect Disney’s influence on their individual agency. *I saw it because my daughter has followed the princesses since she was two, not even two and a half, probably a solid two years old. And I mean... we have every gown, every pairs of shoes, every book, and every movie. She knows the music to the movies. And, to me, as the first African-American princess, I want to make sure she’s in your repertoire. She’s in your, your consciousness. She is, you know, included.*

*In Anticipation* - Despite the conflicts within the bicultural frame, many mothers consciously
changed their consumption practices to develop mother-daughter intimacy and planned leisure activities as a way to create meaningful and distinguishable cultural identities and relations. *We own Princess Tiana apparel. And in anticipation of this movie being released I ordered the shoes, because that’s all I could get online, a watch, a throw for a niece, a little outfit for my baby. And I think, I mean, there’s a lot of it on EBay, but I actually got it from the Disney store (Mother participant). “My cousin has a little daughter and she had a Princess Tiana party…But they hadn’t even seen the movie. Like this participant, many mothers stated they purchased Disney products not only to create a sense of social bonding between themselves and their daughter, but to reaffirm a sense of connection between themselves and the African American community.

“It’s Like We’re sisters”- Many of the participants felt the ideal of the “typical” princess was contrasted in this movie. The imagery of beauty ideals including but not limited to facial features, hair, jewelry, and clothing did not surround Princess Tiana in the way they typically saw Disney princesses in the past. Nevertheless, across all generations present in the focus groups, Tiana was revered and many of them saw Tiana as “special”—even if Tiana was not the “true Disney princess”. “…[my daughter] asked for that doll this Christmas…I’m getting it for her for her birthday because her room was that color. And she said, “It’s just like we’re sisters because she has a puff and I have a puff.” I was like, “But she’s a cartoon. You’re 15.”…It is a big deal for them…I haven’t been in a Disney store. I’m not buying stuff but I’m going back to buy my kid that doll. So I mean we’ve waited a long time to have a doll that we could buy our daughter…”

Participants identified with her characteristics and felt this was “their story” and were able to rationalize their consumption of leisure because Princess Tiana contributed to their social identification. Through this rationalization many young women and their daughters engaged in leisure consumption together by purchasing Princess Tiana products which has led to the cohesion of young African American girls and their mothers.

Discussion

As youth identity construction becomes firmly embedded in the social worlds around them, understanding the hegemonic force of cultural artifacts is critical (Rojek, 1993). The consumption of Disney products has become a significant social practice, reinforced through social cohesion activities within leisure containers. The discourse of gender, race, and power relationships in popular media’s role of transmitting an image vernacular must be fully deconstructed. With the emergence of Princess Tiana, many young girls and their mothers are engaging in leisure through consuming Princess Tiana products together and this in turn has contributed to the social identification and social cohesion of African American girls and women. As popular culture continues to grow and reshape itself into societal norms, the influence commodified identities has on African American girlhood and its role on cultural cohesion must be challenged. The consumption of Disney goods does not necessarily reflect a love of Disney but serve as a leisure repository of both liberation and domination that has the power to influence self-image of African American girls. This study and our findings further articulate the need to introduce cultural programming that engages in conversations about perceptions of beauty and gender stereotypes and moves young women closer to fulfilling the dreams that they have for themselves at all ages.

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PREDICTING PERSONAL GROWTH AND HAPPINESS BY USING THE SERIOUS LEISURE MODEL
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Literature on leisure has proposed that leisure participation facilitates individuals’ experience of growth (e.g., Chun & Lee, 2010; Hutchinson, Loy, Kleiber, & Dattilo, 2003; Kleiber, Hutchinson, & Williams, 2002). In these studies, researchers used different terms to explain the experience of personal growth in a leisure context, experience such as positive transformation, posttraumatic growth, and personal renewal. For example, Kleiber and his colleagues (2002) introduced the concept of positive transformation following negative life events and suggested that leisure plays an important role in promoting coping and resilience in the face of chronic stress. In addition, Iwasaki and Bartlett (2006) obtained data by conducting a focus group consisting of Aboriginal individuals with diabetes and proposed that culturally meaningful leisure contributes to positive adaptation and personal renewal. These findings imply that leisure may play an important role in facilitating the experience of personal growth.

Chun and Lee (2010) suggested that engagement in personally meaningful activity, particularly serious involvement in sports and volunteering, has great potential to facilitate the experience of personal growth. Serious leisure involvement may contribute to personal growth, as serious leisure is associated with positive outcomes such as enhancement of self-image and self-expression and positive social interactions (Stebbins, 2001). While no previous study has directly assessed the relationships between serious leisure and personal growth, this association can be inferred from the prior literature on serious leisure. When participating in leisure activities, individuals may experience growth under adverse circumstances. In other words, when there is a need to persevere, one of the consequences is personal growth. In a study of shag dancers, Brown, McGuire, and Voelkl (2008) found that when the dancers had to persevere through physical demands and time constraints, they continued to learn and ultimately experienced personal growth.

Happiness is an ambiguous expression that contains several meanings. Delle Fave et al. (2011) argued that happiness involves joy, experience of fulfillment and accomplishment, actualization of potential, and the pursuit of goals. To date, there have been few empirical studies that used happiness as a direct outcome of serious leisure. However, it is assumed that happiness can be derived from serious leisure participation because some of serious leisure’s outcomes (e.g., enjoyment, self-enrichment, self-actualization, self-gratification) are relatively similar to the components of happiness. For example, Shipway and Jones (2008) examined the experiences of distance runners and demonstrated that participants gained benefits such as a heightened sense of achievement and self-esteem, fun and happiness, healthy living, and pride. In spite of serious leisure’s benefits (e.g., Patterson & Pegg, 2009), there has been no prior study that examines the relationship between serious leisure and personal growth and happiness. Most qualitative inquiries related to serious leisure have identified serious leisure qualities to conceptualize serious leisure experiences among individuals. This study developed an integrative research model that specifies the underlying mechanism of serious leisure constructs. The purpose of the study is to examine the influential relationship between serious leisure qualities and personal growth and happiness.

Methods
A convenience sampling method was used to recruit participants. The sample consisted of 167 adults who participated in Taekwondo class at different cities in the United States. Personal growth. The original Posttraumatic Growth Inventory (PTGI) is a 21-item scale that
measures the degree of positive change experienced after a traumatic event (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 1996). The PTGI is a 6-point Likert scale with responses ranging from 0 (I did not experience this change as a result of Taekwondo) to 5 (I experienced this change as a result of Taekwondo). Cronbach’s alphas for the subscales were .90 (relating to others), .84 (new possibilities), .84 (personal strength), and .88 (appreciation of life).

**Serious Leisure.** Items from the Serious Leisure Inventory Measure (SLIM) were used to assess serious leisure quality (Gould, Moore, McGuire, & Stebbins, 2008). The SLIM consists of six factors, five of which were used in this study: perseverance, leisure career, significant effort, unique ethos, and identification with pursuit. Durable outcomes were excluded, as they were irrelevant to the study’s purpose. The obtained alpha reliability coefficients for each quality of serious leisure was .77 (perseverance), .74 (leisure career) .84 (significant effort), .89 (unique ethos), and (e) identification with pursuit.

**Happiness.** Participants rated their happiness using a single item adapted from Abdel-Khalek’s (2006) study. This item is worded “Do you feel happy in general?” Abdel-Khalek and Lester (2010) reported that this self-rating scale of happiness correlated with Argyle et al.’s (1995) Oxford Happiness Inventory between .56 and .70 in a large sample (n = 1,412), which provides evidence supporting the criterion validity of scale scores.

**Statistical analyses.** A structural equation modeling approach was used to test the hypothesized relationships among the constructs. To assess whether our hypothesized models fit the data well, we used chi-squares statistic and four different fit indexes with *a priori* acceptable criteria for model fit, including root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA ≤ .08), comparative fit index (CFI ≥ .95), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI ≥ .90), and weighted root mean square residual (WRMR ≤ 1).

**Results**

We first examined the measurement model fit of hypothesized model, and evaluated the structural model. The selected fit indices for the 7-factor measurement model suggested that overall, the model fit the data well: a scaled \( \chi^2 (188, N=167)=345.616, \) RMSEA=.071 with a 90% confidence interval .059-.083, CFI=.973, TLI=.967, and WRMR=.818. Next, our hypothesized structural model fit indices were examined. The overall fit indices suggested that the model fit the data well: a scaled \( \chi^2 (203, N=167)=371.847, \) RMSEA=.071 with the 90% confidence interval .059-.082, CFI=.971, TLI=.964, and WRMR=.812. It was found that the estimates of the direct effect of one exogenous (career contingency) and one endogenous (identification) factors on personal growth were statistically significant, and two exogenous (effort and career contingency) factors were significantly associated with happiness. It was also found that unique ethos significantly predicted identification, and career contingency significantly influenced unique ethos. To find a parsimonious structural model, a chi-square difference test of the structural models with and without the non-significant paths was conducted. The results showed that the two models did not differ significantly: \( \Delta \chi^2 (13)=14.242, \) indicating that the respecified structural model was relatively good fit of the model to the data, \( \chi^2 (216, N=167)=342.267, \) RMSEA=.059 with a 90% confidence interval .047-.071, CFI=.979, TLI=.975, and WRMR=.864. Although the two models were not significantly different from each other, the parameter estimates of the respecified structural model were statistically significant. According to the model, happiness is directly predicted by three variables, personal growth (.201), effort (.243), and career contingency (.197). In addition, identification (.565) and career contingency (.156) significantly influenced personal growth. Unique ethos (.307) and perseverance (.198) contributed positively to identification, while perseverance (.307) and career contingency (.282) affected unique ethos.
Discussion

This study is an initial exploration of how serious leisure qualities are associated with personal growth and happiness. Serious leisure literature provides evidence that serious leisure involvement contributes to personal and social benefits, (e.g., Siegenthaler & O’Dell, 2003). The results of this study demonstrate that there are casual relationships between serious leisure qualities and personal growth and happiness. It suggests that personal growth and happiness are additional indicators of serious leisure outcomes. Personal growth involves a positive psychological change as a result of negative life challenges (Calhoun & Tedeschi, 1999). The participants in this study indicated that they experienced personal growth by recognizing the importance of life, putting effort into relationships, knowing they can handle difficulties, and being able to do better things with life. Based on these outcomes (i.e., physical, psychological, social, and spiritual), this study expands upon the notion that serious leisure may lead to the development of new possibilities, improvements in social relationships, enhancements in personal strength, and the fostering of an appreciation for life.

In addition, prior leisure studies have mainly focused on personal growth among people who have experienced life challenges (e.g., Chun & Lee, 2008). This study demonstrates that leisure activity in the context of serious leisure facilitates personal growth and a sense of happiness as a result of Taekwondo participation. In our analysis of the structural model, some of the relationships between serious leisure quality and personal growth and happiness should be addressed. First, career development as a serious leisure quality influences unique ethos and identification, which contribute to personal growth and happiness among Taekwondo participants. To support this relationship, Bendle and Patterson (2009) explored serious leisure benefits among amateur artists. In this study, amateur volunteer artists commit to career development. As they gain skills, they begin to move into more independent, collegial, and even leadership roles. Such career development influences unique ethos, which contributes to personal and social benefits such as feelings of accomplishment, social interactions and self-actualization. Thus, this suggests that the development of a career shapes participants’ involvement in serious leisure and their advanced leisure career contributes to their own personal growth and happiness.

In addition, leisure identity plays an important role in influencing personal growth and happiness. For example, Stebbins (1992) proposed that serious leisure participants reinforce their leisure identity. Mackellar (2010) supported the idea that serious leisure provides an opportunity to reinforce leisure identity as dancers, rock stars, or car enthusiasts. With leisure identity, serious leisure participants tend to share positive cultural, physical, and mental perspectives with other people. The results of this study suggest that leisure identification serves as a cause of personal growth and happiness. Finally, serious leisure participants may encounter some of the challenges associated with their participation. Stebbins (1992) noted that fatigue, anxiety, injury, and embarrassment as examples of challenges. Serious leisure challenges enable participants to develop a sense of perseverance. In addition, a few studies have demonstrated that individuals with disabilities developed a sense of perseverance, which contributes to positive personal and social benefits (e.g., Patterson, 2000). In this study, a sense of perseverance served as an important element in influencing personal growth and happiness. In conclusion, this study makes a theoretical contribution to leisure studies literature by demonstrating how serious leisure qualities are interrelated. The present investigation provides an empirical support of how personal growth and happiness may in fact be outcomes of serious leisure.

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IS LEISURE RELATED TO ACCULTURATION AMONG WESTERN IMMIGRANTS LIVING IN KOREA?
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Immigrants encounter numerous adaptation difficulties during the acculturation process; these include language barriers, cultural and ethnic differences, limited social networks, and racial tension and experiences of discrimination (e.g., Berry, 1992; Hsu, Davies, & Hansen, 2004). Differences in culture, language, political views, and ethnic backgrounds serve as a barrier that hinders the process of acculturation among immigrants. There may be various methods of facilitating acculturation and reducing acculturative stress among immigrants. These may include developing cultural knowledge through education, cross-group friendships, social media, and travel.

In leisure studies, a great deal of research has demonstrated the value of leisure participation as a way of facilitating acculturation among immigrants (Li & Stodolska, 2006; Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004; Stodolska & Yi, 2003). These studies provide evidence that immigrants gain various benefits related to acculturation through leisure activities, which include social, cultural, and educational benefits. According to these studies, leisure plays an important role in socializing with others (e.g., both the mainstream and with the same ethnic groups) and developing the ability to adapt to a new environment. As a result, leisure contributes to improvements in psychological well-being and health among immigrants (e.g., Bagheri-Nesami, Raftii, & Oskouie, 2010; Hamer, Molloy, Oliverira, & Demakakos, 2009). These studies indicate that leisure provides immigrants with opportunities to deal with acculturative stress and socialize with others, which results in a reduction of negative psychological symptoms, such as depression and loneliness.

Unfortunately, the prior leisure studies on acculturation have focused predominantly on immigrants who move to Western cultures, such as the United States and Canada. These studies explored the patterns of leisure behaviors and leisure benefits among immigrants who moved to Western cultures. There has been no previous study that explores the relationship between leisure participation and its benefits among individuals who move to Eastern cultures. Given this scant knowledge, it is important to explore how Western immigrants exhibit leisure patterns of immigration and the effects of these patterns on acculturation. In this paper, we utilized a qualitative research approach to examine the value of leisure for the process of acculturation among Western immigrants who move to Eastern countries.

Methods
The study design features a qualitative approach that employed in-depth interviews. Both purposeful and snowball sampling were used to recruit participants for this study. The criteria for the participants required the individuals to: (a) have immigrated to Korea from the United States (U.S.) or Canada, (b) have a valid visa status, and (c) be over 18 years old. A total of nine participants living in urban communities in Korea participated in this study. The interviews were conducted using an interview guide that was based on a review of the literature. The topics covered in the interviews were: changes in leisure behavior upon arrival in Korea, the acculturation process, strategies to adjust to Korean
culture, etc. The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. By using the constant comparison method, the interviews and analysis of transcripts were performed concurrently. While analyzing data, the investigators continued peer-debriefing processes with colleagues, and this has provided opportunities for the investigators to challenge each other’s interpretations and improve the rigor of the data. Participants were given opportunities to review the interview transcripts to verify the accuracy of analysis.

**Findings**

Three common themes related to acculturation and leisure were identified: (a) culturally meaningful forms of leisure; (b) cross-cultural friendships; and (c) cultural and ethnic understandings.

**Culturally Meaningful Forms of Leisure**

Most participants pursued their own leisure activities that are associated with new cultural and social circumstances. They mentioned that new social environments provided an opportunity to engage in activities, which helped them to adapt to a new environment. Some of the participants were involved in culturally-meaningful activities, such as Korean language classes, Taekwondo, and teaching English at the orphanage. Some participants participated in language exchange programs with Koreans who wanted to improve their English skills. Through language partner programs, participants were fostered with social interactions, which resulted in developing communication skills and understanding new cultures. Some participants jogged or went running at night. They mentioned that they had not been expected to run and jog at night in their own countries because of safety issues. Their previous leisure involvements had been limited because of the environment, but a new environment enabled them to run and jog at night on streets because they felt that it was safe to run at night.

**Cross-group Friendships**

Leisure provides an opportunity for participants to develop friendships with members of other ethnic groups. By interacting with Koreans through leisure, participants developed intimate friendships and gained different cultural perspectives on behavior and communication. Most participants are given opportunities to interact with Koreans and have dynamic interpersonal relationships in various leisure settings. They used similar expressions as a result of their participation in leisure, such as “I made good friends when I practiced for soccer match,” “through hot yoga, I met many people and got much information about Korea,” and “I made many friends through Taekwondo.” It seems that through leisure, participants established and developed a sense of friendship.

A few participants were members of organizations to help children from orphanages or from lower income or disadvantaged families. They volunteered to teach English and provide community service events for them. Through these volunteering activities, they developed a sense of friendship with underprivileged children and gained a better understanding of Korean society and cultures.

**Cultural and Ethnic Understandings**

Leisure creates a positive environment in which participants develop a sense of cultural and ethnic understanding. All participants expressed that they learned different methods of interaction and communications related to Korean culture through participation in their own leisure. Based on their statements and experiences, age and collectivistic behaviors were among the main cultural perspectives that they learned. According to the participants, age played an important role in influencing someone’s
decisions that were not familiar to his or her own cultures. In most cases, participants mentioned that the oldest person was in charge of paying the bills. When participants observed the Koreans’ lifestyles through leisure, they learned that Koreans were more collectivistic and less individualistic. They mentioned that they obtained a new cultural perspective of group-based involvement. According to them, when Koreans participated in any activities, they were more influenced by group decisions rather than their own individual decisions.

Discussion

This qualitative study was an initial exploration that examined the value of leisure in facilitating acculturation among Western immigrants to Korea. The result of this study shows that participants engaged in various forms of culturally meaningful activities such as hot yoga, Taekwondo, language exchange programs, running at night, and social leisure organizations. Iwasaki and Bartlett (2006) that Aboriginal individuals in Canada created and developed meaningful activities associated with their own culture. Contrary to this finding, this study suggests that participants modified their leisure behaviors and pursued culturally meaningful activities associated with the new environment of a host country.

Previous research proposed that leisure activities served as an important determinant for generating cross-group friendships and facilitating positive interracial contact and interactions. This study extends the idea that participation in leisure leads to formation of cross-group friendships as well as cultural and ethnic understandings. By engaging in various leisure activities, participants established and develop a sense of cross-group friendships and expanding social networks, which resulted in the attainment of cultural knowledge. A few studies (i.e., Lee & Funk, 2011; Stack & Iwasaki, 2010) demonstrate that participation in recreational sports enabled immigrants to be assimilated and integrated into a hosting country and develop the ability to adapt to new challenges. This study supports the idea that Western immigrants participate in various forms of leisure that foster social relationships and develop a sense of cultural and ethnic understanding, which resulted in acculturation.

This study broadens the conceptualization of leisure benefits for acculturation among Western immigrants. Leisure provides a positive environment in which participants may freely share practical information about acculturation, improve their communication skills, gain cultural knowledge and information, and develop meaningful friendships. Such positive outcomes facilitate acculturation among participants. It seems that cultural exposure through leisure is helpful for participants to interact with each other and gain different cultural perspectives. This article has limitations. This study does not provide the level of acculturation and lacks a description of leisure experiences before immigration. Also, immigrants may have different life experiences and acculturation processes in Eastern countries. In spite of limitations, this study is the initial exploration of how leisure facilitates acculturation among Western immigrants in Eastern countries. This study may provide a contribution to the literature as no previous studies have explored the leisure benefits associated with acculturation targeting Western immigrants in Eastern cultural settings.

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Physical environment has been an important concept for understanding customers’ behavior in the service industry (Bitner, 1992). The term “servicescape” has been developed to refer to the environments in which services are delivered and where the firm and customer interact (Bitner, 1992; Zeithaml & Bitner, 2003). In achieving a desirable servicescape, service providers should strive to achieve a balance between two primary objectives: (1) to develop an environment which appeals to consumer pleasure and arousal states while avoiding atmospheres that create submissiveness; and (2) to construct an environment that facilitates the operational ease and efficiency of the firm (Hoffman, Kelly, & Chun, 2003). Though several studies in marketing and environmental psychology literature have examined physical environment, little work has been done within the context of recreation (e.g., Wakefield and Blodgett, 1994; Wakefield & Blodgett, 1996; Wakefield, Blodgett, & Sloan, 1996). The constructs of physical environment or servicescape have attracted little attention despite their accepted importance in the recreation context.

The purpose of this study is to derive a better understanding of the factors which determine a consumer’s perceptions of the servicescape within the sport and recreation industry. More specifically, this study is conducted to do the following: (1) to provide a conceptual model of recreation facility users’ perception of the servicescape; (2) to test the proposed model of the servicescape; and (3) to develop a valid and reliable scale to measure the servicescape as perceived by the consumers.

Conceptualization of the Servicescape

The term “servicescape” can be thought of as referring to the place of business in which the transaction occurs as well as as any tangible commodities which facilitate performance or communication of the service (Baker, 1996; Kurtz et al 1998). On the other hand, Bitner (1992) defines servicescape as the “built environment” but also allows for consideration of the “atmospherics” of that environment. For Lovelock, Patterson and Walker (2001), the concept of the servicescape can include such elements as the physical layout of the service facility, the ambience and background music. According to Herrington (1996), customers in a service environment will be exposed to numerous stimuli that potentially affect how they act, what they buy and their overall satisfaction with the service experience.

Zeithaml and Bitner (2003) suggested that “physical evidence [of the servicescape] is the environment in which the service is delivered and where the firm and customer interact, and any tangible commodities that facilitates performance or communication of the service” (p.282). In this definition of servicescape, the emphasis is on the actual physical facility where the service is performed, delivered and consumed.

A review of servicescape literature suggests that the elements of the servicescape are can vary according to service context, and the importance of the servicescape can also differ depending on the type of service (i.e., Wakefield & Blodgett, 1994; Zeithaml & Bitner, 2003). Since sport and recreation services rely heavily on the efficacy of the servicescape, an understanding of the impact of the physical environment on the consumer is vitally important. In order to identify its components, the model is presented in three sections. First, two primary dimensions (i.e., built environment and natural environment) are discussed. The basis of the two primary factors is based on Bitner’s servicescape model as defined in his 1992 study (namely, built environment)
and the preliminary analysis of the present study. The second part of the model reviews the seven sub-factors of the primary dimensions. Unlike the generally existing servicescape model, these dimensions form a multi-level hierarchical conceptualization of the servicescape construct.

The proposed model for this study includes two primary dimensions: built environment and natural environment. Each of these dimensions is defined by several corresponding subdimensions: (1) accessibility/convenience; (2) course layout; (3) facility design; (4) equipment condition; (5) ambience; (6) natural aesthetics; and (7) weather conditions.

Method

The servicescape measure was developed in two phases. The first, a qualitative item development phase, used semi-structured interviews to explore the construct of interest. The second, focusing on instrument development and validation, used traditional questionnaires and statistical analyses. 221 individuals completed an online survey. Of these 221 individuals, 14 participants were excluded because they did not correctly answer a dummy question which identified and screened inappropriate responses. This resulted in a final sample of 207 participants, of whom 122 (59%) were male and 85 (41%) were female. Their ages ranged from 19 to 38, with a mean age of 27 (SD = 5.982).

Following the administration of all measures to the entire sample, statistical analyses were used to evaluate the structure of the servicescape and performance of individual factors. Descriptive statistics were conducted at the item level, including frequency distributions, means, standard deviations and item intercorrelations. This information was used to eliminate items with poor psychometric properties from the scale.

Exploratory factor analysis was used to identify the servicescape’s factor structure and to further identify poorly-performing items for elimination. In order to determine the fit of the finalized factor model to the data matrix, a confirmatory factor analysis was necessary. However, in this study, only an exploratory factor analysis was conducted.

Finally, the internal consistency of scales was assessed via computation of classical internal consistency coefficients (i.e., Cronbach’s alpha).

Results

A principle component factor analysis with a varimax rotation was conducted. Four criteria were used to determine the number of factors to be extracted and rotated for the final solution: (1) Kaiser’s criterion of eigen values greater than 1.0; (2) Cattell’s scree test; (3) the percentage of total variance explained by each factor; and (4) the interpretability of the solution, using a factor loading cutoff of .40 and no cross loadings greater than or .30 (Cattell, 1966; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Seven possible factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 emerged. These seven factors collectively accounted for 73% of the variance. After inspecting the scree plot, factor solutions ranging from one to seven factors were considered.

Based on the data gathered from our sample, the present study revealed that there are seven key factors that comprise the servicescape for sport and recreation settings. The seven distinct factors are: (1) the accessibility and/or convenience; (2) the course layout; (3) the facility design; (4) the condition of the facility’s equipment; (5) the ambient condition; (6) the natural aesthetics; and (7) weather conditions. These factors can also be further divided into built environment and natural environment. The first five factors may belong to the built environment context, whereas the natural aesthetics and weather conditions are part of the natural environment.

Cronbach’s alpha was calculated for each of the factor score estimates obtained in order to confirm the reliability of scores. Cronbach’s alpha for the seven factors ranged from 0.74 to 0.94. Item total correlation also was conducted by examining the correlation of each item with the
mean score of its representave factors. The items with low item-total correlations within each of the seven factors were deleted as an initial attempt to reduce the length of the measure and also to retain the better items within each of the seven factors. Item-total correlations within each of the seven factors ranged from 0.41 to 0.80 (accessibility), 0.63 to 0.80 (course layout), 0.81 to 0.87 (facility design), 0.65 to 0.76 (facility/equipment condition), 0.34 to 0.65 (ambient condition), 0.34 to 0.86 (natural aesthetics), and 0.40 to 0.70 (weather condition), respectively.

Discussion

Bitner (1992) considered the servicescape to be the “built environment,” or more specifically, the “man-made, physical surroundings as opposed to the natural or social environment” (p.58). However, the present study also considers the natural environment and thus expands the concept of the servicescape. The servicescape specifically in sport and recreation settings is unique in several respects. First, in sport and recreation settings, the servicescape is service itself. Ski resorts and golf courses, for example, are facility-driven services which provide environments for the sport activities conducted therein. Therefore, the servicescape is, in fact, a core product. Second, the servicescape in this context is dependent on the natural environment. Most golf courses and ski resorts include related outdoor recreation amenities which involve large tracts of the landscape; therefore, the natural environment must be included within any examination of the servicescape in a recreational setting.

Although several researchers have conducted studies designed to understand the concept and develop the measurement of the servicescape in traditional business areas, few studies have attempted to conceptualize the servicescape in recreation settings. This study therefore extends the general concept of the servicescape. Unlike previous studies which focused on only the built environment of the servicescape, this analysis employed a broader construct of the servicescape. The concept in this study added the review of the importance of natural environment as exemplified by the importance of the physical environment of ski resorts and golf courses, thereby bridging the general concept of servicescape. Therefore, this newly developed model can be utilized as a conceptual background in future studies of recreation service.

There are also several practical implications associated with facility-driven sport and recreation service providers. First, the reliable and valid measurement scale, as developed in this study, is useful for examining users’ perceptions of the servicescape in the recreation setting and can also serve as a diagnostic and prescriptive tool. It allows practitioners to more efficiently evaluate each given dimension of the servicescape to ensure that consumers are satisfied with the entire physical environment. It also provides useful information to develop new golf courses and ski resorts in a manner more likely to lead to enhanced consumer satisfaction.
References


LEISURE AND TRANSCENDING THE GREAT EAST JAPAN EARTHQUAKE AND TSUNAMI
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The number of natural disasters and the amount of people affected by them has increased rapidly (Office of U.S. Foreign Disaster Assistance and Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters, 2009). A recent major natural disaster was the Great East Japan Earthquake (GEJE) and subsequent massive tsunami. Its magnitude was 9.0 and the height of the tsunami reached 30 feet (Cabinet Office of Japan, 2012). The same agency reported that 15,868 people were killed and 2,847 were still missing. In addition to casualties, research indicates that natural disasters significantly undermine the psychological well-being of survivors by causing traumatic and stressful experiences, which in turn can lead to a higher incidence of mental illness (Norris et al., 2002). This is a critical issue given that only a small number of survivors voluntarily seek professional mental support (Ali, Farooq, Bhatti, & Kuroiwa, 2012). Therefore, there is an urgent need to explore other ways to help natural disaster survivors recover psychologically. Previous research has suggested that leisure experiences can help individuals overcome negative life experiences (Kleiber, Hutchinson, & Williams, 2002), cope with various stressors (Iwasaki & Mannell, 2000), and become more resilient to future stress and adversity (Hood & Carruthers, 2002). However, the applicability of these psychological benefits of leisure to natural disaster contexts has been underexplored. Thus, this study aimed at exploring whether leisure experiences helped GEJE survivors overcome traumatic disaster experiences and cope with post-disaster stressors.

Methods
The primary data collection method was in-depth interviews. A total of 21 semi-structured interviews were conducted with 16 self-identified disaster survivors and five disaster volunteers. The five volunteers were recruited from a disaster volunteer team. Seven of the 16 survivors lived in a temporary housing complex in Minamisanriku, Miyagi prefecture. They were recruited at social/recreational events in the housing area. The other nine survivors lived in renovated homes in Ishinomaki city, Miyagi. They were recruited through volunteer projects such as reconstruction of survivors’ gardens. The majority of survivors were women (n=11) and older than 65 years (n=9). Except for three interviews with volunteers, all the interviews were conducted over the telephone. The interviews lasted, on average, about 50 minutes and were conducted in Japanese. The interviewees were asked about the impacts of the GEJE on their leisure experiences and about the psychological effects of leisure. In addition to in-depth interview, public observations were conducted. Relevant information including survivors’ behaviors, remarks, and interactions related to disaster, leisure, and psychological well-being, was recorded in a research journal. Furthermore, local newspapers and magazine articles related to the topic were reviewed. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim in Japanese. The transcripts were not translated into English before data analysis because it would have added the researcher’s interpretations to interviewees’ accounts, which contradicts the phenomenological assumption that researchers understand a phenomenon through narratives of individuals who experienced it (Howe, 1991). The coding process was threefold: open, axial, and selective (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). All the interviews, observations, and document data were coded. For trustworthiness, twofold data source triangulation was conducted (Patton, 1990). The interview data from the volunteers were triangulated with the interview data from the survivors. The observation and document data collected during the field study were triangulated with the
interview data. Finally, emerging themes were translated into English and shared with the researcher’s former advisor as analyst triangulation. Relevant quotes were translated into English, and the translation was attested by at least two independent scholars who are fluent both in English and Japanese. All the participants’ names are randomly assigned pseudonyms.

Findings

There are two main findings from this study. The first finding concerns how the GEJE affected the survivors’ leisure experiences and the second finding concerns the psychological benefits of leisure in the post-GEJE context.

The GEJE impacts on leisure experiences. The GEJE negatively affected the survivors’ leisure experiences by, in part, exacerbating leisure constraints. First, the disaster exacerbated material constraints by destroying infrastructure, including leisure equipment, to which survivors were emotionally attached. Sachiko, who had long engaged in the Japanese flower arrangements, stated, “[The flower vases] were all gone. … I have a certificate of a flower arrangement master. Oh, I meant I had it because it was damped already.” In effect, Sachiko “stopped doing” her hobbies like many other survivors. The disaster also exacerbated social constraints. The disaster killed and displaced the survivors’ family members and friends with whom they engaged in leisure. Further, Tomio mentioned that “it is very difficult to contact” friends who survived but experienced different levels of damage or different post-disaster lives. Hence, bereavement, displacement, and disruption on existing relationships due to the disaster increased social constraints. Finally, the unprecedented level of the disaster devastation caused emotional constraints, such as lack of motivation or desire to participate in leisure. Hanako, who witnessed her husband die in the tsunami, responded when asked whether she engaged in any leisure activities after the disaster: “Nothing. I don’t want to do anything. Before the disaster, I enjoyed traveling, going to hot springs, and walking around. But, I don’t want to go and do those activities anymore.” Thus, the GEJE negatively influenced the survivors’ leisure participation by exacerbating material, social, and emotional constraints.

The psychological benefits of leisure after the GEJE. Leisure helped survivors recover psychologically in three ways. First, the survivors utilized leisure activities for coping with various post-disaster stressors. They used leisure for two different types of stress coping: problem-focused and emotion-focused. For problem-focused coping, three strategies identified in this study included leisure as a way: to increase companions, to inject enjoyable moments, and to create material resources. For example, Tsuru found new leisure friends through socializing at a cafeteria in the housing area, with whom she “go[es] shopping frequently.” For emotion-focused coping, four strategies were identified: diversion, getting away, seeking social support, and venting negative emotions. Satoko attended handicraft events where she “can focus on such activities and forget about the disaster.” Second, subjective meanings of leisure helped survivors overcome traumatic disaster experiences. These meanings included leisure as a source of daily fun and purpose-in-life to sustain coping, a source of normalcy and continuity in life, and a manifestation of personal transformation. In the stressful post-disaster life, leisure experiences provided enjoyable daily moments and long-term goals that helped motivate the survivors. Takashi, who was a competitive marathon runner but could not run after the disaster, stated, “There are two goals in my life now: restoring my home and running a marathon again.” The disaster experiences were life changing as indicated in Tsutomu’s quote: “It feels something ended due to the disaster, something inside me.” In such situations, resumption and continuation of the same leisure-like activities allowed them to “come back to their normal lives,” as commented by Kento, one of the volunteers. Moreover, some survivors perceived increased
sense of continuity in life through resuming certain activities in which their identities were formed. Furthermore, daily activities, such as gardening and family leisure, symbolized the pre-disaster normalcy. For Yukari, it was time with her children: “Now, I can do normal things I couldn’t do in the wake of the disaster. … It’s time with my children, such as eating together or teaching homework. It’s just such trivial things.” Leisure also served as a manifestation of personal transformation. Through disaster experiences, the survivors perceived positive changes, such as a greater sense of appreciation. These positive changes were expressed through leisure-like activities, especially altruistic activities, to “repay” for support they received from many volunteers. For Shigeru, it was cooking and serving noodles: “There were many volunteers who have worked so hard, being dusted since the disaster. … I just really wanted to say, ‘Thank you for your works’ to everyone. I try to show my sense of gratitude by cooking the yakisoba noodles.” Finally, leisure experiences provided contexts where survivors cultivated positive psychological resources that enhanced their resilience to ongoing disaster-related stressors and future adversity. Social activities provided opportunities to strengthen and expand their friendships. Tomio, who lost many friends, found new friends at a day-care center. Through enjoyable experiences such as exercise and karaoke, they established rapport which allowed them to “joke with each other.” In addition, leisure experiences provided contexts where the survivors perceived a greater sense of control in their post-disaster lives. Particularly for the older survivors in the rural areas, resumption of driving provided a great sense of independence. Katsuko, who has a disability and could not drive a regular car while being displaced, stated that she “can go wherever” now because she started driving again. Interactions in leisure contexts also provided opportunities for the survivors to exchange positive or humorous messages and encouraged each other to collectively overcome traumatic memories. Satoko illustrated her communications with other older housing residents: “I say, ‘We can’t die here! We should find a new place. We will die after we get out here!’ Then, they agree and say, ‘Yeah! You are right!’”

Discussion

There are the two major findings in this study: the negative impacts of the GEJE on the survivors’ leisure experiences and the psychological benefits of leisure in the post-disaster contexts. The disaster exacerbated the three types of leisure constraints: material, social, and emotional. This is an interesting parallel to the leisure constraints category proposed by Crawford and Godbey (1987): structural, interpersonal, and intrapersonal constraints. Although factors, such as destruction of one’s home, loss of belongings, and disruptions on interpersonal relationships, were documented as indicators of lower psychological well-being in the disaster literature (Norris et al., 2002), an increase of these constraints and its potential influences on the survivors’ psychological well-being appears a contribution of this study to the leisure literature. This study also found the applicability of various psychological benefits of leisure to post-disaster contexts, such as coping with post-disaster stressors (Iwasaki & Mannell, 2000), transcending traumatic disaster experiences (Kleiber et al., 2002), and enhancing psychological resources and resilience (Hood & Carruthers, 2002). Through the data analysis, a key meaning of leisure that underlies the aforementioned benefits in the post-disaster contest emerged: leisure a context for social interaction and enjoyment. In solitary and stressful post-disaster contexts, it appears that enjoyable (Shaw, 1985) and social (Walker & Wang, 2009) meanings of leisure were particularly important for the survivors.

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Selected References


CONCEPTUALIZING THE LEISURE CONSTRAINTS MEASUREMENT MODEL: FORMATIVE STRUCTURE?
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A problem exists
Recently, Godbey, Crawford, and Shen (2010) provided a thorough review of leisure constraint research conducted over the past two decades adopting the hierarchical model of constraints. The model, originally proposed by Crawford and colleagues (Crawford & Godbey, 1987, Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991; Jackson, Crawford, & Godbey, 1993), consists of three broad classifications of leisure constraints arranged hierarchically; intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural. They hypothesized that constraints are experienced sequentially such that eventual leisure behavior is dependent on the successful negotiation of each form of constraint beginning with factors most proximal to the individual (i.e., intrapersonal) to those most distal (i.e., structural). In Godbey et al.’s review, they highlight a variety issues with which researchers have struggled and provide instructive direction for future research. An issue raised in their review, and the focus of this paper, relates to the assumptions underlying the conceptualization and analyses of constraint measures. Godbey et al.’s discussion highlights concern with the performance of existing constraints scales, noting weak factor loadings and scale reliability. These measurement issues also raise concern over the validity of the dimensional structure of constraints and, ultimately, their hypothesis relating to hierarchical processes. It is my contention that both their tripartite model and most associated measures are sufficient. Rather, the problem lies in authors’ conceptualization of the measurement model. Leisure researchers have assumed measures of constraints follow a reflective form where variation in the manifest indicators is accounted for by their latent domain; i.e., the dimensions of constraints. However, I contend that constraint measures more closely approximate the form of what Bollen and Lennox (1991) refer to as “formative” (also referred to as “composite cause” or “cause indicators”). Rather than reflecting the latent construct, formative constraint indicators “cause” the latent factor (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982). As such, analytical techniques that are more consistent with procedures underlying index construction, as opposed to scale development, are most appropriate (Bollen & Lennox, 1991; Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001). With these issues in mind, the purpose of this paper is to present theory and empirical evidence on a formative approach to the measurement of leisure constraints that enables researchers to move beyond existing measurement conundrums.

Why the problem exists
Consistent with classical test theory (Lord & Novick, 1968), unobservable latent constructs in reflective models are said to influence their manifest indicators and account for covariation among these indicators (see Figure 1a). The covariation exists because they share a common cause; i.e., they are influenced by the same underlying latent construct (Brown, 2006). Alternatively, in the context of formative models, where directionality is from the observed measure to the latent construct, changes in the manifest indicators drive change in the latent construct. An often used example to illustrate the phenomena is that of socioeconomic status (SES) whose causal indicators might be income, educational level, and occupational status. In the case of SES, it seems more reasonable that these three variables are the cause of SES, rather than the alternative which would suggest that income, educational level, and occupational status are interrelated because of the common underlying cause of SES. The same argument can be made for many constraint indicators in that they too follow the form of causal indicators. For
example, authors’ measures of structural constraints often include items referencing crowded
settings, access to transportation, financial resources, convenience, knowledge of services
available, other commitments, and time deficit (e.g., Hawkins, Peng, Hsieh & Eklund, 1999;
Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008; Nyaupane, Morais & Graefe, 2004; Walker, Jackson & Deng,
2007; Raymore, Godbey, Crawford, & von Eye, 1993). First, these items are not interchangeable
and do not correspond with the tenets of classical test theory (Lord & Novik, 1968) or the
domain sampling model (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Replacing transportation issues with
perceived crowding or any other indicator makes little conceptual sense. Second, structural
constraints do not cause the perception of crowding (or the lack of transportation, or time
constraints, or service knowledge, etc.). Rather, they an artifact of perceived crowding and other
structural constraints. The misconceptualization also has implications for analyses. The use of
conventional factor analytic techniques for assessing reflective models is most appropriate when
two criteria have been met; (a) individual items have been developed with a narrowly defined
construct in mind, and (b) the removal of any item from within the pool of items developed for a
latent construct will not substantively alter the meaning of that construct – items are, in fact,
interchangeable (Brown, 2006). While existing constraint indicators might satisfy the former
requirement, they do not meet the latter. Because constraint indicators are often developed with
sensitivity toward specific activity and population contexts, the removal of specific
indicators can substantially shift the meaning of the latent construct – “omitting
an indicator is omitting a part of the construct” (Bollen & Lennox, 1991, p. 308).

For indicators employed in the hierarchical model of leisure constraints, I contend that it is more
appropriate to define these dimensions as being influenced by their indicators (see Figure 1b). In
contrast to latent reflective models, with formative indicator models, no assumption is
maintained concerning cause attributed to an underlying construct. Rather, a formative
conceptualization assumes all measures have an impact (or cause) on their associated dimensions
(Brown, 2006). Consequently, the direction of causality flows from the individual indicators to each dimension separately and the indicators, collectively,
determine the conceptual and empirical meaning of the construct. Given this, no assumption is
made concerning inter-item correlation (Jarvis, MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2003). Consequently,
reliability derived from the assessment of internal consistency is not an appropriate standard for
evaluating the adequacy of formative measures. In fact, Bollen and Lennox (1991, p. 312) noted
that “causal indicators are not invalidated by low internal consistency so to assess validity we
need to examine other variables that are effects of the latent construct.” These include measures
of nomological and/or criterion-related validity; i.e., is the construct predicting what is
hypothesized to predict?

Solution?

While detailed findings from my empirical example are not presented in this abstract, the
example provides an illustration of how issues related to constraints measurement can more
adequately be addressed in a manner that is consistent with theory on measurement in addition to
providing meaningful insight for practice. My empirical example used a 19 indicator constraint
scale measuring three dimensions of constraint; intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural. To
address issues of model identification and to establish nomological validity (Bollen & Lennox,
These hypotheses were grounded in past work suggesting that those less constrained would more likely interact with the identified setting and develop stronger attachments to that setting (Low & Altman, 1992). The findings illustrated that; (1) a formative conceptualization of the constraint measurement model better fit the data compared to the reflective conceptualization (Formative $SB\chi^2$ $(df=309)=733.356$, RMSEA=.0400 vs. Reflective $SB\chi^2$ $(df=149)=2737.360$, RMSEA=.163); and (2) consistent with our hypotheses, two intrapersonal and four structural constraints indirectly and negatively influenced ($X_i$ on $\eta_i$) the four dimensions of place attachment.

The modeling procedures I describe in the paper have the potential to provide better insight for understanding which individual constraints most strongly hinder participation or access. Factor analyses of reflective scales do not directly inform the researcher of which individual items are constraining. Factor loadings only provide insight on the nature of the relationship between the manifest indicators and their latent factors (Brown, 2006). When we regress the latent factors onto other endogenous constructs, the information provided by the regression weight(s) only provides insight on the latent factor’s influence on these other outcomes. With formative conceptualizations, I can immediately determine which items have the strongest influence on the latent outcomes (e.g., dimensions of place attachment). An understanding of which constraints most directly hinder access, participation, preference, or even attachment provides an agency with specific information on how they might be able to deliver their services in ways that limit or mitigate the constraint. Of the authors of leisure constraint research who report the solutions of their measurement models (and many don’t), use of the “conventional” indicators of validity (e.g., strength of factors loadings, inter-item correlations, AVE) and reliability (e.g., composite reliability, Cronbach’s alpha) provide limited empirical evidence in support of the dimensional structure of leisure constraints. The issue has the potential to undermine authors’ claims concerning the construct’s dimensional and temporal structure. Currently, leisure researchers often do not consider measurement model relationships hypotheses to be tested with differing conceptual/theoretical implications. Where procedures for assessing reflective indicator scales have been around for over 100 years (Spearman, 1904) along with other complimentary psychometric assessments, formative indicator models have a comparatively brief history. While growing in popularity in business, marketing, and organizational behavior research (see Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001; Jarvis et al., 2003), they have yet to appear in the leisure literature. While still in development, this approach has both theoretical and applied implications that have potential to resolve many of the issues raised in Godbey et al.’s (2010) review.
References
Higher education has contributed to greater opportunities for women in the workplace. Similar to the increase of young women in colleges and universities, the numbers of women faculty are growing (Sussman & Yssaad, 2005). Yet, many women struggle with the same issues faced by other women in society (e.g., lower wages, lack of status, and work/life balance). Further, although major disparities occur around the world, commonalities among women faculty may be important to examine in assisting the next generation of women entering into higher education. The purpose of this study was to examine the career perceptions of women faculty in parks, recreation, sport, tourism, and leisure programs along with their strategies for success (e.g., satisfaction, attainment of promotion and tenure) in higher education. A women’s career development model that acknowledges the complexities of women’s lives related to work and life balance provided the guiding framework for our study. Qualitative data were analyzed to examine the career perceptions of women faculty.

Background

Career development for women often is complicated because of the complex factors that embed women’s lives in a larger context of work and family (O’Neil, Hopkins, & Bilimoria, 2008). Further, career development has been based on dominant male-defined constructions of work and career success (Shapiro, Ingols, & Blake-Beard, 2008). For example, career success traditionally focuses on the primacy of work in people’s (i.e., men’s) lives and the idea of leadership and upward mobility. In higher education, career success often is marked by a fast track to tenure and promotion and the assumption of administrative leadership. Some of the problems that women face in higher education have been documented such as the tendency to devalue women scholars and their work, the dearth of successful role models, and the unequal distribution of women in different departments (Ferber, 2003; Roach & El-Khawas, 2010). Challenges in higher education were found to exist related to overcoming stereotypes of women and the resultant gender bias, finding women who were successful particularly related to balancing work and family, having a supportive spouse, and finding collaborators. Having supportive environments for women was an important theme in much of the literature about women in higher education (Hartley & Dobele, 2009).

Method

Our study design employed an online survey to examine faculty members’ career experiences and perceptions. All women faculty that could be identified from listservs available related to PRSTL were invited to participate along with invited contacts to individuals who may or may not have been on the lists. Individuals were invited to respond if they identified as a women who held a full-time faculty position at any level at an institution of higher education. A total of 196 individuals completed the online survey. The average age was 46 years with a range from 28-75 years. The vast majority (90%) self-identified as white. Marital status included 56% living with a male partner, 10% living with a female partner, and 26% single. The average range for the yearly salary was US $70,000-80,000. The equivalent rank (i.e., rank systems are not the same worldwide but have an equivalency to the North American system) was 18% full-time instructors/lecturers, 31% assistant professors, 29% associate professors, and 22% full
professors. The respondents indicated that they worked an average of 50 hours a week. The average household size was two people and three-fourths of the women did not have children living in their homes. Almost one in five faculty members regularly cared for an older or disabled relative. The focus of this paper was on the qualitative responses that provided richness and explanatory contributions to understanding women’s career perceptions. Following approval by the university’s Institutional Review Board, these data were collected in fall 2011 via SurveyMonkey. An email was sent to all members of the identified listservs with instructions for accessing the survey. Two questions were asked at the end of the quantitative survey that were wholly qualitative and provided the data for analyses:

1. What have been the greatest challenges/barriers to you as a woman in higher education, and how have you negotiated them?

2. What advice would you give to women faculty entering higher education?

The open-ended responses were downloaded into an Excel file with the rank and age of the each respondent noted. The data were uploaded into MAXQDA for data organization and analysis. Methodological techniques for coding and analysis suggested by Charmaz (2006) and Henderson (2006) were used. Trustworthiness of the analyses was addressed by using a systematic approach to coding along with frequent collective discussions about the emerging themes from the data.

Results

Some women did not feel the challenges they faced in higher education were due to gender. However, the nuances of women’s experience in higher education were evident related to the challenges they perceived. Three broad themes emerged related to women’s careers in higher education. We concluded that each of these themes related to politics. We interpreted politics as the relationships between people and/or organizations that involve power, influence, and conflict. The three themes related to charting a career path (i.e., the politics of higher education), addressing workplace dynamics (i.e., the politics of gender), and having it all (i.e., the politics of caring). These themes resulted in theorizing about the politics of hope (Parry, 2003) related to social capital (Putnam, 2000) for women faculty members. The politics of higher education related to power, influence, and conflict may pose a challenge for both men and women. However, for women the power relationships that exist may be exacerbated due to expectations regarding career paths. Existing career development models and organizational structures based on traditional expectations of career ladders and mobility did not appear applicable to all women. In traversing their career paths, women found “learning the ropes” to be a challenge, but “successfully” doing so also helped them navigate their career trajectory. What women needed to learn about working in higher education and how they learned appeared essential. Respondents identified “knowing what you are getting into” and getting a “good handle on the ‘rules of the road’” as fundamental aspects of higher education. The politics of gender related to power and influence were present in structural and organizational challenges women reported in the workplace of higher education. Many of these challenges appeared to stem from unconscious and conscious bias and discrimination. Women also said they encountered persistent gender inequalities in the workplace most often in the form of fighting for equal pay, coming up against a glass ceiling, and confronting female stereotypes. The concept of having it all appeared in many responses with a range of perceptions regarding whether it was possible or not. Respondents defined having it all as succeeding professionally (i.e., publishing, earning tenure, being a good teacher and advisor) while simultaneously being an invested mom, spouse, partner, caregiver, friend, and/or community citizen. Many women wondered whether it was possible to have it all while others outright stated it was not possible. Yet, some women
hoped that by seeing other women succeed in the concurrent caring roles of faculty members, moms, partners, or caregivers, they could reach the same level of achievement. Similar to addressing career paths and workplace dynamics, many women academics explained that finding balance and attempting to have it all was facilitated by support networks both on campus as well as externally.

Discussion

The analysis indicated that the politics of higher education, gender, and caring had to be negotiated by women in higher education. The themes overlapped and collectively can be better understood by two frameworks that summarized the findings: the politics of hope and securing social capital. The politics of hope can be understood as the social change that is possible in higher education to address power, influence, and conflict, which have provided challenges for academic women. Parry (2003) described the politics of hope as a possible sixth emerging phase of feminist research in leisure studies. Beyond scholarship focused on gender analysis, she offered that research should not focus only on understanding how women live their lives, but should focus on how to break down and challenge the structures imposed on women. We interpreted Parry’s recommendation to mean that social change is possible within higher education. Further, the focus should not only be on describing the issues surrounding women’s career development, but also how to constructively address the challenges. The potential for the politics of hope was embodied in the necessity of securing social capital in universities. Mentoring and building social support networks generally fall within the construct of social capital, or the creation of personal contacts and career-based relationships and attachments (Cocchiara, Kwesiga, Bell, & Baruch, 2010). These professional and personal relationships seemed to provide women with resources to address career opportunities, workplace dynamics, and personal balance. A sense of empowerment existed in knowing and interacting with other women who had similar experiences in higher education. In conclusion, our data suggested that despite academic women’s gains in higher education, they acknowledged persistent challenges associated with charting career paths, addressing workplace dynamics, and achieving personal balance. These challenges related to politics associated with higher education, gender, and caring. Nevertheless, the data supported a politics of hope suggesting that changes are occurring and strategies exist to negotiate the challenges. The possibilities of social capital seemed a key element to address power and influence for women in higher education into the future. The women recognized that they needed to be proactive in their careers, but also noted the importance of personal and professional support in addressing the social change necessary for their satisfaction and achievement in higher education.

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The purpose of this study was to investigate what types of motivation energize and guide serious leisure experiences and rewards. Motivation in serious leisure can be discussed from two angles, (1) the nature and (2) the rewards of serious leisure. The nature of serious leisure can be categorized as pure-leisure or semi-leisure experiences, the latter entailing obligations that people willingly undertake for multiple reasons (Stebbins, 1992). According to Organismic Integration Theory (OIT; Ryan & Deci, 2004), it is a human tendency to internalize external regulations when the environment supports such internalization. Even if a human actions, including a serious leisure activity, does not derive from an interest, and the value of the goal may still motivate people to engage in an activity.

Based on the OIT, extrinsic motivation is divided into four subtypes: external, introjected, identified and integrated motivations, which provide a more precise explanation of leisure motivation than an intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy (Neulinger, 1981) by showing how human motivations are based on the integration of external regulations with self-structure (i.e., levels of autonomy). In addition, rewards from serious leisure can both meet current leisure needs and provide motives for future engagement (Stebbins, 2007). Based on the hierarchy of leisure behaviors (Iso-Ahola, 1980), those rewards indicate the leisure needs expressed by the participants, which only shows the superficial reasons of why people engage in a leisure activity. Conceptually, the fulfillment of autonomy occupies a higher level in the hierarchy of causality than expressed needs, thus leading to the question of how multiple types of motivation, with different levels of autonomy, were associated with serious leisure rewards.

The instrument developed by Gould et al (2008) provides separate measures of serious leisure experiences and rewards. Two models were tested in this study. The Motivation Serious Leisure Experience (MSLE) model measured items of perseverance, effort, career, unique ethos and identity to assess the influences of multiple motivations on serious leisure experiences (see Figure 1). The Motivation Serious Leisure Rewards (MSLR) model examined the associations of multiple motivations with personal and social rewards (see Figure 2). Personal rewards were measured by financial return and the aggregation of personal enrichment, self-actualization, self-expression, self-image, self-gratification, and recreation, while social rewards were evaluated according to social attraction, group accomplishment and group maintenance. Details of the characteristics and rewards of serious leisure can be found in Stebbins’ studies (2007, 1992).

Method

Participants were 401 rock climbers who satisfied at least one of two criteria: (a) having climbed at least 50 days during the past 12 months and (b) reporting the ability of lead climbing. Their ages ranged from 18 to 70 years, and they had up to 36 years of climbing experience. On average, this group had climbed approximately 109 days, of which about 30 were outdoor climbing days. The Behavioral Regulation of Exercise Questionnaire version 2 (BREQ2, Markland & Tobin, 2004) was used to measure multiple motivations. The 19-item questionnaire comprised five sub-concepts: amotivation, and external, introjected, identified and intrinsic motivations. Serious leisure was measured by an 18-item version of the Serious Leisure Inventory and Measure (Gould et al 2011). Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used to assess the models. Robust Maximum Likelihood estimation was used to address non-normal
distribution (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2010). Overall model fits and parameter estimates were reported. For this study, SEM was an exploratory rather than a confirmative technique (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996). Therefore, model modifications were introduced to identify unexplored associations (Byrne, 2012). In addition, multiple motivations (see Figure 1) and the parcels explaining personal rewards (Figure 2) were introduced into the models. To support the uses of these parcels, confirmative factor analysis (CFA) was used to verify that these latent variables substantially explained corresponding items (Hall, Snell, Singer Frost, 1999). Moreover, because items of amotivation were not valid and reliable, it was removed from the primary analysis.

**Findings**

The respecified MSLE model showed an acceptable fit (scaled $\chi^2 = 45.605$, df = 26, $p = .010$, CFI = .952, TLI = .928, SRMR = .039, RMSEA = .043). Intrinsic motivation and identified motivation displayed significantly positive associations with serious leisure experiences (see Figure 1). The correlated measurement errors between perseverence and effort, perseverance and career progress, and effort and career progress were added to improve the model fit (Satorra-Bentler test = 41.902, df = 3, $p < .001$; Satorra & Bentler, 2010). The MSLR model indicated a satisfactory model (scaled $\chi^2 = 24.595$, df = 15, $p = .056$, CFI = .978, TLI = .956, SRMR = .024, RMSEA = .040). Intrinsic and identified motivations were positively associated with personal rewards, while intrinsic and introjected motivations were related to social rewards. The MSLR model was re-specified by adding a cross-loading of personal rewards on social attraction, the indicator of social rewards (see Figure 2). The respecified model showed a significant improvement (Satorra-Bentler test = 27.390, df = 1, $p < .001$).

**Discussion**

The results supported that internalized motivations were associated with serious leisure experience and rewards from engaging in a rock climbing. Identified motivation represented serious climbers’ recognition of the values of rock climbing experiences. Introjected motivation, on the other hand, indicated conflicted feelings of engagement when external regulations and self-construct were not completely congruent. For example, a climber focuses only on comparing his performance with others in order to sustain a sense of self-worthiness. Such comparisons may lead him to look at the outcomes, but not access the process or training needed to improve his performance. Introjected motivation has been shown to lead to negative feelings or behaviors in the long term, such as less persistence in an activity (Assor, Vansteenkiste, & Kaplan, 2009; Thogersen-Ntouman & Ntoumanis, 2006). Koestner and Loiser (2004) suggest that fulfillment of autonomy and relatedness promotes internalized motivation. However, people with introjected motivation may perceive pressure to commit to goals. Therefore, when organizing recreation environments, practitioners should include engaging experiences congruent with climbers’ valuing systems, e.g., technical clinics, film festivals, and volunteering opportunities. At the same time, they should be alert to stresses occurring in social interactions or due to narrow pursuit of performance outcomes. (Stebbins, 2005). The instruments used in this study can also be used to evaluate clients’ motivational orientations and various aspects of their leisure commitment.

In the MSLE model, the correlated errors of measurement between perseverance, effort and career progress were reported as they might imply a hidden factor. The development of a serious leisure career requires the effort and perseverance to acquire and demonstrate skills, knowledge and experience (Kane & Zink, 2004; Shipway & Jones, 2007; Stebbins, 2005). Furthermore, in the MSLR model, a high correlation between personal and social rewards can be attributed to the cross-loading. This implies conceptual overlaps between these two notions, and past studies have
shown that personal development cannot be isolated from social interactions (Bendle & Patterson, 2009; Kane & Zink, 2004, Stebbins, 2005). Nonetheless, it is noted that correlated errors of measurement can result from measurement or data issues (Byrne, 2012).

This study broadens knowledge of leisure motivation, especially in a serious leisure context. Organismic Integration Theory provides a more detailed approach to explain leisure motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2004). Moreover, although only 5% of personal reward is explained by financial return, it is necessary to maintain this item in the instrument. Participants who report high scores of financial return may be considered as special cases of serious leisure devotees. For example, rock climbers may develop careers as athletes, guides, or professional climbers and thus receive monetary incentives as major income sources. It is of interest to explore the overlaps of professional and leisure careers and the dynamics between these two life aspects.

**Figure 1.** A simplified representation of the Motivation Serious Leisure Experience Model. Rectangles on the left side indicate the parcels of motivations. The circle represents the latent variable measured by observable variables shown as the rectangles on the right side. Dotted line arrows denote non-significant paths.

**Figure 2.** A simplified representation of the Motivation Serious Leisure Rewards Model. Rectangles on the left side indicate the parcels of motivations. Ovals represent the latent variables measured by observable variables shown as the rectangles on the right side. Dotted line arrows denote non-significant paths. Parcel indicates an aggregated term of item of personal rewards.

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SOCIAL STRATIFICATION IN FISHING PARTICIPATION IN THE UNITED STATES: A MULTIPLE HIERARCHY STRATIFICATION PERSPECTIVE
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Fishing is among the most popular forms of wildlife-dependent recreation in the U.S. The 2006 National Survey of Fishing, Hunting, and Wildlife-Associated Recreation reported 30 million U.S. residents 16 years old and older fished and spent more than $42 billion on fishing (U.S. Department of the Interior, 2007). Researchers have also noted that fishing participation in the United States is associated with numerous social, economic, and environmental benefits (Buchanan, 1985; Ditton, 2004). Because fishing has decreased in popularity in recent years, factors associated with declining participation must be better understood. Furthermore, although researchers have examined how socio-demographic factors impact fishing participation (Dargitz, 1998; Floyd & Lee, 2002), a more comprehensive approach is needed to obtain a complete picture of fishing participation.

In this regard, utilizing the multiple hierarchy stratification perspective (MHSP) is a promising line of inquiry. Social scientists have long recognized that life chances—opportunities people have to improve the quality of their lives—are inexorably related to their social status (Weber, 1978). In most cultures, privilege and access to material and non-material resources vary by gender, social class, race and ethnicity, and age (Massey, 2007). MHSP was developed in the field of gerontology to explain how multiple statuses facilitate and constrain people’s access to a myriad of goods, including housing, health coverage, and life satisfaction (Markides, Liang, & Jackson, 1990). MHSP posits that White young adult males with high levels of education and income occupy the highest level in the status hierarchy and have better access to valued resources compared to elderly minority females with lower levels of education and income. A central tenet of MHSP is that the additive effects of these statuses are far more influential than the effect of any single status in predicting life chances.

Over the last two decades, several studies have used MHSP to predict various facets of leisure and outdoor recreation involvement, including leisure constraints (Shores, Scott, & Floyd, 2007), state park visitation (Lee, Scott, & Floyd, 2001), cross-country skiing (Pouta, Neuvonen, & Sievänen, 2009), wildlife watching (Lee & Scott, 2011), and outdoor recreation in general (Lee et al., 2001). To our knowledge, only Floyd, Nicholas, Lee, Lee, and Scott (2006) have employed MHSP to understand Americans’ fishing participation. Consistent with the underlying tenets of MHSP, they found that fishing participation varies markedly by gender, age, race and ethnicity, and social class.

Although Floyd et al. provided fresh insight into fishing involvement using MHSP, this approach can be expanded in three ways. First, MHSP should also take into account people’s proximity to leisure resources. Opportunity theory was developed on the basis that recreation participation depends on availability of proximal recreational resources (Lindsay & Ogle, 1972). Studies have documented that rural residents, irrespective of their socioeconomic background and other statuses, are more likely to participate in many outdoor recreation activities compared to urban residents simply because they live close to outdoor recreation environs (Floyd & Lee, 2002; Lee & Scott, 2011; Pouta et al., 2009). Thus, it is reasonable to expect that people who live close to water resources are more likely to fish. Second, we can examine interaction effects of
demographic variables. The MHSP does not privilege one status over another in explaining leisure phenomena. Studies using MHSP consistently show that various statuses are more or less related to constraints (e.g., Shores et al., 2007) and participation in different outdoor recreation activities (e.g., Floyd et al., 2006). Given its focus on the additive effects of multiple statuses, MHSP ignores possible interactions among various statuses in predicting different facets of leisure involvement. A nuanced approach using MHSP should examine the combined effects of multiple statuses on how they relate to leisure phenomena as well as explore possible statistical interactions among key status variables. Third, Floyd et al. focused on fishing participation in Texas, a single state. A more comprehensive analysis, based on a large national sample is desirable for drawing stronger conclusions about the MHSP and fishing (Lee & Scott, 2011).

This study examines the association between combined effects of age, gender, race/ethnicity, income, education, and supply of fishing opportunities (i.e., water acreage) with participation in freshwater and saltwater fishing among Americans. By examining the interactive effects between socio-economic status variables and race, we also sought to determine whether status variables were related uniformly across racial groups as researchers have showed that race/ethnicity tend to intersect with other demographic characteristics such as education, income, and gender (Bowser, 2007; Collins, 2000). Our expanded approach to MHSP will provide a more complete snapshot of how social status impacts participation in leisure and outdoor recreation.

Methods
Using secondary data from the 2006 National Survey of Fishing, Hunting, and Wildlife-Associated Recreation, we estimated a hierarchical generalized linear model (HGLM) of fishing participation. This multilevel analysis is grounded in the premise that data structures are hierarchical (Snijders & Bosker, 2011). It is appropriate for modeling dependent variables for individuals, when individuals are grouped or clustered in larger social units. Multilevel analysis distinguishes individual level variables and contextual variables and examines the influence of both the personal and contextual characteristics on outcome variables (Snijders & Bosker, 2011).

Based on opportunity theory, we used each state’s total water area and the existence of coastline as contextual variables for freshwater fishing and saltwater fishing, respectively (U.S. Census Bureau, 2008). The total water area variable was dichotomized using 4500 square miles as a cutoff point (1=affluent water resource state, 0=poor water resource state). The existence of coastline in states was also dichotomized (1=yes, 0=no). Five independent variables were included as Level 1 variables: race, gender, age, education, and income. In order to distinguish privileged and disadvantaged statuses, independent variables were also dichotomized with “White/non-Hispanic”, “male”, “below 65 years old”, “college graduate”, and “$25,000 or more income” categorized as privileged status.

Results
Our analyses revealed that the effect of Level 1 and Level 2 variables varied by two types of fishing. For freshwater fishing, all five Level 1 variables except age were significantly associated with fishing participation. The log odds of participating in freshwater fishing were 3.8 times more for males (exp [1.354] = 3.873), 1.8 times more for White/non-Hispanics (exp [0.579] = 1.784), 1.6 times more for individuals with higher incomes (exp [0.517] = 1.677), 1.3 times more for individuals without a college degree (1/exp [-0.321] = 1.379). Thus, gender was the best predictor for freshwater fishing participation. Among four interactions between race and other level variables, only the interaction between race and age was statistically significant (exp [0.566] = 1.762). The influence of water area variable on freshwater participation was not
statistically significant. Overall, the full theoretical model explained 9.2% more variance in freshwater fishing in comparison to the intercept-only model.

For saltwater fishing, race, gender, and income were significantly associated with saltwater fishing participation. The log odds of participating in saltwater fishing were 1.9 times more for White/non-Hispanics (exp [0.639] = 1.895), 4.1 times more for males (exp [1.411] = 4.1), and 2.1 times more for higher income (exp [0.743] = 2.103). Living in a state with a coastline was the best predictor of saltwater participation. People who lived in the coastal states were 7.2 times more likely to engage in saltwater fishing compared to people who lived in the states without coastlines (exp [1.978] = 7.23). No race related interactions were statistically significant for saltwater fishing. Overall, the full theoretical model explained 80.1% more variance in saltwater fishing in comparison to the intercept-only model.

**Discussion**

The result from this study provided new insight into Americans’ fishing participation. First, our findings suggest that proximate access to water was central to predicting saltwater fishing participation, yet had a less meaningful effect on freshwater fishing participation. It suggested that saltwater fishing participation was more adequately explained by opportunity theory compared to freshwater fishing because it was more heavily dependent on the availability of the recreational resource. Second, for interactions between race/ethnicity and other level 1 variables, we found race/ethnicity and age appeared to be statistically significant for freshwater fishing, yet none of the interactions were significant for saltwater fishing. The direction of the interaction implied that older Whites were more likely than younger Whites to freshwater fish, while older non-Whites were less likely to freshwater fish than younger non-Whites. On the one hand, generational differences among Whites might be explained by the declining accessibility to natural environment (i.e., freshwater fishing areas) due to urbanization. On the other hand, generational differences among minority groups might be explained by historical lack of access to places to fish. While access to fishing spots and fishing clubs were particularly problematic for people of color because fishing context has historically been imbued with middle class White American culture (Jordan & Snow, 1992), younger generations might be less likely to perceive social or cultural barriers to freshwater fishing.

Finally, race, gender, and income were the three most important Level 1 variables for explaining both freshwater and saltwater fishing. The effectiveness of MHSP was partially supported by this finding. Consistent with previous MHSP research, it suggested that affluent White males possessed superior access to both fresh and saltwater fishing. However, our analysis also generated findings that ran counter to MHSP. Having an advanced education level was negatively associated with freshwater fishing participation. Moreover, age did not play an important role of fishing participation in general. These findings suggest that MHSP provides an important but incomplete understanding of Americans’ fishing participation. Our findings lend support to federal and state natural resource agencies initiatives to recruit and retain ethnically diverse fishing participants. As non-Hispanic Whites continue to decline in share of the US population (Murdock, *in press*), the recreational fishing industry will need to cultivate a more diverse fishing population to continue to generate revenue for profits for business owners and to sustain user-supported fisheries programs (e.g. Federal Aid in Sport Fish Restoration).

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Parents play an important role in the youth sport experience as they devote a considerable amount of time, finances, and effort to the youth sport program. They are the ones who sign-up and pay for their child’s participation and often provide significant volunteer labor that is essential to the execution of a successful program (Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2005; Green & Chalip, 1998). This volunteer labor is especially important as these programs are often delivered by volunteer-based grassroots organizations (Searle & Brayley, 2000; Sharpe, 2006). Additionally, parents perform such diverse roles as chauffeur, financier, and cheerleader (Fredricks & Eccles, 2004). Ultimately, youth sport programs could not exist without the performance of an innumerable number of functions on the part of parents, ranging from simple transportation to more involved roles such as coaching.

Parents also play a key role in influencing a youth’s decision to drop out or continue participation in youth sport (Fraser-Thomas & Deakin, 2008). By providing unstructured play opportunities, being emotionally supportive, and balancing the importance of sport with other activities, parents are likely to have children who are more engaged in their youth sport activity. In contrast, youth whose parents coach from the sideline during games or provide rewards for performance are more likely to drop out of youth sport (Fraser-Thomas, Cote, & Deakin, 2005). Youth are also more likely to enjoy youth sport due to the encouragement of their parents (Brustad, 1996; Leff & Hoyle, 1997). In these ways, parents can be positive or negative influences in a youth’s desire to continue to participate. Given the pivotal role that parents play in the youth recreational sport experience, it is, therefore, important to examine the benefit parents might experience as a result of this participation.

One potential benefit that may accrue to parents of participants is the development of sense of community. Parental participation in a youth sport program provides a venue for parents to interact with other families in the community and parents of youth sport participants often form their own social networks (Dorsch et al., 2009). The outcomes of these interactions, however, have not been fully explored despite the significant role that parents play in the youth sport experience. Sense of community, or psychological sense of community (SOC) may be defined as the feeling that one belongs to a group and that by belonging to that group a person’s needs may be met (McMillan & Chavis, 1986; McMillian, 2011). SOC develops through four general areas – membership, influence, integration and fulfillment of needs, and shared emotional connection - with these four areas interacting to form an overall SOC.

To more fully understand why youth sport parents represent an important population to study in relation to SOC, it is important to look at the factors that may lead to higher levels of SOC and how those factors may be relevant to the youth sport setting. The existing research points to several factors that correlate with SOC and are particularly relevant to parents of youth sport participants. These factors include level of involvement, choice, and social identification (see, for example, Breunig, O’Connell, Todd, Anderson, & Young, 2010; Brayley & Obst, 2010). Level of involvement appears to be one of the strongest predictors of SOC in a number of settings including recreational activities (Breunig, et al, 2010), and in community organizations (Obst, Smith, & Zinkiewicz, 2002). For parents of youth sport participants, the most likely ways to be involved are through a commitment of time and/or money. The more one is involved with a
particular community, the more likely that person is to experience SOC. Another factor that appears to influence the level of SOC is the degree of choice that the individual had in choosing to participate in the community (Obst & White, 2007). In the youth sport setting, a parent always has a choice on whether or not to enroll a child. Thus, one would suspect that youth sport parents may feel stronger SOC given that they voluntarily chose to participate in the particular community. A third factor that is likely to have a significant effect on SOC is the degree to which a parent identifies with a particular community (Brayley & Obst, 2010). Indeed, parents of youth sport participants appear to strongly identify with their child’s youth sport experience (Omlie & LaVoi, 2012; Peter, 2011; Siegenthaler & Gonzalez, 1997). The elements of SOC and the various characteristics of the youth sport setting, specifically the involvement of youth sport parents, suggests that parents of youth participants are likely to experience SOC in the youth sport context. No specific study, however, has been completed to confirm this idea. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to test the relationship of level of involvement in the youth sport setting, identification with the youth sport experience, and degree of choice in enrolling a child, with SOC. Additionally, the study explored interactions among the variables. Consequently, the following hypotheses will be tested: H1: Higher levels of parental time involvement in the youth sport setting will be a significant (p<.05) predictor of SOC; H2: Higher levels of parental financial involvement in the youth sport setting will be a significant (p<.05) predictor of SOC; H3: Higher levels of parental identification with the youth sport experience will be a significant (p<.05) predictor of SOC; H4: Higher levels of perceived choice from parents in participation in youth sport programs will be a significant (p<.05) predictor of SOC.

**Method.** Data were collected from 120 parents of youth sport participants involved in one of three recreational youth sport programs located in the Mid-Atlantic region of the United States. Participants received an e-mail from their league administrator asking them to participate in the research and including a link to the online questionnaire. Data were collected near the end of the respective sport seasons. The questionnaire included 24-items from the Sense of Community Index-2 (SCI-2; Chavis, Lee, & Acosta, 2008), 12-items from a social identification scale (Cameron, 2004), and specific questions related to the number of hours spent with the community, financial involvement, and the perceived degree of choice in choosing the community. Internal consistency for the SCI-2 was high for the overall scale (α=.95) as well as the subscales (.82< α < .90). Additionally, internal consistency for the social identity scale was high (α=.90).

**Results.** A three-step hierarchical regression was conducted in order to determine whether predictor variables were associated with SOC. Step 1 regressed SOC on five independent variables: parental time involvement in the youth sport setting (hypothesis 1), level of financial involvement in the youth sport setting (total dollars/100; hypothesis 2), level of identification with the youth sport experience (hypothesis 3), perceived choice from parents in participation (hypothesis 4) and gender (covariate). Results from this step accounted for a significant amount of variance in SOC ($R^2=.24$, $p<.001$) and supported a significant association for time involvement (hypothesis 1: $b=.03$, $p=.040$), financial involvement (hypothesis 2: $b=.02$, $p=.029$) and perceived choice (hypothesis 4: $b=.13$, $p=.014$). A significant association between level of identification and SOC was not supported (hypothesis 3: $b=.25$, $p=.348$).

In order to further determine whether the lack of an association between level of identification and SOC was due to the length of time a youth had been on a particular team (team time), an interaction between level of identification and team time was tested. Following
recommendations by Aiken and West (1991), moderation was tested by entering the main effect for \textit{team time} in step 2 (e.g., for six years, $b=.100$, $p<.001$), and the product term of level of identification by \textit{team time} in step 3 of the regression model. The full regression model accounted for a large amount of variance in SOC ($R^2=.40$, $p<.001$). Results from step 3 indicate a significant association between the interaction term and SOC ($b=-.45$, $p=.009$). This suggests that the association between identification and SOC is dependent upon how long a child has been on a particular team. Probing of this interaction revealed that if a child had only been on a particular team for one year, identification was significantly associated with SOC ($b=.68$, $p=.015$), and if an individual had been with a team from two to five years, there was no statistically significant association between identification and SOC (e.g., for two years, $b=.229$, $p=.345$), and if they had been on the team for six plus years, there was an inverse relationship between identity and SOC (e.g., for six years, $b=-1.61$, $p=.037$). It is also worth noting that after taking into account the main effect and interaction for team time, the main effect for financial involvement in the youth sport setting was no longer statistically significant ($b=.10$, $p=.200$). The associations between hours a week and choice remained statistically significant.

\textbf{Discussion.} The findings of this study suggest involvement, choice, and identification may lead to a higher SOC among parents of youth sport participants. The implications of these findings offer several possibilities for administrators who wish to increase the SOC among parents. First, parents who spend more time involved with the program are more likely to experience an increased SOC. Numerous opportunities already exist for parental involvement including coaching, league administration, field maintenance, and other important tasks. The question for administrators then becomes how to encourage parents to get involved with these tasks. Approaches could include offering a registration discount for parents who volunteer a certain number of hours or honoring parents who do volunteer. This could be done at an end of season banquet or announcements at games. Additionally, parents who perceive that they had a choice in participating in the program are more likely to experience SOC. Administrators may, therefore, wish to market the benefits and fun of the experience for parents as well as youth. This may create an excitement in the parents to sign-up their child.

One of the more complex findings is the interaction between identification and number of years spent with a team. As identification is a significant predictor of SOC in the first year of participation it is especially important that administrators work to create identification with the youth sport community among parents whose child is a first year participant. This could take the form of team shirts for the parents, or in connecting parents electronically through social media. In contrast, after six years with a team, higher identification actually predicts lower SOC. This may be a result of the parent now having older children who were more self-sufficient with their participation in the league.

The results of this study indicate that parents of youth sport participants may develop a SOC within that setting. Future research should focus on the impact of SOC in this setting. For example, if parents develop a higher SOC how does that affect their behavior during games, or how does a higher SOC affect interactions with other parents outside of the youth sport experience? Further, if a parent develops a higher SOC within the youth sport setting does that lead to a higher overall quality of life for the parent? Gaining insight in to these questions will further illuminate the potential importance of SOC within this setting.

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During a time of rapidly increasing academic and media representations of trans-identified people in North American culture (Vidal-Ortiz, 2008), few formal discussions and resources exist within the broad field of leisure studies relevant to trans issues (Lewis & Johnson, 2011). Further, within the scant related foci on intersections of leisure and queer lives, trans men remain virtually invisible.

This particular study is strongly tied to feminist theories and ideals, but care is given to acknowledge instances of historical marginalization of trans issues by some feminist individuals and groups (Koyama, 2006), and the primary researcher labels his theoretical lens used as simply ‘critical’ and ‘participant-centered’ for this reason. However, notable as informing this study are the more critical feminist approaches to gender and leisure, such as post-structural feminist writings critiquing the cultural-historical forces impacting the gendered body in leisure spaces (e.g., Aitchison, 2003; Wearing, 1998) as well as leisure research specific to gay and lesbian spatial negotiations (e.g., Johnson & Samdahl, 2005; Skeggs, 1999).

Some exploratory qualitative studies indicated that people identifying under the trans umbrella found public leisure space as potentially dangerous, but also as a transformative site for visibility, connection, and affirmation (Lewis & Berbary, 2009; Lewis & Johnson, 2011). Building from these findings, the primary researcher of this study set out to introduce the traditionally unrepresented transmasculine voices in gender-focused leisure research, exploring how participants made meaning of play, recreation, leisure, and gender within the context of their reconstructed life stories.

Note: Terminology used to describe the trans experience is highly contested, partially due to the spectrum of ways people identify within and outside of traditional binaries of male and female (Stryker, 2006). However, the term “transgender” gained popularity to unify through the diversity for the sake of advocacy and sense of community among people embracing a gender different to the one originally assigned to them (Namaste, 2000). The primary researcher of this study chose the term “transmasculine” as an inclusive marker for participants who were born identified as biologically female, but at some point in their lives transitioned into a public male identity, and alternately uses the term “trans” as many participants in this study identified this word as even more of the current inclusive standard than the word “transgender”.

Critical narrative inquiry was used as a framework, since participant-centered narratives resist the formal scientific pretensions emphasized within a more positivistic approach (Besley, 2002). The narrative approach allowed focus on the specific as constructed within cultural-historical intersections (Webster & Mertova, 2007), and the researchers embraced the narrative turn in viewing the research relationship as a partnership with the participants, whose words and intentions were privileged as expertise during the analytic process (Pinnegar & Daynes, 2008).

Recruitment of participants was a purposeful endeavor, achieved through modified snowball sampling, which started with key informants. Five self-identified trans men, ranging in age from 24-43 years old, participated in in-depth face-to-face interviews at the location of their choice with the primary researcher. The participants ranged in years since initiating gender transition from 2-8 years prior to the interview. One participant identified as Asian-American, and the other four identified as Caucasian.
The primary researcher used an interview guide to cover a priori goals, but started with a broad ‘grand tour’ question, and allowed the participants to control the direction of the interview as much as possible. Interviews were digitally recorded and professionally transcribed verbatim.

A variety of techniques were used to enhance the validity and trustworthiness of this study, including member-checking, use of a peer-debriefer, reflexive journaling, and ongoing analysis discussions and negotiations with the second researcher. The peer debriefer in this study was a university professional who identifies as a trans man; he validated the safety and appropriateness of methods, language, and analysis used in reconstructing narratives and identifying central themes in this project.

For the analysis, the researchers utilized a type of constant comparison in which implicit and explicit identity claims were identified and then reconstructed into central ‘story lines’, or themes. A second wave of analysis looked deeper into how play, recreation, and leisure seemed to influence facets of gender identity, as well as how the process of gender transition influenced facets of leisure identity and spatial negotiation. Individual narratives were compared and contrasted with other participant experiences to create a discussion of interwoven findings, which included many common themes, as well as unique counter-narratives that highlight the complexities and diversity experienced when transitioning from female to male.

The participants in this story all identified as trans men, but all arrived to the point of transition they were at in unique ways. This uniqueness is important to note for the sake of understanding the increased possibilities in looking at gender within the field of Leisure Studies, but was also explicitly important to participants through the telling of their stories. For example, “I think that there are a lot of trans people who tell their story in this way that’s like, ‘I’ve always known that I was different’, or ‘I’ve always known’... I don’t like to tell my story that way (Nick).” Similar to Nick, Daniel also felt like he did not fit well into a general trans narrative, especially as a gay man. “Yeah and um, for me, finding those spaces of overlap has been very important. Um because there is a fair bit of animosity between the two communities and I’ve never felt comfortable with FTM (Female-To-Male) groups ummm and I think a lot of that has to do with many having been a lesbian, with lesbianism being sort of the antithesis of my identity. Uh that I just I feel like the odd man out...a lot of the times. (Daniel)

Although the individual life stories were rich in detail and implications within themselves, the researchers agreed on central stories across the narratives to help illustrate the overall understanding of the participants’ experiences. The creation of these themes/storylines was to help expand the discussion rather than reduce the participants’ lives into generic, ‘typified’ experiences. “Becoming my own man” became the unifying theme across narratives, as the one thing everyone had in common was the unique way they each negotiated gender and ‘maleness’ as their transitions were situated and interarticulated with the many other facets of their lives. The other overlapping story lines included topical areas of: awareness and definitions of gender identity across the lifespan; intersections with sexual identity and female gender performances; relevance of physical bodily transitions; shifting families and supports; making meaning of maleness; gendered space negotiation; and, trajectories into the future.

Within these themes, play, recreation, and leisure were found to be central to these aspects of participant life stories. For instance, many of the participants resonated with the idea of their transition as a ‘second adolescence’. In those terms, it makes sense that leisure activities would provide opportunities for gender exploration, especially in a culture that highly genders experiences and artifacts. Most of the participants identified ways that they and others gendered play-based activities as children, and the way they interacted as gendered beings with recreation
activities and spaces as teens. This relates to how our culture disciplines children into gendered roles through the developmental tools of play and recreation, but the participants’ more recent adult experiences seemed to be even more relevant to the story of ‘becoming my own man’ since these negotiations took place in more recent years and highlighted the struggles and accomplishments in relation to original expectations as they experienced changes in the way each of them saw themselves as reflected through the eyes of others.

Before and during transitions, participants put a lot of consideration into how the activities they engaged in influenced the ways others saw them as gendered beings, but as each person became more consistently legible as male, they felt more options were available to them, and some finally felt comfortable exploring their more “feminine” side through leisure activities that they previously had avoided. However, throughout the transition process, participants were hyper-vigilant of safety issues related to the spaces they occupied and the ways in which they performed gender.

Even though participants in this study frequently faced challenges in their lives, the way they negotiated constraints was complex and often spoke to individual sense of self and social supports as they developed within the context of transitioning bodies. Similar to the findings of Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997), this study further challenges the notion of a linear progression through a constraint negotiation hierarchy (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991). In the case of this study, participants highlighted an expanded view of how contexts move and priorities change, often based off of current social supports, gendered presentation, ability to pass, comfort, preparation, and other factors. Also, similar to Jacobson and Samdahl’s (1998) look at leisure in the lives of “old lesbians”, there were points where some participants needed to segment their lives and pursue activities in spaces safe and free from potential harassment. However, most of the participants in this study seemed to integrate different elements of their lives back together to some degree as they progressed through their transition.

One participant shared a story that highlights the complexity of gendered spatial negotiation around students who knew him as male in classes, but might witness him in a more ambiguous physical presentation. “…I wanted to do bike rides, and I didn’t... I didn’t care enough about passing to wear my binder while I was riding my bike because it was uncomfortable, and it was more important to me to be comfortable and be riding my bike and feel good about my sort of athletic activities, so that was a sort of choice I made…”

Similar to findings from related exploratory studies, all participants employed identity management techniques to promote safety and deflect stigma, but Goffman’s (1963) assertion that successful stigma management directly relates to positive outcomes is only partially true. While avoidance and stigma deflection provided safety and time to transition further, it seemed acts of resistance and transcendence of constraints helped participants clarify values the most. The pieces related to play, recreation, and leisure negotiation related to gendered pressures at different developmental stages and as associated with these men’s gender transitions requires more study and discussion. Even though quite a lot of literature already exists examining gender and play, these stories presented alternative narratives to negotiation as teens and adults considering the complexities involved with shifting gendered presentations and sexualities that are not commonly expressed within leisure research.

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References


Researchers have documented a number of benefits that creative arts programs have for participants, particularly related to mental and social well-being (Reynolds, Vivat & Prior, 2008). For example, arts programs have been found to promote positive youth development, facilitate community integration for people with disabilities, and reduce memory loss for older adults with dementia (Carpenter & Blandy, 2008; Castora-Binkley, 2010). Participation in leisure arts has been shown to provide people with a sense of identity and opportunities for self expression, improve quality of life, and even positively impact health and illness (Cohen et al., 2006; Stavola Daly & Kunstler., 2011). Despite the literature into the value of leisure arts, little research has explored the means by which such programs are delivered. Leisure services provided by different sectors are likely to have different missions and therefore different means of leisure service delivery. For example, the mission of public leisure organizations is generally to provide equitable services to all people in the community, whereas the mission of a commercial organization is generally to provide services in a way that will generate profit. Such differences can drastically change the approach an organization will take in designing programs and ultimately impact the participant’s leisure experience. Furthermore, in North America, leisure services are becoming increasingly privatized, meaning that more and more programs are being operated through the private (non-government) sector (Crossley, Jamieson & Brayley, 2012). This trend has caused leisure scholars to question whether services provided through different sectors provide equivalent experiences and if a transition must be made from public to private, how such a transition will affect existing user groups.

The subject of this case study arose when a neighbourhood recreation centre was slated for closure in June of 2011. As a result of the closure, a pottery program offered by municipal leisure services within the recreation centre was relocated to an alternate location under the administration of a private non-profit organization which provides similar leisure and educational opportunities, but has a cost-recovery mandate. Since the closure of the community centre was announced in December 2010, we started to wonder how participants perceived the loss of their community-based program. We were also curious about the impact that a change in service providers would have on the program. The purpose of this study was to explore how the relocation of the leisure arts program and transition between providers impacted the participants and their experiences with leisure arts.

**Methods**

Using case study methodology (Merriam, 2009), we collected data from several stakeholders involved in the program (e.g., students, instructors, administrators of both programs) through individual and group interviews. We collected data in two phases, prior to the transition and approximately six to eight months after the program had begun being offered by the new organization. Our sample consisted of 14 students, two instructors, and two administrators (n=18). To maximize the variation of the sample, we included students who participated in the original program only, in the new program only, and both programs. Eleven participants were interviewed during the first phase, and thirteen during the second phase (six participated in both phases). As the first and second authors were participants of the pottery program ourselves, we
engaged in reflexive writing and carefully documented our own experiences, thoughts, impressions, and viewpoints regarding the transition of the program (Dupuis, 1999). We digitally recorded and transcribed all interviews from both phases. All data from both phases of the study, including transcripts and journals was analyzed using open and axial coding and constant comparison (Charmaz, 2006). We utilized NVivo 8, a qualitative data analysis software to organize and categorize data. We conducted member checks by sending each participant a preliminary summary of the findings and asking for verification and feedback (Creswell, 2009).

**Findings**

Our interview data revealed a range of responses to the potential changes in the program. Some participants were concerned about the impact of the relocation on their ability to learn and develop their skills. Prior to the transition, some participants were nervous about the possibility of increased costs and reduced services. Almost all participants expressed frustration about a lack of communication regarding the transition. However, many were hopeful for new opportunities, such as learning new techniques or using different materials. They viewed the change as an opportunity to develop a stronger pottery program within their community. After the transition, many participants expressed frustration with increased prices, reduced services, and a lack of communication between administrators and students. The most dissatisfied students were generally those who had participated in the original program, while those students who had no experience with the original program tended to be much more satisfied with the new program. Challenges throughout the transition generally resulted from inadequate communication, expectations based on the previous program, and differing perceptions of the definition of a community-based program.

*“Being left in the dark”*. Most students and instructors described feeling uncertain about the transition as a result of receiving either no information or information that they did not deem credible (e.g., rumors or speculation). Students had different reactions to this lack of communication. Some participants were cautiously optimistic, considering possible connections or resources of the new organization to improve the quality of the program. Most participants felt wary, speculating on ways that the new program might be worse, yet acknowledging that such speculation perpetuated a negative attitude toward the new program. For example, participants worried that the new program would be more expensive, have larger class sizes, have limited class offerings and parking, and that the new administrators lacked necessary expertise. Students attributed their concerns to a lack of direct communication from the administrators of both the original and new program and to a lack of input from students. Students who had participated in the program for many years felt particularly frustrated that their voices were not being heard. Although several students explained that they received some information through the instructors and that the instructors tried to communicate their needs to the new administrators, they tended to be dissatisfied with this level and type of communication.

*“A matter of expectations”* – Participants described the strengths and weaknesses of both programs largely in comparison to their experiences with the original program and the expectations that created for the new program. For example, participants of both program often complained about the lack of time available to access the space outside of class time for independent work, a highly valued aspect of the original program. However, participants who only had experience with the new program expressed little concern with this issue. Furthermore, participants expressed feelings of ownership and input regarding the original program and felt disappointed when their input and suggestions were not sought out by the new program administration. Finally, although participants recognized limitations to the original program, they
expressed high expectations of the new program due to their perceptions that the private
organization would have more resources than the municipal organization and were disappointed
when those expectations were not met. For example, some students hoped that the new
organization would utilize resources and connections to improve opportunities to learn new
techniques and felt disappointed with this did not occur.

“It depends on how you define a community program”: There was a significant disconnect
from the way that different stakeholders defined and viewed the mission of a community-based
program. Students and instructors tended to prioritize needs of the community of potters no
matter how long they had been involved in the program, while the new administration tended to
prioritize the community at large. This difference was expressed as the instructors and more
experienced students lobbied for more advanced instruction, a wider range of classes and
“somewhere for students to go” after mastering the beginner and intermediate class offerings.
The administrators, however, viewed the purview of the program as being limited to providing
introductory pottery experiences to the community at large. Furthermore, a disconnect existed
between students and administrators as the administration tended to view the program as an
educational opportunity leading to learning outcomes and the students as a recreation activity
leading to social connections, enjoyment, and creative expression. This disconnect led to a
discrepancy between expectations and visions of the program setup and, in turn, frustrations on
both sides.

Discussion

This study highlights the challenges of transitioning between service providers, which may be
considered in the future as other community programs are cut from municipal recreation
services. The findings particularly highlight the importance of direct communication with
existing participants and recognizing the informal communication that goes on among
participants and instructors. In this case, participants’ discussion and speculation about changes
often lead to negative attitudes toward the new program and were fueled by a lack of direct
communication from the administration of either organization. Furthermore, it highlights the
importance of understanding and managing participants’ expectations and recognizing that
participants’ expectations might be related to the sector and image of the organization. In this
case existing participants, particularly long-term participants, often had clear expectations of
what they desired and a strong sense of ownership over the program. They were, thus, often
disappointed when those expectations were not met.

Managers of leisure service programs would benefit from recognizing the unique challenges
of transitioning an existing program. To do so successfully, managers need to actively seek out
the input of existing participants to understand their expectations and concerns. Furthermore,
they need to actively communicate their intentions, limitations, and goals to the participants in
order to increase buy-in, particularly when working under a different mission or mandate than
the previous provider. Future research should consider the challenges of transitioning between
service providers in other contexts and among other populations. For example, it is possible that
participants might attribute different meaning to leisure arts than to other types of activities.

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RECREATION SPECIALIZATION AND SERIOUS LEISURE: A CASE STUDY OF AMATEUR SOFTBALL PLAYERS

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The theory of serious leisure and recreation specialization have been widely applied for understanding leisure and recreation participants' involvement and dedication of their leisure pursuit in the past three decades. To be more specific, serious leisure has been considered as a form of leisure which is the systematic pursuit of an amateur, hobbyist, or volunteer activity. Participants, in a typical case, feel substantial and interested in their leisure pursuits, have career development, and acquire special skills, knowledge, and experience through their leisure dedication (Stebbins, 1992). Bryan (1977) defined recreation specialization as “a continuum of behavior from the general to the particular, reflected by equipment and skills used in sport and activity setting preferences” (p.175). Previous studies have indicated a theoretically connection between serious leisure and recreation specialization. Stebbins (2006) specifically addressed two serious leisure qualities, endurance career development and strong identity with the chosen activity, which presents a significant connection with the concept of recreation specialization. Scott and Shafer (2001) noted the career development and career change characteristic of serious leisure could be used to explain the progression and stage of involvement in recreation specialization. A bird watching study documented a positive relationship between serious leisure and recreation specialization (Tsaur & Liang, 2008). However, a question occurs: how similar are serious leisure and recreation specialization in terms of the conceptual and fundamental frameworks? Scott (2012) has argued that although there is a similarity within the two theories for explaining the complexity of leisure as part of participants' identity and lifestyle, both of them have generated its unique contribution. Since the on-going discussion of the similarities and differences between serious leisure and recreation specialization, it is worthwhile to investigate how these two theories are related to or differ from each other. This study examines the relationship between the framework of recreation specialization and serious leisure by utilizing canonical correlation analysis (CCA), which allows researchers to assess the correlation between two sets of multiple variables simultaneously. The researchers are also able to explain an “overlap” between serious leisure and recreation specialization in a case study of a group of softball players.

Methods

The study was conducted in a community based recreation program in a rural city in the South-central region of the United States. Softball not only is the traditional sport in the community but also has the largest group of participants in all the adult programs. In fall of 2011, an estimate of the people enrolled in the softball program was approximately 600 within three adult softball leagues: men’s, coed’s, and senior league. A total of 192 pen-and-paper based surveys were collected on the city managed softball fields. As a result, 183 surveys were completely answered without any missing information, while nine surveys were not applied for further analysis due to having one or more unanswered questions. Among these 183 surveys, 138 were completed by male softball players and the remaining 48 were answered by females.

The questionnaire of the study included three sections, including recreation specialization, serious leisure, and demographic information of research participants. First, the amateurs’ level of specialization was measured by seven questions within three dimensions: past experience (2 questions), economic commitment (3 questions), and central-to-lifestyle (2 questions), which has
been applied in testing recreationalists’ specialization in various activities (McFarlane, 1994; Miller & Graefe, 2000; Tsaur & Liang, 2008). Due to the nature of different activities, it is necessary to modify for measuring a specific activity and target populations in specialization (Tsaur & Liang, 2008). Participants were asked to report their years of involvement in softball and frequency of participation per week. Their economic commitment to softball was measured by the amount of money they spend and quantity of owned equipment (bats & gloves). Two statements representing the lifestyle component of specialization were selected, including preference of the activity and measured on a five level Likert scale (1 indicating “strongly disagree” to 5 indicating “strongly agree”). Second, serious leisure was used to investigate the softball players’ level of systematic leisure pursuit. The six factors of Serious Leisure Inventory and Measurement (SLIM) (Gould, Moore, McGuire, & Stebbins, 2008) were employed in this study: perseverance, significant effort, career progress, career contingencies, strong identity, and unique ethos. These factors were used to measure the “seriousness” of amateur athletes rather than the outcome of their leisure pursuits. Softball players were asked to rate their agreement with each statement on a five level Likert scale (1 indicating “strongly disagree” to 5 indicating “strongly agree”). Finally, the softball players were asked to provide their demographic information for understanding the demographic characteristics of research participants.

Canonical correlation analysis (CCA), a multivariate statistical approach, was applied to test the correlation between the framework of recreation specialization and serious leisure or how a set of indicator of recreation specialization predicts a set of indicator from serious leisure by Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 20.

**Results**

In this data set, the players’ age ranged from 18 to 83 years old and the average age was 32 years old. Eighty percent of the participants were Caucasian while all other ethnic groups were relatively small in the sample. The majority of these softball players have earned college degrees or higher levels of education (81%) and lived within ten miles of the fields (75%). The participants were 73% local residents (N=134), while 49 individuals were non-local residents. The participants’ average year of participating in softball was 11 years and 40% of the participants practiced softball twice or more per week.

The results of canonical correlation analysis between recreation specialization and serious leisure showed that the multivariate test between the two framework is statistically significant (Hotelling’s T-test=3.00, p<0.05) meaning that a significant relationship between the linear combination of the recreation specialization and serious leisure. Although six canonical functions were extracted in the study, only the first function was statistically significant at the 0.05 level (Wilk’s λ=0.53, F=2.71, p<0.05) for further interpretation. The first function showed a canonical correlation (Rc) of 0.60 which refers to the strength of the relationship between two sets of multiple variables, and the squared canonical correlation (Rc²) equals 0.36, which refers to the shared variance between the pair of canonical variates. In other words, in the function 1, 36% of amateur softball players’ seriousness of their leisure pursuit was accounted for by their level of specialization in their softball participation. Figure 1 reports the detailed canonical correlation between softball participants’ level of specialization and seriousness of their leisure pursuit in the first function. All the canonical loading of recreation specialization and serious leisure were greater than 0.30 which is usually considered an eligible cut-off point for meaningful interpretation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Within the framework of recreation specialization, the two variables related to central-to-lifestyle - time commitment (0.91) and activity preference (0.70) - showed a relatively strong loading with the concept specialization and the framework of
serious leisure, compared to the loading of other variables associated with amateur players’ past experience and economic commitment, of which ranged from 0.32 to 0.44. In addition, strong identity (0.95), unique ethos (0.84), and career contingencies (0.80) generated a relatively strong contribution on the correlation with the serious leisure variate, while career progress (0.34) showed the weakest loading in this case.

![Figure 1 Canonical Correlation between Recreation Specialization and Serious Leisure](image)

Discussion

The framework of recreation specialization was able to explain slightly over one-third of the serious leisure concept in this study based on amateur softball players’ dedication in their leisure pursuit. The results revealed that there was an overlap and similarity between the framework of serious leisure and recreation specialization, but each of the theories still remained its own unique contribution in fundamental and conceptual differences. It is similar to the argument Scott (2012) stated that the framework of recreation specialization and serious leisure provide meaningful and valuable insight of participants’ leisure behavior and open discussion for advocate of each theory recognizing the unique contributions that other have made. In addition, softball amateurs’ central-to-lifestyle characteristics in specialization advanced the correlation with the framework of serious leisure, especially their time commitment to the activity. Stebbins (2001) indicated that “every serious leisure activity offers a major lifestyle and identity for its enthusiastic (p.56)” which means lifestyle is integrated with people who are serious about their leisure pursuit and could be used to explain a pattern of behavior which combines values, preferences, and attitudes within a specific population (Stebbins, 2006). Strong identity and unique ethos are the key elements for creating a solid correlation between the concept of serious leisure and recreation, which revealed a similar result as a sport participants’ study conducted by Green and Jones (2005). The current study targeted amateur softball players and collected data across three leagues with a wide range of demographic and life stage difference which might reflecting a varied level of seriousness and willingness-to-be-specialized in the activity. Future study could correlate these two theories and more clearly define the participants with a wide range of dedication and involvement in a particular activity.

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THE EFFECTS OF URBANIZATION, MOTIVATION, AND CONSTRAINTS ON PHYSICAL ACTIVITY
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China has undergone seismic social and economic change over the last 30 years. This change has not been without costs, however, as a recent report (Wang, 2011) found that 32% of Chinese adults’ are overweight while another 10% are obese. One likely reason for these high rates is insufficient leisure-time physical activity (LTPA), with less than 16% of Chinese people currently reporting they are physically active (Chinese Health Ministry, 2012).

Considerable research energy has been expended on identifying the determinants of LTPA in the West—and, to a lesser degree, in China as well. To date, much of this work has focused on individual factors such as motivations (e.g., Brunet & Sabiston, 2011; Cox et al., 2008; Martin, 2010) and constraints (e.g., Alexandris, et al., 2003; Stanis et al., 2009). But in places like today’s China, socioeconomic and cultural/national forces may also play an important role. Stiglitz (2000, in Jiang, 2003), for instance, has stated that China’s urbanization is one of the most significant world events at the beginning of the twenty-first century. Based on the above, the purpose of this study is to examine how different urbanization levels impact Chinese people’s LTPA, both directly and in conjunction with their motivations for and constraints to LTPA.

Method
Communities having high, medium, and low urbanization levels (93.8%, 61.2% and 35.6%, respectively) in Hangzhou, China were first identified. Residents in each were then approached and asked to complete an on-site questionnaire that included items on their monthly LTPA frequency, the duration of each event, and their motivations for and constraints to LTPA. Motivations were measured using the Motives for Physical Activity Measure - Revised (Frederick & Ryan, 1993) as it has been successfully employed in other Chinese studies (Chen et al., 2006; Yu & Xu, 2002). A new item measuring perseverance was also included, as earlier studies (Liu & Xu 2000; Yu, 2000) indicated that this important Chinese value could affect LTPA. Thus, a total of 16 items were used to measure six different motivations: enjoyment, appearance, skill/competence, fitness/health, social, and perseverance. Intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991) were adapted from a constraint study conducted in China (Dong & Chick, 2012). Two hundred copies of the questionnaire were distributed in each community, with 575 returned. After deleting those with more than four missing items, 497 remained (262 males; 235 females; age $M=33.48$ years). Multiple imputation was used to replace missing data for the remaining cases.

Results
Participants’ LTPA frequency in the high, middle, and low urbanization communities were $M=773.64$ ($SD=750.60$), $M=553.95$($SD=534.09$), and $M=585.78$($SD=537.25$) minutes respectively. An ANOVA, by urbanization level, was significant ($F=7.32$, $p=.001$), with follow-up tests indicating that Chinese people in highly urbanized areas engaged in LTPA significantly more than those in either middle- or lower-level urbanized areas. Fitness/health was the highest rated motivation ($M=4.00$, $SD=0.92$), followed by enjoyment ($M=3.71$, $SD=.78$) and perseverance ($M=3.70$, $SD=1.07$), appearance ($M=3.30$, $SD=1.13$), competence/challenge ($M=3.10$, $SD=1.13$), and social ($M=2.92$, $SD=0.96$). A series of paired $t$-tests indicated that each motivation was significantly different from all of the others. Structural constraint was rated
highest \((M=2.96, SD=0.91)\), followed by interpersonal \((M=2.67, SD=1.11)\) and intrapersonal \((M=2.41, SD=1.00)\) constraints. A series of paired \(t\)-tests indicated that each constraint was significantly different from the other two.

For parsimony’s sake, motivation and constraint overall scores were calculated by averaging the corresponding subscales, and then separate regressions were performed to examine the effects of urbanization levels on overall motivation (Table 1) and overall constraint (Table 2).

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>( \beta )</th>
<th>( t )</th>
<th>( R^2 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Urbanization Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-1.22***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>-1.97***</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Urbanization level was dummy coded, with high urbanization being the reference group.

As shown in Tables 1 and 2, urbanization level significantly affected both overall motivation and overall constraint; with Chinese people in highly urbanized areas reporting being significantly more constrained and less motivated than those in either middle- or lower-level urbanized areas. This effect size was small, however (Cohen, 1992).

A hierarchical regression (Table 3) was conducted to test the combined effects of urbanization level, overall motivation, and overall constraint, on LTPA. As per Cohen and colleagues’ (2003) recommendation, we entered the most distal variable (i.e., urbanization level) first. Although motivation and constraint are sometimes construed to be in balance (Crawford et al., 1991) we chose to enter these variables separately to better determine the effect of each (with overall motivation randomly chosen to precede overall constraint).

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>( \beta_1 )</th>
<th>( \beta_2 )</th>
<th>( \beta_3 )</th>
<th>( R^2 )</th>
<th>( \Delta R^2 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urbanization Level</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>-219.69***</td>
<td>-202.93**</td>
<td>-239.27****</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>-187.87**</td>
<td>-206.69**</td>
<td>-237.91***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Motivation</td>
<td>118.07**</td>
<td>172.25****</td>
<td></td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-123.03****</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Urbanization level was dummy coded, with high urbanization being the reference group.

*p<.05. **p<.01. ***p<.001. ****p<.0001.
As shown, urbanization level affected LTPA independently and after overall motivation and overall constraint were added, with the latter inclusions further increasing explanatory ability.

**Discussion**

This study empirically examined how LTPA differs by urbanization level; how urbanization level affects motivation for and constraints to LTPA; and how urbanization level, overall motivation, and overall constraint, combine to predict LTPA. Our results are consistent with Western studies (e.g., Eyler et al., 2003; Parks et al., 2003; Van Tuyckom, 2009) in that urban residents were found to engage in significantly more LTPA than rural residents (but see also Bertrais et al., 2004; Brown et al., 1999; Wilcox et al., 2000 for contradictory results). However, evidence shows that occupational physical activity also contributes to meeting the recommend guidelines, especially for those with lower education levels (Bensley, 2011). Thus, it is possible that the LTPA of the low urbanization participants in our study was underestimated because they may have been more likely to participate in heavy labor and physically demanding work.

As per some earlier studies conducted in China (Su, 2005; Sun, 2007; Wang, 2002; Yin, 1999), fitness/health was found to be the most important motivation for LTPA. One possible reason for this finding is that the medical system is not well developed in China and, in fact, before 2009 there was no healthcare for rural residents. Moreover, both ancient (e.g., Mencius) and modern (e.g., Mao Zedong) Chinese leaders have emphasized the need for people to “exercise” their perseverance through suffering and physical activity. Also, for most Chinese, being with family involves a high degree of obligation and responsibility (Gao, 1996), which may in turn mean this is not a social context for leisure generally (Freysinger & Chen, 1993) or LTPA specifically. The regression results are also noteworthy as they suggest that urbanization levels are slightly more important in terms of influencing constraints to, rather than motivations for, LTPA. Part of the reason for this may be because urbanization level influences the availability of LTPA places and spaces.

This study has important practical and theoretical implications. In terms of the former, from a policy-making perspective there is a clear need to build more parks, sport fields, and recreation facilities especially in less urbanized areas of China. In addition, communication initiatives may want to focus not only on highlighting the fitness/health and enjoyment benefits of LTPA but also its ability to help Chinese people develop perseverance. In terms of the latter, Walker and Virden (2005) proposed that macro levels variables such as socioeconomic and cultural/national forces impacted motivations for and constraints to leisure participation, and the results of this study—in terms of urbanization and LTPA—provide additional support for their proposition.

**Conclusion**

This study has certain limitations. First, LTPA intensity was not measured. Second, only one item was used to measure perseverance. Third, although we tried to ensure distinct urbanization levels, because all three were situated in the same city, caution should be exercised in generalizing study findings. We would also recommend future work consider examining other factors, such as social support and social cohesion, to see whether urbanization influences these social factors and, consequently, LTPA. In addition, future studies should consider examining other densely populated countries (e.g., India, Brazil) to determine if the same relationships exist.

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Selected References


LEADERSHIP AND THE BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA'S HIGH ADVENTURE PROGRAM
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Recreation programs for youth are increasingly understood to provide participants more than fun and games. Most youth development programs found in recreational settings focus on specific outcomes in young people that will assist them in becoming fully functional adults (Witt & Caldwell, 2005). More empirical evidence is needed to demonstrate the efficacy of these recreational programs to provide educational or developmental benefits. One key outcome that transcends many recreational programs, regardless of setting, is leadership development. General leadership development in youth has been studied at great length. Findings suggest that programs can and have been designed to develop leadership in youth (DesMarais, Yang, & Farzanehkia, 2000). Furthermore, research has determined that some settings are better for developing leadership in youth than others. Specific evidence suggests outdoor or wilderness environments offer additional advantages and may be optimal contexts for leadership development (Hattie et al., 1997; Kimball & Bacon, 1993; Walsh & Golins, 1976).

The physical environment where leadership development occurs is very important. Russell stated “leadership does not exist in a vacuum” (2005, p. 11). This means that every aspect of the surrounding environment has an impact on leadership development. Specifically, research has addressed the importance of an unfamiliar and challenging physical environment (McKenzie, 2000). Additionally, DesMarais et al. (2000) suggest that adult/youth partnerships, giving youth decision-making roles, and recognizing the contributions of youth as leaders are important elements of leadership development. These principles often guide the implementation of outdoor youth development programs designed to promote leadership development (BSA, 2010; Outward Bound, 2012; NOLS, 2012).

The Boys Scouts of America (BSA) has been providing recreational youth programs for over 100 years (Witt & Caldwell, 2005). Since its inception, the BSA’s programs have promoted leadership development and other developmental outcomes within the context of recreational activities (e.g., camping, backpacking, and sailing) (BSA, 1998). One particular leadership program is the Boy Scouts’ High Adventure Program. BSA has long promoted the High Adventure Programs as settings for developing youth leadership (Griggs, 2009). However, little research has empirically evaluated these programs’ impact on leadership development. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to evaluate leadership development in a BSA High Adventure Program.

Two research objectives guided this study. First, we sought to determine whether youth participants in Philmont’s 12-day trek High Adventure Program reported increases in leadership measures. Second, we explored what characteristics of the High Adventure Program potentially promoted or detracted from leadership development within the BSA High Adventure Program.

This study used a non-experimental retrospective research design with quantitative and qualitative data obtained from a single sample of participants at the Philmont Scout Ranch. The population of interest for this study was youth between the ages of 12 and 21 years of age that were participating in the Philmont Scout Ranch 12-Day Trek Program. To ensure a representative sample of the population, the probability sampling method of systematic simple random
sampling was used. On four randomly selected days throughout the summer, every other crew arriving back in Base Camp from their trek was asked to participate.

Data were collected at the Philmont Scout Ranch in Cimarron, NM. The Philmont Scout Ranch is one of the Boy Scouts of America’s three high adventure bases and is the world’s largest operating youth camp and youth-run cattle ranch (BSA, 2010). This study employed a self-administered survey instrument given to participants upon completion of their program. The survey used the Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Scale to measure reported leadership qualities among participants. The Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Scale was originally created by Seevers, Dormody, and Clason (1995) and is a valid and reliable measure of youth leadership life skills development. In addition to the Leadership Life Skills Development Scale, two open-ended questions designed to extract elements that promoted or detracted from leadership development, demographic questions, and items to determine crew roles were also administered. The retrospective pre/post design was structured to ask participants two sets of questions after their experiences in the program. The first set of questions asked participants how they felt about a particular characteristic before their experience. The second set of questions asked participants how they felt about that same characteristic at the time of the survey, after their experience. The retrospective pre/post design (Pratt, McGuigan, & Katzev, 2000) allowed for increased accuracy in reporting changes in attitude because participants had a better understanding of what their initial attitudes were (Davis, 2003).

IBM SPSS 20 was used for all quantitative analyses. Research Question 1 analyzed program performance using the quantitative technique of the dependent, or a paired, t-test. Research Question 2 was analyzed by taking the primary responses received from participants and reducing that data into themes by means of a coding process (Creswell, 2007). The goal of the coding process was to extract emergent themes or key elements that were present in the data.

Data collection resulted in a total of 452 completed surveys. The sample population was all male. The mean age of the sample was 15.43. The largest percentage of participants was from Texas (15.3 %), but participants represented 30 different states. Based on responses to items related to crew roles, 54.6% of participants reported being solely crew members, 14.4% reported being the crew leader, 15.5% reported being the nature ethics guide (i.e., the “Wilderness Gia”), and 15.5% also reported being the Chaplain’s Aide. Additionally, 92.5% of the study sample reported having held a previous leadership role in their troops.

Results from the Youth Leadership Life Skills Development Scale indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean of participant attitudes before the Philmont experience ($M=2.97, SE=.019$) and the mean of participant attitudes after the Philmont experience ($M=3.38, SE=.016$), $t(451)=31.45, p=.0001$ (Field, 2009). As a measure of effect size, $r$ was calculated (Rosenthal, 1991; Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2005) at .83. Since the $r$ value of .83 is above .5 this represents a large effect size (Field, 2009). In other words, the results indicated that reported leadership qualities increased during the time participants were in the program.

Results from the open-ended questions isolated the elements of the program that participants reported to either promote or detract from leadership development during the program experience. Elements of the program that participants indicated promoted leadership development were: Cooperation and teamwork within their crew, holding an official leadership role, being able to work through constructive problems, having a crew leader that worked well with the crew and promoted crew togetherness, having experiences unique to the trek program,
taking part in routine camp chores, being trusted with responsibilities, taking part in navigating
the crew from place to place each day, and the challenge of the environment itself. Elements that
participants indicated detracted from leadership development were: Arguing among crew
members, detrimental crew social and personal dynamics, experiencing physical exhaustion, and
having a crew leader that did not successfully promote group togetherness.

Youth programs have been promoted as not only providing young people with positive
diversions during leisure time, but as settings to promote positive social development. Our study
supports the idea that recreation programs for youth have the potential to fulfill that assumed
role. The results of this study confirmed that participation in the BSA’s High Adventure Program
at the Philmont Scout Ranch was associated with increased leadership characteristics. Seemingly,
both the wilderness environment and the structure of the program were important in facilitating
this leadership development.

The implications of this study apply to recreation research as well as practice. Not only
does this study give an example of a successful program evaluation, but it also suggests that
some youth programs have the potential to be more than just fun and games and contribute to the
positive development of youth. Additionally, recreation researchers and practitioners have been
interested in understanding the contexts by which youth development outcomes occur in
recreation programs. The results of this study clearly give outdoor recreation programs
documentation to show that leadership may be an important outcome to focus on in wilderness
settings. Additionally, the process of this study suggests that research and evaluation may be
important tools to help any youth organization ensure their programs are achieving the outcomes
they want. The findings of this study can be used in another way to go one step further for any
youth program with improvement in mind. For example, the program elements participants
identified as promoting or detracting from leadership development can be used as a focus to
increase or decrease their influence on the program. Addressing the two sides of these elements
has potential to enhance overall leadership development within any program.

The findings of this study should be viewed in light of its limitations. Limitations of this
study are the all-male nature of the sample population and the consequence that findings may not
be generalized to programs with co-ed populations, the background and experience the
researcher had with the program studied and the effects of this insider knowledge, the limits of
self-administered surveys and the potential of social desirability on responses given, and the lack
of a comparison sample and the consequence of limiting the ability to draw conclusions about
youth outside the sample population.

Overall, this study provides much needed empirical evidence to contribute to the idea that
recreational youth programs, while providing fun leisure experiences, can utilize their settings to
make an even bigger contribution to the lives of young people. Results suggested the Philmont
Scout Ranch High Adventure program was associated with increased leadership among youth
while they are having a fun and unique outdoor experience.

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References


EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MAJOR LIFE EVENTS AND LEISURE

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Personal meanings gained through leisure provide individuals with adaptive support (Iwasaki, et al., 2006). For example, studies examining the relationship between life events and stress provide evidence that the impact of major life experiences can be eased by leisure engagement (e.g., Iwasaki & Smale, 1998; Kleiber et al., 2002). The easing of demands and needs and the resultant social adjustment may be related to a reallocation of daily time use (Zuzanek & Smale, 1992). This study examines if and how daily time use shifts during periods of life change. In addition to examining the relationship between time use and major life events it is also helpful to consider the experiences of people as they handle these major life events. For this study we focused on five leisure-related experiences (stress, negative affect, control, life satisfaction, and positive affect). Increased perceived stress and negative affect are thought to be detrimental to health and are contrary to leisure involvement; similarly, higher amounts of perceived control, life satisfaction, and positive affect are thought to be associated with healthy living and leisure engagement (Pressman et al., 2009). Recently Chun et al. (2012) reported that leisure participation can facilitate stress reduction and positive growth during times of change.

Developing insights into what people do with their time is an important consideration associated with exploring leisure involvement. Time use surveys (e.g., U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012) are typically conducted through time diaries about a single day of activities (Krueger et al. 2007, Robinson et al., 2002). Such data are helpful in understanding collective allocation of time with activities, but provide little information about how individuals’ leisure changes and fluctuates over time. Repeated reports of daily time use potentially provide a rich narrative about how individuals’ leisure experiences change with major life experiences influence individuals’ stress and well-being and/or affect the structure of daily life (e.g., Larson & Csikszentmihalyi, 1983; Ram et al., 2013). Using intensive longitudinal data from a multiple-burst daily diary study we examined two multifaceted research questions: (1) What is the relationship between the degree to which adults experience major life events and their time use associated with (a) leisure, (b) work and school, and (c) other obligations, and (2) What is the relationship between the degree to which adults experience major life events and the following variables: (a) stress, (b) negative affect, (c) control, (d) positive affect, and (e) life satisfaction.

Method

Participants. After volunteering and providing informed consent, 150 participants (51% women, 91% Caucasian) age 18-90 years ($M = 47.10$) received an orientation about the study and the intensive nature of the assessment protocol. Although recruited from a university community, 49% had full time employment, 30% part-time employment or were students, 18% were retired, and 3% were unemployed. Reported incomes ranged from 20 to 150k per year.

Design and Procedure. Over a period of 18-months, participants provided multiple types of data. For three 21-day periods (“bursts”), spaced at about 4-month intervals, participants completed a short smartphone-based, end-of-day survey about their stress, affect, sense of control, life satisfaction, and time use. Immediately prior to and at the end of each 21-day burst
participants completed a web-based battery of personality, health, and life-event questionnaires. Participants were compensated $500 for completing the entire study protocol.

Measures. Extent of life events in the prior months was measured at the beginning of each 21-day assessment period using 12-items adapted from common life event scales (Holmes & Rahe, 1967; Sarason et al., 1978). Participants were asked “Since your last visit [or, at the first visit, “In the last 6 months”], did you experience any of the following and, if so, how much did it affect you?” followed by a list of 12 substantive life events, (e.g., a change in relationship status, a serious illness or injury, death of a loved one, change in living conditions such as moving or adding a new member of household) and asked to select one of the following responses 0=did not experience, 1=not affected, 2=a little bit, 3=somewhat, 4=a lot. Higher scores indicate that individuals recently experienced more and/or were more affected by major life events (LE).

During the 21-day measurement bursts, participants completed a series of items using the study-provided smartphone. Daily affect was measured using 19 items (based on Kuppens, et al., 2007) wherein individuals responded to the question “Today I felt [emotion state]” using a 100-point touch-point continuum (slider-type, touch-screen interface) with opposing anchor terms (not at all=0, strongly=100). A daily positive affect (PA) composite was calculated as the average of responses to 10 items (e.g. enthusiastic, happy, alert, satisfied, content). Similarly, a daily negative affect (NA) composite was calculated as the average of responses to 9 items (e.g. upset, tense, sad, bored, disappointed). Daily stress was indicated by response to the item, “Today I felt stress” (not at all=0, strongly=100). Daily perceived control was measured as the response to the item, “I had control over the things that happened to me today” (strongly disagree=0, strongly agree=100). Daily life satisfaction was measured using the item “I am satisfied with my life today” (strongly disagree=0, strongly agree=100). Perceptions of daily time use were measured using three items. Participants indicated “How much time did you spend doing [work/school, leisure, other obligations]” using the touch point continuum scale (none=0, a lot=100). Each item was presented on a separate screen such that participants could report perceived time spent in each activity category without directly partitioning their day into exclusive categories of activity.

Results

Within-person summaries (e.g., intraindividual mean across 21 days) were calculated for each of the daily variables for each burst. See Table 1 for sample level descriptives and correlations. Individuals’ life events scores ranged from 0 to 37 with sample-level means ranging from 4.89 to 6.91 across bursts. These ranges indicate substantial differences in how “turbulent” individuals’ lives were. Individuals’ average perception of time spent in various activities ranged from 41.21 to 47.92 for leisure, 45.69 to 50.38 for work/school, and 41.05 to 42.15 for other obligations. Correlations among these differences were examined for evidence that extent of life events was related to time use. Indeed, across the three bursts (treated as replications) recent experience of being more affected and experiencing more life events was associated with lower levels of perceived leisure time ($r_s = -.28, -.19, -.15$), but was not systematically related to perceived time spent in work/school ($r_s = -.07 to .10$) or other obligations ($r_s = .05 to .15$).

We next examined if and how differences in life events were associated with constructs known to influence leisure engagement. Across the three bursts there were substantial differences in individuals’ average levels of stress (30.25 to 33.04), perceived control (66.14 to 70.11), positive affect (57.69 to 58.15), negative affect (18.64 to 20.77), and life satisfaction (69.22 to 70.70). As hypothesized, across the three bursts (again treated as replications) greater life events were associated with higher stress ($r_s = .31 to .34$) and negative affect ($r_s = .28 to .31$), and lower perceived control ($r_s = -.18 to -.36$), positive affect ($r_s = -.20 to -.35$), and life
satisfaction ($rs = -.31$ to $-.36$). Unlike perceived time in work/school and other obligations, the manifold of positive and negative relations included perceived leisure time. That is, daily stress, control, and well-being were, in turn, associated with perceived leisure time (e.g. stress, $rs = -.22$ to $-.31$; life satisfaction, $rs = .21$ to .23; positive affect, $rs = .27$ to .32).

**Discussion**

The degree to which participants reported experiencing major life events was strongly negatively correlated with their perceived time associated with leisure but weakly correlated with time associated with work/school and other obligations. That is, people reporting more life events or being more strongly impacted by those events tended to report less time engaged in leisure pursuits than other respondents. Participants reporting more life events or who were more strongly impacted by events reported about the same as others in the perceived amount of time that they devoted to their work, school, or other obligations. Consequently, further research is needed to more closely examine connections between individuals experiencing major life events and their leisure expression. The degree to which participants reported experiencing major life events was negatively correlated with perceived control, life satisfaction, and positive affect and these major life events were positively correlated with stress and negative affect. This pattern suggests that individuals who experience significant life events rate themselves higher on negative mental states and lower on positive mental states; they also report less perceived leisure time. Results from other studies indicate that leisure engagement can buffer stress and lead to more positive outcomes. This study suggests that those who might benefit most from leisure are engaging in it less.

Overall, these data represent the biases of the sample and thus study is needed with more diverse individuals. Additional research is warranted that examines connections between leisure-related constructs and major life events. Although findings do not provide details about the meaningfulness of leisure for people experiencing major life events, these results do offer unique insights into individual variability and variability across different measures of time (e.g., daily time devoted to leisure and associated emotions with periodic reports of major life events).

Table 1. Sample level descriptives and correlations among life events, time use, stress, affect, control, and life satisfaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LE Mean</th>
<th>Time Use</th>
<th>Stress</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>PA</th>
<th>Life Sat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leisure</td>
<td>Work/</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Obliga.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CORR</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burst 1</td>
<td>6.91</td>
<td>-.28</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burst 2</td>
<td>6.64</td>
<td>-.19</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burst 3</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Acknowledgments:** Our appreciation is extended to study participants for providing a detailed glimpse into their daily lives for extended time periods. This work was supported by the National Institute on Aging (RC1 AG035645) and the Penn State Social Science Research Institute.

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References


FOSTERING SELF-DETERMINATION AND FLOW IN PHYSICAL ACTIVITY AND SCIENCE VIA OUTDOOR ADVENTURE

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Childhood and adult obesity rates are reaching epidemic proportions (Flegal et al., 2010). The Centers for Disease Control (2011) indicates that schools play a critical role in health promotion by providing opportunities to learn about and practice physical activity behaviors. Improved academic performance, problem solving ability, and concentration have been linked to physical activity (e.g. Shephard, 1997), and outdoor environments (Herzog et al., 1997). Multiple studies indicate that there is a positive relationship between green space and self-reported indicators of physical and mental well-being. Outdoor environments offer both mental health benefits (e.g. subjective vitality; Ryan et al., 2010), and physical benefits with regard to obesity and inactivity (Bird, 2007). In addition to physical activity deficits amongst youth, more engaging and meaningful K-12 science curriculum is needed to increase science achievement (e.g. Sanders, 2009). Schools have traditionally taught subjects such as science in isolation, without drawing upon connections to other areas of study. One way to improve student engagement in science is by integrating other disciplines and practical applications (Katehi, Pearson, & Feder, 2009). In this vein, the current study sought to address both issues – decreased youth engagement in physical activity and science education – by piloting an integrated outdoor adventure-based curriculum.

Based on previous findings (e.g. Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1999; Sibthorp, Paisley, Gookin, & Furman, 2008), investigators predicted that an outdoor adventure-based curriculum would enhance self-determination (i.e. autonomy, competence, relatedness, intrinsic motivation) and optimal engagement (i.e. flow) for physical activity and science education. Outdoor adventure activities appear to facilitate optimal engagement via opportunities to overcome challenges and to connect with others. Research has demonstrated that environments that support basic psychological needs are positively related to achievement, development, and optimal ‘flow’experiences (e.g. Shernoff, Csikszentmihalyi, Shneider & Shernoff, 2003). Thus, it was expected that an outdoor adventure-based science course would be associated with increases in actual physical activity levels, as well as the following variables in relation to physical activity and science: (1) perceived support for self-determination constructs (e.g. intrinsic motivation, autonomy, competence, relatedness, learning climate) and (2) flow.

Method

A mixed-methodology that included quantitative and qualitative data measures was employed. Repeated self-report and behavioral (pedometer) data was collected from 22 high school students (\(\bar{x} = 15.7\) years, 41% females, 59% males) before, during, and after their participation in a five day outdoor adventure-based science course (OAS). In addition to three days of data collection during the course, four days of baseline and follow-up data were collected in students’ normal school setting a month before and after the course, respectively. Quantitative data was collected using pedometers, a daily activity log, and the following measures\(^\dagger\): Short Flow State Scale (Jackson, Martin, & Eklund, 2008); Intrinsic Motivation Inventory with value, enjoyment, autonomy, relatedness, and competence subscales (McAuley, Duncan, & Tammen, 1987); Learning Climate Questionnaire (an autonomy-support measure; Black & Deci, 2000); playfulness (adapted from O’Connell, & Calhoun, 2001); physical activity perceptions (adapted from Vlachopoulos & Gigoudi, 2008), and active outdoor identity (adapted from the Exercise...
Identity Scale, Anderson & Cychosz, 1994). After dropping one item from the relatedness and playfulness scales respectively, all instruments had acceptable reliability (Cortina, 1993; α range = .64-.96). A within-subjects repeated measures ANOVA was used to examine pre, during, and post OAS course levels on the selected measures. The Bonferroni correction was used for multiple pairwise comparisons.

Qualitative data was collected in two ways. First, open-ended free response data regarding positive/negative experiences across settings were collected in all surveys. Second, focus groups were conducted with all students (30 – 60 minutes, n = 4 – 6) on the final OAS course day. Two additional focus groups were conducted with all teachers and all OAS staff, respectively. Interviews were transcribed and perused for key themes related to key constructs identified above (deductive) and emergent themes (inductive).

Results

Tests revealed significant increases ($p < .05 – p < .001$) in the following measures during the course compared to pre/post school settings: steps per day, flow, intrinsic motivation, autonomy, competence, relatedness, enjoyment, learning climate, and playfulness (see Table 1). Generally, histograms displayed unimodal, positively skewed distributions (e.g. a narrower range of higher scores) during the OAS course compared to school. Some of the differences between school and OAS course scores were striking (scoring was on a 1-7 scale). For example, during the OAS course: no learning climate scores fell below ‘4’ out of 7 (versus 1 [pre] and 2.1 [post]) and 90.5% of students scored 5.5 or above on learning climate. The lowest OAS course autonomy score was ‘3.5’ versus ‘1’ (pre) and ‘1.6’ (post). In addition, 87.5% of students scored ‘5’ or above on enjoyment in the OAS course, compared to 45.4% (pre) and 31.6% (post) in school. The average steps per day also increased 121% from school pre to during the OAS course (pre range=1,324 – 7,963; OAS range=5,975 – 14,090) and 90.5% of students exceeded the maximum pre steps per day during the OAS course. Some unexpected trends occurred post course. Specifically, students rated perceived importance/value of curriculum similarly school pre and during the OAS course, but significantly lower post course. All other SDT variables decreased (at non-significant levels) from pre to post course. These trends may have been due to student perceptions that school curriculum was less valuable and/or not as supportive of self-determination in comparison to the OAS course; however this inference is purely speculative and requires further investigation. Neither active outdoor identity (AOI) nor physical activity perceptions (PAP) changed significantly. This is may be due to students’ moderate (AOI range =3-5.1) to high (PAP range =5.3-.7) baseline scores on these variables.

Table 1. Mean scores across key variables before, during, and after outdoor adventure-based science (OAS) course.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pre $\bar{x}$ (SD)</th>
<th>During $\bar{x}$ (SD)</th>
<th>Post $\bar{x}$ (SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Steps per day</td>
<td>5,040.24 (1,964.25)</td>
<td>11,155.90 (2,088.89)*</td>
<td>5,793.87 (2,887.92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flow (min=9, max=45)</td>
<td>34.76(4.4)</td>
<td>38.97(3.73)*</td>
<td>35.32(5.26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation</td>
<td>4.86(1.11)</td>
<td>5.65(0.64)*</td>
<td>4.42(1.28)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>4.05(1.46)</td>
<td>5.27(0.78)*</td>
<td>3.89(1.41)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>5.12(1.32)</td>
<td>5.77(0.94)***</td>
<td>4.85(1.77)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relatedness</td>
<td>5.39(1.2)</td>
<td>6.06(0.75)***</td>
<td>4.64(1.36)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value</td>
<td>5.11(1.08)</td>
<td>5.3(0.80)</td>
<td>4.52(1.43)***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoyment</td>
<td>4.75(1.81)</td>
<td>5.86(0.72)**</td>
<td>4.28(1.81)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Climate</td>
<td>4.95(1.79)</td>
<td>6.21(0.88)*</td>
<td>4.78(1.58)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playfulness (max=6)</td>
<td>2.56(0.96)</td>
<td>4.16(0.87)**</td>
<td>3.26(1.12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Activity Perceptions</td>
<td>6.49(0.59)</td>
<td>6.37(0.66)</td>
<td>6.26(0.84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active Outdoor Identity</td>
<td>4.21(0.61)</td>
<td>4.31(0.44)</td>
<td>4.28(0.58)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.001, **p<.005, ***p<.01, ****p<.05, levels

All scales had a score range of 1-7 unless otherwise indicated in table.

Qualitative data supported quantitative findings that the OAS course increased key self-determination theory and flow constructs. “Usually teachers will set up labs and there's only one certain way to do it, where like out here...it had a lot of different choices.” “Here everybody was engaged. Everybody was supporting each other. And we all we're working toward a common goal, we all wanted to be here.” The role of the natural environment in fostering engagement also emerged. “I definitely felt the connection with nature... it was awesome to see. And the learning experience with nature...it was more hands on, which is really nice, because then you could actually... do all the science and stuff ...And it wasn't like normal schooling.”

Discussion

The study results supported previous findings that outdoor adventure activities have the potential to enhance optimal engagement and support student autonomy (e.g. Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1999; Sibthorp, Paisley, Gookin & Furman, 2008). This project extended the literature by (1) providing an outdoor adventure-based model for integrating physical activity and science education to address pressing societal needs, and (2) suggesting mechanisms (self-determination and flow) through which this model may enhance student achievement and motivation. This project has a number of implications for those interested in promoting youth engagement in physical activity and science education. The results of this exploratory study suggest that students may experience increases in physical activity, engagement, intrinsic motivation, enjoyment, competence, relatedness and autonomy-supportive learning climates in an outdoor adventure-based science course, in comparison to their ‘normal’ school settings. Qualitative data also suggested that exposure to nature may contribute to engagement and enjoyment. Findings suggested that the OAS course may have also had a more uniform, positive influence on students’ self-determination, flow and other psychosocial factors than school settings. Thus, purposefully-designed OAS courses may more uniformly support psychological needs, increase enjoyment, and engage students in science and physical activity. Further analyses are required to assess these conjectures and analyses are currently underway to assess relationships amongst increased engagement and self-determination variables. These preliminary findings should be treated with caution due to factors such as a small, convenience sample and study design (e.g. lack of control group) that limit the generalizability of results. However, given the exploratory nature of the project and promising results with this small sample, future studies on integrated physical activity and science curriculums are merited. Specifically, the relative influence of different SDT and flow constructs, as well as natural settings, on student experiences should be examined. This study contributes to the literature on practical and theoretical levels. It examines not only if outdoor adventure-based programs promote physical activity and science engagement, but seeks to identify why using SDT and flow frameworks. Identification of key elements that promote positive outcomes allows for purposeful integrated curriculum development. We hope these findings may be used as an innovative model for educators seeking to create integrated curriculums that simultaneously promote physical activity and science education via outdoor adventure.

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References


Introduction. Putnam (2000), marshalling statistical data from innumerable sources, argued that key indicators of civic engagement have, in some cases drastically, decreased over the past few decades. In trying to identify mechanisms that could mitigate this decline in civic engagement, a large emphasis has been placed on participation in certain types of programs during adolescence as fostering a habit of community involvement that continues into adulthood (Youniss, McClellan, & Yates, 1997). Gruenewald and Smith (2008) argue that in order for youth to become civically engaged, they must develop a “readiness for social action” (p. xx). The civic engagement literature indicates that developing both civic skills and civic identity are crucial to such readiness. First, four main skill sets emerge as being particularly important to successful civic engagement: collaboration, communication, critical thinking, leadership (Camino & Zeldin, 2002; Flanagan & Faison, 2001; Gruenewald & Smith, 2008; Newton, 1975; Obradovic & Masten, 2007; Smith & Sobel, 2010). Second, individuals must have values that align them with such activity. These values include tolerance, social responsibility, sense of connection, open mindedness, reflection, and feelings of efficacy and mattering (Flanagan & Faison, 2001; Melaville, Berg, and Blank, 2006; Obradovic & Masten, 2007; Sherrod, Flanagan, and Youniss, 2002).

Summer camps remain underrepresented in the civic engagement discussion. Camp may be a powerful contributor to the engendering of civic engagement. The ACA’s Directions study (2005) found growth in some of the skills found in civic development research. For example, campers and parents saw significant increases in leadership skills from pre-camp to post-camp and post-camp to follow-up questionnaires. Yuen, Pedlar, and Mannell (2005) found that camp activities enhanced campers’ cooperation abilities such as utilizing flexibility, understanding democratic procedures, developing group goals, and establishing shared meanings. A recent movement in the camp arena has been to increase the intentionality in camp programming in order to better target desired outcomes. Several camp scholars have introduced structured programs to engender specific outcomes (Arend & Rogers, 2012; Browne & Sibthorpe, 2012; Garst & White, 2012; Roark & Evans, 2010). As Browne, Garst, and Bialeschki (2011) explained, structured curricula “…allow camps to target desired outcomes and document their efforts to stakeholders” (p. 81).

Teens Leading & Connecting. The setting for this study was a pilot camp program, Teens Leading & Connecting (TLC), which was intentionally aimed to increase participants’ civic engagement in their home communities. The week-long program was implemented during the summer of 2012 at a day camp in Northeast Georgia. A total of 10 teen campers ages 13-16 participated in the program. The weekly schedule is displayed in Table 1. Any activity area that reads ‘Skills’ focused on civic skill development and had intentional lesson plans drawn from successful camp and youth development programs as well as from various service learning curricula. The community tour, camp service activity, meeting with community leaders, and off-camp service project were inspired by the Place- and Community-Based Education literature (Melaville, Berg, and Blank, 2006; Smith & Sobel, 2010; Umphrey, 2007) and aim to connect campers’ civic learning to the camp community and the campers’ home community.
### Table 1
**General schedule for TLC**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Monday</th>
<th>Tuesday</th>
<th>Wednesday</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
<th>Friday</th>
<th>Saturday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Morning</strong></td>
<td><strong>Introduction</strong></td>
<td><strong>Camp Activities</strong></td>
<td><strong>Camp Activities</strong></td>
<td><strong>Community Tour Debrief</strong></td>
<td><strong>Camp Activities</strong></td>
<td><strong>Off Camp Service Project</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Group Dynamic Skills</strong></td>
<td><strong>Leadership Skills</strong></td>
<td><strong>Problem Solving Skills</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Camp Activities</strong></td>
<td><strong>Organizing Skills</strong></td>
<td><strong>Community Tour</strong></td>
<td><strong>Planning Skills</strong></td>
<td><strong>Meeting with Community Leaders</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Cooperation Skills</strong></td>
<td><strong>Identifying Problems Skills</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Service Planning</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Lunch</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evening</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Week Debrief</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Camp Service Activity</strong></td>
<td><strong>Camp Out</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Study purpose.** The purpose of this study was to understand the short-term outcomes and the supporting mechanisms of the Teens Leading & Connecting program.

**Methods.** The researcher for the current study utilized semi-structured interviews with the TLC campers in the week following TLC. These post-camp interviews explored the civic skills and attitudes each youth gained through the camp experience along with future intentions to be civically engaged in the camper’s home community. The qualitative interview data was analyzed by the researcher following Hycner’s (1985) guidelines for qualitative analysis.

**Findings.** Analysis of camper interviews resulted in identifying six short-term outcomes campers thought they gained from the TLC program. Additionally, campers were asked to describe the parts of TLC that they felt most contributed to the short-term outcomes. These findings are displayed in Figure 1. This figure shows each type of short-term outcome connected to the activity or activities the campers identified as leading to that outcome. The width of each connecting line reflects the number of campers who spoke about that particular outcome-activity connection. The most discussed type of short-term outcome of the TLC program was a group of seven themes related to community and community contribution. TLC campers learned about their community, including the ‘bottom of the iceberg’ or the parts of their community that need help. They also discovered that they want to help in their community, learned about where and how they can help in their community, and felt more capable to contribute to the community. Further, TLC demonstrated to the campers that there are adults and organizations in their community that want and value teen contribution. Beyond the community-related outcomes of TLC, campers identified five other short-term outcomes of TLC: gaining collaboration skills, gaining leadership skills, having a mature attitude, learning new definitions, and gaining problem solving skills.

**Discussion.** The findings of this study indicate that the Teens Leading & Connecting (TLC) program led to perceived gains in three of the four main civic skill sets identified as important in the civic engagement literature: collaboration, leadership and management, and critical thinking.
skills. As a structured curriculum, TLC was designed with all four civic skill sets in mind, yet communication skills did not seem to translate to the campers. The campers discussed communication, but only as a strategy for effective group work or as something they used in community experiences. These findings suggest that, to better target communication outcomes that align with the civic engagement literature, TLC needs to better differentiate communication skills for campers rather than addressing it implicitly in several different skill sessions. Such a finding is similar to what Browne et al. (2010) found with the Camp2Grow program. Responsibility was a desired skill that was an implicit theme throughout the curriculum, not a stand-alone lesson. While the authors found that responsibility did not increase over time, several of the outcomes that were specifically targeted in lessons in the program did increase over time. They concluded, “It is possible that the very act of overtly targeting a specific outcome…may promote the development of that outcome more so than through implicit means” (p. 78).

The findings of this study suggest that TLC did help to develop campers’ civic identity by helping them to consider their own role in their community. TLC campers seemed to emerge from the program feeling both more able and more motivated to contribute to their community. Additionally, the TLC campers felt they left the program with more knowledge about their community and where they could get involved. Being intentionally grounded in the Place- and Community-Based Education literature, TLC aimed to be firmly grounded in the leaders, issues, and organizations important in the campers’ immediate local community. As Camino and Zeldin (2002) suggested, “Youth, like adults, will gravitate to those opportunities that seem most relevant to themselves and their communities” (p. 219). Finally, TLC campers expressed that they realized that adults and organizations in their community do value and want help from teenagers. This realization helped the campers to feel more than ‘just a child’ in their community. As youth begin to see themselves as citizens, they develop an increased feeling of responsibility for what happens in the community around them (Melaville, Berg, and Blank, 2006).

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References


Browne, L., & Sibthorp, J. (2012, February). *Fostering camp connectedness through structured curricula at day camp*, Presentation conducted at the American Camp Association National Conference, Atlanta, GA.


Roark, M., & Evans, F. *Play it, measure it: Experiences designed to elicit specific youth outcomes*. Monterey, CA: Healthy Learning.


The relationship between people’s behavior and their affective states has long been a topic of interest to social psychologists. However, in spite of affect being deemed an important dimension of leisure experiences (Hull, 1990; Kleiber, 2000; Kleiber, Walker, & Mannell, 2011), relatively little research has been conducted on either the leisure behavior-affect relationship or how this relationship may differ with other domains. Related research, for example, has shown that certain needs are more likely to be satisfied during leisure than during paid work (Reid & Mannell, 1993; Walker & Wang, 2009). Thus, it seems possible that affect could also vary between leisure and paid work and, further, that investigating this possibility could provide greater insight into the role affective states play in these two major life domains.

**Literature Review**

Affect has been defined as neurophysiological changes that individuals experience as moods, emotions, or feelings (Russell, 2003; Tsai, 2007). To better understand the underlying processes of affect as well as the different affective states that individuals experience, Russell (1980) created an affect circumplex model in an attempt to map out the phenomena. There have been many iterations of Russell’s affect circumplex model, and they generally have been based on two bipolar dimensions: valence (pleasure-displeasure) and activation (energy) (Barrett & Russell, 1999). Depending on the level of a person’s valence and activation, their affective state will fall within one of four affective categories according to the circumplex model. These categories include high-arousal positive (HAP) (e.g., enthusiastic), low-arousal positive (LAP) (e.g., calm), low-arousal negative (LAN) (e.g., dull), and high-arousal negative (HAN) (e.g., fearful).

Research on affect has focused on how people actually feel, but Tsai (2007) held that it’s also important to look at ideal affect, and to differentiate it from actual affect. *Actual* affect involves the affective states that people truly experience whereas *ideal* affect involves the states people would prefer to experience (Tsai, 2007). Tsai has theorized that leisure could act as a moderating behavior that helps people negotiate the deficiency between their ideal and actual affect. Based on her affect valuation theory (AVT), in conjunction with extensive research that has found people generally experience the greatest degree of freedom of choice in their leisure (Kleiber et al., 2011), three research questions are proposed: RQ1. Are there significant deficiencies between the affect an individual ideally wants to feel and the affect the same person actually feels during leisure? RQ2. Are there significant deficiencies between the affect an individual ideally wants to feel and the affect the same person actually feels during paid work? RQ3. Are the deficiencies between what an individual ideally wants to feel and what she or he actually feels during leisure (i.e., RQ1) significantly different from the deficiencies the same person has between what he or she ideally wants to feel and what she or he actually feels during paid work (i.e., RQ2)?

**Method**

A telephone survey was conducted in a Canadian city using random-digit dialing. Potential participants had to work at least 20 hours per week in one job. Those who qualified reported: (a) during work, how frequently they typically felt HAP (two items: excited, enthusiastic), LAP (two items: calm, relaxed), LAN (two items: dull, sluggish), and HAN (two items: nervous, fearful) – these items and the 5-point unipolar scale (from 1 = Never to 5 = Always) used with each have been employed in previous research (e.g., Tsai, Knutson, & Fung, 2006); (b) during leisure, how
frequently they typically felt HAP, LAP, LAN, and HAN measured with the same eight items; and (c) ideally, overall how much they would like to feel HAP, LAP, LAN, and HAN, also measured with the same eight items. Socio-demographic information (e.g., sex, age, ethnicity) was also collected. Data were obtained from 401 individuals (31% response rate); with a total of 257 providing suitable data and indicating they were British/Canadian. (The latter is a necessary pre-condition as Tsai et al., 2006, found ethnicity influences ideal affect preferences.) To address the study’s three research questions, data analyses involved a series of dependent t-tests between: (a) each type of ideal affect and the corresponding type of affect during leisure (e.g., I-HAP minus L-HAP); (b) each type of ideal affect and the corresponding type of affect during work (e.g., I-HAP minus W-HAP); and (c) the product of (a) (e.g., I-HAP minus L-HAP) less the product of (b) (e.g., I-HAP minus W-HAP).

Results

The results of the dependent t-tests conducted to address RQ1, RQ2, and RQ3 are reported in Tables 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Affect</th>
<th>Ideal Affect</th>
<th>Leisure Affect</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High Arousal Positive</td>
<td>4.02 (0.82)</td>
<td>3.68 (0.88)</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>6.16****</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Arousal Positive</td>
<td>4.16 (0.80)</td>
<td>4.02 (0.72)</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>2.33*</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Arousal Negative</td>
<td>1.51 (0.63)</td>
<td>1.44 (0.60)</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Arousal Negative</td>
<td>1.41 (0.65)</td>
<td>1.84 (0.70)</td>
<td>-0.43</td>
<td>-8.57****</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001. ****p < .0001.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Affect</th>
<th>Ideal Affect</th>
<th>Work Affect</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High Arousal Positive</td>
<td>4.02 (0.82)</td>
<td>3.20 (0.95)</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>12.26****</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Arousal Positive</td>
<td>4.16 (0.80)</td>
<td>3.22 (0.94)</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>13.31****</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Arousal Negative</td>
<td>1.51 (0.63)</td>
<td>1.86 (0.81)</td>
<td>-0.35</td>
<td>-6.08****</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Arousal Negative</td>
<td>1.41 (0.65)</td>
<td>2.17 (0.88)</td>
<td>-0.76</td>
<td>-12.63****</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001. ****p < .0001.

Table 3

Comparison of Difference between Ideal Affect and Actual Leisure Affect (Leisure Deficiency) with Difference between Ideal Affect and Actual Work Affect (Work Deficiency)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Affect</th>
<th>Leisure Deficiency</th>
<th>Work Deficiency</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High Arousal Positive</td>
<td>0.34 (0.88)</td>
<td>0.82 (1.07)</td>
<td>-0.48</td>
<td>-7.61****</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Arousal Positive</td>
<td>0.13 (0.92)</td>
<td>0.93 (1.13)</td>
<td>-0.80</td>
<td>-13.88****</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Arousal Negative</td>
<td>0.07 (0.77)</td>
<td>-0.35 (0.93)</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>8.77****</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Arousal Negative</td>
<td>-0.43 (0.80)</td>
<td>-0.76 (0.96)</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>6.06****</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

RQ1. Results indicated that there were significant deficiencies between how people ideally wanted to feel and how they actually felt during leisure in terms of their HAP (i.e., excited, enthusiastic), LAP (i.e., calm, relaxed), and LAN (i.e., dull). Based on Cohen’s (1992) criteria
for this statistical test, the LAP effect size was below his small benchmark (i.e., 0.20); the HAP effect size was in the small to medium (i.e., 0.50) range; and the LAN effect size was in the medium to large (i.e., 0.80) range. Conversely, the deficiency between ideal and leisure HAN (i.e., nervous, fearful) was not significant. Examined holistically, these findings suggest that participants were able to realize their ideal levels of HAN, and close to their ideal levels of LAP, during leisure. Leisure, however, did not provide the high levels of excitement and enthusiasm they preferred and, even more so, it did not provide the low levels of dullness and sluggishness they desired. The latter could be associated with leisure boredom (Iso-Ahola & Weissinger, 1990), or self-as-entertainment incapacity (Mannell, 1984), or both. If so, then leisure education could be called for as a mitigating strategy.

RQ2. When comparing ideal and work affect significant deficiencies were found in all four instances. Based once again on Cohen’s (1992) criteria for this statistical test, HAN neared the medium effect size benchmark whereas HAP, LAN, and LAP all exceeded the large effect size benchmark. Therefore, in general participants did not realize their ideal states at work in any of the affective categories, and in three cases this deficiency was considerable. These results support Kelly’s (1996) proposition that work is instrumental whereas leisure is experiential.

RQ3. When comparing affective category deficits between ideal affect and leisure affect to ideal affect and work affect all of the mean differences were significant. This suggests that the deficiency between ideal and leisure affect is much less than the deficiency between ideal and work affect—especially in terms of LAP (based on Cohen’s, 1992, effect size criteria). Stated differently, how participants felt during their leisure was much closer to how they ideally wanted to feel when compared with how they felt at work. This finding supports Tsai’s (2007) affect valuation theory in that leisure activities play a prominent role in negotiating the deficiency between ideal and actual affect. In addition, these results also support the need-compensation theory in that people can compensate for negative aspects of their work through their leisure (Kleiber et al., 2011). Finally, these results also have important practical implications because increasing positive and decreasing negative affect have been found to contribute to people’s psychological well-being (Tov & Diener, 2007). Hull (1991), for example, held that affect is often influenced by characteristics of the physical and social setting—both of which can, to some degree at least, be influenced by recreation agencies and their employees (e.g., the Recreation Opportunity Spectrum; Driver et al., 1987).

Conclusion

As with any research, there are limitations with this study. First, it would be beneficial to test ideal, leisure, and work affect in other cultures, as variations are likely (Tsai, 2007). Second, analysis of specific leisure activities and various types of occupation would allow for a clearer understanding of the differences between the two domains. Third, actual affect was measured retrospectively; in contrast, use of the experience sampling method (Hektner et al., 2007) would capture “real-time” reports of actual affect. Additionally, various aspects of the social context and their influence on ideal and actual affect should be examined; as well as how recreation planners and managers can decrease deficiencies between people’s ideal and actual affect. In conclusion, while much research remains to be done on ideal affect during leisure, use of this concept could improve our understanding of activity choice and satisfaction, cross-cultural similarities and differences in leisure, and how leisure impacts subjective well-being.

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Selected References
MANIFEST RUNNING LOYALTY AND IDENTITY DURING ADULTHOOD AMONG FORMER VARSITY ATHLETES
Julia J. Manzo, University of Waterloo
Mark E. Havitz, University of Waterloo

When topics related to loyalty were introduced into the recreation management and leisure studies literature they were met with some degree of skepticism, especially to the extent that much loyalty research was grounded in marketing theory, and conducted to assist recreation agencies effectively deal with bottom line concerns (Havitz, 2000; Howard & Crompton, 1980). Greater sympathy was extended when research goals were overtly associated with understanding and enhancing leisure experience. Regardless, it was soon apparent that loyalty research was relevant to a number of recreation and leisure contexts and settings. It also became clear that loyalty was complex and multi-layered. Pritchard et al. (1992) observed that “the majority of early loyalty studies were operationalized behaviorally as a form of repeat purchasing of a particular product or service over time” (p. 156). Loyalty measurement quickly evolved over the ensuing years. This research returns to those early behavioral roots, actions classified as manifest loyalty. Over the past twenty years, numerous explorations of brand level leisure loyalty have most often examined specific agencies and businesses (e.g., parks, resorts, YMCAs) and events (e.g., fairs, races, festivals) and occasionally on recreational equipment and social context (e.g., Clark & Maher, 2007; Dawson et al., 2011; Kyle & Chick, 2004; Kyle et al., 2002, 2006). The present research returns focus to loyal behaviors or, manifest loyalty. In addition, the dependent variable of activity loyalty is most often reported in a univariate manner, most often as duration of participation over time (e.g., years), or frequency of participation over shorter spans (e.g., weeks) though other measures including intensity, sequence and proportion of purchase exist (Pritchard et al., 1992). Popular press and media outlets specializing in specific recreation activity-based social worlds also suggest many recreationists establish dozens of manifest loyalties. In an effort to extend manifest loyalty measures used in past research and re-invigorate discussion and use of manifest variables, this study explores product and brand loyalties within a running subculture. This research will explore some common and not so common manifestations. Specifically, it will include multiple measures of running frequency and intensity (e.g., Pritchard et al., 1992) and examine consistency of running participation over the course of respondents’ lives, favorite running routes, preferred running gear, and favorite running partners. Finally, the study will also explore how people manifest identity as runners (e.g., Collinson & Hockey, 2007; Dimanche & Samdahl, 1994; Kyle et al., 2007; Lally, 2007). This approach is intended shed additional light on nuances of manifest loyalties important to maintaining participation over time. A primary goal of this research is to resurrect and expand an inventory of available manifest loyalties in recreation participation contexts. Perceived contribution to well-being was selected as the contextual driver for manifest loyalty in this research. Physical activity may play different roles in the lives of individuals over their respective life spans. Early in their lives, most members of this sample were driven primarily by competitive goals but, as they aged, goals often shifted to enjoyment and well-being. Regardless of the choices made by individuals to include or exclude physical activity in their lifestyle, a vast amount of research has demonstrated the importance of physical activity to maintaining health. People with sedentary lifestyles are more likely to experience obesity and associated diseases such as diabetes, cardiovascular disease, osteoporosis and cancer. Physical activity reduces chronic diseases and the likelihood of premature death (Bassuk & Manxon, 2005; Kaczynski, 2007; Stein & Colditz, 2004). Optimal
well-being, of course, extends far beyond absence of disease and premature death. Ryan & Deci (2001) argued that “well-being is a complex construct that concerns optimal experience and functioning” (p. 141). Research exploring relationships between physical activity and well-being actually pre-dates these recent theoretical developments (e.g., McTeer & Curtis, 1990). Voigt et al. (2010) noted that “current research on psychological well-being has been based on two broad philosophical traditions concerned with the meaning and achievement of a ‘good life’ (Keyes, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2001). One philosophical approach to the good life is the pursuit of ‘happiness’ which is the hedonic view, while the second approach is focused on meaning, personal growth, and one’s virtues which equates to the eudaimonic principle” (p. 543, their emphasis). Waterman’s (2008) twelve-item, six each for eudaimonic and hedonic facets, scale was adapted for the context of running in the present research. Because benefits of physical activity accrue over time, loyalty becomes salient. It is important to understand both factors that drive participation over time and recognize various forms of manifest loyalty. Loyalties will be viewed from perspectives of perceived eudaimonic and hedonic well-being. In addition, this research will consider age, gender, and country of origin as independent variables.

**Method.** This research is derived from a larger project which required runners to look back over their lives using retrospective techniques discussed by Snelgrove and Havitz (2011). The sample comprised of two purposefully identified groups: varsity cross country alumni from an American university and a Canadian university. Responses were received from 232 respondents including 173 Americans and 59 Canadians; 158 men and 74 women. Respondents’ ages ranged from 23 to 85. Older respondents were all American males as the Canadian school fielded its first men’s team in the early 1960s and women’s teams were not initiated at either university until the early 1970s. Although data were collected from respondents on a decade-by-decade basis, those reported here are delimited to current attitudes and behaviors. Data were collected as part of a larger survey in either on-line or paper and pencil format as requested by individual respondents. Overall response rate was 61 percent. For some analyses the total sample was split into three groups related to perceptions of hedonic and eudemonic well-being (Waterman et al., 2008). Other comparisons were made on the basis of age, sex and country of origin. All loyalty and identity variables reported here refer to dichotomous yes or no responses. Open-ended comments related to loyalty variables were also collected, but are not reported in this abstract.

**Results.** Over 69 percent of respondents remain active runners, participating at a rate over six times that of the general population. While a plurality (24%) run just three days per week, 53 percent run four or more days on average. The most commonly reported distance for an average run is three miles (21% of respondents) and 50 percent average between four and ten miles per run. Racing no longer dominates their lives. Just over half, including drop-outs and non-competitive runners, currently do not race at all. Twenty-seven percent enter one to three races per year, and 23 percent race four or more times annually. Over half of respondents are loyal to each of four current internal manifest loyalty measures, indicating that running remains an integral part of most respondents’ lives. Highest loyalty pertained to running routes, as 82 percent of respondents reported favorites. Seventy-eight percent remained loyal to favorite running gear, 66 percent to specific races and 53 percent reported favorite running partners. Most common identity displays included running gear (69%, which mirrors current participation rates), running scrapbooks (58%), school gear (55%), and running photos displayed at home (43%), on the Internet (26%), and at the office (17%). As might be expected, older respondents preferred to display running photos at home, such as in a den, and younger respondents preferred the Internet. **Loyalty and gender** - There was no relationship between gender and manifest
loyalty to running routes or races; but women expressed more loyalty to running gear and running partners than did men (p<.05 henceforth whenever statistical significance is reported). Forty-seven percent of men reported favorite running partners. This was the only measure in which less than half of a gender demographic expressed manifest loyalty. There were no differences between men and women with respect to average days or distance run but, on average, men (6 per year) entered significantly more competitions than did women (4 per year).

**Loyalty and age** - Older runners exhibited less loyalty to gear and running routes in comparison to their middle age and, especially, youngest counterparts. By contrast, they entered twice as many running competitions as did young and middle age runners. Middle age runners expressed the strongest proclivity for favorite running partners. The youngest runners appeared more likely to favor certain races, but these differences were not significant. However, younger runners ran nearly twice as far in an average run, almost six miles, in comparison to about three and-a-half miles for older runners. **Loyalty and well-being** - Hedonic well-being scores associated with running (3.44) were slightly higher than eudaimonic well-being scores (3.26). Prior to further analysis, respondents were split into three groups, each containing approximately one-third of respondents: low (hedonic mean 2.32; eudaimonic 2.06), medium (3.54; 3.33) and high (4.44; 4.37). Hedonic well-being associated with running was significantly related to manifest loyalty with favorite running gear and favorite running routes. Propensity to exhibit manifest loyalty in both cases was significantly tied to intermediate levels of hedonic well-being. By contrast, manifest loyalty to favorite races and preferred running partners were significantly related to intermediate and high levels of eudaimonic well-being. Both hedonic and eudaimonic well-being were significant predictors of average days run per week and average distance per run; with those reporting the highest levels of well-being manifesting the most loyal behavior. Preferred pace was also significantly related to eudaimonic leanings, with slow pace most associated with low levels and faster pace with higher levels of eudaimonic well-being. **Identity and well-being** - Hedonic well-being, on five of nine measures, was more associated with runners’ identity than was eudaimonic well-being, two of nine measures. Those two, both related to wardrobe choices were common to both well-being indicators. Hedonic well-being alone was significantly related to running-related photo displays in the home and on the Internet. As well it was positively associated with college gear in their current wardrobes. Comparisons of American with Canadian runners on those same nine identity indicators revealed a different story. Six relationships were significant, only one related to photo displays – those on the Internet, which were more often created by Canadians. Canadians were also more prone to identify with running-related wardrobe and gear, whereas Americans more strongly identified with college affiliation.

**Discussion.** The consistent number of significant relationships with latent variables such as well-being, demographic characteristics, and country of origin also support previous research suggesting that it is important for researchers to consider multiple loyalties (e.g., Wellman et al., 1982). These loyalties are related to activity participation, purchase behavior, social networks, self-expression and suggest that multiple contextual identities, such as those related to activity participation, product affiliation, and institutional connections co-exist in people’s leisure lives. The present research was not intended to develop a complete inventory or set of inventories of manifest loyalty, but represents a concrete step toward resurrecting that quest which has laid largely dormant for several decades as research focus shifted to associated latent constructs.

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THREE YEAR EXERCISE COMPLIANCE IN A COHORT OF OLDER ADULTS
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Over 45 percent of seniors 65-74 years of age report no physical activity and over 55 percent of those aged 75 and older report no physical activity. Not only do older adults refrain from starting a program of regular exercise, they fail to “stick with it” for very long—50 percent of those beginning an exercise program fail to continue beyond six months (Buckworth & Dishman, 2007). Habituation of exercise over a sustained period is necessary for health promotion and maintenance. Therefore, study of exercise and physical activity among older adults requires that researchers investigate not only whether exercise is adopted in the first place, but also whether exercise is practiced over the long term. Compliance with a program of exercise has typically been investigated by tracking attendance rates during intervention trials of various sorts (Martin & Sinden, 2001). But the length of follow-up in randomized control trials has fallen short of what might be considered convincing evidence of the sustainability of a physical activity habit. Martin and Sinden reviewed 21 randomized control trials that tracked exercise compliance; the majority monitored exercise for less than one year. Because it is somewhat unreasonable for an intervention trial to track compliance for longer than one year, one might then turn to longitudinal cohort studies for remedy. Unfortunately, few if any have examined long-term compliance of exercise among older adults (Litt, Kleppinger, & Judge, 2002). When studies do monitor exercise over an extended period, predictive results are often disappointing. Rejeski et al. (2007), for instance, explained only ten percent of the variance in exercise behavior of seniors at follow-up transition and maintenance phases over the course of a one year study of 213 older adults. Furthermore, when added to the equation, the best predictor of follow-up exercise was exercise practice in earlier phases. The finding that previous exercise behavior predicts subsequent exercise behavior has been a common report in studies that have taken the trouble to include it as a variable (e.g., Lee & Laffrey, 2006, Martin & Sinden). In addition, few studies have attempted to set a benchmark expectation for exercise compliance at a rate that offers a reasonable probability for health improvement or health maintenance. And even when an exercise criterion is set, it is often violated. For example Litt, Kleppinger and Judge encouraged their subjects to exercise at a rate of four to five times a week; but at follow-up they found subjects were exercising at only about one-half that rate. The present study attempted to correct several issues surrounding the study of exercise compliance in older adults. First, it set a benchmark for exercise that is widely accepted—the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) recommended amount of exercise for adults. Second, it reports data from a cohort study of three years length, longer than most previous studies have tracked exercise behavior in older adults. Lastly, it defines compliance as a single, unitary variable instead of using baseline exercise as a predictor for subsequent exercise. The rationale for defining compliance as a unified variable is that it avoids the “wash out” effect seen in some previous studies (e.g., Rejeski et al.) where using baseline exercise as a predictor has increased the percent of variance accounted for at the expense of other predictors. This has led researchers to conclude that previous (exercise) behavior is a potent predictor of subsequent (exercise) behavior. Although this is certainly important to know, it does not help identify modifiable correlates of physical activity that may be altered to enhance adoption and continuation of exercise. Furthermore, exercise compliance is, by definition, a contingent variable. Compliance requires that at least two conditions are true—exercise practice at an acceptable rate at two points in time, presumably some baseline and some follow-up. Hence, this study identified compliers as those subjects who
reported meeting an exercise benchmark at baseline and at a three year follow-up. Meeting the benchmark at baseline or follow-up meant that the subject was not identified as a complier.

**Purpose**

The purpose of this study was to predict a unitary compliance variable with an accepted performance benchmark and three years between baseline and follow-up data collection. Independent variables chosen were identified previously as correlates of exercise behavior (Buckworth & Dishman).

**Method**

As part of a larger survey (n=2592 adults), Mirowsky and Ross (2008) included 1103 older adults in the United States in 1995 and 614 of the same subjects at a three year follow-up in 1998. These data were recently archived and made available for other researchers. Subjects 60 and older at baseline (1995) who also completed the follow-up survey (1998) served as the sample for the present longitudinal investigation. Independent variables available for this study have been associated with exercise through past studies (Buckworth & Dishman; Rejeski, et al.). All independent variables were those collected at follow-up and recoded into binary variables for logistic regression analysis. Independent variables that were categorized by use of either approximate median scores (e.g., about one-half of the subjects were above/below the median age of 72 years) or by use of a pragmatic criterion (e.g., smokers vs. non-smokers). The dependent variable of exercise compliance was likewise created for binary logistic regression analysis. Subjects were originally asked how often they participated in walking, moderate exercise (e.g., gardening, dancing, etc.) and strenuous exercise (jogging, biking, etc.). A total weekly average of exercise was the result of a summation of the frequencies per week of walking, moderate exercise, and strenuous exercise. Average total weekly exercise was computed for baseline and follow-up. Next, the CDC (2008) benchmark for exercise was applied to the total weekly averages at baseline and follow-up. The CDC benchmark is moderate exercise (all three forms of exercise were considered at least “moderate”) at least five times per week for 30 minutes each time. Compliers were subjects who met the CDC recommendation for exercise of five times per week or more at baseline and at follow-up. Two hundred twenty-one (five were lost because of missing data) compliers of the 614 subjects available at follow-up were coded with a score=1. Non-compliers were subjects who reported exercising less than three times per week on average at baseline and at follow-up; yielding 93 non-compliers (three were lost because of missing data). Of the non-compliers, 48 reported no exercise at baseline or follow-up, with the remainder reporting exercise at baseline and/or follow-up at a rate (less than three time per week) well below the CDC recommendation of five times per week. Non-compliers were coded with a score=0. Subjects who reported average weekly exercise rates of three times per week but less than five times per week were omitted from the analysis.

**Results**

The main analysis consisted of a logistic regression solution for independent and dependent variables that were categorized into binary variables. The complete model with all 13 independent variables was statistically significant ($\chi^2(13)=71.624, P<0.001$) with Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness of fit test yielding an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2=4.781, df=8, P=0.781$). The 13 independent variables accounted for about 29 percent of the variance in the compliance variable (Nagelkerke $R^2=0.290$). Overall, almost 75 percent of the cases were correctly classified into complier/non-complier types. The main analysis yielded four significant predictors of compliance. Two demographic variables were significant, including employment ($P=0.016$) and marital status ($P=0.004$). Employment had a dampening effect on exercise, with those working
about one-third less likely (OR=0.375) to comply, but being married more than doubled one’s chances of being a complier (OR=2.450). Functional disability more than halved (P=0.006) a subject’s odds (OR=0.408) of complying with the CDC exercise benchmark at baseline and follow-up. Lastly, self-rated health proved to be a potent force (P=0.005) for enhancing compliance by a factor of more than two and one-half (OR=2.563).

**Discussion**

Among the four specific variables with significant predictive power in this study, two were demographic, marital status and employment. Marital status was an important predictor of compliance, with the advantage going to those who were married. Subjects who were married had more than double the likelihood of meeting the CDC exercise standard at baseline and follow-up. If marital status is a proxy for social support, then its influence here may be better understood. Social support from a variety of sources, including one’s spouse or partner, has a long history of favorable influence when it comes to exercise compliance (Buckworth & Dishman; Litt et al.). The importance of social support for exercise cannot be over-stated and is especially important for older adults according to Prohaska, et al. (2006). Few subjects (15.5 %) reported being employed, but it proved to be detrimental to compliance, with those employed less than half as likely to be in the complier group. Employment’s influence may be explained as a matter of having enough time to exercise; or, employment may contribute to scheduling conflicts with respect to exercise intentions. In addition, Martin and Sinden’s review of intervention trials indicated that work was one of several reasons for withdrawal from exercise programs. Some authors (Cardenas, Henderson, & Wilson, 2009) have maintained that the rate of physical activity nudges upward slightly at the retirement event, presumably because the person has more time to exercise. Conversely, the same authors (Cardenas, Henderson, & Wilson) found that lack of time was the highest rated constraint to exercise mentioned by their subjects. Likewise, functional limitations seemed to present an obstacle when it came to exercise compliance and have been so identified elsewhere (Jette, et al., 1998). Conversely, improvement in functional disability is often seen as an outcome of regular exercise practice (Paterson & Warburton, 2010). Hence, functional disability can be as much of a correlate of physical activity as functional improvement can be an outcome. Lastly, self-rated health was very important to exercise compliance. Previous studies (Cardenas, Henderson, & Wilson; Lee & Laffrey) and reviews (Buckworth & Dishman) have identified self-rated health as a powerful predictor of exercise and exercise compliance. In this study, subjects reporting their general health as “very good” or “good” were more than twice as apt to satisfy the conditions necessary to qualify as a complier. The findings of this investigation must be tempered with the fact that the original data were gathered from an older adult cohort in 1995 and again in 1998 and may not be applicable to the current population of seniors. However, one authority on compliance has noted that the practice of exercise has not changed much in the last 20 years (Buckworth & Dishman). The data may also imply that efforts to engage workers in exercise programs should not stop at 60 and that companies, senior centers and public exercise and recreation programs should continue to offer evening and weekend alternatives for employed older adults. Unmarried seniors or those without partners may benefit from group exercise initiatives that offer social support. Alternative and adapted physical activity programs for older adults who are functionally limited may also be necessary.

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Selected References


SOCIALIZERS, SWAPPERS AND CONCERNED USERS OF SENIORS’ ONLINE COMMUNITIES
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Recent statistical reports demonstrate that older adults are the fastest growing segment among Internet users (OECD, 2011; Pew Internet and American Life, 2010), and that participation in online communities that are dedicated to older adults is a significant trend in elders’ leisure use of the Internet (Nimrod, 2010). This trend may be explained by findings from several exploratory studies that explored the benefits of participation in seniors’ online communities. These studies demonstrated the communities’ potential to provide instrumental information (Camarinha-Matos & Afsarmanesh, 2004; Pfeil, 2007; Xie, 2008), emotional support (Ito, O’Day, Adler, Linde & Maynatt, 2001; Pfeil, 2007; Pfeil, & Zaphiris, 2010; Wright, 2000), companionship (Kanayama, 2003; Pfeil, & Zaphiris, 2010), and a sense of belonging (Burmeister, 2012). Without deemphasizing the contribution of these studies, it should be noted that they portrayed a rather limited picture of seniors’ online communities. This resulted from various reasons. First, previous research lacked quantitative studies which may enhance this body of knowledge. Second, in all studies, interviewees and/or contents were sampled from one online community only. Third, all previous studies tended to regard the communities as online support groups, whereas the positioning of most communities tends to emphasize the recreational aspects of participation. Moreover, whilst indeed some discussions in the communities may be described as supportive, others are intellectual or very casual in nature. Lastly, the current body of knowledge provides very little information regarding the audience of seniors’ online communities. This study aimed to provide in-depth understanding of that audience by examining community members’ characteristics, participation patterns, and interests. Based on the wide variety of issues discussed in the communities (Nimrod, 2010), this study proposes that community members may vary in their interests, and that not all issues discussed in the communities appeal to them equally. Thus, this study was also designed to explore whether members of seniors’ online communities can be segmented according to their interests, and if so, (a) can the segments be differentiated using background characteristics and/or participation patterns? And (b) are there differences among the groups with regard to perceived benefits gained from participation?

Method

The study was based on an online survey with a convenience sample of 218 members of 16 leading English language-based seniors’ online communities. The questionnaire included questions regarding the following areas: participation patterns, interest in the 13 most-discussed topics (Nimrod, 2010), perceived benefits of participation (measured by the PAL-E, developed by Tinsley and Kass 1980a, b). In addition, they were asked to fill a background questionnaire.

The data was analyzed in four steps, the first being a factor analysis to identify the structure of respondents’ interests. In the second step, the interest factors were subjected to a cluster analysis, which specified groups of community members with similar interests. The third step examined each group by their interests, background characteristics and participation patterns. To identify significant differences between groups, cross-tabulations and chi-square tests were employed, as well as ANOVA and LSD tests. The last step of the data analysis was finding differences in perceived benefits between the groups. For that purpose, factor analysis of the perceived benefits data was conducted to identify the structure of reported benefits. Then ANOVA and LSD tests were used to compare the mean scores of each group for the benefits factors identified.
Findings

**Sample characteristics** – Respondents’ mean age was 64.7 years. Fifty-six percent were female, and the average number of years of education was 15.1, and 54% reported having average income. Forty-eight percent were from the US, 33% were from the British Isles, 13% from Australia and four percent from Canada. Seventy-three percent perceived their health as good or excellent. Nineteen percent were relatively new members (less than a month) and 63% were ‘veterans’ (more than a year). Forty-two percent were ‘heavy users’, who visited their community every day or nearly every day, and most (73%) reported being active (i.e., posting) at least to some extent. Forty-two percent of the “posters” were frequent posters, who posted messages in many or in most visits, and 47% reported posting in few visits only.

The structure of interests in issues discussed in the communities - The factor analysis of the interest data identified four factors that explained 59.2% of the variance. The first factor, labeled ‘later life issues’ included issues related to challenges associated with later life, such as retirement, aging and health. The second factor, ‘intellectual interests’, consisted of interests that were associated with expanded knowledge and enrichment such as studies, spirituality, and social issues. The third factor, labeled ‘light entertainment’, comprised interest in online recreational activities (games, funny videos, etc.) as well as in offline leisure and shopping. The last factor, ‘advanced challenges’ included somewhat complex tasks associated with the more luxurious side of life (e.g., travels and technology-related challenges).

The three clusters of members - Cluster analysis conducted on the interest factors identified three groups of members. The first group, labeled information swappers, (41.7% of the sample), had the highest cluster centroid score in the ‘advanced challenges’ factor, and a low cluster centroid score in the ‘intellectual’ and ‘entertainment’ factors. The second group, aging-oriented (32.6%), scored similar to the other groups in the ‘later life issues’ factor. However, it had a low cluster centroid score in the ‘intellectual’ and ‘entertainment’ factors, and scored lowest on the ‘advanced challenges’ factor. The third and smallest group, labeled socializers (25.7%), scored highest on the ‘intellectual’ and ‘entertainment’ factors. In the ‘advanced challenges’ factor it scored lower than the information swappers and higher than the aging-oriented.

Differences in background and participation patterns - Analysis indicated that there were relatively more men, more married individuals, and more respondents that reported high income and excellent health among the information swappers than in the other groups. The aging-oriented were significantly older than the other groups. This may explain why they also had the smallest rate of respondents who reported excellent health. The socializers were relatively more women, and had the smallest rate of respondents who reported high income. The information swappers and the aging-oriented had significantly higher rate of posters than the socializers. However, among the posters, the information swappers and the socializers were significantly more active than the aging-oriented.

Differences in perceived benefits - Factor analysis of the benefits data identified seven factors that explained 68.5% of the variance, including ‘Service’, ‘Self-expression’, ‘Companionship’, ‘Joyfulness’, ‘Stimulation’, ‘Standing out’, and ‘Autonomy’. One-way ANOVA and LSD tests indicated significant differences between the groups in three benefit factors: ‘Self-expression’, ‘Companionship’, and ‘Joyfulness’. In all cases, the socializers reported the highest agreement. The socializers reported significantly more ‘Self-expression’ than the other groups. The socializers and the aging-oriented reported significantly more ‘companionship’ than the information swappers. The socializers and the information swappers reported significantly more ‘joyfulness’ than the aging-oriented.
Discussion

The Uses and Gratifications (U&G) theory (Blumler & Katz, 1974) suggests that audience members are active in attempting to satisfy psycho-social needs by means of selective exposure to media and specific contents. Another tenet is that gratifications of some of these needs are interchangeable not just among the various media, but also by attending to other cultural or leisure activities. The emergence of Internet-based communication has revived the significance of U&G, and led to a renewed interest in assessing the value of this approach (McQuail, 1997; Ruggiero, 2000). Accordingly, it is suggested that the U&G approach is a most suitable theoretical framework for interpreting the findings of the current study.

The fact that the three groups of community members identified in this study have scored similarly in the ‘later life issues’ interest demonstrates that they all shared a common psycho-social need. Therefore, the communities may be regarded as a medium that specializes in gratifying a ‘core need’ of the community members, namely, the need to cope with the various challenges associated with later life. To an extent, this main function justifies previous studies’ emphasis on the peer-support provided in the communities (e.g., Ito et al., 2001; Wright, 2000). Nevertheless, the findings suggest that the audience of the communities is not homogeneous, and that parallel to the need to cope with the various challenges associated with later life, some segments have additional needs, as reflected in their interests.

In accordance with the U&G theory, it is reasonable to assume that the three segments used the communities differently not just in their posting behavior, but also with regard to the online discussions they chose to follow and/or be involved in. This may explain why they reported different gratifications. The aging-oriented, who seemed to be mainly in need for support, reported significantly more ‘companionship’ than the information swappers. The latter, whose use of the community was probably more casual and instrumental, reported significantly more ‘joyfulness’ than the aging-oriented. However, participation in the communities seemed to be a somewhat more meaningful activity in the case of the socializers. As a result, they enjoyed not only the companionship and the joyfulness, but also an opportunity for self-expression. Participation in seniors’ online communities appeared to enable this group, more than the other two, to remain socially and mentally active and to express their strengths and enduring interests. Since such active engagement is a key aspect of well-being in later life (McKenna, Broome & Liddle, 2007; Warr, Butcher & Robertson, 2004), it is suggested that the contribution of participation to members’ well-being is greater for the socializers than for the other groups.

The differences between the groups in their background characteristics provide possible explanations for the differences in their needs, as reflected in their interests. For example, the fact that the aging-oriented were significantly older and, accordingly, less healthy, may explain their focus on later life issues. Similarly, with relatively more women and the smallest rate of respondents who reported high income, the socializers were probably facing more constraints to offline leisure. Therefore, it is possible that their use of the communities provided compensation for reduced involvement in offline activities. Hence, the findings suggest that members of seniors’ online communities actively select community contents that best meet their psycho-social needs, and use the communities interchangeably with other media and activities. Such intentional use of this medium becomes an integral part of the strategies they utilize in order to cope with and adjust to constraints to offline leisure and challenging later life circumstances.

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Selected References


CONSIDERING STUDENTS’ EXPERIENCES IN DIVERSE GROUPS: CASE STUDIES FROM NOLS
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Outdoor adventure education (OAE) spaces are historically white (Chavez, Winter, & Absher, 2008; DeLuca, 1999; Roberts, 2009). People of color often choose different leisure pursuits for a variety of reasons, including historical inequalities (Meeker, 1973; Roberts, 2007) and resulting lack of access. They are also privileged spaces, considering the sheer cost of participation in OAE: Wind River Expedition courses (30 days) offered by the National Outdoor Leadership School (NOLS), for example, bear tuition costs of $4,640, plus additional transportation, equipment, and miscellaneous expenses. A potential remedy to this access barrier, then, is to provide scholarships. And, to the extent that socioeconomic status is correlated with race and ethnicity, increasing the number of students receiving scholarships would serve to increase the racial and ethnic diversity of students on courses. Warren (2002) reiterates that real understanding of social differences “can’t happen until groups are diverse” (p. 236), but what happens to OAE groups as they become more diverse? With respect to student learning and personal development in higher education, Hu and Kuh (2003) found that white students benefitted more from “diversity” than did the diverse students themselves. A sociometric study found that middle schoolers were more likely to offer more acceptance nominations and fewer rejection nominations to their same-ethnicity peers (Bellmore et al., 2007). Perhaps most simply, Lott and Lott (1965) suggest that groups whose members have more similar backgrounds will be more cohesive. Rose and Paisley (2012) assert that “simply encouraging more racially diverse participant groups amounts to a benevolent invitation for “others” to take part in processes and institutions already well under way without them” (p. 142), suggesting programmatic ramifications. The purpose of this study, then, was to explore the experiences of students on OAE courses with different “diversity” compositions.

Methods
We chose scholarship status (receiving or not receiving a scholarship) as a proxy for “diversity,” ideally to capture racial and ethnic diversity to some extent: Students seeking and receiving scholarships are different, perhaps in myriad ways, than the majority of more privileged students who pay the full cost of attendance. In our study, most (but not all) students not receiving scholarships were white and most (but not all) students receiving scholarships were people of color. We will limit our definition of “diversity,” in this case, to SES (represented by scholarship status). Data were collected from six 30-day courses for 16-17 year-olds run by the NOLS in the summer of 2012, representing three different compositions of students receiving scholarships. Two courses of twelve students consisted of two students receiving scholarships; two consisted of six students receiving scholarships; and two consisted of all students receiving scholarships. A mixed method approach was used to consider the social cohesion of each group’s structure and to encourage students to describe the social experience of their courses in their own words. Social network analysis (SNA) was used to assess social cohesion at approximately the
10-, 20-, and 30-day points of the courses. This technique provides a graphical representation of the relationships among individuals in a group through the use of graph theory (Wasserman & Faust, 1994). The SNA data were collected by asking students to choose three members within their groups they would prefer to be with based on a scenario representing the social dimensions of a NOLS course. Graphical representations of the group structure, or sociograms, were generated for each administration. We also conducted one-on-one interviews with every student on each of the six courses, observed the student debrief after the courses, and conducted focus group interviews with the instructor teams of each of the six courses post-course. Analyses of these data generated themes within each type of course and also highlighted idiosyncratic examples.

**Results and Discussion**

For the purposes of this paper, and due to missing data, we will delimit our focus to the first SNA administration and to one course per composition. Several themes emerged that crossed all course compositions. First, it is important to note that, though well-intentioned, the organization sponsoring all of the students receiving scholarships provided each with bright orange tee-shirts to wear the first day at NOLS. This set these students apart as different from the beginning. Across all three compositions of students, the most frequently mentioned source of conflict was food (how it was prepared, quantities, etc.), which may not be surprising given the physical and developmental needs of adolescents and the overall energy expenditure in OAE. Again, across all compositions of students, one of the most mentioned contributors to group-ness (the term the researchers used to represent a sense of cohesion) was having a common goal, a key feature of OAE. Another factor affecting group functioning, across all concentrations, was a split (sometimes referred to by students as “clique-y-ness”) between what the students referred to as “guys” and “girls”. The sociograms for all groups show the girls on the periphery of the group structure: “The girls would just hang out with the girls and the guys would just hang out with the guys,” with the guys often taking on the leadership roles. This again, perhaps, is developmentally reasonable and is reiterated by NOLS’ structures and practices (e.g. single-sex tent groups) that serve to maintain distance between the sexes at this age for liability and programmatic reasons. For Composition A (two students receiving scholarships), essentially, any differences of the students receiving scholarships were reduced to simply that: The two students were consistently referred to as “[scholarship] students,” who “didn’t understand what this was going to be…[they were] just a little confused and disoriented for a lot of it” by those students not receiving scholarships. Another student not receiving a scholarship stated, “Some people had different background and were brought up differently…the different views could clash at certain moments but it would be washed over and everyone could just forget about it and move on.” There was some discussion of schooling by a student not receiving a scholarship: “If you kind of went to a similar school or something like that, [difference] wasn’t as big.” While homesickness or missing friends was not uncommon among some students on all course compositions, the most profound and visceral descriptions of homesickness were found on these courses and were expressed by the students receiving scholarships: “I wanted to break my leg to get evac-ed [separated from the course and sent home]…that’s how homesick I was.” The same student, visually separated from the group on the sociogram, continued, “…everything they would talk about was like from outer space.” In contrast, however, one of the students receiving a scholarship in this group composition was at the center of the sociogram and referred the group as being “like family.” For Composition B (six students receiving scholarships), the sociogram shows a distinct visual separation between
students receiving scholarship and those not receiving scholarships. From the interviews, on these courses, the language around diversity was much more specific from both groups of students, identifying specific racial and ethnic, regional, and schooling (public vs. private) differences. The most descriptive comments came from students not receiving scholarships, as one stated, “...like there were kids [on scholarship] which is like putting really rich preppy whites, basically, with different background people.” Another student not receiving a scholarship said, “it was kind of a different way of meeting them [students who were “different] and seeing what they were like and enjoying them for that...they can be really friendly once you get to know them.” However, the tension around these “differences” was high, as evidenced by another student not receiving a scholarship: “[the diversity was] forced, and you have to be friends with them...I would rather be on a different course [with people more like me].” Students’ stories on this course type detailed much more conflict, which was reiterated by a member of the instructor team, “[I felt like I was] thrown under a bus,” suggesting that he was unprepared for the social challenges presented by the course composition. For Composition C (all students receiving scholarships), the sociogram suggested the most interconnected group structure. This course type was characterized by “personal bonds” around “where we come from, like our roots” and being like a “tight family...you guys argue a lot but you love each other at the same time and that’s how we were.” One student stated, “...you tell people...what you’ve been through but just being able to say that and get over it, I think that means a lot.” Another said, “We could all kind of relate...we all had similar backgrounds...so you got trusted and trusted people more.” And finally, “Well, I clicked with people since day one and we got to know each other and then we got to talk about our lives...so we became a family.” This was the only course composition where students mentioned being able to talk about “pain and suffering about yourself,” which suggests a differential level of honesty and intimacy.

Conclusion

Composition C, the most homogenous group in terms of scholarship status, but, perhaps, the most diverse group in other ways, demonstrated the highest cohesion on the sociogram and spoke most highly of the group-ness on their courses. The students receiving scholarship were sponsored by an agency with specific selection criteria and programmatic requirements before and after the courses, suggesting that these similarities may trump other (more specific) differences by creating a homogeneity, of sorts, around level of privilege. Composition A, perhaps the most homogenous in terms of racial differences, experienced the next highest levels of cohesion. However, the experiences of the “diverse” (whether in terms of race and ethnicity, socioeconomic status, or privilege) students were the most varied and dramatic. Composition B seemed to provide the most opportunity to explicitly address diversity in its myriad forms from an educational standpoint, but was also the most volatile, requiring an additional skill set from the instructor team and inherently reducing the amount of time spent addressing other skill sets. Certainly, OAE has the potential to metaphorically and microcosmically model society at large (Hunt, 1994). The question becomes, then, what are the pedagogical and other aims of the organization? And, more specifically, how can course structure and facilitation, instructor training, student selection and placement, and program advertising combine to best meet the needs of the organization and participants alike? Programmatic reactions from NOLS and potential implications for other OAE programs will be discussed.

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CONSUMING EROTICA: LEISURE, TECHNOLOGY, AND WOMEN’S SEXUALITY
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One of the most pressing feminist issues today is women’s relationships with technology. Throsby and Hodges (2009) observed, “one of the core feminist concerns surrounding technologies is the extent to which they facilitate or obstruct goals of equality and emancipation. Do they enhance women’s lives and capacities, or constrain them?” (p. 12). The responses to this pressing question vary considerably, depending on many factors, such as, which women are using technology (considering race, ethnicity, class, sexual identity etc) as well as which technologies are being used and in what ways. The purpose of this paper is to examine how a technology enhanced form of leisure, namely reading erotica, can liberate or constrain women’s sexuality (Sonnet, 1999). To achieve this goal, we examine the popular *Fifty Shades of Grey* trilogy, which is largely consumed by women utilizing various technologies. Situating our analysis within the broader literature on leisure and technology and feminism and sexuality, we argue that understanding women’s consumption of erotica during their leisure has complex and important implications for women’s sexuality and subsequent wellbeing.

**Context**

*Fifty Shades of Grey* is the first book in an “erotic novel” trilogy by author E.L James. Set mostly in Seattle, the books trace a relationship between a young, sexually innocent college graduate named Anastasia (Ana) Steele who encounters a highly successful business magnate who is on the brink of turning thirty, Christian Grey. Grey’s interest in Ana adheres to traditional structures of erotic fairy tales as he initiates Ana’s first sexual experience and awakens her previously dormant sexual desire. Criticized for their literary value, the books are best known for the explicitly erotic narrative, which prominently features sexual practices involving bondage/discipline, dominance/submission, and sadism/masochism (BDSM) (Meaney & Rye, 2007). Initially, the books were referred to as “Mommy Porn,” which reflects the erotic content of the books and the main fan base. The success of the trilogy, however, demonstrates the series is now popular among women of all ages (Milhausen, 2012). Indeed, the books have topped best seller lists worldwide, earned E.L James a number of accolades and generated a number of spinoffs, including cookbooks (*50 Shades of Kale*), musical parodies, *Saturday Night Live* skits, and even the development of a university course. The overwhelming popularity of the *Fifty Shades* series speaks to its social significance, but so too does women’s liberation to openly read, share, and talk about the erotic trilogy, which is linked to technology enhanced leisure.

**Leisure and Technology**

The *Fifty Shades* trilogy was initially written by E.L James as *Twilight* fan fiction and published under a different title on fan fiction websites. James reworked the trilogy publishing them as e-books with a virtual publisher, which was the start of their success (Milhausen, 2012). The books were advertised through book blogs, but much of the success is attributed to word of mouth recommendations amongst female readers. The process alone demonstrates the importance of technology - fan fiction websites, e-books, virtual publishers, online communities of interest– to women’s leisure. This phenomenon is not new, however, as previous research has demonstrated the importance of online communities in connecting women during their leisure (Parry, Glover & Mulcahy, 2012). What is new, though, is women’s use of such technology to consume erotica like the *Fifty Shades* series. The discreet nature of e-reading devices enables women to consume erotic novels privately without shame wherever they like during their leisure
This form of consumption facilitates subversive behavior by enabling women to bypass the gendered judgment associated with activities perceived to be on the fringe of social acceptability (Brown, 2012). The subversive behavior is not limited to erotica on e-readers, however, as women are also reading and contributing to Fifty Shades blogs, participating in chat groups, and looking up Fifty Shades inspired sex toys online. They are also purchasing and borrowing the paperbacks to read publicly (Milhausen, 2012). In this regard, women’s leisure represents a form of “participatory culture”, which occurs when technology brings together groups of like-minded people who would not connect otherwise (Attwood, 2007). Attwood (2007) argues “participatory culture is crucial in understanding the emergence of new kinds of cultural production and consumption at the beginning of the twenty-first century” (p. 442). Indeed, participatory cultures are an important component of leisure contexts.

While the cultural production and consumption aspects of women reading the Fifty Shades trilogy might be new, the storyline of the books is not. According to Milhausen (2012) the Fifty Shades trilogy reproduces one of the oldest stories in the book: the Cinderella fantasy wherein a young, poor woman is swept off her feet and rescued by an older, highly successful and domineering, but damaged man. Thus, while technology has influenced the way the books are created, consumed, and shared, it has not altered the gendered nature of the story that is told. In this regard the Fifty Shades storyline reflects how new technologies continue to reproduce traditional, patriarchal storylines that constrain women’s ability to truly capitalize on the possibilities that the technology affords them. Throsby and Hodges (2009) describe how technologies are “simultaneously material and social, and both mediate and are mediated by social relations” (p. 11). That is, the Fifty Shades trilogy not only demonstrates how technology influences gender, but also how gender influences technology because women are using technology to speak about their sexuality and to explore ways to experiment with new technologies (i.e. sex toys) in the bedroom (Fox, Johnson & Rosser, 2006). And while technology can enable and empower women to read whatever they would like (and perhaps experiment with their sexuality), what they read, including erotica such as the Fifty Shades trilogy, may also have constraining/disempowering influences. Indeed, critiques of the books reveal how they “frame narratives in ways that both play to and reinforce deeply ingrained societal biases about women and men, love and beauty, race and class, consumption and happiness” (Pozner, 2010, p. 17) that can have negative implications for both women and men. These negative influences can serve to reinforce traditional ideals about women’s sexuality.

**Feminism and Sexuality**

Historically women’s sexuality has been constructed such that the ideal woman is the innocent virgin and the object of male desire rather than a sexual subject in her own right. She is not an active agent, but rather a passive recipient of male sexual desire in which she gives pleasure as opposed to seeking it for herself while eagerly awaiting her biologically determined role of wife and mother. This notion of the “passionless” and reproductive woman (Cott, 1978) is entrenched in patriarchal structures that second wave feminism sought to dismantle by positioning women as capable of seeking and receiving sexual pleasure on their own terms from both men and women (Vance, 1992). While the reproduction of traditional and dominant paradigms of sexuality, such as those found in erotic literature like Fifty Shades of Grey and which Dworkin (1987) claimed were bad for women, can serve to reinforce heteronormative stereotypes of femininity and masculinity, third wave feminist thinkers take a different perspective on women’s sexuality. Rather than seeing women as victims, third wave feminists focus on women’s individualism where they can be empowered by their sexuality, act as sexual
agents, and identify their own sexual pleasures (Kipnis, 2007). In this view, women can consume, interpret and even talk openly about sexuality despite the fact that many of the sexual encounters in erotica are framed in a traditional manner (Sonnet, 1999). By using traditional narrative structures such as those found in fairy tales, authors of erotica can adhere to inherent patriarchal structures while still making readers more comfortable with new (to the reader) sexual scenarios (Jorgenson, 2008). In the case of Fifty Shades of Grey, the new aspect of the traditional tale of an “innocent initiation” (Jorgenson), is that of BDSM sexual practices (Milhausen, 2012). By subverting the gendered shame of sexual desire, women are able to reframe their own sexuality in a broader and more inclusive context thereby positively impacting their sexual wellbeing. At the very least, the books open up opportunities for women to explore new sexual possibilities. As Albury (2008) points out, the sexual practices and experiences such as those found in erotica “are an important part of many people’s self-recognition as sexual subjects” (p. 650) even though some may consider those representations to be stereotypical or harmful. Erotica, therefore, has the potential to be an incredibly liberating leisure practice.

Discussion and Conclusion

This paper takes up an area of leisure studies, namely women’s use of technology to consume erotica, that has received scant attention in the literature. One notable exception is Shaw’s (1999) investigation of men’s consumption of pornography and its implications for women’s lives. Even then, however, the focus of that research was on men and pornography, which in our view differs from erotica. The similarities and differences between erotica and pornography warrant further exploration within leisure studies and scholarly literature on sexuality more generally. Our examination of the Fifty Shades of Grey trilogy brings to the fore women’s consumption of erotica during their leisure and the ways in which leisure and technology and feminism and sexuality are inextricably linked. We argue technology plays a vast and ever-increasing role in women’s (and men’s) leisure lives, but has not yet been adequately conceptualized within the leisure literature. To this end we propose the term “mediated leisure” to reflect the many ways that leisure behavior is both facilitated and influenced by various technologies. Technology is ubiquitous and impacts upon nearly all aspects of life, including leisure (Parry, Glover & Mulcahy, 2012). Feminists argue such technological advancements can empower and provide new opportunities for women, particularly through participation in online communities wherein women can engage in broader discussions that may be feminist-oriented (Blair, Gajjalla & Tulley, 2009). In the case of erotica consumption facilitated by technology, however, a deeper debate about its meaning and implications for leisure and technology and sexuality and feminism is vital (Pozner, 2010). That is, while technology has the capacity to liberate women in their leisure consumption, it can simultaneously serve to reproduce gendered stereotypes, which may serve to invalidate the achievements of feminism. We must take care to avoid a backlash against women’s social progress through leisure and technology (Faludi, 1991; Pozner, 2010).

The Fifty Shades of Grey trilogy represents an ideological shift in women’s leisure as technology once utilized almost exclusively by men to consume erotic material is now being utilized by women. This consumption is facilitated by technology that affords women the opportunity to consume erotica privately during their leisure. The success of the trilogy demonstrates its social impact and makes public women’s private sexual desires. However, it also calls for a deeper debate about the meaning and implications of media leisure.

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Introduction

This study illustrates how leisure is negotiated within the unique setting of a touristic and high amenity destination and how the leisure negotiation process of amenity migrants alters the environment and character of community. The study involves three main areas of conceptual thought; amenity migration, leisure negotiation and destination change. The research began with the question of, “what is the lived experience of negotiated leisure for residents in a resort community?” and through the grounded theory process it culminated in a theoretical model of negotiated leisure within amenity migration.

There has been much written about amenity-lead migration in the past decades dating back to the back-to-the-land movement of the 1960s (Gosnell & Adams, 2011) and especially the effects of amenity migration (Gosnell & Adams, 2011; Moss, 2006; Williams & McIntyre, 2001). The broader amenity migration process has been characterized as “a constant negotiating and re-negotiating of a path amidst the complex, chaotic and constantly changing socio-economic conditions...” (McIntyre, 2009: p. 230) but little if any attention has been paid to the leisure negotiation process which is arguably the central motive underlying this type of mobility (Price, Moss, & Williams, 1997). Similarly, much has been written about leisure negotiation but little research has been conducted in unique environments (Jackson, 2000) and specifically in high amenity destinations. My research occupies a distinct position in the literature of amenity migration and leisure negotiation because it offers insight into how the residents pursuing leisure-based lifestyle, in a leisure-rich setting, negotiate for their leisure and how this negotiated process alters the destination itself.

The communities involved in my research are Canmore and Banff Alberta, Canada, also known as the Bow Valley. These adjacent mountain resort communities are considered high amenity destinations but the Town of Banff is situated in a national park with residency restrictions while the Town of Canmore possesses no similar restrictions. The character of the two communities is similar to mountain resort communities throughout the North American west.

Methods

The research is based on the grounded theory methodological approach generally following the work of Corbin & Strauss (1990). Within this approach focus group, semi-structured interviews and quantitative survey research data collection methods were used. Data collection and analysis iterations were approached from the grounded theory perspective and involved data exploration, multiple iterations, theoretical sampling, inductive analysis and theory building (Jennings, 2001; Jennings & Junik, 2007).

Phase 1 consisted of 5 focus groups with men and women of Banff and Canmore and another with transient workers to conduct an initial investigation of leisure negotiation for residents. Focus group participants were secured through theoretical sampling. Focus group discussion was centred on motives to reside in the area, leisure constraints and coping and quality of life. Phase 2 consisted of 22, in-person semi-structured interviews to specifically explore the
everyday aspect of leisure negotiation. Interview participants were also recruited using theoretical sampling. Interviews yielded considerable insight into the negotiation process among different groups.

Phase 3 consisted of a theoretically derived quantitative survey conducted throughout the Bow Valley, resulting in 363 usable surveys (a response rate of 31%). The survey was administered in a randomized manner with personal contact at the door and a mail-back package. The survey included four main measures addressing motivation to reside in the Bow Valley, importance of recreation amenities, perception of change in the community, and general quality of life.

**Results**

Qualitative findings are summarized first in the following manner. People move to the Bow Valley largely to realize a lifestyle that includes the recreation, culture and aesthetic attributes of the mountain environment, thus making them amenity migrants. There, most discover that recreation and culture opportunities are highly accessible and satisfying but full-time residents who rely on the area for their livelihood (the majority) must continually negotiate with the broader environment (physical, social, and structural) in order to remain and maintain a satisfying lifestyle. This point is central to the remainder of the research, that is, leisure negotiation for most amenity migrants rests less with ‘traditional’ notions of leisure negotiation as noted by Jackson (2000) but more on the structural negotiation between the individual and the community. Recreation coping methods including displacement, rationalization, product shift and direct action as described by Manning and Vallierre (2001) were evident with all groups and helped explain how the individual managed daily within a busy touristic resort environment. Place attachment factored into the negotiation process and mobility, as it helped explain why some residents will negotiate through and often meager existence (at least at first) or rationalize rapid growth and stay while others will leave for larger centres to pursue careers or smaller centres to escape the implications of growth.

Leisure negotiation within an amenity migration destination involves some different processes and outcomes than what we have found in typical urban settings. For instance, while access to abundant leisure opportunities is easier (intra-personal), maintaining a decent living in such a place is more difficult (structural) and ultimately the connection one makes with the place is critical which means that absolute displacement (out-migration) is viewed as part of the leisure negotiation process. The research evolved from a focus on leisure negotiation of the individual to the negotiated relationship between the individual and the place and further how individual and collective leisure activity of residents (demand) alters the physical character of the Bow Valley (supply) and thus perpetuates the leisure-based evolution of the place.

Quantitative analysis was employed to bring the findings back to the population and verify key assumptions related to four important dimensions; motivation to reside in the area; valuing of recreation amenities; perceptions of change within the community; and notions of quality of life. A segmentation analysis approach was employed that involved the steps of data preparation including descriptive analysis; exploratory factor analysis (principle component analysis) and tests of factorability and reliability; cluster analysis (K-means, non-hierarchical), analysis of variance and the post Hoc Sheffe test; and finally Chi-square analysis. The analysis supported the presence of distinct groups (post Hoc Sheffe) in light of motivation to reside, valuing of recreation amenities, perception of community change and quality of life. The findings also
supported resident perception of the urbanization of the communities as noted by respondents reporting sharp increases in urban-type amenities (coffee shops, restaurants, etc.) and a decrease of outdoor and backcountry amenities (generally lost to residential and golf course development). The sum of emergent findings suggested a Plog (2002) like situation whereby ‘Venturers’ with leisure negotiation at the centre whereby those who initially popularized the Bow Valley’s recreation amenities were leaving for other communities while those more amenable to comfort-amenities or an urban environment were moving in and quite satisfied with life in the more urban Bow Valley.

Discussion

The theoretical model, Leisure Negotiation within Amenity Migration, is an inductively generated and empirically based model. Each component of the model is supported by the emergent data of the research and relevant theoretical frameworks and literature. The model explains the lived experience of leisure negotiation for amenity migrants within a high amenity and tourism destination. It further explains how the negotiation loops back to change the destination. The explanation of the model herein include three basic components; the motivation to reside; the leisure negotiation process (Lived Experience of Negotiated Leisure) and the impact of leisure and migration on the destination. From the right, the model presents the inevitable decision required by most of to remain or leave. The final component presents the effect of leisure activity (demand) on the destination, the resulting change and evolving image of the place to which others more amenable to the changes will be attracted while others leave.

Leisure Negotiation within Amenity Migration occupies a distinct position within the literature because it provides an inter-disciplinary explanation of leisure and tourism within the human-environment relationship of behavioral geography. Coles et al. (2005, p.31) argue for a post-disciplinary reconsideration of tourism research “…of tourism as a subject to embrace the complexities, ambiguities, and overlaps among different types of human movements, among which tourism is but one distinctive dimension”. The model also presents applied implications regarding the way that we understand and can thus plan for future resort communities.

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EXPLORING THE PARENT-COACH/CHILD-ATHLETE RELATIONSHIP IN RECREATIONAL SPORTS
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Introduction
Adults play an important role in youth sports, facilitating leagues, delivering players to practices and games, and providing vital instruction as coaches. One adult figure, the parent-coach, embodies two significant adult roles. Parent-coaches are very common, with some sources estimating that they comprise approximately 90% of community recreation coaches (Weiss & Fretwell, 2005, p. 287). Although the separate roles of parent and coach have been studied extensively, there is a lack of research into this dual-role phenomenon. This is an exploratory study with the goal of better understanding the parent-coach phenomenon in the recreational sports context, from the perspective of both parent-coaches and child-athletes. This study provides important information on the parent-coach phenomenon, helping to form a model for the relationship between parent-coaches and child-athletes. In addition the study contributes by emphasizing how much is yet unknown about the parent-coach phenomenon, and providing possible avenues for future research.

Methodology

Participant selection criteria
Participants were selected for this study based on a set of criteria. Parent coaches were required to have a minimum of two seasons of experience coaching their children (with a season defined by the organized sports league they participate in), and reside in the northeast region of the United States. The experience requirement for parent-coaches was established in order to select parent-child dyads with more mature, stable relationships. Multiple seasons of involvement together may provide a sense of perspective on the parent-coach and child-athlete relationship that newer dyads may not have. Child athletes were required to be between the ages of nine and 14 years old; be a participant in one of a pre-determined set of sports (baseball, softball, basketball, soccer, football, or wrestling); and reside in the northeast region of the United States. The specific age range was chosen in order to capture participants in recreational level sports, rather than middle or high-school sports; a minimum age was chosen in order to ensure that participants could provide meaningful reflection on the parent-coach and child-athlete relationship. A total of nine parent-coaches and 11 child-athletes were identified (one parent having three eligible children). Six fathers and three mothers were interviewed, as well as three female child-athletes and eight male child-athletes.

Interviewing
Data collection took place through a series of audio-recorded, semi-structured interviews with parent-coach and child-athlete dyads. Parent-coaches and child-athletes were interviewed separately, unless parents requested to be present for their children’s interview, which occurred on three occasions. Child-athletes were interviewed first so as to capitalize on the limited attention span of younger participants. Interviews with child-athletes lasted from 15-35 minutes, while interviews with parent-coach ranged from 25-45 minutes.

The interview guide was designed drawing from previous research into the parent-coach phenomenon (Weiss & Fretwell, 2005); a pilot interview with a former parent-coach and child-athlete dyad; as well as the previous research experience of the authors. Effort was made to avoid leading questions and judgmental responses. Probing questions, follow-up questions, and
techniques such as asking for clarification and specific examples were used to encourage deep narrative content. Separate interview guides were developed for parent-coaches and child-athletes. Questions were purposefully designed to be open-ended in nature, and to induce lengthy, in-depth responses.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was an ongoing process, occurring simultaneously with data collection. As each interview was taken and transcribed, both authors began separately reading and coding the data. Each author identified themes, as well as text quotations that represented those themes. After separately coding all data, both authors met in order to discuss the narrative content and finalize a coding structure for the study. The data analysis procedures for this study followed a general inductive approach, as described in Thomas (2006): a systematic approach to analyzing qualitative data, without the guidelines and terminology of specific traditions of qualitative research (i.e., grounded theory and narrative analysis). The purpose of such a strategy is to allow results to emerge from the raw data organically, without restrictive structures and guidelines.

Results

Child-athletes

Child-athletes identified positive, negative, and neutral aspects of the parent-coach phenomenon. Positives themes involved: familiarity with the coach, who knew them as a person; special knowledge of how practices or games will be run (“I like to know where I’m going to play instead of being surprised at the game”); the chance to spend extra time together (“It’s good to spend time with him”); encouragement from the parent-coach (“He just makes me proud”); and the chance for extra practice of instruction outside of games and practices. Negatives included unwanted criticism, feedback or anger from the parent-coach (“[It’s hard] with him telling you all the stuff you did wrong”); and the feeling that pressure was higher on child-athletes. Other themes included a distinct difference between the roles of “parent” and “coach,” as well as “child” and “athlete.” Child-athletes did not feel that they received any special treatment, nor did they desire special treatment from parent-coaches (“I know that I’m never going to be the captain, because that would almost be favoring”). Child-athletes also perceived that expectations for both effort/performance as well as behavior were higher than for other athletes.

Parent-coaches

Like child-athletes, parent-coaches identified positive, negative, and neutral aspects of the parent-coach phenomenon. Positives included the chance to pass on lessons and values beyond the sports realm (“building the next group of volunteers”); as well as the chance to spend time together in an activity (“it’s a good basis for our relationship”). Negatives identified by parent-coaches included a perception that pressure was higher on their child-athlete; a feeling that some coaches were too focused on winning (“I’ve heard trash talk… heard other coaches shouting”); and the awareness that favoritism is a problem in youth sports. This awareness of favoritism led to specific coaching practices, such as a conscious attempt to treat all players the same, and occasionally less playing time or harsher discipline for their own child-athlete. Parent-coaches identified a desire to develop young individuals into good people, as well as a feeling of responsibility to all participants and parents (“When they’re there they’re mine”). A desire to provide a good sports experience to young athletes, as well as a need to facilitate the existence of a team or league were the main motivations for coaching. Higher expectations for performance/effort, as well as behavior were consistent with the perceptions of child-athletes.
Discussion

The purpose of this study was to help develop understanding of the parent-coach phenomenon, a largely unexplored topic in youth sports research. By interviewing both parent-coaches and child-athletes, we were able to take into account both major participants in this relationship, and provide a more thorough analysis of its structure.

Both parent-coaches and child-athletes specified several positive aspects of their relationship. The opportunity to spend time with one another, especially in the sports context, was identified as a positive by both groups. Parents spoke of common experiences in sports as a basis for the relationship with their child, with some adding that their relationship with children they had never coached was not the same. This speaks directly to the research pointing towards sports as a context for parents, and especially fathers, to interact with their children, and to fulfill the obligations that come with a contemporary definition of fatherhood (Daly, 1996; Marsiglio et al., 2005; Trussel & Shaw, 2012).

Parent-coaches also identified the opportunity to pass on lessons or values as a positive. Much like the physical skills of sports participation, life skills are learned through observation and repetition (Papacharisis et al., 2005). Parent-coaches have the opportunity to model adaptive behavior, attitudes, and belief that apply beyond the sports context. Parent-coaches spoke of “building the next group of volunteers,” and teaching lessons that would apply “later on in life.”

Both parent-coaches and child-athletes identified pressure on child-athletes as a significant negative aspect of their relationship. Some parent-coaches intentionally increased pressure on their child, while others admitted to doing so unintentionally. Both child-athletes and parent-coaches recognized that increased pressure also came indirectly from the role of being the coach’s child. There was also a perception by both parents and children that expectations were higher for child-athletes in terms of effort and performance, as well as behavior. Although elevated levels of pressure and expectations may be related, they should not be confused as identical. Whereas excessive pressure may be perceived as a negative, Eccles’ expectancy-value model identifies high parental expectations as driver of high levels of self-concept among their children (Simpkins et al., 2012). Expectations reflect parental beliefs about their children, and their confidence in their abilities in certain activities. It may be that high expectations, along with high levels of support and encouragement are significant positives for young athletes.

Implications for Practice

When asked for suggestions they might give parent-coaches, many child-athletes recommended that parent-coaches treat all athletes the same, favoring an egalitarian approach. Consistent with this suggestion, parent-coaches spoke of a responsibility to everyone involved with the team, as well as conscious efforts to act in an egalitarian manner. Parent-coaches felt that they had a duty to ensure that all athletes, as well as their parents or guardians, had a positive experience while on their team. A coaching education program specifically designed for parent-coaches may eventually be developed, or a component for parent-coaches may be added to an existing coaching education program. Any educational program should focus on maximizing the benefits of participation by parent-coaches, while minimizing the negative aspects identified in this study.

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Teenage sexual behavior is a controversial topic. Many believe that teenagers should abstain from sexual behavior to mitigate threats such as sexually transmitted infections (STIs) and pregnancy. However, according to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC, 2010), 34.2% of high school-aged teens are currently sexually active (defined as having sexual intercourse within 3 months of the survey), a statistic which does not include activities such as oral sex, anal sex, or heavy petting. Because of statistics such as these, there has been much research conducted on teenage sexuality, particularly as it relates to STIs, pregnancy prevention and other risky sexual behaviors (Levinson, Jaccard, & Beamer, 1994). Despite the heavy focus on teenage sexuality and risky behaviors, there has been relatively little attention paid to sexual pleasure and desire, even though these are cited in various forms as high predictors of teen sexual activity (e.g. Finer, 2007; Meston & Buss, 2007). Moreover, teen sexual activity is rarely researched as a conscious decision made by teenage individuals who wish to pursue activities which relate to sexual desire and pleasure. More often, studies highlight either prevention (for reasons detailed above) or specific contexts of sexual activity (partners, alcohol and drug use, use of contraception, etc.). The role of sexual pleasure has been discussed in recreation literature. According to Kelly and Freysinger (2000), “the possibility of sex for its own sake is reality” (p. 167), and in the classic definition of the word recreation (to re-create), sexual activity facilitates a participant to emerge in a renewed, satisfied state. Furthermore, they argued, like some traditional recreational activities, sex is now being treated as a commodity and is an activity which requires “preparation, culmination, recollection” (p. 168). Similarly, Kelly (1996) noted that for adolescents, sexual activity can be considered a form of leisure in itself and is an activity “freely chosen because it promises a high degree of satisfaction in the experience itself” (p. 390). This is an expansion on the definition of a leisure experience as an activity chosen by the participant for its intrinsic value (Neulinger, 1981); that is, sexual activity for the sake of sexual pleasure can be considered a leisure experience. This compliments Comfort’s (1973) assertion that sex has three roles: procreation, intimacy, and physical play and individuals have the option of pursuing all three. Godbey (2008) discussed the idea of sexual activity as play, in the form of games with established rules and consequences for breaking those rules. In particular, he highlighted several games (involving kissing) and noted that often these games function in the same way traditional play does by providing a way for teens to explore social relationships in a more informal setting. Although there are many definitions of recreation used in the literature, the involvement in leisure activities offers the benefit of pleasure and many participants identify pleasure as an “important criterion” (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997, p 285) of their leisure experience. The purpose of this study was to explore the role of pleasure in recreational sexual experiences among teenagers.

**Methodology**

A qualitative approach was used to explore the thoughts and attitudes of participants regarding recreational sex. Recruiting was done using a targeted, criteria-based sampling structure. Participants were initially contacted via e-mail, university class announcements, and word-of mouth and were given multiple ways of contacting researchers so as to preserve
confidentiality. Ten participants, four males and eight females between the ages of 19 and 24 years were interviewed. Three self-identified as Caucasians, three African Americans, one Asian, one Hispanic, One Mexican/Pakistani and one Caucasian/Vietnamese. Six females and one male identified as heterosexual, one female identified as bisexual, and two males identified as homosexual. Participants were asked to recall their past sexual experiences, especially as they related to sexual pleasure and engaging in sexual activity for that purpose during a one hour semi-structured in-depth interview. Interviews began by asking general questions about sexual discourse and personal sexual beliefs (including topics such as recreation and recreational sex) and evolved into discussions of particular memories and experiences. Because interviews discussed past sexual experiences, questions were formulated based on similar studies using reminiscence methods (Bay-Cheng, Robinson & Zucker, 2009) Participants were asked to reflect on and recollect memories and emotions from their adolescence. Analysis of the data was conducted in an inductive method (Bernard, 2000; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Patton, 2002). Inductive analysis is the process of condensing raw data into summaries of themes which emerge from the data, connecting those themes with the research objectives, and then building subsequent themes on those connections (Thomas, 2003). Interpretation occurred throughout the coding process (Patton, 2002). Steps were taken to increase the trustworthiness of the qualitative data by 1) building rapport and trust through extended interaction; 2) prompting informants during the interview to illustrate and expand on initial responses; 3) preserving an audit trail of data gathered and analysis steps taken; and 4) an external auditor familiar with qualitative research served as a verifier throughout the research process (Patton, 2002; Bernard, 2000).

Results

Participants’ interview responses highlighted several emergent themes including the relationship between the understanding of recreation and beliefs surrounding recreational sex and the importance of pleasure in recreational sexual experiences.

Perceptions Surrounding Recreational Sex.

Common descriptions of recreational sex included phrases such as “sex with random people,” “no strings attached,” or “many partners.” Sarah described recreational sex as, “Umm, you know. Sex without strings attached. No emotional connection, no emotional commitment. Um, no really concern for what like emotional processes are going on inside your partner. Um. Really recreation is sex, is you know, sex to get your rocks off. Sex because it fun. Sex because it’s cool if you’re having sex. Because you know, it is cool and different and parents told you not to. And if your parents tell you not to, it’s so cool to do it.” Similarly, Robert focused on the lack of attachment to a partner by saying that in recreational sex he “would just mean hook-ups and sex for fun. No sense of attachment.” Despite the focus on multiple partners or lack of attachment to partners, many participants reported fun and pleasure as the primary motivator when speaking of recreational sex. Gabrielle said that, “recreational sex is something you do for fun because you feel like doing it, you feel an urge to do it.” Elizabeth, went further by defining recreational sex as pleasurable, “purely for the debauchery. I’m sure that people do it because it makes them feel better about themselves so they’re not so stressed out. So, yeah, I think recreational sex is purely about enjoyment, just like I can say the same thing about books”.

‘Going for the Gold’ – The Importance of Pleasure

Most participants conveyed that sexual pleasure was important when defining a sexual experience as recreational. As Gabrielle, noted, “you’re always going for the gold.” When questioned further, she said “climax,” meaning orgasm. This sentiment guided the activity choices of participants in the same way that those engaging in more traditional recreational
activities would. This is a key distinction between recreational sexual activity and other sexual contexts in which a partner might engage in an activity for the sake of the other person. Rather, participants were very clear that their own individual pleasure was paramount in activity choice. Sarah, described her most pleasurable moments during high school as masturbation with a shower head, “Like I masturbated a lot and none of my friends did. And when they found out I did, it was really weird for them and I was like guys this is a lot more health uh this is a lot healthier than letting some guy spelunk down there who doesn’t know what he is doing, you know. And it hurts a lot less because some guys just really don’t know what they are doing.”

Sexual climax was seen as the paramount of sexual experiences by many participants. Many could not vocalize why this was, but in general, the success of recreational sexual encounters was based on if orgasm was reached by those participating (depending on the chosen activity). As a teen, Hannah was a part of many relationships and engaged in many sexual activities for pleasure; during these experiences there was a clear goal of sexual climax. Of her experience she said, “They all involved a lot of excitement and a little bit of, “am I doing this right?” And, some disappointment. Because again I didn’t know what I was doing and I was disappointed in myself and if I didn’t orgasm or if he didn’t that was…disappointing”.

Discussion
Recreational sex is a term that is hard for many to interpret and correlate with more traditional recreational activities. However, these participants connect recreational sex to pleasurable experiences. The findings suggest that such experiences can be considered recreational and participants often chose sexual activity for its own sake and for the pleasure. This fits particularly well into the classification of sex as a recreational activity, particularly when considered in the context of explanations offered by Kelly and Freysinger (2000) who contend that individuals can engage in sexual activity for its own sake. In addition, Mannell and Kleiber (1997) offered the idea that pleasure is part of the leisure experience, something that has been well-described by participants. Given that pleasure is viewed as the most common factor for engaging in sexual activities (Meston & Buss, 2007), among these participants there was also an emphasis on the goal of orgasm. This compliments Csikzentmihalyi’s (1990) theory of flow, in which he specifically mentions sexual behavior as “one of the first things that comes to mind” (p.100) when discussion flow experiences. Furthermore, Ingham (2005) notes the absence of a body of research discussing masturbation as a sexual activity unto itself. By its very nature, masturbation has at its goal pleasure for its own sake rather than for a partner’s and would lend itself well to future research on recreational sexual activity (Kelly and Freysinger, 2000). Although many authors give credence to the idea of recreational sex, this is one of the first studies which explore this concept in-depth among adolescents. Given the diminished connection between sexual activity and reproduction, the role recreational sex has among youth must be explored further. It is critical for youth practitioners to understand youth sexual behaviors and the role of pleasure to effectively program and provide adequate support and services. Addressing the role of pleasure in sexuality may be controversial but it is essential based on the paradigm of positive youth development, to ensure that discussions of sexuality remain relevant to the youth culture of today.

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The “fun in the sun” paradigm, upon which much of modern tourism (1960s-1990s) hinged on, often involved tourist engagement in activities typically seen as outside the norm, encapsulated in the “four S’s” – sun, sea, sand, and sex (Lowry, 1993; Oppermann, 1999). While these stereotypes are perhaps not as common today as they were in the past, travelling to paradisiacal beaches where one is (tacitly) licensed to engage in activities not necessarily endorsed in the tourist’s home environment remains a powerful tourism motivator, particularly for younger tourists (e.g., Bennett, 2004; Goossens, 2000; Sheller, 2004).

Tourism pursuits that have at their core the maximization of pleasurable feelings (i.e., hedonistic tourism – Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007) present particular methodological challenges. First, such tourism pursuits often develop into a culture of their own, complete with its own mores and expected behaviors (e.g., Saldanha, 2002). While culture undoubtedly influences behavior it is also true that individuals do not always behave in accordance with the cultural beliefs they purport to subscribe to, nor do they always report past events accurately (Bernard et al., 1984; Freeman et al., 1987). Consequently, self-reported behavioral accounts of events that are likely to incur in the disapproval of mainstream society may be understated, exaggerated, and/or be inaccurately reported, and thus at odds with cultural perceptions of the same phenomena (Chick 2000, 2002; Edelman, 2009). Second, a great deal of tourist behavior occurs in a variety of spaces, either public (e.g., the beach), or private (e.g., bars, hotels), and these have an important bearing on the tourism experience. Because not all of these spaces (e.g., hotel rooms) are accessible to the researcher, it may be difficult to obtain accurate data concerning tourist behavior in these areas. Thus, it becomes of paramount importance to acquire information about these tourism locales, in order to put tourist behavior in its appropriate context (Hall & Page, 2002). Moreover, because tourism behavior in public places often occurs in substantial numbers in small geographic areas (e.g., the beach), with great mobility of tourists wandering from one setting to another (cf. Rapoport, 1990), it may be difficult to acquire representative samples of observed/reported behaviour. Sampling procedures that work well in laboratorial or quasi-laboratorial settings (e.g., online surveys) may be inadequate to portray the complexity of tourism pursuits in such locales. Lastly, because researchers typically have at their disposal finite resources, advanced means of behavioural data collection, such as GPS-based instruments, satellite imagery, and/or continuous digital photography (e.g., Almer & Stelzl, 2002; Kammler & Schernewski, 2004), may not be readily available.

This paper illustrates the methodological challenges discussed above with data from a larger longitudinal (2005-present) study on culture and behaviour of young tourists in several beach-front U.S. destinations. The purpose of this larger study is to investigate the relationship between culture and objectively measured and self-reported behavior within the context of out-of-the-ordinary leisure experiences. In this paper we describe the methods we used in detail to document tourist behavior at a beach destination, as well as the impact that cultural norms had on such behaviors.

Methods

The behavioral data presented in this paper were collected in the main beachfront area of a famous U.S. beach destination (pseudonym: “Beachville”). Data collection took place along a wide strip of sand stretching roughly 2.2 miles between the water’s edge and the high-rise hotels and apartment buildings and beach bars/nightclubs along two parallel main roads,
which constitute Beachville’s “strip.” We used a combination of participant observation (Ribeiro & Foemmel, 2012), continuous monitoring, instantaneous spot sampling (Bernard, 2011), and concomitant free listing (Ribeiro, 2012) to collect behavioral and cognitive data concerning tourist behavior in Beachville. In an effort to increase the representativeness of the data collected, all data collection points (n=24) were randomized following a simplified incomplete block design (BIB) with (λ) = 2 (Weller and Romney 1988) to allow for data to be collected from each location at least twice. Given that there were 24 data collection points and that each day allowed for data collection from six sites (k=6), data from all 24 points could be collected in four days (b=4). Data was collected daily from six randomly selected data collection points at least twice, over the course of three weeks. The order and time of data collection were randomized, and we collected data in each data collection point for equal amounts of time. We collected objectively measured behavioral data (N1≈2,000) using ethogram sheets (Bernard, 2011) and hand held clickers (i.e., “pitch counters”). We collected self-reported behavioral data and cognitive perceptions of tourist activity using questionnaires (N2=455) that aimed at creating a cognitive model of tourist culture and behavior, following the models developed by Romney et al. (1986; see also Dressler et al., 2005; Weller 2007).

Lastly, we engaged in prolonged participant observation, informal interviews with spring breakers, local residents, business owners, etc., which allowed us to place our findings into the larger context of tourism in Beachville and make sense of the results obtained via the methods described above. Data was analyzed with the aid of UCINET, SPSS, and NVivo, following procedures detailed in Bernard (2011), Borgatti (2002), Chick (2000), Dressler et al. (2005), Ribeiro (2012), and Weller (2007).

Results

The most common behaviors that came out of our ethological research can be seen in Fig. 1 (grey highlights). The most common behaviors (walking, consuming alcohol, and hanging out) were on par with what was to be expected of this destination, which was confirmed by the results provided by cognitive and behavioral questionnaires (Figs. 2 and 3 respectively).

Analysis of the cultural consensus model in regard to tourism behaviors did not reveal a single Beachville culture, that is, there was no overall consensus among tourists in regard to what behaviors are considered “normal” in Beachville (1st eigenvalue = 34.95; 2nd eigenvalue = 12.50; ratio of 1st to 2nd = 2.80; Mcompetence = 0.61). The first and second factors combined explained in excess of 50% of the total variance (VAR = 42.42 and 15.62, respectively) and the third eigenvalue (5.15) was significantly lower than the second (ratio of 2nd to 3rd = 2.43), which pointed towards the presence of two cultures. When checking for cultural consensus among males and females separately, results showed marginal consensus among males (1st eigenvalue = 24.72; 2nd eigenvalue = 8.11; ratio of 1st to 2nd = 3.05; Mcompetence = 0.61) and strong consensus among females (1st eigenvalue = 12.64; 2nd eigenvalue = 3.03; ratio of 1st to 2nd = 4.17; Mcompetence = 0.70). The variance explained by the first factor was 49% for males and 55.69% for females.

**Fig. 1 – Example of behavioral counts for public areas**
Bivariate correlations (Pearson’s *r*) between the rank values of the culturally correct behavioral responses and objectively measured behaviors (Fig. 1) revealed a moderately high correlation between culture and self-reported behavior when testing for correlation across all 20 behaviors (non-corresponding behavioral ranks were replaced with the mean rank, i.e., 10.5) for females (*r*(18) = .66, *p*(two-tailed) < 0.01) and a more modest correlation for males (*r*(18) = .40, *p*(two-tailed) = 0.09). There was, however, an extremely high correlation between cognitive behavioral items (Fig. 2B) and self-reported behaviors (Fig. 3) when testing for correlation exclusively for corresponding behaviors – Tanning, Walking, Smoking, Drinking (Liquor), and Drinking (Beer) for females (*r*(18) = .99, *p*(two-tailed) < 0.01).

**Discussion & Directions for Future Research**

The purpose of this study was to contrast culture and behavior within the context of a specific hedonistic tourism destination. By analyzing and contrasting self-reported accounts and objective records of tourist behavior with cultural tourist beliefs and culturally prescribed tourist behaviors, the present research makes a significant contribution to the comparative study of culture and behavior in hedonistic tourism settings/pursuits. Findings from this study validated and extended the use of cultural and behavioral models to tourism research (Gatewood & Cameron, 2009; Kerstetter et al., 2010; Paris, 2009; Ribeiro, 2012) by including objective behavioral measures acquired through ethological methods. Thus far, the few comparative studies of culture and behavior that included objective measures of behavior (e.g., Chick 1989, Edelman 2009) have relied on the serendipitous availability of external behavioral records (e.g., church records, credit card data) to establish comparisons between culture, culturally prescribed beliefs and behaviors, and self-reported and objective behavior. The present research added to these pioneering studies by the use of human ethology methods, allowing for the simultaneous collection of cultural, self-reported, and objective behavioral data. Furthermore, the novelty of the research design and research methods employed has significant potential to mitigate the prevailing issue of informant inaccuracy in the social sciences. By contrasting self-reported and objectively recorded data for the same behaviors, this study also contributed to the literature that has looked at the validity of self-reported data, particularly in regard to the leisure behavior of young people that involves participation in risky leisure activities (e.g., Brener et al., 2003). Lastly, this study showed that tourism and leisure are fertile grounds in which to engage in the comparative study of culture and behavior, particularly in regard to accurate measurement of behavior through means other than self-report.

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**TECHNOLOGY-BASED LEISURE (SNS) AND BOUNDARIES IN FAMILIES**
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**Introduction**

Social network sites (SNSs) such as facebook, MySpace, Google+, Twitter and others are regular part of leisure and everyday life among people of all age groups, genders, and racial/ethnic backgrounds. The typical American facebook user currently spends around 8 hours per month using this SNS (Fitzgerald, 2012). The fast and progressing development of SNSs has led to multiple issues that have been discussed in previous research, including reverse power dynamics in modern families (Watkins, 2009), a decrease in time spent with family (Mesch, 2006), self-reported addiction to SNSs (Watkins), problems with privacy control and safety (Lenhart & Madden, 2007; Stutzman, 2006), as well as higher dependency of youth on their parents (Lee, Mezaros, & Colvin, 2009). Despite the multidimensional influence of SNS technology on people's relationships and leisure, there is very little research on how access to SNSs influences family relationships. The above-mentioned relationships include those among family members, as well as the family members’ interactions with the world outside of the family. Considering new opportunities for constant connection to one's social environment offered by SNSs, this study aims to examine how the family system has been influenced by the use of SNS technology for leisure. Specifically, the objectives of the study were: 1) to explore the boundaries between the family and the outside world, 2) to explore the boundaries among the members inside the family. Since the popularity of SNSs is especially high among minors (8-18 years of age) (Rideout, Foehr, & Roberts, 2010), this study focuses on families with teenage children. The family system (Broderick, 1993) was used as a theoretical framework.

**Methods**

A qualitative approach was used for this study. Data were collected from 22 individuals (7 families) using semi-structured interviews. The study was conducted in a small town and a big city in the Midwest during the fall of 2011 and winter of 2012. All of the families were two-parent families and had more than one child. Two of the families identified themselves as being working-class, while the rest of the participants identified their families as middle-class. Four of the families were of Caucasian background, two families reported to be Latinos and one family was interracial (Asian - Caucasian). To recruit participants, information about the study was advertised through several list-serves (including one university and one school list-serve) and on several facebook profiles.

Family interviews were conducted separately and were followed by individual interviews with each family member. All interviews were conducted in English and lasted around 30 minutes. Based on the interviewees’ preference, the interviews took place in either the participants' residences or in a university laboratory. Some of the questions included in the family interviews were: “Describe the pattern of your use of SNSs for leisure;” and “Are there any rules about by whom, when, and how SNSs may be used?” During the individual interviews the participants were asked: “How do you think your use of SNSs influences your family relationships and family satisfaction?” “Are there any conflicts between the members of your family that you associate with the use of SNSs?” Pseudonyms were given to all participants. The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. Interview transcripts were analyzed using constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The data were classified into two major themes: 1) the boundaries between the family and the outside world, 2) the boundaries among the members of the family. To increase the trustworthiness of this study (Lincoln & Guba,
1985), all interviews were audio-recorded and field notes were taken during the interviews. Interview transcripts were sent to interviewees for their verification.

**Findings**

*The boundaries between the family and the outside world.* With increasing opportunity for staying connected anywhere at any time offered by SNSs, many participants re-defined new boundaries between their family and the outside world (e.g., extended family, friends, colleagues, etc.). In many cases parents preserved the power to define the rules of interaction with the outside world by setting strict privacy settings, controlling who can be friends with their children, discussing and monitoring content of what can be posted on-line, and what are appropriate times and spaces for using SNSs. Most of the participants reported that their SNS account settings were set to a high level of protection to insure privacy from the outside world. For example, Eric (father) stated: “We have a recovery question for my password and a really complicated password and I don't put a lot of personal information on it.” Several other participants decided not to add their real dates of birth, middle names, and addresses on their accounts. In families with younger children, the parents used an additional layer of protection and decided who can be friends with their children. For example, Sandra (mother) described, “Well, when they started they weren't allowed to have any friends that I didn't have so I could see what's going on. And then, as they matured [...] we loosened that restriction up.” Despite being granted more freedom with age, teenage participants still had some restrictions on the content they posted. Some parents said that they received an alert every time their children posted anything. Many parents reported that they discussed what is appropriate to post with their children. As Oliver (father) said, “We've certainly talked with both boys about don't put that on facebook, [...] that's really bad idea”. In some families, the parents controlled not only the content but also the time and place of using SNSs. For example, Sandra (mother) said, “He [son] can do it on his ipad and stuff and if I am up at one and doing something on there and I'm like 'why did he just post? He is supposed to be asleep'. And I am like 'Go to bed.'” Most of the families also controlled the space where their children had access to SNSs. In most cases this space was a public area of the house. Some parents also limited their children's access during dinner time or at church. Despite some level of control, many parents primarily those with older teenagers granted their children the role of defining boundaries with the outside world and allowed them to decide the content and amount of time spent on SNSs.

In the cases when our participants were not very successful in defining the boundaries between their family and the external world, the interaction between the family members was affected in a negative way. The use of SNSs during family leisure lowered the quality of interaction among family members. Several teenagers reported their parents not being very attentive listeners due to distraction by SNSs. As Kyle (teenager) said, “Seems like.. she [mother] is on it [facebook] pretty often and I think.. she could take a few moments just to listen.”

While our participants set the boundaries between family and its environment, one of the primary reasons for using SNSs was still to connect with other people (extended family, friends, acquaintances from the past, etc.). Family members used SNSs to stay in touch, organize off-line meetings and celebrations, and to present their family to the outside world. Kathrine (mother) claimed that the biggest appeal she found in the use of SNSs was the ability to connect with their outside-the-family social world. She said, “I really like to use facebook because I could find some friends from the past. [...] He [husband] has an aunt and I thought that she died but she is alive.” By using SNSs family members did not only stay in touch with the outside world but also used SNSs for more utilitarian purposes of planning their leisure time with others (finding tickets...
to the play, planning sleepovers or birthday parties). Interestingly, some families found it important to convey a certain image of their family to their friends and acquaintances. Melisa (mother) described how she created her family image on SNSs, “Well, I think I do use facebook as a turf of expression of things that are good about being a mom and being a wife and I post a lot of pictures of happy kids.” Comparing the image of their own family to the families of their friends, some participants felt a certain level of competition.

The boundaries among the members of the family: While our participants were in relative agreement on how their family relates to the outside social environment, the boundaries inside the family were not as clearly defined. Our participants were not always clear about expectations different family members had about privacy and access to each others' SNS accounts. Most of them shared information from facebook with other family members. As Mellisa (mother) described, “And when I see somebody's pictures.. somebody's new child or something I bring my family over 'look, I used to know them in high school and they have a kid now’.” However, others also found it intrusive when other family members looked at their facebook account without invitation. For example, Ashley (mother) said, “I don't mind showing some things to him [her husband] on facebook but I don't like... I guess I think of it as infringement of my privacy when I am on it and he wants to read everything that's on it.” In some cases access to the SNS accounts of other family members was possible due to the knowledge of the passwords or difference in technology expertise. Answering the question about the knowledge of passwords of other family members, Ostin (father) said, “Yes [I know my wife's and daughter's passwords], my son - I can't memorize his because he's got a long string of digits but I suppose if I needed to I could access that one as well.” While Ostin did not check the SNS accounts of his family members, other parents did not see anything wrong with that. For example, one mother checked her son's account on a regular basis in order to “know more about his feelings or how he is working with his feelings and sometimes as his mom I can help him more.”

Discussion/Conclusion

Due to the fast and constant technological development in modern society, SNSs are available anywhere at any time. As a result, families face multiple issues. One of those issues is reverse power dynamics between parents and children associated with the difference in digital literacy (Watkins, 2009). Opposed to this concern, our findings showed that many parents were able to preserve their higher power status in the family no matter what their level of technological expertise was. Our participants reported that despite the potential to connect with the external social world offered by SNSs, it is possible to successfully control these interactions by using simple rules (where, when and how SNSs can be used). Another problem related to the use of the internet was the issue of privacy control (Lenhart & Madden, 2007; Stutzman, 2006). However, while most of the previous research focused on privacy problems in relation to outside world, our participants mentioned the tensions among the members of their families. Some family members considered unintentional sharing of information from their SNSs to be infringement of privacy, while others found it appropriate to know the password or even regularly to access their child's account. To implement these findings, I recommend that families who use SNSs redefine the concept of privacy inside the family in order to ensure the balance of their family system. Also, professional counselors who work with families should be aware of potential impact that the use of SNSs for leisure might have on family relationships.

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References


ACTIVITY EXPENDITURE MEDIATES LEISURE SELF-REGULATION AND HEALTH IN ADULTS WITH ARTHRITIS

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Introduction

Arthritis is a leading cause of disability among American adults, and it is one of the most common chronic illnesses affecting middle-aged and older adults (CDC: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2010). Over 46 million people have been diagnosed with arthritis in the U.S., and this number is expected to increase 50% by the year 2030 (CDC). Arthritis is progressively debilitating and incurable (Pimm & Weinman, 1998), and people are living with arthritis for longer periods of time than ever before (Leveille, Wee, & Iezzoni, 2005). Research suggests that a wide range of leisure activities with varying degrees of energy expenditure (Ainsworth, 2000) may provide symptom relief. In fact, several arthritis programs (Fit & Strong! Arthritis Foundation’s Exercise Programs, Arthritis Self-Management Program) have demonstrated that staying physically active and engaged in activities helps manage arthritis symptoms and improve function (CDC, 2010; Callahan et al., 2008; Goeppinger et al., 2009; Hughes et al., 2006). Although leisure-time physical activity (LTPA) may be important to health management in adults with arthritis, research suggests that 44% of adults with arthritis do not participate in LTPA (Shih, Hootman, Krueger, & Helmick, 2002). Therefore, it may be particularly important for adults with arthritis to stay engaged in desired leisure activities that can provide some degree of PA accumulated across the week (Goeppinger et al.; Haskell et al., 2007). To better understand these patterns of accumulated LTPA among adults with arthritis, it is important to identify the self-regulatory processes that contribute to the maintenance of activity engagements. Self-regulation is a social cognitive factor that relates to how individuals form representations about their illness, adopt behaviors to cope with the illness, and appraise the utility of these behaviors (Leventhal, Nerenz, & Steel, 1984). As an age-based self-regulatory process, selective optimization with compensation refers to the process of self-regulation to achieve successful aging. Age-based self-regulation of leisure might include identifying and selecting leisure activities, optimizing positive outcomes of leisure activities, and compensating to continue participation in desired leisure activities despite limitations (Baltes & Baltes, 1990; Freund, Li, & Baltes, 1999). There is relatively little research on the self-regulation of LTPA in special populations such as older adults (Umstattd & Hallam, 2007). Therefore, the primary purpose of this study was to extend this emerging literature. Specifically, this study aimed to investigate the roles of self-regulation and LTPA on the health of middle-aged and older adults with arthritis. We examined mediator and moderator models of leisure self-regulation and LTPA on arthritis-related health, including the role of activity expenditures in this process. In the mediator model, we hypothesized that leisure self-regulation would be associated with higher levels of LTPA that, in turn, would be associated with better health. In the moderator model, we hypothesized that the positive relationship between LTPA and health would be significantly stronger for those with the highest leisure self-regulation.

Methods

Sampling Procedures. We used a purposive sampling strategy; study recruitment targeted individuals residing in independent living communities and subsidized housing. After providing written informed consent, participants completed the questionnaire on-site at housing facilities or recreation centers, and the investigators were available to answer questions and assist with the
completion of forms (e.g., difficulty writing due to arthritis symptoms). Some participants completed and returned the questionnaire via postage-paid mail within two weeks of the original data collection period. The sample comprised 178 middle-aged and older adults with arthritis residing in a small metropolitan area (SMA) of the Midwestern U.S. Thirty-eight of the 178 participants had questionnaires with data missing not at random (MNAR; Schafer & Graham, 2002), leaving a study sample of 140 participants for the current study.

**Instruments.** We measured leisure self-regulation using Baltes, Baltes, Freund, and Lang’s (1999) items modified in reference to leisure activities and arthritis. Six items measured loss-based selection (e.g., “When I am not able to participate in as many leisure activities due to my arthritis, I pursue the most important activities to me first”). Five items measured optimization (e.g., “When I choose to engage in a leisure activity, I am also willing to invest much effort in it.”). Six items measured compensation (e.g., “When I can’t engage in a leisure activity as well as I used to, I ask others for help or advice.”). We measured LTPA by including a list of 20 common types of leisure activities and then asking participants to identify up to 12 weekly leisure activities including frequency (days/week) and duration (minutes/session). We used Ainsworth et al.’s (2000) compendium to assign metabolic equivalency task (MET; i.e., activity expenditure) values to activities. This study includes two measures of LTPA: Activity expenditures across up to twelve leisure activities performed in a typical week (Matthews, 2002); and LTPA across frequency (days/wk), duration (minutes/session) and intensity (MET-minutes; Matthews). We measured arthritis-based health using the 44-item Arthritis Impact Measurement Scale (AIMS), a global measurement of health and wellbeing for individuals with arthritis that includes nine dimensions of physical, social, and emotional health and wellbeing (Meenan, Gertman, & Mason, 1980). This scale has demonstrated good internal consistency and validity (Wallston, Brown, Stein, & Dobbins, 1989). Higher scores indicate more difficulties with health due to arthritis pain and symptoms.

**Data Analysis Plan.** PASW/Amos 17.0 and PROCESS (Hayes, 2012). Exploratory Factor Analysis (PCA with promax rotation) was used to examine the validity of the leisure self-regulation scale. Hierarchical regression tested the contributions of the independent variables and the interactions and backward stepwise regression was used to omit nonsignificant effects (Field, 2005). We used Baron and Kenny’s (1986) protocol for testing interactions, and Graham, Cumsille, and Elek-Fisk’s (2003) procedures for using Amos for regressions of mediator and moderator models, controlling for select factors (age, gender, race, resources, arthritis severity, health satisfaction).

**Results**

**Descriptive Information.** Participants were predominantly older (M=73), female (82.4%), Caucasian (92.8%; 6.5% African-American; .7% Other Race), and had a diagnosis of osteoarthritis (62%; 10% had rheumatoid arthritis, 7% had both, and 21% had another rheumatic condition). Twenty-eight percent of the sample resided in low-income housing, 39% resided in independent living communities, and the remaining 33% of the sample were community-dwelling participants. Most had arthritis for more than five years (62%) and over a third (38%) felt that arthritis interfered with their daily life quite a bit or a great deal. Thirty-six percent of the sample used all selection strategies, 46% used all optimization strategies and 33% used all compensation strategies. The arthritis-based health and well-being of the sample was fairly good on average (M = 38.54, SD = 13.40). Weekly activity expenditures ranged from roughly three to 38 METs (M = 14.34, SD = 7.55).
Model Testing. Activity expenditure partially mediated the relationship between leisure self-regulation and health. The final reduced mediator model explained 36% of the variance in health and 8% of the variance in expenditure. Adding leisure self-regulation and activity expenditure to the model contributed significantly to the explanation of health ($R^2_{change} = 4\%$, $F_{change}(2, 132) = 4.35, p = .015$). Leisure self-regulation was directly associated with poorer arthritis-related health outcomes ($\beta = .16$, $p < .05$; CIs = .17, 1.95). Self-regulation was also significantly related to increased activity expenditure ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$) which, in turn, was associated with better health outcomes ($\beta = -.15$, $p < .05$; CIs = -.56, -.03). Bootstrapping results indicated 95% confidence in an indirect effect different from zero ($\beta = -.045$ [CI$\text{LL} = -.099$, CI$\text{UL} = -.013$]; $\kappa^2 = .048$ [CI$\text{LL} = .013$, CI$\text{UL} = .106$]).

Discussion

Our findings extend previous research on self-regulation of LTPA in special populations such as older adults (Umstattd & Hallam, 2007). One unanticipated study finding was that leisure self-regulation was associated with poorer health outcomes. One likely explanation is that those individuals with the poorest health were self-regulating activities the most. This possibility fits with the theory of selective optimization with compensation, in which age-related functional limitations from conditions like arthritis prompt increased self-regulatory behaviors (Baltes & Baltes, 1990). The study findings also indicated that self-regulation of leisure activities may lead to more physically active leisure pursuits that positively impact health. Similar to previous research, self-regulatory behaviors were positively related to PA (Annesi, 2011; Umstattd & Hallam, 2007) and, in turn, higher PA levels were associated with better health outcomes (Hughes et al., 2006). Of particular interest, activity expenditure was a suppressor mediator in our study – it revealed a significant relationship between leisure self-regulation and health that otherwise would have been hidden. This preliminary finding suggests that accumulating energy expenditures across a wide range of activities that are self-regulated via purposeful selection, optimization and compensation may provide the best outcomes for adults with arthritis. Taken together, these findings point to the role that leisure education might play as a component of health programs targeted to older adults with chronic conditions like arthritis. An arthritis-specific leisure education program might include: information on a wide range of low-impact activities beyond those in the intervention; a discussion on suitable mixed activities (a picnic followed by a walk at a local park); useful leisure self-regulation strategies; the importance of maintaining desired activities despite arthritis symptoms; and information about community resources available for adults with arthritis that offer a range of LTPA options. Leisure practitioners also should encourage adults with arthritis to select several physical activities of varying intensity levels in which to engage rather than just one or a few high intensity activities. They should also educate clients on the importance of identifying strategies to optimize and compensate to maintain or increase participation. Some limitations to the current study include the use of self-report measures, the cross-sectional study design, and the high proportions of Caucasians and women in the sample. For instance, it is possible that different findings might be observed with a sample that is more racially diverse and/or with more male representation. Even so, this study adds to the literature on leisure and health in later life by providing preliminary evidence on the importance of leisure self-regulation and activity expenditure in arthritis-based health of middle-aged and older adults.

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Selected References


THE SUBTLE INFLUENCE OF RESEARCHERS’ SUBJECTIVITY: A CAUTION FOR QUALITATIVE RESEARCHERS
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What does it mean to be a researcher? We are trained to envision ourselves as independent scholars examining and reporting on the world around us, attentive perhaps to bias but distancing our work from stories of fiction. To what extent is that possible? This question became salient with the advent of qualitative research and the ensuing debate about whether objectivity is possible or even desirable. But even many qualitative researchers speak as if they can control bias and subjectivity in their work. In this paper, we examine the subtle influence of researchers’ subjectivity even when research is rigorous. The solution, we believe, lies in an open, reflexive admission of subjectivities rather than attempts to eradicate, control, or ignore them.

For qualitative researchers, rigor might entail carefully transcribing interviews and notes, using an advisory panel to gain additional perspectives, and member checking to see if participants’ stories were effectively represented. When paired with reflexive journaling, where researchers examine thoughts and feelings about the research process, these steps presumably make the ensuing research more trustworthy. But is bias truly eradicated? Richardson (1997) wrote: “If we give up the ill-fitting conceit that our sociological concepts are precise, their referents clear, and our knowledge unambiguous, we are met with an interesting question: the writing of sociology…[O]ur choices are simultaneously political, poetic, methodological, and theoretical” (pp. 16-7). In other words, we, as scholars, must acknowledge that what we choose to study, how we enter into that work, and the ways we report our findings are influenced by our own personal and cultural perspectives. If this is true, steps that enhance rigor during data analysis address only some of our subjectivities. Therefore, it is important to understand other ways that researchers influence their findings. We structure our discussion by examining the literature on one topic—mothers’ leisure. We came to this topic through Soule’s lens as a mother of a young child and Samdahl’s cumulative critique of research subjectivities.

Subjectivities in the Structuring of Interviews

By definition, interviews have to entail questions; however, subtle or unconscious aspects of the researcher’s words create a framework that impacts what the respondent says. We see this in research that emphasizes the benefits of challenge courses without regard for potentially damaging consequences (Wolfe & Samdahl, 2005) and in research with post-trauma patients that unconsciously promotes outcomes of independence over inter-dependence (Hutchinson & Samdahl, 2000). In the literature on mothers’ leisure, similar subjective influences mask important understandings. For example, Bialeschki and Michener (1994) reported a study designed to examine “the meaning and importance of leisure, [as well as] the influence of family on the woman’s leisure” (p. 61). Their interviews included questions such as, “What effects have marriage/partnership and children had on your leisure?” (p. 61). By using the term leisure in their questions, and by positioning marriage and children as factors that impact leisure, the researchers were asking mothers to reflect on activities that facilitate freedom, personal satisfaction, and autonomy and were positioning marriage and children as potential constraints to that leisure. It is not surprising that participants described leisure in ways that fit this normative definition—these mothers said that leisure was “non-obligation” (p. 62) for which they needed to “[separate] themselves from family roles” in order to focus on themselves (p. 64-5). These
findings might initially appear self-evident but they are in direct conflict with a deeper feminist critique that the popular connotative meaning of leisure was derived to capture work-centered patterns of employed males. Green, Hebron, and Woodward (1989) wrote, “[T]he artificial separation of areas of life into ‘work’ and ‘leisure’. . . marginalized the experiences of women and obscured the significant ‘overlaps’ that happen in real life” (p. 1). If the goal is to challenge or reconstruct leisure in ways that are inclusive of women’s experiences, we must start with research questions and interview probes that invite alternative understandings.

Perhaps in attempt to avoid this bias, Miller and Brown (2005) asked mothers: “Do you have any time in your day to do things you want to do?,” “How do you manage to get time to yourself for whatever you want to do?,” and “How does your partner make it easier for you to get more time for yourself?” (p. 409). Although these questions avoid the word leisure, phrases like “things you want to do” and “time to yourself” reinforce traditional connotations that leisure is segmented from other facets of life. Those probes make it unlikely that the respondents would discuss fulfilling engagement within the family context, and indeed the mothers described autonomous activities done independent of the family. The connotative meaning of leisure crept into these interviews in spite of the researchers’ attempt to avoid using that word directly.

The above examples illustrate how researchers are unconsciously bound by the foundational tenets that shape their thinking, including the very language that frames their research questions. In a seminal article published 25 years ago, Wearing and Wearing (1988) called for a new conceptualization of leisure not built upon free time and autonomy in order to capture the relational aspects of women’s experiences. An examination of the research on mothers’ leisure shows how difficult it has been to step away from the pervading work-leisure dichotomy in order to examine situations where rich, fulfilling engagement occurs within mothering.

**Subjectivities in the Interpretation and Use of Quotes**

In addition to framing the structure of interviews, our subjective lens also influences our ability to interpret and understand what participants are saying. A standard practice in qualitative interviewing is to probe for rich detail, especially when the participants’ meaning is unclear. Yet judgment about clarity occurs against the backdrop of the researchers’ own assumptions and understandings; thus, researchers are less likely to probe when they can impute their own meanings onto what the participant is saying. This same phenomenon occurs when researchers extract and use quotes from the transcripts, drawn to passages that fit within their a priori beliefs and understandings.

We illustrate this with an example from Irving and Giles’ (2011) study of single mothers. Their manuscript includes the story of a divorced mother who said: “When I have time off and I don’t have [my daughter] I tend to feel guilty enjoying myself when I don’t have her because I feel like we’re one. I almost feel like it’s wrong, I should be with her, mothering her, doing things with her. But then I think that it is imperative to have time for yourself because it fulfills my needs and makes me a better person and ultimately a better mother, right?” (p. 369). Immediately following this quote, the researchers stated, “It is evident that Holly is aware of the importance of ensuring that her needs are met, which follows an emerging discourse in literature for new parents” (p. 370). The fact that the researchers extracted this quote, paired with their claim that Holly is aware of the importance of meeting her own needs independent from her child, reinforces the normative claim that mothers should spend time away from their children. What is interesting to us is that the researchers overlooked Holly’s comment about feeling at one with her daughter, a comment that contradicts this presumed need for independence, and chose
instead to focus on the last half of this quote, which they interpret as “evidence” that Holly “is aware of the importance of ensuring that her needs are met.” But we noted that Holly framed her statement as a question (“right?”), appearing tentative about the expectation that she should seek fulfillment through independent activities; she appears to be asking the interviewer to confirm that time for herself makes her a better mother.

Our point is to illustrate that passages the researchers choose to highlight and ignore, as well as the meanings they impute as they interpret passages, are driven to some extent by a priori beliefs. Rather than evidence that Holly is aware of the importance of time away from her daughter, as the authors stated, the quote might be seen as evidence that the normative discourse of autonomous needs is not applicable, indeed not even attractive, to this young mother. This alternative interpretation was perceptible to the first author, Soule, who experiences richness in her own involvements with her daughter. Even with rigorous methodological protections in place, it is easy for pre-formed understandings to influence how we frame participants’ stories within our manuscripts. Samdahl and Berbary (2008) framed this in relation to positionality, cautioning qualitative researchers to examine the ways they speak for their participants.

Acknowledging Subjectivities

We offer one more example to illustrate the importance of acknowledging researcher subjectivity. Freeman, Palmer, and Baker (2006) examined the leisure of mothers who were members the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (LDS). The LDS promotes the role of mothers and encourages women to remain at home while their children are young. In this study, Freeman et al. reported, “When asked what they most enjoyed in life, most of the women mentioned being a mother and spending time with their families. They chose the role of stay-at-home mother and found satisfaction and joy in daily aspects of mothering” (p. 212). Perhaps anticipating a response among readers because these findings conflict with a more widespread norm that mothers should develop lives independent of their children, Freeman et al. stated, “[A]s researchers, we trust that our participants are telling the truth and are the experts regarding their life experiences…[W]e did not feel it would be appropriate to impose a sense of oppression on these women” (p. 215). Consider how you might interpret this statement if you knew that the researchers were also members of the LDS. Then consider how your interpretation would change if you knew the researchers were not members of the LDS. We utilize this example to illustrate how readers’ projection of the researchers’ subjectivity impacts how they respond to researchers’ claims (in this case that stay-at-home mothers found satisfaction in daily aspects of mothering).

We have attempted to show that researchers are not neutral vehicles through which knowledge passes. The preceding discussion is a caution that traditional techniques for enhancing rigor in qualitative inquiry do not remove all forms of subjectivity. Rather, researchers’ subjectivities—our personal and cultural perspectives—influence what we study, how we conduct that research, and how we interpret the data. We are not calling for researchers to remove subjectivity—an impossible and obstructive task—but rather to be cognizant of where and how our subjectivity enters the research process, to manage it when necessary in order to allow the participants’ perspectives to come through more strongly, and to assist readers in their own evaluation of research findings. Doing so will position research as a process of inquiry rather than a quest for truth.

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Siegfried Kracauer’s 1927 *Ornament der Masse* (later published in English as *The Mass Ornament*) introduced the critical notion of the *mass ornament*, using popular leisure activities of the masses as prime examples of the mass ornament. The “Tiller Girls” (Figure 1) were Kracauer’s main focus. Through the study of the mass ornament, specifically surface-level expressions, Kracauer (1995) believed one could gain “unmediated access to the fundamental substance of the state of things” (p. 75). In the Fordist/Taylorist culture of the time, Kracauer read the innumerable lines the Tiller Girls made with their bodies as reflective of the factory production process. The Tiller Girls were a “distraction factory,” illuminating the need for workers to divert their attention from the subjugations of labor in order to be numbed from their state of discontent. Further, the girls performed in large auditoriums, so viewers were also part of the ordered processes of production as they sat in linear rows spiraling out from the stage.

However, neither an individual Tiller Girl nor an audience member could fully grasp the entirety of the production process in which she or he played a role. In capitalist society, Kracauer argued, the dissolution of the individual was needed, and the Tiller Girls reflected this economic notion through the aesthetic of dance and performance. This mass ornament perspective of popular leisure activities of the masses enables insight into “the state of things” in broader society. Spencer and Rose (2012) asserted that online leisure spaces of Facebook could be understood as a mass ornament: “Understanding the depth and complexity of mass ornaments illuminates critical analyses of sociopolitical conditions, as well as provides a platform for addressing Facebook’s larger potential for aiding in social justice movements throughout the world” (p. 60). We extend this rationale to introduce the notion of the mass ornament to 21st century leisure scholarship. In general, leisure scholars study the leisure not of the masses, but of the 1% (i.e., hiking, biking, kayaking, climbing, golf, etc.). Leisure scholars are uniquely positioned to study leisure activities of the masses and, through critical analyses gleaned from the concept of the mass ornament, leisure scholars can begin a broader critique than what currently exists in the literature, informing cultural critiques both within and outside the discipline and encouraging theoretical diaspora. Utilizing data from three studies, we explore three mass ornaments present in 21st century leisure.

**Leisure Scholarship, Studying That Which We Actually Do?**

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2010) (Figure 2), the average American has about 5.0 hours of leisure time daily and spends over half (2.7 hours) of that time watching TV (typically indoors and sedentary). However, leisure scholars generally focus on that which is deemed healthy, that which is good for society, or that which gets us outdoors; activities upon which the average American spends about 19 minutes per day. In 2010, (the
same year that the above data were gathered) 75 articles were published in three of the top-tier journals in the Leisure field: *Journal of Leisure Research, Leisure Studies,* and *Leisure Sciences.* Of those 75 articles\(^1\), only one dealt remotely with television (Lashua, 2010). Most of the articles studied active, healthy leisure pursuits that fall into the category of “participation in sports, exercise, and recreation” (the 19 minutes): hiking (Svarstad, 2010), fishing (Schroeder & Fulton, 2010), high altitude climbing (Bassi & Delfave, 2010), volunteer tourism (Bailey & Russell, 2010), backcountry skiing (Furman, Shooter, & Schumann, 2010), rugby (Spraklen, Timnins, & Long, 2010), gay men’s football (Jones & McCarthy, 2010), the Olympic Games (Dansaro & Putfilli, 2010), and birdwatching (Scott & Lee, 2010). It seems then, that leisure researchers tend to more frequently study what we *should* be doing rather than what we *actually* do.

Nina Roberts recently shared an advertising campaign with the members of SPREnet which was part of a $10 million campaign by Roku (the makers of a television streaming box). The ad encouraged people to “Become the indoorsy type.” Roberts challenged SPREnetters to rebut the ad and encourage people to get outside. While we certainly do not disagree with Roberts, we assert that, in order to rebut, we must first understand the leisure activities that lure and/or keep people (the masses) inside: What draws us to them? What benefits do we receive from them? Most importantly, what critical information do these activities provide concerning the current state of society?

**Case Studies of Leisure as Mass Ornaments**

Three categories of leisure activities readily demonstrate Kracauer’s concept of the mass ornament: reality television series, book series, and viral online videos. Beyond the sheer popularity (evidenced by consumption) of these activities alone, they also demonstrate two techniques that aim to “achieve the hypostatization of the masses through the manipulation of [media]” (Witte, Correll, & Zipes, 1975, p. 62). First, “the masses as are forced to see themselves everywhere” (p.62), in these cases, via mechanisms like Nielsen Ratings, the *New York Times* Bestseller List, and the view (or hit) counters on websites: an individual’s participation is reflected back to him or her as one of X million viewers or readers. Second, the integration of media (the radio, in Kracauer’s time) into the home made private space public. With the expansion of media, the level of surveillance that becomes possible is astounding (Andrejevic, 2004). For the purposes of this paper, we specifically consider *The Bachelor, Fifty Shades of Grey,* and *Gangnam Style* as case studies of the mass ornament. These three mass ornaments was examined using duoethnography (cite), focus groups, and critical discourse analysis, respectively.

*The Bachelor:* The most popular reality television dating show of all time, *The Bachelor* is in its 17\(^{th}\) season. With average viewership between 7.9 and 16.7 million viewers, “*The Bachelor* and *The Bachelorette* were among the top five most profitable U.S. reality shows at the height of their early popularity in 2004, with *The Bachelor* pulling in a network profit of $38.2 million for the fourth season (with a price tag of $231,400 per thirty-second advertising spot)” (Dubrofsky, 2011, p. 5). Further, *The Bachelor* has become an international phenomenon, with at least eight countries, to date, making their own versions of the show. The 16\(^{th}\) season was researched using participatory duoethnography, enabling a penetrating investigation of this phenomenon.

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\(^1\) This count does not include editorials, research notes, or book reviews. In *Leisure Studies* in 2010 there were three book reviews published on books dealing with television. See Redhead (2010a; 2010b) and Brabazon (2010).
**Fifty Shades of Grey:** As of June 2012, *Fifty Shades of Grey* (James, 2012) had sold 40 million copies worldwide, making it the fastest and best-selling paperback book of all time. The first book in the series spent 16 weeks at the top of the *New York Times* Bestseller List, and has been translated in over 30 languages, landing the author landed on *Time Magazine*’s list of “Most Influential People.” The books are part of a genre called “fan fiction,” where authors read a book (for instance, the popular *Twilight* series) and then write their own books inspired by those originals, often online. These particular books were picked up by a publisher, due to their popularity, leading thirty-one countries to have purchased the rights to the crowd sourced novels. Focus groups supported an examination of this text and its cultural importance in producing femininity.

**Gangnam Style:** Popular dance sensations have long been objects of cultural attraction, evidenced by the Macarena, the Electric Slide, the Twist, and others dating back decades, if not longer. The latest such sensation is Gangnam Style, whose popularity, unlike previous incarnations of popular dance, has been nearly exclusively the domain of online culture. The first to reach a billion views on YouTube, this video set nearly every record that is kept for online distribution of cultural content. The video is an object of immense interest and speculation, as the artist Psy is alternatively interpreted as “a class-conscious satirist, a people’s choice social media phenomena, a self-referential clown celebrating trashy kitsch culture, … and a threat to every other aspect of Korean culture” (Spry, 2012, October 13). Critical discourse analysis provided a sociopolitical critique of this online phenomenon and its interaction with democratic structures.

**Analyses and Discussion**

What do these three mass ornaments tell us about the “fundamental substance of the state of things?” Kracauer’s mass ornament (the Tiller Girls) of the 1920s provided a mask of complacency for an overworked, subjugated labor force that needed the simultaneously complex and simple distraction of choreographed performance culture. Leisure experiences, then, were not only a necessary byproduct of capitalist production, they were integral to the functioning of the capitalist political economy itself. Without a complacent, pseudo-satisfied labor force, the proletariat would revolt; however, at the same time, the lack of critical thought in the citizenry also opened the door for fascist and totalitarian rule.

As seen in the three case studies here, contemporary examples of Kracauer’s mass ornament are also complicit in supporting individuals, cultures, and subcultures in a variety of unhealthy social and physical behaviors. In particular, these three mass ornaments perpetuate hegemonic patriarchy, supporting such issues as the subordination of women, sexism, the proliferation of body-image issues, and the perpetuation of male chauvinism. Beyond these influences, these mass ornaments also enable alcoholism, suppress spirituality, involve the production of “obscene” cultural images, promote unbridled consumption, and they continue the expansion of neoliberal capitalism.

In addition to providing a number of health and quality of life benefits, leisure also is the domain of critical unconsciousness, of unhealthy behaviors, and of mass complacency. These arenas should be explored, understood, and critiqued just as much as the perceived “healthy” leisure activities that our disciplines so actively promote.

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NATURAL ENVIRONMENTS AND INTERRACIAL/INTERETHNIC INTERATIONS AMONG IMMIGRANTS: A CROSS-COUNTRY STUDY
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The goal of this study was to investigate the roles of natural environments in interracial/interethnic interactions and in the development of a sense of belonging and inclusion among immigrants in host countries. Natural environments, such as urban parks and forest preserves, have long been documented to play a dual role in the process. Although accessible to all, they are frequently considered contested spaces, where opposition, confrontation, resistance and subversion can be played out over ‘the right to space’ (Erickson et al., 2009; Mitchell, 1995, 2003; Sharaievska et al., 2010). At the same time, natural environments have the potential to foster positive interactions among people of different race and ethnicity (Peters, 2010; Peters et al., 2010). Research has also suggested that repeated visitation and interactions in the context of natural environments can contribute to the development of place attachment, renegotiation of immigrants’ identities, and social cohesion (Hickman, Crowley & Mai, 2008; Jay & Schraml, 2009; Sackmann et al., 2005). On the other hand, lack of attachment to local natural environments, particularly coupled with experiences of discrimination, may foster feelings of alienation, lack of belonging and exclusion (Neil & Agyeman, 2006). These may vary depending on immigrants’ place of origin, age at arrival, cultural background, and the similarity of natural environments in the home and host countries. The objectives of the study were to: 1) Examine changes in the use of natural environments between the home and host countries among immigrants and the reasons for the observed changes; 2) Investigate the roles natural environments play in interracial/interethnic interactions – to what extent they are the sites of interracial/interethnic conflict vs. promote intercultural contact and understanding; 3) Explore the levels of attachment to natural environments in the home and host countries.

Methods
This study adopted an interpretive symbolic interaction approach. The data were collected in the fall of 2012 with the use of individual in-depth interviews with 13 Latino immigrants in the U.S., 12 Ukrainian and 4 Vietnamese immigrants in Poland, and 5 Moroccan immigrants in the Netherlands. The Latino interviewees included 3 people from Argentina, 1 from Uruguay, and 9 from Mexico. Overall, the participants were between 18 and 70 years of age and represented a variety of occupations (e.g., housewives, construction workers, graphic designers, professors). The sample included 17 men and 17 women. They came from a range of places in their home countries, including small villages, medium size towns, and large metropolitan centers. Interviewees in the U.S. resided in a medium size town in the Midwest, the ones in Poland, in a large metropolitan center, and the ones in the Netherlands in medium size towns. The interviews were conducted in Spanish, English, Polish, Russian, and Dutch and then translated to English. The same interview script was used in all interviews. The interviewees were asked a series of open-ended questions about their leisure and attitudes toward natural environments in home and host countries, interracial/interethnic interactions in natural environments, and experiences with discrimination in natural environments. The transcripts were analyzed using a constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).
Findings

The Use of Natural Environments for Recreation Before/After Immigration

The use of natural environments for recreation in home countries. The type of activities interviewees participated in was related to their culture, urban/rural residence, and SES. Higher SES respondents from Latin America, Ukraine and Vietnam were often involved in activities similar to the ones participated in the U.S. and Poland (e.g., hiking, travel). Among the rural, lower SES people from Latin America, Ukraine, and Morocco, recreation in natural environments was well integrated into their everyday life and included having short periods of leisure during farm work or grazing livestock. As Olesia from Ukraine commented, “In the summer we went to pick up raspberries, mushrooms. On Sundays we would go to the church and in the afternoon we would let cows graze and we would go by the path that led around the hill.”

The use of natural environments for recreation in host countries. All of the interviewees resided in urban environments in well developed countries with Western culture following immigration. This resulted in their leisure undergoing some significant changes. Recreation became separated from other aspects of life and concentrated in urban natural environments. Few immigrants visited more distant natural environments such as national parks. The leisure activities in which they participated included visiting parks with children and cookouts (Latinos, Moroccans), walking and playing sports (soccer, running among Latinos), and gardening in small allotments, walking and running in parks (among Ukrainians and Vietnamese).

Changes and reasons for those changes. The changes in leisure behavior in natural environments after immigration were related to the move from rural to urban areas among some people (and, thus limited access to natural environments), strong focus on work and lack of time, problems with transportation and understanding of rules and regulations (among Ukrainians), and cultural differences. For instance, Ton commented, “In Vietnam there are no parks like in Poland; there are either odd trees that just grow [in cities] or there is a jungle – but you won’t go to a jungle just like that, you would go with a specialized guide.” Almost all of the interviewees also commented on how well maintained and safe parks were in the U.S. and Poland.

The Roles of Natural Environments in Interracial/Interethnic Interactions

Experience of discrimination in natural environments. The interviewees reported a number of experiences with discrimination, but primarily in settings not related to recreation (e.g., streets, stores, workplaces, buses). Cases of discrimination in parks were rather infrequent and the ones that did occur were mostly limited to unpleasant looks and remarks. They were also particularly prevalent among more racially distinct immigrants (e.g., darker skinned Latinos and Vietnamese). For instance, Angelica from Mexico reported “They look at you poorly, and you feel like they’re looking at you. You feel it right away.”

Types of contact developed in natural environments. Natural environments were not particularly conducive to establishing contacts and interaction with complete strangers. All of the interviewees, regardless of their background, reported that they visited natural environments with their family members and/or friends from the same country. Interactions with complete strangers were rather infrequent (particularly among Moroccans and Vietnamese). The contacts that had occurred were mostly fleeting and limited to acknowledging each other when seeing repeat visitors or to short interactions related to a common conversation topic (music, cookout, children etc.). If interactions with strangers were established, usually some “conversation hooks” (e.g., children, dogs, foreign accent) were used. For example, Elda from Mexico said, “I do speak with Americans. They say that my kids are pretty, that they have really pretty hair. One time some seniors in the park told me that I had a very nice family.”
What minorities learn about the mainstream in natural environments? Some of the interviewees commented that visits to natural environments in the host country improved their awareness of the place and the country they live in, and that they helped them learn about the customs and traditions of the local population such as the way local holidays are celebrated, the preparation of local foods, and interpersonal interaction styles. Oleg from Ukraine commented on what he had learned: “There are a lot of parks in Poland and everything is clean and tidy. The attitude to nature is better than in Ukraine, for example in Ukraine a lot is being cut from the woods, and here the woods cannot be cut, it is not allowed to make fire in the woods.”

Attachment to Natural Environments in Home and Host Countries

Attachment to environments in the home country. Most of the interviewees, regardless of their origin, displayed deep attachment to natural environments in their home countries. The narratives of longing for the familiar environment were intertwined with the narratives of missing home and family. As Baysan from Morocco said, “I really like the place I was born. It is spacious, the climate is good, it’s more beautiful. I am attached to the place and the house.” Some of the interviewees from Mexico, Vietnam and Ukraine, however, complained about the pollution and generally poor state of natural environments in their home countries.

Attachment to environments in the host country. Not unexpectedly, most immigrants displayed markedly less attachment to natural environments in the host countries. However, many also described that they were “comfortable” in their new homes and they were “getting used to” the local environment. The host country was seen as a place when one resides not because of its inherent beauty, but mainly for economic reasons. Asked whether the natural environment in the Midwest made him feel comfortable, Izer from Mexico replied, “No, I always remember that I’m in a foreign place. It doesn’t remind me of my city, but I got used to it.”

Discussion/Conclusions

The findings provide several insights into the interaction between natural environments and immigrants’ adaptation/integration. First, natural environments in home society appear to be embedded (Granovetter, 1985) and embodied (Ingold, 2000) in the course of immigrants’ everyday life practices and constitute an intrinsic part of their habitus. The comparisons between home and host natural environments were more often in favor of home environments. Second, leisure pursuits in natural environments in host society were dependant on the SES status prior to immigration and the type of occupation in the host country. Third, natural environments could be seen as lieux of knowledge acquisition; immigrants learned some features of the host society from leisure participation in natural environments. Natural environments can be also used by immigrants to negotiate and exercise control in the conditions of uncertainty and change. By providing a platform for observation and interaction with other groups, natural environments allow for more embodied knowledge of host society and thus improve feeling of control over one’s life, which may lead to higher subjective well-being. Fourth, natural environments appeared to be sites of limited interethnic and interracial interaction. Leisure pursuits in natural environments rarely led to establishing long-term relations with the mainstream populations or other ethnicities. Yet, it appeared that in many cases this was not an effect of deeply rooted prejudice, but rather the outcome of the feature ascribed to parks and forests both by immigrants and the host populations.

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References


Although there are “new policies and support mechanisms in place to help academic parents balance work and family … such as ‘stop the tenure clock’ policies, parental leave, reduced teaching policies, subsidies for child-care, and part-time options” (O’Meara & Campbell, 2011, p. 447), research continues to show that they are underused in most U.S. and Canadian academic institutions. Armenti (2004) argued that a culture still exits where it is taboo to become a parent as one’s career commitment may come under scrutiny, and “serves as an impediment to the career progression of women academics” (p. 66). Consequently, female scholars are often warned (subtly and overtly) to wait until after tenure to have a child or it might lead to the end of their careers (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2004). Why does this ideology of personal sacrifice and difficulty in finding balance between family and work responsibilities endure in academia? Williams (2000) suggested that the academic profession creates the ideal worker who is married to his or her work to meet the demands of tenure. An academic life is flexible with autonomy; however, it also comes with an unending workload and the ambiguities of tenure expectations (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2004). Moreover, the emphasis on publish or perish and the securement of external research funding has created a culture of job-related stress (Walker & Fenton, 2011).

Competing with the concept of the ideal worker norms is the cultural significance of ‘mothering’. Motherhood is generally entwined with notions of femininity, nurturing, and caring. In fact, in most cultures, “Feminine and Mother are combined to form a single representation of WOMAN – and for most women in the world this is still their only self-representation” (Lax, 2006, p. 1). Motherhood ideologies provide not only an idealization of childrearing practices, but also a set of criteria by which mothers may be judged (Leisse de Lustgarten, 2006). What is considered the dominant ideology of intensive mothering is actually one that is rooted in a white, middle-class value system based on the nuclear family model that promotes women who can afford and/or desire to stay at home with their children and is self-sacrificing (Guendouzi, 2006). The ideal of motherhood is universalized and does not reflect the diversity of mothers’ lived-experiences. For most women, feelings of tension, conflict and guilt are experienced as they try to meet the ideological expectations of intensive mothering practices, while realizing their own individual needs (Cowdery & Knudson-Martin, 2005). It appears that there may be a fundamental clash between the contradictory discourses of ‘good mother’ and ‘successful academic’ (Raddon, 2002 as cited in Armenti, 2004). Although leisure scholars have a rich history of examining motherhood (see, e.g., Freeman, Palmer & Baker, 2006; Shaw, 2010), there has been very little discourse on motherhood within academia and leisure scholarship. That is, we have often looked outward to examine the phenomena of motherhood rather than gaze inwardly at our own lives and that of our colleagues. Guided by the sociological concepts of the ideal worker and intensive mothering, the purpose of this paper is to critically examine my experiences as a new scholar and mother and the challenges and insights learned along the way.

Constructing the Vignettes

Autoethnography is a relatively new methodological approach in the leisure literature; yet as several scholars have argued, it has the potential to enrich our understanding of the complexity of life and leisure experiences (Calley Jones, 2010; Fleming & Fullagar, 2007; Havitz, 2007). As Ellis and Bochner (2000) described, “Autoethnography is an autobiographical genre of writing and research that displays multiple layers of consciousness, connecting the personal to the
cultural … In these texts, concrete action, dialogue, emotion, embodiment, spirituality, and self-consciousness are featured” (p. 739). Autoethnography involves the process of looking outward at a world beyond one’s own, as you gaze inward and seek to understand your situated position within it (Schwandt, 2001). The researcher becomes the focus of investigation as a story is told, with the hope that his/her vulnerability will evoke emotional responses from the readers, and bring meaning and understanding to both of their lives (Ellingson & Ellis, 2008).

Reflexive journal notes during the first eight months of my daughter’s life (with many reflexive moments nursing in the still-of-the-night) provided the data. The analysis of the data led to the development of three main themes, that are represented through the use of creative analytic practice (CAP), and the construction of three vignettes. The use of CAP is currently popular in other social science disciplines such as anthropology, education, sociology and women’s studies (Parry & Johnson, 2007), yet it remains a relatively new phenomenon in the field of leisure studies. Due to space restrictions, for the three-page abstract, only a portion of each vignette is presented so that the reader can ascertain how the text is constructed. I then provide a concise summary to describe the content of each one in its entirety.

Reflections on Navigating the Academy as a New Scholar and Mother

Vignette #1: Finding a new “bump” on the road.

I’m driving away. My heart is aching. My body is trembling. I try to hit the brakes, but nothing happens. Why can’t I make the car stop? Why did he take her? Why did I let him? I want to scream out but no one will hear me. I open my mouth but nothing comes out. I try to turn the car around but my heart sinks. I know it’s too late. I feel a sense of helplessness. There’s nothing I can do. I wake-up with the nightmare still present. Later, as I sit at my desk my body feels the lingering pain. My heart aches and my mind weighs heavy - thoughts drifting. What happened and how did I get here? Why did I end my parental leave early? Why did I not cherish every moment I could have with her?

Summary of vignette in its entirety: In the first vignette I examine issues related to the pregnant body and how it shaped interactions with new colleagues, created a sense of isolation within the institution, and altered my scholarly identity. Related to this, fear of perceived loss of legitimacy (from my lens) and commitment to the career (from others around me) are explored. I also investigate issues related to the physical demands of pregnancy and childbirth and the impact it can have on ideals of ‘productivity’.

Vignette #2: Tic-toc, tic-toc, goes the clock(s).

I sit in a boardroom staring at the sterile wall. I am alone, holding onto both sides of my pinstripe suit jacket, trying desperately to keep myself covered. I look to the left and stare at the door, fearful that someone will enter. I look to the right, out a window that runs from floor to ceiling with no window coverings. One, two, three … ten, eleven, twelve. I can count twelve windows in the office building beside me. I feel vulnerable and exposed. Can they see me? I feel the mechanical pump continue to engross my breast, drawing milk, rather than the warm feel of my daughter’s body. My hand limply holds the pump instead of stroking her beautiful hair. I hear the laughter and ‘buzz’ of the conference on the other side of the door. I sit alone in silence. It is only my first month back to work. With tears in my eyes I wonder if I am already a failure at being a mother and a scholar. Pinstripes and breast pumps – how will I ever wear both?

Summary of vignette in its entirety: In the second vignette I examine issues related to my return to work and feeling lost between two worlds. Throughout this vignette I emphasize the dualisms of this experience, such as the excitement, the stimulating discussions, and returning to the ‘familiar’; however, the difficult process of re-scripting my identity as not only a scholar but also
as a mother is explored. The complications and struggle in trying to find a new way ‘of being’ in academia is examined as well as lessons learned along the way. Emphasis is also placed on the opposing ‘clocks’ that female professors must confront, that is, the tension between the ‘biological clock’ and the ‘tenure clock’.

Vignette #3: Reaching arms wide open.

My mind is going a mile a minute. Why have I never thought of this before? Why has no one examined this topic? I pull over to the side of the road. Cars are whipping by me on the highway. I grab a pen and paper from my bag and frantically begin writing down my thoughts. My next research project! An hour later I burst through the front door eager to share my idea. But instead, the sight in front of me brings me to stillness. I quietly grin ear to ear as I watch my daughter crawling in a big game of chase with her dad. She is squealing with delight as he catches her and rewards her with big belly kisses. She finally sees me standing in the corner, gazing at her with much love and admiration. In return, she screeches out a squeal of pure happiness, crawls over to where I am standing, reaches up and extends her arms wide open. My heart bursts open and sings.

Summary of vignette in its entirety: In the third vignette I examine how the role combination of work and family, I believe, eventually enhanced the quality of my scholarship as well as my own perceptions of being a mother. For example, I believe that it has deepened the precious time I spend with my daughter in a meaningful and purposive way. Emphasis is also placed on how motherhood has inspired my scholarship and given me an enhanced sense of creativity and purpose. It has provided a different life perspective that has stimulated new research ideas. A sense of passion in the classroom and a deepened commitment to issues of social justice are also driven by my desire to make the world a better place for her to grow up in.

Concluding Thoughts

This study critically examines my experiences as a new mother and scholar and the challenges and insights learned along the way. Similar to earlier research in the education field (Armenti, 2004; O’Meara & Campbell, 2011), I experienced the difficulties of my pregnant body altering my identity as a scholar through my internal gaze as well as the subjectivities from the institution. Through this process I became acutely aware of the competing ‘biological’ and ‘tenure’ clocks, with the latter based on a male model that has an idealized trajectory of a faculty career (i.e., graduate school to assistant, associate, and full professor) and requires no time off for childbearing or childrearing. Indeed, Drago and Williams (2000) argued that the male model is inherently problematic as women on average receive a Ph.D. at the age of 34. At the same time, the competing dualism is that fertility decreases around the age 35, and as “tenure clocks can be stopped; the biological clock runs unabated” (Tillman, 2011, p. 196).

As Armenti (2004) pointed out, many female professors delay having children until post-tenure (despite risk of complications), remain childless, and/or drop out of academia altogether. Yet, despite the documented difficulties and negative outcomes, I found the joy of motherhood and the joy of academia through my journey. I believe that in many ways, being a mother and a scholar are complementary. It has deepened the time I spend with my daughter. It has also given my work a sense of creativity and purpose that I had never experienced before. Future research should investigate the experiences of young leisure scholars who are mothers and fathers as it may strengthen the creation of knowledge and foster a more all-encompassing culture.
References


CREATIVE CLASS LEISURE PARTICIPATION AND LEISURE AND WORK NEED SATISFACTION
Gordon Walker, University of Alberta
Troy Glover, University of Waterloo

In 2002, Richard Florida published *The Rise of the Creative Class and How It’s Transforming Work, Leisure, Community and Everyday Life*. As Florida (2012) recently wrote in the tenth anniversary edition, the catalyst for his original book was his belief that many of the social and economic changes taking place were the result of the emergence of a new social class. This “creative class” spans “science and technology, arts, media, and culture, traditional knowledge workers, and the professions” (Florida, p. vii). Florida’s thesis has generated considerable interest and debate outside, but less inside, leisure studies (see Ravenscroft & Gilchrist, 2009, for one exception). Thus, this study’s purpose is to investigate the creative class’ leisure participation and psychological need satisfaction during work and leisure by examining how these variables are similar and different within this class and in comparison with other classes.

**Literature Review**

The creative class ideal is a lifestyle that involves “intense, high-quality, multidimensional experiences” (Florida, 2012, p. 134). Florida found that creative class members, favored: (a) “running, rock climbing, or cycling rather than watching a game on TV” (p. 135); (b) participating in continuous actions sports such as hockey and basketball; and (c) “places and communities where many outdoor activities are prevalent” (p. 139). Conversely, this class was largely indifferent to art museums, symphony orchestras, etc., instead preferring “street-level” culture (e.g., cafes, clubs, and bookstores). Empirical support for Florida’s findings is very limited. Bille (2010), for example, first assigned Danes to the same classes described by Florida: agricultural (e.g., farming), working (e.g., construction), service (e.g., food preparation), and creative (subdivided into super-creative, such as education, and creative professionals, such as financial). Bille then compared frequency of participation in various leisure activities between the creative and the service classes. Among her findings were that the former attended more concerts, visited more art museums, and engaged in more sport and fitness activities. Finally, Bille compared frequency of leisure participation between the super-creative and the four other groups, and found the former were more likely to read for pleasure, walk and bicycle in the country, and engage in artistic and creative leisure activities. Bille concluded that her research generally supported Florida’s propositions concerning the creative class’ leisure.

Participation is only one aspect of the creative class’ leisure, however, as Florida (2012) also held that “the boundaries between [their] leisure and work have become so blurry that the two have effectively blended into one another” (p. 144). A closer reading of his book suggests that this blurring is a function of high levels of freedom and control in both domains. This proposal is unusual because, in a study that included a variety of employees, Ryan et al. (2010) found that work experiences were not only associated with lower autonomy satisfaction than non-work experiences, but also lower levels of competence and relatedness satisfaction. They recommended future studies on this topic employee self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), but differentiate among types of occupation and kinds of non-work (e.g., leisure, chores).

**Method**

A telephone survey was conducted using random-digit dialing. Potential participants had to work at least 20 hours per week in one job. Those who qualified reported: (a) their occupation; (b) how frequently they engaged in 11 leisure categories; (c) how well their needs for autonomy,
competence, and relatedness were satisfied during work and leisure (18 items; Van den Broeck et al., 2010); and (d) socio-demographic information. Data were obtained from 401 individuals (31% response rate), with 348 of these providing sufficient information for classification into one of four of Florida’s (2012) classes (i.e., super-creative, n=77; creative professional, n=110; working, n=58; service and sales, n=103). To address study objectives, data analyses included: (a) a MANOVA performed on the 11 leisure activity categories, by class, followed by ANOVAs; (b) a MANOVA performed on the three needs during work, by class, followed by ANOVAs (and, similarly, on the three needs during leisure, by class); and (c) dependent t-tests on the discrepancy between each need during work and leisure, by class.

Results and Discussion

The MANOVA performed on the 11 leisure activity categories, by class, was significant (Wilk’s $F=1.99$, $p<.0008$, eta=.17). Table 1 reports the follow-up ANOVA results. Five leisure activity categories differed, albeit in each case the effect size was small (Cohen, 1991). Consistent with Florida (2012) and Bille’s (2010) work, the super-creative group engaged in outdoor recreation more than the working class and also played sports more than the working and services and sales classes. As well, both the super-creative and creative professional groups engaged in social activities more than the working class, which may reflect their preference for street-level culture. Surprisingly, however, creative professionals participated less frequently in artistic creation and consumption than the service and sales class, and they also engaged less frequently in restful and relaxing activities than those in the super-creative group. These results support Bille’s contention that the creative class is not homogeneous.

Table 1 - ANOVAs for Frequency of Participation in Different Leisure Activity Categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leisure Activity</th>
<th>Super-Creative M (SD)</th>
<th>Creative Professional M (SD)</th>
<th>Working M (SD)</th>
<th>Service &amp; Sales M (SD)</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor recreation</td>
<td>3.41^a (1.11)</td>
<td>3.19^ab (1.08)</td>
<td>2.72^b (1.25)</td>
<td>3.07^ab (1.32)</td>
<td>3.81*</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports (Playing)</td>
<td>2.03^a (1.26)</td>
<td>1.73^ab (1.15)</td>
<td>1.50^b (1.03)</td>
<td>1.49^b (0.85)</td>
<td>4.36**</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socializing</td>
<td>3.53^a (1.01)</td>
<td>3.61^a (1.08)</td>
<td>3.02^b (0.96)</td>
<td>3.59^a (1.12)</td>
<td>4.67**</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resting/Relaxing</td>
<td>2.96^a (1.23)</td>
<td>2.44^b (0.96)</td>
<td>2.95^a (1.07)</td>
<td>2.70^ab (1.17)</td>
<td>4.28**</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fitness</td>
<td>2.88 (1.28)</td>
<td>2.63 (1.22)</td>
<td>2.40 (1.28)</td>
<td>2.58 (1.40)</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media</td>
<td>3.54 (1.00)</td>
<td>3.42 (1.02)</td>
<td>3.40 (1.02)</td>
<td>3.74 (1.04)</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteering</td>
<td>2.11 (1.17)</td>
<td>1.86 (1.05)</td>
<td>1.64 (1.04)</td>
<td>1.86 (1.30)</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports (Watching)</td>
<td>1.74 (0.94)</td>
<td>1.89 (0.90)</td>
<td>1.86 (1.02)</td>
<td>1.81 (0.98)</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts/Creative</td>
<td>2.87^ab (1.18)</td>
<td>2.57^b (1.15)</td>
<td>2.69^ab (1.27)</td>
<td>3.06^a (1.21)</td>
<td>3.14*</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel</td>
<td>2.50 (0.93)</td>
<td>2.48 (0.91)</td>
<td>2.33 (1.16)</td>
<td>2.44 (1.23)</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Games (Playing)</td>
<td>2.41 (1.02)</td>
<td>2.35 (1.19)</td>
<td>2.28 (1.09)</td>
<td>2.36 (1.12)</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Responses ranged from 1 = Never to 5 = Always. Subscripts that differ across rows are significantly different. *$p<.05$. **$p<.01$.

The MANOVA performed on the three needs during work, by class, was significant (Wilk’s $F=2.46$, $p<.0091$, eta=.06), as was the MANOVA performed on the three needs during leisure, by class (Wilk’s $F=4.18$, $p<.0001$, eta=.10). Table 2 reports the follow-up ANOVAs for each. The super-creative group experienced more autonomy during work than the service and sales class, and both it and the creative professional group experienced more relatedness during work than the working class. These results partially support Florida’s (2012) contention that the creative class’ working conditions are distinct. In terms of leisure, the working class experienced less relatedness than creative professionals but more competence than super-creative individuals.
These results suggest there may be a demand for targeted leisure education programs, by social class. Finally, similarities in competence during work and autonomy during leisure, across all four classes, are also noteworthy.

Table 2 - ANOVAs for Need Satisfaction During Work and Leisure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Need (Domain)</th>
<th>Super-Creative</th>
<th>Creative Professional</th>
<th>Working &amp; Sales</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work-Autonomy</td>
<td>4.00a (0.77)</td>
<td>3.94ab (0.75)</td>
<td>3.63ab (0.98)</td>
<td>4.00**</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-Competence</td>
<td>4.39 (0.50)</td>
<td>4.36 (0.45)</td>
<td>4.36 (0.60)</td>
<td>4.36 (0.48)</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-Relatedness</td>
<td>3.88a (0.78)</td>
<td>3.80a (0.81)</td>
<td>3.63b (0.93)</td>
<td>3.68ab (0.86)</td>
<td>4.71**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure-Autonomy</td>
<td>4.25 (0.64)</td>
<td>4.19 (0.53)</td>
<td>4.13 (0.72)</td>
<td>4.33 (0.53)</td>
<td>1.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure-Competence</td>
<td>3.86b (0.68)</td>
<td>4.00ab (0.55)</td>
<td>4.20a (0.60)</td>
<td>4.19ab (0.58)</td>
<td>5.87***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure-Relatedness</td>
<td>3.81ab (0.76)</td>
<td>3.90a (0.70)</td>
<td>3.57b (0.82)</td>
<td>3.96a (0.73)</td>
<td>3.59*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Responses ranged from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree. Subscripts that differ within rows are significantly different. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table 3 reports the dependent t-test results for the discrepancy between each need during work and leisure, by class. In variance with Florida’s (2012) claim that work and leisure blur together for the creative class, autonomy was higher during leisure than work for all four groups—although further examination indicates small effects for super-creative and creative professionals versus medium and large effects for, respectively, working and service and sales classes (Cohen, 1991). Conversely, competence was higher during work than leisure for all four groups—a result in line with Ryan’s et al. (2010) expectation. Noteworthy, however, is that the effect sizes varied from small for the working and service and sales classes, to medium for creative professionals, to large for super-creative individuals. Finally, all but service and sales people had their need for relatedness satisfied equally during work and leisure, with this difference possibly due to the emotional labor (Hochschild, 1993) often demanded of this class.

Table 3 - Dependent T-Tests on the Need Satisfaction Discrepancy Between Work and Leisure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Need (Discrepancy)</th>
<th>Super-Creative</th>
<th>Creative Professional</th>
<th>Working &amp; Sales</th>
<th>Service &amp; Sales</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Auto: Work-Leisure</td>
<td>-2.50* (0.35)</td>
<td>-3.61*** (0.41)</td>
<td>-4.09**** (0.55)</td>
<td>-6.72**** (0.89)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comp: Work-Leisure</td>
<td>6.49**** (0.88)</td>
<td>6.75**** (0.66)</td>
<td>2.18* (0.25)</td>
<td>2.74** (0.32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relat: Work-Leisure</td>
<td>0.71 (0.08)</td>
<td>-1.13 (0.14)</td>
<td>-1.56 (0.22)</td>
<td>-2.94** (0.36)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001. ****p < .0001.

Conclusion

Driven by their ambition to advance economic growth and innovation, cities across the globe have embraced Florida’s (2002) ideas as a playbook for attracting talent. Florida’s central premise effectively positions leisure ahead of work as a crucial driver in terms of location decisions. Our findings give direction to cities in terms of the leisure preferred by the creative classes that perhaps warrants greater local investment. Though leisure may not always satisfy their needs in the same way as work, creative class members presumably desire leisure experiences that will contribute to livability and enhance their quality of life. More research on these topics is needed as localities increasingly position themselves as “creative cities”.

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Selected References

EXAMINING PHYSICAL ACTIVITY INFRASTRUCTURE IMPORTANCE ACROSS THE LIFESPAN
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Jamie R. Walker, Texas A&M Agrilife Extension
Andrew R. Dotterweich, East Tennessee State University
James Gould, University of Northern Colorado

Introduction
The physical environment/urban infrastructure has been studied with respect to its role in promoting physical activity in terms of accessibility, frequency of use, duration of use, and intensity of use (Baranowski et al., 1993; Cohen et al., 2012; Shores & West, 2008). Prior research findings indicate that community recreation infrastructure provides immediate opportunities for increasing levels of physical activity because they are often available at low or at no cost in almost every community across the country, and are a resource for a variety of populations (Floyd et al., 2008; Stanis et al., 2009). Recent studies have expanded to investigate how social factors impact whether an individual chooses to or is able to participate in physical activity and the resources they can access to remain physically active (Cohen et al., 2012). In addition to the accessibility of the resource, the diversity and importance of urban space designs, internal park & open space features, the comprehensiveness of community systems has also been examined to understand how these influence engagement, adherence, and intensity of physical activity (Dahmann et al., 2010). Though park use has been investigated in a variety of studies over the past few years in order to understand general and specific uses as well as the preference of features and designs (Baranowski et al., 1993; Cohen et al., 2012; Kaczynski & Henderson, 2007) the importance of parks in comparison to other urban physical activity resources/infrastructure (non-profit and private) has limited investigation, and this specific limitation was highlighted by Dahmann et al. (2010). Early work by McGuire and Dottavio (1986-1987) examined the trends of outdoor recreation participation across the lifespan and found that variables in addition to age may account for expansion, contraction, and continuity across the lifespan providing insight for operators in planning services across multiple age groups. Physical activity patterns across the adult lifespan were investigated by Brunet and Sabiston (2011), and their results found that physical activity participation differed across age groups, and the participation levels were influenced by motivational regulations. Brunet highlighted a need for additional examination of variables that influence participation in physical activity across the adult lifespan that would include motivation and structural (accessibility) factors. There is a limited amount of understanding or research into the comprehensive scope of leisure service infrastructure or programming that is provided by the public, non-profit, and private providers within any individual community. Furthermore, the use and or preference of services by individuals across the adult lifespan have had even less investigation. Prior to any comprehensive community physical activity initiatives and infrastructure development planning, a thorough investigation into existing resources and their importance should be conducted. A lifespan perspective concerning the nature and scope of offerings should be a basic foundation of planning for organized leisure services (Halberg, 1990).
Purpose
The purpose of this exploratory study was to examine a major metropolitan residential population’s importance ranking of a grouping of public, non-profit, and private physical activity infrastructure resources available within the region across the adult lifespan to gain insight into reported importance and differences in importance across age groupings.

Method
Experienced university phone lab interviewers collected responses from a random sample of 1,200 households from a North Texas urban metroplex in 2011. Respondents were asked to rate (1=low and 5 = high) the importance of a series of 8 physical activity infrastructure providers (municipal, non-profit, private fitness, secular) in their effort to engage in or remain physically active. The participants range in age from 18–91 (M=42.5, SD 7.4). The responding ethnicities used for this analysis were primarily Caucasian 59.8% followed by Hispanic 19.7%, African American 17.8%, and Asian 2.7%, which is similar but not an exact replication of the 2010 census demographics for this region. The data were analyzed using frequencies, t-test, and ANOVA. All statistical analyses was completed using IBM SPSS Statistics 19.0.

Results
When the frequency of high importance responses of the individual physical activity infrastructure resources are compared across age groups the respondents response patterns indicate that municipal parks are the third most important physical activity resource after “home” and “road network”. The percentage of high importance responses (importance score of 4 or 5) for each infrastructure type by age category is illustrated in table 1.

Table 1.
Percentage of Highly Importance PA Infrastructure Resource Responses by Age Group Category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Home</th>
<th>Road</th>
<th>Parks</th>
<th>Church</th>
<th>School</th>
<th>Fitness Club</th>
<th>YMCA</th>
<th>Dance Karate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-35</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-55</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56-65</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66-75</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75+</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ANOVA revealed that there is no difference across age categories for the Home $F(6,1179) = 1.59, p > .05$ and Road $F(6,1179) = 43, p > .05$ variables. ANOVA revealed that importance of Parks as a physical activity resource significantly decreases for the older individuals in this sample [$F(6,1179) = 4.09, p < .05$).

No differences were found when importance rating (1=low and 5= high) of specific resources is compared by gender. However, the importance ratings of all the individual physical activity resources do differ by Ethnicity except for private fitness centers and private fitness instruction (dance/karate/yoga). These results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2.

Overall Importance Ratings of Specific Physical Activity Resources by Ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Home</th>
<th>Road</th>
<th>Parks</th>
<th>School</th>
<th>YMCA</th>
<th>Church</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>3.05*</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>3.43*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3.15*</td>
<td>3.47*</td>
<td>2.69*</td>
<td>2.53*</td>
<td>1.84*</td>
<td>2.24*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>674</td>
<td>59.8</td>
<td>3.80*</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>2.61*</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>2.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>3.65*</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>3.12*</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Denotes a significant difference between groups (ANOVA $p<.05$ and LSD $p<.05$)

Discussion

The results illustrate that public, non-profit, and private providers of physical activity spaces and programs are all perceived as important to a significant portion of the responding population in this study. This highlights the need for future investigations on community physical activity infrastructure to consider the comprehensive opportunities that are provided by the multiple organizations within a study region. This population’s perception of the importance of the home environment in comparison to the public and private physical activity resources that are available in a metropolitan region indicates that individual home is recognized as a physical activity resource. This research and the findings provide insight into the role and importance of other non-profit, secular, and private organizations and their significant role in providing opportunities to residents to engage in physical activity. Understanding the role and impact of these other resources/organizations and the change in importance or preference for these resources/organizations across the lifespan is important to city planners and policy makers as comprehensive strategies to improve residential physical activity engagement and adherence are developed.

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Selected References


THE CONFLICTING RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TOURISTS AND RESIDENTS; THE EFFECT OF TOURISM ON LOCAL FARMER MARKETS
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Stephanie T. West, Appalachian State University
Rebecca A. Battista, Appalachian State University
James R. Farmer, Indiana University
H. Charles Chancellor, Indiana University

There has been a cultural shift in the demand of local foods over the past decade (Farmer, Chancellor, Gooding, Shubowitz & Bryant, 2011). Moreover, research suggests people are increasingly concerned over the quality and safety of the food they purchase and consume (Trobe, 2001). These trends have resulted in a dramatic increase in small-scale decentralized direct marketing food venues, like farmers’ markets (FM), cooperatives, and community supported agriculture programs. Subsequent to the growth in demand for local foods, there has been an increase in research examining aspects of the local food experience (Amsden & McEntee, 2011; Cox, Holloway, Venn, Dowler, Hein, Kneafsey, & Tuomainen, 2008; Farmer, 2012; Farmer, Chancellor, Gooding, Shubowitz & Bryant, 2011). Data collected by the USDA (2012) suggest exponential growth for farmer markets, with more than a 347% increase in the number of markets between 1994 and 2012. Moreover, the local food movement is often positioned as a means for responding to social justice needs related to the availability of healthy food. However, most research on the topic has failed to consider the role of tourists in the provision of food through FM’s that often cater to this privileged, more engaged customer base. The region of Appalachia where this study was conducted, 25% of the population lives below the poverty level compared to 12% in Western Carolina specifically. Large government programs, grants, and non-profit organizations have designated the Appalachia region as food insecure with high poverty rates and the lack of access to locally sourced food. The Appalachian Mountains provide a picturesque backdrop that attracts tourists year-round with popular mountain communities experiencing up to 70% population swells during peak seasons. Mountain scenery, cultural, heritage, and food tourism are major draws for tourist to the area (Mcgehee & Meares, 1998). FM’s cater to visitors by providing these unique Appalachia experience; however, the result can be increased prices and offerings that do not meet local needs. Conversely, with profound decreases in farmland, consolidation of global food production, and the aging of farmers, meeting tourism demands while satisfying local food needs are challenging.

Purpose
The purpose of this study, therefore, was to investigate the prevalence of tourists at three rural FM’s in the rural mountains of western North Carolina, an area known for both its food insecurity and tourism. Socioeconomic status, purchasing behaviors, and attitudes of tourists versus residents are examined to provide further insight on farmers’ market experience.

Method
During the summer 2012, random farmer market visitors were approached on Saturday mornings at three rural county markets in western North Carolina and offered a $2 farmers’ market token in exchange for providing their email address for a survey that would later be delivered online. Modified Dillman (2008) methods were used and within one week of visiting the FM, visitors were sent an email message with a URL link to the online survey explain the study goals, informed consent statement, and survey instrument. The survey was housed on a secure Appalachian State University server. Two follow-up emails messages were sent and data
collection continued throughout the summer after the initial email contact. The survey instrument was an online self-administered questionnaire consisting of fixed choice and partially open-ended questions that took approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. The questionnaire consisted of nine sections—of which seven were used in this study: FM spending and frequency, motivations to attend and satisfaction with experience, preferences while shopping and future market desires, general beliefs/values on local food, benefits of markets on local community, tourism frequency, and demographics. A total of 563 people were approached, 51 did not have email addresses, and 70 of the remaining 512 were returned for having a bad address. 274 of the potential 442 respondents completed the survey for an overall response rate of 62%. The data were analyzed using frequencies, cross-tabulations and ANOVA.

Results

The sample was comprised of 275 respondents ranging in age from 19 to 77 years with a median age of 52 years where 30% (n=74) were males and 70% (n=177) were females and predominantly white (98%, n=246). In terms of educational level, 37% (n=93) indicated having a bachelor degree, 33% (n=85) had earned a master’s degree, 3% (n=8) had earned a professional or doctorate degree, and 4% (n=9) indicated their highest level of education was high school. One quarter of the respondents (25%, n=59) reported their total 2012 annual household income to be between $50,000 and $75,000, while 45% (n=109) indicated income above $75,000. Only 41% (n=113) of respondents reported being raised in a rural setting while 40% (n=110) indicated a suburban setting and 19% (n=52) reported being raised in an urban city. The respondents were almost equally split regarding their residence status where 53% (n=135) reported full time residency and 15% (n=37) reported either being a tourist or seasonal resident 32% (n=80). The focus of this analysis is on the differences between these two groups of farmer’s market visitors. A local resident is defined as a person living and/or working in a community full time or the entire year. A tourist is defined for this study as a person either visiting the area briefly either for tourism purposes or to visiting as a partial resident, which could be a second or third home. The majority of residents were raised in rural settings (53%) in comparison to only 29% of tourist (p<0.00). While shopping at the FM’s 46% of tourists were more motivated to purchase local crafts, where only 29% of residents were (p<0.00). Not surprisingly in conjunction with the literate, over a third of residents (37%) reported a big motivator to attend the farmer’s market was the opportunity for social interaction, while only 28% of tourist felt that way (p<0.02). Almost half of the local residents (45%) felt the expense of fresh local food deterred them from purchasing it as often as they would like, while only 26% of tourists reported those same feelings (p<0.00). Additionally, 41% of residents felt the main factor that kept them from purchasing food at the FM was expense, only 22% of tourist shared the same sentiment (p<0.00). Overall, tourist spent $4 more per market visit than local residents, $24 more per household on weekly groceries, and $16 more on eating out each week. In addition, tourists reported higher household incomes with 54% making over $75,000 and only 33% of residents, conversely only 19% of tourist made under $50,000 and 39% of residents. As expected, residents reported lower household incomes than tourists. As such, it is not surprising they spent 15% more per market visit and were significantly more motivated to purchase local crafts. Additionally, residents were significantly more likely to report that expense was a main factor keeping them from purchasing food at the FM and that the expense of fresh local food deterred them from purchasing it as often as they would like.

Discussion
These results provide an interesting view of the differences in motivations and spending of residents and tourists to an impoverished, food insecure region. Although most FM play an integral role in direct food distribution, community involvement, and health, little is known about how a high influx of tourist affects this community food system. Similar research on social justice related to land conservation behavior and environmental values suggest that while tourists may bring additional revenue to FM vendors: however, FM’s that cater to these groups may not be addressing local health initiatives (Torres & Momsen, 2004). In this study tourist were willing to spend more money per item and visit and have higher incomes. Moreover, tourists were more interested than residents in purchasing crafts. With limited vendor space at each market, craft vendors could take the place of needed agricultural (food) vendors, therefore furthering the food insecurity challenge. There are a number of practical applications for this research in regards to market development in tourism regions. If the market caters to tourists and residents are priced out the market, creating a more grassroots program to deliver food to the region may be a viable option. Opportunities to create community supported agricultural (CSA) programs that span a growing year and require a more long term commitment would enable residents to gain direct access to food items. This option allows planners and farmers to continue to offer desires of tourists, provide the “Appalachia” experience at the FM, and charge higher prices. The CSA program can also work through local health initiatives, like social services, to deliver fresh food items to food insecure populations. Today, tourism planners are looking for more diverse offerings to market and farmers are seeking profitable venues to sell their products; conversely, community and health professionals are pursing options to provide substance to food insecure populations. By bringing all interested parties together and seeking a wide range of opportunities to maximize limited resources, it could function as a sustainable example to meet the economic and social challenges rural areas face like the Appalachia region.

**Table 1. Demographics and Differences between Residents and Tourists**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Residents</th>
<th>Tourists (Part-time residents/tourists)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Respondent Category</strong></td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td>45 Years</td>
<td>52 Years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Raised in Rural Setting</strong>*</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Household Income</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under $50,000*</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$50,000-$75,000</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above $75,000*</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Farmer’s Market Too Expensive</strong>*</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Expense of Food Purchase Deterrent</strong>*</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Purchase Local Crafts</strong>*</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Opportunity for Social Interaction</strong>*</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < 0.005

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LEISURE IN URBAN CHINA: COUNTRY-WIDE TRENDS
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As the second largest and one the most rapidly growing economies in the world, China’s economic development has been a remarkable success. However, the rapid pace of economic transformation has also brought about significant social anxiety and uncertainty (Li, 2009). A number of changes in government policies that have been introduced in the last two decades, including a 5-day work week and annual three week-long vacations, have led to a significant increase in leisure time among Chinese urban residents (Yin, 2005). Moreover, over the past two decades, the disposable income of a large portion of the Chinese population has grown significantly, resulting in Mainland Chinese having more resources than ever to participate in leisure (Liang & Walker, 2011). Globalization and Western cultural influences have also led to an increased demand for Western goods, including those related to leisure and travel. Under such favorable conditions, a large portion of Mainland Chinese population has developed interest in pursuing higher quality and a wider variety of leisure activities (Lu & Hu, 2005). Such trends have triggered increased attention among Chinese and foreign scholars to leisure experiences of the Chinese population. Unfortunately, the majority of the existing studies have been conducted either on overseas Chinese populations (e.g., Li & Stodolska, 2007; Walker & Wang, 2009; Walker, Halpenny, Spiers, & Deng, 2011) or using relatively small samples of Mainland Chinese (e.g., Dong & Chick, 2012; Freysinger & Chen, 1993; Lee & Zhang, 2010; Walker & Wang, 2008; Zhou, Li, Xue, & Lei, 2012), thus leaving leisure patterns of the general Chinese population a largely unexplored topic. This study is aimed to address this gap. It takes advantage of a large scale, country-wide survey that explored leisure behaviors of Chinese citizens. The specific objectives of this exploratory study were to: 1) examine national-level leisure time availability and leisure participation patterns among Chinese urban residents; 2) explore regional differences in leisure time availability and leisure participation patterns among Chinese urban residents; and 3) examine demographic differences (based on gender, age, and income) in leisure time availability and leisure participation patterns among urban Chinese population.

Methods
The data for this study were obtained from the Survey of the Chinese Economic Life (SCEL) covering all 31 provinces, autonomous regions and municipalities of Mainland China. The survey was designed by the Peking University (PU), Beijing International Studies University (BISU) and China Center TV (CCTV), administered by China’s National Bureau of Statistics (CNBS), and delivered by the General Post Office of China (GPOC). The survey was conducted from May, 2011 to Feb, 2012. One hundred thousand questionnaires were distributed across China by local postal employees. After eliminating improperly completed surveys, 73,622 complete questionnaires were obtained with a valid response rate of 86.6%. In order to minimize omissions, improperly completed surveys and to overcome problem of limited literacy, trained postal employees recorded the responses to the survey. The questionnaire included 14 questions focusing on consumption patterns, social issues, income expectation, health expenditures, happiness, leisure time, and leisure activities. The two questions that pertained to leisure that were used in this study included: “How much leisure time (except for sleeping, schooling and eating) per day, on average, did you have in the last year?” The response categories ranged from none to more than 5 hours. In the second question, respondents were asked to choose their three most often participated in leisure activities out of the list of nine pastimes.
Only the data collected from the urban part of the sample were used in this study. More than 52 thousand (52,092) surveys from 99 urban areas were analyzed. Subsequently, due to a significant diversity of the country and in order to allow for regional comparisons, the sample was sub-divided into four groups based on different levels of economic development of the Chinese administrative territory: the Eastern, the Central, the Western and the Northeast (CNBS, 2010). Average GDP per capita ranged from $4,422 in the 24 urban centers in the West to $8,896 in the 39 urban centers in the Eastern region. To analyze the data, leisure activities were grouped into five categories: passive/media-based (watching TV and surfing the Internet), other home based (reading books, resting in home, and playing cards), exercising (fitness and excising), social (eating out or party and going to cinema, theater or stadium), and shopping (shopping). Midpoint values were assigned to leisure time categories (e.g., 1.5 to 1-2h category, 2.5 to 2-3h category). The data analysis consisted of three stages: (1) General leisure patterns in leisure time availability and leisure activities participation were analyzed by frequency and percentage distribution; (2) Differences in leisure time availability and leisure activities participation among the four regions were analyzed using descriptive statistics and ANOVA with LSD post-hoc tests; (3) Cross-tabulations, ANOVAs and t-tests were used to examine differences in leisure time availability and leisure activities participation based on gender, age and income. The sample included 58.7% men and 41.3% of women, 91.6% were below 59 years of age, 43.1% made between 20,000-50,000 Yuan per year and 34.1% less than 20,000 Yuan per year.

Findings
National-level leisure time availability and leisure participation patterns
Leisure time availability. The highest proportion of respondents (27.2%) indicated having between 2-3 hours of leisure time per day. The majority of the sample 73.7% had less than 4 hours of leisure a day. Only 6.6% of respondents had more than 5 hours of leisure time per day.
Leisure participation patterns. More than three quarters (77.1%) of the respondents engaged in passive/media-based leisure (watching TV and surfing the Internet) and 71.6% in other home based activities (reading books, resting at home and playing cards). Slightly more than one fifth (21.9%) participated in exercising, 40.6% in socializing, and 33.8% in shopping.

Regional Differences in Leisure Time Availability and Leisure Participation Patterns
Regional differences in leisure time availability. The results of the ANOVA revealed significant differences in leisure time availability between the East and the West (s.e.=0.0165, \( p<0.01 \)); the East and the Northeast (s.e.=0.0255, \( p<0.01 \)); the Northeast and the Centre (s.e.=0.0276, \( p<0.01 \)); the Northeast and the West (s.e.=0.0269, \( p<0.01 \)); and the Centre and the West (s.e.=0.0196, \( p<0.01 \)). The Eastern and the Centre regions shared similar patterns in leisure time allocation. LSD post-hoc tests revealed that people residing in the Northeast had significantly less leisure time than those residing in other regions and that those residing in the West had significantly more leisure time than people from other areas.
Regional differences in leisure participation patterns. The ranking of participation in leisure activities was the same across all four geographic regions, with passive/media activities being the most popular, followed by home based activities, social activities, shopping, and exercising. People from the West participated in social activities most frequently, while people from the East participated in passive/media activities more frequently. Residents of the Northeast participated in home based activities and in shopping most often, and in exercising least often.

Demographic Differences in Leisure Time Availability and Leisure Participation Patterns
Gender. Leisure time distribution among men and women was quite similar. Nearly one-
third of both men and women had between 1-2 hours of leisure time. Both genders were most frequently (over 76%) engaged in passive/media-based activities, followed by home based activities (over 70%). More women (41.3%) than men (28.5%) participated in shopping.

**Age.** Middle-aged respondents had the least leisure time (M=2.1 hours), while older individuals enjoyed the most of it (M=2.8 hours). Eighteen percent of people in the oldest age category had over 5 hours of free time per day. The same was true for only 5.6% of people in the young and middle age categories. Older people had the highest proportion of participants in home based activities (77.3%) and, interestingly, exercise activities (30.9%). It is quite indicative of the difference in the forms of exercising (low impact, outdoors such as tai-chi) prevalent in East Asia than in Western countries. Participation in passive/media-based activities and in shopping was the highest among young people.

**Income.** The availability of leisure time increased with income. Specifically, people in the lowest income categories (below ¥20,000) had on average 1.97 hours on free time per day, while people in the highest income category (over ¥100,00) had 2.39 hours. Participation in exercise and social activities has increased with income. The opposite was true for participation in home based and passive/media-based activities. Participation in shopping was the highest among people with incomes between ¥50,000-100,000.

**Discussion/Conclusions**

As compared to leisure time availability in developed countries, Chinese enjoyed relatively little leisure time on a daily basis. It may be attributed to the labor intensive industry prevalent in this country, the influence of Confucianism that leads to general orientation toward work, learning, and family (Li, 2009; Wang & Stringer, 2000), and to relatively low incomes among much of the Chinese population (Deng et al., 2005; Dong, Hou & Zhou, 2010). Strong contrasts were shown to exist in regional distribution of free time and leisure participation in China. People in the Northeast were found to have the least time available for leisure, while people in the West had the most. These trends can be attributed to the industry structure in this country, with the Northeast being the biggest traditional manufacturing base characterized by intensive labor and rapid growth (Wang, Zheng & Shi, 2006), while the West being the less developed region (Qing, Wang & Dong, 2011). The general pattern of preference for passive activities and low participation rates in exercising are deeply rooted in Chinese culture and ancient philosophy (Li, 2009), and corroborate the trends established in the studies on both the Mainland and immigrant Chinese (e.g., Walker & Wang, 2008, 2009). Income was confirmed to be a strong determinant of leisure time availability and leisure participation patterns in China (Dong & Chick, 2012). More economic resources provided more freedom to choose the length of one’s leisure time and engage in activities of choice (Borodulin et al., 2008). Furthermore, Chinese people endowed with higher discretionary incomes expressed an increased awareness of Western leisure lifestyles (Wang, 2001), thus promoting their participation in active pastimes and decreasing participation in sedentary leisure. Overall, this study provided some preliminary information on leisure participation patterns across China that may provide opportunity for future cross-national comparisons of leisure trends in other countries and offer insights into the leisure patterns among Chinese immigrants in the U.S. and Canada.

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References


As leisure meanings differ among individuals (Demir, 2005; Schulz, 2001) and may influence their leisure preferences (Philipp, 1997), knowledge regarding leisure meanings can assist service providers in developing socially responsible leisure programmes and help to improve service delivery (Lafrance, 2011; Schulz, 2001). Although differences in the meanings that individuals attach to leisure may be influenced by various factors, Juniu and Henderson (2001) mention that gender, cultural and language issues compound the differences in leisure meanings. In this regard, evidence exists that leisure meanings are influenced by gender (e.g. Schulz, 2001) and culture/racial background (e.g. Lee et al., 2001; Walker & Wang, 2009), while the influence of language on leisure in general, is still disputed. Within the context of South African universities, a demographic shift in the student composition at all South African universities is occurring with formerly White, Coloured1 and Indian universities now experiencing increased enrolment by students from different racial backgrounds and students who speak African languages (Council on Higher Education, 2001; Council on Higher Education, 2009). As a result, the overall diversity of the student population is increasing and providers of campus recreation and leisure services face challenges in terms of providing relevant leisure programmes that take the leisure meanings of diverse student populations into account. Based on the discussion regarding demographic changes and the fact that the majority of studies that did investigate students’ free time are, to a large degree, confined to Western contexts (Wu et al., 2010), it is apparent that an understanding is needed of how demographic diversity in an non-Western context can account for differences in the leisure meanings of students. Additionally, Shinew and Parry (2005) note that research regarding the leisure behaviour of individuals during the transition from late adolescence and young adulthood to university or college has generally been neglected. Therefore, based on the limited research on leisure of first-year university students, and factors influencing their leisure meanings, the purpose of this exploratory study was to determine the influence of various demographic variables on the leisure meanings of selected South African first-year university students.

Methods

The study utilised an availability sample from six South African universities campuses and first-year students from academic programmes in sport, recreation or leisure studies participated in the study. The sample consisted of 334 participants of which 52.1% were male and 47.9% were female. The Leisure Meanings Inventory (LMI) developed by Schulz and Watkins (2007) was used to determine the leisure meanings of first-year university students. The LMI is a 23-item multi-dimensional scale measuring four meanings of leisure namely, Passing Time, Exercising Choice, Escaping Pressure and Achieving Fulfilment based on a five-point Likert scale. Although Schulz & Watkins (2007) reported acceptable reliability (Passing time = 0.74; Exercising choice = 0.66; Escaping pressure = 0.74 and Achieving fulfilment = 0.69), marginally acceptable reliability ranging between 0.51 and 0.65 were achieved with the current sample. The research questionnaires were completed during academic contact sessions of the second semester under the supervision of a lecturer. Statistical analyses included a confirmatory factor analysis, while practical significance in terms of effect sizes for the differences between means were calculated (small effect: \( d = 0.2 \);

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1 The term Coloured is generally used (e.g. South African Census) to refer to a specific South African population group with mixed lineage, including sub-Saharan African, indigenous African, Khoisan, and White ancestry.
medium effect: $d=0.5$; large effect: $d=0.8$), along with $t$-tests, ANOVA and 2-way ANOVA that were performed to determine whether the demographic variables had statistically significant influences on leisure meanings.

**Results**

In accordance with what Hancock and Mueller (2010) recommend, goodness of fit of the four-factor model is reported in terms of three different indices, namely Minimum Sample Discrepancy divided by Degrees of Freedom (CMIN/DF), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). The four-factor model provided a CMIN/DF value of 2.54, which can be regarded as acceptable. In terms of the CFI, as values higher than 0.9 are described by Mueller (1996) as a good overall fit, the value of 0.725 achieved in this study can be considered as less than acceptable. Lastly, an acceptable RMSEA value of 0.068 was obtained, with a 90% confidence interval of [0.059; 0.077]. For the purpose of this study, achieving goodness of fit in two of the three methods is considered as acceptable. Results from a $t$-test indicated that significant statistical differences exist in terms of the meanings male and female students attach to leisure. Female students ($\bar{x}=3.70$; SD=0.55) are more likely ($p=0.025$; $d=0.24$) to associate leisure with an opportunity to achieve fulfillment than male students ($\bar{x}=3.56$; SD=0.59). Additionally, female students ($\bar{x}=3.67$; SD=0.63) are more likely ($p=0.025$; $d=0.23$) to consider leisure as an opportunity to exercise choice, than it male students ($\bar{x}=3.5$; SD=0.72). No statistically significant differences exist in the meanings Black, White, Coloured and Indian students attach to leisure. However, through the use of an ANOVA interesting findings emerged as the relationship between leisure meanings and home language indicated that statistically significant differences exist ($p=0.001$) between the different language groups. A Tukey B post-hoc test indicated that Afrikaans-speaking students ($\bar{x}=4.11$; SD=0.60) are more likely ($p<0.05$; $d=0.48$) to see leisure as Escaping Pressure than English-speaking students ($\bar{x}=3.82$; SD=0.61). Afrikaans-speaking students are also more likely ($p<0.05$; $d=0.39$) to see leisure as Escaping Pressure than students who speak African languages ($\bar{x}=3.83$; SD=0.72). In addition, English-speaking students ($\bar{x}=2.73$; SD=0.75) are more likely ($p<0.05$; $d=0.39$) to associate leisure with Passing Time than Afrikaans students ($\bar{x}=2.44$; SD=0.71). However, as race is also associated with home language, investigation into the influence of language within a specific racial group (i.e. White students) on leisure meanings showed that White Afrikaans-speaking students ($\bar{x}=4.13$; SD=0.60) are more likely ($p=0.01$; $d=0.46$) to associate leisure with Escaping Pressure than White English-speaking students ($\bar{x}=3.85$; SD=0.60). Additionally, White English-speaking students ($\bar{x}=2.66$; SD=0.80) are more likely ($p=0.048$; $d=0.33$) to associate leisure with Passing Time than White Afrikaans-speaking students ($\bar{x}=2.39$; SD=0.72), indicating that language, and not race, influenced leisure meanings. In terms of living arrangements, a $t$-tests revealed a statistically significant difference ($p=0.011$; $d=0.32$) in leisure meanings based on where students stay. Students who stay in private accommodation ($\bar{x}=2.66$; SD=0.69) are more likely to associate leisure with Passing Time than students who reside in university residences or dormitories ($\bar{x}=2.43$; SD=0.71). Lastly, a statistically significant difference exists in leisure meanings based on the relationship status of students. Students in a relationship ($\bar{x}=3.55$; SD=0.56) are less likely to see leisure as an opportunity for achieving fulfillment ($p=0.029$; $d=0.24$) than students who are not in a relationship ($\bar{x}=3.69$; SD=0.57).

**Discussion**

In terms of gender, female students attach more meaning to leisure as Achieving Fulfilment and as Exercising Choice than male students. A possible explanation for this can be because women’s leisure in general is more constrained and seen as subordinate to men’s leisure (Dowling et al., 1997) and, therefore, when opportunities arise for leisure women experience freedom to exercise choice and achieve fulfillment by doing as they please and
enjoying their free time. A second possible explanation can be that first-year students are faced with increased freedom and control over their leisure, different patterns of free time availability, and exposure to new leisure activities (Hickerson & Beggs, 2007). As a result, female students may break from the personal identities that are associated with their families and home communities (Russell, 2009; Kelly, 2012) and freely choose to participate in a completely new range of leisure activities to form new adult identities without the need to conform to gender expectations or being stereotyped. Because race played a significant role in the political history of South Africa, and considering that race is not merely based on biological traits, but also has certain social connotations (e.g. level of income, wealth, quality of education, access to leisure and recreation) (Freysinger & Harris, 2006), it was expected that race would significantly influence leisure meanings. However, results indicated that race does not play a role in the meanings students attach to leisure. A possible explanation for the lack of difference found in the leisure meanings of different racial groups could be that marginality issues related to race, such as discrimination and unequal access to services (Floyd et al., 1994; Gómez, 2006; Haluza-DeLay, 2006; Washburne, 1978), may influence leisure experiences and behaviour but not necessarily the meanings individuals attach to leisure. Additionally, it is possible that leisure meanings are influenced by ethnic factors such as culture, values, norms and socialization patterns (Floyd et al., 1994; Philipp, 1997; Gómez, 2006), and not race. A possible indication of this lies in the differences found in leisure meanings based on language. The fact that significant differences exist between the leisure meanings of White English-speaking students and White Afrikaans-speaking students may indicate that ethnic differences within a specific race can lead to different leisure meanings. However, another explanation for the differences in leisure meanings based on language is also possible. Based on the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis that language influences the way people perceive the world (Skerrett, 2010) it is conceivable that language, per se, is the cause of the different meanings attached to leisure. For example, an Afrikaans word for leisure is vryetyd, directly translated meaning free time. However, another Afrikaans word that relates to leisure is ontspanning, directly translated meaning releasing tension. Based on the hypothesis that language influences the way individuals think about, and perceive the world, it is possible that the word ontspanning (releasing tension) resulted in Afrikaans students associating leisure with escaping pressure. In terms of students’ living arrangements, it is suggested that because university residences offer more opportunities to be involved in residence activities, leisure activities and social interaction, these students are less likely to see leisure as Passing Time than students that stay privately and do not have access to all these leisure opportunities. With regard to leisure meanings based on relationship status it is possible that factors such as lack of support for leisure participation by a partner (Hultsman, 2012), or a decrease in leisure activities usually experienced separately due to being in a relationship (Russell, 2009) may influence the way leisure is experienced and the meanings attached to leisure. In summary, the results highlight the complex nature of how leisure meanings are formed and influenced by various demographic factors. For future research a longitudinal study, may provide important insight into the stability of leisure meanings. Additionally, cross-cultural research including students from different nationalities may reveal how leisure meanings are similar, or different, across cultures.

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ICE SKATING IS FOR EVERYONE: ICE SKATING FOR PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES
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To date participation in figure skating has not been readily explored as an opportunity for individuals with disabilities. While programming and adaptive equipment are available for inclusive and adaptive figure skating, there is limited information pertaining to the potential outcomes and program opportunities for participation in figure skating.

The current literature on the physiological benefits pertaining to cardiovascular fitness, musculoskeletal strength, functional fitness, and psychological implications of skating for individuals with and without disabilities adds insight into the implications of ice skating for people with disabilities (Rimmer & Rowland, 2008; Walsh & Scharf, 2005). Resources for skating school directors and instructors/coaches is limited and not readily available. Learning about skating demographics, current and past programs, and future implications of skating programming for individuals with various disabilities can increase our understanding of how to reduce barriers and increase participation in ice skating for individuals with disabilities.

Purpose
This study sought to review the literature relative to ice skating opportunities for individuals with disabilities, as well as, analyze existing materials for adaptive skating programs and create new resources with updated information. The “primary goals for increasing physical activity in children with disabilities are to reverse deconditioning secondary to impaired mobility, optimize physical functioning, and enhance overall well-being” (Murphy & Carbone, p.1063, 2008). In general, as reported by Rimmer and Rowland, “children and adolescents with disabilities have disproportionately lower levels of physical activity and fitness compared to their non-disabled peers” (p.145, 2008). There is a need to negotiate constraints in order to increase recreational participation specific to this population.

Commonly reported constraints within recreation literature are classified as intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural. According to Crawford and Godbey (1987), intrapersonal are relative to leisure preferences (psychological states and attributes which interact with leisure preferences), interpersonal describe the relationship between individuals’ characteristics and how they interact with others, and structural include such things as family life-cycle stage, financial resources, and climate. These three types of constraints help determine participation levels. This conceptualization also takes into account individuals who have stopped participation due to lack of interest, individuals who never participated even if interest is prevalent due to constraints, and lack of participation due to interest (Jackson & Dunn, 1988).

Negotiation of constraints includes aspects of cognitive (ignoring problems or not thinking about them) and behavioral (time management, skills acquisition, and changing leisure aspirations) domains (Jackson & Rucks, 1995). Several models have been created to describe the constraint negotiation process. A commonly used model is from Hubbard and Mannell (2001) outlining factors such as motivation, negotiation, participation, and constraint. Individuals with disabilities face several attitudinal, policy, financial, and physical barriers to leisure participation that must be negotiated in order for participation to occur.

Additionally, for individuals with disabilities “physical inactivity among youth with disabilities is often linked to physical, programmatic and attitudinal barriers that limit sport and recreation opportunities within their communities…” (Rimmer & Rowland, p.147, 2008). Murphy and Carbone (p.1060, 2008) stated that “the most frequently identified barriers to the
active participation of children are the child’s functional limitations (18%), high costs, (15%), and lack of nearby facilities or programs (10%)”. In a national survey completed by the American Park and Recreation Society and National Therapeutic Recreation Society, “major problems of implementing inclusive leisure programs are lack of financial resources and constraints on staff, including lack of accessible participation transportation, adaptive equipment, appropriate program placement, accessible facilities, and resistance to inclusion by community members without disabilities” (Devine & Kotowski, p. 32, 1999). Another common constraint is a lack of knowledge from leisure service providers pertaining to including individuals with various disabilities in recreational programs. A survey reported, financial constraints inclusive of having insufficient funds for hiring disability specialists, securing additional equipment, and staffing constraints, such as agency staff working closely with family members in designing programs. The use of marketing strategies to reach participants of varying abilities has also proven to be problematized (Schlein, Germ, & McAvoy, 1996). Overall, individuals with disabilities commonly encounter several constraining variables from both systemic and applied levels when choosing to participate in recreational opportunities. More research is needed to learn how to further negotiate these constraints successfully and promote inclusive and adaptive recreational participation opportunities. The research questions to be addressed within this review of literature are as follows 1) What are the reported physiological effects of participating in ice skating? 2) What ice skating opportunities, programs, resources, and equipment are available for individuals with disabilities? 3) What are the future implications of pursuing the gaps in services for ice skating for individuals with disabilities?

Methods

Literature was reviewed from peer reviewed journals as well as program tools and resources such as communications provided to potential and current program participants, educational information for ice skating coaches teaching individuals with disabilities, and websites for adaptive ice skating programs. Specifically, two adaptive ice skating programs were used to collect program data. Websites, informational hard copies, and figure skating rule books were utilized for the document analysis process. Other resources utilized included fliers from the programs, programming booklets from the organizations, educational literature, and waiver forms utilized by current programs. For further insight, program registration books and websites representative of national and private ice skating organizations were reviewed and analyzed. This data provided both a contemporary and historical description of ice skating programming for individuals with disabilities.

Materials were reviewed multiple times by an experienced ice skating instructor who is a member of the Professional Skating Association (PSA), gold level judge for the Ice Skating Institute (ISI), and United States Figure Skating (USFS) member and official. The figure skating official also has professional and volunteer experiences teaching and directing adaptive ice skating programs. Further insight was available through a literature relative to adaptive and inclusive ice skating programming, perceived benefits of ice skating for individuals with disabilities, physiological effects of participation in ice skating, and many other key word combinations through search engines including Ebsco, Scopus, Primo Articles, Web of Science, Pubmed, and the University of Illinois interlibrary loan system. Topic areas of interest included personal experiences, physiological affects of ice skating for individuals with disabilities, demographics of figure skating, reported implications of ice skating interventions for individuals with disabilities, gaps in services, and future implications.
Results

Findings supported that adaptive ice skating programs were rewarding for participants with disabilities as well as skating coaches and volunteers involved in programs. The participants with disabilities overcame fears, got to experience and improve skating skills, and most importantly had fun (Jamrosz, 2010). Families were able to encourage and support their child/children to try a new form of recreation. Volunteers and coaches gained a unique experience that was enjoyable and beneficial to their own lives. Ice skating facilities offering adaptive ice skating programming became more accessible to diversified populations and acquired new skaters in classes and showcase performances. Commonly it was cited that skaters, their families, volunteers, and coaches all enjoyed their time on the ice (Fragala-Oinkham, Dumas, Boyce, Peters, & Haley, 2009; Martinex, 2001; Martinex, 2001).

Physiologically, ice skating is an excellent cardiovascular exercise (Jalal as cited in Tator, 2008; Tarkinton, 2010). Bone mineral density of the trunk and lower extremities was reported to be significantly higher in skaters compared to non-skaters (Lipetz & Kruse, 2000). Both figure skating and hockey participation have improved the development of balance skills (Hrysomallis, 2011). Elderly populations participating in ice skating achieved superior balance control in comparison to sedentary older adults (Lamoth & Van Heuvelen, 2012).

Psychologically, ice skating offered participants of various ages an opportunity to feel a sense of enjoyment (Ryba, 2007). Having fun was found to be a motivating factor in youth recreational programming participants (Ryba, 2007). In general, participation in therapeutic recreation has consistently shown to increase mood (Greenwood, Dzewaltowski, & French, 1990). Relief from everyday stressors has also been linked to recreational participation (Berger & Motl, 2000).

Based on the data collected, a resource tool was created to encourage shared information on adaptive ice skating programming. This manual includes resources on adaptive equipment, educational tools, ice skating pedagogy, potential benefits, and information on current programs in the United States from the viewpoint of skating school directors, skating coaches and volunteers, and individuals with disabilities interested in ice skating and their families.

Discussion

In the future, it is recommended that research be conducted to investigate the potential benefits of participation in ice skating for individuals with disabilities. Document analysis and literature reviewed show benefits of including individuals with disabilities in figure skating for participants, coaches, volunteers, and the ice arena in general.

There are ice arena’s that utilize the Ice Skating Institute (ISI) Special Skater program through Special Olympics, the United States Figure Skating (USFS) Therapeutic Skating Program, or a non-national recreational skating program; however, these organizations lack empirical research to demonstrate the impacts of their programs. There should be an increase in communication between the pre-existing organizations, professionals in the ice skating field, therapeutic recreational professionals, and disability specialists in order to maintain and further develop the growth of such programs.

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Selected References


IS POSITIONING FOR COMMUNITY HEALTH A GOOD STRATEGY FOR P&R?

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Melissa Weddell, Appalachian State University
Stephanie Jilcott-Pitts, East Carolina University
Lauren Whetstone, East Carolina University
Rebecca Battista, Appalachian State University

Park and recreation (P&R) agencies have been experiencing overwhelming obstacles as local and state budgets have been cut, forcing decision makers to reallocate scarce resources (NRPA, 2013). One proposal to combating shrinking resources is to communicate to the public the essential nature of parks and recreation for local communities. Crompton suggests that P&R departments can position themselves in numerous ways to enhance the department’s image through aligning with community initiatives that include economic development, improving health, reducing juvenile crime and others (Crompton, 2009). Given the recent figures on rising obesity levels and decreasing activity levels, promoting obesity prevention may be the most viable option for many P&R departments as they seek to position themselves in the community. In previous studies (Whetstone & Jilcott-Pitts, 2012; Jilcott-Pitts et al, In Press; West, Weddell, Jilcott-Pitts & Whetstone, In Press), researchers conducted in-depth interviews with county stakeholders, such as county managers, economic planners, school officials, and city council members, to assess the winnability of the Common Community Measures for Obesity Prevention (COCOMO) policy and environmental change strategies recommended by the CDC. In each of the three counties in which interviews were conducted, policies to improve physical activity (PA) opportunities were deemed the most winnable, whereas policies to limit advertisement of unhealthy food were deemed the least winnable (Whetstone & Jilcott-Pitts, 2012; Jilcott-Pitts et al, In Press; West, Weddell, Jilcott-Pitts & Whetstone, In Press). However, findings from these previous studies were limited to only three counties in North Carolina and in only one instance was a P&R director interviewed. Given that the strategies with the most interest were those involving improving PA opportunities, it would be valuable to identify how P&R directors perceived the winnability of the obesity prevention strategies and how their perceptions compare to other county professionals.

Purpose

The purpose of this research, therefore, is to 1) broaden the scope of the previous qualitative research to assess the winnability of CDC’s COCOMO recommended strategies among stakeholder groups in all 100 NC counties, 2) identify how P&R directors evaluate the winnability of the CDC’s recommended obesity prevention strategies, and 3) compare responses from P&R directors with those of other county professionals. Specifically, an overall understanding of how strategies related to P&R programs and facilities are perceived by county professionals, as well as a reasonable level of agreement between P&R directors and other county professionals, would be necessary to best allow for the appropriate positioning of P&R departments as providing valuable county services.

Method

Data was collected from NC stakeholders during the Spring of 2012. Because county-level stakeholders are members of state-wide professional organizations, data was collected at the state level. NC was specifically chosen as the study population because it has some of the fastest growing obesity levels in the country and was one of the states to receive both a Communities Putting Prevention into Work grant and a Community Transformation Grant, both of which focus
on strengthening community-level efforts to prevent obesity. After conducting an online search to locate the names and email addresses of the stakeholders from each county, an online survey was sent to representatives from stakeholder groups in all 100 NC counties (n = 320 out of 567; 56.4%; Note: 44 of the 320 respondents did not provide their position within the county): County managers (n = 38 out of 97; 39.2%), county planners (n = 38 out of 89; 42.7%), economic developers (n = 26 out of 86; 30.2%), child nutrition directors (n = 36 out of 86; 41.9%), health directors (n = 58 out of 82; 70.7%), and parks and recreation directors (n = 46 out of 97; 47.4%). When possible, the survey was routed to recipients by a listserve managed by that group’s state association (e.g., North Carolina Parks and Recreation Association). Two reminder emails sent approximately one week apart followed the original email. Upon survey completion, respondents had the option to enter their names into a drawing for one of ten $50 Amazon gift cards. The independent variable for this study was the stakeholder’s occupation. Dependent variables were the derived scores of the twenty-four COCOMO recommended strategies based on ratings of how realistic each strategy was for their community in terms of culture, infrastructure, community leader support, and funding. Answer choices included very realistic (1), somewhat realistic (2), somewhat unrealistic (3) and very unrealistic (4). Responses to the four components were summed (with a summed range of 4-16) to determine lowest and highest scoring strategies. Lastly, using SPSS, the summed winnability scores of park and recreation directors and the other professions were compared using Mann-Whitney two sample rank-sum tests.

Results

Consistent with the findings from the qualitative interviews in three NC counties,3-5 respondents from across the state scored the most winnable strategies as those involving PE in the schools (Communities should require PE in schools, mean = 6.86, SD = 2.37; Communities should increase the amount of PA in PE programs in schools, mean = 7.33, SD = 2.48). The next two strategies scored as the most winnable were also related to improving physical activity opportunities (Communities should improve access to outdoor recreational facilities, mean = 7.34, SD = 2.33; Communities should increase opportunities for extracurricular PA, mean = 7.68, SD = 2.30). Results from survey respondents also agreed with previous qualitative interviews on which strategies would be least winnable in their communities: those strategies that would try to reduce the consumption of less healthy foods and beverages (Communities should limit advertisements of less healthy food and beverages, mean = 11.90, SD = 2.97; Communities should discourage consumption of sugar-sweetened beverages, mean = 11.12, SD = 3.05) and those strategies that would interfere with the free market by increasing healthy food access in underserved areas (Communities should provide incentives to food retailers to locate in and/or offer healthier food and beverage choices in underserved areas, mean = 11.48, SD = 2.73; Communities should improve geographic availability of supermarkets in underserved areas, mean = 11.15, SD = 2.59). See Table 1. When compared with other county professionals, P&R Directors had similar perceptions as to which obesity prevention strategies would be the most and least winnable in their county. In addition, findings between the two groups were frequently similar with statistically significant differences for only one-fourth of the strategies (strategy #1, 2, 4, 9, 10 and 11, see Table 1).

Discussion

Findings suggest that P&R directors are in agreement with the perceptions of other county professionals as to which obesity prevention strategies are the most and least winnable. This is especially important for P&R departments interested in positioning themselves as beneficial to improving community health. Not only are the prevailing attitudes of P&R directors consistent
with those of other county professionals, but both groups seem to be in agreement that improving the availability of P&R programs and facilities is one of the best places to address community obesity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CDC Recommended Community Obesity Prevention Strategy</th>
<th>County P&amp;R Directors</th>
<th>Other County Professionals</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communities should…</td>
<td>N  Mean    SD</td>
<td>N  Mean    SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - increase availability of healthier food and beverage choices in public service venues.</td>
<td>46 8.26* 2.07</td>
<td>235 9.01* 2.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 - improve availability of affordable healthier food and beverage choices in public service venues.</td>
<td>46 8.17* 1.89</td>
<td>235 8.97* 2.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 - improve geographic availability of supermarkets in underserved areas.</td>
<td>46 11.02 2.35</td>
<td>235 10.95 2.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 - provide incentives to food retailers to locate in and/or offer healthier food and beverage choices in underserved areas.</td>
<td>46 10.65* 2.60</td>
<td>235 11.58* 2.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 - improve availability of mechanisms for purchasing foods from farms.</td>
<td>46 7.63 1.96</td>
<td>235 7.57 2.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 - provide incentives for the production, distribution, and procurement of foods from local farms.</td>
<td>44 8.57 2.53</td>
<td>233 9.36 3.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 - restrict availability of less healthy foods and beverages in public service venues.</td>
<td>46 10.26 2.85</td>
<td>234 10.70 3.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 - institute smaller portion size options in public service venues.</td>
<td>46 9.57* 2.75</td>
<td>234 10.71* 2.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 - limit advertisements of less healthy foods and beverages.</td>
<td>46 11.04* 2.55</td>
<td>235 12.04* 3.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 - discourage consumption of sugar-sweetened beverages.</td>
<td>46 10.33 2.40</td>
<td>235 11.18 3.15</td>
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<td>11 - reduce screen time in public service venues.</td>
<td>45 9.80 2.52</td>
<td>225 10.50 3.01</td>
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<tr>
<td>12 - increase support for breastfeeding.</td>
<td>46 8.98 2.76</td>
<td>232 8.52 2.72</td>
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<td>13 - require physical education in schools.</td>
<td>46 6.63 2.07</td>
<td>235 6.90 2.43</td>
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<tr>
<td>14 - increase the amount of PA in PE programs in schools.</td>
<td>45 6.93 2.13</td>
<td>235 7.40 2.48</td>
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<td>15 - improve access to outdoor recreational facilities.</td>
<td>46 7.59 2.29</td>
<td>235 7.27 2.33</td>
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<tr>
<td>16 - increase opportunities for extracurricular PA.</td>
<td>46 7.52 2.00</td>
<td>235 7.71 2.37</td>
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<tr>
<td>17 - enhance infrastructure supporting bicycling.</td>
<td>46 8.89 2.30</td>
<td>235 9.20 2.93</td>
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<tr>
<td>18 - enhance infrastructure supporting walking.</td>
<td>45 8.16 2.07</td>
<td>234 8.22 2.48</td>
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<tr>
<td>19 - support locating schools within easy walking distance of residential areas.</td>
<td>45 10.87 2.68</td>
<td>234 11.32 3.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 - improve access to public transportation.</td>
<td>46 9.80 2.91</td>
<td>235 10.14 2.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 - zone for mixed use development.</td>
<td>46 9.57 2.89</td>
<td>234 9.61 3.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 - enhance personal safety in areas where persons are or could be physically active.</td>
<td>46 8.37 1.96</td>
<td>235 8.11 2.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 - enhance traffic safety in areas where persons are or could be physically active.</td>
<td>46 8.59 2.30</td>
<td>235 8.59 2.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 - participate in community coalitions or partnerships to address obesity.</td>
<td>46 7.46 2.07</td>
<td>235 7.73 2.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
1. * indicates a statistically significant difference p<.05.
2. Other county professionals included county managers, economic developers, public health directors, school nutrition directors and county planners.

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Whetstone, L., & Jilcott-Pitts, S. (September 2012). Evaluation of the Pitt County Communities Putting Prevention to Work Grant. Report Submitted to Pitt County Health Department.
Adolescent substance use is a global health problem associated with negative outcomes in both individual and social development. Theoretical models, and some empirical findings, suggest substance use behavior may be reduced by addressing individuals’ leisure skills, behaviors, and experiences. For example, prior research has demonstrated that boredom and engagement in unstructured, unsupervised, leisure activities with peers is associated with substance use (Barnes et al., 2007; Sharp et al., 2011). Although the association between leisure and risk behavior has received increasing attention within the past two decades, some facets of leisure, such as healthy leisure, continue to be largely ignored. This is particularly true in developing nations such as South Africa (SA). To address these issues, the current study aimed to understand the association between healthy leisure and substance use and how perceived parental over-control moderates this relationship in South African adolescents.

Although reducing adolescent substance use is a goal of many countries, it is especially critical in SA, which has an increasing adolescent substance use problem (Wegner, Flisher, Chikobvu, Lombard, & King, 2008), lack of leisure and recreation opportunities (Caldwell et al., 2004), and high incidence of adolescent discretionary time (Kingdon & Knight, 2004; Wegner & Magner, 2002). In South Africa, approximately half of students between grades 8 and 11 reported using alcohol with 15% of males initiating alcohol use prior to age thirteen. In addition, a third of students have used tobacco, and 13% have tried marijuana (Reddy et al., 2010). Although substance use prevalence and patterns of initiation are similar between the US and SA, adolescents in SA begin using substances at an earlier age, and transition through substances at a faster rate than their US counterparts (Patrick, et al., 2009; Reddy et al., 2010).

Previous studies have found associations between leisure experience (e.g., boredom, activity engagement) and substance use behaviors; however, the influence of healthy leisure is not understood. This is partially due to the lack of a standard conceptualization and measurement of healthy leisure. A brief literature search of the term ‘healthy leisure’ found most articles used the term to refer to physical activity or exercise. Only two studies explicitly measured healthy leisure and did so with similar subjective measures such as “I try to do things in my free time that are healthy for me” (Caldwell et al., 1998, p. 346) and “I get a lot of benefits from my free time activities” (Sharp et al., 2011, p. 345).

Problem Behavior Theory’s recent extension to health behaviors (Jessor, 2008) suggests a negative relationship between health compromising behaviors (i.e., substance use) and health enhancing behaviors (i.e., healthy leisure); a view supported by Kaczynski, Mannell, and Manske’s (2008) meta-analysis finding a generally negative relationship between tobacco use and physical activity as well as sport participation.

The role of parents in adolescent substance use has received increased attention over the last few decades, with parental monitoring factors, such as control, emerging as important predictors of adolescent substance use. Over-protection, or over-control, by adults and societal institutions (e.g., laws, curfews, or structured sports programs) may be detrimental to adolescents
who lack the freedom to develop skills used to initiate and engage in meaningful leisure pursuits (Kloep & Hendry, 2007). This view and other supporting evidence (e.g., Sharp et al., 2006, Fox & Calkins, 2003) suggest perceived parental over-control (PPOC) may moderate the relationship between healthy leisure and substance use.

**Methods**

The current study examined the association between healthy leisure and substance use in a sample of South African adolescents. Based on Problem Behavior Theory, it was hypothesized that (1) at a between-person level, lower levels of trait healthy leisure will tend to be associated with higher levels of substance use, (2) at a within-person level, on occasions when a student is lower than average on state healthy leisure, they will tend to use more substances, (3) perceived parental over-control will moderate the association at both the state and trait level, and (4) treatment will moderate the relationship between substance use and healthy leisure. In addition, gender, cohort, and school were included in the model as confounders.

Participants consisted of students from schools in Mitchell’s Plain, a low-income township approximately 15 miles outside of Cape Town, South Africa who participated as control subjects in an effectiveness trial of HealthWise South Africa, a school-based life skills curriculum intervention addressing adolescent health risk behavior and healthy use of leisure time (see Caldwell et al., 2004). Data were collected between 2004 and 2008 from three cohorts of students completing bi-annual surveys (8, 6, and 5 measurement occasions per cohort respectively) using personal digital assistant (PDA) devices.

For the present analysis, control group students who reported lifetime substance use at any wave of data collection were included. These 2,844 students (50% female) ranged in age from 12-19 years at baseline (Wave 1, \(M=14.5\)), and mostly reported their race as Colored (91%; a mix of African, Asian, and European ancestry), with some identifying as Black (5%), White (3%) and Other (1%).

Measures of substance use, healthy leisure, and perceived parental over-control were collected at each measurement occasion. For substance use, a composite index was created based on reports of recency and frequency of use for five substances: alcohol, tobacco, methamphetamines, marijuana, and inhalants. Higher values indicated higher levels of substance use. A factor analysis of a selection of survey items suggested measurement of two healthy leisure factors. Healthy leisure (Healthy; e.g., I get a lot of benefits out of my free time activities; \(\alpha=.84\)) and leisure planning efficacy (Plan; e.g., I know how to plan my free time activities; \(\alpha=.85\)) were both indexed as the average of four items. Perceived parental over control (PPOC) was measured as the average of adolescents’ responses to three survey items (e.g., My parents have too much control over what I do in my free time; \(\alpha=.84\)).

Multilevel Poisson regression models (Snijders & Bosker, 1999), implemented using SAS 9.3 PROC GLIMMIX, were used to examine how individuals’ healthy leisure was associated with their substance use. Prior to analysis, repeated measures of healthy leisure and PPOC were person-centered in order to examine both within-person (state) and between-person (trait) associations (Bolger, Davis, & Rafaeli, 2003; Schwartz & Stone, 1998). Accounting for the count nature of the outcome measure, students’ repeated measures of substance use were then modeled as:

\[
\log(\text{SubUse}_{it}) = \beta_0i + \beta_{1i}(\text{wave}_{it}) + \beta_{2i}(\text{wave}^2_{it}) + \beta_{3i}(\text{StateHealthy}_{it}) + \beta_{4i}(\text{StatePlan}_{it}) + \beta_{5i}(\text{StatePPOC}_{it})
\]

and the person-specific associations (besides those controlling for time, school, and cohort) were modeled as:
\[
\beta_k = \gamma_k \cdot \text{(TraitHealthy)} + \gamma_k \cdot \text{(TraitPlan)} + \gamma_k \cdot \text{(TraitPPOC)} + \gamma_k \cdot \text{(Gender)} + \\
\gamma_k \cdot \text{(Treatment)} + \gamma_k \cdot \text{(School)} + \gamma_k \cdot \text{(Cohort)}
\]

where the \(\gamma\)s are average, sample-level associations.

**Results**

Adolescents’ substance use, on average, increased over time, peaking at Wave 7. On average, when trait healthy leisure was low, participants tended to use more substances (\(\gamma_{01}=-0.201\)) and on occasions when state healthy leisure was lower than average, participants also tended to use more substances (\(\gamma_{30}=-0.068\)). Furthermore, state healthy leisure moderated the relationship between trait healthy leisure and substance use (\(\gamma_{31}=-0.057\)) suggesting participants with lower state levels demonstrate shallower trajectories of substance use. There were no significant results for the leisure planning efficacy factor at the state or trait level or for interaction terms. Gender interactions with both linear and quadratic growth were included as covariates in the model. Males demonstrated higher levels of substance use overall (\(\gamma_{04}=-0.221\)) and there were differences in growth of substance use over time by gender such that males demonstrated shallower trajectories of substance use development (\(\gamma_{14}=-0.102; \gamma_{24}=-0.012\)). PPOC did not moderate the relationship between either healthy leisure factor and substance use at either a within- or between-person level but demonstrate a positive relationship with substance use at a between- (\(\gamma_{03}=0.106\)) and within- (\(\gamma_{50}=-0.063\)) person level.

**Discussion**

Results indicated the healthy leisure factor was protective against substance use at both the state and trait level and even more so for individuals with concurrently high state and trait healthy leisure. There was no association found between substance use and the leisure planning efficacy factor. This may be due to the items focusing on planning, and not necessarily planning for healthy leisure specifically. Perceived parental over-control was not found to moderate the relationship between healthy leisure and substance use however; PPOC did demonstrate a positive relationship with substance use, indicating the healthy leisure factor remained protective independent of between- and within-person levels of PPOC.

Results provide empirical support for addressing risk behavior through leisure-based interventions, such as HealthWise, which aids adolescents in successfully negotiating leisure constraints and engaging in positive, healthy leisure activities regardless of context. This is especially critical in under-resourced areas, such as South Africa, where adolescents are often engaging in unstructured and unsupervised free time activities. For example, SA does not require physical education within the school curriculum and consequently, females are often excluded from physical activity while males are encouraged to participate in extra-curricular soccer and rugby. Developing after-school programming targeting females (e.g., dance team) may begin to address this issue.

The current study is a first step to understanding the association between healthy leisure and substance use; however, qualitative data needs to be collected to elucidate how adolescents conceptualize healthy leisure and how this conceptualization contributes to risk behavior. Results suggest future studies should incorporate situation-specific perceptions of healthy leisure and would benefit from separating type and intensity of substance use.

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References


WHAT IS LEISURE? A MACINTYRIAN RESPONSE
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To answer the question “What is leisure?” requires philosophical inquiry. Hemingway (1993) described two broad philosophical approaches to understanding leisure: Platonist and historicist. The Platonic tradition postulates the existence of universal truths that are discoverable, although imperfectly, by human beings. Conversely, the historicist tradition views truth as created through human activity and reflective of the corresponding historical context.

This abstract begins with a brief examination of leisure and its role in human happiness or flourishing from the Platonic tradition. Then, a historicist based conceptualization of leisure drawing upon the work of MacIntyre (2007) is proposed. Finally, an implication for flourishing is presented if the conception is adopted.

Platonic Tradition

The concept of leisure received much attention from Aristotle (2001a, b) who defined leisure as freedom from obligation and centrally positioned leisure within the framework of a well-lived life. For Aristotle (2001a), a well-lived life was one where human action aimed at the achievement of eudaimonia, often translated into English as happiness or flourishing (Dunn & Brody, 2008). In his framework, leisure is essential to eudaimonia, “And happiness [flourishing] is thought to depend on leisure; for we are busy that we may have leisure” (Aristotle, 2001a, 1177b, 4-6). Leisure “gives pleasure and happiness and enjoyment of life, which are experienced, not by the busy man, but by those who leisure” (Aristotle, 2001b, 1338a, lines 1-3).

Aristotle is clear that during leisure people are to execute the function unique to humans which is to reason “since reason more than anything else is man” (Aristotle, 2001a, 1178a, lines 7-8). Therefore, “leisure [is to be] spent in intellectual activity” (Aristotle, 2001b, 1338a, line 11). The ability to reason enables people to contemplate truths, act virtuously, cultivate friendships and actively participate in civic life, all uniquely human actions (Hemingway, 1988).

St. Thomas Aquinas (1948) held a related view of the relationship among human nature, happiness, contemplation, and leisure. For Aquinas, all human action aimed for one end, happiness, which was inexorably linked to the human capacity to reason. “Happiness is man’s supreme perfection” (p. 599, Q. 3, Art. 2) and “consists entirely in contemplation” (p. 599, Q. 3, Art. 5). Leisure is essential because it is a “requisite… for certain operations which belong to human life” (p. 608, Q.4, Art. 7) and “this is clear of contemplative happiness which is lost…by certain occupation” (p. 611, Q.5, Art. 4). During leisure, people use their ability to reason to act virtuously and comprehend, as best they can, the nature of God and their place in His world.

Historicist Perspective

In contrast to Aristotle and Aquinas, many contemporary philosophers do not believe in an immutable, universal view of and function for leisure within human lives. Instead, terms such as leisure represent concepts with blurred edges rather than clearly defined, fixed boundaries (Wittgenstein, 2009). MacIntyre’s (2007) work on human flourishing provides the foundation for a contemporary interpretation and understanding of leisure. At the core of his work is the notion of a practice defined as “any coherent and complex form of socially established cooperative human activity [that results in a systematic extension of] human powers to achieve excellence, and human conceptions of the ends and goods involved” (MacIntyre, 2007, p. 187).

Practices, which are primary contributors to human flourishing, include many pursuits considered to be leisure activities such as snow skiing and painting. A practice consists of more
than technical skills; practitioners must act virtuously. Therefore, members of the practice of
snow skiing must be able to ski various terrains and adhere to the skier responsibility code.

To excel at a practice means to attain standards of performance established by
practitioners. Members who excel access internal goods such as satisfaction from performing
well and the camaraderie of other members. Accessing internal goods, which add richness to life,
is directly linked to the exercise of virtues. Virtues “enable us to achieve those goods which are
internal to practices and the lack of which effectively prevents us from achieving any such
goods” (MacIntyre, 2007, p. 191). At least three virtues are necessary to excel in a practice and
secure associated internal goods: honesty, justice and courage (MacIntyre, 2007). Members must
be truthful about their practice related performances, fair in their dealings with other participants
and do the right thing even when doing so may lead to physical or existential harm.

A practice is, by nature, in a state of flux. “Practices never have a goal or goals fixed for
all time” (MacIntyre, 2007, p. 193) and are partially discerned by a “continuous argument” as to
what a practice “is and ought to be” (p. 222). This argument among members of a practice
determines the standards they must adhere to, virtues they must exercise, and internal goods they
can access. The nature of a practice implies the meaning and purpose of leisure are ever evolving
(Hemingway, 1993). Although there may not be one ultimate definition, description or function
of leisure, individual leisure practices share similarities. “I can think of no better expression to
classify these similarities than ‘family resemblances’” (Wittgenstein, 2009, p. 36e, ¶67).

Family Resemblance

The family resemblance among leisure practices includes, at minimum, the internal goods
of community and freedom and the concomitant requirement for virtuous behavior (Sylvester,
2007, 2009). Members of a leisure practice compose a community so the terms “leisure practice”
and “community” are synonymous. “Every community is established with a view to some good”
(Aristotle, 2001b, 1252a, lines 1-2) and members of a practice are united by a shared interest in
the practice’s internal goods and resulting systematic extension of what it means to flourish.

Members of a practice contribute to one another’s flourishing through a variety of means.
They assist each other to become rational beings, secure individual and common goods, and
navigate times of dependency inherent in the human condition (MacIntyre, 1999). Also within
leisure practices (i.e., communities), people learn, cultivate and display virtues necessary to
sustain and enhance those practices and communities (Hemingway, 1988). Another critical
function of a community is the on-going deliberation of questions such as “how does excelling in
this practice contribute to my flourishing and the flourishing of others,” and “should the practice
be revised and how should it be revised so it contributes even more to flourishing.” Deliberations
are discursive (Hemingway, 1996) and as a result, a particular practice may continue forward as
is or it may be refined, extensively altered, or completely abandoned.

A community, as described here, is the antithesis of a lifestyle enclave (Bellah, Madsen,
Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton, 1996). Though an enclave is composed of people who participate in
the same leisure practice(s) members do not welcome into the practice people who are socially,
economically, and culturally different from themselves. Furthermore, enclave members are not
concerned with extending leisure practices or promoting flourishing.

In contrast, MacIntyre (1999) argues that the degree to which an entire community
flourishes is indicated by the degree to which people who have been traditionally ignored are
actively involved in deliberations and actually do flourish. A community’s flourishing is
enhanced when every person in that community including those with disabilities partake in the
deliberations (Hutchison & McGill, 1998) because every member of a community has something
to teach about human flourishing and sometimes it is only from disenfranchised people that we can learn about a particular aspect of flourishing (MacIntyre, 1999). When the input of people who are traditionally marginalized is sought after and considered, the scope of human capacities widens because “the human conceptions of the ends and goods involved, are systematically extended” (MacIntyre, 2007, p. 187). As a consequence, members of the community experience greater freedom through the explicit acknowledgement and support of multiple ways of excelling and flourishing, and recognition that flourishing is an interdependent endeavor.

Freedom is related to community in other ways. Members of a community collaborate to define what is good and bad and right and wrong. Because the definitions are not imposed by a deity or predetermined and immutable, people are free to determine what is best for them qua human beings through reasoned dialogue. Engaging in these discursive dialogues also leads to participants increasing their level of self-knowledge (i.e., values, beliefs, abilities, goals) which frees them to actively pursue excellence in commensurate leisure practices which in turn contributes to their flourishing as community members and human beings.

Freedom is critical to virtues and virtues are critical to practices. “Freedom is the presupposition of the exercise of the virtues” (MacIntyre, 2007, p. 159) and practices require the development and exercise of virtues. Sylvester (2007, 2009) proposed four virtues beyond the three identified by MacIntyre (2007) as necessary to excel in leisure practices. One virtue is respect for living things and the environment. A second virtue is disinterestedness which means to participate in a leisure practice for the internal goods associated with that practice. A third virtue is playfulness which Sylvester (2007) described as a mix of “the seriousness one had as a child, at play” (Nietzsche, 1989, p. 83) and eutrapelia. Eutrapelia is revitalizing the soul through play (Aquinas, 1948). The soul, like the body, becomes tired with work which for the soul is reasoning. The pleasure generated by play refreshes the soul. The fourth virtue phronesis or practical reasoning entails applying the most appropriate virtues to a specific situation.

To illustrate the virtues, consider the leisure practice of mountain biking. Mountain bikers who excel access internal goods such as the camaraderie of fellow riders and satisfaction from successfully negotiating obstacles. While negotiating obstacles they become totally immersed in the moment. The pleasurable experience of total absorption revitalizes them, preparing them to tackle everyday problems. Though riders try to give wildlife a wide berth, respecting animals may require acting in a manner that is normally forbade. For example, coming upon a rattlesnake sunning in the middle of the trail may necessitate leaving the trail and bushwhacking or going the wrong way on a single track trail. Riders must consider the entire situation and determine the best action to follow while doing their best to respect fauna, flora and safety rules. Determining the best course of action to follow in a particular situation is developed over time.

Conclusion

A MacIntyrian conception of leisure, based on virtuous behavior, active inclusivity of diverse peoples, and the internal goods of community and freedom is likely to broaden and increase the range of practices in which people can excel. A wider scope, in turn, helps to ensure there are multiple routes people with different interests, abilities and skills can pursue to flourish. And because leisure practices are dynamic and extended through discursive dialogue they can and do evolve, building upon discoveries and advances in our understanding of leisure, human beings, the world and what it means to flourish.

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Although recreation yields many benefits, the leisure constraints adolescents are confronted with are numerous (Palen et al., 2010). Recreational constraints that adolescents are faced with can be classified into four categories: structural, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and sociocultural constraints (Coetzee, 2003; Palen et al., 2010). Structural constraints, refers to external obstacles such as facilities, transportation, cost, time the activity is offered and the lack of programme information (Allison et al., 2005; Caldwell & Baldwin, 2005; Coetzee 2003; Sayed 2003). Interpersonal constraints refer to interactions or relationships with individuals. This includes familial obligations, disapproval from friends and family, and the lack of role models in the recreational field (Allison et al., 2005; Fourie, 2006, Gordon-Larsen et al., 2004). Intrapersonal constraints are personal characteristics that restrict an individual from participating in preferred leisure activities (Palen et al., 2010; Sayed, 2003). Sociocultural constraints refer to the social, economic, political, educational or cultural environments that could place demands on and shape an individual (Palen et al, 2010). The above-mentioned constraints are unique to a community. When communities begin to identify the problems they face, and work as a unit to guide their future, the process of community development has begun (Bennett, 1973; Community Development Alliance, Scotland, 2008). Community development can also be advocated through various institutions to initiate the process of discovering issues and resources to empower communities to unite and work together (Community Development Alliance, Scotland, 2008). In this instance, the Health Sciences Faculty of the North-West University has collaborated to assist the rural community and provide a platform for community members to uplift their community. Through assessments and advocacy of community partnerships, sustainable strategies to increase activities in rural areas seemed to improve (Brennen, et.al, 2012). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to conduct a needs assessment to ascertain the leisure constraints the learners in Grades 10 to 12 at a rural High School experienced. A needs assessment is essential as it serves to find the recreational preferences and constraints of a community and find efficient methods to address these recreational needs especially for the adolescents of a community (Edginton et al., 2004; Russell et al., 2008). The outcomes of this study could serve as a valuable guide for the School and Phokwane municipality regarding the development of beneficial recreation programmes and provision of community recreation services for adolescents in the future.

**Method**

This pilot study was part of a bigger trans-disciplinary study to create sustainable living in a vulnerable rural area in South Africa. This particular study adopted a quantitative method to capture data from an available sample of grade 10 to 12 learners (boys and girls) of the rural High School in the North West Province. The total population consisted of N=97 learners which consisted of n=45 boys and n=52 girls, of which 23 learners were in grade 10, and grade 11 and grade 12 consisted of 37 learners each. Permission was obtained from the principal to undertake the study who in turn scheduled times to gather information from the different grades. Before the data collection process began, ethics was explained in that the learners were participating voluntarily and their responses were anonymous and handled with confidentiality. The learners were guided through the questionnaires in the comfort of their own classroom. An adapted version of a questionnaire by Scholtz (1995) developed according to the five-point Likert scale, consisted of six sections of which four were used in this paper: current life experience, leisure constraints, current activities and desired activities.
The participants indicated the extent to which they agreed or disagreed (Foxcroft and Roodt, 2009) with scale values from 1 to 5 where each value represented a specific meaning: 1 = Strongly Agree to 5 = Strongly Disagree. To measure activity frequency the five-point Likert scale was used and the numerical value adopted a different meaning where: 1 = 1 to 2 times per week; 2 = 3 to 5 once a week; 3 = often; 4 = Never; 5 = Not Applicable. The trends of the leisure needs and constraints of the learners was analysed according to descriptive statistics, crosstabs, the Pearson Chi-Square test (symbolised by $p$-value: $p$-value $<$0.05) to determine the significant difference between two variables and Cramer’s $V$ (symbolised by $V$: large $V=0.5$; a moderate difference $V=0.3$; and a small difference $V=0.1$) to determine the size of the significant difference.

**Results**

The results indicated that four of the five structural constraints that were significant to the grades were in fact not viewed as constraints by the learners. For instance, there was a negative medium significance ($p=0.035; V=0.3$) with programme sessions being of no interest to learners across the grades. Similarly, a negative medium significance ($p=0.01; V=0.37$) existed across the grades with learners being physically unable to participate in activities of their choice. Hence, these two factors had not posed as structural constraints for the learners. The following two factors were perceived as constraints however, there were conflicting views among the grades. Firstly, descriptive statistics revealed that 48% of the grade 10 learners strongly disagreed and 32% grade 11 learners disagreed yet 38% of grade 12 learners agreed with transport being a constraint. Overall, the issue of transport hindering participation for all learners had a negative medium significance ($p=0.00; V=0.38$). Secondly, statistics revealed that 40% and 27% of grade 11 and grade 12 learners respectively disagreed with not being aware of where to participate in activities of their choice, however, 27% of grade 10 learners agreed with this statement. Overall, being unaware of the place to participate in activities of their choice had a negative medium significance ($p=0.00; V=0.38$) for the learners. The only structural constraint that had a positive medium significance ($p=0.026; V=0.305$) for learners was that they did not have sufficient programme information about activities. The results indicated that 51% of the grade 11 learners either strongly disagreed or disagreed that insufficient programme information was a constraint to leisure participation. However, 53% of the grade 10 learners and 56% of the grade 12 learners either strongly agreed or agreed that there was a lack of programme information which posed as an obstacle to participate in recreation. Therefore these learners had experienced a structural constraint. The results showed that programme sessions that were not interesting, physical inability, lack of transport and being unaware of where to participate in recreational activities do not pose as structural constraints whereas insufficient programme information was deemed a structural constraint. Descriptive statistics revealed that family and friends preventing learners from participating in chosen activities had a negative medium significance ($p=0.01; V=0.37$) for learners across grades. All the learners disagreed (44% of grade 10, 47% of grade 11 & 36% of grade 12) that family and friends do not allow them to participate in recreational activities and hence, does not pose as an interpersonal constraint. The results showed that learners believed to have a high level of life satisfaction. A positive small significance ($p=0.028; V=0.262$) between life satisfaction and grade. Out of all the grades, 61% of the grade 10 learners were very happy with their current living conditions whereas 42% of Grade 11 learners and 57% of grade 12 learners were just happy with their lives. A positive medium significance ($p=0.04; V=0.37$) between life satisfaction and gender existed. Statistics indicated that 48% of male adolescents hung around the streets 3-5 times per week more than their female counterparts (36%) who do not hang about the streets often. Activities that played a role in the learners’ happiness were hanging about the streets and socialising (drinking, smoking and watching television). The statistics indicated that there
was a positive small significance ($p=0.028$; $V=0.27$) between hanging about the streets and the learners across the grades. Results indicated that 56% and 75% of grade 10 learners respectively hung out in the streets and socialized with friends, both 3-5 times per week. More than 50% of the grade 11 learners were less concerned with hanging about the streets yet 61% of them preferred to socialise with their friends 3-5 times per week. Furthermore, 35% and 57% of the grade 12 learners respectively hung about the streets and socialised with friends, both 1-2 times per week. Interestingly, there was a positive large significance ($p=0.04$; $V=0.53$) between socialising with friends and all the learners. Hanging about the streets is viewed as a negative leisure activity as it could lead to antisocial behaviour (Smith, 1991). The unhealthy aspects such as smoking and drinking during socialising were frequently participated in, and prevalent among the adolescents of this focus group. The results showed that the learners desired to be involved in the performing arts, football and swimming. Across the grades in the focus group 60% of the learners wished to engage in the performing arts (dance, singing and drama), 56% of the learners wished to participate in football during their free time, and 57% of the learners wished to swim as a recreational activity.

**Conclusion**

Despite the participation in negative leisure activities, most of the participants stated that they were happy with their current life situation. The data highlighted that structural, interpersonal and sociocultural constraints contributed to participants' not engaging in recreational activities. Firstly, the most significant structural constraint as to why learners were not participating in recreational activities took the form of insufficient information about leisure programmes. Structural constraints prevent individuals from recreation participation who have a preference for a given activity (Palen et al., 2010). An inconclusive result indicated that programme information served as a structural constraint toward active leisure pursuit among grade 10 and 12 learners. Secondly, interpersonal constraints took the form of peers encouraging hanging about the streets and socialising which was synonymous with drinking and smoking. These activities that many learners engaged in during their free time, is deemed as “negative” leisure activities, which in this case aided antisocial behaviour when socialising. Hence, the lack of positive leisure involvement can impede wholesome adolescent development (Palen et al., 2010). Thirdly, a constraint linked to structural and interpersonal barriers is of a sociocultural nature in the form of the lack of education about positive leisure. The focus group was taken from a secondary school of mixed Black and Coloured learners situated in a low-economic area where people were not informed about the full spectrum of leisure. The level of education, state of environment and social awareness shapes an individual’s behaviour. Therefore the less an individual is educated about the positive developmental experiences associated to recreation and leisure participation, the less likely an individual will be involved in it. In conclusion, the learners from the rural High School were involved in negative leisure pursuits due to the lack of leisure education. Lastly, the learners’ desired activities to participate in were performing arts, football and swimming, which motions toward a need for goal-oriented leisure activities contributing to their physical, cognitive and social well-being. With the assistance of the North-West University, several constraints have surfaced as to why adolescents are not participating in recreational activities. Furthermore, the types of non-development activities seem to co-exist with desirable developmental activities. The process of discovering issues and desires with one population group within the community has begun. This creates a platform for the community to initiate more positive developmental activities to enhance the adolescents’ quality of life.

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COPING WITH CROWDED RECREATION SETTING: A CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISON
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Background & Introduction
Common property resources and carrying capacity are long-standing and foundational issues in the management of parks and protected areas. For several decades now, both researchers and managers have attempted to better understand the level of use that parks and protected areas can accommodate without adversely impacting the integrity of the resource or leisure experience. For the assessment of social carrying capacity, much of the research has focused on monitoring the association between setting density and other experiential indicators; principally satisfaction (Manning, 2011). Based on economic concepts associated with marginal utility (Clawson & Knetch, 1966), the “satisfaction model” (Heberlein & Shelby, 1977) proposes that as visitors are added to a recreation area, the marginal satisfaction of each individual visitor will progressively decline due to crowding, which is defined as the negative evaluation of setting density (Proshansky et al., 1970). Empirical evidence in support of the proposed inverse relationship between use level and satisfaction over the past 35 years, however, has been lacking. Regardless of study context, be it wilderness (Hall & Cole, 2008), inland waterways (Tseng et al., 2009), rivers (Tarrant et al., 1997) or national parks (Strother & Vogelsong, 2003), reported associations between use level, perceived crowding and visitor satisfaction have been weak. More recent efforts highlight the presence of mediating factors that better account for the crowding – satisfaction relationship (for review, see Manning, 2011). Of particular concern within the context of this investigation is recreationist’s ability to cope with crowded conditions. How recreationists accommodate setting densities has been shown to determine the quality of their experience (Miller & McCool, 2003).

With this in mind, we drew from Lazarus and Cohen’s (1977) transactional theory of stress and coping in addition to past empirical evidence to test the model reflected in Figure 1. Briefly, the model proposes that as recreationists’: a) increasing expectations for encounters with others will lower their perception of crowding; b) increased concern over crowding will result in corresponding concerns over safety; c) increased concern over crowding and safety will also elicit the adoption coping strategy or strategies; (d) the adoption of a coping strategy will positively influence enjoyment; and (e) increased concern over both crowding and safety will negatively influence enjoyment. Last, we also explored the effect of cultural background on the hypothesized relationships. Past work has shown that Americans of European descent are more likely to use behavioral coping strategies when encountering a stressor compared to East Asians (Chun, Moos & Cronkite, 2006; Morling & Fiske, 1999). Alternately, East Asians more often employ cognitive coping strategies in light of stressors. Given that previous work has paid little
attention to how recreationists from diverse cultures perceive recreational setting conditions, we
tested the model using data collected from three study contexts in the U.S., Korea, and Taiwan.

**Method**

**Data**

The data analyzed in this investigation were collected from three studies involving visitors to
inland waterways in the U.S., Korea, and Taiwan: *Study 1* - U.S. respondents were recreational
boaters visiting Lake Travis, Lake Lyndon B. Johnson, and Lake Austin in Texas. Using
Dillman’s (2009) total design method, data were collected from May 2008 to January 2009. They
included shoreline property owners, private marina users, and public boat ramp users. We
received 2,252 completed surveys (response rate: 68%); *Study 2* - Korean respondents were also
recreational boaters visiting Lake Chung-pyun. A total of 462 completed onsite surveys were
collected in the summer of 2010 (response rate: 57.0%); *Study 3* - The Taiwanese data were also
collected from visitors to Sunmoon Lake in the spring of 2012. A total of 2,566 surveys were
collected.

**Measures**

Expectations of setting density, perceptions of safety, and enjoyment were measured with a
5-point Likert-type scale by asking boaters “How did the number of people you saw on the lake
compare with what you expected to see on your visits to the lake for this season?,” “In light of
the number of boats you saw on the lake, please rate how safe you felt while boating,” and “How
did the number of people you saw affect your overall enjoyment of your visits to the lake?” We
used enjoyment as a surrogate for satisfaction. Perceived crowding was measured using a 9-point
Likert-type scale developed by Heberlein and Vaske (1977), asking “How would you describe
the overall boating conditions?” A response of 1-2 indicated not at all crowded, 3-4 indicated
slightly crowded, 5-7 indicated moderately crowded, and 8-9 indicated extremely crowded.
Twenty coping strategy items were adapted from Miller and McCool (2003), which measured
seven dimensions of coping: *absolute displacement, temporal substitution, activity substitution,
resource substitution, rationalization, product shift,* and *direct action.*

**Analyses & Findings**

Our hypothesized model was tested using covariance structure analysis conducted in
LISREL. We first tested the model using the pooled data (American, Korean and Taiwanese) which
indicated a good fit ($\chi^2$=521.99, df=20, RMSEA=.06, CFI=.96). For the most part,
significant relationships were as hypothesized (see Figure 2). Significant structural paths
illustrated that as expectations related to setting density increased, perceptions of crowding
declined ($\beta=-.295$, $t=22.43$***). As concern over crowding increased, so too did respondents’
concern over safety ($\beta=.142$, $t=10.57$***). Increased concern over crowding was also negatively
impacted enjoyment ($\beta=-.134$, $t=9.73$***). Those more sensitive to crowding were more also
likely to choose coping strategies related to displacement ($\beta=.131$, $t=10.68$***), direct action
($\beta=.144$, $t=10.53$***), and product shift ($\beta=.074$, $t=6.65$***), but less inclined to use
rationalization ($\beta=-.043$, $t=-4.19$***). Concern over safety was positively associated with
temporal substitution ($\beta=.107$, $t=10.53$***), activity substitution ($\beta=.216$, $t=10.53$***), direct
action ($\beta=.110$, $t=10.53$***), and rationalization ($\beta=.083$, $t=10.53$***), but negatively associated
with product shift ($\beta=-.091$, $t=-9.35$***). Among coping dimensions, absolute displacement
($\beta=.078$, $t=5.15$***), resource substitution ($\beta=.095$, $t=-2.32$*), and rationalization ($\beta=.041$
$t=2.58$**) each positively influenced enjoyment. Direct action ($\beta=-.038$, $t=-2.49$*) and product
shift ($\beta=-.138$, $t=-9.35$**), however, negatively influenced on enjoyment.
We also tested the moderating effect of respondents' cultural background (American, Korean, and Taiwanese) on the relationships examined in our model (see Figures 3, 4 & 5). The results showed that there were differences across groups in terms of the hypothesized paths. Broadly, compared to the East Asian samples (Korea & Taiwan), Americans were more likely to adopt coping strategies – both behavioral and cognitive - when encountering crowded conditions (i.e., displacement, temporal/activity/resource substitution, direct action, and rationalization). Alternately, the East Asian samples were more likely to adopt behavioral and cognitive coping strategies when growing concerned over their safety. The mediating effect of coping on the crowding/safety – enjoyment relationship also differed among the three groups. For Koreans, absolute displacement ($\beta=.107, t=10.53***$) had a positive influence on enjoyment whereas product shift ($\beta=.107, t=10.53***$) displayed a negative effect. For the Taiwanese, the coping dimensions had no influence on enjoyment. Last, for U.S. respondents, where absolute displacement ($\beta=.107, t=10.53***$) had a positive effect on enjoyment, both direct action ($\beta=.107, t=10.53***$) and product shift ($\beta=.107, t=10.53***$) each had a negative effect on enjoyment.

**Conclusion**

Our findings provide further insight on how recreationists respond to setting density within three diverse contexts. While our findings illustrated that crowding, universally, had a negative effect on respondents’ enjoyment, the mediating role of coping on the crowding/safety – enjoyment relationship implies substantial complexity. This complexity is evidenced in the variance accounted in enjoyment by its antecedents. For the U.S. model, the $R^2$ value is quite good. However, the $R^2$ values for Korean and Taiwanese models were much more modest. Neither the Taiwanese nor the Korean respondents associated setting density with safety in addition to coping playing a limited mediating role. This weak mediating effect implies that, for East Asians, other coping mechanisms are at play. Continued effort is warranted to explore the “black box” that mediates the crowding – enjoyment/satisfaction relationship.

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References


