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Abstracts from the  
2015 NRPA Research Sessions

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## PREFACE—2015 NRPA RESEARCH SESSIONS

This year marks the 38<sup>th</sup> year that the National Recreation and Park Association has hosted research presentations in conjunction with the Annual Congress. At the 2014 Congress, the research Co-Chairs collaborated with NRPA organizers and the President of the Education Network to find ways to increase research presentation attendance. The group agreed to change the name of the research presentations from the Leisure Research Symposium to the NRPA Research Sessions to parallel the corresponding NRPA Education Sessions, and to put greater emphasis on applicability of research to practice and attention to implications for practitioners. These changes are reflected in the abstracts as well as in the oral and poster presentations. This year we received 101 abstracts for review, including two panel presentations. Of those, 53 oral paper presentations and 23 posters are included in this year's sessions. All the abstracts were 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.

The 2015 NRPA Research Sessions commence on Tuesday, September 15 with the Butler Lecture. The 2015 Butler Lecture Keynote Speaker is Peggy O'Dell, Deputy Director of Operations for the National Park Service. She will address the role of parks in urban areas and the importance of connecting with people for engagement and sustainability. An abstract for her Keynote address is the first in the *2015 NRPA Research Sessions Book of Abstracts*.

Oral presentations for the 2015 Research Sessions will begin on Wednesday, September 16th at 8:00a.m. Authors were encouraged to identify thematic areas for their abstracts at the time of submission. This year, thematic areas for abstracts reflect the NRPA pillars; Health and Wellness, Conservation, and Social Equity. Additional thematic areas include Recreation Administration to accommodate papers specific to issues of management and operations, and Research Methodology to maintain important discussions and learning opportunities for research methods and approaches. Overall, the presentations represent an impressive diversity and depth. The moderators have been asked to facilitate Q & A between presenters and attendees at the end of each session; please plan to attend the entire session to reap full benefits of the research and subsequent discussions.

The organization of the NRPA Research Sessions is 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 NRPA staff liaison Tom Crosley, who has been invaluable in the process again this year, and to Dr. Joey Gray for coordinating the poster session. We also extend our thanks to the presenters for sharing their work and the moderators for facilitating the sessions.

Dorothy Schmalz and Ed Gómez  
2015 NRPA Research Sessions Co-Chairs

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## **REDIFINING THE NATIONAL PARK SERVICE ROLE IN URBAN AREAS: BRINGING PARKS TO THE PEOPLE**

Peggy O'Dell, Deputy Director of Operations  
National Park Service

The National Park Service will celebrate its 100th birthday on August 25, 2016. This is more than a one-day celebration, as the goal of the National Park Service centennial is to connect with and create the next generation of park visitors, supporters, and advocates. **As the National Park Service aspires to reach our centennial goal, we have developed an Urban Agenda that will strengthen the relevancy and sustainability of parks, programs, and partners.**

More than 80% of Americans live in urban areas. For these Americans, urban parks are a part of their daily life. As urban centers become more crowded and dense, the value of the common good and the common space found in these urban parks becomes increasingly valuable. In an effort to re-imagine the NPS' role in urban areas, the Urban Agenda looks to strategically align National Park Service parks and programs to better serve cities and communities.

Deputy Director O'Dell will provide an overview of the National Park Service's Centennial efforts and how the Urban Agenda is a key part of our nation's future.



Peggy O'Dell was appointed NPS Deputy Director of Operations in January 2011. In this position, she oversees every aspect of operations in the 407 National Parks and offices in the country, including, but not limited to its 20,000 employees, the preservation and protection of 84 million acres, and the recreation, education and hospitality for 283 visitors to National Parks every year. In her 30 year career with the NPS, Deputy Director O'Dell has served as an interpreter, regional director, and superintendent of some of the most widely visited and recognized parks and monuments in the nation.

## WHAT VISITORS OF ADVENTURE TOURISM WANT?

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Adventure tourism, a burgeoning niche of the sport tourism industry, may provide economic and social enhancements for regions with desirable natural resources (Buckley, 2006). Recent research has begun to paint a picture of adventure tourism, as well as participant characteristics and motivations (Lamoureux et al., 2010; D.K. Schifflett & Assoc., 2012). These studies describe adventure tourists as primarily younger, with higher education levels than other types of tourists. Such a clientele is likely to seek information about the destination to which they are travelling. Accordingly, the adventure travel industry establishes rankings for destinations (Adventure Travel Trade Assoc. [ATTA], 2012), based on criteria designed to measure the image, desirability, and social impacts of tourism for the host community. These criteria include factors such as: safety, humanitarianism, infrastructure, image, and cultural resources, among others. These rankings, however, are performed on the national level and cannot account for regional variance in tourist characteristics, preferences, and priorities. Practitioners require valid information at the local level to prioritize planning initiatives. The purpose of this study was to describe adventure tourists at an emerging destination in the southeastern United States and elucidate their tourism preferences and priorities.

### Methods

This study was conducted at the RiverRocks festival held annually in Chattanooga. This weeks-long festival involves a host of outdoor events and races at locations across the county, including: kayak/paddle boarding race, 50k trail run, bouldering competition, Reel Rocks film tour, and other family activities. Volunteers utilized a randomized stint sampling method to collect responses from people either participating in or spectating at 5 high profile RiverRocks events. A total of 186 surveys were collected from visitors. The survey included socio-demographic items (gender, age, education, and income) and 13 items regarding initiatives to promote tourism in the region based on criteria used in national-level research (ATTA, 2012). Visitors were asked, "Would these initiatives encourage you to visit the Chattanooga area more often?" Then visitors marked five point likert scale items, 1 = no, 5 = absolutely, corresponding to the 13 following descriptions, "more events like RiverRocks", "a better greenway system (bike trails, etc.)", "a better general infrastructure (road, services)", "better access to equipment for outdoor activities", "a more vibrant downtown", "a more unique local character/charm", "less crime", "more cultural/artistic activities", "more environmental initiatives (sustainability, protected areas)", "local residents who were more accepting", "better equality for residents (race, gender, orientation, etc.)", and "a more tolerant culture." Exploratory factor analysis, descriptive analyses and bivariate correlation analyses were conducted using SPSS.

### Results

The majority of visitors were White (88.5%), mean age was early 40s ( $M = 41.92$ ,  $SD = 13.12$ ), and gender, evenly split (51.6% male, 48.4% female). Forty percent of visitors completed a college education, 20.2% of visitors received a master's degree, and 11.2% received a doctoral degree. Exploratory factor analysis resulted in a factor (KMO value = .931, eigenvalue above 1, factor loadings from .634 to .890). Thus two descriptive analyses for male and female visitors with descending means was conducted. The top five initiatives for male visitors were: 1) more

events ( $M = 4.00$ ,  $SD = 1.24$ ), 2) vibrant downtown ( $M = 3.87$ ,  $SD = 1.23$ ), 3) unique local character ( $M = 3.78$ ,  $SD = 1.29$ ), 4) less crime ( $M = 3.70$ ,  $SD = 1.42$ ), 5) cultural/artistic activities ( $M = 3.66$ ,  $SD = 1.29$ ). The highest five priorities for female visitors included: 1) more events ( $M = 3.83$ ,  $SD = 1.31$ ), 2) vibrant downtown ( $M = 3.62$ ,  $SD = 1.22$ ), 3) information about outdoor activities ( $M = 3.60$ ,  $SD = 1.26$ ), 4) unique local character ( $M = 3.58$ ,  $SD = 1.32$ ), 5) less crime ( $M = 3.51$ ,  $SD = 1.52$ ).

Bivariate correlation analyses indicated that among male visitors, age was significantly negatively associated with information about outdoor activities ( $r = -.24$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and vibrant downtown ( $r = -.29$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and income was significantly negatively associated with better access to equipment for outdoor activities ( $r = -.35$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Among female visitors, age was significantly negatively associated with information about outdoor activities ( $r = -.22$ ,  $p < .05$ ), better access to equipment for outdoor activities ( $r = -.32$ ,  $p < .01$ ), environmental initiatives ( $r = -.30$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and equality for residents ( $r = -.25$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

### **Discussion**

Compared with other research (Lamoureux, et al., 2010) the sample in this study was older ( $M = 42$  versus 35) and more educated (71% college graduates versus 63%), but demonstrated a similar gender ratio. Although a bivariate correlation indicated that older male visitors cared less about a vibrant downtown, special events and a vibrant downtown were the top two preferred initiatives regardless of gender. This highlights the multifaceted experience sought after by adventure tourists. While outdoor amenities are their main reason for travel, they also enjoy exploring a vibrant urban environment. Male visitors prioritized safety, infrastructure (e.g. less crime, better general infrastructure) and culture (e.g. unique local character, cultural/artistic activities, more tolerant residents), whereas female visitors prioritized information about outdoor activities and humanitarianism (e.g. environmental initiatives, and equality for residents). Older female visitors, however, reported a lower priority for humanitarian concerns. These findings, based on established criteria (ATDI, 2011), illustrate priorities for management and marketing to promote adventure tourism in this specific region.

This study also found that as both male and female visitors aged, information about outdoor activities dropped in priority. This may be due to previous experience with the activity and/or the region of travel. It could also be indicative of a lack of desire for novel experiences with age (Lepp & Gibson, 2003). In addition, wealthier males and older females had less need of access to equipment for outdoor activities. More than likely, older, wealthier tourists can afford their own equipment and have the ability to bring it with them.

### **Implications for Practice**

This study provides insight into the adventure tourism market and a comparison of regional data with that of a national scope. The findings suggest that regional data generally agree with broad market reports, but regional reports may be a better guide for specific planning priorities. Such information empowers practitioners to implement initiatives that enhance experiences for both tourists and residents. The main priorities identified in this study (more special events and a vibrant downtown) could certainly be mutually beneficial to tourists and residents. Neither of these priorities was identified in the other literature cited. When combined with tourism impact studies, these descriptive reports provide valuable information for planners seeking to allocate funds and resources.

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## **USING SOCIAL NETWORK ANALYSIS TO UNDERSTAND ORGANIZATIONAL COLLABORATIONS**

Martha Barnes, Brock University, Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies

The delivery of community recreational and sport opportunities is increasingly reliant on an organization's ability to pursue, manage and sustain partnerships, linkages, and other collaborative strategies (Boase, 2000; Thibault, Kikulis & Frisby, 2002; Cousens, Barnes, Stevens, Mallen & Bradish, 2006). This shift in delivery approach is also being advanced by policy makers who continue to emphasize the need to move beyond institutional silos when addressing complex societal issues and governments who have recognized the value of collaborations when undertaking capital infrastructure development (Simmonds, 2000). When considered together, it becomes evident that community recreation and sport organizations must first understand how they operate within a broader context to then be able to strengthen their position as a valuable community asset.

Networks, sometimes referred to as councils and/or coalitions are focused on problem-solving complicated issues, across sector boundaries, and allow for the measurement of multiple linkages. Social network analysis (SNA), which is embedded in network theory, allows the examination of relationships among organizations or individuals and the patterns and implications of these relationships (Wausserman & Fraust, 1994). SNA can have multiple purposes (i.e. as a statistical tool, a theoretical framework, and/or a form of coordination and governance) (Lewis, 2006). As institutional structures of community recreation and sport organizations vary (i.e. municipal government type to grassroots), so do networks. For example, networks can mimic formal institutions with hierarchies and objectives or in comparison; networks can replicate an informal arrangement where an invisible structure with few specific objectives guide the work (Ziakas & Costa, 2010). The value of SNA is that it allows us to understand and quantify the collaborative relationships that shape the delivery of community recreation in our communities. Examples of collaborative action include the sharing of information, referrals, and resources (i.e. facilities space, staff, etc.), joint marketing strategies, legitimacy and fundraising initiatives (Amis & Slack, 2003; Provan et al., 2005; Stockdale & Williams, 2007). Once providers understand how collaborations work, they can develop strategies to establish and/or strengthen key collaborative relationships.

### **Methods**

To illustrate the use of SNA in understanding collaborations, a subset (swimming) of a larger research study which examined collaboration in community recreation and sport (i.e. basketball and swimming) in Ontario, Canada is used. Provan et al.'s (2005) survey which assessed the level of coordination amongst chronic disease providers was adapted to reflect a community sport context. For the study, linkages were operationalized as sharing information, resources, marketing, and fundraising – all collaborative strategies that can strengthen recreation and sport delivery. Swimming providers were identified in multiple ways: contacting key individuals; researching regional websites; and linking with the contact for the swim network group that operated in the region of twelve municipalities. Surveys were collected in paper format, and electronically through a web-based platform (i.e. survey monkey). The response rate was 75% (18 out of a possible 24 organizations involved in swimming) satisfying the statistical requirements suggested by Provan and Milward (2001). Measures of density and centrality were computed using the network software program Ucinet 6, (Borgatti et al., 2002) and then the relationships were mapped using NetDraw.

## **Findings**

Organizations in this network included the lifesaving society (n=1), dedicated swim programs (profit and non-profit) (n=5), municipalities (n=8), a YMCA (n=1), higher education (n=1), a health organization (n=1), and a regional aquatics group (n=1). Figure 1 and 2 illustrate the data for how the organizations in the network shared resources and shared information, respectively. Each organization is represented by a circle; and lines connecting circles (i.e. organizations) indicate relationships. In other words, the lines illustrate which organizations share resources and/or information. But, the network maps also illustrate how organizations interact. For example, shorter lines linking organizations indicate a denser and more connected network with an easier pattern of sharing. As well, the large circles (i.e. actors/organizations) indicate multiple relationships which translate into a powerful, central position in the network. Organizations which hold these central positions tend to function as gatekeepers for the overall network. The results of Figure 1 indicate that there are three main actors/organizations (higher education, the lifesaving society, and a regional aquatics group) that control much of the resources in the network. There is also very little evidence of inter-sectoral, and/or inter-municipal collaboration given the high number of non-reciprocal relationships. In other words, in a region with 12 municipalities in close proximity, there is little sharing of resources. Figure 2 illustrates how information is shared and depicts a situation where the key actors are not as prominent and there is much more communication occurring between municipalities. Figure 2 also illustrates a clear separation between municipalities and swim programs. To strengthen the relationships between actors/organizations in this network, it is important to start encouraging actors/organizations to share information and resources with each other – and not to rely on the key actors/organizations to do all their communicating and brokering for them.

## **Discussion and Implications**

By examining the ways in which organizations link with other organizations using SNA, valuable insights are gained and strategic directions can be identified. A key finding with this work is that the same organizations can behave in different ways based on the linkage (i.e. information versus resources). For example, with respect to swimming, municipalities do not tend to share resources with other municipalities, but municipalities do share information. The implications of SNA lie in its ability to translate statistical analysis into user friendly maps which can be shared with community groups, organizations, and network members as a starting point in discussing collaborations and then strengthening collaborations. Leading scholars in the area of SNA have found this step in the research process to be essential to strengthening networks (Provan et al., 2004). When organizations see their network visually, they can see which organizations are on the outskirts (far from the largest circle), which organizations are the central actor(s), and to what extent linkages are being shared. It also becomes apparent where there are weaknesses and/or gaps in the network that can be addressed.

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Figure 1: Shared Resources

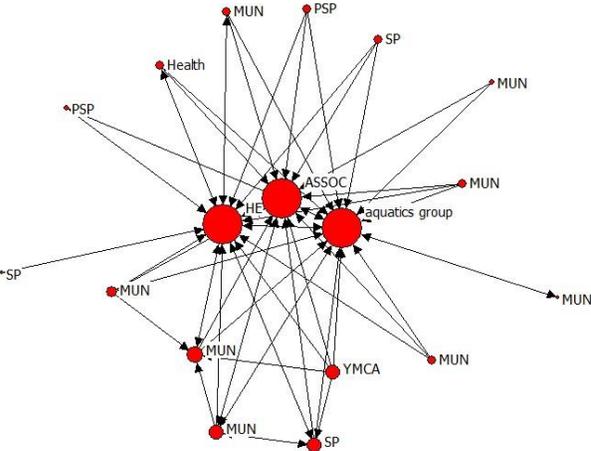
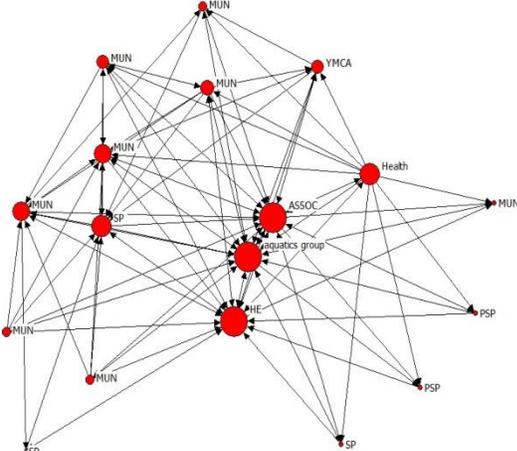


Figure 2: Shared Information



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# **CULTURAL YOUTH DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS FOR AFRICAN AMERICAN GIRLS**

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## **Introduction**

Many African American (AA) youth face challenges (i.e., poverty, violence, racism, etc.) during their development (Pinckney, et al., 2011). As a result, since the 1970s many parents, educators, religious leaders and youth leaders have turned to Afrocentric Rites of Passage (ROP) programs to prepare youth to transition from childhood to young adulthood through positive cultural identity development (West-Olatunji et al., 2008). These programs have typically followed the general model described by Genepp (1960). ROP programs are seen as a powerful means to provide an alternative path of socialization that neutralizes the negative patterns induced by the social forces that continue to marginalize AA youth in U.S. society. Within this process ROP programs serve to cultivate an understanding of, and commitment to, values and behaviors that can foster positive outcomes for both the individual and his/her reference group. Although there are several sources from which the values that are promoted through ROP programs have been drawn, Afrocentric thought is the most widely used framework for values education within ROPs serving AA youth. This framework adopts Africa and African concepts as the focal point of the belief system (Warfield-Coppock, 1990). One feature of Afrocentric thought is the interconnection with the ancestral past and the importance of relationships within the family, community and ethnic group. However, there is not a great deal of research on the ways in which these relationships inform positive identity development among AA girls in ROP programs. The purpose of this study was to examine the influence youth-adult relationships in ROP programs have on the identity development of AA girls.

## **Methods**

Efforts were made to choose programs in the US with varied characteristics including mission/goals, program size, training type, adult-youth leadership relationships, geographic classification, and funding level. Data was collected during Fall of 2012 with ten sites located in Houston, TX (2); Dallas, TX; Harlem, NY; Newark, NJ; Atlanta, GA; Miami, FL; Queen Creek, AZ; Stamford, CT and Little Rock, AK were identified. Fourteen focus groups with AA girls aged 8 – 18 years old were conducted to provide insight on the meaning and quality of staff and participant interactions.

## **Results**

Three themes related to the development of positive identity were identified. *Promotion of Positive Relationships.* All of the ROP programs that participated in the study incorporated specific activities to foster positive youth-adult relationships for all youth. One ROP participant described her adult leaders by saying: “*The women are so welcoming and loving, and caring. Nurturing, just wonderful people. You can be down and they know exactly what’s wrong. They actually treat you like you belong here and you’re here for a reason, not just another person would.*” The importance of peer relationships were emphasized as well. Another youth participant spoke about both the relationship she had with her peers in the program as well as her relationship with the adult leaders: “*Okay, for me, I really enjoy Rites of Passage because I’m an only child, ...It was nice being in a program where you can just talk, and you know that someone is going to listen, and someone is going to help you.*” The development of positive relationships

with both peers and adults in the program was shown to occur through the connection of common experiences and issues throughout their development. *Understanding of Cultural History*. A number of the ROP programs focused on African-American and African history lessons. African history was used as a tool by adult leaders to engage the youth on positive identity development. *"I learned more about African History, social skills, entrepreneurship, leadership skills, and fundraising skills."* Another participant said, *"I learned more about myself, and I got to travel to Africa."* These history lessons fostered an understanding of not only the African diaspora which indicates that all people of African descent are connected in some way, but it also provided the girls in the program to reflect on who they are based on their ancestors and to reject negative stereotypes. One participant stated, *"I learned to be who I am because who I am is a very great person. I come from a great people and should not be ashamed of it."* *Development of Self*. The girls in the ROP programs had a great deal to say about how their participation in the program has influenced how they view themselves. One participant reported, *"It gave me a sense of who I am and what I am really worth. It helped to build my self confidence and to learn to trust others because these friendships and bonds can last for a lifetime"* and *"It helped me with peer pressure and helped me to learn how to respect myself."* Many of the study participants were able to reflect on their development of self and how it was informed and/or fostered by the adult leaders in their program. It is specifically important to shed light on how they spoke about the transformations they went through due to their program participation.

### **Discussion**

As African-American girls transition into adulthood, they face many challenges in relation to the positive development of their identities. The influence of the mass media as well as peers shape the ways in which young African-American girls view themselves and each other (Pinckney, et al., 2011). The results of this study showed that African-American girls are constantly negotiating their identities but also learning from the adults in their lives about the importance of viewing oneself in a positive light. With this being said, one could argue that these youth-adult relationships serve as a protective factor for many African-American girls (Rhodes, 2004). These relationships also assist African-American girls in their transition into adulthood by providing them with spaces to discuss and foster positive ideals of self and each other. In conclusion, based on the experiences of African-American girls in recreational ROP programs, positive relationships, understanding of cultural history, and the development of self all contribute to positive identity development.

### **Implications for Practice**

Knowledge of self and culture is crucial for youth to develop in order to face the many challenges that exist in their lives (Pinckney, et al., 2011). However, many African American youth experience low levels of Black identity and until this identity is enhanced, youth may develop a negative sense of self and could possibly internalize some of the negative images presented to them by the media. This shows how critical understanding your cultural background and developing a positive view of oneself is to the development of African American youth. Afrocentric Rites of Passage programs can help promote cultural awareness and affirming identities among African American youth.

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## **THE ROLE OF TRAVEL CONDITIONS IN ORGANIZING SPORT EVENTS**

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As traveling to and hosting amateur sports events has grown over the past decade scholarly and practitioner attention has similarly developed. In particular, events for running, cycling and triathlon have become popular. Getz (2008) advanced the concept of the event travel career to help researchers in this area extend our understanding of the motives and travel behaviors associated with this style of physically active leisure. Drawing on the concepts of serious leisure (Stebbins, 1992) and travel careers (Pearce, 2005), Getz suggested these event travel careers are likely to be characterized by an evolution in motivations and preferences for event participation and associated patterns of travel. Developing this idea further, Buning and Gibson (2015) advanced the term Active Sport Event Travel Career (ASETC) in the context of event cycling which they defined “as a career like pattern of involvement and commitment to event-related travel and participation in physically active sport events, which leads to progression through time in regards to motivations, preferences, and modified behavior” (pp.3-4.). Buning and Gibson (2015) found that individual travel behavior was more dependent on travel conditions rather than career progression. Travel conditions are the circumstances surrounding a particular trip such as traveling with family or the travel distance associated with a specific event or destination characteristics of the community hosting the event. Previous research on amateur athletes suggests event criteria are paramount while destination criteria are relatively unimportant in influencing event-travel and choosing to participate in a specific event. (Bull, 2006; Chalip & McGurty, 2004). The purpose of this study was to explore the influence of travel conditions on preferred event participation choices and travel behavior utilizing a mixed methods design.

### **Methods**

Following the development of a grounded theory model using a qualitative approach, the current study investigated ASETCs through quantitative methods. Two research questions were posed: (1) Does the presence of a non-cycling travel companion or travel distance change preferences for participation in a particular event or the associated destination characteristics? (2) Does the presence of a non-cycling travel companion change preferences for travel style? A questionnaire was developed consisting of items identified in the qualitative phase and adapted from Getz & McConnell (2011) measuring preferences for event-related (22-items), destination-related (10-items), and travel-style characteristics (12-items). The questionnaire was distributed on-line to an international sample of amateur cyclists using social networks, organizational affiliations, and industry associations. A sample of  $n=1190$  responses from 49 states and eight countries resulted. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 85 ( $M=52.03$ ,  $SD=13.446$ ) and 1 month to 60 years of cycling travel experience ( $M=12.42$ ,  $SD=9.97$ ). Analysis consisted of three steps.

### **Results**

First, a series of repeated measure one-way ANOVAs were conducted to compare the preferred event characteristics (22-items) across three travel conditions: (1) traveling solo/with other cyclists, (2) traveling with non-cyclists, and (3) traveling more than four hours one-way. The differences in the event items based on travel conditions were statistically significant for 21 of the 22 event items. 21 of the event items were rated as less important when traveling with non-cyclists as only the single item ‘a recommendation to attend the event from someone I trust’ was higher when traveling with non-cyclists. Further, five items were rated as the most important when traveling more than four hours one-way. Second, a series of repeated measure ANOVAs

were conducted to compare preferred destination characteristics (10-items) across the three travel conditions. The differences in the destination items based on the travel conditions were statistically significant for 9 of the 10 items except the single item 'the destination is scenic',  $F(1, 622) = 2.79, p = .096$ . Pairwise comparisons revealed four items were more important when traveling with non-cyclists and four items were rated as more important when traveling more than four hours one-way. Lastly, a paired samples t-test was conducted to evaluate the changes in travel style preferences (12-items) across two travel conditions: with a non-cycling travel companion and solo/with other cyclists. A significant difference at the  $p < .05$  level was found between the travel conditions for 10 of the travel style items. Six of the travel style items (e.g., luxury lodging, visit family/friends) were rated as more important when traveling with non-cyclists, while four items were rated as more important when traveling solo/with other cyclists (e.g., ability to drive to the event, combine with a vacation)

### **Discussion**

Contrary to previous research (Getz, 2008; Getz & McConnell, 2011) the current study found travel behavior is more of an outcome related to the conditions associated with the travel rather than career progression. The results indicated an individual's event, destination, and travel style preferences are dependent on whether he or she was traveling with a non-cyclist (e.g., family) and the distance traveled. For example, several event preferences were less important when traveling with non-cyclists and more important when traveling more than four hours (e.g., website quality, event/course safety). Still, when participants were traveling solo or with cyclists, they favored other event preferences (e.g., low fees, scenery) compared to other travel conditions. Thus, individuals tend to diminish the importance of some event attributes when traveling with non-cyclists, but become more critical of certain event attributes when traveling further away from home. Although, Getz and McConnell (2011) argue attractive destinations have "a comparative advantage", the findings here suggest attractive destinations only become advantageous if the participants are traveling with non-cyclists or longer distances. The majority of destination preferences except scenery, terrain, and safety became more important when traveling with non-cyclists or more than four hours. Travel style was largely dependent on travel conditions as participants altered their travel style to accommodate the interests of a non-cyclist. If participants were traveling solo/with other cyclists, they preferred traveling with friends, budget lodging, and driving. However, once a non-cyclist was added, the participants shifted their travel style towards luxury accommodations and staying with friends or family.

### **Implications for Practice**

Events and destinations should seek to market and organize events in regards to the family dynamics and experience of their potential participants. Destination and event managers seeking to expand the travel distance of their potential participants should focus on the identified event characteristics (e.g., uniqueness) that promote this behavior. Further, if destination and event managers are seeking to increase the economic impact of their event then it should be organized and marketed to individuals traveling with non-cyclists (e.g., family members). For individuals travelling with non-cyclists, attractive destination criteria is often more important than event characteristics so events should be not only be organized around the participants, but also their companions. Communities seeking to attract tourists should leverage participatory sport events as a form of sustainable tourism and community development.

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# **SPATIAL CHARACTERISTICS SUPPORTING PHYSICAL ACTIVITY OF PARKS**

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Following with the advance of technology, the need for body movements has reduced significantly. While enjoying the convenience, lifestyles have tended to become sedentary. Based on the survey of World Health Organization (WHO) (2013), the lack of physical activity is the fourth risk factor for mortality globally; causing estimated over 3 million deaths every year. Participating in regular medium level activities such as walking and bicycling can promote health, reduce the chance to suffer from cardiac disease, diabetes, colon cancer, metabolic syndrome, and depressive disorder as well as the risk of bone fracture. Based on the social ecological research framework, studies have indicated how the physical environments can create constrains and chances for people to perform physical activity. Parks and green spaces are vital environments for residential quality. However, from the angle of park planning and design, more research efforts are needed for the catch of spatial principles and pattern languages that can provide park professionals information to achieve parks' role as a supportive setting promoting health behaviors. Thus, the purpose of this study was to investigate the park design factors that relate to healthy behavior in populated, mixed-use urban environments. Based on individual responses to environmental information, this study explored the park space characteristics that influence physical activity. It targeted on investigating the association between the spatial characteristics regarding park planning and design and the function of activity magnitude and participation.

## **Methods**

Based on the research design, the data collection had two parts. One was the collection of physical activity performance. This part used SOPARC (System for Observing Play and Recreation in Communities) (McKenzie, 2006), which was a triangulation survey method, conducting non-participatory, structured, direct, naturalistic observation and momentary time sampling technique. This tool was designed to catch the behavioral characteristics of performed physical activities in park settings. The other part of the collection focused on the corresponding spatial characteristics in parks. This part referenced EAPRS (Environmental Assessment of Public Recreation Spaces) (Saelens et al., 2006) to develop the space survey instrument. The purpose was to select the effective park design factors for health benefit in dense urban environment. The result might contribute to the practices of park planning and design for healthy environment.

In total, 18 parks were surveyed with 220 identified target areas. The sampled parks were located in Chiayi, Taiwan. Based on the park condition, the investigators selected items from EAPR, such as the activity facility features, accessibility features, maintenance condition, microclimate data, regional population, land use, automotive transportation, terrain, vegetation, and other items to record the park content information. The parks' 2D site plans were constructed in AutoCAD 2014 and ArcGIS10 was used for analyses. The spatial characteristics included such as shape, size, view shed, openness, connectedness and other spatial features.

Physical activities were recorded using counters and SOPARC coding form that included gender (female, male), age group (child, teen, adult, senior), and activity level (sedentary, walking, vigorous). Spatial Correlation technique was used to analyze the associations between the characteristics of the target areas in park settings and physical activities conducted.

## **Results and Discussions**

The findings showed that walking in a corridor shape space was the physical activity mostly performed by adults and seniors in park settings. Park users demanded for paved path in a relatively opened space for fast walking as exercise. Also outdoor training and stretch facilities were highly used by adults. The area of parks positively associated with the diversity of activity types and area was also a significant factor for activity magnitude. The larger the park area the higher the potential vigorous activity was performed by adults in the park. Children and the young often performed physical activities in their plays or social activities in groups around playground or square shape area with shade. Whether the design could create comfortable microclimate, especially on the atmosphere temperature, showed an effect on the use of the space for physical activity.

Because vegetation was an important landscape element that forms and shapes spaces, the arrangement of vegetation could relate to multiple spatial characteristics such as brightness, connectedness, openness, naturalness, and sense of privacy that can have influences on people's choice for physical activity. The openness of the space was related to the type of the physical activity performed. Openness was not always a preferred spatial characteristic for conducting physical activity. Spaces that had a proper spatial scale with approximately half visibility from other people may keep a sense of privacy and thus indicated higher potential for a small group and an individual's choice than the space that was completely exposed. Park facilities that provided clues of physical activities, such as outdoor training equipment, effectively increased the diversity of activity types and magnitude levels in a non-corridor shape target area. If the maintenance condition was above average, the findings showed no difference for the space choice. Parks that surrounded by major roads receive more park users, wider age spectrum, and more diverse activity types during the night time than the parks surrounded by minor roads.

### **Implications for Practice**

People are sensitive to environment. When planning and design a park space, professionals may consider designing: (1) linear corridor shape space to promote prevalent walking, running, and biking activity; (2) vegetation also as the instrument to mitigate the microclimate factors; (3) spaces with a balance with the sense of privacy and openness; (4) equipment to provide resources that correspond with popular activities and create opportunities for the new and fresh activities to engage people to use parks as their health fort.

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# **IMPACTS OF WORK-RELATED SMARTPHONE USE ON WORK-LEISURE CONFLICT, STRESS, & SATISFACTION**

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There is little research on technology's impact on leisure behavior and work-life balance, although this topic has received attention in mass media outlets. The wireless connectivity facilitated by the smartphone coupled with its enhanced functionality has changed how, when and where employees communicate and complete work-related tasks (Derks, van Mierlo, & Schmitz, 2014). In order to meet the increasing expectations from employers and customers regarding availability, many employees feel obligated to respond promptly to work-related messages and issues even after hours or weekends (Yun, Kettinger, & Lee, 2012). Therefore, even though the use of smartphone can potentially contribute to work flexibility and productivity, more and more employees find it difficult to disconnect themselves from work (Derks et al., 2014; Yun et al., 2012). This phenomenon has implications for leisure and work-life balance.

Several negative impacts of work-related smartphone use on the workplace as well as the family and personal life have been identified (Derks & Bakker, 2012). Many smartphone users engage in continual communication and monitoring, which might lead to work overload and stress (Yun et al., 2012). As an increasing number of people use smartphone for work purposes after hours or on weekends, another downside of smartphone use is that it blurs the boundary between work and non-work domains, which might obstruct the process of stress recovery and pose challenges in managing work-life balance (Derks et al., 2014).

This research intends to examine the impacts of work-related smartphone use on work-leisure conflict, work stress, and life satisfaction. As shown in Figure 1, it is hypothesized that work overload due to smartphone use should contribute to the work conflict with leisure, and then lead to increased work stress and decreased life satisfaction. This research also examines a potential solution for this issue. Organizations can establish a strong segmentation culture that helps employees detach themselves from work demands. It is thus hypothesized that segmentation culture should have a mitigating effect on the negative impacts of smartphone use.

## **Methods**

A total of six variables were assessed in this study using existing scales, including: (1) the work overload due to smartphone use and segmentation culture scales adopted from Yun et al.(2012), (2) the time-based and strain-based work conflict with leisure scales adopted from Tsaur, Liang, and Hsu (2012), (3) the work stress scale adopted from Fritz and Sonnentag (2006), and (4) the life satisfaction scale from Diener, Emmons, and Larson (1985). Regarding sampling, Taiwanese smartphone users who were aged 18 to 54 were considered to be the target population. In order to obtain a representative sample, respondents were selected from a survey company's database based on their gender, age, and residence. As a result, a total of 500 respondents completed the survey from May to June, 2014.

## **Results**

As can be seen from Figure 1, two structural models were established. The first model included time-based work-leisure conflict as the mediator between two predictors (work overload and segmentation culture) and two outcome variables (work stress and life satisfaction). The second model had strain-based work-leisure conflict as the mediator with the same

predictors and outcome variables. The results of structural equation modeling (SEM) showed that work overload due to smartphone use had significant effects on time-based work conflict with leisure ( $\beta=.53$ ;  $p<.001$ ) and strain-based work conflict with leisure ( $\beta=.55$ ;  $P<.001$ ). It was also found that work-leisure conflict increased work stress (time-based:  $\beta=.51$ ;  $P<.001$ ; strain-based:  $\beta=.24$ ;  $P<.001$ ) and decreased life satisfaction (time-based:  $\beta=-.19$ ;  $P<.001$ ; strain-based:  $\beta=-.25$ ;  $P<.001$ ). Overall, the total effects of work overload on stress were found to be greater (time-based:  $\beta=.27$ ; strain-based:  $\beta=.42$ ) than the total effects of work overload on life satisfaction (time-based:  $\beta=-.10$ ; strain-based:  $\beta=-.14$ ). Moreover, the proposed mitigating effects of segmentation culture on the negative impacts of work-related smartphone use were demonstrated. The results showed that segmentation culture also had greater total effects on work stress (time-base:  $\beta=-.10$ ; strain-based:  $\beta=-.11$ ) than life satisfaction (time-base:  $\beta=.04$ ; strain-based:  $\beta=.04$ ).

### **Discussion**

Given the proliferation of smartphone use as well as the potential problems of work-related smartphone use after work (Derks et al., 2014; Yun et al., 2012), this research examined the impacts of work-related smartphone use on work-leisure conflict, work stress, and life satisfaction. Derived from a sample of 500 Taiwanese employees aged 18 to 54, the research findings showed that the extra workload resulting from smartphone use can prevent employees from participating in leisure activities, leading to increased work stress and decreased life satisfaction. It was also found that the negative impacts of work-related smartphone use can be mitigated by establishing a work-home segmentation culture in the organization.

### **Implications for Practice**

These findings have several implications. First, as leisure and recreation scholars have made concerted efforts to examine how the use of free time can contribute to an individual's health and wellness (Bowen, Driver, & Peterson, 1992), this research further demonstrates that the extra workload resulting from smartphone use can be a serious drain on our free time, which deserves further investigation. Moreover, since an organization's policies and culture can be an important factor influencing how employees use their free time, it is argued that future leisure studies should pay more attention to the conflict between human resources policies and free time use. Second, it is important for managers and employers to know the dark side of work smartphone use – it can lead to increased stress and decreased life satisfaction. Both outcomes can eventually have a negative impact on work productivity (Mughal, Walsh, & Wilding, 1996). It is thus recommended that every organization should establish a strong segmentation norm to help employees detach from work demands after hours and on weekends. Finally, the study results also indicate that it is important for leisure and recreation service providers to encourage people to be totally unplugged from work when participating in leisure and recreation activities. Further research should examine other outcome variables such as leisure satisfaction and physical and/or mental health.

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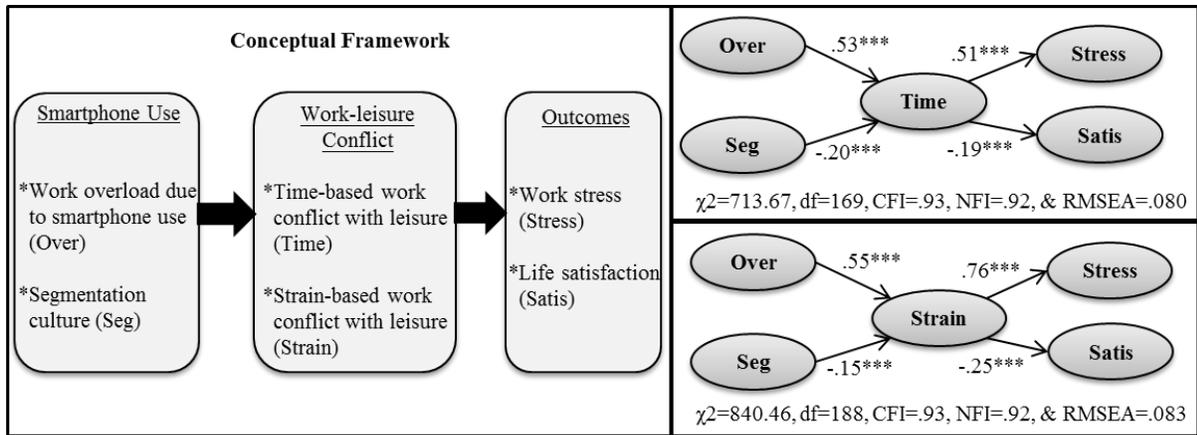


Figure 1: The Conceptual Framework & Results of the Study

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# **CONSTRAINTS TO PARTICIPATION IN INTRAMURALS: COMPARISON BETWEEN INTERNATIONAL AND NON-INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS**

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## **Introduction**

The expectation of students regarding college life has become an important consideration for administrators of higher education institutions as the population of college students continues to increase. In particular, there has been a rise in concerns surrounding healthier lifestyles among college student populations. Enrollment at higher education institutions in the US was 21 million in the fall 2011, and is expected to increase to 24 million by 2021. Additionally, enrollment of international students has been rapidly increasing within these same institutions (Snyder & Dillow, 2013). As the populations of international students continues to grow within US colleges, the boundary between international and non-international students is getting smaller. However, international students have been affected by the various constraints they face in their college life with regard to education, social relationships, cultural and economic differences, and ethnic discrimination. Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991) classified the three leisure constraints factors as interpersonal, intrapersonal or structural leisure constraints in nature. Interpersonal constraints are connected to interactions through social relationships with others such as family, friends, coworkers and neighbors. Intrapersonal constraints refer to the individual's psychological barriers that arise within the individuals such as personality, attitudes or moods. Structure constraints include factors such as external conditions, the lack of opportunities, time barriers or the financial limitations.

## **Purpose of Study**

This research study intends to determine 1) whether differences exist in participation in competitive activities and experience of intramural activities between international and non-international student, 2) how leisure constraints (intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints) affect participation in intramural activities and 3) if there are significant differences between international and non-international students on leisure constraints to participation in intramural activities.

## **Methodology**

A total of 291 participants responded this survey on a university campus in southwestern city in the United States during two different periods in 2013. Of these responses, 273 (international: 77, non-international: 196) were deemed useful for this research.

The survey consisted of three main sections comprised of: three participation questions to determine degree of involvement in competitive leisure activities in general or university intramural activities; 17 leisure constraints questions; and two demographic questions. Leisure constraints questions in the instrument were based on the Shifman and colleagues' (2011) instruments of leisure constraints that followed Crawford et al's (1991) hierarchical model. Validity of this instrument for the 17 constraints questions was confirmed by a panel of experts composed of faculty members with experience with constraint research. Reliability was evaluated by Cronbach alpha which is an accepted method when using the Likert scale. The researchers employed the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 20 (SPSS 20) to calculate the internal consistency of the 17 leisure constraints items. Results indicated that these were reliable (Cronbach's alpha = 0.893).

## **Results**

Results revealed that international students had significantly lower frequency of participation in competitive activities [ $t(1, 271) = -2.308; p < .05$ ] and lower experience of intramural activities [ $t(1, 271) = 2.850; p < .01$ ]. The mean of all three leisure constraints were higher in international students than non-international students. Five point is the highest leisure constraints that indicated intrapersonal (international: 2.43, non-international students: 2.06), interpersonal (international: 2.02, non-international students: 1.89), and structural constraints (international: 2.68, non-international students: 2.16). In addition, international students had significantly higher intrapersonal [ $t(1, 271) = 3.049; p < .01$ ] and structural constraints [ $t(1, 271) = 4.993; p < .001$ ] than non-international students.

## **Discussion**

The results support that international students have higher constraints to participate in intramural activities (Shifman et al., 2011; Walker, Jackson & Deng, 2007). Shifman and colleagues (2011) found that interpersonal constraints were the highest among international student and they also presented significantly higher intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints in comparison to non-international students. Walker et al. (2007) found international students had more constraints of interpersonal and intrapersonal compared to non-international students. However, results of the research presented in this paper show that structural constraints were the highest constraints among international students and intrapersonal and structural constraints were significantly higher when compared with non-international students. Young, Ross and Barcelona (2003) recommended free instructional sport-specific clinics that would allow international students to be more comfortable with a particular sport activities and feel less self-conscious to participate in intramural activities. In addition, international students might need much more time for their academic responsibilities, and/or work obligations as graduate assistants or student employees. Administrators would consider reducing international students' structural constraints such as providing short duration activity programs or activities that occur later in the evening or during the weekends. It is important to consider that the study cannot be generalized to the population of international students in all American colleges, but it does suggest that there need to be additional research efforts. Further studies should consider researching specific intrapersonal and structural constraints and how these affect the motivation of international students to participate in intramural sports. Similar cross-sectional studies through campuses in other regions of the US are needed to seek out more generalized results in the international student population in the US.

## **Implications for practice**

The findings and conclusions from this study should be considered by practitioners in the development of strategies to make intramural sports more attractive and accessible. In some cases, determining the international population demographics could allow for competitive sports that would cater to this particular group. However, if the practitioner were to consider the findings of this study in their programming strategy it would be necessary to survey the population of participants to determine interest in specific competitive activities. Furthermore, previous research by the program administrator on the cultural characteristics of the nationalities with greater representation can give insights to the practitioner as to which sports and activities could be of interest to the international population.

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Table 1

*Means, Standard Deviation Independent Samples T-Test Scores for Competitive activities and Experience of Intramural Activities: Comparison International and Non-international Students*

	International		Non-international		t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Frequency of Competitive activities	2.06	.976	2.37	1.081	-2.308*
Experience of Intramural	1.71	.456	1.54	.500	2.850**

Note: \*p < .05; \*\*p < .01; \*\*\* p < .001

Table 2

*Means, Standard Deviation Independent Samples T-Test Scores for constraints: Comparison International and Non-international Students*

Constraints	International		Non-international		t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Intrapersonal	2.429	.947	2.057	.889	3.049**
Interpersonal	2.021	.821	1.889	.755	1.286
Structural	2.680	.765	2.162	.772	4.993***

Note: \*p < .05; \*\*p < .01; \*\*\* p < .001

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## **DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF A NOSTALGIA SCALE FOR SPORT TOURISM: A MULTILEVEL APPROACH**

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The concept of nostalgia is complex and difficult to measure, and emotional perspectives regarding nostalgia are diverse. Chase and Shaw (1989) mentioned that people have a desire to return to the past, particularly individuals who live in modern society, as they tend to miss the past and want to escape from complex and busy environments. In the same context, nostalgia plays an important role in explaining and understanding consumers and tourists. Havlena and Holak (1996) and Holak, Havlena, and Matveev (2006) suggested a classification of nostalgia and scale of nostalgia from the perspective of the consumer. However, since their scale is mainly focused on consumer behavior, it is not appropriate to measure the phenomenon in the sport tourism field. To measure the concept of nostalgia in the context of sport tourism, the unique features of sport should be considered, such as sport-specific atmosphere, personal identity, group rituals, norms, irrational passion of fans, limited availability, vicarious identification, and competitive balance (Edwards, 1973; Fairley, 2003; Hinch & Higham, 2001; Kelly, 1982; Stewart & Smith, 1999; Urich & Benkenstein, 2010). Furthermore, Holak et al. conducted factor analysis to develop the nostalgia scale. However, there are two drawbacks of Holak et al.'s research. First of all, in their research, the initially developed questionnaire contains thirty one items, including twenty one items for personal nostalgia, two items for interpersonal nostalgia, four items for cultural nostalgia, and four items for virtual nostalgia. From the results of factor analysis, there are four factors. However, they did not name each factor and the items of each section such as personal nostalgia, interpersonal nostalgia, cultural nostalgia, and virtual nostalgia are not loaded on the same factor. For example, among 21 items of personal nostalgia, six items are loaded on factor one, and one item each is loaded on factors two, three and four. Second, Holak et al.'s scale showed low reliability. Among four factors in the Holak et al. study,  $\alpha$  values of factor three and factor four are lower than .7, and they did not conduct any validity tests. Therefore, even though the scale of nostalgia was developed by Holak et al., the nostalgia scale needs to be developed in the context of sport tourism and the uniqueness of sport should be considered to better understand sport-specific nostalgia. The aim of this study is to develop a Nostalgia Scale for Sport Tourism (NSST) based on previous research in the field of sport tourism. The multilevel approach was employed to develop NSST, which is a useful method to analyze hierarchically structured data (Julian, 2001; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002, Snijders & Bosker, 1994). For example, most people attend football games with a group, and individuals in the same group share common characteristics or perceptions with their group members. This can be considered the hierarchical structure, since each individual is nested within each group. The hierarchically structured data should be analyzed using the multilevel analysis as the single-level analysis generates more biased results because of the shared common characteristics within groups (Byrne, 2006; Muthén, 1994; Reise, Ventura, Nuechterlein, & Kim, 2005).

### **Method/Results**

This study referenced Menor and Roth's (2007) scale development procedure to develop a valid and reliable Nostalgia Scale for Sport Tourism (NSST). Specifically, there are seven

procedures to develop a measurement: 1) specify theoretical domain and operational definitions of constructs, 2) generate items, 3) purify and pretest items, 4) questionnaire development, 5) survey data collection, 6) confirmatory analyses, 7) item and scale refinement. The first and second stages of Menor and Roth's process are covered by the preceding literature review. Through literature review, items of each domain were developed to prepare an initial questionnaire. Initially 69 items were developed from the four different concepts, including nostalgia, motivation, identity theory, and social identity theory, since the concept of nostalgia has a comprehensive nature and is closely related to the notion of sport fan motivation, identity theory, and social identity theory. After developing the initial questionnaire, Q-sort and expert review were conducted to provide evidence of face validity and content validity in the third stage. The third stage is also included in the process of pilot testing. From the results of Q-sort (20 items were deleted which presented low (0%-20%) consensus percentages), expert review (16 items were reworded or modified, and six items were deleted), and pilot test (14 items were deleted), 40 out of 69 items were dropped, and 29 items were used in the main study (fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh stages). This study used the systematic sampling technique for gathering the data, and 985 responses were collected at five Clemson home football games. The total response rate was 84.7%. Before conducting multilevel CFA, an Intra-class Correlation Coefficient (ICC) was examined to identify whether multilevel CFA is necessary or not. The ICC is the ratio of the between group variance to total variance (Muthén, 1989, 1991). Muthén (1997) stated that multilevel analysis is required if the ICC values are larger than 0.1. ICC values of most variables are greater than .1 except one variable. It means that more than 10 % the variance in responses are due to group membership. Therefore, the multilevel CFA should be conducted to develop the NSST. This study found five factors of nostalgia: sport team, environment, socialization, personal identity, and group identity. The multilevel CFA model showed acceptable fit for the data (see Table 1). Next, this study assessed internal consistency of both level 1 (individual) and level 2 (group), convergent validity, discriminant validity, and criterion validity, and results were acceptable.

## **Discussion**

The main purpose of this study was to develop and test the Nostalgia Scale for Sport Tourism (NSST) based on theoretical based literature and conducting empirical tests. Weed (2008) noted that sport tourism has been advanced as a unique academic field by putting two separate concepts of sport and tourism together. Sport tourism has now been established as a unique concept. Furthermore, because of the uniqueness of sport, it is necessary to develop a nostalgia scale in the context of sport tourism. This study developed Nostalgia Scale for Sport Tourism (NSST) through a strict scale development process to provide theoretical basis, such as expert review, extensive literature review, q-sort, pilot study, a multilevel CFA, identifying a content, face, and criterion validity. Moreover, the scale demonstrated its convergent validity, discriminant validity, and internal consistency. The results indicated that the NSST has adequate psychometric properties. The developed scale required examinations in different settings to identify whether the scale presents consistent results. There is little empirical study of the relationship between nostalgia and other related constructs in the sport tourism field. Therefore, future research needs to measure nostalgia with diverse constructs.

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Table 1. The Measurement Model Fit Indices of Multilevel Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Model	Fit indices				
Values	$\chi^2$ (df)	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	NNFI
	1920.887 (734)	.072	.053	.918	.909

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## **SPORT AND NOSTALGIA: A CLASSIFICATION OF NOSTALGIA IN SPORT TOURISM**

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The concept of nostalgia can be considered as one type of memory, possessing its own unique characteristics. The definition of nostalgia differs depending on social situations, and many researchers have tried to define nostalgia from a variety of perspectives. Nostalgia was originally used as a medical term referring to disease of homesickness (Hofer, 1934). However, since the late 20<sup>th</sup> century, the meaning of nostalgia has changed from a medical disease to an individual's emotion and memory, so that today the usage of the word is not the same as it was in the past. It is now broadly understood to be a highly selective view of the past, and is almost certainly a positive view of that selective past, as juxtaposed with a negative or uncertain present and future (Davis, 1979). In other words, one's positive memories surely influence the evocation of nostalgia, and an individual's negative feelings for the present or future are also related to nostalgia, since a person cannot return to the past. Both positive and negative feelings are associated with nostalgia, and nostalgia is best described as a sentimental and bittersweet yearning for a positive and pleasant past.

Chase and Shaw (1989) noted that nostalgia is often a result of a rapidly changing social structure. Technological advances provide opportunities for sport consumers to experience current and previous games. For example, new high-definition video boards, handheld devices and apps, cameras (i.e., number of locations and angles and types like 3D), in-home surround sound, and viewing options (e.g., channels available, change camera angles, call up statistics, etc.) could provide a new potential direct experience regardless of physical location. Some may long for the past that they have experienced directly (Holak & Havlena, 1998), while others may feel nostalgic for a past experienced vicariously through pictures, photos, articles, and movies (Goulding, 2002; Havlena & Holak, 1991; Stern, 1992). Moreover, individuals could have positive emotions and memories from participating in sport or attending sporting events, and the diverse attractive features of sport lead individuals to experience nostalgia. Specifically, there are unique features of sport such as rules, the irrational passion of fans, competitive balance, vicarious identification, limited availability, physical exertion, group rituals, norms and sport-specific atmosphere (Edwards, 1973; Fairley, 2003; Hinch & Higham, 2001; Stewart & Smith, 1999; Uhrich & Benkenstein, 2010). The unique characteristics of sport could create the conditions for very specific categorizations of nostalgia and should be considered to better understand the notion of nostalgia in the context of sport. Even though a classification plays a significant role in measuring a concept, to date, a classification of nostalgia has not been suggested in the field of sport tourism, which could conceptually organize the notion of nostalgia. Therefore, this research develops the classification of nostalgia in the context of sport tourism.

### **Method/Results**

The suggested classification of nostalgia in this study was derived from previous literature related to nostalgia sport tourism (Davis, 1979; Gibson, 1998; Fairley, 2003; Fairley & Gammon, 2005; Gammon & Ramshaw; 2012), identity theory (Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995; McCall & Simmons 1966; Petkus, 1996; Stryker, 1968, 1980, 1987), and social identity theory (Festinger,

1954; Korte, 2007; Stets & Burke, 2000; Tajfel, 1970; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). The suggested classification of nostalgia in the context of sport tourism consists of two dimensions: (1) structure of nostalgia (object based nostalgia and interpersonal relationship based nostalgia) and (2) purpose of nostalgia (experience based nostalgia and identity based nostalgia) (see Table 2). Structure of nostalgia, the first dimension, suggests a structuralizing medium that generates nostalgia. Fairley and Gammon (2005) pointed out that nostalgia is engendered not only by sport objects but also by social experience. Thus, the structure of nostalgia is composed of object based nostalgia and interpersonal relationship based nostalgia. The second dimension, purpose of nostalgia, is to provide what people want to pursue and place a value based on their past experience. Nostalgia is evoked by one's positive memories of what he or she experienced in the past and also affects continuity of identity (Aden, 1995; Wilson, 2005). An individual can put one's value on the pursuit of nostalgic experience by itself and of verifying one's identity. These two dimensions provide a two by two matrix, and there is a four-way classification of nostalgia in sport tourism: (1) nostalgia as experience, (2) nostalgia as socialization, (3) nostalgia as personal identity, and (4) nostalgia as group identity (see Figure 1). The first factor is nostalgia as experience, and nostalgic feelings are evoked by sport objects, such as athletes, teams, places, facilities, and atmosphere. The second factor is nostalgia as socialization. A person feels nostalgia through diverse social interaction experiences including building friendships, socializing with others, and making new friends (e.g., tailgating). The third factor is nostalgia as personal identity. Nostalgia as personal identity could be explained based on identity theory. Individuals feel nostalgic recollections as they long for their past experiences (i.e., value and pride of being a fan, cheering a favorite team, etc.), which could identify who they are based on their role in sporting events. The last factor is nostalgia as group identity, which is based on social identity theory. Positive memories of individuals' group behavior (i.e., group rituals, norms, social bonding, etc.) evoke nostalgia.

### **Discussion**

In the field of sport tourism, nostalgia is an important factor to understand sport tourists' behavior. The emotional perspective regarding nostalgia is diverse, and the concept of nostalgia is greatly complicated and difficult to measure. Previous research have studied various issues of nostalgia, such as historical and personal nostalgia (Fairley, 2003; Goulding, 2002; Stern, 1992), level of nostalgia (Holbrook & Schindler, 1991), and private and collective nostalgia (Baker & Kennedy, 1994; Davis, 1979; Havlena & Holak, 1991; Snyder, 1991). However, a classification has not been developed yet, even though it could enhance understanding of the concept of nostalgia. Thus, to better understand the features of nostalgia in sport tourism, this research organized previous research on nostalgia and developed the classification of nostalgia which includes four factors that represent the notion of nostalgia in sport tourism. The findings of this study could provide the foundation to understand the concept of nostalgia in the field of sport tourism. Furthermore, this research will contribute to extending knowledge relating to nostalgia and increasing nostalgia-related research. The classification of nostalgia is a useful tool for analyzing an individual's nostalgic behavior. In addition, it can be used in both qualitative and quantitative research and lead to a better understanding of sports events attendees' nostalgic behavior.

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		Purpose of Nostalgia	
		Experience based Nostalgia	Identity based Nostalgia
Structure of Nostalgia	Object based Nostalgia	<b>Nostalgia as Experience</b>	<b>Nostalgia as Personal Identity</b>
	Interpersonal Relationship based Nostalgia	<b>Nostalgia as Socialization</b>	<b>Nostalgia as Group Identity</b>

Table 1. Classification of Nostalgia in the Context of Sport Tourism

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# **INCORPORATING ROLE IDENTITY INTO THE VOLUNTEER PROCESS MODEL**

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Ski resorts in the United States rely on over 23,000 dedicated and certified volunteer ski patrollers to serve as emergency care and safety service providers on ski slopes (Patrol). Previous research on volunteers has shown that for the average volunteer the act of volunteering changes their self-concept incorporating volunteerism into their self-identity. This role identity is related to increased commitment, positive volunteer intentions and behaviors (Grube & Piliavin, 2000; Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Stryker, 1980). Time spent volunteering leads to a strengthened identity as a volunteer, which often relates to and increases volunteer retention. The concept of role identity may be particularly salient for certified volunteers, such as National Ski Patrollers.

The Volunteer Process Model (VPM) suggests there are three stages to volunteering (Finkelstein, 2008). First, antecedents to the volunteer experience (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary et al., 1998; Omoto & Snyder, 2002); second, the experience itself; and third, the consequences of the volunteer experience (Snyder & Omoto, 1992).

It can be argued that another important consequence of volunteering is role identity. Role identity theory suggests volunteers who develop a strong sense of identity with their volunteering, are more likely to be more committed and increase their volunteering over time (Callero, Howard, & Piliavin, 1987; Grube & Piliavin, 2000). The role identity model contends that as one volunteers for an organization his/her commitment as a volunteer increases and one develops an identity to this role in one's life (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998; Stryker, 1980). The purpose of this paper is to assess the impacts of role identity on the Volunteer Process Model within the context of National Ski Patrol Volunteers.

## **Methods**

This cross-sectional quantitative study examined the volunteer membership of the National Ski Patrol. A stratified random sample based on National Ski Patrol geographic division from the National Ski Patrol database of volunteer patrollers was used. Of the 3340 individuals sampled, 747 completed the survey for a final response rate of 22.4%. In an effort to increase response rate a modified Dillman Method was utilized.

Utilizing the VPM framework, antecedents, volunteer experience, and consequences were operationalized in various ways. Motivations were operationalized using a modified version of the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) (Clary et al., 1998). To assess the volunteer experience items from the Volunteer Satisfaction Inventory (VSI) were used (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Two variables were included as consequences of the volunteer experience, volunteer role identity and the self-reported number of years patrolled as National Ski Patrollers. The five item role identity salience scale was used to operationalize role identity as being part of the participants 'self'. (Callero, 1985; Callero, Howard & Piliavin, 1987)

The VPM was analyzed using LISREL 8.8. The domains for each construct were analyzed through confirmatory factor analysis to determine goodness of fit through four fit indices: Normal Fit Index (NFI), RHO statistic, Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA).

## **Results**

Of the 643 respondents 75% were male and 24% were female. Respondents ranged in age from 18 to 82 years old, with an average age of 50.5 years (SD = 13.3). Only 22% of

respondents made less than \$50,000 in annual household income. Over one third of all respondents reported an annual household income above \$100,000. On average respondents had been ski patrolling for an average of 15 years and ranged from one to as many as 53 years. During the 2011/12 ski season respondents reported volunteering an average of 21 days. Most ski resorts required patrollers to volunteer a minimum number of days (84%). Over 70% of patrollers at resorts with a minimum volunteer day requirement volunteer more days than were required.

Structural Equation Modeling was used to test the VPM with role identity as a distal consequence and years of service as the ultimate dependent variable. Through the use of confirmatory factor analysis, it was determined that this model had adequate fit to the data (NFI = .91, NNFI = 0.91, CFI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.072). Role identity significantly predicted years of service ( $\beta = .13$ ) along with the antecedent variable age ( $\beta = .61$ ) and resulted in 39% of the variance explained (figure 1). Other significant paths were satisfaction ( $\beta = .48$ ) and motivations ( $\beta = .32$ ) predicting role identity ( $R^2 = .51$ ). Additionally, age ( $\beta = .12$ ) and motivations ( $\beta = .56$ ) were both positive predictors of satisfaction ( $R^2 = .51$ ). Results support the mediation of role identity between satisfaction and years of service. Role identity was also directly related to motivations and satisfaction, but was only indirectly related to age as independent predictor variables.

### **Discussion**

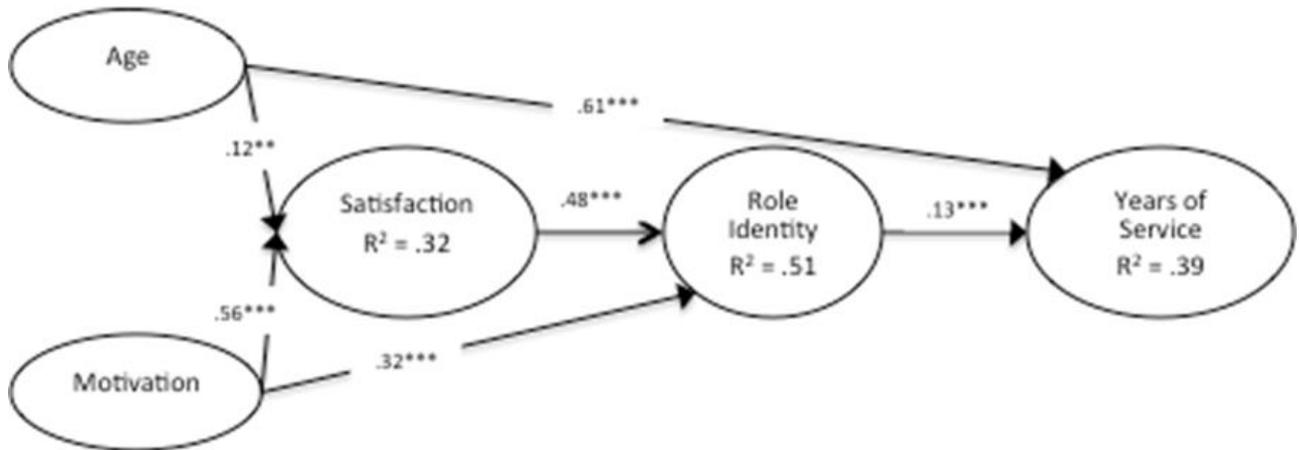
This study tested the inclusion of role identity in the Volunteer Process Model. Results indicate that the VPM could potentially be strengthened by incorporating role identity. As expected age was strongly related to the number of years of service of a patroller. However, it was not a patroller's motivations or satisfaction with past experiences that were directly related to years of service, rather it was role identity. The concept of role identity may be particularly salient for certified volunteers, such as National Ski Patrol due to the required training and certification. This level of commitment requires persistence and may not be for the casual volunteer. Time spent volunteering as a ski patroller strengthens role identity and thus increases the number of years of service to the organization. Other volunteer organizations might benefit from utilizing identity-building techniques similar to the National Ski Patrol. Such techniques include developing a comprehensive and standardized training regimen for all volunteers, +(Patrol)providing a uniform that represents a certain level of skill and ability in skiing, and offering ample opportunities to seek positions of leadership within the organization. Such techniques might require a significant investment on the part of the volunteer organizations, however the retention of quality volunteers might warrant such an investment.

### **Implications**

Including role identity in the VPM has several implications. Volunteer retention is especially important to service organizations and this study suggests that one's identity could assist with volunteer retention (Callero, Howard, & Piliavin, 1987; Laverie & McDonald, 2007). Further research on dedicated career type volunteers (i.e., volunteer fire fighters, EMTs, etc) is needed to better understand the relationship between role identity and volunteer retention, participation and engagement. Beyond career volunteers, role identity could be an important indicator for volunteer engagement in other settings, such as, park friend group volunteers, trail crew volunteers or sport team volunteers.

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Figure 1. Volunteer Process Model with Role Identity Designates



\*  $p < .050$ , \*\*  $p < .010$ , \*\*\*  $p < .001$ ,

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## PERCEPTIONS OF LEISURE BY COMBAT VETERANS AND THEIR SPOUSES

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Veterans of Operation Iraqi Freedom (OIF) and Operation Enduring Freedom (OEF) are at increased risk for mental health disorders and suicide (e.g., Cohen et al., 2010) and interpersonal difficulties (Cigrang et al., 2014). Effects of military combat are not confined to veterans but extend beyond them to influence their families and communities; therefore, the health and wellbeing of veterans is of utmost importance (Miller & Zwerdling, 2010). With more significantly ill or injured veterans returning from combat than any previous war (Carlock, 2007), efforts to understand recovery are imperative (Vella, Milligan, & Bennett, 2013). Leisure can divert attention away from negative events, generate optimism, help reconstruct life stories, and facilitate personal transformation (Hutchinson et al., 2003). Leisure has the potential to provide veterans with support that may facilitate adjustment (LePage & Garcia-Rea, 2008). Although, spouses play a key role in the lives of combat veterans (Badr et al., 2011) and couple leisure engagement improves marital satisfaction (Johnson et al., 2006), little is known about perceptions of combat veterans and their spouses concerning their leisure post-deployment.

### Methods

**Sampling Procedures.** Flyers were placed in public areas in a U.S. town and sent electronically to military related listservs to recruit OIF or OEF combat veterans and spouses. Once couples were interviewed, they were asked to help identify and recruit participants.

**Participants.** Ten couples, including male combat veterans (ages 28-56,  $M=37$ ) and spouses (ages 26-52,  $M=36$ ) who were married (2-25 years,  $M=9$ ) consented to participate. Veterans served 1-5 combat tours ( $M=2$  tours) totaling 4-44 months of combat ( $M=15$  months) with 7-25 years active service experience ( $M=14$  years), across military branches of Army ( $n=5$ ), Marines ( $n=3$ ) and Air Force ( $n=2$ ) with four being retired and six being active duty or guard.

**Data Collection.** Veterans and spouses independently completed a brief demographic questionnaire and then were interviewed separately to discuss leisure and identify connections of their leisure experiences with their combat and deployment. They were interviewed at their home or on a university campus. A male researcher with military service interviewed the male participant and a female researcher interviewed the female participant. After approximately 45 minutes, participants were debriefed and asked to help recruit possible participants.

**Data Analysis.** Similar to procedures followed by Malderen et al. (2013), the constant comparative analytic framework (e.g., Strauss & Corban, 1990) was adopted to identify data patterns that facilitated discovery of relationships between ideas and concepts. To complete a thematic content analysis, open coding was initially used. Next, focused coding was used to identify patterns and relationships among codes. All transcripts were read separately by four researchers to promote understanding prior to development of codes and categories following Creswell's (2007) protocol completed by Heinz et al. (2013). Data were then coded and categorized individually by these researchers. To facilitate reliability, the researchers met and reviewed codes with supporting quotes and agreed on application of codes. After reliability was determined, the researchers individually generated themes. Next, two researchers met repeatedly

to discuss and refine themes. These themes, with accompanying descriptors and illustrative quotes, were shared with the team who then further refined the themes and associated quotes.

### **Findings**

Participant quotes clustered into three categories associated with their leisure including facilitators, constraints, and outcomes that emphasized benefits of their leisure engagement. Those themes that apply specifically to veterans and their spouses are highlighted here.

***Leisure Facilitators.*** Eight themes emerged describing conditions promoting leisure. Four facilitators were: (a) a designated time or place for leisure, (b) being organized and responsible, (c) having a spouse with similar interests, and (d) competitive activities. The other themes are directly connected to the military and deployment. With the theme, “Military Life Creates Opportunities” participants described the military as providing them a chance to travel and meet different people with whom to pursue leisure. They explained how activities provided on military bases contributed to their leisure with the theme “Military Bases Provide Resources.” Because the sample was composed of veterans who, relatively recently, experienced combat, a theme emerged “Deployment Instills a Sense of Appreciation for Leisure.” Although being in nature facilitates leisure for many, veterans emphasized that the outdoors created a chance to experience peace and quiet that was captured in the theme “The Outdoors Gets Me Off the Grid.”

***Leisure Constraints.*** Thirteen themes identified leisure barriers. Although participants described military life as creating opportunities for leisure, being in the military meant they moved frequently and such transience led to the theme “Military Life Creates Impermanence.” Another theme associated with inflexibility of military life, “Military Life Imposes Structure,” made spontaneity with free time and planning vacations difficult. Two themes emerged related to deployment including “Deployment Influences Who I Am” that reflected triggers to behaviors developed during combat and a sense of unease creating problems during leisure. “Deployment Produces a Cycle of Adjustment” emerged based on descriptions of how challenges to leisure occurred based on the veteran leaving and returning home. Nine themes identified other leisure constraints: (a) lack of time and associated fatigue, (b) spouses’ differing interests, (c) spouses’ differing physical capabilities, (d) family/spouse obligations, (e) limited finances, (f) technology creep, (g) physical injuries, (h) cold weather, and (i) lack of leisure information.

***Leisure Outcomes.*** Eight themes delineating outcomes from leisure arose including primarily benefits: (a) positive emotions (relaxation, fun, enjoyment, happiness, and comfort), (b) family cohesion, (c), stress relief, (d) exercise, and (e) the opportunity to teach others. Two themes were specific to only veterans - “Connect to Military Life” and to their spouses - “Cope with Deployment.” A final benefit that appeared distinctly related to veterans’ desire to bond with others through leisure emerged “Camaraderie and Social Interaction.” Two themes highlighted drawbacks to leisure engagement: (a) produces frustration, and (b) generates relationship stress.

### **Implications for Practice**

Participants identified that military life both facilitated leisure by creating opportunities and providing resources as well as constrained it by creating residential impermanence and imposing structure. Therefore, it may be helpful to factor in this dialectical tension when developing leisure services that include veterans and their spouses. Both negative influences of deployment on veterans and spouses and a sense of appreciation for time shared as couples during reintegration are valuable to consider when developing leisure services. Also, outdoor recreation programs that facilitate periods of quiet and solitude may be helpful. The valued leisure outcomes of connecting to military life, coping with deployment, and establishing camaraderie, further provide direction for developing leisure education programs.

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Table 1. Themes Specific to Combat Veterans and Spouses with Sample Supportive Quotes

### Leisure Facilitators

#### **Military Life Creates Opportunities**

Veteran: *You get to meet different people and those different people like doing different things. And I think that kind of gave me a broader spectrum of things to do . . .*

Spouse: *. . . because of that, being in the military, and the opportunity it gave us, it kind of started this whole travel thing with us. So for five years, like a five yearlong honeymoon, we were able to travel all over Europe a lot . . .*

#### **Military Bases Provide Resources**

Veteran: *Sometimes when we live near a military base, there's usually more opportunities to play basketball . . .*

Spouse: *When we lived on base, the morale and welfare things were really accessible so it was really nice. Like pool and the libraries and those kind of things were awesome (his spouse).*

#### **Deployment Instills a Sense of Appreciation**

Veteran: *appreciating those things that you couldn't have while you were over there. The bowling alley, the movie theater, the bar, you know? . . . The leisure activity in Iraq was the gym . . . look forward to was going to the gym and going to the chow hall. And everything in the middle was just filling time*

Spouse: *I mean I definitely feel like we didn't take each other for granted. After that, it was like such a huge blessing to have him home again.*

#### **The Outdoors Gets Me Off the Grid**

Veteran: *it's so quiet in the woods and there's no cell phones going on. There's no cars going by because to get where you go to hunt, you're sometimes walking miles . . . you can't get word to us at all. So we're off the grid . . .*

### Leisure Constraints

#### **Military Life Creates Impermanence**

Veteran: *So that first year is where you indoctrinate into the area and figure out what's going on and what you should be doing [for leisure] . . . But the limitation is that the military takes you away from that during your time there and it also moves you very quickly from base to base.*

Veteran: *. . . because we have to move so often so we have to re-setup stuff all the time and most people in the military don't do much gardening because of that moving.*

#### **Military Life Imposes Structure**

Veteran: *. . . it dictates a lot you're on a set schedule so you have to schedule your leisure activities around that*

Spouse: *. . . with him being in the military, you have to put in leave; you got to do all of these steps. Sometimes he isn't approved or you have to do it like months in advance when you have no idea and you put in the leave [for a vacation], but you've decided you don't want to go now.*

#### **Deployment Influences Who I Am**

Veteran: *It's not like you're just blindly walking down there and it's like I think I'll go in here and it's going to be fine. It's like no, there's places that you're like it's a trap . . .*

Spouse: *. . . like he can be having a good time and if we go or see someone and he's instantly on edge and he's not focused anymore on what we're doing . . . he's like agitated and on edge . . .*

#### **Deployment Produces a Cycle of Adjustment**

Veteran: *You go away for so long and then you come back and then you kind of have to take a step back . . .*

*sometimes your friends have already moved and some people are not there that used to do stuff with.*

Spouse: *It was really hard to be back together after 18-19 months apart . . . And leisure time, yeah I think you sometimes had to force there to be leisure time because you really tried to catch up on the systems of the family . . .*

### Leisure Outcomes

#### **Connect to Military Life**

Veteran: *I like shooting [video] games. See I'm in the military so I'm all about that stuff...*

Veteran: *The hunting, you know, I have a comfort level and a want to be around weaponry.*

#### **Cope with Deployment**

Spouse: *I used to shop like whenever he'd be away at drill every month . . . it gave me something to do*

Spouse: *There was a series of books that I read while [name] was deployed . . . It took me outside of myself.*

#### **Camaraderie and Social Interaction**

Veteran: *It builds kind of like a team camaraderie [combat videos] ... Yeah. I play online with my brothers. That's pretty much what I play . . . sometimes I play sports depending . . .*

Veteran: *I'm very introverted so that's the only people I really get to know well . . . who I play basketball with . . .*

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## **ETHNIC AND RACIAL PARTICIPATION IN LEISURE: INTRODUCING A SYSTEMS MODEL**

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Modeling of ethnic and racial constraints to leisure began in part with Lindsay and Ogle's (1972) modeling of the physical, financial, and socio-economic barriers to leisure participation. While providing a notable foundation for understanding the structural constraints to leisure experienced by minority groups, the theory did not consider deeper interpersonal and intrapersonal issues such as cultural differences or discriminatory systems that prevent leisure participation for these groups. The work of Klobus-Edwards (1981) introduced a more holistic model of understanding the leisure constraints of minority groups, blending physical, financial, and SES constraints with systemic and cultural constraints. While broader in scope, the Klobus-Edwards (1981) model was highly complex and consequently difficult to implement or interpret. In 2002, Gomez introduced the ethnicity and public recreation model, which provided a clearer representation of both the real and perceived constraints to leisure participation for minorities.

In this same time period More and Averill (2003) introduced a typology of recreation behavior outlining three subtypes: *functionalist* theories which relate to the utility of a given recreation pursuit, often characterized by the activity's benefits, *mechanistic* theories which relate to flow, arousal, or more generally to how recreation functions are experienced at the individual and group level, and *capacity* theories which relate to the capability for or constraints to recreation. The purpose of this study was to understand USA Climbing (USAC) member's perceptions of the barriers to ethnic and racial diversity in indoor competitive climbing. The parallel purpose of the study was to develop a context specific model of minority leisure participation that builds on prior research in this area. The resultant model consolidates the work of Gomez (2002; 2006) and More and Averill (2003) and takes the form of functions, mechanisms, and capacities that inhibit or promote recreation participation for racial and ethnic minorities in a competitive climbing. The results of this study may be used by leisure providers to address and reduce constraints to participation.

### **Methods**

In partnership with USAC, the national governing body for competitive climbing in the United States, the research team administered a 79 item survey to USAC members and affiliates via links posted to the organization's social media platform and email list. This study examines descriptive information and 582 short answer responses to the question "From your perspective why don't we see more ethnic and racial diversity in competitive climbing?" Using content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) and a grounded theory approach to coding (Glaser & Strauss, 1969), the researchers independently coded the qualitative responses on two occasions (Buzan & Buzan, 1995). Independent, open, and selective coding was conducted to identify initial topics followed by collaborative coding to uncover patterns or trends, which allowed the researchers to arrive at five primary themes each with multiple sub topics (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Trustworthiness of data was established through an audit trail and a reflexive process in which investigators met together to reflect, assess biases, and justify coding decisions (Creswell & Miller, 2000). A percent agreement strategy was used to establish an intercoder reliability of .886, which is approaching the acceptable level of .90 (Lombard et al., 2002). Additionally, to understand if there were any differences in thematic patterns between white and non-white

respondents, we conducted a multinomial logistic regression using racial status as a predictor of theme membership. The regression was not statistically significant, indicating no difference in response to the question based on racial affiliation (chi square = .681,  $p = .409$ ,  $df = 1$ ). The results of this test should be interpreted with caution, as non-white members of USAC were likely to be more acculturated than other minority groups; however, findings mirrored, in many ways, results from prior studies of ethnic constraints to recreation participation.

## **Results**

A total of 582 respondents answered the question, "from your perspective why don't we see ethnic and racial diversity in competitive climbing." The majority of respondents were white (88.8%), with 23 respondents reporting as Asian (4%), 21 reporting as Multiple Race (4.7%). The remaining respondents (1.5%,  $n = 9$ ) reported as either African American, Native American, Indian (East Asian), or Pacific Islander. Respondents reported an average age of 34.36 years ( $SD = 13.83$ , range 11– 66) and were fairly even split by sex. Respondents indicated an average of 12.69 climbing days per month ( $SD = 6.31$  days), and 7.53 years of climbing experience ( $SD = 7.46$  years). Themes related to exposure, resources, access, culture, and alternative perspectives (Table 1), were developed from the data and identified as either functions (e.g. alternative perspectives, "climbing is useless"), mechanisms (e.g. sport culture and socio-cultural difference, "black people don't climb") or capacities (e.g. resources, "climbing is expensive"). These themes were then discussed in how they align with existing models of racial and ethnic diversity.

## **Discussion & Implications**

Models of general ethnicity related recreation constraints are many and vary in scope and complexity. This study builds on a contemporary model of ethnic participation in public recreation, noted for its simplicity and clarity, and derived from a thorough review and synthesis of existing models (Gomez, 2002). This model posits that acculturation, socio-economic status, subcultural identity, perceived benefits and perceived discrimination are predictive of recreation participation (Gomez, 2002; 2006). The results of the present study corroborate Gomez's (2006) model in a private sport context, add specificity to its individual components, and are reorganized via More and Averill's (2003) recreation behavior model (see Figure 1). The first or functional domain embodies Gomez's (2002) perceived benefits and encapsulates responses indicating that climbing lacks utility or benefit. Benefits in the form of paths to fame, glory, and careers in the sport were non-existent, this lack of perceived benefits may result from lack of awareness of the sport in general, or reflect ethnic differences in what constitutes a benefit. Second, mechanisms encapsulate Gomez's acculturation, sub cultural identity, and perceived discrimination. In the present study, respondents believed the social mechanisms that welcome new, diverse entrants to the sport are not currently in place and the sport culture excludes individuals who are less acculturated. Lastly, the resources theme is reflective of capacities which in our study were evident in responses that highlighted the expense of competing. Situating traditional and emergent models of ethnic recreation participation in a functional, mechanistic, and capacities model may help recreation providers to more accurately target and eliminate barriers or enhance benefits to recreation participation for diverse groups. Specifically, the model serves as a reminder that constraints at a functional level are addressed differently than those at a mechanical level and draws attention to the layers within each level that ought to be considered.

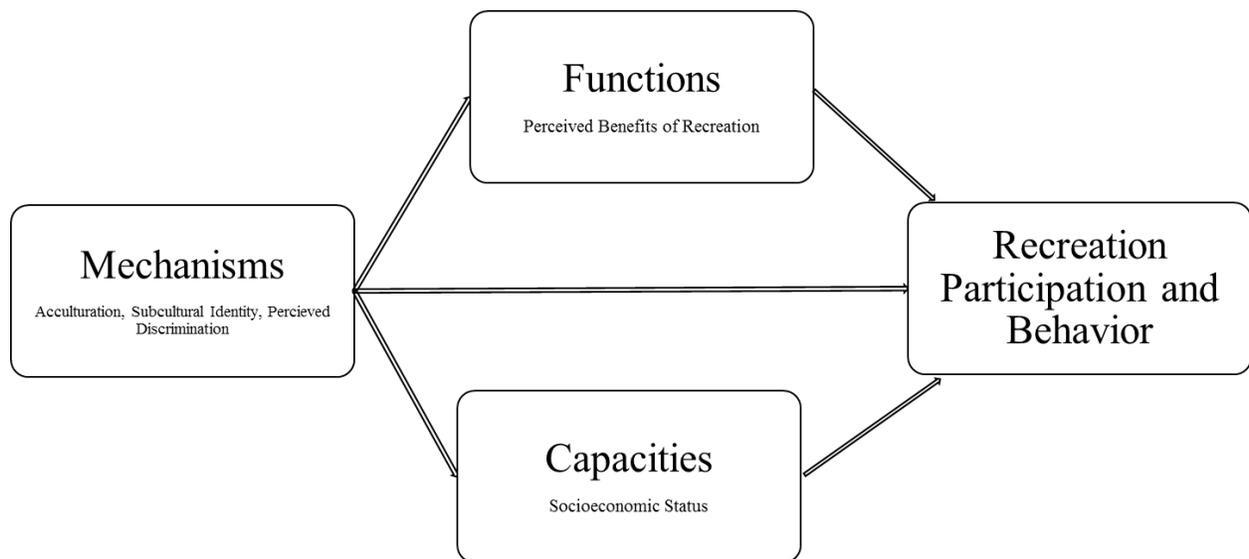
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## Table and Figures

Table 1.

*Primary Ethnic and Racial Themes (N = 582)*

<b>Theme</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Exposure	Lack of experience or contact with the sport	119 (20.4%)
Resources	Lack of resources in terms of time or money	281 (48.3%)
Access	No climbing is available in areas with diversity	58 (10%)
Culture	It is a white sport; Climbing is not inclusive to new users	84 (14.4%)
Alternative Perspectives	It isn't a problem; It doesn't matter	40 (6.9%)



**Figure 1.** A structural systems model of ethnic recreation participation.

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## **INDOOR COMPETITIVE CLIMBING AS A CONTEXT FOR POSITIVE YOUTH DEVELOPMENT**

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With 60 million U.S. youth participating in organized sports annually (National Council of Youth Sports, 2008), there has been heightened interest in the relationship between sport participation and Positive Youth Development (PYD). Contemporary sports-based youth development models align supportive orientations and actions from peers, parents, coaches, and administrators with growth opportunities available as a result of the material and cultural contexts under which sport participation occurs (Coakley, 2011). Developmental psychologists have labeled this type of growth as the “5 Cs” of positive youth development, which include: Competence, Confidence, Connection, Character, and Caring (Lerner, 2004). Although sports have been promoted as a mechanism for enhancing PYD (Anderson-Butcher et al., 2012; Perkins & Noam, 2011), evidence of these developmental outcomes has been mixed (Anderson-Butcher et al., 2013). Youth sports advocates have been criticized for emphasizing the outcomes of sport participation while failing to address the underlying mechanisms of change (Coakley, 2011).

The emerging sport of indoor competitive climbing has experienced significant growth over the past 20 years with a rapid expansion of climbing walls in both schools and commercial facilities (Baláš et al., 2009). Climbing has also undergone a transition from an unorganized recreational activity to a formalized sport with a national governing body, organized competitions, formal coaching, and a team structure (USA Climbing, 2014). Although roughly 1.2 million youth between the ages of 6 and 17 participate in climbing (Outdoor Foundation, 2013), few studies have examined indoor competitive climbing as a sport that may enhance PYD outcomes. Therefore the purpose of this study was to explore indoor competitive climbing as a developmental experience for youth. Based on the youth development and sports literature, it was hypothesized that indoor competitive climbing experiences would exhibit some features of positive youth development, but it was unknown exactly how, and to what extent, climbers would describe climbing as contributing to PYD.

### **Methods**

In partnership with USA Climbing (USAC), the research team administered a 79 item electronic survey to the USAC membership via email and social media posts. This study examined short answer responses to the question “How does indoor competitive climbing contribute to positive youth development?” Using conventional content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) and a qualitative approach, the researchers independently coded the open-ended responses, using highlights to tag key words and develop separate themes from the data (Buzan & Buzan, 1995). Independent, open and axial coding identified initial themes followed by collaborative coding to identify patterns or trends, which allowed the researchers to arrive at the five main themes (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Trustworthiness procedures included creation of an audit trail, researcher reflection to acknowledge and minimize bias, and the use of an inter-coder reliability test (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Lombard et al., 2002). The percent agreement strategy established an inter-coder reliability of .921 (Lombard et al., 2002).

### **Results**

A total of 623 USAC members answered the research question. Respondents indicated an average of 12.69 climbing days per month ( $SD = 6.31$  days), and an average of 7.53 years of

climbing experience ( $SD = 7.46$  years). The majority of respondents were White (86.5%), affluent, and well educated. Respondents reported an average age of 34.5 years ( $SD = 14.33$ , range 11 years – 70 years; 12%, 17 and under). A simple one-way ANOVA confirmed no differences between youth and adult responses. Four themes emerged from the qualitative analysis, including: holistic development; supportive relationships, confidence and self-efficacy; and sportsmanship and character development. See Table 1 for the frequencies and percentages.

### **Discussion**

Though exploratory in nature and not analyzed with the Five Cs of PYD theory in mind, this study uncovered themes strongly reflecting the Five Cs, suggesting that the current supportive environment of indoor competitive climbing contributes to positive youth development for USAC climbing members. Moreover, respondents frequently stated their belief that climbing was unique when compared with traditional sports, in that competitors encourage one another and focus as much on the development of their peers as they do on personal success. Furthermore, indoor competitive climbing was seen by respondents as an alternative sport where youth whose personalities and abilities did not align with the traditional sport model could thrive.

The study findings suggest that indoor competitive climbing, when integrated with the right social supports and opportunities, contributes to PYD. Even with these encouraging results, indoor competitive climbing can benefit from greater intentionality. Coalter (2010) suggested that while certain factors may intuitively influence positive youth development, the most effective PYD experiences are intentionally designed and regularly evaluated. Movement toward intentionality by competition organizers, trainers, and coaches may increase PYD impacts and the legitimacy of claims to this end. Being mindful of how specific supports (i.e., people, programs, and skills) and opportunities (i.e., novel, challenging, and engaging experiences) are provided before, during, and after climbing competitions may enhance the extent to which indoor competitive climbing is perceived as a PYD setting. In addition, when trainers and coaches collaborate to provide these supports and opportunities, then parents may be more likely to associate indoor competitive climbing with PYD (Morrison & Schöffl, 2007).

### **Implications**

Holistic development through indoor competitive climbing participation, which included whole-body development in the areas of strength and health, cognition and mental conditioning, and social skills, appears to be a hallmark of the sport. Providers should highlight this unique whole-body benefit to parents and the public. Moreover, the association of strength development and confidence through climbing, particularly for girls, and the influence of this relationship on girls' body image that was indicated by the study findings is compelling for program providers interested in developing programs to enhance adolescent girls' body image and sense of self.

Skill enhancement associated with indoor competitive climbing is also noteworthy. Many of the developmental benefits of indoor competitive climbing reflected important 21<sup>st</sup> century skills (Casner-Lotto et al., 2006), including work ethic, teamwork/collaboration, and critical thinking/problem solving. The influence of indoor competitive climbing on these timely and relevant skills (Duerden et al., 2014) provides added support for the provision of indoor competitive climbing programs and opportunities. Program providers, including municipal recreation departments, day and resident camps, and K-12 educational institutions might consider the addition of climbing walls and programs in their facilities, to this end.

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Table 1. *Developmental Outcomes of Climbing Mapped to the Five C Model of PYD (N = 623)*

<b>Five C Model of Youth Development</b>	<b>Themes Associated with Indoor Competitive Climbing as Developmental*</b>	<b>Theme Frequency</b>
Competence	Holistic development (physical, cognitive, social)	254 (40.8%)
Connection & Caring	Supportive, caring relationships with peers and adults	183 (29.4%)
Confidence	Confidence and self-efficacy	124 (19.9%)
Character	Sportsmanship and character	45 (7.2%)

\* Note: Dissenting voice accounted for 2.7% ( $n = 17$ ) of sample

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## 10-YEAR ALUMNI STUDY OF AN ADVENTURE REACTION PROGRAM

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Although significant research has looked at the outcomes of adventure recreation programs (e.g., Hattie, Marsh, Neill, & Richards, 1997; Sibthorp, Paisley, & Gookin, 2007), less attention has been given to the perceived long-term impacts of such experiences. Although follow-up research that takes places four to six months after participation is not uncommon, our interest was on understanding the impacts of such experiences multiple years after they occurred. The tenth anniversary of one adventure program, Camp WILD, presented an opportunity to investigate the issue of long-term impact. Camp WILD was a two-week adventure recreation camp for adolescents started in 2004 as a partnership between a non-profit and a large university in the Western United States. The purpose of this qualitative research study was to investigate the post-participation experiences, including long-term perceived impacts, of adventure recreation participation and the processes related to the integration and retention of impacts.

### Methods

Participants of Camp WILD completed a two-week adventure program located in Idaho's Salmon-Challis National Forest. Participants were assigned to teams of four youth, for a total of six teams per session, each under the supervision of one male and one female staff member. The program consisted of three different activity rotations: (a) backpacking, (b) whitewater rafting, and (c) exploration (e.g., mountain biking, team building activities, and environmental education). Through a variety of efforts spurred by the program's 10-year anniversary, contact was made with alumni. This included Facebook announcements, emails to old contact lists, and snowball sampling. Once alumni were contacted they were invited to participate in dyadic interviews about their Camp WILD experience. Participants included three females and two males between the ages 22-24. All participants attended Camp WILD in 2005. Participants were asked to recall memories of their experiences, reflect on its impact, and identify the causes of such impacts. Interviews were recorded and transcribed. Interview transcriptions were analyzed using a grounded theory coding approach (Creswell, 2007).

### Results

After the initial coding, 97 codes were identified. Based on the research question, we combined and collapsed codes due to lack of pertinence to the study. We found 12 codes were most applicable to the focus of this study: *Increased personal vision of potential* – three participants included having expanded dreams of their future careers and educations (e.g., they “made me see where I could be and where I want it to be”). *Increased liking and participation in outdoors activities* – All participants expressed this idea (e.g., “I never thought that biking could be so fun”). One recounted, “I feel like I have a greater connection to being outdoors.” *Application* – three participants shared experiences of later applying lessons they learned from camp (e.g., “I remember there was an activity I took from camp wild...and our football team was falling apart at one point, and I used the activity as a team building activity”). *Self-discovery* – All participants found new interests and abilities (e.g., One learned, “that I was capable of doing more than I thought it was”). *Post-Camp Wild* - Camp WILD continues to have a recognized, positive influence in all participants' lives. One participant recognizes being a better employee at a sporting goods store. He said, “I go upstairs and I can talk fly fishing with some of the guys up there. I can talk rafting with some of the guys up there, and they're like, ‘wow you kind of

know what you did down there.” Another participant is studying recreation management. She said, “part of why I chose the major I chose is because I want to give those kind of opportunities to more people.” *Reflection* – For four participants, realization of perceived impacts and the personal value of Camp WILD experience came years after participation (e.g., “Because now I look back and I’m like, ‘oh I learned so much and it had such a big impact,’ but I think initially the first few years after going there, all I thought was it was a happy experience”).

Participants identified the following key components of their Camp WILD experiences: *Examples of counselors* – four participants commented on this (e.g., “they were good examples to me of what I wanted to eventually achieve”). *Counselors actively pushed and supported* – four participants commented on positive counselor involvement (e.g., “a lot of the time that I spent with my counselors was learning to not give up, and they pushed me far and helped me with so many things”). *Becoming close with counselor* – four participants commented that they became great friends with their counselor. This was facilitated by the administration of the camp. (e.g., “after they interviewed you, they paired you up with counselors who are very similar to you”). *Team building* – three participants comments on benefits of team building activities. *Novelty* – four participants liked the feeling of newness (e.g., Camp WILD “gave me opportunity to experience a lot of new things”).

### **Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceived long-term impacts from this adventure program and what processes led to the incorporation of those perceived impacts. The study's results provide insights into the perceived impacts and their facilitating elements. We found that many participants still have vivid memories of experiences, people, and names from Camp WILD. These data emphasize the role of the counselors. Strong relationships with the counselors provided a conduit through which participants internalized lessons and self-discovered. Having three activity rotations appears to have maintained the sense of novelty throughout the two weeks, which kept participants engaged and learning. This study is limited because interviews were conducted with a limited number of participants and their views do not necessarily represent those of all participants. Those we were able to interview are more likely to be those who had a good experience and want to share it. Because Camp WILD had all volunteer staff, further research could test the difference between volunteer and paid staff. The additional next step in this research is already being formulated. Additional work is underway to expand the sample and reach data saturation.

### **Implication for Practice**

Our findings validate the importance of counselors in adventure recreation programs. Great effort should be put into the selection and training of staff members. Ten years after participation in Camp WILD, participants attribute most of their perceived impacts to their counselors. An appreciation of the perceived long-term impacts on participants could reinforce or revise specific adventure recreation programs. These findings hopefully make a meaningful contribution to the understanding of the long-term impacts of adventure recreation programming.

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## TENSIONS AND CHALLENGES OF PARTICIPATORY ACTION RESEARCH IN PARK AND RECREATION CONTEXTS

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In their efforts to generate high-impact scholarship, leisure researchers are increasingly utilizing research as a vehicle for meaningful engagement with potential users of the knowledge it generates (Glover, 2015). The engaged scholarship of participatory action research (PAR) promises to advance this good intention through the application of “a more democratic research process, which respects and builds co-researchers’ capacity and generates more rich, diverse, and appropriate knowledge for community change” (Kindon, 2005, p. 207). PAR “involves researchers and participants working together to examine a problematic situation or action to change it for the better” (Kindon, Pain, & Kesby, 2007, p. 1). “Better”, under PAR, tends to reflect participant-driven definitions as researchers seemingly abandon their position as experts to avoid controlling the research process in favor of adopting a facilitative role meant to respond to the voices and wisdom of participants (Frisby et al., 2005). In Grimwood’s (2015) words, “[PAR] is done *with* and *by* participants, rather than *on* or *for* them” (original emphasis). In so many ways, PAR resonates with the values of our field.

Given the appeal of this approach and its potential to produce socially relevant findings, calls for the adoption of PAR in parks and recreation research abound. In making the case, Parry, Johnson and Stewart (2013) identified PAR as an approach that “enable[s] researchers to most effectively enhance social justice within their communities of concern.” Likewise, Dupuis et al. (2012) regarded it as a way to establish self-critical communities of people who work together to achieve personal and social change. Floyd (2014, p. 385) positioned PAR as an approach that “afford[s] opportunities for building trust and bridging social divides”, particularly for those studying race and ethnicity. Though relatively few studies of PAR appear in our literature, their proliferation indicates a growing need to inform best practice.

Beyond its role in engaged scholarship, PAR introduces unique challenges to researchers not fully fleshed out in the leisure literature. Balancing power (see Dupuis et al., 2012), holding onto faulty assumptions that research partners are in need of our expertise (Floyd, 2014), and sharing ownership over projects (Hutchison & Lord, 2012), though acknowledged as challenges of the experience, need to be documented and discussed with greater reflexivity. Those who engage in the PAR process can undoubtedly appreciate the challenges and tensions associated with efforts to build sustainable, functioning relationships with research participants as co-researchers, yet more introspection is needed. The purpose of this paper is to explore challenges and tensions in the PAR process to better inform its practice. Accordingly, the authors “write themselves at risk” (Johnson, 2009) by sharing stories of research experiences that expose some of the uncomfortable tensions encountered in PAR.

### Method

This paper presents a “collaborative narrative refraction” (see Berbary & Boles, 2014) that examines narrative data of PAR projects in leisure environments and experiences of tension associated with the process. By narrative data, we mean “stories constructed about past events that give an account for those events” (Schwandt, 2001, p. 170). We engaged in a collaborative process of sharing personal experience stories that centred on significant episodes, events, or personal experiences with PAR projects. Stories of working with remote, Northern communities

in Canada, ethno-cultural communities in a mid-sized city, and LGBTQ communities in American and Canadian contexts were selected for the challenges they posed to the authors and for their relevance as illustrations of the anxieties and conflicts that can arise in the PAR process. The themes from these stories were identified, not by breaking down the internal features of the story and coding or counting the parts, but by what we interpreted as their centrality to narrative fidelity, meaning, and identity. The goal of analysis, then, was to recognize the common themes or plots in the narrative data.

### **Results**

We organize our findings under three themes: (1) community representation, (2) sharing critical observations, and (3) invisibility of the researcher. The first theme, community representation, refers to the assumption that a group of people with shared identity markers represents *the* community of relevance in the PAR project. Such assumptions recognize the group as “experts” of a community “reality” without considering those who may be silenced. Under what circumstances can researchers insist on the inclusion of participants not identified as community members? The second theme, sharing critical reflections, refers to the ethics of pointing out to community co-researchers the exclusivity, prejudice, or privilege apparent in their community, yet “invisible” or unproblematic to them. How do we maintain a critical perspective in our research when doing so has the potential to create negative effects for the individuals with whom we work? This theme highlights the tensions that exists between our ethical responsibility to act on our critical observations and our ethical responsibility to do no harm. The third theme, invisibility of the researcher, explores how PAR prompts researchers to render themselves invisible in the process and outcomes of the research to avoid being perceived as controlling. Evading the role of expert, however, can be unethical when working with populations that accept internalized oppression and false needs. At what point do we assert ourselves when working democratically with others? When does it become unethical not to do so?

### **Discussion & Implications**

These tensions underscore the complexity of establishing an honest and working relationship with our community co-researchers and the challenges associated with balancing our roles as facilitators and experts in the PAR process. Clearly, “working across differences” requires effort and vigilance over the course of a project (Lord & Church, 1998). Understandably, the PAR literature underscores the ethical need for researchers to be sensitive to their positions of power in forging working relationships with co-researchers, but in doing so, can unintentionally romanticize the contribution and conduct of co-researchers. Conflicts can and do arise from differing agendas.

As PAR gains in popularity, partnerships between leisure researchers, park and recreation professionals, and broader communities are likely to increase and take on a variety of approaches. PAR offers a particularly attractive, collaborative option that can be mobilized to advance knowledge and benefits of social equity, health and wellness, and conservation through research. This study offers insight into the challenges and tensions associated with PAR, thereby providing guidance for those interested in adopting it. As Grimwood (2015) noted, PAR is always a work in progress. Findings from this study underscore how partners can bring different styles, resources and expectations to the effort. The process of ongoing relationship building with partners requires time and commitment.

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## **CAMPUS RECREATION DAY CAMPS: PREDICTING CAMPER OUTCOMES**

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Before the early 1990s, the absence of negative or undesirable behaviors was the benchmark for youth development (Benson & Saito, 2006). During the mid-70's, there was push for recreation services to move past being just diversionary and to become developmental (Pittman; Hurtes, Allen, Stevens, & Lee, 2000; Gray & Greben 1974). The American Camp Association (ACA), with a mission of *enriching the lives of children, youth, and adults*, is a community of professionals who support character-building, skill development, and healthy living (ACA, 2013; 2014). The American Camp Association (ACA) reported that there are approximately 12,000 camps (accredited and non-accredited) that take place annually with over 28,000 sessions (2014), with over 11 million campers in the United States (ACA, 2011).

The ACA has been integral in supporting Positive Youth Development (PYD) by identifying and documenting outcomes associated with participation in organized camping. In their seminal outcomes study, four domains were comprised of ten constructs of PYD and included positive identity, social skills, positive values and spiritual growth, and thinking and physical skills, (Henderson, Bialeschki, Scanlin, Thurber, Whitaker, & Marsh, 2007). The ACA sponsored research is salient in that it provides evidence of what many practitioners already know; organized camping is beneficial to the development of youth (Henderson, Bialeschki, & James, 2007; Marsh, 1999). Specifically, the ACA has created the Youth Outcome Battery, which includes an assortment of instruments used to measure outcomes (i.e., Camper Learner Scale).

Positive Youth Development (PYD) programs seek to improve health, happiness, and competence in youth so they can become productive and satisfied adults (Linver, Roth, & Brooks-Gunn, 2009). According to Wiess (2008), this is accomplished when skill acquisition in one domain is beneficial in other domains. Positive Youth Development is a strengths-based approach which is aimed to optimize the development of youth (Mohamad, Mohammad, & Ali, 2014). Recreation programs allow youth to try new activities (e.g., rock climbing) develop new skills, build new relationships, while providing them with beneficial experiences that help support important life skills (Morgan, Sibthorp, Wells, 2014; Larson, 2000; Eccles & Barber, 1999).

Outcome-Focused Programming (OFP) formally known as Benefits-Based Programming is a four step model for agencies to use to support evidence-based research in the field of recreation. The purpose of this study was to determine which participant characteristics (e.g., gender) predict camper outcomes as operationalized by the dimensions on the Camper Learner Scale. Specifically, the following camper characteristics were used: gender, enjoyment at camp, weeks attended at camp, willingness to return to camp, number of years at camp, number of previous weeks at camp, and age of participants in camp.

### **Methods**

This study recruited 115 participants based on their roles as campers in an ACA accredited university camp during the summer of 2014. Participants' ages ranged from 6 to 12 years old. Participants were asked to participate in the study on a voluntary basis. Parents/Guardians signed letters of consent allowing their children to participate and each camper signed a letter of assent.

Three, 1 week themed camp sessions were evaluated with one being a traditional camp setting and two were outdoor-based camps. The ACA's Camper Learner Scale was used and has been found to be effective at measuring the seven common PYD outcomes or subscales (Hill, Holt & Ramsing, 2014). The items included friendship, family citizenship, teamwork, perceived competence, independence, interest in exploration and responsibility. The survey used a 4 point Likert-type scale (1: I didn't learn about this – 4: I learned a lot about this). The Camper Learner Scale is a retrospective design and was completed after the end of each one week camp. The survey was read to participants by their camp leaders in groups of three or four.

### **Results**

A multiple Regression was conducted to determine the variation in the Camper Learner Scale explained by age, number of camps attended, number of years attended, type of camp, likeness to return and enjoyment of camp. Age, number of camps attended, number of years attended, Type of camp (indoor vs. outdoor), likeliness to return to camp next year, enjoyment at camp statistically significantly predicts higher score on the camper learner scale,  $F(7, 81) = 6.126$ ,  $MSE = 29.057$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $R^2 = .346$ . There was independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.809. It was found that those that enjoyed camp more had higher scores on the Camper Learner Scale ( $\beta = .36$ ,  $p = .001$ ). Younger individuals (ages 6-9) scored higher on the Camper Learner Scale compared to older group (10-12) ( $\beta = -.25$ ,  $p = .008$ ). It was also found that those who want to return to camp next year scored higher on the Camper Learner Scale compared to those that said they did not want to return ( $\beta = -.23$ ,  $p = .02$ ).

### **Discussion**

Practitioner friendly evaluation tools have been developed to help recreation professionals publicize what they already know to be effective programming. Over the course of the summer during the one-week themed camps, those that enjoyed camp more had higher scores on the camper learner scale. Younger campers (ages 6-9) scored higher on the camper learner scale compared to the older campers. Other camps studies have also found different age campers benefit from specific design, younger campers benefited from age-appropriate activities (Hill, Ramsing, Hill, 2007; Taylor, Piatt, Hill, & Malcolm, 2012). It was also found that those who wanted to return to camp the next year scored higher on the Camper Learner Scale than those that stated they did not want to return. These results are significant to the recreation field as it continues to support the profession and validates recreation programming.

### **Implications for Practice**

Practitioner friendly evaluation tools, such as the ACA Youth Outcomes Battery, is easy for recreation professionals to administer and interpret results. Scores are averaged to determine a retrospective look on skills acquired during camp, such as friendship, family citizenship, teamwork, perceived competence, independence, interest in exploration and responsibility. Following the OFP, meeting the goals of the program can have an economic, environmental, individual and community outcomes. When recreation professional focus on outcomes and goals while selecting appropriate program structures, the impact of programming can be greatly increased (Hurtes, Allen, Steven, Lee, 2000).

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## **NON-PROBABILITY-BASED SAMPLING IN REACHING DIVERSE GROUPS AND COMMUNITIES**

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In order to achieve goals related to conservation, health, wellness, and social equity, recreation researchers and practitioners need to understand the needs and preferences of diverse groups and communities. Collecting representative and valid data is critical to developing this understanding, and has been extensively discussed in the context of the general population (Vaske, 2008). However, recent trends in research design encourage data collection strategies that better represent the unique historical, social-economic, political, spatial, and cultural contexts of study populations (Floyd, 2014). These trends respond to increasing desires to include diverse populations in recreation research to promote social justice and a growing awareness that recreation research can benefit from diverse research paradigms. Qualitative research designs have contributed to these trends by obtaining rich findings related to diverse populations. Quantitative data can similarly contribute to this trend by testing relationships specific to groups and communities. However, collecting quantitative data about specific groups, such as low income communities and racial/ethnic minorities, is challenging. For example, issues of nonresponse have been shown to be particularly prominent in neighborhoods characterized by concentrated poverty and social disorganization (Johnson, Cho, Campbell, & Holbrook, 2006). Similarly, distrust and skepticism toward research is not uncommon among African Americans (McAvoy, Winter, Outley, McDonald, & Chavez, 2000). To address these challenges, creative data collection protocols and deliberate efforts from researchers are often needed to reach diverse groups and communities.

Specifically, non-probability-based sampling methods such as convenience and respondent-driven sampling are increasingly used to engage diverse groups and communities, as opposed to traditional probability-based methods, such as simple random sampling, stratified sampling, and cluster sampling. However, these non-probability-based samples should be analyzed differently from probability-based samples, which is often not the case in the literature. The reason is that most statistical methods require known probabilities of each case being included in the sample to extrapolate information to the whole population (Lohr, 2010). Probability-based samples have this property, but non-probability-based samples do not. Sampling conditions often associated with non-probability-based samples such as non-response and non-recruitment can introduce biases in results and often require modified estimators (Tomas & Gile, 2010). Misuse of statistical methods is more than a technical issue. Inaccurate inference from data may be misleading and result in policies or interventions that actually exacerbate problems that the research was designed to help mitigate. An examination of use of non-probability-based samples is important and timely.

Thus, the purpose of this study was to evaluate the use of non-probability-based samples in leisure and recreation research. Two research questions were addressed: (1) How prevalent are non-probability-based samples in recent leisure and recreation research? and (2) What are the advantages and disadvantages of non-probability-based samples?

### **Methods**

A systematic literature review was conducted on articles published in the *Journal of Leisure Research* (JLR) and *Leisure Sciences* (LS) from 2005 to 2014. In the first phase of this review, two of the authors (Guo and Jones), scanned all articles and coded studies that used quantitative research methods in their research designs. In particular, articles were coded based on the sampling strategies (e.g., random, convenient, secondary, and experiment), data collection methods (e.g., in-person, mail, internet, phone survey, secondary data, and experiment), and response rates (e.g., 0-100%). In the second phase, studies that explicitly used social justice as their conceptual frameworks or theoretical perspectives were coded and reviewed for barriers researchers encountered in data collection (e.g., trust, access, funding) Inter-coder reliability was achieved through multiple training sessions and continuous spot-checks throughout the coding process.

### **Results and Discussion**

Results indicate over half of the articles published on JLR and LS from 2005 to 2014 employed some quantitative methods. Among these quantitative studies, surveys were the dominant data-collection method including in-person and/or mail survey. Non-probability-based samples were used relatively frequently in leisure and recreation studies, representing approximately a quarter of the studies examined. Some studies failed to report response rates resulting in missing information on an important indicator of sampling quality.

Although non-probability-based approaches may reduce sampling costs and reach populations that usually do not respond to standard recruitment messages, they may also introduce bias in estimation when subsequent analysis is not adjusted. Alarming, despite the prevalence of non-probability-based sampling in recreation research these limitations are rarely discussed, perhaps due to the preponderance and overall acceptance of non-probability-based sampling in the broader social sciences. However, statistical research on respondent-driven sampling suggests that opportunities exist to improve the quality of non-probability-based sampling by developing diagnostic tools (e.g., Gile, Johnson, & Salganik, in press) and adjusting estimation methods (e.g., Gile & Handcock, in press). Sustained methodological inquiry from recreation researchers to find more rigorous and robust methods to study diverse populations is needed.

### **Implications**

This study sounds a cautionary note for recreation researchers. Researchers taking a social justice perspective should consider ways to negotiate constraints to reach diverse populations. More methodological studies are needed to establish statistically robust data collection and analysis procedures that will fit diverse groups while maintaining validity and accuracy of the results. More detailed discussion of results and implications will be provided.

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# THE TEMPORAL PHASES OF LEISURE: EXPECTATION, EXPERIENCE AND REFLECTION

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There is more to a leisure experience than just the involvement that occurs during the activity. Quite common to most leisure experiences are an identity and social component, but just as important, and often overlooked, is the temporal dimension of the experience. Clawson and Knetsch (1966) asserted that recreational experiences are multi-phase and comprised of five stages: anticipation, travel to event, onsite experience, travel from event, and recollection of participation. We believe that travel to an event should be included as part of anticipation and travel from an event should be included as part of the recollection phase making for three vital phases of a leisure experience. And while there have been numerous studies whose methodology has relied on evaluations of pre-, during and post-participation experiences (Hammitt, 1980; Mitchell, Thompson, Peterson, & Cronk, 1997; Wirtz, Kruger, Scollon, & Diener, 2003), it is far more common that research on leisure does not consider the three temporal phases of a leisure experience. Further, none of the studies that have attempted to encompass the multiple temporal phases of experiential leisure involvement have focused on participants who had established significant leisure careers or had been involved in recreational events for extended periods of time. Previous studies of recreation's multi-phase nature utilized experimental design, relied on paid participants or students earning college credits, and therefore failed to explore the multi-phase nature of recreation experiences that had been initiated by participants.

In contrast, *the purpose of this study* was to explore the three temporal phases of a recreation experience in the context of individuals' *in situ* attendance at a popular music performance. These phases consisted of participants' expectations associated with participation before an event, the actual experience itself during the event, and the memory of that experience after the event was over. This study was guided by the question, how do expectations of leisure involvement affect experience of the activity and reflection on the experience?

## Methods

The research took place in three phases: one month before the event (the Dixie Mattress Festival in rural Oregon), during the event and one month after the event. The authors conducted thirty semi-structured interviews with ten participants (three with each informant) who were fans of the band Jerry Joseph & the Jackmormons (JJJ), most for a decade or longer. An interview guide was used to ensure consistency and all interviews were audio-recorded for accuracy. Within the multiphase structure, data were analyzed inductively using Charmaz's (2006) constructed grounded theory.

## Results

During the pre-festival interview period, many fans reported being overly excited about their upcoming involvement. As most had been deeply immersed in this music scene for lengthy periods of time, it was common for them to reflect on past experiences about the music and friends they would get to interact with and reestablish relationships. It was also common for there to be a high degree of preparation in order to ensure everything went smoothly. Kevin said:

I love it. The countdown from now to DMF gets my blood boiling. This is one of the longest stretches between shows for me; since [his last shows, two months earlier]. I prefer to see them at least once a month! Excitement builds, my money is being stashed away, my plans are being made. It's all positive.

During the festival expectations for what was still to unfold both socially and musically remained high. Once everyone had got their camps in order, the festival venue turned more into a vacation experience. People would wander through the grounds getting reacquainted with other fans who came from all over the country, but who they only got to see on special occasions like this. And while the social component was integral to this community of fans, the reason everyone was there was for the music. We asked Arlo to describe his relation to the music during the actual experience, to which he replied:

Usually at the show we all gravitate towards the band, because once you're there, it's totally up to them [the band] and you have no control over where the music is going to go. It's giving yourself up to the band. You think you know what's coming eventually, but the fact that you don't, that space where you think you know what's [about to happen], and you get surprised, the experience of watching the band live, you're in that space, you're taking whatever ride they're on.

As this was the last installment of the DMF, there was a degree of sorrow that accompanied the passing of this annual ritual. Upon reflection most participants reported sadness in not having the festival to look forward to in the future. But because they knew in advance that this was the last rendition, many stated that they made a point to be conscious of all that transpired through the weekend, and made mindful effort to soak it all in and take advantage of their time with friends and the music they love. Additionally, many were excited about what was to come; several fans had made plans to "take the reins" and host another festival in the spirit of DMF the following year. This allowed the participants to not only appreciate the final DMF experience fully, but to anticipate their future involvement in what had come to be a core component of the community that was created surrounding the band.

### **Discussion**

As was indicated in the preceding results section, Kevin indicated the high level of anticipation that accompanies the typical fan in this music scene. Many indicated that a significant reason for their involvement, and therefore their anticipation of upcoming concerts, was the number of close friends they had made through their participation, though the actual music was typically the motivating factor for involvement as well as the conduit to make and maintain these meaningful friendships. This was indicated through the selected excerpt of Arlo; that once the music started, the music became the sole focus of the moment. This corroborates the findings of Ruud (1997a, b) who stated that passionate involvement in music is a way of performing identity and acts as a source of personal authenticity which helps one perceive and give meaning to their world. It is through the establishment of one's personal connection to the music first that allows them to build and maintain successful social relationships (Lewis, 1983). In the reflection stage of interviews fans commented on the many transitions that were taking place in the music scene. Each participant expected the weekend to be nothing short of fun; no one imagined that it could be anything but. Because of this tremendously positive set of expectations, each interviewee recalled the weekend as capturing the essence of their long and committed participation in the music scene. Having positive expectations for the weekend led to having meaningful experiences that were remembered favorably, even in the face of inclement weather and travel delays. Fans reflected on their experiences with gratitude which caused them to look forward to the opportunity to participate together again in the future.

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## **LEISURE AND SPIRITUAL WELL-BEING: RESEARCH AND MEASUREMENT**

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### **Introduction**

Recently Johan Boucher (2013) published a chapter titled “Leisure as Moderator for Spiritual Well-Being?” His goal was to theoretically examine whether leisure may be viewed as a moderator for spiritual well-being, i.e., does leisure contribute to spiritual well-being? He discussed the conceptualization of leisure and spiritual well-being, reviewed research on leisure and spirituality conducted by two leisure scholars, and evaluated this research in light of his conceptualization of leisure and spiritual well-being in order to determine if leisure is a moderator for spiritual well-being. Boucher claimed that these leisure scholars’ research is more in line with psychological well-being than spiritual well-being. His recommendations for future research on this topic included: a more precise analysis of spirituality; a more meticulous analysis of well-being in regards to spirituality; and more quantitative research. Boucher concluded “that the existent evidence for supporting the statement that leisure is a moderator for spiritual well-being is (conceptually) too weak to make a valid case for it” (p. 292). Boucher based his analysis on the work of only two leisure researchers: Heintzman (2002, 2009, 2010a, 2010b; Heintzman & Mannell, 1999) and Schmidt (2007, Schmidt & Little, 2007; Little & Schmidt, 2006). However he analyzed Heintzman’s speculative (2002) and review (2009, 2010a, 2010b) articles rather than Heintzman’s empirical research studies (1999, 2007, 2008, 2011; Heintzman & Mannell, 2003), while Schmidt’s research focuses on spiritual experience not spiritual well-being. This paper applies Boucher’s original research question of whether leisure is a moderator of spiritual well-being to existing research on leisure and spiritual well-being.

### **Methods**

An exhaustive search was conducted to locate empirical studies on leisure and spiritual well-being. Content analysis of 14 studies determined their conceptual understanding of spiritual well-being, the methodology used (e.g., qualitative, quantitative), instruments used to measure spiritual well-being, the sample size, and results in regards to spiritual well-being.

### **Results**

In the last 20 years, there has been a dramatic expansion of empirical research on leisure and spirituality; dozens of studies now exist. These studies have tended to focus on immediate spiritual experience rather than long-term spiritual well-being. Nevertheless 14 studies (Table 1) were found that focus on leisure and spiritual well-being (Doi, 2004; Gu, 2011; Heintzman, 1999, 2000, 2007, 2008, 2011; Heintzman & Mannell, 2003; Lemieux et al., 2012; Pham, 2013; Ragheb, 1989, 1993; Tsai & Wu, 2005; Weight, 1996). Most of these studies investigated leisure in general however some focused on specific activities: birdwatching (Gu, 2011), wilderness canoeing (Heintzman, 2007, 2008), park visitation (Lemieux et al., 2012) and yoga (Pham, 2013). Seven studies (Doi, 2004; Heintzman, 1999, 2000; Heintzman & Mannell, 2003; Pham, 2013; Tsai & Wu, 2005; Weight, 1996) included a discussion of how spiritual well-being was conceptualized while the others did not. Four (Heintzman, 2000, 2007, 2008, 2011) were qualitative studies based on in-depth interviews with sample sizes ranging from six to eight. In these studies participants were asked to define their understanding of spiritual well-being prior to answering questions that explored the relationships between their leisure and their spiritual well-being. Nine studies (Doi, 2004; Gu, 2013; Heintzman, 1999; Heintzman & Mannell, 2003; Lemieux et al., 2013; Ragheb, 1989, 1993; Tsai & Wu, 2005, Weight, 1996) involved survey

research with sample sizes ranging from 104 to 394. Pham's (2013) study used mixed methods with an experiment (31 in both the experimental group and control groups) along with analysis of interviews with 10 members of the experimental group. Spiritual well-being was measured in a variety of ways: the Spiritual Well-Being Scale (Pham, 2013); the religious dimension of the Spiritual Well-Being Scale (Weight, 1996); a shortened, modified version of the Spiritual Well-Being Scale along with the Spiritual Well-Being subscale of the MPI well-being scale (Heintzman, 1999; Heintzman & Mannell, 2003), the Perceived Wellness Survey that included six spiritual wellness items (Tsai & Wu, 2005); a three item scale with two items focused on nature (Lemieux et al., 2013); two items (Ragheb, 1993); and one item that asked how one's leisure contributed to one's spiritual well-being (Ragheb, 1989). Doi (2004) claimed to measure spiritual well-being with the Leisure-Spiritual Processes scale which actually does not measure spiritual well-being. It was not clear how Gu (2011) measured spiritual well-being. Excluding the Doi (2004) study that did not measure spiritual well-being, and the Weight (1996) study in which the sample was too small to make any statistical inferences, all qualitative and quantitative studies concluded that leisure contributed to spiritual well-being. Heintzman (1999, 2000; Heintzman & Mannell, 2003) also discovered that leisure could detract from spiritual well-being.

### **Discussion**

Bouwer's conclusion that "existent evidence for supporting the statement that leisure is a moderator for spiritual well-being is (conceptually) too weak to make a valid case for it" (p. 292) was based on a very limited review of leisure literature, and did not include a review of any of the 14 studies identified in the current study. His conclusion is applicable to some of the studies reviewed, that is, studies (e.g., Lemieux et al., 2013; Ragheb, 1989, 1993) which did not provide a conceptual understanding of spiritual well-being and that were based on only a few items that make it difficult to capture the complexity of spiritual well-being and assess the reliability of its measurement. However his conclusion is less applicable to those studies that provided a thorough discussion of spiritual well-being and used standardized spiritual well-being scales used widely in other disciplines and that have documented high levels of test-retest reliability, internal consistency, face validity, and convergent validity.

### **Implications for Practice**

Leisure service practitioners and researchers need to use discernment when considering the results of studies on leisure and spiritual well-being. Care needs to be taken when interpreting qualitative studies, with small sample sizes, as these studies allow participants to self-define spiritual well-being so there may be little conceptual clarity regarding the use of this term in these studies. Caution also needs to be exercised when interpreting the results of studies that do not provide a conceptual background for spiritual well-being and rely on only one or two items to measure this concept. As Bouwer suggested, in both these cases, findings might reflect psychological rather than spiritual well-being. More confidence can be placed in studies that use spiritual well-being scales that have been used widely in other social science disciplines and that have high levels of reliability and validity. Given that much existing research on leisure and spirituality is qualitative and focuses on spiritual experience, more quantitative research needs to be conducted using well-known spiritual well-being scales. Only when more of this type of research is conducted will we be able to conclude with confidence that leisure is a moderator of spiritual well-being.

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Table 1  
Empirical Studies on Leisure and Spiritual Well-Being

Authors	Study Focus	Method	Sample Size	Conceptualization of Spiritual Well-Being	Measurement
Doi (2014)	Leisure preferences in college students	Survey	Study 1: 141 Study 2: 104	Yes	Leisure-Spiritual Processes Scale (Heintzman, 1999)
Gu (2011)	Birdwatching	Survey	211	Unknown	Unknown
Heintzman (1999)	Leisure style of general population	Survey	248	Yes	1. Modified version of the Spiritual Well-Being Scale (Ellison & Smith, 1991) 2. Spiritual Well-Being subscale of the MPI Well-Being scale (Vella-Brodrick & Allen, 1995)
Heintzman (2000)	Leisure style of general population	Qualitative In-Depth Interviews	8	Yes	Not applicable
Heintzman (2007)	Wilderness Canoeing	Qualitative In-Depth Interviews	6	No	Not applicable
Heintzman (2008)	Wilderness Canoeing	Qualitative In-Depth Interviews	6	No	Not applicable
Heintzman (2011)	Youth Leisure	Qualitative In-Depth Interviews	8	No	Not applicable
Heintzman & Mannell (2003)	Leisure style of general population	Survey	248	Yes	1. Modified version of the Spiritual Well-Being Scale (Ellison & Smith, 1991) 2. Spiritual Well-Being subscale of the MPI Well-Being scale (Vella-Brodrick & Allen, 1995)
Lemieux, Eagles, Slocombe, Doherty, Elliot, & Mock (2012)	Park visitation	Survey	166	No	Three items with two focused on nature
Pham (2013)	Yoga	Experiment & Interviews	Experiment: 62 Interviews:10	Yes	Spiritual Well-Being Scale (Ellison & Smith, 1991)
Ragheb (1989)	Leisure of general population	Survey	361	No	One item
Ragheb (1993)	Leisure of general population	Survey	219	No	Two items
Tsai & Wu (2005)	Leisure participation of older persons	Survey	394	Yes	Six spiritual wellness items from the Perceived Wellness Survey (Adams, Bezner, & Steinhardt, 1997)
Weight (1996)	Leisure functioning in adults	Survey	84	Yes	Religious Dimension of the Spiritual Well-Being Scale (Ellison & Smith, 1991)

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# **THE BENEFITS OF BIKING SCALE: A NATIONAL APPLICATION AMONG MOUNTAIN BIKERS**

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## **Introduction**

Mountain biking is currently one of the fastest growing recreational activities in the world (The Outdoor Foundation, 2013), but documenting the benefits has been challenging. The Benefits of Hiking Scale (BHS) has been used in other national and state park trail research (Freidt, Hill, Gómez, Goldenberg, & Hill, 2010; Hill et al., 2014). The BHS, a 32-item instrument assessing the values and benefits of using trails, is theoretically grounded, reflecting Gutman's (1982) means-end theory and reflecting Driver's (1998) leisure benefits. Gutman identified three key concepts within means-end: attributes, consequences, and values (Goldenberg et al., 2000). 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. 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 health benefits is also instrumental in positioning and promoting recreation and parks as a means to address current public issues, especially those related to health and quality of life. Recreation professionals should not assume that recreation is inherently rewarding, but instead should identify and measure outcomes (Allen & Cooper, 2003). The purpose of this study was to examine the values and health outcomes associated with mountain biking in the U.S. by using a modified BHS.

## **Methods**

Using a convenience sample data were collected with a self-administered online survey through the International Mountain Biking Association's (IMBA) listserv and posted on their website in the summer of 2015. For the purposes of this study, the word "hiking" was substituted with the word "biking" to reflect the recreation activity context related to trail use, thus the modified BHS will be the Benefits of Biking Scale (BBS). The survey included the BBS items and demographic questions. All analyses were performed at the 95% confidence interval.

## **Results**

With an  $N = 1319$ , the national sample represented all states except North Dakota and Delaware. The sample represented the following demographic aspects: gender (80.7% male), race (92.2% white), marital status (66.0% married), and IMBA membership (49.9% members). The KMO value of 0.89 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity of  $p < .05$  met the requirements for sampling adequacy. The Cronbach's alphas for the three dimensions of BBS (Prevention  $\alpha = .90$ , Improve  $\alpha = .85$ , Psych  $\alpha = .87$ ) and the three dimensions of M-ERS (Values  $\alpha = .91$ , Consequences  $\alpha = .67$ , Attributes  $\alpha = .60$ ) were at or above the minimum 0.60 cut-off (Tabacknick & Fidell, 1996).

Regarding the Means-end analyses, no significant differences were found between IMBA/non-IMBA members and expected values from mountain biking. However, significant differences were found between the attributes ascribed to mountain biking and health consequences expected from mountain biking, with IMBA members scoring higher on both

attributes and consequences than non-IMBA members. No differences were found between genders on attributes, but differences were found between men and women and their perceptions of values and consequences, with women scoring higher on both these dimensions. No differences were found between married/non-married bikers. No significant differences were found between age groups (13-34; 34-40; 41-50; 51+) and consequences or attributes; however the 13-34 group viewed perceived values significantly higher than their older counterparts (41-50 and 51+).

Regarding the benefits analyses, no significant differences were found between IMBA/non-IMBA members and prevention benefits from mountain biking. However, significant differences were found between the improvement and psychological benefits of mountain biking, with IMBA members scoring higher on both improvement and psychological benefits than non-IMBA members. Differences were found in terms of prevention and psychological benefits, with men scoring higher on prevention and women scoring higher on psychological benefits. Differences were found related to improvement and prevention benefits. No significant differences were found between age groups and improvement or psychological benefits; however the 13-34 age group was significantly lower the 51+ age group cohort in prevention benefits.

### **Discussion**

This national study explored differences between gender, IMBA membership, age, and marital status in mountain bikers. Our findings indicate that IMBA members scored higher on perceived values of mountain biking, as well as higher scores on improvement and psychological benefits. One could speculate that mountain bikers who also belong to IMBA as a member, gain more value than non-members because they are more attached to the sport in its entirety, not just as participants. This is similar to previous research on place attachment and Appalachian Trail hikers (Hill et al., 2014). With respect to gender, differences were found between genders on four of the six dimensions. In previous research among Eastern Virginia mountain bikers, Hill, Smith, Usher, and Gómez (2014) found the benefits dimension of the BBS to be homogeneous with regard to benefits across a heterogeneous sample, with no significant gender difference between the three benefits. Thus, our findings at the national level are divergent.

### **Implications for Practice**

This research can be used for public land managers. In addition, this research may be useful to outdoor recreation programmers to better understand the “participants” while on park trails; and to allow for better recognition of benefits of biking on trails. For example, trail administrators could market the benefits of biking trails differently to women by focusing on the psychological benefits, and could focus on prevention benefits, particularly to older men. Lastly, the data indicate that both men and women perceive similar improvements to their health from biking, but women enjoy the psychological (social) aspects of biking more than men. Furthermore, the complete BBS includes a measure for benefits and for values. Exploring values of mountain bikers, and their differences, might help isolate motives for mountain biking. The building of mountain parks is at an all-time high (Outside, 2015); researchers need to further investigate the benefits and values for users. Clearly values were significantly higher among IMBA members, indicating a greater appreciation for biking by its members – something which could be advertised. These new data will be useful for park managers and programmers to effectively identify the needs of mountain bike trail users and better target market their product.

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# **PROGRAMMING FOR URBAN YOUTH: THE CARE NOW IN- AND AFTERSCHOOL PROGRAM**

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The absence of negative or undesirable behaviors was the benchmark for youth development prior to the early 1990s (Benson, et al., 2006). There has been a continual shift from viewing adolescence as a period of strife, to a time where youth may develop into successful contributing members of society (Damon, 2004). Pittman captured the essence of this shift by stating that the youth who were problem free were not necessarily fully prepared (Pittman, Irby, & Ferber, 2001). In response to this paradigm shift there has been increased research and practitioner involvement, national policy discussions, and increased funding for practice and research, that the moniker, Positive Youth Development (PYD) became ascribed to guiding young people in a variety of environments. Character and Resiliency Education (CARE) Now is a comprehensive in- and afterschool program designed to promote academic achievement. In math classes and throughout afterschool activities, the CARE Now program focuses on the enhancement of character and resiliency because of their established, inextricable link to academic achievement and positive youth development. Hill & Milliken (2011) identified significant gains among the middle school participants in CARE Now. Resiliency increased for males differentially than for females; high usage of the program was especially beneficial. Therefore, the purpose of the study was to investigate CARE Now's impact on resiliency and character among urban elementary school students.

## **Methods**

The public school district in Southeast Virginia was selected for the project. The student population exhibits higher-than-average rates of failure, truancy, higher dropout rates, disciplinary infractions, and poor relationships with school personnel, family, and the community at large. Many of the schools' students live in government-subsidized housing with 98% of the students are eligible to receive free and reduced meals (VDOE, 2012). The CARE Now program aimed to provide outcome-focused character and resiliency programming to all 3rd-5th graders as a means to promote academic readiness and student motivation. Using the resiliency and character traits, and an Outcome-Focused Programming (OFP) model, CARE Now was created. During the in-school and afterschool program, held Monday through Thursday, undergraduate college students worked with the elementary students. The in-school advocates used counseling techniques learned throughout their coursework to redirect participants who are struggling in the classroom. One day each week, advocates led a guidance lesson during class introducing the character and resiliency traits of the week that were reinforced when working with students to solve problems, communicate appropriately, and express their feelings. These traits were also mirrored in the after-school portion of the program. The after-school activities included cooperative teambuilding exercises that promoted planning and problem-solving within a group, and required students to listen to one another and follow through with handling conflicts. Within these groups, over the course of the school year, they developed friendships through experiential education, challenge initiatives, and academic support from one another.

## **Results**

The 40-item Resiliency and Attitudes Skills Profile (RASP) has been used in several studies, and shows promise as an effective measure (Brown, Hill, Shellman, & Gómez, 2012). Other studies have continued to test the robustness of the RASP with various findings (Williams et al.,

2013). More recently Hill, Gómez & Milliken (2014) developed a 24-item RASP scale that was used in this study. The 12-item Citizenship Scale was used as an assessment of honesty, trustworthiness, rule following, and conscientiousness. The measurement falls into James Rest's (1986) third component of moral behavior, ethical focus or motivation (other components are ethical sensitivity, ethical judgment and ethical action). Initially tested as part of a battery of items examining ethical identity, duty, and citizenship in elementary school students, twelve items loaded together as one factor termed "citizenship." Of the 132 students who participated in the 2013-2014 school year, 76 students were granted permission from their parents/guardians and assented to complete the questionnaires, and of those, 39 students had matched pre- and posttest data. This resulted in a 30% response rate. Of the 39 participants, 13 were males and 26 were females. Paired samples t-tests were used to compare participants from pretest to posttest scores. Results indicated a statistically significant increased difference between participants' pretest of the RASP ( $M = 4.99$ ,  $SD = .65$ ) and posttest scores ( $M = 5.26$ ,  $SD = .57$ , with  $t(38) = -2.75$ ,  $p = .009$ , with a corresponding effect size,  $r^2_{pb} = 0.16$ ). Additionally, while not statistically significant, a slight increase of scores in the Citizenship Scale was also found between pretest ( $M = 4.66$ ,  $SD = 0.54$ ) and posttest ( $M = 4.70$ ,  $SD = 0.44$ ), with  $t(38) = -.46$ ,  $p = .65$ , with a corresponding effect size,  $r^2_{pb} = 0.005$ . There was no significant difference between males and females on resiliency or character, although males scored higher than females at RASP pretest, but lower than females on the Citizenship pretest.

### **Conclusion**

Developmental assets have been identified as a set of supports (i.e., adult figure) who are related to promoting school success, reducing risk behaviors, and increasing social-valued outcomes including prosocial behavior, leadership, and resilience" (Benson, Scales, & Syvertsen, 2011). In previous CARE Now programs, Hill & Milliken (2011) found a usage group x gender interaction about there being an adult at school that the student could talk to about their problems. A positive role model is especially important in inner-city areas, where youth are often lacking that person in their lives. In addition, they found specifically, a higher level of usage or involvement with the program was beneficial for male students (Hill & Milliken). In the current study both male and female participants made positive improvements. Gains in resilience and character, being associated with a greater capacity to cope with adversity, higher moral consciousness, and greater success academically, are of value to all students, and particularly to those faced with the challenges of poverty and instability experienced by so many of the elementary school students. While students did not meet accreditation benchmarks this academic year, their positive gains in resilience are still important as these children need as many internal resources as possible for coping with day to day life.

### **Implications for Practice**

It is noteworthy to acknowledge any positive shift in scores considering the short amount of time the children participated in the programming. Particularly in light of research that has repeatedly shown that significant gains in core developmental constructs takes a minimum of one year (Rest, 1986). The positive increase in scores offer continued support to advocate for evidence-based recreation programs for both male and female urban youth. Many of the youth lack academic assistance outside of school, and do not have a safe place to go afterschool, which programs such as CARE Now can address.

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## CONNECTING ADOLESCENT RECREATION BEHAVIORS TO ADULT SIBLING RELATIONSHIP QUALITY

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Sibling relationships are potentially the longest-lasting across the lifespan (Cicirelli, 1994; Whiteman, McHale, & Soli, 2011). Even as birthrate and family size in the U. S. decline, children are more likely to grow up sharing a household with a sibling than with a father (Feinberg, Sakuma, Hostetler, & McHale, 2013). Little is known about the role leisure and recreation play in sibling relationships (Whiteman, McHale, & Crouter, 2007). Recreation is considered to be a means of family relationship development and maintenance (Orthner, Barnett-Morris, & Mancini, 1994), and family leisure is positively related to family functioning, satisfaction with family life, family cohesion, and family adaptability (Holman & Epperson, 1984; Orthner & Mancini, 1990; Poff, Zabriskie, & Townsend, 2010; Zabriskie & McCormick, 2001; Zabriskie & McCormick, 2003). These conclusions, however, are largely based on individual-level analyses of cross-sectional couple or parent-child data in which the child is an adolescent. Examinations of the longevity of leisure as a predictor of family outcomes over time have been limited. Moreover, sibling perspectives are missing from family leisure literature. Thus, our understanding of the role of recreation in sibling relationships is limited, especially when considering transitions across life stages, or when examining developmental stages other than childhood or adolescence. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine adolescent recreation behaviors as predictors of adult sibling relationship quality. Specifically, we explored technology-based and active recreation in adolescence and their relationships to higher or lower perceptions of sibling closeness, contact, communication, and conflict in adulthood.

### Methods

Data were drawn from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent to Adult Health (Add Health), a nationally representative longitudinal study of adolescents in the United States (Harris et al., 2009) beginning in adolescence and spanning into adulthood. A fifth wave of data collection is underway. We used Adolescent Pairs Data that identified sibling pairs. The sample was delimited to full sibling pairs ( $n_{pairs}=1,251$ ,  $n_{respondents}=2,502$ ) of all gender compositions.

*Instrumentation.* We used a five-item scale ( $\alpha =.741$ ) to measure sibling relationship quality (SRQ). Additionally, we used four items to assess technology-based leisure, and three items to assess active leisure. Finally, we included age, birth order, mother's education, household income, family size, race, relationships with parents, and family structure in model estimation.

*Analyses.* We addressed missing data with multiple imputation. We computed descriptive statistics, correlations, and a series of multilevel models that accounted for family-level effects when predicting sibling relationship quality. Data were weighted according to Add Health terms.

### Results

Most respondents were female ( $n = 1,276$ , 51%), White ( $n = 1,380$ , 55%), and lived with both their mother and father ( $n = 2,106$ , 84%). Mean age was 15.1 years old ( $SD = 1.50$ ), and mean family size was 5.0 ( $SD = .87$ ) with a range of 1 to 7 people per household. Mother's education ranged from less than a high school education ( $n = 311$ , 12%), to high school or GED ( $n = 892$ , 36%), to some college ( $n = 720$ , 29%), to graduated from a college or university (17%),

to professional training beyond a four-year degree ( $n = 147$ , 6%). Most respondents ( $n = 1,450$ , 58%) reported watching TV or videos five or more times per week, and 22% ( $n = 544$ ) reported watching TV or videos three or four times per week. Overall, respondents spent an average of 23 hours a week engaged in some form of technology-based recreation. One in four respondents reported not playing an active sport during the week ( $n = 635$ , 25%), and nearly one in five reported no exercise in the last week ( $n = 401$ , 16%). Slightly more respondents ( $n = 661$ , 26%) had played an active sport at least once in the last week. About one-third of respondents ( $n = 780$ , 31%) reported exercising once or twice in the last week, and slightly more than half ( $n = 1,321$ , 53%) reported exercising three or more times.

We estimated an unconditional model from which we calculated the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC). The ICC was 46.6%, meaning nearly half of the variance in perceptions of adult sibling relationship quality was explained by family-level effects, or between-family differences. Household income, gender, relationship with mother, and race were significant predictors of adult sibling relationship quality. Family size and birth order, while not significant, were retained in the model because both have effects on sibling relationships (Downey, 2001). Rollerblading or bicycling was positively related to adult sibling relationship quality ( $\beta = .214$ ,  $t = 2.96$ ,  $p = .003$ ) as was playing an active sport ( $\beta = .225$ ,  $t = 3.45$ ,  $p = .001$ ). Conversely, exercising was negatively related to adult sibling relationship quality ( $\beta = -.143$ ,  $t = -.2.17$ ,  $p = .030$ ). Hours spent watching videos were positively related to perceptions sibling relationship quality ( $\beta = .042$ ,  $t = 3.85$ ,  $p < .001$ ). No gender-recreation interactions were significant.

## **Discussion**

Findings suggest that recreation behaviors in adolescence contributed to sibling relationship quality years later in adulthood. Whether adolescent recreation was positively or negatively related to adult sibling relationship quality varied by activity. Of note, the positive relationship between sibling relationship quality and some technology-based recreation behaviors may contradict mainstream perceptions of technology-based recreation. Overall, these findings suggest that adolescent recreation plays at least some part in sibling relationships over time.

Major contributions of this paper include the explicit examination of the positive relationship between leisure and family relationship well-being at siblings' different developmental stages. Moreover, sibling relationships are potentially the longest lasting and most stable across the life span (Whiteman et al., 2011), and of importance to individual development and well-being (Cicirelli, 1995). Future research should consider the specific aspects of sibling recreation including shared and non-shared recreation experiences, and examine a greater variety of individual and family outcomes and a broader scope of family contexts in which siblings operate.

## **Implications for Practice**

Current findings suggest adolescent recreation is an important context for developing adult sibling relationships. Close adult sibling relationships are related to greater life satisfaction and lower levels of depression (Cicirelli, 1995). Recreation provides a context for critical sibling processes such as communication (e.g., Smith, Freeman, & Zabriskie, 2009) and conflict resolution that facilitate close sibling relationships. Recreation may therefore provide an accessible, cost effective, unobtrusive, and typically enjoyable avenue through which family and recreation practitioners can intentionally influence adolescent sibling relationships, and in turn, increase individual well-being across the lifespan.

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## **ENGAGING URBAN YOUTH WITH NATURAL AREAS: MESSAGING THAT RESONATES**

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Multiple studies demonstrate a positive relationship between natural areas and physical and mental well-being (e.g. Pretty, Peacock, Sellens, & Griffin, 2005). Scholars have hypothesized that natural settings provide benefits through attention restoration and cognitive functions (e.g. Kaplan, 1995). Research highlights the importance of inclusively engaging and strengthening all youth's connections to natural areas. Urban youth, particularly minority youth, often do not participate in outdoor activities (Outdoor Foundation, 2013). These findings are even more alarming considering that minority youth are less likely to be physically active; are at higher risk for diabetes and other obesity-related diseases; and are more mentally taxed due to living in stressful urban environments (Eaton et al., 2006; Kuo, 2001). Barriers to participation for minority groups may be structural, social, cultural, or due to lack of awareness. Predominantly African-American U.S. neighborhoods have fewer built or natural settings for physical activity (Powell, Slater, Chaloupka, & Harper, 2006). Poor access to natural areas is especially prevalent in Los Angeles, with many neighborhoods considered 'park poor.' As minority groups may experience unique structural, social, and/or cultural constraints, different messaging strategies may be required when communicating with minority urban youth about natural areas (e.g. Shores, Scott, & Floyd, 2007). However, the ideal content and mediums for these strategies remains unclear. Due to its widespread popularity amongst youth, social media may present an effective medium. In a study of Latino health communications, investigators found that 97% of participants had at least one social media account and called for further research on effective social media strategies for youth (Vyas et al., 2012). In light of these issues, the current study investigated (a) how and why minority urban youth use social media, and (b) key nature-based messages of interest to minority urban youth. These findings are anticipated to inform larger initiatives for engaging urban youth with nature.

### **Methods**

Seven focus groups were conducted with 42 minority youth ages 11-20 from urban LA ( $\bar{x}$  =15; 42% female, 58% male; 55% Latino, 24% Black, 5% Chinese, 2% Native American and 14% 'other' or mixed ethnicities). Participants were selected by identifying underserved LA areas with high minority populations and contacting youth groups from those areas using a snowballing method (Patton, 2002). A 15-item semi-structured interview guide was created based on the literature, which was piloted and revised prior to data collection. Questions focused on perceptions of outdoor recreation, motivation to recreate outdoors, desired outcomes, barriers and facilitators, and social media use. Each focus group was transcribed verbatim. Three researchers and two assistants conducted content analysis of the data by initially classifying reoccurring themes independently to reduce bias and allow for triangulation (Patton, 2002). To better identify unique messages of interest to youth, themes were based on emergent, rather than predetermined, concepts in the data. Using the constant comparison method, researchers discussed and condensed initial emergent concepts into higher order themes using a master spreadsheet that displayed each theme followed by content examples.

### **Results and Discussion**

Participants reported three main reasons for using social media: communication, information, and entertainment. Mainstream social media outlets and gaming sites, accessed via mobile

devices, were cited most frequently (e.g. Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, YouTube). Data were classified into six themes: *unique experiences, escape, social connections, challenge, adventure, and accessibility*. The first theme, *unique experiences*, was reported most frequently and is supported by research identifying novelty as an important motivation for outdoor participation (e.g. Carson, 1998). “*I like finding a lot of...bugs I didn’t even know existed.*” *Escape* was the second most common theme. Although going outdoors is recognized as a way to ‘reconnect with nature,’ these youth used nature as a way to disconnect from their lives and unplug from technology (Baker, 2005). “*I always have this urge to... get away from the city... and just to get away from it all.*” Coupled with the *escape theme*, youth described nature as a stress reliever. “*I like not having any responsibilities; no homework, no more drama. It’s just me, who I’m with, and the outdoors.*” Although seemingly at odds with the *escape theme*, a *social connections* theme emerged as youth reported bonding with family and friends in natural areas. “*Bringing my family to nature just really makes us grow as a family because we get to bond with each other more than how we would in our homes.*” *Challenge* and *adventure* were two distinct but related themes that appeared in all focus groups. Youth recounted either accomplishing something difficult, or challenging friends to do so, with a resulting sense of achievement and self-confidence (*challenge*). They also described the excitement associated with exploration (*adventure*). “*When you...see like a waterfall or something it feels like it’s a reward.*” Youth reported the importance of sharing adventures socially. “*...we went to the snow and brought back pictures and were showing people. And they were like, oh I want to do that next time.*” The least common theme was *accessibility*; however the magnitude of comments regarding lack of access merited its inclusion as an aspect of effective messaging. Youth frequently cited “not having a ride,” parent work schedules, and a lack of finances as barriers.

### **Implications for Practice**

These findings have practical implications for designing effective urban youth messaging. Youth reported engaging with technology using mainstream social media outlets via mobile devices. These findings suggest that park and recreation professionals can utilize existing social media resources to develop effective communication with youth. Although messages highlighting access issues were the least common, these messages may arguably be the most critical for urban youth participation. Lack of access can ultimately mitigate the effectiveness of other messaging. Therefore any strategy should be accompanied by clear access information. This study suggests that developing integrated social media campaigns across existing platforms that incorporate the six themes identified herein may be a worthwhile investment for park and forest professionals. The authors also suggest that park and forest organizations consider employing urban youth to manage and continually generate new content based around these themes. The benefits of this approach are twofold: it would diversify the parks’ workforce as well as better connecting agencies with underserved youth. There are also limitations associated with these exploratory data. These messages may not resonate with youth outside the LA basin. Future research by the authors will include monitoring the effectiveness of the themes across diverse social media platforms. It is anticipated that future findings will provide more detailed insights into how youth engage with social media and different messages. This study has initially identified messaging that resonates with urban youth and establishes an important baseline for initiating social media campaigns targeting urban youth by park and forest organizations.

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# **THE MODERATING EFFECT OF SERIOUS LEISURE ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEISURE SATISFACTION AND HAPPINESS**

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## **Introduction**

Because of economic growth and urbanization, more women work and participate in Korean society and take a larger part in economic activities (Kim, Lee, & Hwang, 2014). Consequently, more Korean women have to work both in companies and at home. For career women, their rights to pursue a happy life are restricted due to lack of time for self-development through participation in leisure activities (Kim, 2008). Therefore, there need to be efficient strategies that will provide time for leisure involvement promoting happiness for career women.

Leisure satisfaction is a good predictor of happiness. Leisure satisfaction is defined as the positive perceptions or feelings which an individual forms, elicits, or gains as a result of engaging in leisure activities and choices. It is the degree to which an individual is presently content or pleased with his/her general leisure experiences and situations (Beard & Ragheb, 1980, p. 22). Ragheb and Griffith(1982) suggested that a high level of leisure satisfaction improves the quality of life (QOL). In addition, other researchers demonstrated that leisure satisfaction was positively related to QOL and happiness (Hills & Argyle, 1998; Huimei, 2014; Lu & Hu, 2005; Mannel, 1993; Mannel & Kleiber, 1997; Spiers & Walker, 2008).

Stebbins (1982) explained active and passionate leisure activity using the concept of serious leisure. Serious leisure is defined as “the systematic pursuit of an amateur, hobbyist, or volunteer activity sufficiently substantial and interesting for the participant to find a career there in the acquisition and expression of a combination of its special skills, knowledge, and experience” (Stebbins, 1992, p. 3). Stebbins (2001) suggested a theoretical link between serious leisure and well-being. Other researchers found that benefits from serious leisure were important contributors to happiness (Cheng & Tsaur, 2012; Heo, Lee, McCormick, Pedersen, 2010; Lu & Hu, 2005; Stebbins, 2007). Leisure participants were individually able to experience psychological and physical health, a high quality of life, and happiness. Furthermore, Leisure participants perceived a high level of health as they invested more time and effort into serious leisure. (Kim, Dattilo & Heo, 2011).

Based on findings from existing studies, leisure satisfaction and happiness had positive correlations, and serious leisure was positively associated with both leisure satisfaction and happiness. It could be argued that serious leisure may influence the relationship between leisure satisfaction and happiness. Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between leisure satisfaction and happiness as well as clarify the moderating effect of serious leisure on their relationship.

## **Methods**

This research targeted the working women in Seoul, South Korea, as a sample group who were given 440 copies of a questionnaire using cluster quota sampling. More specifically, at first they were grouped in four different divisions and were given 110 copies in each division. In the survey, they were asked to mark their answers using the self-administration method. A total of 432 surveys were used to finalize the analysis. Eight survey sheets were excluded because they lacked information and were not clear. The general characteristics of the sample groups were that

the majority of participants was aged 25 to 30 (45.1%), their income ranged from \$2,000 to \$3,000 (32.4%) and 48.7% were single and 51.3% were married.

To measure leisure satisfaction, the Leisure Satisfaction Scale (LSS) instrument developed by Beard and Ragheb (1980) and revised by Kim, Lee, and Hwang (2010) was used. The scale includes six sub-factors such as psychological, educational, social, relaxation, physiological, and aesthetic dimensions. For serious leisure, 18 items were employed from the scale of Kim, Kim, and Hwang (2010) which were extracted from the original serious leisure inventory developed by Gould, Moore, McGuire & Stebbins (2008). In order to measure the feeling of happiness, the measurement device of happiness index created by Suh, Ku, Lee, Chung and Choi (2010) was used. The measurement of happiness comprises 3 subcategories: the life satisfaction (3 questions), positive feeling (3 questions), and negative feeling (3 questions). Each question was scaled by 5 points (1: never and 5: very).

## **Results**

Prior to the main analyses, the reliability and validity test of the scales were conducted. First, to explore differences among leisure participants based on serious leisure scores, respondents were divided into roughly three equal groups consisting of low ( $n=126$ ,  $M=2.39$ ), middle ( $n=158$ ,  $M=3.19$ ), and high ( $n=148$ ,  $M=4.10$ ). Then, One-way ANOVA and post-hoc tests were performed in order to reveal participants' leisure satisfaction and happiness depending on their degree of seriousness <table 1>.

The results indicated that all differences were significant ( $p<.001$ ). Career women who participated in leisure activities more seriously felt more satisfaction ( $M=4.20$ ) and more happiness ( $M=3.95$ ) than the moderately serious group (each  $M=3.57$ ,  $M=3.76$ ) and the low group-which could be called a causal group- (each  $M=2.96$ ,  $M=3.45$ ). Moreover, the moderately serious group felt more satisfaction and happiness than the low serious group.

To determine the moderating effect of serious leisure on the relationship between leisure satisfaction and happiness, the hierarchical regression analysis was performed (see Table 2). The first step indicated a significant positive effect of leisure satisfaction on happiness (Adj.  $R^2=.115$ ,  $p<.001$ ). The second step also showed significant positive effects of leisure satisfaction and serious leisure on happiness (Adj.  $R^2=.125$ , each  $\beta=.213$ ,  $p<.01$ ;  $\beta=.169$ ,  $p<.05$ ). R-square change was statistically significant ( $\Delta R^2 = .010$ ,  $p=.018$ ). In the third step of the regression analysis, the level of model change was not statistically significant ( $\Delta R^2 = -.002$ ,  $p>.05$ ), and an interaction effect of leisure satisfaction and serious leisure did not have a significant influence on happiness ( $\beta= -.119$ ,  $p>.05$ ). This result indicated that contrary to the expected interaction effect, the relationship between leisure satisfaction and happiness did not vary by the degree of seriousness of leisure participant. Therefore, serious leisure did not moderate the relationship between leisure satisfaction and happiness.

## **Conclusion**

According to the literature, the degree of serious leisure positively influences leisure satisfaction, and leisure satisfaction plays an important role by increasing happiness of leisure activity participants. Moreover, serious leisure also has a positive effect on happiness. However, the results of this study reveal that serious leisure does not moderate the relationship between leisure satisfaction and happiness.

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Table 1. Leisure satisfaction and happiness based on the degree of seriousness

	Degree of seriousness			<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	Post-hoc	Total means
	Low	Middle	High				
Leisure satisfaction	2.96	3.57	4.20	172.18	<.001	H>M>L	3.61
Happiness	3.45	3.76	3.95	24.16	<.001	H>M>L	3.73

Table 2. Moderating effect of serious leisure on the leisure satisfaction-happiness relationship

		<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$	Adj. $R^2$	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i> of $\Delta F$
Step1	LS	.285	.038	.343***		.115	56.80***	.001
Step2	LS	.177	.059	.213**	.010*	.125	31.56***	.018
	SL	.136	.057	.169*				
Step3	LS	.223	.136	.268	-.002	.123	21.04***	.707
	SL	.192	.160	.239				
	LS x SL	-.015	.040	-.119				

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ , Dependent variable is happiness.

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## UTILIZING FAMILY-BASED NATURE ACTIVITIES TO PROMOTE RURAL, LOW-INCOME FAMILIES' HEALTH

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Time spent in natural environments provides a rich context for promoting health and well-being. A growing body of research has confirmed that *individuals'* engagement with the natural environment has the potential to impact multiple aspects of health: physical (Humpel, Owen, & Leslie, 2007; Kaczynski & Henderson, 2007), psychological (e.g., Kaplan, 1995; Ulrich et al., 1991), and social (Ewert, Mitten, & Overholt, 2014). Although it is clear that involvement in nature-based recreation can affect health and well-being, there is little empirical evidence describing the relationship between engagement in *family-based nature activities (FBNA)* and *health*. Furthermore, the majority of research in the last few decades has focused on the benefits of nature for urban populations (Wells & Evans, 2003). Many nature-based recreational experiences, however, occur within the context of families. There has been little focus on the health promoting behaviors of nature-based recreation among rural, low-income families. Rural populations are more likely than urban residents to experience health disparities, especially in regards to chronic health conditions (e.g., obesity, diabetes, cancer) (Downey, 2013; Eberhardt & Pamuk, 2004). Because access to green spaces can play a vital role in reducing health inequalities (Mitchell & Popham, 2008), it is increasingly important to study rural, low-income families' use of natural environments. This study explores how low-income mothers living in rural areas maintained their health and that of their families by utilizing the natural environment.

### Methods

The data for this study is from Rural Families Speak about Health, a multistate, mixed methods longitudinal research project (<http://ruralfamiliespeak.org/>) that is designed to better understand the health of rural, low-income families with children. Data for this analysis were collected from a sub-sample of participants (n=85) through in-person interviews. Mothers were asked open-ended questions regarding "How do you and your child stay healthy?" and "What resources in your community support your health?" All of the mothers cared for at least one child aged 13 or younger, lived in a household with an income at or below 185% of the federal poverty level, and lived in a rural county according to the 2003 rural-urban continuum codes (Economic Research Service, 2013). Grounded theory methodology (Charmaz, 2006) was used to construct a theory based on the social processes of using FBNA to promote health. First, each transcript was coded with words that pertained to the natural environment (e.g., park, outdoors) in order to stay close to the data and remain open to new ideas (Charmaz, 2006). Next, the first two authors analyzed emergent concepts in the data by using Corbin and Strauss' (2008) analytic tools to identify, "who, what, when, where, why, and how" families utilized nature to promote health. Constant comparative methods were then used to compare similarities and differences across the interviews (Glaser & Strauss, 1967); from this we developed new focused codes. We then Axial coded to relate our categories to subcategories and specify their properties and dimensions (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), followed by theoretically coding to explain the relationship between concepts and to use the data as evidence of our proposed theoretical model.

## **Results**

Our analysis depicts the process of how low-income mothers living in rural areas maintain the health of themselves and their families by utilizing the natural environment in their community (see table 1). These mothers described a desire to keep their family healthy by engaging in family-based nature activities that predominately included walking outside, going to the park, taking the pet canine outside, and ritualized family experiences in nature. Being a good role model for their children, limiting TV exposure, and the desire to promote healthy development were three main reasons why moms promoted FBNA. Mothers reflected on how they engage in family-based nature activities to promote physical, psychological, and social health benefits for each family member as well as the health of the entire family. However, living in the context of rural, poverty impacted mothers' ability to spend time outdoors with their family; specifically, geographic location, access to free, public recreational opportunities and their own unique family resources impacted frequency of time spent outdoors.

## **Discussion and Implications for Practice**

The results of this study broaden our understanding of how and why families utilize natural environments; emphasizing that mothers' motivations to engage in FBNA are often influenced by the needs of their children. This extends prior research that has unilaterally focused on how children's time outdoors is influenced by parents' attitudes about and time spent outdoors. Our study also highlights how the benefits of FBNA are multi-faceted and overlapping as they went beyond the health benefits for individual family members and also impacted family health. These findings echo previous family leisure studies that show time spent together is important for family functioning and relationships (Zabriskie & McCormick, 2001). Finally, our results provide support for Edwards and Matarrita-Cascante's (2011) argument that rural life is complex and a universal rural condition does not exist. In this study, the experiences and opportunities to experience natural environments depended on diverse and varied conditions. The findings suggest that concerted efforts should be made to increase access to affordable natural environments in rural communities to promote both individual and family health. These features are especially important for low-income, rural families who may have limited access to more expensive health promoting opportunities. The availability of public, natural spaces can potentially cut across socioeconomic divides (Ewert, Mitten, and Overholt, 2014). For many families in our study, access to nature was the only community resource that they could use to stay healthy. The results of our study highlight the important role natural environments serve for promoting rural, low-income families' health and the importance of access to and low-cost nature-based recreation opportunities for these families.

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Table 1. How Mothers' Use FBNA to Promote Health: Results of Analysis & Sample Quotes

Questions	Themes	Sub-themes	Sample Quotes
Reasons for Participation	Desire to Keep Family Healthy	-Being a good role model -Resist TV watching -Healthy development	<i>I think one of the best ways to keep her [daughter] healthy is getting her outside (Iris from MA)</i>
	Nature as Part of Family Identity	-Part of daily life -Gratitude for rural living -Outdoor time year round	<i>If we go to the park, we all go to the park. We try to do things as much as we can together (Alta from CA).</i>
Health Outcomes	Individual Health	-Physical -Psychological -Social	<i>My main incentive [to go to park] was to be able to play with the girls without getting tired (Dolly from WA)</i>
	Family Health	-Togetherness -Bonding -Shared memories	<i>We gather our stuff and go to the beach...it is real family oriented. It's just really relaxing (Arabella from TN)</i>
Impact of Context	Rurality	-Geographic region -Housing location -Availability of recreation -Weather	<i>I guess the only thing [that prevents me and my family from being healthy] is just not [having] access to being able to go for walks from our house, having to drive to go for walks, having to drive to go to the park (Sophie from MA)</i>
	Poverty	-Cost -Family resources	

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## **THE POWER OF ONE: PARTNERSHIP APPROACH TO SPORT POLICY DEVELOPMENT**

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Community collaborations and strategic partnerships necessarily involve an inclusive group of citizens and organizations working together towards a shared vision to meet or address an identified mutual need. A body of literature supports the idea that partnerships, alliances, and collaborations are essential in the sport and recreation sectors, and that these relationships require nurturing and development (Uhlik, 1995). Community collaborations and strategic partnerships for recreation and sport delivery are often endorsed as a way to use resources more effectively, reduce inefficiencies and duplication of services, and provide unique opportunities to individuals and communities. Partnerships have been shown to be useful in “addressing the social and environmental causes of poor health and can assist in mobilizing more skills, resources, and approaches to influence an issue beyond which any one organization could achieve alone” (Casey, Payne & Eime, 2009, p. 168). Child and Faulkner (1998) suggest partnerships are beneficial because they encourage organizational relationships that are interdependent. As Vardarajan and Cunningham (1995) note partnerships “incorporate the pooling of skills and resources by the alliance partners in order to achieve one or more goals linked to the strategic objectives of the [partners]” (p. 283). Many communities and organizations, as a result, have identified the value of partnerships and continue to enter into partnership agreements in order to streamline sport and recreation delivery, programs, and services.

While the values, advantages, and benefits of partnerships have been explored, analyses and examinations of how partnerships are formed between community, health, and public organizations for sport and recreation delivery are not well developed. In addition, research indicates that many community sports groups lack a thorough understanding of both the process and outcomes of partnership agreements and the resulting alliance (Vail, 2007). Knowledge of how to use sport and recreation partnerships to meet community needs is often hindered by poor communication between community sport and recreation groups and their stakeholders. What is often missing is consensus among stakeholders that the stakes are high, the organizations involved are interdependent, and all are working toward a common vision (Vail, 1992). A failure to share these perceptions results in the disinclination of some partners to commit resources and participate equally in the partnership. The purpose of this research, therefore, is to examine how a specific partnership was formed to develop and implement a city-wide community sport policy.

### **Research Design**

This case study highlights and examines a group of organizations that came together to create a city-wide community sport policy in a mid-sized, Western Canadian city. In June 2010, a letter of intent was signed by six organizations to begin creating a “Community Sport Policy” (CSP) to guide sport-related programming and resource allocation in the city. The six organizations that contributed to the partnership include: i) a not-for-profit organization committed to developing amateur sport at the provincial level, ii) a not-for-profit community sport alliance, iii) the alliance of community centres, iv) an association of physical education supervisors, v) the regional health authority, and vi) the city. The initial CSP working group was facilitated by a consultant hired by the Community Service Department within the City. Together, individuals, as representatives of their own organization, formalized the partnerships and drafted the CSP.

For this research we examined the partnership members' perceived struggles and successes in forming a partnership to work together to create the CSP. All members of the partnership committee were invited to participate in semi-structured, open-ended, one-on-one interviews. One individual declined participation in the research, resulting in seven individual interviews. Interviews lasted between 40 minutes and 75 minutes. The informal nature of the interview allowed unexpected themes to emerge (Graton & Jones, 2010; Neuman, 2003). Content analysis was used to analyze, categorize, and code the interview data. A priori coding was adopted to analyze the responses because it allowed the researchers to draw out the participants' experiences and perceptions. Emergent coding was used to identify additional themes from the interview transcripts (Andrews, Mason & Silk, 2005).

### **Findings**

Participants in this research agreed the partnership to create the "Community Sport Policy" (CSP) was successful in meeting its goals. However, the creation of the CSP was not without its challenges. Emergent themes indicate individuals, as representatives of their organizations, played an important role in the creation of the CSP document. Despite this, there was also some recognition that individuals may not always represent the best interests of the partnership. While multiple themes emerged, for the purpose of this research we have collapsed the findings into two overarching themes: 1) Relationship building and 2) Asserting independence

First, the CSP partnership was recognized by participants as challenging and difficult to manage. Participants spoke about the difficulty related to reaching consensus and frustrations that occurred between group members. However, participants agreed the success of the CSP was largely due to individual commitment to the partnership. Participants attributed this to the amount of time dedicated to relationship building. For example, one participant said *"I think the relationship building is really, really important. You're not going to progress if the partnership falls apart. And I think we've come a long way. Now we can have a disagreement internally and it doesn't burst us apart, it actually strengthens us."* When asked about the dynamics and relationships between group members, one participant said, *"We have respect for each other, so we have to try and understand where each party is coming from."* The relationships formed between members of the group were important to the success of the partnership.

Second, participants recognized a significant barrier to completion and implementation of the CSP originated from outside the need for individuals to assert their independence. This was often viewed in relation to the requirement to balance individual and group needs within the partnership. Speaking to this issue, one participant said, *"sitting around that group as representing one of the partners. There is no doubt that there's individual views."* Participants recognized that representatives had different views and it was often difficult to simultaneously represent the partnership, the organization, and individual values and beliefs.

### **Implications for Practice and Theory**

While there is agreement on the value of partnerships as strategically beneficial in delivering sport and recreation, less is known about how these partnerships are formed and why they do (or do not) succeed. This research considers the role of individual representatives in the success or failure of a partnership. There is no doubt successful partnerships depend on the dedication and commitment of individuals. Findings suggest successful partnerships must dedicate time to relationship building between organizations and individuals. Organizations must have a strong mandate that individuals are willing to commit to and represent at the partnership level.

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## **LEISURE SKILLS COURSES: PSYCHOSOCIAL IMPACTS ON COLLEGE STUDENTS**

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Due to the transitional nature of becoming a college student, college represents one of the most stressful times in a young adult's life (Kuh, 2003; King, Singh, Bernard, Merianos, & Vidourek, 2012). Students begin to transition out of adolescence, become more independent and have increased responsibilities such as maintaining a job while working on a college degree (Ackerman & Gross, 2003; Arnett, 2000; Newton, Kim, & Newton, 2006; Nonis, Hudson, Logan, & Ford, 1998). This life change can lead to weight gain (Newton et al., 2006; Nelson, Story, Larson, Neumark-Sztainer & Lytle, 2008), depression (Kuwabara, Voorhees, Gollan, & Alexander, 2007), risky behaviors (Arnett, 2005), increased stress (Kuh, 2003; King et al., 2012), low body-esteem (Kumaraswamy, 2013), and self-esteem issues (Welle & Graf, 2011). One's ability to cope with the stressors of college life may have an impact on psychosocial development.

Leisure has been shown to be recuperative and can assist in stress management (Iwasaki, 2003; Mannell & Reid, 1999). Leisure also provides opportunities for physical (LaMonte & Chow, 2010), cognitive (Castelli, 2010), emotional (Wiersma & Parry, 2010), and social well-being (Gill & Bedini, 2010; Keller, Fleury, & Rogers, 2010). Leisure education has been proven to be effective at increasing self-esteem, improving quality of life, increased longevity of leisure participation, development of skills, increased self-determination, improved social skills, and improved ability to structure free time (Datillo, 2008). The purpose of this study was to explore the interrelatedness of stress, self-esteem, and body-esteem for students participating in a form of leisure education called a leisure skills course.

### **Methods**

Questionnaires were administered to students in leisure skills classes offered at Clemson University at the beginning and end of the fall 2014 semester. The questionnaire was taken electronically using iPads. Classes were selected based on instructor willingness. There were 266 participants (119 males, 147 females) ranging in age from 17 to 35 (mean age of 20). There were 49 freshmen, 72 sophomores, 66 juniors, 73 seniors, and 6 graduate students. The perceived stress scale (Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein, 1983), self-esteem scale (Rosenberg, 1979), and body-esteem scale for adolescents and adults (Mendelson, Mendelson, & White, 2001) made up the questionnaire used for this study. Descriptive statistics, main effects, and moderating relationships were examined. Outliers were filtered out based on standardized residuals (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Only significant findings are presented.

### **Results**

The main effects between the beginning and end of semester scores across all measurements were significant. An analysis of variance revealed significant differences between the beginning and end of the semester measurements of body-esteem subscales: appearance satisfaction, weight satisfaction, and appearance attribution (Table 1). Appearance satisfaction decreased while weight satisfaction and appearance attribution increased from beginning to end of semester measurements. A new variable measuring the change in score between the beginning and end of semester was created for each scale by subtracting the beginning of semester score from the end

of semester score. The changes in perceived stress, self-esteem, and body-esteem subscales were tested for moderation (Table 2). The change in perceived stress for those who scored high on initial self-esteem decreased less than those who scored low on initial self-esteem. The change in appearance satisfaction for those who scored high on initial self-esteem increased more than those who scored low on initial self-esteem. The change in appearance satisfaction for those who scored high on initial weight satisfaction decreased more than those who scored low on initial weight satisfaction. The change in weight satisfaction for those who scored high on initial appearance satisfaction increased less than those who scored low on initial appearance satisfaction.

### **Discussion**

Over the course of one semester, participants experienced significant changes in their body-esteem. Despite increases in weight satisfaction and appearance attribution, appearance satisfaction decreased from beginning to end of semester. The inconsistency within the body image subscales is puzzling and requires further investigation. In regards to the interactions between measurements, the changes in perceived stress were influenced by initial self-esteem, appearance satisfaction was influenced by initial self-esteem and weight satisfaction, and weight satisfaction was influenced by initial appearance satisfaction.

Perceived stress increased more for those who had lower initial self-esteem, which suggests that higher self-esteem may improve one's ability to cope with stress. Appearance satisfaction increased more for those who had higher initial self-esteem, which suggests that higher self-esteem is related to one's satisfaction with his or her looks. Appearance satisfaction also increased more for those who had lower initial weight satisfaction. Since weight satisfaction increased significantly this finding suggests that those who had lower weight satisfaction at the beginning of the semester improved their view of self in terms of weight satisfaction and appearance satisfaction over the course of the semester. Weight satisfaction increased more for those with lower initial appearance satisfaction, which suggests that those individuals' weight satisfaction has room to increase more than someone with a higher initial appearance satisfaction. These results suggest that initial psychosocial markers, such as self-esteem and body-esteem, influence one's personal evaluation of the self later in the semester.

### **Implications for Practice**

While this study provides a first step in understanding the role that university taught leisure skills classes might have on the health of college students, further research on the correlation between body-esteem, self-esteem and perceived stress within this context is needed. In regards to practitioners, there is evidence that a change does occur in one's psychosocial self across the span of a leisure skills class. Practitioners may be able to craft a course, such as a leisure skills course or campus recreation program, to better meet student needs by evaluating initial self-esteem, body-esteem, and perceived stress. Conversely, practitioners should also recognize that certain programs might not contribute to an increase in one's sense of self or ability to cope with stress. Acknowledging that college students struggle with managing certain aspects of their lives and intentionally assisting their coping abilities through leisure skills education may help build a happier, healthier campus.

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Table 1: Significant beginning to end of semester changes in body esteem subscales

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>r</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>N</i>	Change in mean from beginning to end of semester
Appearance Satisfaction	668.53	1	668.53	78.27**	.230	263	Decreased 2.25
Weight Satisfaction	45.50	1	45.50	6.20*	.023	264	Increased 0.59
Appearance Attribution	30.32	1	30.32	12.79**	.046	266	Increased 0.48

\* Significant at the .05 level

\*\* Significant at the .001 level

Table 2: Significant conditional effects on beginning to end of semester change

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		<i>t</i>	Predicted conditional change
	<i>B</i>	Std. Error	<i>Beta</i>			
Initial self-esteem (SE) influence on the change in perceived stress	-.15	.06	-.15		-2.37*	SE High: 2.17 SE Low: 3.65
Initial self-esteem (SE) influence on the change in appearance satisfaction	.21	.05	.25		4.16**	SE High: -5.27 SE Low: -6.91
Initial weight satisfaction (WS) influence on the change in appearance satisfaction	-.16	.04	-.27		-4.57**	WS High: 2.12 WS Low: 3.37
Initial appearance satisfaction (AS) influence on the change in weight satisfaction	-.16	.04	-.28		-4.60*	AS High: 5.87 AS Low: 7.09

\* Significant at the .05 level

\*\* Significant at the .001 level

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## **YOUTH IN THE VALLEY: DEFINING RURAL**

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In the past decade, the conceptual framework of Social Justice Youth Development (SJYD) has brought attention to youth as social change agents (Ginwright & Cammarota, 2002). Building upon fundamental principles of positive youth development, SJYD views young people as assets to the community and asserts three stages—self, social, and global awareness—are pertinent to critical consciousness and development of hope in young people. SJYD encourages social action among youth so they are able to achieve a vision of the future and connect to others.

In-depth understandings of the spaces young people inhabit are pertinent to SJYD (Ginwright & Cammarota, 2002). Recent studies utilizing SJYD principles have examined marginalized urban youth in relationship to the larger political communities that affect their lives (Cohen, 2010; Ginwright, 2010) and other studies have broadened the focus to international youth in both urban and rural spaces (Acharya, 2010; Austin, 2010). Nevertheless, these studies leave important unanswered questions about how youth in rural areas of the United States perceive social justice and its connection to the development of their hope for the future.

The purpose of this study is to examine issues and definitions of social justice in a multitude of rural communities of the U.S., through the eyes of young people between the ages of 12-22 years old. Utilizing semi-structured interviews, for the first phase of the study, this project examines ideas about social equity, wellness, and community. This particular phase of the study focuses on data from youth in a small town that sits on the border of Texas and Mexico in the Rio Grande Valley and explores two of the most critical components of social justice research, self-definition and critical consciousness. Our approach to understanding the meaning, function, and implications of the term rural in this community provides new insight into what scholars and program administrators must consider for critical social justice work and what future phases of this study should consider in other communities.

### **Method**

Utilizing semi-structured interviews with youth either attending school or living in a small, historically migrant community in south Texas with less than 2,000 residents and an overwhelming majority (98%) identifying as Hispanic, our central question for analysis of this paper is the definition and conceptualization of “rural.” A total of 9 youth, 5 females and 4 males, aged 22 and younger were interviewed about their perceptions of social justice and rurality. Youth were asked questions in the 5 following categories, 1) hope, 2) rural/community, 3) spirituality and coping, 4) empowerment, 5) social justice. During the interviews participants were asked for clarification of terms and comments and research team checked in with youth to make sure that what they were saying was transcribed or interpreted correctly. The research team debriefed interviews together and used two coding methods—In Vivo Coding, quotations taken directly from the participants, and Value Coding, reflecting the participants’ worldview—to determine results (Saldana, 2012).

### **Results**

According to our findings, youth in South Texas have variant conceptualizations of how “rural” is defined or they have no notion of the concept at all. For those youth that identified or had some conceptual knowledge of rural three main themes emerged: 1) the idyllic, 2) the dangerous, and 3) the distant.

### *The idyllic*

As represented by “Gladys” rural was defined as “a new or a far away place that you might want to experience what it is.” This ideal or rural place was in contrast to the community in which she lived. Although she felt her community was peaceful and happy, it was a “sad green” that did not compare to the rural places in which you wanted to go.

### *The dangerous*

Other youth referred to the rural as a dangerous place. Ricky, a 20 year old community college student identified rural as “hmm...bad...just the way it sounds, it sounds bad...it sounds, like a villain.” When asked about his own community he recalls a time before there was violence and before the violence came. Although the community has violence now he still thinks of it as overall a nice and peaceful community.

### *The distant*

Many of the older youth, unlike the younger youth who did not have a definition for rural, were able to associate it with their current place or surroundings and described it as distant. Although those current places or surroundings might have a negative connotation to others, it was to them just the place that was home. Aldo described rural as a place out in the boonies, but also as a place that was homogenous and sheltered. As Aldo further describes, “um, I guess it's good in the sense that people are tight knit, and it's family oriented, and people know each other, and pretty much everybody is related to everybody, but it's bad in the sense that people don't know anything other than what goes on there. They don't understand the world.”

### **Discussion and Implications for Practice**

The result from this study provides insight into the ways in which we label and study communities. Use of the term “rural,” carried a pejorative connotation for some youth and for others was a foreign concept. As a result of naming community through this research project entitled the Rural Youth Project the study failed to engage youth in the main principle of social equity and wellness, naming and defining self. Instead of youth describing and naming their community for themselves, scholarly and political definitions of rural associated with the population density, physical location and locus and economy was automatically coded and ascribed to them. As Deavers (1992) expressed “defining rural is both simple and complex,” but all social justice work should begin the work of defining through and by the community themselves (p.188).

Understanding the responsibility and privilege of scholars, this essay posits that our role should not be to debate the relative existence or relevance of rural communities, but rather enhance our understanding of how the notion reflects in the lives of the individuals in which we study and/or define as of rural spaces. Community has salience in the lived experience of the youth within the community, and the role of researchers should be to highlight and illuminate the voices of what youth view as community and the salience it has in and on their lives. Moving forward this research began to ask new questions: How does geographical and psychological location challenge and inspire citizenship amongst youth? What are the constraints that the ideas of community might have on individual agency and power of youth? Finally, we posit there would be greater transformation and community development by youth if framing of our concepts started with simply defining our terminology through their voices.

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# **THE IMPACT OF MEMORABLE TOURISM EXPERIENCES ON SUBJECTIVE WELLBEING AMONG OLDER ADULTS**

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## **Introduction**

Travelling can be considered a positive and subjective event wherein individuals produce pleasant moods, sentiments, and feelings as long as the trip satisfies them. People tend to recall pleasant events or episodes than unpleasant ones because positive occasions promote better remembrance than those of negative occasions over time (Markus & Zajonc, 1985; Thompson, 1985). Therefore, individuals are more likely to obtain memorable experiences in leisure and tourism activities. Most of travel experience studies related to positive feelings or affects such as hedonic level of affect and happiness have sparkly explored general populations' a single trip experience. That is, these studies have conducted by either pre-test/post-test design, which found higher level of happiness (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004; Lounsbury & Hoopes, 1986; Westman & Eden, 1997), lower levels of stress and better psychological wellbeing after a trip (Milman, 1998; Strauss-Blasche, Ekmekcioglu & Marktl, 2000; Westman & Etzion, 2002) or a comparison between a taking travel group and non-taking travel group, which found that a vacation-taking group are happier (Nawijin, Marchand, Veenhoven & Vingerhoets, 2010) and have higher sense of wellbeing (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004) as well as increased life satisfaction (Sirgy, Kruger, Lee & Yu, 2011). However, scholars found most of these effects fade out or mostly short-lived (DeBloom, Geurts, Taris, Sonnentag, Weerth & Kompier, 2010; Nawijin, 2011). These study outcomes, however, reveals a fallacy, since most of studies focused on general populations' a single trip experience. As a result, literature and research on memorable travel experiences in one's life and its long-term impact remains sparse since only a few studies available on memorable travel experiences. Therefore, in order to understand what makes a tourism experience more memorable across the life span and its long-lived impact on wellbeing, it is indispensable to target older adults, instead of the general population. The goals of this study are twofold. Two specific research objectives of the study are;

- a) to identify the characteristics of the tourism memorable experience among older adults and;
- b) to investigate its long-lived impact on their subjective wellbeing.

## **Study Methodology**

In order to achieve the objectives, in-depth interviews were conducted with 20 seniors aged 65 years and older at a senior living community in Indiana. Each interview required approximately 30 to 50 minutes in length to complete in a private space (e.g., meeting room or private room) in the community. It asked for open-ended questions including "Do you have any memorable tourism experiences among many trips in your life and why they are memorable?" and "Does recalling back the experiences continually influence your wellbeing until now? Grounded theory analytic procedures (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) served as a framework to collect, analyze and interpret data in order to identify the dimensions underlying memorable tourism experiences and its long-lived impact.

## **Findings**

The following themes emerged from the 20 interview transcriptions. Six dimensions were identified which connote different facets of experiences that allow them to be predominantly memorable, and five dimensions were certified which represents aspects of its impact on

subjective wellbeing. In terms of the dimensions of memorable travel experiences, they are *companions, destinations, exoticness, novelty, learning, and host community*. With regards to these dimensions, travel companions (e.g., immediate family), characteristics of destinations (e.g., nature and culture), positive feelings (e.g., amazed and pleasurable), very different and unique experiences, knowledge gained (e.g., learning about new culture), and positive characteristics of local community (e.g., friendliness of locals) were described by the majority of the interviewees as pivotal component of their memorable experiences. In terms of the dimensions of subjective wellbeing, they include *lesson, socialization, wellbeing, recollection, and kinships*. Those denote that recalling and sharing their travel experiences have played a significant role in their wellbeing in their whole lives.

### **Discussion**

When individuals engage memorable experience, they are likely to direct their attention to positive feelings and its outcomes because memorable tourism experience attributes could improve tourist's subjective wellbeing. Especially, in the case of older adults, the memorable experience tends to become more enlightening as older adults' interest in gathering new information diminishes. Importantly, these memorable experiences remain in their memory through their lives as they continue to remember, imagine, share and revive with their family and friends. They still yearn to relive the moments of these experiences. To better explore memorable experience mechanism among older adults, future studies should touch on empirical examinations of autobiographical perspectives that may effectively trace the behavioral paths explicating what constitutes memorable experience in the mind of older adults.

### **Implications**

The findings of this study provide valuable insights for both tourism and clinical fields. In terms of the managerial implication for tourism industry, the relationships between the psychological traits of the memorable experience and the subjective wellbeing of older adults should also be addressed that could add valuable information for service delivery and product development in relation to older adult travelers. For example, assuming perceived novelty is the most influencing trait of memorable experiences among older adult travelers; marketers could therefore create an image of novelty for particular services and products catering to older adults to increase the likelihood of staging memorable experiences among older adults. Consequently, such a service strategy may win support from older adults so as to increase their loyal to the service and produced purchased. Meanwhile, in terms of therapeutic implication, as claimed by various authors, the process of reminiscence serves a therapeutic function of older adults, such as facilitating socialization (Giltinan, 1990), increasing life satisfaction (Cook, 1998), increasing self-esteem (Sherman, 1987), and decreasing depression (Goldwasser, Auerbach, Harkins, 1987). Therefore, the findings are able to provide an important first step toward understanding of reminiscence of memorable leisure and travel experiences as a facilitator to foster wellbeing across the life span.

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## **PRELIMINARY EVIDENCE FOR THE DAILY LIFE ACTIVITY INDEX (DLAI)**

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It has been widely recognized that regular and sustained engagement in activity is associated with positive health outcomes and a higher sense of well-being in older adulthood. Based on the importance of an active lifestyle, we suggest that a better conceptualization of what constitutes an “active lifestyle” is needed. There are few, if any, empirically-based models in the literature that delineate the nature of daily life activity as it provides the foundation for an active lifestyle and is predictive of positive aging outcomes (e.g., active aging, healthy aging, and aging well).

Leisure, productive, volunteer activities are the most typically studied sources of daily activity for older adults (Baker, Cahalin, Gerst, & Burr, 2005; Hawkins et al., 2012; Menec, 2003; Thoits & Hewitt, 2001).

Engagement in leisure activity has long been recognized as a contributor to the health (Gautam, Saito, & Kai, 2007; Janke, Payne, & Van Puymbroeck, 2008), well-being (Dupuis & Smale, 1995) and mortality of older adults (Agahi & Parker, 2008).

Engagement in productive activity has been linked to health (Luoh & Herzog, 2002; Thoits & Hewitt, 2001), well-being (Baker, Cahalin, Gerst, & Burr, 2005), life satisfaction (Aquino, Russell, Cutrona, Altmaier, 1996; Thoits & Hewitt, 2001), and survival (Glass, de Leon, Marottoli, Berkman, 1999). Productive activity has been assessed as the number of productive activities and amount of time commitment, using five categories of productive activity: (a) paid work, (b) formal volunteering, (c) caregiving, (d) informal helping behavior, and (e) do-it-oneself activities (e.g., home repair, mowing the lawn).

It is important to note that we distinguish Daily Life Activity (DLA) from other types of activity that are studied in gerontology and health; specifically, instrumental activities of daily living (IADLs) and activities of daily living (ADLs). Daily Life Activity (DLA) is a new construct that can be used along with other activity-based measures such as ADLs and IADLs for constructing a more complete picture of lifestyle and activity. The primary focus of DLA is on a person’s activity-based lifestyle as represented by their participation in productive, social, volunteer, and leisure activities. The level of daily life activity is a key variable to successful aging and aging well (Menec, 2003; Palmore, 1979). There is a paucity of such activity measures or indexes for older adults and also a need for a simple self-administrated diagnostic tool for how active people are in their daily life.

The purpose of this study was to provide a concept of daily life activity (DLA) for older adults and develop an index for daily life activity (DLA) that could examine the everyday activities of older people.

### **Methods**

This study used secondary data from *Aging Well: A Study of Adult Well-Being* by Dr. Barbara Hawkins (2003), which was part of the Global Aging Initiative. The questionnaire incorporated established instruments for six core domains: physical and functional health, social resources, mental effectiveness, life activity, material security, and life satisfaction. The questionnaire also contained standard demographic questions. The portion of the parent questionnaire that provided the data used for the present analysis was Section E – Life Activity, which was based on previous

research in this area. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS Statistics 18.0, SPSS Inc.) was used to summarize characteristics of the cases that were used in the study. In addition, structural equation modeling (SEM) using Linear Structural Relationships (LISREL 8.80, Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2006) was employed to confirm the model for daily life activity that is used in the study.

Latent variable scores were calculated to develop an index for daily life activity. Daily life activity was assessed on a comprehensive basis by soliciting subject participation in activities and frequency of participation using 9 broad categories. These nine categories include volunteer/paid activity, home maintenance, community involvement, socializing, caregiving, entertainment with others, physical activity, cognitive activity, and creative activity.

### **Results**

The model for Daily Life Activity was specified and supported as a second-order factor model with three first order latent variables representing different activity types, which are a) productive activity, b) social network based activity, and c) leisure activity. An index for daily life activity along with latent variable scores was generated ranging from -3 to 3. People with a high index score imply that these individuals are active across all 9 activity types. For cases with a very low score, values of the measured variables are almost always 0, which indicates no activity. Older adults responding to these questionnaires had a relatively high index score and indicate they are active.

### **Discussion**

It is well understood in the gerontology and recreation field that leisure activities are important in older adulthood, especially those activities that provide a continuity and sense of self across the life course, such as physical activity (e.g., walking, swimming, gardening, etc.), creative activity (e.g., collecting, playing a musical instrument, art, etc.), and cognitive leisure activity (e.g., reading, computer use, games, puzzles, etc.). Activities from each of these three types of activity were found to contribute to the health and well-being of older adults.

Through the model for Daily Life Activity, an index for DLA can discriminate lower levels of activity from higher, and we can also examine activity levels for first order variables. This capacity to examine beyond a single activity to a more complex picture of DLA holds promise for our understanding of the contribution that activity makes to the lifestyles, health, and well-being of older adults.

In conclusion, we encourage additional conceptual and modeling work that will provide comparative views of DLA. A sound conceptual and measurement approach for activity involvement will ultimately provide comparability and consistency across studies that investigate the role that activity plays in improving the health and well-being of older adults.

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## **EXPLORING CONSTRAINTS, BENEFITS SOUGHT AND REALIZED BY MUSEUM VISITORS**

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Visitors consume museums as a leisure experience, rather than solely for educational purposes (Foley & McPherson, 2000). Art museums provide the joy of experiencing works of art through collections, exhibitions, and social opportunities. According to a 2012 survey conducted by the National Endowment for the Arts, nearly half of the adults in the United States attended at least one type of arts activity. However, declining trends in the percentage of adults in the U.S. who attend art museums and galleries have been reported (i.e., 27% in 2002, 23% in 2008, and 21% in 2012). A high proportion of government financial support places increased pressure on museums to establish their value by attracting increasing visitor numbers (Gilmore & Rentschler, 2002). In general, there is recognition in the leisure literature base that a visitor's experience is affected by benefits sought, benefits realized, and constraints impeding or affecting the experience (Um & Crompton, 1992). Thus, investigating key constraints, benefits sought and realized is fundamental for better understanding museum visitors. Examining the gap between expectations (i.e., benefits sought) and performance (i.e., benefits realized) will provide insights that will enable museum management to make informed decisions about how to improve audiences' satisfaction. The present study applied the benefits-based approach to the gap analysis method suggested by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry (1985, 1988). The purpose of this study was to (1) explore the key constraints, benefits sought and benefits realized by pre-visit group and post-visit group respectively and (2) examine the gap between pre-visit and post-visit groups to an art museum based on benefit sought and benefit realized factors.

### **Methods**

The cross-sectional data for this study were collected from a survey of a pre-visit group (n=247) and post-visit group (n=242) to a museum of art on the campus of a large Southeastern university. The post-visit group did not consist of the same visitors as the pre-visit group. Benefits sought and realized were measured with four subscales (Learning, Social Interaction, Leisure, and Self-esteem) including 18 items adopted from Tian, Crompton, & Witt (1996) and Beard & Ragheb (1983). For the four benefit domains modified to suit the context of this study, Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from .85 to .89. Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement with a set of statements using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Constraints were measured with five subscales (Time, Difficulty of Access, Product Failings, Lack of Interest and Repetition) including 19 items adopted from Tina, Crompton, & Witt (1996). All subscales had alpha levels ranging from .79 to .90. The items were assessed on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). The gap scores were calculated from subtractions between mean benefits realized and mean benefits sought.

### **Results**

The majority of visitors to the museum were students pursuing an undergraduate degree (89.4%). Of the 489 visitors, 305 (62.4%) were females and 184 (37.6%) were males. The majority of visitors were White/Caucasian (59.9%). Of the 489 visitors, 261 (53.4%) were first-time visitors (53.4%). A majority of visitors (94%) were not members of the museum. Key

constraints were 'I do not have enough time' (M=3.5) and 'I am too busy' (M=3.5). The key benefits sought were 'to be entertained' (M = 4.1), 'to learn about culture' (M=4.0) and 'to discover new things' (M=4.0). Among post-visit group, the highest means for benefits realized were 'I discovered new things' (M=4.3), 'I learned about culture' (M=4.2), and 'I enjoyed leisure time' (M=4.2). Results from the gap analysis showed that most of the means for benefits realized were rated higher than benefits sought with the exception of two of items in social interaction-related factor (see Table 1). The results from independent t-tests indicated a significant difference between pre- and post-visit groups in three benefit factors ( $p < .01$ ; Table 2).

### **Discussion**

The benefits sought among the pre-visit group were the most frequently found in Leisure (e.g., to be entertained) and Learning (e.g., to discover new things). Similarly, benefits realized among the post-visit group were most commonly found in the Learning (e.g., 'I discovered new things') factors and Leisure factors (e.g., 'I enjoyed leisure time'). Given this, it was revealed that the museum had a commitment to satisfy a multifaceted experience (i.e., edutainment) for their visitors. In terms of constraints to visiting the museum among both groups, product failings (e.g., 'The museum is of poor quality') and repetition-related constraint (e.g., 'There is no point in visiting because it will be repetitive') were rated relatively lower than other constraints; that is, visitors had overall positive views on visiting the museum and the products of the museum. The results of the gap analysis indicated college student visitors were satisfied with their overall experience in the museum. Reviewing each item that composes a factor provides useful insight into which aspects of a dimension were superior or inferior and thus indicates directions for improvement (MacKay & Crompton, 1990).

### **Implications for practice**

Given the results indicated that visitors view the museum as a place for 'edutainment', paying attention to an enjoyable museum experience as well as the fulfillment of its educational purpose is a precondition for developing marketing strategies to improve or maximize visitor satisfaction (Reussner, 2003). In terms of the benefits realized from visiting the museum, this study found that the social interaction-related factor was rated the lowest. Given that college students are one of the largest targeted groups for campus museums, directors may need to take into consideration the special events aimed mainly at improving social interaction of college student visitors. For example, museums could strategically offer multiple occasions for college students (e.g., exhibits including questions, games, and puzzles) or events (e.g., movies or concerts). Moreover, adjusting opening hours for college students, avoiding overly austere atmosphere, or securing comfortable place to wait for others and find their companions could be considered (Debenedetti, 2003). The findings from the gap analysis have important implications for management. For most of the benefit items, benefits realized exceeded benefits sought and thus no management attention may be needed. However, Harrison & Shaw (2004) pointed out that although a statistically significant positive relationship was found between highly satisfied visitors and intention to return, it was very weak, which means that satisfaction score does not guarantee intention to return to the museum. The visitor may not return to a museum in the near future without substantial changes in museum products. In this regard, the museums should regularly monitor constraints, benefits sought and benefits realized of their visitors in an effort to evaluate and cope with changing visitor behaviors in the future.

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Table 1. *Mean for benefit items and gap scores*

Benefit Domain	Benefits Sought and (Benefits Realized) Items	Gap Score	Mean Benefit Sought	Mean Benefit Realized
Learning	To learn (I learned) about culture	.24	3.96	4.20
Learning	To satisfy (I satisfied) a curiosity	.23	3.86	4.09
Learning	To explore (I explored) new ideas	.36	3.69	4.05
Learning	To expand (I expanded) knowledge	.06	3.88	3.94
Learning	To discover (I discovered) new things	.28	3.99	4.27
Social Interaction	To develop (I developed) relationship with others	.00	3.26	3.26
Social Interaction	To meet (I met) new and different people	-.01	3.05	3.04
Social Interaction	To share (I shared) thoughts, feelings, or skills with other	.31	3.29	3.60
Social Interaction	To improve (I improved) social skills	.16	3.10	3.26
Leisure	To slow (I slowed) down	.39	3.40	3.79
Leisure	To have (I had) fun	.20	3.90	4.10
Leisure	To relieve (I relieved) stress and tension	.24	3.76	4.00
Leisure	To be (I was) entertained	.19	4.00	4.19
Leisure	To escape (I escaped) from daily activities/responsibilities	.43	3.75	4.18
Leisure	To enjoy (I enjoyed) leisure time	.29	3.89	4.18
Self-Esteem	To increase (I increased) my feelings of self-worth	.47	2.97	3.44
Self-Esteem	To help (I helped) me feel like a better person	.36	3.00	3.36
Self-Esteem	To derive (I derived) a feeling of accomplishment	.32	3.15	3.57

Note: The positive gap scores (+) show that benefit realized is greater than benefit sought. The negative gap score (-) indicates that benefit sought is greater than benefit realized.

Table 2. *Independent samples t-test of visitors with benefit factors*

	Pre-visit	Post-visit	
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>P-value</i>
Learning	3.89	4.11	.001**
Self-esteem	3.04	3.48	.001**
Leisure	3.80	4.07	.001**
Social Interaction	3.18	3.33	.053

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## **DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF THE YOUTH OUTDOOR ACTIVITY PROFILE SCALE**

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As the role of and time spent consuming digital media expands in the lives of children and adolescents (Rideout, Foehr, & Roberts, 2010), policy makers and researchers are increasingly interested in how adolescents' time use patterns impact their development (Brown & Bobkowski, 2011). One common assumption, supported by recent research findings (Edwards, Duerden, Campbell, & Lizzo, 2014; Larson, Green, & Cordell, 2011), is more time spent on digital media equals less time spent in other activities especially those that involve time outside. This potential decrease in time spent outside is significant because more than two decades of research support the efficacy of youth time outside to promote a variety of positive benefits (e.g., Kuo & Faber Taylor, 2004; Wells, 2000; Wells & Evans, 2003). While there has been a recent proliferation in efforts to both measure (Edwards, Duerden, Lizzo, Campbell, & Kamper, 2014; Larson et al., 2011) and facilitate increases in youth time outside (e.g., The Children and Nature Network [www.childrenandnature.org], Outdoor Nation [outdoornation.org]), many questions remain about the connection between certain types of outside activities and their resulting outcomes. Although some efforts to link specific types of activities "wild" vs. "domestic" in nature have occurred (Edwards et al., 2014; Wells & Lekies, 2006), the identification of sub-categories related to time outside activities has been primarily a post hoc effort (e.g., Ewert, Place, & Sibthorp, 2005). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to design and validate a scale to both measure and categorize youth involvement in outdoor activities. The scale, the Youth Outdoor Activity Profile (YOAP), is based upon the structure of the Family Leisure Activity Profile (FLAP) scale (Zabriskie & McCormick, 2001). The hope is that such scale will help answer questions related to the relationship between specific outdoor activity involvement and their associated outcomes like "are environmental attitudes more positively influenced by attending soccer practice or spending an hour in the local woods?"

### **Methods**

Undergraduate students ( $N=135$ ) from a large western university participated in the study and consisted of 79 males (62.7%) and 47 females (37.3%). The average age of the sample was 22 and was predominantly Caucasian (98%). Data were collected from the same group of students on two different occasions that were separated by four weeks. The questionnaire included the YOAP, an index of 17 youth outdoor leisure activity categories (e.g., home based outdoor activities, outdoor spectator activities, and motorized water-based activities) (see Table 1). Respondents identified leisure activities done within the past year across the 17 different categories. If the answer was yes, respondents are asked to complete an ordinal scale of estimated frequency ("how often?") and duration ("for about how long per time?") for each activity category. Participants were then asked if they participated in the activity alone, with someone, or both. Finally participants were asked to rate their satisfaction on a scale of 1-5 with their participation or lack of participation in each activity category. Additionally, in order to assess participants' environmental attitudes the ecological affinity (EA) subscale from The Environmental Attitude and Awareness Survey (EAAS; Larson, Green, & Castleberry, 2008)

was included on the second survey. The EA subscale consisted of eight questions on a five-point Likert scale. The measure produced an acceptable level of internal consistency ( $\alpha = .88$ ). Due to the index nature of the YOAP a test for internal consistency (e.g., Cronbach's Alpha) was deemed inappropriate. Alternatively, a test-retest approach was employed that involved analyzing correlations between activity category total scores across both waves of data. In order to test the concurrent validity of the measures the relationship between total activity categories and EA scores were assessed.

### **Results**

Significant correlations existed between all time 1 and time 2 activity category total scores thereby supporting the YOAP's test-retest reliability. Table 2 and 3 provide results from correlation and regression analyses respectively, which were used to test the YOAP's concurrent validity. The final model produced three statistically significant independent variables, outdoor adventure activities ( $\beta = .37$ ;  $t = 4.15$ ), home based outdoor nature activities, ( $\beta = .18$ ;  $t = 2.11$ ), and outdoor chores, ( $\beta = .17$ ;  $t = 2.04$ ) (see Table 3).

### **Discussion and Implications**

The purpose of this study was to design and validate a scale to both measure and categorize youth involvement in outdoor activities. Results from this study provide initial support for the test-retest reliability and concurrent validity of the YOAP. The results of the regression analysis show a positive relationship between a number of the YOAP activity categories (i.e., outdoor adventure activities, home based outdoor nature activities, and outdoor chores) and EA. The findings support previous retrospective results linking certain nature based experiences and later life environmental attitudes (e.g., Wells & Lekies, 2006). The different types of natural environment interactions each activity category facilitated may explain the significance or lack thereof across categories. For example, activities such as organized outdoor sports and outdoor spectator activities may focus attention and effort on the game or activity actively happening, while activities such as home based outdoor nature activities (i.e., star gazing, wildlife viewing) and outdoor chores (i.e., mowing the lawn, raking leaves, gardening) facilitate more purposive contact with nature. Additionally, it was interesting to note that only one variable, motorized water-based activities, produced a negative correlation with EA. We hypothesize this correlation exists because of the different ways people use the land. For example, a hiker will use and appreciate the mountain different than someone riding an ATV. Although findings from this study offer a contribution towards designing and validating a scale to both measure and categorize youth time spent outside limitations must be considered. Undergraduate students may not be the best population to sample for a scale to study youth since they may have a higher literacy level than most adolescents. Moving beyond simple successive correlation testing as well as refining the scale by comparing findings to non-recall methods will also help further establish validity. Therefore, further development and validation of the YOAP with adolescents is needed to provide a valid instrument to help answer questions related to the relationship between specific outdoor activities and variables such as grades, EA, and stress levels.

### **Implications for Practice**

Practitioners can use data from the YOAP as a guideline to understand the types of outdoor activities and activity patterns that influence targeted related outcomes like ecological affinity. This will allow increased customization of outdoor recreation opportunities to facilitate intentional outcomes.

Table 1 YOAP Question Structure

Do you participate in home/neighborhood based outdoor activities (for example, playing with pets, bike rides, hanging out in the yard, walks)?				
YES or NO				
If YES how often?		For about how long per time? (check only one)		
At least daily		< 1 hour	1-2 hours	2-3 hours
At least weekly		3-4 hours	4-5 hours	5-6 hours
At least monthly		6-7 hours	7-8 hours	8-9 hours
At least annually		9-10 hours	> 10 hours	< 1 day
Do you primarily participate in this activity by yourself or with someone else?				
Alone_____ With Someone_____ Both_____				

Table 2: Pearson’s correlations between YOAP variables and EA

	Home based outdoor activities	Outdoor chores	Home based outdoor nature activities	Time at public parks	Community based outdoor events	Camping activities	Motorized Water Sports	Outdoor adventure activities	Outdoor related tourism activities
Eco-affinity	.20*	.24**	.26**	.24**	.25*	.21*	-.18*	.20*	.18*

\*p < .05, \*\*p < .01

Table 3

Stepwise regression results

Variable	B	SE B	β
Constant	2.83	.11	
Outdoor adventure activities	.05	.01	.37*
Home based outdoor nature activities	.06	.03	.18**
Outdoor Chores	.05	.02	.17**

R<sup>2</sup> = .247. \*p < .001, \*\*p < .05

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## **CROSS-CULTURAL INVESTIGATION ON PREGNANCY WOMEN'S BODY IMAGE AND CLOTHING SHOPPING**

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A woman's body shape changes dramatically over the period of pregnancy and significantly impacts every aspect of her daily life. Although pregnancy can lead to negative feelings about their bodies, today's pregnant women are more satisfied with their bodies and positively adapt to body changes than pregnant women did a few decades ago (Clark, Skouteris, Wertheim, Paxton, & Milgrom, 2009; Fairburn & Welch, 1990; Fox, Heffernan, & Nicolson, 2009). Researchers have documented that females tend to be more sensitive to their body images than males, and such sensitivities are a critical determinant of participation in and satisfaction with various leisure activities (Frederick & Shaw, 1995; Liechty & Yarnal, 2010). Despite these findings, we know surprisingly little about how pregnant women perceive their bodies and how these perceptions affect their leisure behavior.

Shopping is used by many women as a way to cope with stress and improve mood (Hausman, 2000). While Kaiser (1990) noted that body image plays an important role in clothing selection, we do not know if this is also the case for pregnant women. Moreover, body image is a socially and culturally constructed idea so the notion of 'an ideal body image' varies by sociocultural context (Fallon, 1990; Pompper & Koenig, 2004). Although pregnant women tend to be satisfied with their pregnant bodies (Park & Lee, 2006; Sohn & Bye, 2015), comparing body images of pregnant women in different social contexts is expected to make novel contributions to the literature. The purpose of this study was to understand the self-perceived body images and clothing shopping behaviors of pregnant women in the U.S. and Korea. It attempted to address three research questions; (1) Do pregnant women from the two countries perceive their pregnant bodies differently? (2) Do they differ in the types of clothes that they select? and (3) For the two groups, are there any significant relationships between body image and clothing selection?

### **Methods**

A data collection was performed in the upper Midwest region of the U.S. and the southern region of Korea. We used Cash's (2000) Body Areas Satisfaction Scale (BASS) and the Appearance Orientation Scale (AOS). A high BASS score indicates the respondent feels mostly positive and satisfied with their body figure. A high AOS score means the respondent places significant importance on how they look and engages in extensive grooming behaviors. For clothing shopping, we used Kwon and Parham's (1994) clothing practice scale and focused on respondents' preferences for fashionable clothes and clothes that camouflage their bodies. In total, 137 American samples and 141 Korean samples were collected.

Three data analyses were performed. First, a two-way independent analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted in order to investigate the differences in body area satisfaction and appearance orientation between the American and Korean samples. The independent variables were nationality and Body Mass Index (BMI). Respondents were categorized into four groups based on BMI score: underweight (under 20), normal (20-24), overweight (25-30), and obese (above 30). The interaction between nationality and BMI was also examined. The same statistical model was tested to compare the clothing shopping patterns of the American and Korean pregnant women. Finally, the correlations among body satisfaction level, appearance orientation, fashionable clothing selection and camouflaging clothing selection were tested with

Pearson's correlation analysis. The correlations were estimated separately for the two groups.

## Results

The American and Korean pregnant women varied by body image and clothing selection. First, there was a significant interaction effect between nationality and BMI on BASS score,  $F(3, 270) = 3.98, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .042$ . Although the Americans' body image scores were higher than the Koreans' throughout the BMI categories, the two groups' BASS scores were affected differently by the BMI categories. The American sample had the lowest BASS score from the obese group ( $M = 3.04, SD = .50$ ), yet the Korean sample had the lowest score from the overweight group ( $M = 2.25, SD = .69$ ). Moreover, there was a significant main effect of nationality on AOS score,  $F(1, 270) = 6.20, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .022$ . Unlike BASS score, the Koreans' AOS scores were higher ( $M = .52, SD = .08$ ) than the Americans' ( $M = .44, SD = .07$ ). Second, the two groups displayed significant differences in clothing shopping behavior. There was a significant main effect of nationality on selecting fashionable clothes,  $F(1, 265) = 13.76, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .04$ . Americans' preference for fashionable clothes was higher ( $M = 3.73, SD = .89$ ) than Koreans' ( $M = 3.09, SD = .86$ ). The main effect of BMI score was also significant,  $F(3, 265) = 3.83, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .042$ . For purchasing camouflaging clothes, there was a significant main effect of nationality,  $F(1, 266) = 10.32, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .057$ . Korean pregnant women ( $M = 3.74, SD = .80$ ) showed a higher preference for camouflaging clothes than American pregnant women ( $M = 2.87, SD = .82$ ). Finally, Pearson's correlation analysis also displayed differences between the American and Korean samples. For American pregnant women, their AOS scores were positively correlated with fashionable clothing selection,  $r = .42, p < .001$ . Similarly, the Korean sample's AOS scores were positively correlated with fashionable clothing selection,  $r = .33, p < .01$ . However, unlike the American sample, the Korean sample's AOS scores were also positively correlated with selection of camouflaging clothing,  $r = .18, p < .01$ .

## Discussion

This study revealed many differences between American and Korean pregnant women. First, the American sample had higher BASS scores than the Korean sample regardless of BMI score, yet their AOS scores were generally lower than those of the Korean sample. This suggests that pregnant women in the U.S. tend to be more satisfied with their bodies and less concerned and invested in their appearance than pregnant women in Korea. Similarly, for the Korean pregnant women, the AOS scores were positively correlated with the selection of camouflaging clothes. Notably, this finding is not consistent with previous studies on body image that have documented that BASS and AOS scores are negatively correlated to a selection of camouflaging clothes (Tiggemann & Lacey, 2009). The Korean pregnant women adorned themselves by selecting not only fashionable and stylish clothes, but also clothes that hid their bodies. These findings suggest that Korean pregnant women tended to be less satisfied with their bodies, so they were more sensitive and concerned about how their bodies were viewed by others. On the one hand, these findings might stem from the two countries' different perceptions toward a pregnant body. Although the social image of a pregnant body has changed for the better (Longhurst, 2005; Tyler, 2011), Korean society may hold a less favorable view of the pregnant body than U.S. society. On the other hand, this finding might be ascribed to Korea's collectivistic culture (Jung & Lee, 2006; Oyserman, Coon, & Kimmelmeier, 2002). Collectivistic society emphasizes harmony and group solidarity, so Korean pregnant women might avoid distinctive appearances and try not to stray from the general public by wearing clothes that hide their pregnant bodies. KangJae Jerry Lee, Parks, Recreation & Tourism, University of Missouri-Columbia, Columbia, MO, (573) 882-9516, [leekj@missouri.edu](mailto:leekj@missouri.edu).

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## **ENVIRONMENTAL CORRELATES OF CHILDREN'S SEDENTARY BEHAVIOR AND PARENTS' REGULATION STRATEGIES**

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The purpose of the current study was to examine how the qualities of neighborhood environment were related to children's sedentary behavior and parents' regulation. Studies have shown that neighborhood qualities are significantly correlated with children's sedentary behaviors and the level of physical activity (PA), which affects health inequalities among children (e.g., Duke, Borowsky, & Pettingell, 2012; Roemnick, Epstein, Raga, & Yin, 2007). We note that children in the neighborhoods with the most deprived conditions, such as unsafe settings, poorly kept housing, and no access to sidewalks, parks, and recreation facilities, are more likely to be imposed to spend time on sedentary activities than children not dwelling in such neighborhood conditions (Norman, Schmid, Sallis, Calfas, & Patrick, 2005). In other words, children within favored neighborhood conditions are more likely to participate in various activities which, in turn, contribute to their well-being. According to Fan and Chen (2012), the family function plays an important role as a mediator between neighborhood conditions and children's health behaviors. Fustenber (1993) contended that socioeconomic characteristic of the neighborhoods, in which families reside, may be a predictor of parent's regulation of children's behavioral adjustment. O'Neil, Parke, and McDowell (2001) found that maternal perception of neighborhood qualities was significantly related to their regulatory strategies of children's social interactions and utilization of community resources. All of this suggests that parents' view of their neighborhood qualities may inform the way in which they arrange and supervise children's sedentary behaviors. The study findings will provide better understanding of how the physical resources and social conditions of the neighborhood affect children's sedentary behavior and parents' regulation of children's daily activities.

### **Methods**

This current study employed a secondary data analysis using nationally representative data released from the National Survey of Children's Health (NCHS) 2011-2012 in USA. A total sample of 36,878 children, ages between 6 and 12 years old, were used for the current study. The final sample comprised 51.0% males and 48.8% females. Caucasians accounted for 73.0%, 10.5% were African Americans, and 10.5% were others. 13.9% were considered themselves Hispanics.

In order to better understand parents' perception of the neighborhood qualities, three different features of neighborhood environments were assessed; neighborhood amenities, neighborhood condition, and safety. Three indicators were used to measure neighborhood amenities on a yes-no response basis. Respondents were asked to indicate whether sidewalks or walking paths, a park or playground area, and a recreation center, or community center exist in the respondents' neighborhood and community. Similarly, a total number of three questions were used to measure neighborhood condition. Respondents were asked to indicate whether there is litter or garbage on the street or sidewalk, poorly kept or (dilapidated/rundown) housing, or vandalism in their neighborhood. The neighborhood condition was also measured with a type of yes-no question. The perception of community safety was measured using a four-item scale (e.g., "How often do you feel your child is safe in your community or neighborhood?"). Each item was recoded to a four-point scale ranging from 1 = definitely disagree to 4 = definitely agree. The Cronbach's alpha for this scale is .839. In order to assess parents' regulatory

strategies of children's sedentary behavior, the respondents were asked to indicate yes *or* no on whether they limit the amount of time their children spend watching TV, playing on the computer or video games, or using electronic devices and monitor the content. Children's sedentary behavior was assessed according to the amount of time (hours) children usually spend watching TV programs, playing video games, computers, cell phone on an average weekday.

### **Results**

A series of multiple and logistic regression analyses was performed to examine the relationships between the study variables. Covariates in the analyses included major predictor variables and demographic variables such as gender, age, and race. According to the results, a number of environment perception indicators accounted for additional variance for children's sedentary behavior: park or playground area ( $p < .05$ ); public recreation center or boy's or girl's club ( $p < .05$ ); litter or garbage on the street or sidewalk ( $p < .05$ ); poorly kept housing ( $p = .05$ ); and feeling of safety ( $p < .001$ ). According to the results, perceptions of sidewalks or walking paths ( $p < .01$ ) and access to recreation facilities ( $p < .01$ ) were significantly associated with parents' decision to limit the amount of time for children's sedentary behavior. Parental involvement in children's sedentary activities affected children's sedentary behavior, through limiting the amount of time ( $p < .001$ ) and monitoring the content ( $p < .001$ ). That is, when parents reported that they limited the time for sedentary activities and monitored the content, children were less likely to spend time doing sedentary activities. This indicates that parents' regulation plays an important role in decreased sedentary behavior. Additionally, we found that there were significant group differences according to age, gender, and race across the different regression models.

### **Discussion**

Our findings are consistent with previous literature that neighborhood environment—access to recreation facilities and safety in a community—is significantly associated with sedentary behavior among children (Norman et al., 2005; Roemnick et al., 2007). This suggests that we have to include neighborhood assessment as a means to promote health-related behaviors in child health intervention and counseling. We also found that parents' perception of neighborhood environments was significantly associated with their management for regulation of children's sedentary behavior. According to the resources the community provides, recreational opportunities it affords, and the environmental stressors that are imposed on children, parents may differ in their regulation strategies (O'Neil et al., 2001). The results also indicated that parents' regulation of sedentary behavior contributed to the decreased sedentary time among children. This finding indicates that parents' perception of the opportunities and constraints linked to their neighborhoods may be an important mechanism through the environmental correlates of children's sedentary behavior.

### **Implications for Practice**

Urban planners and parks and recreation professionals should be informed and better-equipped in the development of health-promoting community for children and family to reduce environmental stressors caused by the lack of safety and resources, and improve useable physical infrastructure that facilitates child-oriented activities (e.g., screen free programs after school), so children are less likely to spend time on sedentary activities. It is also suggested that educational and health professionals should increase their awareness of parents' role in practice with children and provide the regulatory strategies that parents may employ to compensate for the lack of neighborhood resources.

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# **ENGAGING WITH SERIOUS LEISURE AND SCHOOL ADAPTATION AMONG KOREAN STUDENTS**

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## **Introduction**

Among the increase of international students at U.S. colleges, the number of Asian students is by far the largest group with a significant number arriving from Korea (Institute of International Education, 2014). Adjusting to college can be one of the most significant life transitions for any international student attending school in the U.S. (Li & Gasser, 2005). These students must adjust simultaneously to the school environment and culture, which may include a new language and social norms (Misra & Castillo, 2004).

Despite the significant number of international students, a relatively small number of studies have explored the relationship between leisure engagement and international student adjustment to college. However, leisure engagement could significantly influence this realm of their life in many ways (e.g., Gomez, Alfredo & Glass, 2014; Toyakawa & Toyakawa, 2002). First, leisure promotes the management of stress by enhancing a person's mood (Iwasaki & Mannell, 2000). Second, leisure provides a foundation to build friendships and active social interaction, which may lead to strengthening the social support among international students, which influence academic and psychosocial adaptation in the long run (Coleman & Iso-Ahola, 1993; Tao, Dong, Pratt, Hunsberger & Pancer, 2000). Third, leisure has been linked to a positive relationship with acculturation (Li & Stodolska, 2006; Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004) where language usage (e.g., prefer to use native language) and cultural distance are related to academic and social adjustment (Gallagher, 2013; Poyrazli & Kavanaugh, 2006).

With respect to the vast influence of leisure on adaptation, the purpose of this study is to explore the role of serious leisure activities of Korean students in the U.S. in order to understand the relationship between leisure activities and school adaptation. The theoretical framework for this study is grounded in Stebbin's (2007) theory of serious leisure. This form of leisure has been shown to offer additional benefits to the participants: personal (e.g., personal enrichment, self-actualization and self-gratification) and social (e.g., social attraction and group accomplishment). Thus, We focused on the benefits of these leisure activities that play a positive role with these international students who are relatively vulnerable during the college adaptation process.

## **Method**

A total of 13 students participated in the study through a purposive sampling strategy. The criteria for participation was informants should (1) have Korean nationality, (2) have a clear personal primary leisure pursuit, (3) identify the primary leisure pursuit as a self-defining activity and (4) attend the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. The participants were separated into 4 focus groups, which lasted approximately 60 to 90 minutes. Grounded theory was adopted (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) to identify themes relevant to the role of serious leisure during school adaptation. Then, constant comparative strategies were applied to improve the validity of the data. The participants were asked to answer questions related to the changes in their leisure patterns during their school adjustment, perceptions of school adjustment, and the relationship with serious leisure engagement and school adjustment.

## **Findings and Discussion**

Three themes emerged from the students' leisure experiences. First, participants, who enjoyed specific leisure activities in Korea, tended to seek those same activities or find similar ones at the university. During the significant transition periods, the identical leisure activities enabled the participants to enjoy their leisure time quicker in addition to obtain a sense of easement and stability. In particular, (a) time constraints and (b) the relationship with significant others encouraged the participants to engage in similar leisure activities, which by extension, led the participants to become serious leisure participants. The informants mentioned that due to limited time, they tended to engage in the same activity repeatedly, which they perceived as the most meaningful. Moreover, significant relationships with the group members provide a chance to experience leisure on a deeper, more serious level. Second, a mixed cognition of school adaptation was conspicuous. Generally, most participants perceived their school adaptation differently from their life adjustment in the U.S.: the former is contingent on academic achievement while the focus of the latter is on cultural aspects. Nevertheless, when the participants were asked to identify the difficulties during their school adjustment, most difficulties were not related to the academic variables such as language, cultural differences, and loneliness. This challenging relationship between life adaptation and life adjustment suggests researchers should carefully consider the international student college adaptation process within a cultural and social realm. Third, serious leisure activities played a significant role in developing social networks, which contributed to their socio-psychological adaptation. Social benefits of serious leisure functioned as a significant driving force to continue the activities of the informants who are struggling with obstacles in adaptation, such as unfamiliarity with American culture and language, and the limited opportunities to interact with American students or community members. Indeed, notable comments from the interviews related to the importance of a sense of kinship among the group members. This was especially true of those who believed the social networks at UIUC were limited compared to those in Korea. Even with their tight schedule and significant workload, participants tried to find a considerable amount of time for their leisure activities due to its potential benefits: (a) obtaining strong senses of connectivity and belonging to the group and (b) reducing feelings of homesickness and loneliness. These findings are juxtaposed with Stebbins (1997) arguments of serious leisure in which the rewards are social, in addition to personal benefits. These rewards exist through socializing with other serious leisure participants, illuminating group accomplishments, and contributing to the continuance and development of the group.

### **Implications for practice and Conclusion**

These findings suggest that serious leisure plays an essential role in the school adaptation of Korean college students, particularly to their socio-psychological adaptation. In particular, social adjustment is the most vulnerable aspect for international students (Rienties et al., 2012) and this study provides further evidence toward demonstrating a link between leisure and adaptation. Moreover, since many international students including Korean students are less likely to use counseling programs due to a negative stigma (Constantine, Chen & Ceesay, 1997), school program leaders may want to consider creating more opportunities for international students to engage in serious leisure activities, as this study suggests leisure can help with their academic and social transition. Despite the interesting findings, due to a nature of qualitative study, it is difficult to generalize the results to broader population. Also, since majority of the respondents are graduate students, they might have unique perspectives on leisure and school adaptation.

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# A TEST OF SERIOUS LEISURE MODEL IN CLIMBING USING 18-ITEM SLIM

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## Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to examine a four factor measurement model using 18-item SLIM data. Serious leisure denotes a continuous pursuit of a leisure activity. People immersed in such activity are obliged to acquire skills, knowledge, experiences and establish social networks. However, the obligation is interesting and meaningful and people are willing to take (Stebbins, 2007). In 2011, Gould et al use chess players' data to examine the measurement model of serious leisure. In the same study, they propose a short, 18-item version of serious leisure and inventory measure (SLIM). Each item with the highest values of average variance extracted (AVE) and loading is selected from the original 18 factors (i.e., 3 items for each factor), respectively. As Gould et al (2011) suggest, further examinations on the predictability of those measures are needed.

SLM is developed based upon Stebbins' serious leisure and its six characteristics, perseverance, effort, leisure career, durable benefits, unique ethos and identity (Stebbins, 2007). Those characteristics can be classified into primarily two categories: serious orientation and outcomes (Gould, Moore, McGuire, & Stebbins, 2008). Outcomes contains both personal (i.e., self-actualization, self-expression, self-image, self-gratification, recreation, financial return) and social benefits (group attraction, group accomplishment, and group maintenance) acquired in the serious leisure experiences, whereas serious orientation includes other characteristics, which narrates recreationists' committed experiences to an activity (i.e., perseverance, effort, leisure career, unique ethos and identity). Moreover, although financial return is one of the personal outcome, the way it rewards and motivates serious recreationists can be different from other personal benefits (Lee, 2013; Stebbins, 2005). Therefore, a four factor model was proposed to examine the theoretical construct of serious orientations and multiple outcomes. The factors and corresponding items were shown as Table 1.

## Method

A short version SLIM data was collected in Midwest region, in summer, 2012. Data from 418 adult climbers who had consistently climbed in the past year or possessed lead climbing techniques were used. Majority of the climbers (83%) reported that they climbed sport lead routes whereas other types of lead climbing were less reported. Approximately 87% of climbers reported their climbing ability from 5.9 to 5.12, in terms of the Yosemite Difficulty Scale. Climbers also reported their continuous engagement though self-education (64%), regular physical training (74%) and climbing trips (79%). A confirmatory factor analysis approach was used to test the hypothesized model. Overall model fits and parameter estimates were reported. It should be that financial return is a single-item latent variable, the error variance of the financial return needs to be specified in the Mplus syntax. Brown's approach was followed (2006, *p.* 139) and generated the error variance based on previous study conducted by Gould et al (2011). Mplus 7 was used for data analysis.

## Results

The Robust Maximum Likelihood estimation was used to address non-normal distribution (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2010). The fit indices of the original model was not acceptable (scaled  $\chi^2 = 4770.515$ ,  $df = 130$ ,  $p < .001$ , CFI = .805, TLI = .766, SRMR = .070, RMSEA = .081). Modifications were made to improve the model fit. The overall fit of the respecified model was acceptable (scaled  $\chi^2 = 242.567$ ,  $df = 123$ ,  $p < .001$ , CFI = .932, TLI = .915, SRMR = .056,

RMSEA = .049). The loadings of the serious orientation indicators ranged from .357 to .618 ( $R^2 = .209-.361$ ), .432 - .725 ( $R^2 = .200-.526$ ) for the personal outcomes indicators and .554 - .652 ( $R^2 = .308-.525$ ) for the social outcomes indicators. All loadings were significant (Table 1).

## **Discussion**

The study is aimed to examine the theoretical construct of serious leisure, which entails experiences and outcomes obtained in a serious leisure activity. The result indicates that the four-factor construct is appropriate, given the loading and error variance of financial return is fixed. However, the measurement residual covariance specified in the final model may imply the presence of measurement issues, such as overlapping meanings of item contents or omitted factor (Byrne, 2012). Specifically, three qualities, perseverance, effort and career progress may reflect the core idea of serious leisure: continuous acquisition and expression of personal capacities to address challenges in a serious leisure activity (Stebbins, 2007). Residual covariance specified in this study limit the possibility of generalization.

The relationships between latent variables deserve further attention. Future studies may focus on the causal paths between serious orientation and multiple outcomes. In addition, the error of financial return indicator is restricted and the value used is derived from the best performing loading of financial return in Gould and his colleague's study (2011). This value of error variance may not reflect this climbing sample well. Although scarce, some participants whose engagement in climbing industry (e.g., gym owners) may lead to variations of the responses. To address this issue, additional items measuring financial return should be developed and tested.

The result of this study supports the four-factor theoretical construct of serious leisure using data derived from the 18-item SLIM questionnaire. The items also have non-zero loadings on corresponding factors. 18-item SLIM allows the application to examine causal paths of serious leisure qualities and models entailed multiple concepts with less concerns to amounts of parameters to be estimated and sample size required. The result of this study also echoes Gould and his colleagues' suggestion to provide a simplistic, yet comprehensive measure of serious leisure.

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Table 1. 18-Item SLIM and Factor Loadings of the Final Model

Factor/Items	Statements	Loadings
<b>Serious Orientation</b>		
Pesevrance	I overcome difficulties in climbing by being persistent	0.408
Effort	I try hard to become more competent in climbing	0.485
Career Progress	I feel that I have made progress in climbing	0.357
Career Contingency	There are defining moments within my climbing experience that have significantly shaped my involvement in it	0.550
Unique Ethos	I share many ideas, values and lifestyles from climbing communities	0.580
Identity	Others who know me also understand that rock climbing is a part of who I am	0.618
<b>Personal Outcomes</b>		
Personal Enrichment	Climbing has added richness to my life	0.557
Self-Actualization	I make full use of my talent when climbing	0.575
Self-Expression-Ability	I demonstrate my skills and abilities when climbing	0.672
Self-Expression-Individual	Climbing for me is an expression of myself	0.718
Self-Image	Climbing has improved how I think about myself	0.683
Self-Gratification-Satisfaction	Climbing provides me with a profound sense of satisfaction	0.725
Self-Gratification-enjoyment	Climbing is enjoyable to me	0.432
Recreation	I feel re-vitalized after climbing time	0.433
<b>Social Outcomes</b>		
Social Interaction	I enjoy interacting with other climbing enthusiasts	0.652
Group Accomplishment	I feel important when I am a part of my climbing group's accomplishment	0.554
Group Maintenance	It is important that I perform duties which unify my climbing group	0.562
<b>Financial Return</b>		
Financial Return	I have received financial payment as a result of my climbing efforts	0.903

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## **EXPLORING SENSE OF COMMUNITY IN AN ADULT RECREATIONAL TENNIS LEAGUE**

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Participation in adult recreational sports may lead to a number of positive outcomes including improved well-being, reduced stress, improved social functioning, higher life satisfaction, and a sense of community (Eime, et al., 2013; Warner, Dixon, & Chalip, 2012). The experience of a sense of community (SOC) is one benefit that is particularly worth exploring as SOC links to a range of other positive benefits including increased self-confidence, emotional connections, coping skills, and civic participation (Chavis & Wandersman, 1990; Goodwin et al., 2009; Greenfield & Marks, 2010) Further, given that social benefits are a primary motive for adult participation in recreational sports, a SOC may be of particular importance for participants (Youn-Lim, et al, 2011).

SOC may be defined as “a feeling that members have of belonging, a feeling that members matter to one another and to the group, and a shared faith that members’ needs will be met through their commitment to be together” (McMillan & Chavis, 1986, p. 9). In the original conceptualization of this theory, SOC consists of four interwoven elements: membership, integration of and fulfillment of needs, influence, and shared emotional connection (McMillan & Chavis, 1986). More recently, Warner and Dixon (2011; 2013) developed the Sport and Sense and Sense of Community Theory (SSCT), in response to the contextual nature of sport. As stated in this conceptualization, SOC in a sport setting consists of six factors – administrative consideration, common interest, competition, equity of a decisions, leadership opportunities, and social spaces. (Warner & Dixon; Warner, Kerwin, & Walker, 2013).

The SSCT represents an important step in increasing our understanding of SOC in sport settings. Recreational tennis is a unique sports setting where this theory has not been explored. Individuals who participate in recreational tennis may be part of multiple overlapping tennis communities including multiple teams, and play outside of formal league matches. These overlapping communities suggest that studying community may require a more nuanced approach (Dunlap & Johnson, 2010).

As a second limitation, Warner and colleagues initial explorations specifically asked respondents to describe what SOC in a sport setting looked like (Warner, Dixon, & Chalip, 2012). While this approach is valuable in describing SOC, the narrow focus of the question risks pointing participants in a specific direction. It is, therefore, important to attempt to understand the specific meaning that respondents ascribe to participation by asking more general questions (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Given the importance of SOC and previous research supporting a contextual sport specific nature of a SOC, the purpose of this study was to explore participants’ experience in an adult recreational tennis league and the meaning that those participants ascribe to that experience with a specific focus related to SOC.

### **Method**

This study used a qualitative interpretive approach to data collection in which a semi-structured interview format was used to collect data. The questions began with “grand tour”

questions (Marshall & Rossman, 2011) which were followed by additional probing questions as warranted. Data were collected from 21 intermediate level participants in adult tennis leagues in the greater Salt Lake City region. Data were transcribed verbatim and analyzed manually. Multiple levels of coding were used to help develop themes. These themes or codes were regularly compared throughout data analysis. Coding followed both a theory-generated coding scheme where codes were developed based on elements of theories of SOC and in-vivo codes where codes emerged through the analysis process (Marshall & Rossman, 2011).

### **Findings**

Researchers were specifically interested in the meaning that participants ascribed to their experience in recreational tennis. Overwhelmingly, participants discussed the value of the social relationships that they developed through league participation. To help further understand how these social relationships are manifested within this setting, we looked for specific themes and then compared those themes to the factors of a SOC in sport (Warner, Kerwin, & Walker, 2013). This analysis points to the factors of competition, social spaces, fairness, and voluntary commitment as components of the social relationships. These themes provide some support for four of the elements proposed by Warner and colleagues, while also highlighting differences that may further enhance this theory development.

### **Discussion**

This study makes several contributions that advance our understanding participation in adult recreational sports. In terms of meaning, participants most frequently emphasized the social relationships that accrued in participation. Participation in league tennis provided players the opportunity to develop positive social relationships that they would not have developed otherwise. Specific elements of the experience also provide partial support for Warner and colleagues (2011; 2013) conceptualization of SOC in sport; notably, competition and social spaces. In addition, two elements present slight variations on elements of Warner's conceptualization. While Warner, Dixon and Chalip (2012) initially proposed equity of administrative decisions as an element of SOC, participants in this study emphasized general fairness of other participants in addition to fairness at the administration level. This finding is more consistent with recent scale development work suggesting a more general component of equity in decisions (Warner, Kerwin, & Walker, 2013). Further, participants in this study emphasized the commitment as an aspect that is missing from previous conceptualizations of SOC. Finally, leadership opportunities and administrative consideration did not surface in this study. While some participants mentioned having influence on decisions, many viewed influence opportunities as more work rather than an important part of their experience. It is not surprising that administrative consideration did not surface considering that, for most participants, interactions with administration was limited. This suggests an important difference from studies in other settings.

### **Implications for Practice**

This study offers practical suggestions for enhancing SOC within the sport context. For example, given the importance of social spaces, managers may wish to ensure that opportunities exist for participants to socialize outside of match play. This may include having a common gather area, or serving snacks at a common place. The importance of fairness also suggests that managers are not only extra diligent about ensuring a fair system, but are also transparent in their decisions to assist other participants in understanding the decisions.

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## **STATE PARK ENTRANCE FEES, VISITATION PATTERNS, AND VISITOR SATISFACTION**

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Oklahoma State Parks has committed to seek public involvement during the process of park management and development, parallel to federal expectations in compliance with the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA). Among indications of managerial success, Oklahoma Tourism and Recreation Department (OTRD), the authorized management agency, has particular interests in state park service quality and visitor satisfaction that reflects the emotional state after park visitation. Additionally, with recent economic trends and budget short-falls at the state level, the state park system has been encouraged to consider movement toward self-sufficiency in its operation. Therefore, visitor perceptions toward additional fees for visiting a state park have become a subject of interest. Between 2001 and 2011, OTRD operated 31 state parks under the financial support of park-generated revenues (52%) and general funds (43%). Of those park-generated revenues, 67% came from overnight visitors who were only 15% of the total park visitors. Only one state park has collected a true entrance fee and a few others charge fees for using designated areas. Most day visitors do not contribute to the park-generated revenues for using the Oklahoma State Park system. The idea of charging a general state park entrance fee is relatively “new” and “controversial” for Oklahomans, OTRD sought a scientific research effort to carefully evaluate the option. The purpose of this research is three-fold: First, to obtain public input on service quality and general satisfaction and to study use patterns of state park visitation; second, to explore the possibility of charging a state park general entrance fee; and lastly, to discover factors affecting park visitors’ willingness to pay a general entrance fee.

### **Methods**

An online survey was developed and posted through Qualtrics for gathering research data regarding visitor satisfaction, service quality, and perceptions toward charging an entrance fee. From March to October, 2014, the link to the survey was posted monthly on each state park’s Facebook page. On-site posters/flyers with URL and QR code pointing to the online survey were also available in park office and bulletin boards. A statement, *I am willing to pay a general entrance fee to support/improve the park operation, maintenance, and management*, was designed to identify park visitors’ attitude toward an entrance fee and applied to divide research participants into two groups: *Pro-Fee* and *No-Fee*. The questionnaire was developed based on previous studies of visitor experience in park settings (Akama & Kieti, 2003; Fletcher & Fletcher, 2003; Kozak, 2001; Lee, Graefe & Burns, 2004). The questionnaire was composed of service quality, visitor overall satisfaction, behavioral intention, socio-demographics, and visitation pattern to the parks. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was applied to examine if park visitors’ perceived service quality, satisfaction, and behavioral intention related to state parks as a factor of the supportiveness of an entrance fee. Additionally, Chi-square analysis and analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine if there is any socio- and visitor characteristic difference between *Pro-Fee* and *No-Fee* groups.

### **Results**

*Park visitor profile:* A total of 423 participants finished the survey with 219 (52%) in *Pro-Fee* and 204 (48%) in *No-Fee* group. The majority of the respondents were white (87%), female (60%), age 30 to 55 (65%), with at least an associate or Bachelor’s degree (63%) and annual

household income of more than \$50,000 (75%). Most of them visited state parks with family and friends with children (68%), made less than four trips to a park in the past 12 months (52%), stayed one or two days (56%). Also, the average years since first visit was 15 years, and generally visitors had spent 35% of their lives visiting parks (ratio of years since 1<sup>st</sup> visit to age).

*Comparison between Pro-Fee and No-Fee:* Fifty-two percent of the respondents were *Pro-Fee* while 48% were *No-Fee*. A significant difference between the two groups was found on service quality, but not on overall satisfaction or behavioral intention. The *Pro-Fee* perceived a higher service quality in reasonable pricing, park information availability, adequate parking, perceived value, security and safety, and restroom cleanliness when compared to *No-Fee*. No significant differences were found between the two groups on park being well-maintained, helpfulness of staff, food and beverage service, and clear directional information. Also, no statistically significant variance between age, gender, education level, income, or self-described user type was found in their attitude toward paying a park entrance fee. On the contrary, years since park visitors' first visit and the percentage of park visitors' life in the parks showed a significant difference between the two groups. The *Pro-Fee* group spent a smaller percentage of their lives visiting Oklahoma state parks (29%), while the *No-Fee* group reported that they have visited the parks 42% of their lives.

### **Conclusions and Implication for Practice**

*Using social media as a platform for obtaining public input:* Although using non-random samples or online surveys might not be the "ideal" approach for conducting research, given the limited budget, economical online tools, and popularity of social media, this online research has proven its value in obtaining public input for park management and improvement. More than 80% of the Oklahoma state parks are already on Facebook, with the pages being voluntarily created and managed by park staffs, state parks has already interacted with park visitors on a regular basis.

*Attitude toward entrance fee: High satisfaction but perceived different service quality:* Our research participants were mostly satisfied with their experience in Oklahoma state parks, loyal to the parks with high repeat visitation, and long personal relationship with the properties. However, park visitors showed a polar attitude toward willingness to pay an entrance fee with an equal split between support visitors and non-support visitors. While age, gender, education level, income, or user type was not a factor for paying an entrance fee (Winter, Palucki, & Burkhardt, 1999), park visitors who perceived reasonable prices for current services, received accurate information about the parks, and felt adequate parking space in the parks were more likely to support entrance fees than other visitors (Park, Ellis, Kim, Ruddel & Agrusa, 2006). Early park visitation in a person's life leading to a higher percentage of life in the parks produces a sense of attachment and ownership (Morgan, 2010), leading to resistance to additional entrance fees for access to preferred parks.

*State parks moving forward:* State parks are perceived as public goods and free access to natural resources (Eagles, 2002). The operation of a state park system under economic shortage requires management wisdom without compromising quality. Charging entrance fee may be a potential option in funding park operation (Wall, 2013); however, management agency should consider introducing a gentle User-Pay Program through education efforts or seeking legislation support to avoid public controversy. Managers should keep improving state park service quality that would ensure visitors' satisfaction, which may lead to the support of additional user fee.

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## ADDRESSING GENDER EQUITY IN SPORTS: RESM STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF INSTRUCTION

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Females are underrepresented in numerous facets of sport including management and leadership positions (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014; Adriaanse & Schofield, 2014; Spoor & Hoye, 2014), officiating (Tingle, Warner, & Sartore-Baldwin, 2014), participation (Comrie & McMillan, 2013; Ferguson, 2014; Sabo, 2009), and media coverage (Hallmark & Armstrong, 1999; Huffman, Tuggle, & Rosengard, 2004). The purpose of this study was to (a) identify if Recreation and Sport Management (RESM) students view gender equity as an important topic in their field and (b) to examine students' perceptions of how this topic is addressed in their major.

### Methods

Questionnaires were distributed via email to current students majoring in Recreation and Sport Management ( $N = 349$ ) at the University of Arkansas. The questionnaire consisted of four sections. The first section was designed to assess the level of importance students attributed to gender equity in sports. The second section assessed students' perceptions of instructional practices. The third section determined if professors or instructors (graduate assistants) were perceived to better educate and prepare students to address issues of gender inequity in sports. The final section gathered general demographic information.

A total of 71 questionnaires, male ( $n = 39$ ) and female ( $n = 32$ ), were completed and utilized for data analysis. Data analysis focused on statistically significant differences, if any, that existed between male and female students as well as graduate and undergraduate students.

### Results

A Mann-Whitney U was run to determine if there were differences in the overall level of importance attributed to gender equity in sports between males and females. There were numerous statistically significant findings. Four of these findings are provided. Distributions of the level of importance score for males and females were similar, as assessed by visual inspection. Median level of importance scores were statistically significantly different between males ( $Mdn = 42.00$ ) and females ( $Mdn = 49.50$ ),  $U = 981.500$ ,  $z = 4.137$ ,  $p < .0005$ . Females placed statistically significantly higher importance on the issue of gender equity in sport (mean rank = 45.91) than males (mean rank = 27.87),  $U = 941.00$ ,  $z = 3.801$ ,  $p < .0005$ . Female scores rating whether it was realistic for female athletes and male athletes to have the same resources were statistically significantly higher (mean rank = 44.20) than male scores (mean rank = 29.27),  $U = 886.500$ ,  $z = 3.082$ ,  $p = .002$ . As assessed by visual inspection, the distributions of scores for whether students perceived males to have greater opportunities in sport were similar. Males ( $Mdn = 4.00$ ) had statistically significant lower scores than females ( $Mdn = 5.00$ ) assessing whether they perceived males to have greater opportunities in sport than females,  $U = 802.500$ ,  $z = 2.102$ ,  $p = .036$ .

A Mann-Whitney U test was run to determine if there were differences between male and female students' perceptions regarding how gender equity in sports is addressed in the Recreation and Sport Management program. Distributions were similar, as assessed by visual inspection. Median levels were not statistically significantly different between males ( $Mdn = 44$ ) and females ( $Mdn = 43$ ),  $U = 643.000$ ,  $z = .220$ ,  $p = .826$ . However, males ( $Mdn = 4.00$ ) had statistically significantly lower scores than females ( $Mdn = 6.00$ ) rating if more emphasis should be placed on gender equity in sports in the RESM program,  $U = 864.500$ ,  $z = 2.875$ ,  $p = .004$ .

A Mann-Whitney U was also run to determine if there were differences between undergraduate students ( $n = 54$ ) and graduate students ( $n = 17$ ) in their perceptions regarding how gender equity in sports is addressed in the Recreation and Sport Management program. Undergraduate students (mean rank = 39.52) were statistically significantly more likely than graduate students (mean rank = 24.82) to believe that all RESM classes should address gender equity in sports,  $U = 269.000$ ,  $z = -2.608$ ,  $p = .009$ .

Independent t-test results did not reveal any statistically significant differences of instructional practices between professors and graduate assistants. Scores rating the coverage of the topic of gender equity in sport between professors ( $M = 5.9492$ ,  $SD = 3.1809$ ) and graduate assistants ( $M = 5.2647$ ,  $SD = 3.0779$ ) were not statistically significantly different,  $t(91) = 1.011$ ,  $p = .315$ . There was also not a statistically significant difference for student preparedness to handle issues of gender inequity in sport between professors ( $M = 4.5106$ ,  $SD = 2.7416$ ) and graduate assistants ( $M = 4.2857$ ,  $SD = 2.6227$ );  $t(73) = .349$ ,  $p = .728$ .

### **Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to determine if recreation and sport management students view gender equity as an important topic in their field and to examine students' perceptions of how this topic is addressed in the RESM program. Perhaps not surprisingly, female students viewed gender equity in sports (GEIS) as a more important topic to be addressed than their male counterparts. It could be argued that the fact that female students were more likely than male students to indicate that they were had personally experienced issues related to GEIS is a strong contributor to this difference in perspective. Male students need to be made aware that female students are having these experiences, and need to be educated to help eliminate or confront potential discriminatory practices.

Because gender inequity is evident in sports, it is imperative that all Recreation and Sport Management students are taught and prepared to address this topic. Sixty-nine percent of participants in this study felt that GEIS was addressed in the RESM program. Slightly more than half (52%) of participants indicated that the RESM program provided possible solutions to instances of gender inequity in sports. However, slightly less than half (46.76%) of participants indicated that the RESM program prepared them to confront issues related to GEIS. It could be argued that the results of this study indicate that students are hearing about gender equity issues, but they may not be receiving adequate instruction in how to handle potential issues that arise. It could also be argued that they are receiving proper instruction, but do not have the real life experience to feel confident in applying what they have been taught.

### **Implications for Practice**

Results of this study indicate that GEIS is being addressed in the RESM program. However, improvements can still be made to increase student preparedness. It is vital that professors not only inform students on the topic of GEIS, but they equip them with possible solutions to confront potential issues. These students will be entering the field and need to not only recognize inequity when it exists, but also to be able to properly address the issue. Employers, managers, program providers, and other stakeholders need to understand that students coming into the field may not have the experience or the confidence needed to implement the strategies or solutions that are needed to address GEIS. Addressing these deficiencies will help develop recreation and sport management students into future leaders of the industry that have the skills and abilities to provide everyone with opportunities to participate and succeed in sport.

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## **LOOKING4LOVEONLINE: WOMEN'S CONSUMPTION OF ONLINE DATING WEBSITES**

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Most recently, recreation and leisure researchers and practitioners have placed a strengthened focus towards exploring social equity issues relating to gender, sexuality, race, class, and age (to name a few) in leisure practices and spaces (cf. Mowatt & Schmalz, 2014; Parry, Johnson, Stewart, 2013; Stewart, 2014). However, to date, limited attention has been paid to examining the ways leisure practices and spaces are experienced for people who are romantically single. With that said, research has shown single people often face stigmatization and marginalization in their everyday lives, including their leisure, for not being part of a romantic couple (Cobb, 2011; DePaulo, 2006). The stigma associated with singlehood stems from the social privileging of couple status (Cobb, 2011) rooted in the ideology of couplehood that centres couplehood as the normative relationship status, wherein every person should want to be and strive to be in a couple. Yet, not all single people are stigmatized in the same way. In particular, single, adult women often face greater scrutiny about their single status than men of the same age (DePaulo, 2006). Hence, it comes as no surprise that many single, adult women are eager to move from singlehood into couplehood and are consuming digital leisure technologies (e.g., online dating websites, social networking sites, mobile phone applications, etc.) as a means to do so (Barraket & Henry-Waring, 2008; Engelhart, 2013, February 4).

Online dating websites, in particular, continue to expand their presence in the digital world (Barraket & Henry-Waring, 2008), providing single adults with convenient and accessible ways to meet and connect with others (Bogle, 2008; Bredow, Cate, & Huston, 2008). Despite the popularity of online dating websites as a way to make romantic connections, little is known about how adult women consume online dating websites as part of their leisure lives. Moreover, previous research has suggested online dating websites continue to reinforce gendered expectations (Barraket & Henry-Waring, 2008). In line with this idea, Parry and Penny Light (2013) noted that although leisure technologies influence how we share information and connect with one another, gendered norms and expectations continue to influence how these technologies are taken up and used by women. Indeed, there is a need to consider more closely the ways gendered expectations constrain women's consumption of online dating websites. With these ideas in mind, drawing on third wave feminism, the purpose of this paper is to examine the ways single women consume online dating websites to make romantic connections in adulthood.

### **Methods**

This paper draws on data from a larger study exploring experiences of singlehood and dating for adult women. Guided by narrative methodology (cf. Chase, 2005), participants included 12 single, adult women between the ages of 26-37 (none of whom had children). All of the women were well-educated, having completed (at minimum) undergraduate university degrees. Nine of the women who participated lived alone. All of the women who participated were Caucasian. One of the women identified as bisexual (although in her interview spoke predominantly about her recent experiences connecting with men). One woman identified as Christian. In total, 12 one-to-one reflexive, dyadic interviews and two interactive, small group interviews (see Ellis, 2004 for a description of these types of interviews) were completed. Each of the interviews lasted between one and two and a half hours. All of the interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed into verbatim transcripts for analysis and interpretation.

### **Findings and Discussion**

Online dating websites have been shown to play an increasingly larger role in mediating how single adults establish romantic relationships (Barraket & Henry-Waring, 2008). The findings highlighted in this paper support this notion. Almost all of the women talked about the importance of consuming online dating websites as a *necessity* of dating in adulthood (e.g., *I think more and more online is just, it's the most reasonable way to do things*), given that dating in adulthood often comes with a number of challenges (e.g., *you are busier; there are less people who are single; etc.*) (cf. Bogle, 2008; Kravertz, 2005). As such, many women consumed online dating websites as a way to negotiate the challenges of dating in adulthood, because these sites offer convenient and accessible avenues to meet and connect with romantic others.

In addition, the findings illustrate the ways many women resisted traditional gendered expectations tied to dating (e.g., women as passive, reactive when dating) (Eaton & Rose, 2011), choosing to consume online dating websites in more active and assertive ways. For instance, women talked about using a number of online dating websites simultaneously (e.g., *I am on a few right now; I have tried almost every site out there*), choosing certain websites where they had the power and freedom to browse profiles (e.g., *there is a whole list of people where you can read their profile and start a conversation*), and taking breaks from online dating (e.g., *I need to step back and decide...what it is that I really want*). Resisting gendered expectations provided women with more control and power over their consumption of online dating websites as a means to date.

However, the findings also highlight the ways women's consumption of online dating websites can limit women's power and control over dating. Several women talked about receiving unsolicited and sexually explicit photos, messages, and propositions from men through online dating websites (e.g., *I have gotten a lot of propositions for threesomes online; I went on a date once with this guy from online and now he'll occasionally send me nude photos trying to get me to see him*). This finding is reflected in a study by Barraket and Henry-Waring (2008) who found participants felt uncomfortable with how the transparency of using an online dating website opened them up to becoming the subject of another online dater's control. This finding shows how women's consumption of online dating websites continues to be constrained by gendered power relations that can impact women's safety and comfort in these digital spaces.

### **Conclusion and Implications for Practice**

This paper highlights the ways single, adult women can consume online dating websites as part of their leisure lives, including how women can consume leisure technologies such as online dating websites in ways to gain control and power over these digital contexts. However, this paper also illustrates how women's consumption of these technologies continues to be constrained by gendered power relations. Given the increasingly important role digital leisure technologies play in women's leisure lives (Parry & Penny Light, 2013), this paper makes visible the need for leisure researchers and practitioners alike to consider more closely how to mitigate gendered power disparities in digital leisure contexts. Moreover, considered more broadly, the experiences of single, adult women negotiating the gendered world of dating have been largely ignored by leisure scholars. This study provides important insights into the marginalization and stigmatization single, adult women can face as part of their leisure lives and the need for leisure researchers and practitioners to pay closer attention to identifying and addressing this marginalization and stigmatization in leisure and recreation practices and spaces.

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## **CHILDREN'S PARTICIPATION IN ORGANIZED SPORT: IMPACTS ON FAMILY-LIFE**

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There is a growing conversation in leisure studies about children's participation in organized sport and the effects on family life. Coakley (2006) suggested that the parental commitment to children's sport participation over the past decade has been intensified by a belief among middle and upper middle class families that organized sports enhance their child's physical and social development. Trussell and Shaw (2012) found that parents viewed having their children involved in youth sport identified them as "good parents." Indeed, there is a growing recognition that family influences, and also is influenced by, children's participation in organized sport (Coakley & Donnelly, 2009). Children's sport participation consumes a family's financial, temporal and emotional resources. For instance, the time commitment associated with sport can leave little opportunity for other family activities such as eating dinner together (Kay, 2000), or attending church (Trussell, 2005). There are also concerns over the demands on the children themselves of over specialization in sport (Strachen et al., 2009). Thus, as youth sport has become an increasingly important part of family life, and youth sport provision is an integral part of recreation departments, this exploratory study examined participation in organized youth sport for athletes, parental values associated with participation, and the impact on family life across three different sports: track and field (TF), swimming (S), and synchronized swimming (SS). These sports were selected by the local sports commission for a larger project and these data were ancillary to that purpose. The purpose of this study was: a) to examine the youth's participation patterns in sport; b) to examine the values attached to participation by parents and investigate the influence of social class, age and race/ethnicity; c) to examine parents' perceptions about the influence of youth sport on family life.

### **Method**

Data were collected at two state level (S  $n=212$ , TF  $n=135$ ) and one national (SS  $n=185$ ) youth events. Adult spectators at each event completed a self-administered questionnaire measuring: 1) sport participation patterns (hours per week); 2) influence of sport on other family activities (5 point Likert scale); 3) parental values associated with youth sport (rank 4 items). Data were analyzed through Cross-tabulations, ANOVA, and multiple regressions. Respondents were demographically homogenous across sports on gender (65.2%-78.9% female; 63.2% to 66.9% were athlete's mothers); age ( $M=40-49.9$  years); and marital status (70-80% married). Primary differences were in race, as 71% of TF respondents were black and 80% from the other sports were white; and income with 21.5% (TF) of parents reporting \$80,000 or more compared to 57.6% (S) and 58% (SS). Athletes ranged in age from  $M=11.68$  years (TF);  $M=12.53$  years (S) and  $M=14.28$  years (SS).

### **Results**

**Sport participation patterns:** Athletes had been involved in their sport from  $M=3.21$  years (TF) to  $M=5.95$  years (SS). ANOVA revealed that SS had been involved in their sport the longest [ $F=30.57$ ,  $df$  (2,421),  $P=.000$ ]. Time spent per week on practice varied from  $M=9.24$  hours (TF) to  $M=13.00$  hours (SS). Time spent in competition per week ranged from  $M=5.42$  hours (S) to  $M=13.60$  (SS). ANOVA revealed SS spent the most time per week on practice and

competition [ $F=4.32$ ,  $df(2,133)$ ,  $P=.015$ ]. Athlete's unstructured play time per week was not significantly different across the sports. Unstructured play ranged from  $M=5.91$  hours (S) to  $M=7.39$  (SS). **Parental Values:** Parents ranked fun as the most important reason for their child's participation at 38.7% (S), compared to 18.4% (TF). Health was rated most important by 31.1% (S) compared to 17.9% (TF). Self-discipline was rated most important by 30.2% (S) compared to 15.1% (SS). Competition was rated most important by 19.3% (SS) compared to 27.4% (S). Multiple regression was used to examine the influence of demographics on these values. Type of sport participated in, and race/ethnicity were treated as dummy variables. Track and field was a reference variable for the rest of the youth sports and African American was a reference variable for the rest of racial/ethnic groups. Parents of younger children put more weight on the fun associated with participating ( $\beta=-.23$ ,  $p=.002$ ) [ $F=1.71$ ,  $df(12,326)$ ,  $p=.043$ ]. There were no significant differences in physical health. Parents of older athletes gave significantly higher value to self-discipline ( $\beta=.17$ ,  $p=.007$ ), African-American parents stressed self-discipline more than Hispanic parents ( $\beta=-.30$ ,  $p=.026$ ), and parents of older children gave more importance to self-discipline ( $\beta=-.16$ ,  $p=.030$ ) [ $F=4.09$ ,  $df(4,380)$ ,  $p=.003$ ]. Parents of older athletes ( $\beta=.20$ ,  $p=.004$ ), rated competition as more important. Parents with higher levels of education attached less importance to competition ( $\beta=-.16$ ,  $p=.004$ ). **Influence on Family-Life:** Parents of athletes in SS ( $M=4.08$ ) and S ( $M=4.13$ ) reported that sports affect the time for other family activities significantly more than TF ( $M=3.9$ ) [ $F=4.99$ ,  $df(2,421)$ ,  $P=.007$ ]. To investigate family involvement further, open-ended questions were content analyzed. Parents across all sports noted the need to plan family activities around children's sport schedules, and that other family activities were interrupted by youth sport. Parents of swimmers noted the sport had become the first priority in life and required dedication of money and time.

## **Discussion**

Young athletes, often with the involvement of their parents, spend a significant portion of their week in practice or competition. Interestingly, athletes with the highest time commitment spent more time in unstructured play per week. We did not interrogate unstructured play further as our goal was to attain a description of the family's weekly time commitment to youth sport. However, there are growing concerns over a lack of leisure-time for young athletes (Strachen et al., 2009), as well as parental zealotry towards their child's sport behavior (Kanters, 2002). Encouragingly, parents of younger athletes emphasized fun, and across all sports health benefits rated highly. Predictably, as sport becomes "more serious," parents of older children rated self-discipline and competition as more important, interestingly more highly educated parents as one indicator of social class de-emphasized competition (Coakley, 2006). Another growing concern is the impact of youth sport on family life (Clarke & Harwood, 2014). Parents across all sports indicated that their child's participation did impact time available for other family activities (Kay, 2000), and also family financial resources (Coakley & Donnelly, 2009).

## **Implications for practice**

There is a need for recreational professionals to join the conversation about the state of youth sport. While recreation has been involved in encouraging physical activity among youth, now it appears that the programming of youth sport should also take into consideration a balance between over specialization in sport vs. time for unstructured play; the time commitments of participation for families; cost of participation; and the role of competition in these sports among other emerging issues.

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## **PREDICTING PRO-ENVIRONMENTAL CAMPING BEHAVIOR IN ALBERTA PARKS, CANADA**

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In Alberta 77% of residents have visited a provincial park and 32% visited a provincial park in 2011. Among 8.5 million overnight and day visits to Alberta's parks, 1.5 million individuals stayed in campgrounds for at least one night ("Alberta Parks," n.d). These figures demonstrate the high demand for camping among visitors to Alberta's protected areas. The consumptive behavior of campers is an important determinant of human impact on nature during their stay. The use of campground green spaces, energy consumption, disposal of garbage, recyclables, recreational vehicle waste, and campfire use are all examples of camper behaviors that have the potential for negative environmental impact (Gračan & Birin, 2013). Campers' presence in parks can also disrupt and displace wildlife (Buckley, 2004). These behaviors, when engaged in irresponsibly, can result in cumulative damage to the environment (Cole, 2004; Leung & Marion, 1999; Pickering & Hill, 2007). Accordingly, the purpose of this study was to explore human behavior to provide a better understanding of people's pro-environmental behavior during outdoor recreation, specifically camping in Alberta, Canada.

This study combined significant social psychological theories to identify major predictors of pro-environmental behavior in outdoor recreation context. The theory of planned behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991) was used as the central framework to this study. The TPB suggests that intention, as the immediate antecedent of behavior, can be predicted through attitude, subjective norms (SN), and perceived behavioral control (PBC). As an extension to this theory we proposed that past behavior and awareness of environmental issues can be predictors of behavior through attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. Two other major predictors of pro-environmental behavior in this study were perceived constraints to pro-environmental behavior and negotiation through these constraints. Based on constraint negotiation theory (Jackson, Crawford, & Godbey, 1993), it was proposed that people do not necessarily quit an action due to constraints but they employ various strategies to negotiate through these constraints. In this study we proposed that negotiation mediates that influence of constraints on intention and behaviour. It was also proposed that individuals' motivation to participation in environmentally-friendly activities positively influenced people's perception of constraints as well as the negotiation strategies people adopted to overcome constraints. Self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985), as one of the most cited theories in social psychology, was also used in this research to explore individuals' motivation for pro-environmental behavior. Figure 1 illustrates associations between the study's variables.

### **Methods and Results**

Data for this study were obtained through a self-reported paper-based questionnaire during July, August, and September 2014. The target population of the study was campers staying in front-country campgrounds in Alberta, Canada's provincial parks (i.e., Cypress Hills, Kananaskis Country, Long Lake, Cross Lake, and Gregoire Lake Provincial Parks). Of 1,049 collected questionnaires, 1,009 fully completed questionnaires were analyzed. The questionnaire included items suggested by Ajzen (2011) to measure attitude (affective and cognitive), SN (injunctive and descriptive), PBC (self-efficacy and controllability), and intention (intentions and willingness). Different types of motivations (i.e., intrinsic, integrated, identified, introjected, and external) were measured by 12 statements based on the SDT literature. Interpersonal,

intrapersonal, and structural constraints and negotiation measures were developed based on leisure studies literature and modified for an environmental study context. Self-rated questions were used to measure participants' awareness of environmental issues. Face validity of the constructs was confirmed through experts' check and Cronbach's alpha coefficient confirmed internal consistency of the items ( $\alpha_{\text{intention}} = .88$ ;  $\alpha_{\text{attitude}} = .86$ ;  $\alpha_{\text{SN}} = .60$ ;  $\alpha_{\text{PBC}} = .70$ ;  $\alpha_{\text{constraints}} = .66$ ;  $\alpha_{\text{negotiation}} = .79$ ).

Results of structural equation modeling (model fit indexes:  $\chi^2 = 2656.748$ ,  $df = 392$ , CFI = .95, IFI = .95, RMSEA = .056) revealed that attitude ( $\beta = .11$ ), subjective norms ( $\beta = .68$ , highest), and constraints ( $\beta = -.29$ ) directly influenced people's intention to engage in pro-environmental behavior. Perceived behavioral control ( $\beta = -.38$ ), awareness of environmental issues ( $\beta = -.20$ ), motivation ( $\beta = -.18$ ), and negotiation ( $\beta = -.25$ ) all negatively influenced constraints, and thus, mitigated the negative impact of constraints on intention. Awareness of environmental issues positively influenced motivation ( $\beta = .27$ ), negotiation ( $\beta = .46$ ), attitude ( $\beta = .18$ ), and perceived behavioral control ( $\beta = .38$ ). Past behavior also positively influenced awareness ( $\beta = .26$ ). All these associations were statistically significant ( $p < .001$ ). Overall, the model explained 75% of the variance in intention.

### **Discussion and Implications for Practice**

Results of the present study revealed that constraints to pro-environmental behavior negatively influenced respondents' intention to practice environmentally responsible camping. Reducing perceived constraints (e.g., supplying more waste recycling) would facilitate their pro-environmental behavior. If park agencies expose visitors to accurate information about environmental issues and environmentally friendly actions, this may result in increased environmentally responsible behavior.

The association of past behavior and awareness of environmental issues with the TPB predictors have been previously examined in several pro-environmental behavior studies. Motivation, constraints, and negotiation, however, have not been extensively studied before. Employing a self-determination theory approach to examine motivation to engage in pro-environmental camping practices revealed that motivation played an important role in mitigating people's perceived constraints (e.g., reward and punishment, making pro-environmental activities enjoyable through internalization process).

A review of the literature of pro-environmental studies reveals that individual, social, and structural aspects of constraints to pro-environmental behavior have not been systematically studied (Steg & Vlek, 2009). This study considered different dimensions of constraints to pro-environmental behavior (i.e., intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) to obtain a better understanding of these variables. Also, this research is among the first studies to include negotiation in the study of pro-environmental behaviour. Our results revealed that negotiation mitigates the negative influence of constraints on intention. Facilitating people's negotiation through their constraints may help campers participate in pro-environmental activities. This factor should be considered in future outdoor recreation environmental behavior research.

The significantly high association between subjective norms and intention in this study emphasized the influence of others' opinions on people's pro-environmental behavior during outdoor recreation. This is in line with the influence of interpersonal constraints on individuals' perception of constraints.

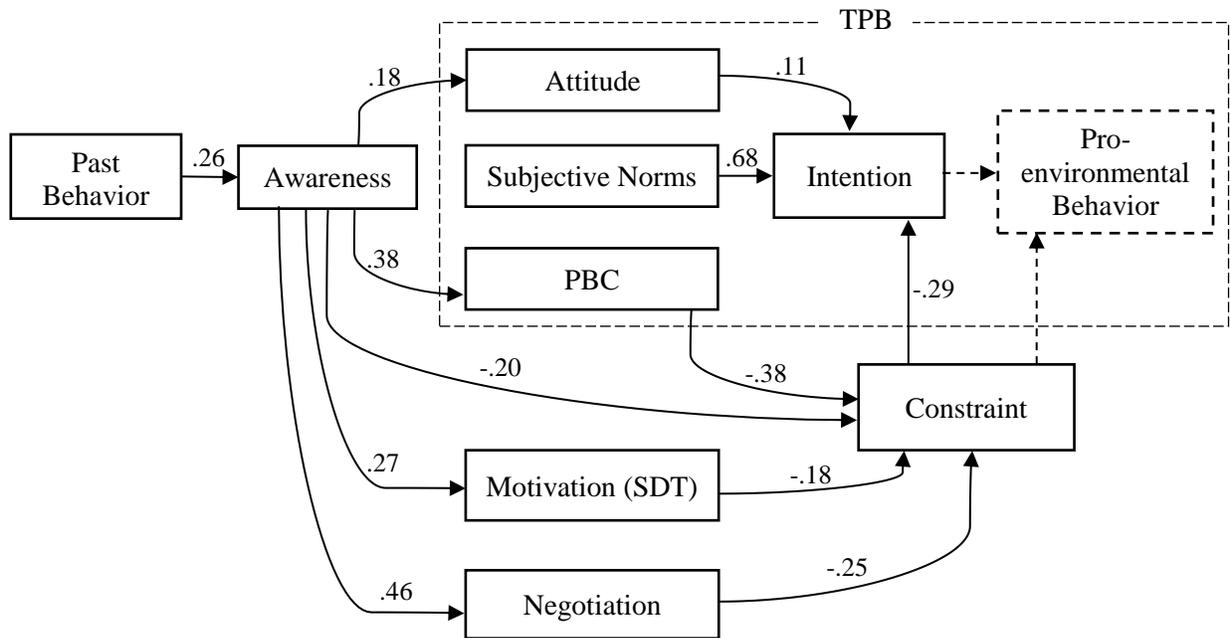


Figure 1. Proposed model of predicting pro-environmental behavior

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## LEISURE FOR OLDER ADULTS WHO DO NOT USE SENIOR CENTERS

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Remaining physically, mentally, and socially active through leisure is an important predictor of successful aging; that is, maintained quality of life in the face of age-related changes (Menec, 2003). Understanding how older adults continue engagement without accessing traditional social centers targeted at their age group (i.e., senior centers) is important for supporting activity in coming cohorts. Although senior centers offer social and leisure engagement resources as well as health and nutritional services (Turner, 2004), members of the baby boomer cohort are seeking alternatives to the senior center, particularly to meet their social and leisure needs (Hostetler, 2011). Previously, a model was developed that describes pathways a select group of senior center users employ to remain self-determined as aging-related challenges are encountered (Dattilo et al., in press). Themes included: a need for self-determination, specific age-related challenges, adaptations to age-related changes, leisure experiences, and the process for meeting self-determination needs. The current study used a similar approach (i.e., focus groups) to determine whether the initial model was consistent with the experiences of individuals who opted not to use this community resource. The original model was modified to reflect perceptions of the sample.

### Methods

An exploratory qualitative design with focus groups was used to understand leisure experiences of community-dwelling older adults. Constant comparative analysis uncovered relevant overarching themes and categories of comments. These themes and categories were further examined for links to the theoretical constructs identified in the introduction.

*Participants and setting.* Study fliers were circulated using listservs in several northeastern U.S. communities. Twenty-one adults (ages 65–85,  $M = 71.3$ ,  $SD = 5.4$ ) participated in two groups. Consistent with recruitment area demographics, the sample was primarily Caucasian ( $n = 20$ , 96%) and female ( $n = 16$ , 76%). The research team detected data saturation following the two groups. Recruitment targeted individuals who were not currently accessing senior centers to examine perspectives of older adults who choose other methods for reaching leisure goals.

*Data Collection.* After providing consent participants completed a brief demographics survey. Two researchers followed an interview protocol for both groups. Each group lasted approximately 90-100 minutes. The protocol included questions about participants' interest in: becoming more involved in research, resources for disseminating health and wellness information, and topics that were relevant to their daily experiences. Both groups were audio-recorded and transcribed using Transcriber 1.5; transcriptions were checked for reliability and accuracy. Twenty-five percent of transcripts were verified for accuracy. Text was exported into Excel and divided by speaker. Two member check focus groups consisting of previous participants and demographically similar older adults were used to verify the representativeness of identified themes. The same procedure was followed for transcription. A total of 4 focus groups were conducted (2 original, 2 member check focus groups) with 111 transcribed pages.

*Data analysis.* Patterns and relationships among themes were uncovered using constant comparative analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Data were first coded to identify patterns and then focused coding refined these patterns as well as broader themes. All transcripts were initially read by two trained research assistants and codes were discussed with the two interviewers to obtain agreement. Lastly, another researcher reviewed all codes and categories to achieve

consensus. The team then identified all themes and illustrative quotes. Data from member check groups were reviewed separately to refine codes and themes. Original transcripts were examined as necessary to determine consistency with member check data. Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) was employed for understanding quotes and their interconnections.

### **Findings**

Consistent with the previously developed model, an important motivational need for older adults not using senior centers was to be self-determined. Challenges associated with aging-related life changes presented barriers to meeting these needs. In addition to challenges (e.g., loss of social connections, physical limitations) identified by those who use the senior centers, the model was expanded to include challenges around ageism. Members discussed specific experiences in the work place as well as in social settings as evidence of the impact of this cultural phenomenon. To cope with challenges of aging, several adaptations were identified in the first model including maintaining a healthy lifestyle and using technology. A major extension to this theme in the current study was identification of a general acceptance of the aging process. Members indicated that accepting changes associated with aging was valuable when making decisions about specific actions to adapt to age-related challenges. An additional theme of maintaining relationships was identified. Participants described specific strategies they used to develop new friendships such as joining community groups with common interests. Social networks were viewed as important for support and protection. Members also expressed a desire to share what they had learned about the aging experience with others. Consistent with the previous model, these older adults discussed their leisure engagement with themes clustering into three categories: learning, social interactions, and recreation activities. A prominent subtheme of the category of recreation activities was volunteering. Also, social interaction represented an important intersection among the categories. Members discussed a desire to get involved in activities that provided opportunities for them to connect with others.

### **Implications for Practice**

The current study provided additional support for the model that can be used to help understand leisure experiences for older adults. Older adults who do not use senior centers helped to clarify the need for remaining self-determined in the face of challenges presented by aging. There were considerable similarities between perceptions reported by study participants and those from the previous study (senior center users) associated with their motivations and strategies used to meet these needs. Also, several important extensions to the model occurred as a result of the new data that accommodated the breadth of experiences of older adults. First, participants described challenges they encountered related to ageism. Compared with senior center users, this group may be more susceptible to ageism since they engaged in recreation activities with community organizations offering programs to a range of ages (North & Fiske, 2012). With respect to adaptations, this group identified the importance of accepting aging-related changes as a necessary precursor to developing specific adaptations (Knight & Ricciardelli, 2003; Reichstadt, Sengupta, Depp, Palinkas, & Jeste, 2010). This finding suggests that these individuals may be closer to the initial process of acceptance of their aging-related changes when compared to older adults using community centers and that this continues to have a role in their decisions about adaptations. Overall, the revised model of leisure engagement provides a useable framework for understanding experiences of community dwelling older adults as they attempt to adapt to age-related changes in order to experience self-determined leisure.

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## **EXTENDING THE MOTIVATION-INVOLVEMENT RELATIONSHIP AND GENDER IN ADVENTURE RECREATION**

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### **Introduction**

The psychological, social, and physiological outcomes (i.e., “motivations”) of recreational experiences are instrumental for understanding involvement in nature-based activities (Kyle et al., 2004). Using social judgment theory as a conceptual frame (Sherif & Hovland, 1961), past work has provided an understanding of how involvement can be predicted by the perceived benefits of an experience that push or pull people into recreation. For example, Iwasaki & Havitz (2004) found that skill, motivation, social support, and norms directly affected enduring leisure involvement, while behavioral loyalty was indirectly influenced by this construct. Kyle et al. (2006) also investigated the motivation – involvement relationship and observed that motivation positively affected enduring involvement among campers in a southeastern national forest. Our paper aims to extend these previous studies by determining how other factors such as socio-demographics shape motivation’s influence on enduring involvement.

The role of gender in shaping the motivation-involvement relationship has been largely overlooked in the leisure literature, despite mounting evidence that involvement is a product of the learned interactions between people and leisure experiences. Specifically, past work has shown that the meanings of activities vary between different genders owing to the diverse social worlds of these two subgroups (Henderson et al., 1996). For example, Wood & Danylchuk (2012) reported that women faced more constraints to participation including perceived skill level, physical ability, and time. Indeed, what individuals consider important in leisure varies by gender because men and women ascribe different meanings to their leisure experience. Yet, the gendered aspects of involvement and its antecedent processes have received scant attention in the literature. This is a particularly important knowledge gap to consider for those engaged in adventure recreation, because risk taking pursuits are stereotypically male-dominated (Wiley et al., 2000). For example, Little (2002) found that costs, perceived technical knowledge, self-doubt, and family commitments all hindered women’s participation in adventure recreation, and these individuals struggled to find identity affirmation and expression in activities historically typed as male. Accordingly, this study examined how gender influenced the motivation-involvement relationship reported by adventure recreationists engaged in white water rafting on the Kern River, CA.

### **Methods**

Building from past conceptual and empirical work, we hypothesized that motivation would positively predict enduring involvement and that this relationship would be moderated by gender (see Figure 1). Specifically, we believed that females would tend to develop less enduring relationships with the activity of white water rafting and would therefore be compelled by different motivations than male respondents. To test our hypotheses, we used data collected from adventure recreationists that rafted the Kern River from April-June, 2014. A total of 584 people were contacted on-site and asked to participate in the study, and 520 people agreed which resulted in an on-site response rate of 89%. Using Dillman’s (2009) total design method, all

respondents were sent follow-up survey questionnaires by mail and/or email depending on their reported preferences. A total of 242 people completed the follow-up survey yielding an overall response rate of 48%.

Motivation was measured using 14 items falling within six dimensions of the Recreation Experience Preference scales (Driver, 1983): achievement/stimulation, risk, similar people, learning, enjoying nature, escape personal/social pressures. Involvement was measured using Kyle et al.'s (2007) Modified Involvement Scale (MIS), including 10 items. The four dimensions measured in this scale were attraction, identity affirmation, identity expression, and bonding. Gender was used as a moderating variable to explore its effect on motivation and involvement among male and female survey respondents.

### **Findings / Discussion**

Analyses revealed that motivations positively influenced respondents' involvement in rafting activities along the Kern River. Respondents were motivated to engage in rafting activities for a variety of reasons. The highest rated motivators were enjoying nature ( $M = 3.94$ ,  $SD = 0.95$ ) and escaping personal / social pressure ( $M = 3.76$ ,  $SD = 1.07$ ). Conversely, achievement / stimulation ( $M = 2.42$ ,  $SD = 1.10$ ) and risk ( $M = 2.46$ ,  $SD = 1.13$ ) were the least important desired benefits. The most highly rated involvement dimensions reflected attraction to the activity ( $M = 3.24$ ,  $SD = 0.87$ ) and the least important was social bonding ( $M = 2.48$ ,  $SD = 0.88$ ). Respondents were also involved in adventure recreation for the purposes of identity affirmation ( $M = 2.92$ ,  $SD = 0.97$ ) and identity expression ( $M = 3.68$ ,  $SD = 2.77$ ).

For the pooled sample, we first examined the measurement model which illustrated the suitability of our hypothesized factor structure ( $\chi^2=349.33$ ,  $df=185$ ,  $RMSEA=.06$ ,  $NNFI=.95$ ,  $SRMR=.04$ ). We then tested the structural model and found satisfactory model fit ( $\chi^2=364.22$ ,  $df=204$ ,  $RMSEA=.06$ ,  $NNFI=.95$ ,  $SRMR=.05$ ). Last, we tested the model across the two gender groups and observed partial support for our hypotheses (see Table 1). The performance of the scaled items resulted in some variation between subgroups, though the structural paths were largely equal. Therefore, we concluded that gender did not moderate the relationship between motivation and involvement. Learning was associated with Attraction ( $\beta=.38$ ,  $t\text{-value}=5.08$ ), Social Bonding ( $\beta=.49$ ,  $t\text{-value}=6.00$ ), and Identity Affirmation ( $\beta=.47$ ,  $t\text{-value}=6.47$ ); Escape was related to Attraction ( $\beta=.15$ ,  $t\text{-value}=2.22$ ); and Achievement predicted Identity Expression ( $\beta=.42$ ,  $t\text{-value}=6.51$ ). Our results indicated that particular motives led adventure recreationists to become involved in white water rafting activities. We also incorporated the idea of gender into our motivation-involvement model to explore new understandings of how males and females experienced leisure differently. Our results assist in the process of explaining leisure behavior in the context of adventure recreation activities.

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Figure 1. Hypothesized Model

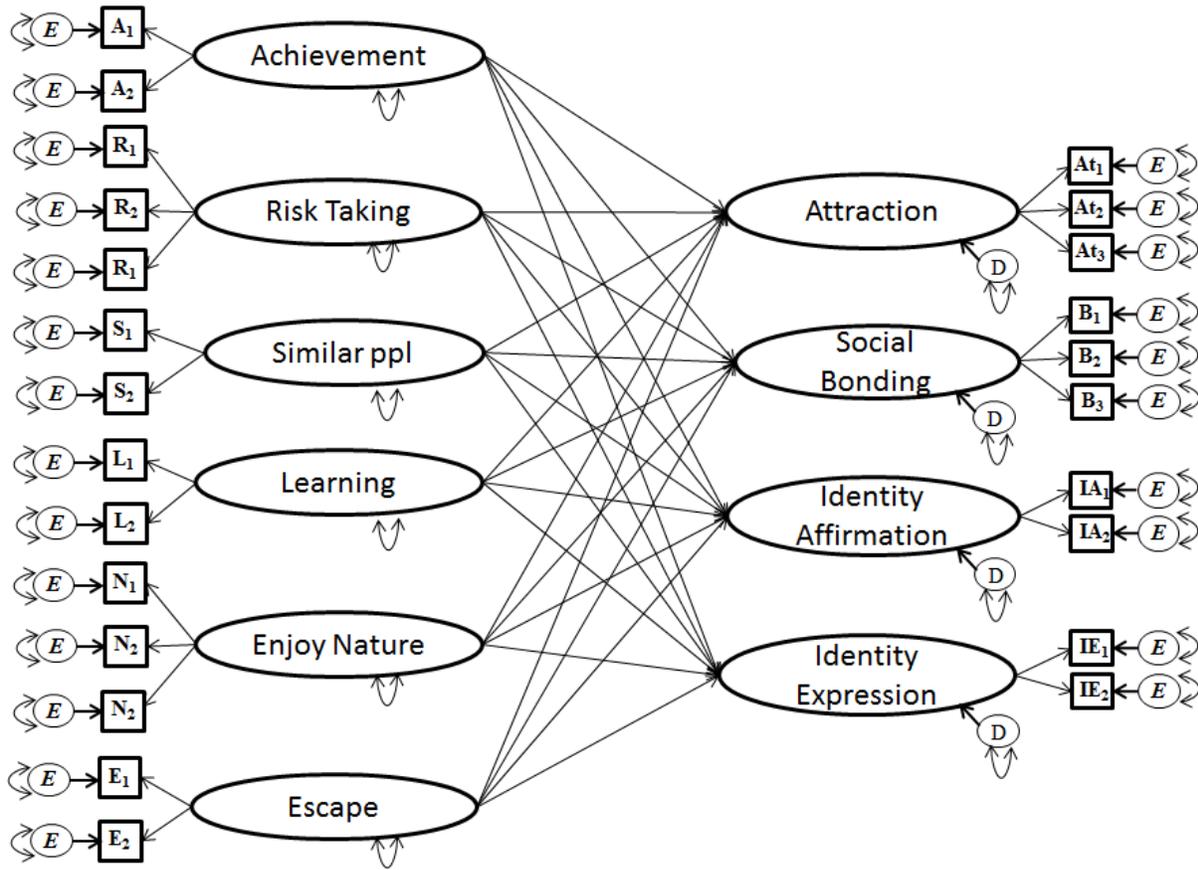


Table 1. Structural Model Results

Dependent Variable	Predictor	$\beta$	$t$	$R^2$
Attraction	Learning	.38	5.08*	.22
	Escape	.15	2.22*	
Social Bonding	Learning	.49	6.00*	.24
Identity Affirmation	Learning	.47	6.47*	.22
Identity Expression	Achievement	.42	6.51*	.18

\*  $p < .01$

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# **DERBY-LIFE BALANCE: NEGOTIATING EVERYDAY LIFE AS A ROLLER DERBY GIRL**

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## **Introduction**

Roller derby is a fast growing sport in the US and around the world. It is a sport predominantly played by adult women, a demographic that is often missing from organized sport, both competitive and recreational. Organized by the Women's Flat Track Derby Association (WFTDA), member leagues are skater run "by the skaters, for the skaters" (Women's Flat Track Derby Association, 2015), meaning that league boards are at least two-thirds women. Due to this, and the commitment it takes to be a competitive athlete in a fast paced, hard hitting sport such as roller derby, there is a significant time commitment by the sport which the women must negotiate along with their time at work or school and with partners and families. Limited research on roller derby has looked at types of femininity performed in the sport (Breeze, 2010; Carlson, 2010), the inclusiveness of the sport, and the enjoyment and meaning of the physicality and pain involved in the sport (Pavlidis & Fullagar, 2012). Time, is often cited as a significant constraint to women's participation in sport (Little, 2002; Wood & Danylchuck, 2012), however roller derby athletes regularly spend 10-15 hours a week on their sport. Despite the plethora of literature on constraints to women's participation in recreation, there is an absence of research that examines how the roller derby athletes negotiate their participation and significant time investment with the other aspects of their lives. The state of derby as a women's sport organized by women creates an unique opportunity to look at adult women's participation in organized activity. Using the leisure constraints model (Jackson, Crawford, & Godbey, 1993; Jackson & Henderson, 1995) and leisure facilitators (Raymore, 2002), this project sought to discover how participants negotiate constraints to participation and balance their sport participation with their professional and personal. The findings can help recreation programmers' market adult activities to women based on themes of how these women prioritize and justify participation themselves.

## **Methods**

This study was a case study of the Twin City Derby Girls. It was mixed methods in nature, comprised of 20 qualitative interviews, participant observation, and 32 surveys. Interviews lasted one hour on average. Field notes were taken while observing league practices and bouts. The surveys and interviews covered topics regarding socialization into the sport, health and wellbeing, feminist attributes of the participants, and derby-life balance. This presentation focuses on the topic of derby-life balance which examined how the women negotiated constraints, and how they balanced derby with their professional and personal lives. The survey questions on this topic were open ended, and were coded for common themes. The interviews were transcribed and analyzed based on the tenets of grounded theory. Member checks were conducted with key stakeholders.

## **Results/Discussion**

The participants all acknowledged that derby was a huge time commitment that was often a challenge to balance with their professional and personal lives. They spend 10-15 hours per week on derby related activities on average and most had full time jobs. Many also had partners and some had children. Three main themes emerged from the data in terms of how the women viewed balancing derby with the rest of their life; the importance of prioritizing personal time,

the community and support derby provides, and family involvement in derby. All three themes can be categorized and intrapersonal or interpersonal facilitators to leisure (Raymore, 2002).

The women discussed the importance of prioritizing time for themselves. They talked about having time to do what they enjoy served as a stress reliever and outlet. It also gave them time to recharge and thus be better partners and mothers; it had a rejuvenating aspect to it. They talked about how important it is for women to set aside time for themselves. For many of these women, time was not framed so much as a constraint as it was a matter of prioritizing. They were all busy, but the language was regarding the importance of prioritizing physical fitness and personal time for their own health and happiness which they believed translated into being happier in the rest of their lives.

Sense of community and support of other women was another key reason why they devoted so much time and energy to derby. Their teammates were also their friends. Several women stated that for the first time they had female friends with similar interests that they could relate to. This community helped them get through challenging life events. Community support kept them participating even when the time commitment was difficult for them to negotiate.

For many of the women, derby was a family event which made balancing derby and personal life easier. While family often serves as an interpersonal constraint to women (Jackson & Henderson, 1995; Little, 2002; Wood & Danylchuck, 2012), the participants in this study stressed the importance of understanding partners their participation. In fact, many had partners involved in the sport. While a couple players were dating each other, other's partners helped in other ways including coaching, officiating, announcing, and running the scoreboard at bouts. It was a family friendly atmosphere where some players would bring young kids to practice and others would share childcare duties and resources to allow each other to attend practices and events. As previous research has discussed (Little, 2002; Migliaccio & Berg, 2007), family can be a major constraint for women, but the family friendly and communal atmosphere of the sport facilitated the women's negotiation of this common constraint.

### **Implications for Practice**

The implications for this study relate not only to the further growth of roller derby, but can also help to inform recreation programmers in programming for and recruiting adult women. Women often cite lack of time as a constraint to participating in adult organized sports. However, these sports, predominantly played by men, take up considerably less time in the week than the 10-15 hours spend by derby girls at derby related activities. The participants in this study repeatedly cited comradery with other women and social support as benefits and motivating factors for participating. As such, recreation agencies should focus on interpersonal relationships. They might consider actually adding time to their adult sport schedules. Rather than leagues consisting of only a once a week game, an additional practice might actually entice rather than reduce the women interested as it would allow them more time to create friendship and community with their teammates. Based on the finding that making time for oneself was important to individual and family well-being, agencies could recruit women by stressing the importance of a woman taking time for herself to do something she loves on a regular basis to improve overall well-being. By looking at how women who do participate in adult recreation and sport, and how they prioritize their time and create time for the activities they love, agencies and programmers can better program for and recruit more women to leisure activities.

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# **EXPLORING RECREATION MANAGERS' PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT**

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## **Background and Purpose**

Kotterman (2006) offered a useful discussion regarding the similarities and differences between the concepts of leadership and management, highlighting the differences between the processes leaders and managers employ in the workplace. Kotterman's (2006) work focused on the concepts of leadership and management in business and industry, as do other notable scholars on the subject (e.g. Collins, 2001; & Kouzes & Posner, 2007). While budding professionals in the field of leisure and recreation services can benefit from the knowledge found in industry, field-specific knowledge regarding the relationship between leadership and management would seem to be the most beneficial. While leading management textbooks in the field of leisure and recreation services briefly examine the relationship between leadership and management in recreation (Hurd, Barcelona, & Meldrum, 2008; van der Smissen, Moiseichik, & Hartenburg, 2005), few published empirical studies exist to investigate the issue in our field. A database search for articles containing the terms 'management' and 'leadership' in their titles, abstracts, or keywords appearing in journals containing either 'recreation,' 'leisure,' or 'sport' in their titles returned only three research articles whose purpose focused on perceptions of management and leadership in the field of recreation (Ibrahim & Cordes, 1996; Mitchelson, 1993; Quarterman, 1998). Consequently, the purpose of this study was to explore recreation managers' concepts of leadership and management.

## **Methodology**

Participants for this research project were managers currently working in the field of leisure and recreation services in Central Illinois and the surrounding area. A total of 15 managers participated in this study. Each participant took part in an in-depth, semi-structured interview with the researcher. The qualitative interview data was analyzed following Hycner's (1985) guidelines for the analysis of interview data.

## **Findings**

When asked to define and compare leadership and management, participants reported that leadership and management were distinct, yet overlapping concepts. Table 1 displays the various ways participants differentiated between the two concepts. Though participants expressed what they saw as clear differences between the definitions of the two concepts, they also emphasized that the concepts needed to be balanced both within an individual and within an organization. For example, Grace stated, "I think really management and leadership are closely intertwined. Some of your best managers are going to have great leadership qualities, and even the best leaders know how to manage people really well."

Beyond defining the concepts of leadership and management, participants also discussed what effective leaders and managers do (Figure 1). As with defining the concepts, participants identified distinct tasks of an effective leader and manager as well as tasks shared by both. The distinct tasks for effective managers related to getting things done on a daily basis while the distinct tasks for effective leaders related to establishing the vision for the organization. For example, Juan said, "I think...managers, they handle day to day type operations. They focus on keeping things running smoothly" whereas Patty stated "I think leadership is setting the vision

for your organization, looking down the road...” The tasks where effective managers and effective leaders overlapped, in the eyes of the participants, related to effectively working with others. Lindsey expressed, “I would say [the skills of a leader are the] same type of thing I said for manager, just again being there when staff needs support...knowing kind of when to step in and when to let your staff just kind of do their own thing.”

### **Discussion and Implications.**

The purpose of this study was to explore recreation managers’ concepts of leadership and management. Overall, participants reported leadership and management to be distinct, yet overlapping concepts. This finding aligns with previous commentary that has found leadership and management to serve complementary but different functions within organizations (e.g. Kotterman, 2006). Further, the participants identified leadership as related to big picture and visionary tasks while management was related to day-to-day, operational tasks. Again, these findings align with other commentaries about the relationship between the two concepts (Hurd, Barcelona, & Meldrum, 2008; Kotterman, 2006). Few studies exist that address the relationship of leadership and management in the field of recreation. Kotterman (2006) argued, “Understanding the differences between leadership and management can ensure that employees know when and how to apply each set of characteristics for given processes” (p. 17). Similarly, Quarterman (1998) discussed the importance of understanding the relationship between the two concepts in order to successfully prepare students in university recreation and sport programs. Consequently, the authors of the current study believe that further exploration of this topic within the specific context of recreation could help to shape training and curriculum development within university programs and organizations.

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Table 1. Participants' perceptions of the concepts of leadership and management	
Leadership	Management
Big picture	Day-to-day operations
Qualitative	Quantitative
Comfortable with risks	Cautious with risks
Two-way street	One-way street
Developed over time	Arises from given position
Face-to-face	Behind the scenes

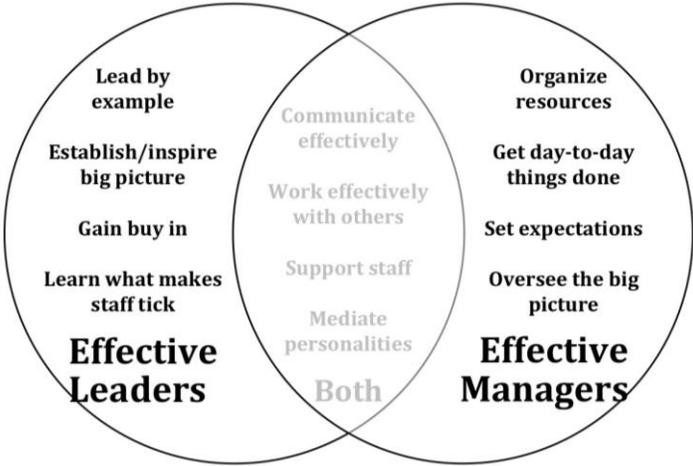


Figure 2. Participants' description of what leaders and managers do

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## **ACCREDITED AND AWARD-WINNING PARKS & RECREATION AGENCIES: STILL A PRIVILEGE**

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The National Parks and Recreation Association (NRPA) is the leading body that connects the most parks and recreation professionals, guides policy, provides recognition through awards, and develops accreditation standards for individual employees, agencies, and college/university departments. Inconsistent nationwide buy-in remains an issue, particularly related to the agency certification offered by the Council on Accreditation for Parks and Recreation Agencies (CAPRA). In fact, only 115 agencies are currently certified. Perhaps a lack of research available on the impact and benefits of the CAPRA certification has failed to provide the evidence needed to motivate more municipal parks and recreation agencies to become accredited.

Benefits of personal certifications in the recreation industry like Certified Park and Recreational Professional (CPRP), Aquatic Facility Operator (AFO), and Certified Playground Safety Inspector (CPSI) offered through NRPA have been proven to be valuable. Xie et al. (2013) found that a personal sense of achievement, increased knowledge of the field, career advancement, and networking opportunities were all perceived benefits of these accreditations. Research also has shown that institutions and academic programs certified by the Council on Accreditation Parks, Recreation, Tourism and Related Professions (COAPRT) are enhancing the quality of higher education and verify that student learning outcomes are being met (Ross, Young, & Sturts, 2012). Cole and Cole (2008) also found that students in accredited programs reported higher levels of engagement in academically challenging activities, active and collaborative learning techniques, interactions with faculty, and activities that indicate a supportive campus environment. Additionally, students in accredited programs reported higher gains in practical competence and satisfaction.

Even without foundational research to prove the benefits of agency certification specifically, the CAPRA standards provide the most salient institutionalized norms and expectations available for public parks and recreation agencies. NRPA's website states, "Accreditation is a distinguished mark of excellence that affords external recognition of an organization's commitment to quality and improvement. Accreditation has two fundamental purposes; to assure quality and to assure improvement." So, for the purposes of this paper, CAPRA certification, along with NRPA's annual Gold Medal Awards which very selectively recognize "excellence in long-range planning, resource management, and agency recognition", will be used to identify exemplary public parks and recreation agencies in the United States. The research questions then are as follows:

1. Where are the model, accredited and nationally award winning, parks and recreation agencies in the United States?
2. Who has access to these exemplary public parks and recreation departments and the presumed benefits associated with the high quality facilities and services?

### **Methods**

The parks and recreation agencies who are currently CAPRA certified (115 total) and those which have won Gold Medal Awards in the last 10 years (47 total – excluding state and military winners) were identified via the NRPA website. Then, 2010 United States Census Data was compiled for all the corresponding municipalities and counties. This included (1) geographic region, (2) population size, (3) median household income, (4) percentage of residents with at

least a bachelor's degree, and (5) the percent of population that is white, non-Hispanic. Descriptive statistics were applied in Microsoft Excel.

**Results**

CAPRA Certification (as of fall 2014)

<i>Region</i>		<i>Top States</i>	
Midwest	33	Florida	23
West	17	North Carolina	8
South	60	Texas	8
Northeast	5	Ohio	8

Gold Medal Award Winners (2004-2013)

<i>Region</i>		<i>Top States</i>	
Midwest	22	Illinois	15
West	14	Colorado	9
South	11	Virginia	5
Northeast	0		

The average median household income for all locations served by either a CAPRA certified and/or Gold Medal Award winning parks and recreation agency is \$63,047. This is \$10,001 more than the national average of \$53,046. The mean percentage of residents in locations served by either a CAPRA certified and/or Gold Medal Award winning parks and recreation agency with at least a bachelor's degree level education is 39%. This is 10% higher than the national average of 29%. The mean percentage of white, non-Hispanic residents living in locations served by either a CAPRA certified and/or Gold Medal Award winning parks and recreation agency is 63%. This is near the national average of 62%.

**Discussion**

There are some obvious disparities when looking at the regional and state breakdown of where the accredited and award winning parks and recreation agencies in the United States are located. Interestingly, 20% of the CAPRA certified departments are located in the state of Florida. The question has to be asked, what is going on that is causing such a high number of agencies to pursue accreditation in the state? And what can other states learn about promoting the value of CAPRA certification on a statewide level? Similarly, 32% of all Gold Medal Award winners in the past 10 years have come from the state of Illinois. It might be worth noting the popular, park district, funding structure in this state that perhaps provides an edge in affording the highest quality facilities and services. Representation from the northeast region of the U.S. is virtually non-existent, with zero Gold Medal Awards and only five accredited parks and recreation departments. While the demographic data reveals that racial minorities appear to be appropriately represented in the areas served by flagship agencies, the median household incomes (+19%) and education levels (+34%) are significantly higher in these areas than national averages.

**Implications for Practice**

If the field of parks and recreation believes in the power of accreditation, and the benefits of the highest quality parks and recreation facilities and services, NRPA must explore how to promote accreditation and award winning standards more equitably and motivate agency buy-in at a national level. The field should also be concerned that the parks and recreation departments who do seek accreditation and national awards are more likely to be located in affluent and well educated areas, perpetuating recreation privilege. While CAPRA does have sliding scales related to review and annual fees, the questions must continue to be asked about how departments with fewer resources can be supported to provide the highest quality services possible and be motivated to apply for accreditation and national awards.

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# **EXPLORING DESTINATION ATTRIBUTES AND VISITOR SATISFACTION AT A NATURE-BASED RESORT**

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## **Introduction**

Destination attribute plays an important role in visitors' satisfaction with a particular destination. Therefore, it is worthwhile for destination managers to make greater investments in their resources to enhance visitor experiences and increase visitor satisfaction. Visitors' profile and characteristics of their visit are important variables in explaining recreation activity patterns at nature recreation settings (Hughes & Morrison-Saunders, 2003; Togridou, Hovardas, & Pantis, 2006; Roovers et al., 2002). In the competitive tourism market, visitor satisfaction is an important factor to gain better destination image and develop destination loyalty and repeat visits. In order to increase competitiveness and market share, nature tourism destinations should take into account the characteristics of their target markets and shape their image and positioning efforts to particular demographic segments (Wong, 2011). A nature-based destination has been defined in terms of providing a range of experiences that are primarily dependent on nature (Holden & Sparrowhawk, 2002; Meng & Uysal, 2008). High quality services and customer satisfaction are important determinants of destination competitiveness (Caber, Albayrak, & Matzler, 2012). The purpose of this study is to investigate destination attributes, visitors' demographics, visit characteristics, and overall satisfaction with a nature-based resort to provide insights for management and marketing implications to building loyalty of current and potential market segments.

## **Methods**

A nature-based resort in Southwest Oklahoma, serving as a destination for leisure, family reunions, destination weddings, and corporate events was used as the study site. A diverse range of both natural and developed recreational opportunities are provided in this site. In-state and out-of state visitors were invited to participate in the study through different means, i.e. email list, social media, and on-site cards with URL or QR code to access an online survey. Data collection was conducted from October, 2014 to January 2015. The survey included three sections: standard demographic questions to identify the profile of the respondents, characteristics of the visit, and questions related to visitor satisfaction. A list of 16 resort destination attribute items, based on a previous study (Meng, Tepanon, & Uysal, 2008), were modified to apply to the specific characteristics of the research site. A five-point Likert scale was used to rate destination attribute importance ranging from 1 "not important at all" to 5 "very important" for each statement provided. Visitor satisfaction was measured by two questions "willingness to recommend" and "level of satisfaction with most recent visit". The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and factor analysis. Factor analysis was employed to identify the dimensions of the destination attributes. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was calculated. The data were analyzed using statistical SPSS software.

## **Results**

From the total of the 461 respondents, 56.83% were females and 43.17% were males. The mean age of the respondents was 53.6 years, with 79.17% being older than 45 years old. The majority of respondents reported having at least some college degree or higher level of education. Over 73.10% of the respondents were repeat visitors and 85.25% were staying

overnight. Family vacation and leisure were reported as the main purpose of visit to the destination (43.40%). Less than 10% of the visitors were somewhat or very dissatisfied with their visit and 5% would not recommend the destination to family and friends. Factor analysis was conducted to identify the importance of destination attributes. The results revealed that quality of lodging and types of amenities offered, followed by friendliness of personnel, and the natural scenery/activities were the most important destination attributes for visitors of a nature-based resort (Table 1).

### **Discussion**

The findings showed that almost 80% of the current market were people over 45 years old. This indicates that a 20% of the younger market might be attracted to other destinations offering different types of services. Therefore, destination managers should provide additional offerings to target the younger market segment. Factors such as quality of lodging facilities, friendliness of personnel, and natural scenery and recreation opportunities were the key indicators of visitors' overall satisfaction. The most important destination attribute was quality of lodging which might influence the level of satisfaction of visitors staying overnight. These results implied that visitor satisfaction at a nature-based resort might not only depend on the natural scenery, but is more dependent on other factors such as quality of lodging facilities and friendly service. Overall, the potential destination competitiveness in this study was influenced by high quality of lodging services and customer satisfaction, which is consistent with the study of Caber, Albayrak, and Matzler (2012). In addition, the findings of this research showed a certain level of visitor dissatisfaction which might be related to certain destination attributes and should be of concern for management. Therefore, it is important for management to address the potential negative impact of dissatisfied visitors who might spread negative word-of-mouth and, in turn, affect loyalty in repeat visitation and referrals for increasing the market.

### **Implications for practice**

The findings of this study aim to assist recreation managers and practitioners to identify the importance of evaluation of destination attributes and different market segments for nature-based tourism. Measuring visitor satisfaction plays a significant role in marketing tourism products and services. The examination of destination attributes may have different weights for different market segments. Findings of this study suggest that destination managers at nature-based resorts should monitor visitors' satisfaction in regards to the quality of service and lodging facilities in addition to the natural resources in order to maintain a sustained and expanding business. Recreation managers need to pay more attention on the property components of the destination as well as services, plus attractive recreation activities. Therefore it is important to evaluate attribute importance to make informed decisions for management and potential investment in maintenance, renovations, and/or incorporation of additional facilities and types of services and amenities offered to retain and attract a desired new market segment with potential to generate more revenue. This indicates the relative importance of satisfaction factors and will help destination marketers in developing appropriate marketing strategies. Tourism scholars and industry practitioners should be aware of the important role of visitor satisfaction in generating repeat visits.

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**Table 1.** Factor analysis on destination attribute importance. Factors' Eigenvalue; Explained Variance and Cronbach's alpha are shown in parentheses. Total variance explained 62.25%.

<b>Factor 1: Quality of lodging (6.0785; 19.13%; 0.8531)</b>	<b>Factor loading</b>
Quality of the lodge rooms	0.8440
Quality of the main lodge	0.8144
Types of amenities in rooms or cabins	0.6364
Cleanliness of the facility and park	0.5116
Quality of the cabins	0.3835
<b>Factor 2: Friendliness of personnel (0.9826; 14.65%; 0.8784)</b>	
Friendliness of office personnel	0.8807
Friendliness of reservations personnel	0.7914
Friendliness of housekeeping personnel	0.6246
<b>Factor 3: Natural scenery &amp; activity (1.9057; 14.47%;</b>	
Water-based recreation opportunities	0.8277
Water level in the lake	0.7829
Outdoor activities in general	0.6874
Scenery around Quartz Mountain	0.4571
<b>Factor 4: Quality of food and service (0.4246; 7.48%; 0.8832)</b>	
Friendliness of dining/restaurant personnel	0.6980
Quality of food	0.6590
<b>Factor 5: Location &amp; accessibility (0.5692; 6.53%; 0.4978)</b>	
Facilities are accessible to and usable by individuals in need	0.8071
Convenience of and driving access to location	0.2833

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## **EROTIC CAPITAL ON THE FLAT TRACK: CONTEMPORARY WOMEN'S ROLLER DERBY**

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DIY (do-it-yourself) is becoming increasingly popular. As a result, agencies in Parks and Recreation have much to learn from successful DIY initiatives like roller derby. Roller derby is an immensely popular sport amongst women (Pavlidis, 2012). Revitalized from past iterations, contemporary roller derby is a full contact sport played on a flat track (Beaver, 2012). Created by and for women, the sport is grounded in a DIY ethos. Skater owned and operated, today's roller girls live by the motto "by the skaters, for the skaters". Derby is played fast, hard, and aggressively, making injuries common and earning it the title of the "most violent sport organized and owned by women" (Finley, 2010, p. 369). Uniquely, derby splices athleticism, aggression, and toughness with femininity and overt sexualization (Carlson, 2010). Placing women's bodies at the centre of the sport, sexual appeal and assertiveness are key elements of what constitutes roller derby culture (Pavlidis, 2012). These elements of derby combine for an erotized performance that features a "sexualized bad girl" on skates (Finley, 2010, p. 383). Derby thus creates an alternative sexual subjectivity for women that provides an opportunity to explore erotic capital on the flat track. Erotic capital is the combination of beauty, sex appeal, liveliness, charm, social skills, and sexual competence used for personal gain (Hakim, 2011). Alongside other forms of capital (economic, cultural, and social), erotic capital can be used for personal empowerment and leveraged to advance one's interests. Despite the overt sexuality in derby, scant research has explored how the alternative sexual subjectivities developed affect the game and/or players. Finley (2010) argues, "the contradictions in derby invite questions about how sexuality is used as a power resource, a complicated issue...that is important to the literature on gender" (p. 383). The purpose of this study, therefore, was to investigate women's erotic capital within the context of roller derby. The findings have implications for understanding the underlying intentions that influence DIY initiatives.

### **Theory and Methods**

Roller derby "is *the* third-wave feminist sport" (Kearney, 2011, p. 286). Thus, I adopted the tenets of third wave feminism as the theoretical framework for this study. Although third wave feminism is dynamic and multifaceted, there are several dominant tendencies within its lexicon including: (1) plurality and inclusivity, (2) personal narrative, (3) self-determination, (4) gender equality and sexual freedom and (5) popular culture (Dean, 2009). These tendencies are reflected in the third wave "pro-sex stance that includes an emphasis on women's agency within the domains of sexual life and cultural representation" (Green, 2013, p. 140). Indeed, a hallmark of third wave feminism is the adoption of an unapologetic, overt sexuality. Third wavers use their sexuality as a pathway to liberation by "anchoring women's agency in the erotic domain" (Green, 2013, p. 140). Individually and collectively the tendencies of third wave feminism reflect a deep commitment to addressing the complex relationship between patriarchal social relations, structures, and cultural representations (Kinser, 2004) that was the focus of this study. Consistent with third wave feminism, I conducted 13 in-depth conversational interviews with members of a WFTDA roller derby league from Southwestern Ontario. In addition, over the course of a year, I attended numerous bouts and a few practices to observe the people, activities, and context of roller derby. The data were analyzed using narrative inquiry, which puts the participant in the center of the research process as the 'expert' of their own life story (Riessman, 2008).

## **Findings**

Women's sexuality is key to the popularity and success of roller derby. Through their involvement with the sport, derby girls celebrate their sexual appeal and assertiveness along with other players and fans. Ella stated, "we're out there wearing those outfits and we know people are looking at us. That's our prerogative. We like it and we understand that is part of the draw in roller derby." Many players reported feeling empowered by their sexual appeal and assertiveness in derby. Betty explained, "It's totally self-empowering. 'Cause women all shapes and sizes come in proud of what they got. And they can flaunt it, and their athleticism, on the track. So they can be completely feminine and sexy and completely athletic at the same time." Aware of their erotic capital, derby girls use their sexuality intentionally to attract fans, who are crucial to the long-term success of the sport. Kelsey said, "Fans are very important. 'Cause to put on a game, you need the fans, so you have to kind of cater in little ways." Lily summed up the role of erotic capital in derby best when she said "sex sells. A lot of the girls will play up the sexiness because they know it sells." The general sentiment was women's erotic capital brought fans to the game, but "once they realized the excitement and they've learned the game they keep following it." Recognizing "the bouts are few and far between" the players in this study appreciated that the sexual side of derby was "not just for a male audience. And we're not all heterosexual either, so we're not all dressing to sexually attract men. The sport is very celebratory of women's sexuality in general." The players themselves appreciated the opportunity to feel and develop their sexuality, which makes derby a unique context in women's lives. Jenna explained, "I don't have many places in my life where I can be really sexual... Derby has brought that out of me where I can be sexy and I can be strong at the same time." For some players, the sexual self-confidence developed in derby carried over into other aspects of the lives giving them more self-confidence and improved sexual interactions with their partners. The individual returns of erotic capital in derby had implications for women as a social group. That is, some players felt the portrayal of women's sexuality in derby – strong, athletic, assertive – served to challenge gendered stereotypes of women's sexuality more broadly. Other players were uncomfortable with the overt sexualization of the game. These players perceived the sexualization of derby as contradictory. Emma said, "sometimes it feels a little contradictory when we're out there in our fishnets, and in our skimpy clothes and things that would be seen as eye candy, or really stereotypical of not your most professional person."

## **Discussion and Implications**

This study reveals ways "derby girls" perform their sexuality and use it to advance their collective and individual interests. This analysis introduces erotic capital to the leisure literature and demonstrates the intentionality of women's resistance to, and reproduction of, gendered stereotypes, particularly with respect to sexuality. The research provides additional support for women's leisure as an arena where power is gained, maintained, reinforced, diminished or lost. The findings have implications for Parks and Recreation professionals who aim to offer successful DIY initiatives. In particular, the findings reveal how it is important to understand the complex motivations that underlie DIY initiatives. Programming decisions are often made on surface level benefits (such as the physical health benefits associated with a sport like derby) when an inner intent, like developing one's erotic capital, might serve as the real motivator for participants and a key aspect of what makes a program successful. All told, programmers need to appreciate the intent of participants in DIY.

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## THE APPLICABILITY OF SOCIAL JUSTICE TO RESEARCH AND EVALUATION

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Unquestionably, social justice is an aim of many academics and parks and recreation professionals. As a field, we are committed to the break down, challenge, and change of social structures and ideologies that perpetuate marginalization, discrimination, and marginalization. Consequently, a vast and ever-growing group of scholars and practitioners are embracing a social justice paradigm in their work. The result is a multitude of strategies for adopting a social justice paradigm as scholars and practitioners engage with people from across the world – thinking, feeling, living human beings –who encounter constraint, discrimination, marginalization, oppression and violence in their everyday lives and creatively reposition themselves. Such changes in society will simultaneously bring about parallel changes in our research and professional practices. The purpose of this abstract is to outline three strategies we think are critical to the future of a social justice paradigm for researchers, evaluators and practitioners: deep interinterdisciplinarity, evocative research and reports, and communities of critical participants.

### **Deep Interdisciplinarity**

It is increasingly apparent that to get at the complicated, messy affairs that create and are created by social inequities, research and professional practice also need to be complex affairs. Deep interdisciplinarity facilitates complex interactions with others (either in research or programs) by creating new levels of awareness among individuals. It seeks to facilitate interactions where there is the opportunity to modify the views “each person brings to the table; everyone leaves the table informed by the dialogue in a way that idiosyncratically influences the research methods [or the professional practices] they subsequently employ” (Kincheloe, McLaren & Steinberg, 2011, p.170). The point of interaction is not standardized agreement, but awareness of the diverse opinions and approaches among the groups that will inform the path forward. The goal in deep interdisciplinarity is to gain a more rich and nuanced appreciation for the pain of the oppressed, but also the strategies that could be used by marginalized groups so that we might learn from one another, develop new models of research and practice, and work together to advance a more *just* society for *all* groups. The desired outcome of deep interdisciplinarity is recognizing the conditions operating in society that continue to exploit and dehumanize people, disrupt hegemonic systemic inequalities, and generate meaningful change.

### **Evocative Research and Reports**

Social justice researchers and evaluators want to bring experiences to life and avoid representational strategies where the voices of participants are “buried beneath layers of analysis” (Denison, 1996, p. 352) or co-opted for the sole purposes of knowledge generation or program sustainability. Instead, social justice researchers, evaluators, and practitioners want to represent research and reports in a manner that honors people. Evocative research and evaluation reports are those that “move from the personal to the political, from the local to the historical and the cultural. These are dialogic texts and presume an active audience, which create spaces for give-and-take between reader and writer” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 5). Creative analytic practice (CAP) is one effective way to represent research findings and professional reports in an engaging and accessible manner that are more easily translatable to a wide audience, including those outside of academia (Richardson, 2000). CAP is a process that involves expressing what one has learned through evocative and creative writing techniques including artistic and literary

genres such as stories, poems, plays, vignettes, and other performance pieces (Parry & Johnson, 2007). The turn toward non-traditional and creative forms of representation enables researchers and practitioners to think broadly about the audience of their research/reports and write in a manner that is accessible to a large group of people (Parry & Johnson, 2007). CAP resists esoteric language or a specialized lexicon that serves as barriers for non-experts to understand. Reid (2004) explained, esotericism keeps the knowledge out of the hands of participants, activists and practitioners. In its process and representation, CAP facilitates a higher propensity for social justice placing participant stories in the public domain to influence change. Thus, CAP is critical to the future of a social justice research, grassroots activism, and systemic change.

### **Communities of Critical Participants**

Research and evaluation reports that create and enact moral meaning require researchers and practitioners to work *with*, rather than *for*, a community or group (Denzin, 1997). Working for a community or group implies a philosophically distant stance between the researcher/professional and the community group (Lincoln, Lynham & Guba, 2011). Working *with* a community or group dictates that the researcher/professional has a deep kinship (political and emotional) with participants based upon membership or social ties (Angrosino & Rosenberg, 2011). Within a social justice approach, participants are neighbors, lovers, friends, family members and/or allies in the goals of emancipation. Such transparency in relationships creates a community of critical informants (Dupuis, 1999) where knowledge can be built from the lived experiences of people. Understanding the lived experience of people is essential because social justice researchers and professionals frequently become spokespersons or advocates for causes and issues and can help people articulate enduring and emergent problems and bring together key stakeholders for community discussions/actions (Angrosino & Rosenberg, 2011). Social justice approaches reflect an emancipatory vision that involves the researcher and professional who is part of and working with the community to create a different world (Charmaz, 2011) for that community.

### **Implications and Conclusions**

For agencies and scholars aimed at advancing social justice, the approaches outlined are relevant to program evaluation, program implementation, and larger research endeavours. In particular, these approaches give additional strategies for those interested in empowerment evaluation, which is an approach designed to help communities set, achieve and then monitor their own performance. For example, Fetterman (2001) explained empowerment evaluation provides program stakeholders with the tools to assess the plan, implementation, and self-evaluation of their program through a democratic process. Indeed, one of the principles of empowerment evaluation is social justice. Outlined here are three approaches we think will shape the future of a social justice paradigm for researchers, evaluators and practitioners. For those starting out on the journey of becoming a social justice advocate, it is important to remember the process includes the discovery of a new set of lenses and approaches while maintaining a critical perspective rooted in anti-oppressive praxis (Lorenzetti, 2013). We hope the approaches covered here inspire researchers and practitioners to take on the “thorny issues” (Rossman & Rallis, 2010, p. 381) of society to transform the world by championing dignity for all people, reducing suffering and promoting well-being (Plummer, 2011). Such research and professional practice advance are what Denzin and Lincoln (2011) have called a “civic social [practice].... committed up front to issues of social justice, equity, nonviolence, equity, nonviolence, peace, and universal human rights” (p. 613).

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## **HEALTHY EATING AND LEISURE AMONG MEXICAN IMMIGRANTS IN THE U.S.**

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The relationship between food and leisure is a considerably under-explored topic of research (Mair et al., 2008). Food is not only necessary for human subsistence, but is the center of numerous leisure activities. How people grow, purchase, prepare, consume and value food is influenced by their beliefs, which can change with immigration and time. Food preparation and consumption are cultural leisure activities abundant with social meaning (Harris, 2005). In recent decades, the U.S. population has undergone an evolution to the consumption of more calorically dense foods and diets (Astrup et al., 2008; Popkin, 2006). Food preparation and consumption have transformed from basic necessary activities to flexible, sporadic, and unstructured activities. Changes in diet, along with food acculturation that leads to unhealthier eating habits among immigrants (Ayala et al., 2008; Gray et al., 2005), have contributed to high obesity rates and increasing prevalence of chronic diseases among the growing population of Latino Americans (National Center for Health Statistics, 2013). A prime goal of public health professionals has thus been to promote the preservation of healthy traditional dietary patterns and simultaneous incorporation of healthy eating practices in the U.S. among the Latino population. This study has focused on 1st-generation Mexican immigrants residing in Midwestern U.S. Its objectives were to: 1) examine changes in food practices and diets related to immigration that affect the ability to eat healthy; 2) examine the importance of healthy diet to Mexican immigrants; 3) explore their level of understanding of healthy and unhealthy foods; 4) explore their self-efficacy for dietary change; and 5) uncover strategies immigrants use to maintain healthy diet.

### **Methods**

Semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted in two Midwestern cities with 20 Mexican immigrants who had emigrated to the U.S. as adults. Key informants in the community and snowball sampling were used to identify the study participants. The interviewees comprised of 16 women and 4 men between 25-71 years of age. They represented a variety of occupations including restaurant workers, stay-at-home mothers, day care workers, teachers, sales associates, and factory workers. All were responsible for decisions related to food and diet in their home prior to emigration. The interviews (5 in English, 15 in Spanish) lasted 45-75 minutes and followed a semi-structured format in which the main questions remained the same, but additional probes were used to elucidate more detailed responses. The questions focused on issues of food environment, psychosocial factors and taste preferences, food purchasing behaviors, food preparation methods and food consumption patterns in Mexico and the U.S. The analysis of the collected data was performed by constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

### **Results**

*Changes in food practices and dietary patterns related to immigration:* Interviewees reported eating more processed foods, fast foods, and take-out foods due to lifestyle changes in the U.S., time constraints, and lesser availability of fresh produce in the U.S. compared to Mexico. Others tried to prepare meals cooked in Mexico, but were compelled to alter recipes based on the availability of specific ingredients. Despite time constraints, most participants made conscious attempts to eat meals at home with their family members. Close family interactions during meal times were the norm. Weakly dining out at restaurants was common, with Mexican restaurants offering traditional cuisine being the preferred choice. As Grace commented, “Every week, after

church on Sunday we go as a family to eat. The majority of the times it's a Mexican restaurant. Sometimes we eat at the mall so we can have more variety of food for my kids.”

*The importance of healthy diet and the understanding of healthy and unhealthy foods:* All of the immigrants believed that eating healthy was very important and demonstrated a good understanding of which foods are healthy and unhealthy. Fruits, vegetables, and grains were considered healthy and fast foods, fried foods, and processed foods were considered unhealthy. As Rodrigo said, “I try to avoid eating pork, it's harmful. It's not as natural as in Mexico.”

*Self-efficacy related to dietary change:* The majority of interviewees believed eating healthy was a relatively easy task, whereas others mentioned constraints such as lack of time or knowledge of healthy Mexican food choices, preventing them from positive dietary changes.

*Strategies immigrants use to maintain healthy diet:* Most interviewees indicated that they tried to avoid fast food, processed food, or red meat, but did not necessarily consume healthy meals regularly. Also, the realization of increasing weight and negative health consequences obliged many of them to revert to their traditional Mexican diet after a few years in the U.S. As Andres described, “I got here [to the U.S.] skinny and then I gained a lot of weight. That is why I decided not to eat the American food. The problem is that the new arrivals to the U.S. start eating pizza and hamburgers. I would suggest to them to keep cooking like they did in Mexico.”

## **Discussion**

Our study is consistent with past research that found that immigrants may prepare foods of their culture in both traditional and new ways, exclude other foods of their culture that may be unavailable in the host country's environment, and consume new foods they became familiar with after arrival to their new country (Ayala et al., 2008; Gilbert & Khokhar, 2008; Kim et al., 2007). We attempted to capture the complex process of change in food practices and dietary patterns related to immigration. Furthermore, our study offers insights into factors that may facilitate or hinder changes in healthy food practices and dietary patterns, such as the changes in attitudes and norms about diet, lifestyle modifications that affect meal schedules, nutritional quality of foods eaten in the host country, and dietary customs either preserved from Mexico or acquired in the U.S. It also provides important insights into the literature on leisure behaviors among immigrant populations and, in particular, on leisure of immigrants, by examining their dietary patterns and activities related to food preparation and consumption (cooking as leisure, eating out, social interactions during meals) absent in previous literature (Stodolska et al., 2014).

## **Implications for Practice**

As mounting evidence suggests that risks for obesity and diet-related chronic diseases are particularly prevalent among ethnic minorities, it is important to investigate the eating behaviors, food choices, and food customs of such high-risk populations. Based on the results of our study, we recommend that recreation centers provide cooking classes on preparing healthy traditional meals with locally available ingredients as well as teach Mexican Americans how to make food substitutions and utilize healthier cooking techniques. Such classes should be taught by culturally sensitive dietitians and public health practitioners whom Mexican Americans would trust and seek help from. Public health practitioners should also offer information on how to cook low-cost healthy meals that can be quickly prepared using traditional ingredients. Recreation programs in areas with high concentrations of Mexican immigrants should offer healthy food choices tailored to Mexican Americans' preferences and tastes.

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# **PREVALENCE OF INADEQUATE HYDRATION LEVELS IN AQUATIC SAFETY PERSONNEL**

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## **Introduction**

It is estimated that trained lifeguards execute approximately 100,000 rescues per year nationwide (Branche & Stewart, 2001) and perform more than 6.5 million preventative actions at beaches alone that assist in helping patrons avoid potential aquatic injuries (USLA, 2013). If lifeguards are thus considered to be among a class of safety and accident prevention personnel, it would make sense that physical and mental condition would be key to performing required actions efficiently.

This investigation was performed as a pilot study to discern if trained lifeguards were performing their primary duties in a state of dehydration, which could cause them to exhibit negative physiological and psychological reactions making them less effective (Armstrong, 2005). Dehydration occurs when an individual experiences a loss of water and salts necessary to maintain efficient bodily function (Medical Dictionary, 2014). Side effects and symptoms of dehydration can include both physiological and psychological deficiencies including: (a) increased risk of heat illness, (b) fatigue, and (c) cognitive impairment (Wilson & Morley, 2003). Lifeguards, while performing their main duty of patron surveillance, may exhibit these negative reactions if performing in a state of dehydration, making them less effective.

When examining the environments in which lifeguards carry out their duties, both indoor and outdoor aquatic facilities can include high heat, humidity levels, inadequate ventilation (indoor), and direct heat from sun exposure (outdoor). It is clear that these environments could create favorable conditions for water loss in workers.

## **Methods**

Subjects were chosen using convenience volunteer sampling from public, semi-public and private aquatic facilities in southern Indiana. Subjects were individually recruited through promotion of the study by management personnel, posted announcements, email announcements, and researcher presentations. Neither management nor potential subjects were aware of the actual date or time that testing would take place within the study timeframe. The study was sanctioned through the principal investigator's Institutional Review Board.

A urine specific gravity test strip was administered by researchers on-site to determine the study participants' hydration level while performing their primary duties (Shih-Bin Sun, 2006). Samples were tested immediately upon receipt from subjects, with dual confirmation by researchers on interpretation of results from the urine reagent test strip. The urine reagent test strips had the capability of measuring a seven point specific gravity reading between 1.000 and 1.030, with 1.015 recognized as the "point of neutrality" over which subject were considered in a state of dehydration for this study. Although the test strip utilized was capable of measuring other bio-medical markers, subjects were assured that only the urine specific gravity reading was measured and recorded. Each subject was also asked to complete a brief demographic questionnaire to indicate years of lifeguarding experience, certification agency, age, and sex.

## **Results**

55 subjects participated in the study across 7 sites. Overall, 52.7% of tested subjects were identified as experiencing some level of dehydration while on duty, utilizing standard urine specific gravity readings (Armstrong, 2005). The study sample demographics consisted of 28

females and 27 males, 32 subjects reported having four years of less experience lifeguarding, 44 subjects from outdoor facilities, and a split of 14 subjects from public facilities, 18 from semi-public facilities, and 23 from private facilities. Subsequent ANOVA analysis provided no significant statistical differences were found based upon gender, age, years of experience, certification type, facility type, or facility classification.

### **Discussion**

The study did indicate that dehydration of staff is a potentially important issue in aquatic facility management, with just over 50% of lifeguards in the sample indicating some level of dehydration. Research indicates that improper level of hydration can impact one's ability to function cognitively and physically (Wilson & Morley, 2003). Lifeguards, in their role as aquatic safety and emergency managers, must be able to react to potentially physically challenging and mentally taxing situations quickly and efficiently. This study indicates that those interested in, and charged with, the safety of aquatic facilities and improving lifeguard performance would be well served by increasing attention and education given to ensuring adequate levels of staff hydration. An issue also arises related to management's responsibility to protect their employees overall health.

### **Implications for practice**

This area of study could produce key management policies aimed at decreasing the incidents of staff dehydration thus mitigating possible consequences. Potential areas include: shift/rotation length, employee awareness and education, and hydration policies. Future studies are recommended using a larger and more diverse sample, a more precise measure of dehydration levels, a greater stratification from lifeguard certification agencies, as well as an investigation into certain behavioral factors which may impact hydration levels.

Further information is necessary to better describe possible issues around dehydration and aquatic safety personnel as a whole. Future studies should build upon this research to utilize a larger sample and wider range of aquatic facilities to better determine the scope of this potential hazard. Future studies may also examine hypotheses surrounding behavioral factors that may impact hydration levels of staff prior to, during and after their scheduled shifts. A more complete understanding of this issue can assist facility and safety managers in controlling for impairment among this class of personnel.

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## **RE-EXAMINING ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN RECREATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES AND COMMUNITY QUALITY OF LIFE**

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### **Introduction**

In the last two decades, the concept of quality of life has been drawing more attention in leisure research, and being used as an overarching mediator to connect leisure, health and well-being (Sallis et al., 2006). This is not only at an individual level, but leisure and recreation also have been trying to impact health promotion and disease prevention at a community level in the last decade. The trend has focused the provision of recreational opportunities and facilities within communities to accomplish health goals in both urban and rural areas (Payne & Orsega-Smith, 2010). However, there is limited literature that provides the direct evidence of the perception of a community's quality of life via recreational opportunities. In the current study, community trails were used as the avenue for recreational opportunity to investigate the multiple facets of a community's quality of life. Although current literature provides insights into multiple aspects of trail use, the examination of recreational opportunities contributes to a community's quality of life as a whole is still deficient.

### **Methods**

This study was aimed to target trail users of the "People Trail" located in City of Columbus, Indiana. Mobile interviewers were stationed at specified trail access points to intercept trail users for participation in the study. Data were collected using electronic devices (Mini iPads) along with the software application - iSURVEY. Data collection occurred between May and July of 2013.

The instrument included 32 questions related to use patterns and satisfaction, and 15 regarding Community Quality of Life (CQL). CQL items were designed to acquire information about respondents' perceptions regarding contribution of the trail to their sense of community adapted from Shafer, Lee and Turner (2000). Items included the contribution of open space, decrease the pollution, new business development, transportation alternative, increase access to shopping areas, social interaction, health, fitness, safe route to school, residents' pride, business diversity, recreational opportunities, preserving wildlife habitat, economic growth, and positive community identity.

### **Results**

There were a total of 329 respondents in the trail survey (N=329). The scale for CQL was based on the contribution of this specific community trail (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree), and all items scored ranged from 3.41 to 4.56. Furthermore, the following report shows items associated with CQL contribute to open space (M= 4.33, SD=.71), a decrease the pollution (M= 3.88, SD= .92), to new business development (M=3.73, SD= .91), transportation alternatives (M= 4.07, SD= .86), increase access to shopping areas (M=3.41, SD= .95), social interaction among residents (M=4.20, SD= .79), health (M=4.5, SD= .67), fitness (M=4.56, SD=.65), safe route to school (M=3.75, SD .95), a residents' pride (M=4.29, SD= .69), business diversity (M=3.70, SD= .86), recreational opportunities (M=4.40, SD= .72), preserving wildlife habitat (M=4.03, SD= .84), economic growth (M=3.87, SD= .83), and positive community identity (M=4.4, SD= .72).

Among all items in CQL survey, a principal factor analysis was conducted to identify the underlying dimensions of the CQL perceived by the trail users. Results generate two factors among fourteen CQL items. The eigenvalues suggested the two-factor solution explained 53.4 percent of the overall variance. Two major factors are recognized as micro and macro domain. Micro domain includes items regarding individual social, physical, and psychological benefits (e.g. contribute to personal health, fitness, social interaction, community pride). On the other hand, macro domain encompasses items involved larger scales of community life, such as economic and better surroundings.

### **Discussion and Implications**

This research project has conceptual and empirical contributions in leisure and recreation research. Conceptually, the current project extended our understanding of physical and social benefits of local trails as an asset of recreational opportunities in the community. Furthermore, results show the existence that trails could have psychological benefits for residents as the source of internal pride within the community. Beyond the individual level, economic growth and environmental conversation were also recognized by the participants. Results indicated that two distinct domains were generated from the CQL items with trails users including micro and macro level of community's quality of life. The contribution of community's quality of life mostly comes through the interaction between individual and the environment. This finding is in line with current literature regarding ecological perspectives on creating an active living community (Sallis et al, 2006). Thus, recreational opportunities within the community contribute the quality of life as an entity and create a healthier living environment.

Empirically, specific issues regarding maintenance and infrastructure were noted as considerations to enhance a trail's ability to facilitate strengthened social interaction. In addition, users who value the trail as a safe route to school tended to visit the trail on a more regular basis. Those same people then may have the potential to use it more for active transportation. Further in-depth investigation will be needed for future study.

With results indicating that trails contribute positively to aspects of CQL, municipal park departments should capitalize on marketing and promotion opportunities to encourage increased use. Overall, the concept of CQL is reflecting the broader picture of recreational opportunities within the community because any factor that draws participants to engage actively ultimately encourages physical activity and healthy life styles.

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# **CULTURALLY-APPROPRIATE RECREATION PROGRAMS AMONG INDIGENOUS YOUTH: EVIDENCE TOWARDS HEALTH RESILIENCY**

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## **Introduction**

The health status of indigenous peoples is significantly lower than that of the remaining population. Among the former, indigenous youth are at considerably higher risk for health concerns such as tobacco, alcohol, and drug consumption, risky sexual intercourse, physical inactivity, depression, and suicide (Elton-Marshall, Leatherdale, & Burkhalter, 2011; Shields, Wong, Mann, Jolly, Haase, et al., 2004; Smith, Findlay, & Crompton, 2010). Most studies on cultural determinants of health among indigenous youth have used traditional approaches which, while providing rich insights into the health plight of indigenous youth, are insufficient to provide substantive and generalizable evidence that will allow for effective health policy formulation, intervention, and ultimately mitigation of indigenous youth health inequalities. To complicate matters further, indigenous health research poses unique methodological challenges. Given the cultural specificities of indigenous peoples, and the traumatic effects of the colonizing practices, indigenous peoples are understandably reticent to engage in health research that employs conventional epidemiological models (Kirmeyer, Simpson, & Cargo, 2003). There is, thus, dire need for culturally-relevant, indigenous youth health research that incorporates indigenous knowledge so that future health interventions are successful.

One of the ways such research can be accomplished is through the delivery of health-based recreational programs, where the ultimate goal is to educate and motivate positive health behaviors via the provision and inculcation of recreational practices (Shediac-Rizkallah & Bone, 1998). A vast literature exists which shows that recreational settings are ideal vehicles through which to encourage positive health behaviors and address public health issues among youth (Bedimo-Rung, Mowen, & Cohen, 2005; Caldwell, 2000; Spangler & Caldwell, 2007). While literature on the effectiveness of such programs is scarcer (Cunningham & Beneforti, 2005; Lavalley, 2007), there is solid evidence that health-based recreational programs are effective among disenfranchised and minority youth (Caldwell & Smith, 1995; Green, Kleiber, & Tarrant, 2000).

However, the delivery of relevant, culturally-sensitive recreational programs to indigenous youth populations presents unique challenges for practitioners, both indigenous and non-indigenous. Often lacking adequate material and human resources, many recreational opportunities delivered to indigenous peoples are simply a replication of programs delivered elsewhere, without regard given to the cultural specificities of the indigenous cultures where they are to be implemented (Perez-Verdin, Lee, & Chavez, 2004). To add insult to injury, many recreational activities take place in land ancestrally belonging to indigenous peoples that colonialist practices have displaced (Butler & Hinch, 2007; Colchester, 2004). Little wonder, then, that most recreational programs targeting indigenous peoples, when delivered without input and/or supervision from the local communities, are poised for failure (Nelson, Abbott, & Macdonald, 2010).

## **Purpose and Methods**

This paper discusses the outcomes and implications of an ongoing (2012-present) recreational and educational program conducted with the youth (n=140) of eleven indigenous communities in Southern Canada. The goal of this study was to investigate the impacts of a recreation program delivered to indigenous youth that was designed and delivered with the help

of the youth themselves, with the supervision of trained youth and medical personnel and local Elders. The program consisted in the delivery of daylong bi-monthly, arts-based, interactive workshops that focused on several health topics chosen by the youth. The main goal of the study was to elicit indigenous knowledge concerning cultural health beliefs and practices and contrast it with behavioral accounts of indigenous youth's health outcomes. Specific objectives were to allow the youth to define their culture(s) in their own terms (i.e., their cultural beliefs), their knowledge of the same (i.e., cultural competence), as well as measure its impact on their health behaviors, both prescriptive and proscriptive. We hypothesized that a) the youth's level of cultural knowledge had a significant impact on the youth's health behaviors and b) that higher levels of cultural competence would predict lower incidences of negative health behaviors.

This study was conducted in three separate stages, using multi-modal methods of data collection and analysis (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). In an initial stage, ethnographic fieldwork and interviews with key informants by youth workers elicited a list of over 100 items that were of concern to the youth living in the eleven communities under study. Of those, twenty health-related items were selected by the researchers. Subsequent interviews with the youth added four more items to the list (Abuse, Food Safety, Gangs, and Suicide). In a second stage, use of critical incident technique (Butterfield, Borgen, Amundson, & Maglio, 2005) and pile sorting allowed the researchers to emically solicit the communal ranking of these items according to their importance in the youth's lives. In a third stage, the youth were asked to respond individually to cultural behavior questionnaires, evaluating each of the twenty-four items using a six-point Likert scale constructed after the cultural consensus and consonance models described in Dressler & Bindon (2000) and Weller (2007). Data were analyzed following procedures detailed in Weller (2007) and Dressler (2012).

### **Results, Discussion, & Directions for Future Research**

The findings of this study point towards the increasing necessity and validity of adopting emic, culturally-appropriate approaches to the delivery of recreation programs to indigenous peoples, on one hand; and the impact of such programs on health resiliency, which validates and extends the work that previous scholars have done linking cultural knowledge with health resiliency (e.g., Bals, Turi, Skre, & Kvernmo, 2011; Wexler, DiFluvio, & Burke, 2009). Indeed, results indicate a strong association between individual levels of cultural knowledge, and self-reported health behaviors (both prescriptive and proscriptive). Moreover, we found that youth who exhibited greater degrees of cultural competency self-reported lower instances of negative health behaviors (e.g., Alcohol, Drugs, Unprotected Sex), and higher instances of positive health behaviors (e.g., Gun Safety, Healthy Food Consumption). Lastly, the youth consistently ranked recreational and cultural opportunities for spending their leisure time as important over the course of several years, and recognized the value of the workshops wherein the research was conducted as valuable; the youth's continuous support of the research objectives and the researchers themselves led to Elder and community buy-in. For practitioners, these findings should spur renewed interest in working more closely with the communities they serve, and adopt an emic, culturally-sensitive approach to the planning, design, and implementation of programs aimed at indigenous youth. These findings also add to the growing literature devoted to cross-cultural understanding of youth behavior within the context of the parks and recreation profession (e.g., Stodolska, Shinew, & Floyd, 2013; Stodolska & Walker, 2007; Walker, 2009).

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## **PROMOTING NON-COGNITIVE FACTORS THROUGH SCHOOL/RECREATION PROGRAM PARTNERSHIPS**

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Research from the last few years underscores the importance of the intrapersonal and interpersonal factors that support achievement in the classroom and beyond (Dweck, Walton, & Cohen, 2011; Farrington et al., 2012; Yeager & Walton, 2011). This set of beliefs, mindsets, and behaviors (e.g., perseverance, tenacity, grit, social skills, self-regulation) are often referred to as *non-cognitive factors*, as they are not measured directly by traditional academic assessments (Shechtman, DeBarger, Dornsife, Rosier, & Yarnall, 2013). There is a growing body of evidence that programs that promote non-cognitive factors may help students overcome challenges in school and other contexts (Shechtman et al., 2013). Participation in these programs has been linked to improved academic motivation, increased confidence and self-efficacy, a sense of belonging, and improved academic performance (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011; Farb & Matjasko, 2012). The majority of the research on non-cognitive factors has focused on classroom-based interventions, extra-curricular activities, and out-of-school-time (OST) programs (Farrington et al., 2012). Despite the merits of this research, programmers and educators know very little about how schools can and should effectively design and use recreation programs as venues for fostering non-cognitive factors.

Outdoor recreation programs seem well-positioned to promote this contemporary collection of non-cognitive factors, particularly those related to self-systems and interpersonal competencies (Hattie, Marsh, Neill, & Richards, 1997; Sibthorp, Furman, Paisley, & Gookin, 2008). Yet there is need for more research on the lasting impact of outdoor recreation program participation on intact groups of students (Sibthorp & Jostad, 2014). Therefore, the primary aim of this study was to better understand the form, function, and delivery of an effective outdoor recreation program/school partnership targeting factors that support student success. Specifically, we wanted to investigate how shared outdoor recreation experiences among adolescent girls attending the same school may contribute to student development and school culture and examine how a common transfer environment influences long-term outcomes.

### **Methods**

This study included interviews with 31 students and eight faculty from an all-girls private school in Los Angeles. Students had participated in a multi-night backpacking experience designed and run by the National Outdoor Leadership School (NOLS) within the previous year. The composition of the participants roughly matched the school-wide makeup, with approximately 37.5% of the interviewees representing minority populations (compared to 39% school-wide) and 25% receiving financial assistance (24% school-wide). Faculty participants had served as chaperones or were closely involved in the program's design. This school sends nearly all of their 7<sup>th</sup>, 9<sup>th</sup>, and 11<sup>th</sup> grade students on five night backpacking courses with the objectives of fostering a sense of school community and developing leadership skills.

Using a grounded theory approach, data were collected via semi-structured interviews using open-ended questions designed to gain a deeper understanding of the outdoor recreation experiences and outcomes, with follow up questions used to clarify responses and elicit additional thought. Upon completion of the interviews, the PI transcribed the data which then

went through three stages of analysis including open, focused, and axial coding techniques that helped identify themes and connections within the data (Miles et al., 2014; Saldana, 2013).

## **Results**

Students and faculty members described a complex process where the challenges and peak experiences of the outdoor recreation experience led to individual and group outcomes. What emerged through the process of data analysis was that these experiences have profound impacts on three broad thematic areas: social connectedness, student sense of self (i.e., identity and related self-systems), and the development of important leadership and communication competencies. Key mechanisms for program outcomes included personal and shared challenges, being away from technology and other distractions, a novel environment, opportunities for interpersonal connection, practicing leadership and communication in a dynamic context, mentoring and coaching, and peak experiences. In addition, the common transfer environment contributed to a common school identity, provided opportunities to reinforce lessons from the experience, and allowed for continuing new and transformed relationships among peers and between students and faculty. Findings provided a foundation for a theoretical concept model for promoting non-cognitive factors through school/recreation program partnerships (Figure 1). While this model is illustrative of the findings, generalizability is limited by both the study design and the distinct nature of both NOLS and this specific private school.

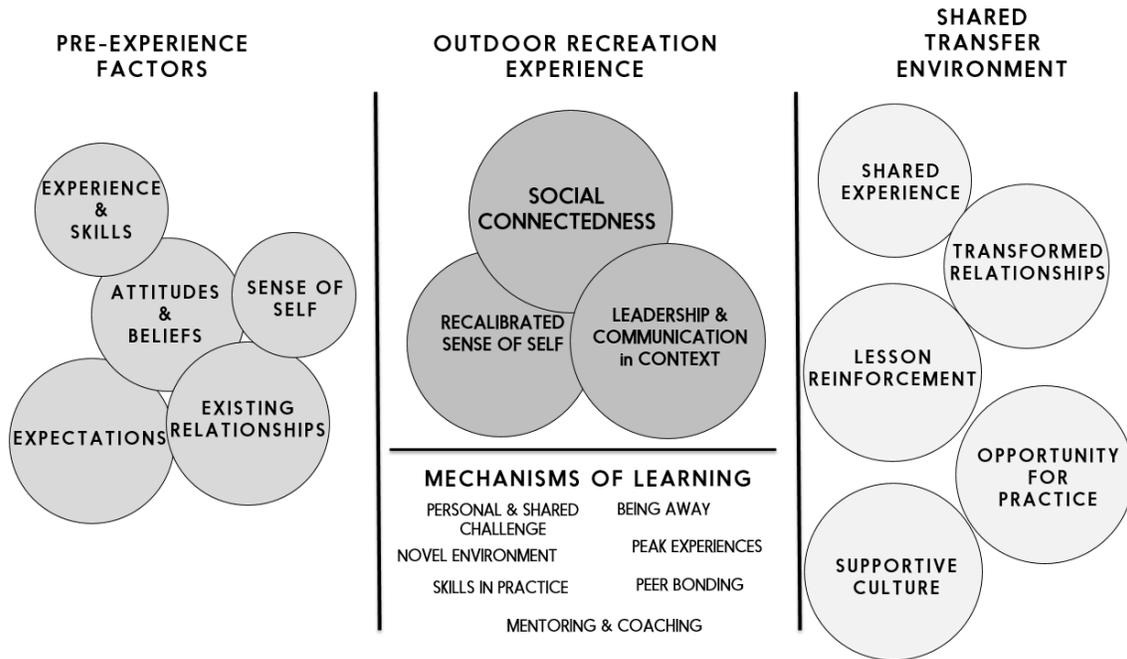
## **Implications for Practice**

This study revealed that the outdoor recreation program participants acquired valuable skills, made lasting social connections with peers and faculty, and reflected upon and reevaluated personal values, beliefs, attitudes and overall self-concept. This type of partnership between a school and a recreation program provider allows for the development and cultivation of critical non-cognitive factors. Though ambitious and resource intensive, this approach may serve as a model that supports the educational needs of adolescent girls as they pass through important transitions in their educational pathways. Indeed many of the reported outcomes align with key non-cognitive factors identified in educational literature (see Farrington et al., 2012).

Recreation programs looking to foster non-cognitive factors might intentionally incorporate specific elements and opportunities. Several elements warrant consideration: a) personal and shared challenges, b) opportunities to unplug from day-to-day life, c) a sense of novelty, d) opportunities for social connections, e) opportunities to practice essential non-cognitive skills such as self-discipline, f) mentoring via both staff and other participants, and g) an enjoyable and challenging environment. These elements are common in outdoor and adventure program models (cf. McKenzie, 2003; Walsh & Golins, 1976). However, when outdoor recreation programs work with school partners, programs can increase their impact as a shared school environment provides additional consistency and reinforcement. Schools also possess awareness of predictable transitions in adolescents' educational trajectories that many stand-alone recreation programs lack. In addition, in many recreation programs the social group dissipates at program conclusion. This dissolution of the social group and lack of continuity inevitably erodes some of the value as the social structures and application contexts change. For recreation programmers, effective partnerships with schools provide an intriguing route leading to lasting impacts that address specific educational needs.

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**Figure 1** Promoting non-cognitive factors through school/recreation program partnerships



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## **INTERSECTING MEN'S FRIENDSHIPS AND SOCIAL JUSTICE**

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Pervasive expectations about masculinities that permeate experiences so thoroughly as to appear natural are often collectively theorized as hegemonic masculinity (Connell, 2005). A central tenant of hegemonic masculinity is that certain enactments of masculinities are more or less rewarded in given contexts and that through lived experiences men learn to recognize to what degree they are able and willing to meet perceived expectations. Social practices privilege some bodies based on their enactments of masculinities more than others and hierarchically position men in relation to other men and women (Connell, 2005). This social positioning often occurs at the intersections between understandings of gender, friendship and leisure activities. Empirical studies have demonstrated that leisure activities and friendships impact men's identity formation, as well as mental and physical health. While women's leisure and interpersonal relationships have been examined as negotiation sites for gendered expectations, there have been few recent empirical studies exploring how men's friendships may play a role in negotiating them.

Physical bodies, social connections and ways of thinking are developed and changed through leisure activities and friendships. Friendships cannot form if interactions do not occur. Who gets to play, what they get to play, who they get to play with, and where they get to play are important questions given the salience of leisure activities and friendship in the physical, mental and emotional development and life-long health of men (Addis, 2011; Caldwell & Tibbits, 2010; Kleiber, 1999; Pollack, 1998). Questioning the institutional and social practices of power that mediate leisure activities and friendships sheds light on their importance in meaning-making, as well as personal and social development. Rather than positioning them as freely chosen individual patterns of behavior, the purpose of this study was to contribute to a more socially just world by critically describing and explaining patterns of understanding and behaviors that exist at the intersections of men's understandings about masculinities, leisure activities, and friendship practices.

### **Methods**

Over the course of a year, I systematically observed six White, college-educated men between the ages of 21-35 as they engaged with their friends in public leisure activities. I took field notes and then conducted follow up interviews with the informants to explore and interrogate ways men experience and negotiate social expectations related to masculinities, leisure activities and friendship practices. I used participant observations to situate the men within their friend groups and to observe common behaviors engaged in by the men and their friends in public leisure activities. I used structured and semi-structured interviews to learn what meanings the informants attached to behaviors I observed. On average, I observed and interviewed each informant twice a month. Data collection and constant comparative analysis was done through the use of NVivo. I purposively recruited and selected men based on their categorical belonging to groups previous empirical research has demonstrated as uniquely situated by hegemonic masculinity. All informants were selected based on their embodiments of different gender expressions, sexual orientations and levels of physical ability. Among the informants were men who identified as masculine, feminine, heterosexual, gay, queer, able-bodied, and disabled.

### **Results**

Clear patterns of understandings and behaviors emerged that intersected all of the informants' lived experiences. Lifelong sex and gender-based segregation in leisure activities moderated the formation and maintenance of their friendships. Leisure activities were spaces where shared knowledge was created that increased the informants' perceived levels of certainty in interactions that allowed them to negotiate masculinity expectations through a wider range of inclusive behaviors. Perceived uncertainties about themselves, others, and the importance of a given relationship were the most often identified reasons that the informants and their friends chose to not interact with others. Perceptions of possible sexual attraction influenced the informants' interactions with women, but not with other men. Perceptions about shared interests and ability-levels were the most salient mediators of the informant's willingness to interact with women and other men. This often contributed to marginalization of those perceived as embodying different sexes, gender expressions and levels of ability, but not always sexual orientations. Adaptive sport and emancipatory research emerged as spaces where interactions could be facilitated in ways that challenged hegemonic masculinity expectations and contributed to more inclusive embodiments of masculinities.

### **Discussion**

The informants' understandings of masculinities, abilities and sexual orientations were based on perceptions that changed contextually as they learned more about the people with whom they were engaging. Some identities were assumed more often than questioned. For example, men in this study rarely asked others about their sexual orientations and/or ability levels. Instead these were often assumed based on perceptions of gender expression and/or involvement in leisure activities. This suggests that scholars should be mindful that different identities may be more or less salient in specific contexts. No one identity was consistently the most salient for the informants in this study; instead, the level of perceived certainty the informants had about given contexts shaped the degree to which they engaged in a variety of behaviors. These perceptions mediated with whom and how they interacted in specific contexts. Most often the men in this study chose to engage with others they perceived as sharing abilities and interests. A desire to avoid uncertainty contributed to some of the men in this study interacting less with women and men perceived as different. Leisure activities served as important spaces for not only reifying, but also challenging, hegemonic understandings of masculinity. They were also important spaces for the formation and maintenance of the informants' friendships across perceived similarities and differences. In these ways, men's friendships intersected with social justice.

### **Implications for Practice**

At a practitioner level, leisure spaces were both positive and negative sites for personal, mental and social development in the lives of the informants. Rather than viewing all leisure activities as egalitarian and positive, they should be recognized as potentially negative spaces where involvement can reify normative ideologies and practices of marginalization. Adaptive sport may provide more just opportunities for individuals to negotiate sex, gender and ability in ways less dependent on the privileging of certain bodies more than others. Adaptive sport may offer opportunities for challenging hegemonic expectations and understandings of masculinities that contribute to marginalization.

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## **LEISURE ACTIVITIES, OPTIMISM, AND PERSONAL GROWTH OF OLDER ADULTS**

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The benefits of active participation in leisure activities have received growing attention as more studies conclude that such involvement in activities increases the well-being of older adults. For example, Chang, Wray, and Lin's study (2014) using a national sample of older adults in the U.S. suggested that an increase in the frequency of participation in leisure activities is associated with decreased level of depression. Optimism, the innate tendency to expect positive outcomes in various life domains, has been identified as one of the important indicators for predicting well-being (e.g., Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994). Research has shown that optimistic older adults are more likely to experience lower levels of depression and higher levels of life satisfaction, happiness, physical health, and mental health (Olson, Fanning, Awick, Chung, & McAuley, 2014). Furthermore, Ryff (1989) developed a theoretical framework for well-being and suggested that personal growth is one of the core components of positive psychological functioning. Personal growth is the extent to which individuals develop potential by growing and expanding as a person (Keyes, Shmotkin, & Ryff, 2002). Previous studies have documented that personal growth tends to decline with age (e.g., Ryff, Keyes, & Hughes, 2003). The impact of participation across various age groups is yet to be determined considering the divergent findings in regard to the relationship between age differences and well-being in late adulthood. This study examined the contribution of leisure activities to optimism and personal growth. As a secondary aim, we sought to explore age group differences in older adults' optimism and personal growth.

### **Method**

We employed the data from the Alameda County Health and Ways of Living Study. This study design was based on a stratified random sample of non-institutionalized residents of Alameda County, California. The final sample consisted of 1,600 individuals. The participants' ages ranged from 60 to 99 years ( $M = 71.66$ ,  $SD = 8.11$ ). For the present study, the total sample was divided into three age groups; the young-old (60-69), old-old (70-79), and oldest-old (80+). We used the variables of type of leisure activities, optimism, and personal growth. Leisure activities were: working in the garden, going out to plays, movies, or other entertainment, going to sports events, visiting family or friends, and volunteer activities. The optimism items were assessed using six questionnaire items from Scheier, Carver, and Bridges's (1994) study. Personal growth was assessed using three items taken from Ryff's (1989) study.

### **Results**

The MANOVA results revealed significant differences among the age groups on the outcome variables. [Wilks'  $\lambda = .968$ ,  $F(4, 3044) = 12.50$ ,  $p < .001$ , multivariate  $\eta^2 = .016$ ]. Group differences were significant for optimism [ $F(2, 1523) = 18.74$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .024$ ], and personal growth [ $F(2, 1523) = 17.96$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .023$ ]. Tukey post hoc tests showed that the young-old group reported significantly higher levels of optimism and personal growth than other groups whereas oldest-old group had the lowest levels of outcome variables. The ability of the leisure activity variables to predict optimism was the highest for the old-old group. In the young-

old group, demographic variables explained 8.9% of the variance in optimism. The addition of leisure activity variables added an additional 10% of variance in optimism. In this model, physical exercise and visiting family or friends added significantly to the prediction of optimism. In the old-old group, demographic variables explained 8.1% of the variance in optimism. Going out to plays, movies, or other entertainment, physical exercise, visiting family or friends, and volunteer activities emerged as predictors for old-old group ( $R^2 = .203$ ). In the oldest-old group, demographic variables did not contribute any variance to optimism. Only going out to plays, movies, or other entertainment predicted optimism in the oldest-old group ( $R^2 = .082$ ). The old-old group demonstrated the highest predicting ability of the leisure activity variables regarding personal growth. In the young-old age group, the demographic variables entered in step 1 explained 2.7% of personal growth variance. When personal growth was regressed on leisure activity variables, going out to plays, movies, or other entertainment, physical exercise, visiting family or friends, and volunteer activities were significant predictors ( $R^2 = .140$ ). In the old-old age group, age and income were each independently predictive of personal growth ( $R^2 = .041$ ). Those who participated in physical exercise, visited family or friends, and volunteered more frequently had higher levels of personal growth ( $R^2 = .165$ ). For the oldest-old group, the contribution of demographic variables on variance of personal growth was not observed. In step 2, going out to plays, movies, or other entertainment was identified as statistically significant predictor of personal growth ( $R^2 = .082$ ).

### **Discussion**

The findings of this study support the results of the previous studies in that positive aspects of well-being decrease as people age (e.g., Cho, Martin, & Poon, 2013). The young-old group demonstrated the highest scores on both optimism and personal growth, whereas the oldest-old group showed the lowest scores on the outcome measures. Volunteer activity was one of the most significant factors contributing to personal growth. Consistent with Warburton and Stirling (2007), the young-old and old-old groups, who tended to demonstrate higher physical and functional abilities than the oldest-old group, were more likely to volunteer regularly, which significantly contributed to personal growth. The positive impact of doing physical exercise and visiting family and friends on the outcome variables of this study appears to be consistent among the young-old and old-old group. This study showed that spending time with one's own family and close friends is an important contributor to personal growth (Bishop, 2006). Older adults tend to have smaller social networks and experience loneliness as a result of a feeling of social isolation (McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Brashears, 2006). Therefore, social interaction with supportive others becomes a vital recourse for experiencing a sense of acceptance, affirming social value in life, and eventually experiencing personal growth (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 2004). Going out for plays, movies, or other entertainment becomes a more prevalent activity as individuals transition to the oldest-old group. The results of this study are consistent with findings of Nilsson et al. (2006) who reported that the oldest-olds are likely to experience well-being from social activities, cultural activities, and watching TV or movies.

### **Implications for Practice**

Senior service coordinators can organize and provide more appropriate programs or recommendation in consideration of age differences in late adulthood to experience personal growth and optimism. Young-old and old-old groups should be encouraged to engage in volunteer activities in order to experience personal growth and healthy aging.

Table 1

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Optimism*

	Young old (60-69)		Old old (70-79)		Oldest old (80+)	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Age	.015 (.041)	.003 (.039)	-.107* (.044)	-.078 (.042)	.053 (.056)	.101 (.057)
Income	.298*** (.035)	.216*** (.035)	.257*** (.038)	.172*** (.037)	.105 (.066)	.084 (.067)
Going out to plays, movies, or other entertainment		.078 (.210)		.107* (.203)		.212** (.360)
Doing physical exercise		.114** (.177)		.191*** (.175)		-.034 (.328)
Going to sports events		.003 (.193)		.029 (.198)		.061 (.410)
Visiting family or friends		.191*** (.235)		.171*** (.240)		.069 (.420)
volunteer activities		.076 (.167)		.110* (.177)		.025 (.329)
Working in the garden		.053 (.158)		.034 (.158)		.055 (.280)
F	30.700***	17.853***	23.299***	16.588***	1.656	2.484*
R <sup>2</sup>	.088	.185	.081	.203	.014	.082

Note. Standardized regression coefficients reported, standard errors in parentheses

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

Table 2

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Personal Growth*

	Young old (60-69)		Old old (70-79)		Oldest old (80+)	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Age	-.061 (.022)	-.070 (.021)	-.140** (.025)	-.124** (.024)	-.092 (.030)	-.037 (.029)
Income	.147*** (.018)	.056 (.018)	.139** (.021)	.056 (.021)	.008 (.034)	-.040 (.034)
Going out to plays, movies, or other entertainment		.112** (.112)		-.080 (.115)		.199** (.187)
Doing physical exercise		.126** (.094)		.115** (.099)		.083 (.168)
Going to sports events		.036 (.103)		.055 (.112)		.056 (.212)
Visiting family or friends		.145*** (.125)		.160 *** (.135)		.078 (.217)
volunteer activities		.150*** (.089)		.187*** (.100)		.011 (.172)
Working in the garden		.019 (.084)		.058 (.089)		.094 (.144)
F	9.057***	12.975***	11.498***	13.124***	.995	3.505**
R <sup>2</sup>	.027	.140	.041	.165	.008	.110

Note. Standardized regression coefficients reported, standard errors in parentheses

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

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## **TYPES OF LEISURE ACTIVITY AND PSYCHOLOGICAL BENEFITS AMONG KOREAN OLDER ADULTS**

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Studies have revealed that participation in leisure activities plays a key role in people's physical and mental health (Newman, Tay, & Diener, 2014; Rueggeberg, Wrosch, & Miller, 2012). The impact of leisure activities in the daily life of older adults has been documented, and empirical researches have demonstrated that participating in leisure activities have contributed to older adults' overall well-being and health (Chang, Wray, & Lin, 2014; Thompson, Zack, Krahn, Andersen, & Barile, 2012). Kahneman, Krueger, Schkade, Schwarz and Stone (2006) argued that how people spend their free time is associated with subjective satisfaction, rather than how much free time they have. In other words, engaging in meaningful activities is a crucial element in obtaining well-being. The concept of flow explains how and why certain activities become meaningful (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975), and scholars have demonstrated some contextual and personal factors that are conducive to experiencing flow among older adults (e.g., Payne, Jackson, Noh, & Stine-Morrow, 2011). Happiness refers to experiencing joy or positive well-being as well as the sense that life is meaningful (Lyubomirsky, 2007). In recent years, there has been a growing body of literature that examined various environmental predictors (e.g., time spent in outdoors, social interaction) of happiness. Furthermore, scholars have reported on the contributing role of leisure activities to happiness (Newman, Tay, & Diener, 2014). It is generally agreed that participating in leisure activities is instrumental in pursuing a meaningful life (Godbey, 2007). This role becomes salient when individuals intensively concentrate on the activities and feel exhilarated (Pitt, 2014), and participating in diverse leisure activities gives them greater satisfaction (Greenfield & Marks, 2004; Wang & Wong, 2014). While general findings suggest that engaging in leisure activities is likely to promote well-being of older adults (Lampinen, Heikkinen, Kauppinen, & Heikkinen, 2006), most studies have mainly focused on physical activities. Since cultural activities, hobbies and indoor activities, and volunteer activities are also significant factors in promoting well-being among older adults, further investigation is needed to explore the impact of specific leisure activities. The present study addresses gaps in the body of literature and contributes to positive psychology and leisure studies to identify specific types of leisure activities that are associated with enhancing flow and happiness among older adults.

### **Methods**

A convenience sample of 188 participants was recruited from senior centers in Korea. The sample included 67 males (35.6%) and 121 (64.3%) females with ages ranging from 60 to 90 years ( $M = 74.99$ ,  $SD = 5.49$ ). Flow was measured using the Flow Short Scale (Rheinberg, Vollmeyer, & Engeser, 2003) which consists of ten items (7-point Likert-type scale). Cronbach's alpha in this study was .914. To determine happiness, each participant answered the question "Do you feel happy in general?" This question was adapted from Abdel-Khalek's (2006) study (10-point Likert-type scale). Participation in leisure activity was assessed using a modified version of Ragheb's (1980) leisure participation scale. This was computed based on the reported frequency of participation in the following activities: outdoor activity, physical activity, hobbies and indoor activity, cultural activity, home-centered and social activity, and volunteering (4-point Likert-type scale).

### **Results**

The results from Pearson correlation analysis show that there were a number of significant correlations among types of leisure activities, flow, and happiness. Flow was positively related to three leisure activities: physical activity ( $r = .363$ ), cultural activity ( $r = .351$ ), and home-centered and social activity ( $r = .420$ ). Happiness was significantly associated with most leisure activities, excluding outdoor activities, and correlation coefficient ranged from .153 to .367. Separate multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine predictive relationships between leisure activities and outcome variables (i.e., flow and happiness). The results presented home-centered and social activities ( $\beta = .264, p < .001$ ), physical activities ( $\beta = .216, p < .01$ ) and cultural activities ( $\beta = .223, p < .01$ ) were strong predictors of flow. Overall, 27 percent of the variance in flow was explained ( $F = 11.16, p < .001$ ). For happiness, cultural activities ( $\beta = .161, p < .05$ ), home-centered and social activities ( $\beta = .257, p < .01$ ) and volunteer activities ( $\beta = .143, p < .01$ ) were positively associated with happiness, which accounted for 20.6 percent of the variance in predicting happiness ( $F = 7.82, p < .001$ ).

### **Discussion**

This study extended the understanding of the associations between specific types of leisure activities, flow experience, and happiness among older adults. Participants in this study reported higher levels of flow when they participated in physical, cultural, and home-centered and social activities. Ample research has provided evidence in regards to experiencing flow in physical activities including sports, exercise, and dance (Jackson & Eklund, 2002). A closer examination of data showed that older adults in this study participate in physical activities more often than any other leisure activity. Our findings corresponds to Pitt's (2014) study, which suggested participating in garden activities led to experiencing flow state. Relating to cultural activity, cultural and educational displays may provide individuals opportunities to experience flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997; McIntyre, 2011). Visiting museums and galleries place the individual in an experiential space where they can find a meaningful sense of self and personal development. As Graef (2000) reported, experiencing flow is not limited to structured activities. In other words, engaging in trivial activities in daily life fits the flow model to some extent. It could be inferred from the results that participants are likely to experience at least some components of flow in cultural activities, and home-centered and social activities. Our finding is also consistent with Dieser, Christenson, and Davis-Gage's (2014) claim that engaging in quilting and uploading projects onto a blog can engender experiencing flow.

As for happiness, older adults who are involved in cultural, home-centered and social, and volunteer activities were more likely to feel happy. According to Onishi et al (2006), the amount of pleasure in conversing with family and friends is positively related to happiness among community-dwelling older adults. Additionally, literatures reveal that participation in cultural events and having a social relationship is significantly associated with happiness (e.g., Wang & Wong, 2014), while engaging in social groups for older adults and activities related to art, theatre, and music had a positive association with happiness (Menec, 2003). Our findings also coincided with the study of Krueger, Hicks, and McGue (2001) that suggested engaging in volunteer activities enhances happiness and well-being.

### **Implications for Practice**

Welfare practitioners or recreational agents can advise older adults or encourage them to be involved in cultural and social activities for obtaining psychological benefits (i.e., flow and happiness) based on this study.

Table 1  
Zero-Order Correlation Coefficients of Study Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.Outdoor Activities	1	.168*	.229*	.178*	-.018	.188**	.028	.128
2.Physical Activities		1	-.085	.247**	.380**	.147*	.363**	.261**
3.Hobbies and Indoor Activities			1	.250**	.216**	.211**	.107	.153*
4.Cultural Activities and Entertainment				1	.296**	.032	.351**	.281**
5.Home-centered and Social Activities					1	.158*	.420**	.367**
6.Volunteer Activities						1	.096	.218**
7.Flow							1	.438**
8.Happiness								1

Note. \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$

Table 2  
Multiple Regression of Flow and Happiness

Variables	Flow		Happiness	
	$\beta$ (S.E)	$t$	$\beta$ (S.E)	$t$
Outdoor Activities	-.051(.066)	-.750	.055(.127)	.776
Physical Activities	.216(.078)	2.932**	.096(.151)	1.246
Hobbies and Indoor Activities	.020(.074)	.277	.023(.142)	.305
Cultural Activities and Entertainment	.223(.085)	3.193**	.161(.163)	2.206*
Home-centered and Social Activities	.264(.092)	3.576***	.257(.178)	3.336**
Volunteer Activities	.021(.073)	.307	.143(.141)	2.044*
F	11.166***		7.825***	
R <sup>2</sup>	.270		.206	

Note. \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

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## **PARK USE AMONG COMMUNITIES OF COLOR: IMPLICATIONS FOR SOCIAL EQUITY**

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The U.S. population will continue to be increasingly more diverse. In 2012, people of color comprised 37% of the population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014). The percentage of people of color is expected to grow to 57% by the year 2060. This pattern of change is important for leisure scholars and practitioners.

Over the past forty years, leisure scholars have paid growing consideration to leisure behavior of racial and ethnic groups (Stodolska, Shinew, Floyd, & Walker, 2014a). Prior research has explored leisure motivations, activity participation, and leisure constraints among various racial and ethnic groups (e.g., Bustam, Thapa, & Buta, 2011; Wilhelm, Stanis, Chavez, & Shinew, 2009). Additionally, research has increasingly demonstrated widespread disparities in park access and use exist. For example, people of color do not utilize parks at the same rate or in the same manner as that of Caucasians (Byrne, Wolch, & Zhang, 2009). At the national level, studies indicate people of color are far less likely to visit national forests or parks as compared to Caucasians (see Scott, 2014). State and local sources also point to similar disparities. For instance, in Minnesota, 98% of state park visitors were Caucasian (Kelly, 2008), while comprising 89% of overall state's population during the study timeframe. Similarly, nine out of ten metropolitan area regional park visitors in Minnesota were Caucasian, although the urban population reflected greater racial and ethnic diversity (Metropolitan Council, 2008).

The demographic shifts, coupled with existing disparities, poses an impact to park planning, policy, and service provision, as well as ongoing public support. In an effort to enhance responsiveness and address existing disparities, the purpose of the current study was to explore regional park use among select communities of color within a metropolitan region with known underutilization among target populations. Specifically, the study sought to explore outdoor recreation preferences, barriers to park regional park and trail visitation, and suggestions to enhance visits among select communities of color, most notably among those who do not currently use regional parks or trails.

### **Methods**

A qualitative approach was utilized. The primary source of data collection consisted of focus groups. Working with community-based organizational partners, focus groups were held at various locations within an urban, seven-county region in Minnesota. Focus groups were semi-structured in format and typically lasted 1.25 hours. Participant incentives and interpreters were used, where appropriate. Participant's demographic information was collected in writing and included participant's age, gender, race, ethnicity, primary language spoken in the home, and zip code. Focus group sessions were digitally recorded. Digital recordings were transcribed. Where appropriate, transcripts were translated and back-translated for check for accuracy. Transcripts were content analyzed to produce major themes. Follow-up discussions with focus group participants were conducted, where possible, to confirm generated themes.

### **Results**

A total of 16 focus group sessions were conducted, with an average of 16 participants per session. In sum, a total of 263 individuals participated, residing in five of the seven metropolitan counties. Participants were predominately female (74.6%), middle aged (M=39.6 years old; range 14-79), and represented various racial, ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Approximately one third self-identified themselves as African, that is, African Immigrant. An additional third

indicated they were a recent Asian Immigrant or Asian American. A quarter indicated they were Hispanic or Latino/Latina. About 10% identified themselves as African American, while the remainder self-identified other racial or ethnic backgrounds. A total of 23 different languages were reported as being the primary language spoken in the home. The most frequently noted languages were Spanish, English, and Somali. Less than half of participants indicated visiting a regional park or trail in the last year.

In terms of outdoor recreation preferences, the most frequently noted activities were walking, followed by picnicking and/or barbecuing. The third most preferred activity was playground use. Swimming or going to the lake and spending time with friends or family rounded out the top five preferred activities. Less frequently noted activities included biking, fishing, viewing nature, rest or relaxation, and celebrations. Differences did emerge based upon racial and ethnic composition of the various focus groups.

The top theme identified as barrier to regional park and trail use was awareness. Lack of awareness was characterized in various ways. For instance, one participant stated “the thing is that us Hispanics don’t know how to use the parks. We always go there to sit down and eat. We don’t know what activities can be done. Walking, for example” (female Hispanic focus group member). Lack of time, fear and safety concerns, lack of transportation options, and language barriers rounded out the top five most frequently noted themes. Other barriers noted included map and directional challenges and cultural or religious insensitivity. Nuances and differences did manifest across the various focus groups, notably related to the types of fears expressed.

Common themes to enhance visitation included increasing awareness and addressing safety, as well as enhancing the capacity of gathering spaces and diversifying programming. Most notably, participants spoke to the desire for spaces that accommodate large group gatherings, amenities that cater to preferred recreational activities, and family-based, non-environmental programming.

### **Discussion**

Several findings confirmed previous research (see Stodolska, Shinew, Floyd, & Walker, 2014b), while additional insights were generated. For instance, several barriers identified by research participants, such as awareness and religious or cultural insensitivity are not incorporated into existing leisure constraints measures. This study, therefore, provides insight into specific barriers prevent different racial, ethnic, and cultural groups from utilizing parks and trails.

### **Implications for Practice**

The suggestions participants generated to enhance visitation to parks and trails provide key insights for park planning, policy, and service provision. Findings notably provide insight to park planners as it relates to the development of park and trail amenities. Findings also have implications for park programming. The participants of the current study had little interest in environmental programming and preferred programming geared for the entire family.

Overall, this study provides key insights to inform park policy. The study findings informed policy changes for the agency that initiated the work. Policies were across three domains: planning and design, funding and investment, and information and convening. Policies include community engagement requirements, the use of an equity analysis toolkit, among others.

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## **BEYOND PERSONALITY: THE ROLE OF INVOLVEMENT IN LIFE SATISFACTION**

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Life satisfaction, a cognitive assessment of satisfaction with overall life conditions (Diener et al., 1999), has been used in several research initiatives that assess people's daily life. For instance, *Healthy People 2020*, which sets the national health agenda for the coming years, uses life satisfaction as a key indicator of well-being (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2010). Among various correlates of life satisfaction, researchers have identified that physically active leisure (e.g., sport event participation, running with friends) plays an integral role in enhancing people's life evaluation (Sato et al., 2014). The investigation of the contribution of physically active leisure to life satisfaction is particularly relevant to participants of distance-running events, as these events have experienced significant increases in the number of participants (Running USA, 2014). As one type of community-based physical activity opportunity, a distance-running event can serve as an environmental resource that promotes physically active leisure, which in turn contributes to participants' life satisfaction (Sato et al., 2014). However, given that personality has been a consistent predictor of people's physical activity behaviors (Wilson & Dishman, 2015) and life satisfaction (Oishi, 2012), it is unclear to what extent a distance-running event contributes to people's involvement in the activity and subsequently influences life satisfaction. Along with distance-running events, an organized running club, which represents a social club that organizes activities related to recreational running, can serve as a catalyst for individuals' participation in running activities (Running USA, 2013); however, little research has focused on the relationship between running club membership, involvement in physical activity, and life satisfaction.

Using an ecological approach (Sallis et al., 2006), the present study sought to explore how behavioral involvement, psychological involvement, and two environmental resources related to running (a distance-running event and an organized running club) contribute to life satisfaction beyond personality traits. Behavioral involvement refers to the frequency of effort expended in pursuing physically active leisure (Sato et al., 2014). In contrast, psychological involvement represents a multifaceted construct that comprises pleasure (the enjoyment derived from an activity), centrality (how central the activity is to the individual's lifestyle), and sign (the level of symbolism of the activity; Beaton et al., 2011). We first expect that behavioral involvement, pleasure, centrality, and sign will mediate the relationship between personality and life satisfaction (H1a–d). We also expect that a distance-running event and an organized running club will moderate the relationships between personality and behavioral involvement, pleasure, centrality, and sign such that the relationship between personality and behavioral involvement, pleasure, centrality, and sign will be stronger for individuals who participated in an event (H2a–d) or a club (H3a–d). The research model is presented in Figure 1.

Participants were recruited through a survey panel from a 10-mile running event held in the US. The panel was generated from members who participated in the 2011 event and indicated a willingness to take part in future research on running. One day after the 2013 event, the online survey was distributed by email to 4,175 panel members. A total of 742 respondents completed the survey. The questionnaire included (a) the Ten Item Personality Inventory (Gosling et al., 2003) that measures the Big-Five personality dimensions; (b) two items of behavioral

involvement (the average numbers of miles and days run per week; Sato et al., 2014); (c) nine items of psychological involvement in running as a leisure activity (Beaton et al., 2011); and (d) the 5-item Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985). The moderated mediation analysis by Hayes' (2012) PROCESS macro for SPSS was conducted to test the hypotheses.

In addition to a significant direct effect of personality on life satisfaction, our results revealed significant indirect effects of personality on life satisfaction through pleasure (Effect = .02; 95% CI = [.01, .04]) and sign (Effect = .01; 95% CI = [.00, .03]), supporting H1b and H1d. Behavioral involvement (Effect = .00; 95% CI = [-.00, .02]) and centrality (Effect = -.00; 95% CI = [-.02, .01]) did not mediate the effects of personality on life satisfaction, indicating that H1a and H1c were not supported. Both event participation and running club membership had significant direct effects on behavioral involvement, pleasure, centrality, and sign. However, no interactions were significant, indicating that H2a–d and H3a–d were not supported.

### **Discussion and Implications for Practice**

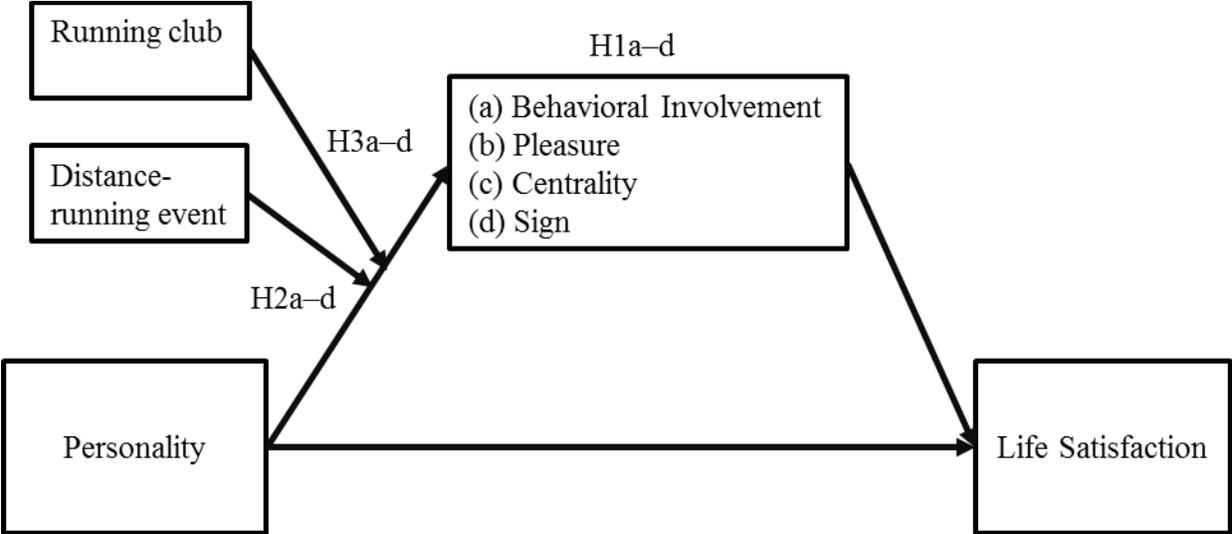
The most important finding from this study was that pleasure and sign mediated the relationships between personality and life satisfaction. Personality traits can influence an individual's behavior and attitude that influences life satisfaction (Magnus et al., 1993); however, little research has evaluated the effect of multiple personal determinants (e.g., personalities, behavioral and psychological factors) and environmental resources on life satisfaction in the context of physically active leisure. Our findings provide initial empirical evidence that the pleasure derived from running activities as well as symbolic meaning of running is likely to enhance people's life satisfaction beyond personality traits.

Behavioral involvement did not mediate the relationship between personality and life satisfaction. Although the positive impacts of physical activity on life satisfaction have been found (Maher et al., 2014), measurements of behavioral involvement do not include the relative meaning of the activity that may impact evaluation of their lives (Sato et al., 2014). Our findings support that behavioral involvement in terms of time and effort spent on a specific activity seems insufficient in explaining participants' life satisfaction (Rodríguez et al., 2008) beyond personality traits. Our results also revealed that centrality did not mediate the relationship between personality and life satisfaction. Given that respondents were experienced runners, each individual would already have established a strong running network and have achieved balance between running and other aspects of their lives. Individuals whose life is dominated by running activities might experience lower life satisfaction given excessive focus on running compared to other aspects of daily life (Berger & Tobar, 2011). Our results indicate that centrality may not always capture the positive attitudinal connection toward the activity, resulting that centrality is less likely to contribute to life satisfaction than pleasure or sign.

No moderation effects of event participation and running club membership were found. Our findings suggest that event participation and running club membership can serve as environmental resources to directly influence behavioral and psychological involvement in the activity as indicated by Sallis et al. (2006). Nevertheless, these two environmental resources are likely to contribute to life satisfaction through the development of an attitudinal connection toward running, such as pleasure and sign in the activity. Our findings indicate that event organizers or running clubs should consider how they can leverage distance-running events or running clubs to promote participants life satisfaction by stimulating pleasant and symbolic aspects of the activity through event participation and recreational running activities.

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**Figure 1. Research Model**



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## **ONLINE/OFFLINE SUPPORT: MOTHERS OF CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES AND THEIR LEISURE**

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Family leisure often defines what it means to be a family, offers opportunities to strengthen bonds, increases happiness of family members, builds shared memories, and encourages the development of children (Johnson, Zabriskie, & Hill, 2006; Shaw & Dawson, 2001; Trussell & Shaw, 2009). Not every family, however, has equal chances to benefit from shared leisure. Families that have members with a disability often have limited access to leisure. Research shows that leisure options for caregivers in general, especially caregivers of children with disabilities, are often limited due to a variety of unique constraints, including ethic of care (Henderson & Allen, 1991); stress and health problems (Marks, 1996); lack of time and energy due to caregiving duties (King et.al., 2000); lack of knowledge (Buettner & Langrish, 2001); and social isolation (Valtchanov, Parry, Glover, & Mulcahy, 2013). Families of children with disabilities are also constrained by community programs emphasizing competitive sports, the lack of friendship-building programs, children's limited behavioral and social skills, lack of awareness about disabilities among staff, and negative attitudes of the community (Jones, 2010).

One of the potential solutions to this issue of limited leisure opportunities might be online and offline community groups that help families whose life circumstances are more constraining. Seeking support and leisure ideas from other community members who struggle with similar challenges was shown to be beneficial by previous research. For example, cancer survivors in the study by Parry and Glover (2010) found dignity, hope and transcendence in their community-based recreational center. Young mothers using the online community sites developed care, camaraderie, and connection with other mothers who felt isolated in their roles as new mothers (Parry, Glover, & Mulcahy, 2013). Since engagement in online and offline leisure with others facing similar situations seems to play an important role in the lives of those people, the current study aimed to explore what role online and offline support groups play in the lives of families with children who have a disability. More specifically, the objectives of this study were to explore: a) the perception of family leisure opportunities by caregivers in families who have a child with developmental disability; b) the role that online and offline support groups play in the lives of caregivers in families with a child who has a developmental disability.

### **Methods**

The Grounded theory approach was used in this study (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The project was conducted during 2014 in two rural areas in North Carolina and New Jersey. Potential participants were approached through several online and local support groups for families with children who have a developmental disability (primarily Down's syndrome), and personal contacts by the researchers. Only the primary caregiver to the child who has a disability participated in the semi-structured interviews. Eight primary caregivers took part in the study and all were married mothers with one to five children. The individual interviews lasted around 30-40 minutes and were conducted at convenient locations for the participants or over the phone. The interviews included a series of questions related to leisure experiences as a family and the caregiver's use of online and offline support groups. The interviews were recorded with the participants' agreement and later transcribed. The participants were thanked for their time and participation with a \$10 gift card. All the transcripts were analyzed using grounded theory coding (Charmaz, 2010).

## **Results**

Three distinctive categories arose from the data collected during this study, including a) leisure opportunities for families who have a child with developmental disability – communities' versus parents' responsibility; b) informational support of online groups and emotional support of offline groups; c) ways to improve offline and online support groups for families with children who have developmental disability.

While caregivers who took part in this study varied in the way they saw leisure opportunities offered in the community for their families, a majority of them believed there were few of these opportunities. However, there were also mothers who felt their leisure experiences were not significantly different from families who did not have a child with a disability due to the young age or high functionality of their children. Lastly, some mothers put the responsibility for creating leisure opportunities for their families on parents rather than community, indicating that parents needed to seek out these leisure opportunities on their own.

Both online and offline groups were found to play equally beneficial but different roles in lives of caregivers of children with developmental disabilities. The participants reported that online groups were especially important during overwhelming and isolating experience after learning their child had a disability. Online groups were very helpful with providing a wealth of information on disability, useful parenting techniques, and auxiliary resources such as healthcare information. Online support groups were also praised for offering an opportunity to network and the convenience of fast access. The participants had predominantly positive views of offline support groups considering them especially important for creating sense of normalcy and developing strong “intimate and meaningful connections” with other families in the community. Mothers appreciated the opportunity to see other children with a disability and their siblings grow and develop, as well as to offer their support and knowledge to other caregivers in the community. They also believed that offline support groups were a great way to help their children (both with and without disabilities) to build friendships, provide opportunities for the family to participate in leisure, and learn information about resources relevant to their community. Lastly, an opportunity to take a break from a role of caregiver was named as one of the benefits of the offline support groups.

Mothers who took part in the study provided ideas on how online and offline groups could be more beneficial for families with children who have developmental disabilities. They suggested that administrators of online resources should encourage more positive communication and provide a sense of community, ensure positive representation of families, and focus on making connections with local resources. Offline support groups were recommended to ensure more organized distribution of information and more locations for participation.

### **Implications for Practice**

Practical implications of this study are multiple. The administrators of local recreation organizations could ensure access to recreational opportunities for families with children who have developmental disabilities by offering hybrid, locally based online communities. Those hybrid spaces could offer opportunities for positive communication and the representation of families, as well as connections to local resources and other families with children with or without disabilities. Such online spaces could offer easily accessible and local, yet professionally facilitated and organized, environments where parents could build connections, plan and organize leisure for their families, as well as request the support of local organizations.

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# **A METHODOLOGICAL EVALUATION OF ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION SURVEY**

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## **Introduction**

Children in the 21st century often achieve their connection to the outdoors through school and the media, which are insufficient substitutes for direct encounters with the natural world (Pegams & Zaradic 2006). A reduction in genuine outdoor experiences modifies how a child perceives and interacts with the natural world (Kellert 2005), potentially changing their relationship with the natural environment forever. Environmental education (EE) represents a conceivable way to counter the effects of our youth's lack of exposure to the natural environment. Currently, limited information is available related to environmental awareness for children in rural areas (Smith-Sebasto & Cavern 2006). While this study sought to identify how children in a rural environment perceived an environmental education program, and what effects this program may have had on their pro-environmental behaviors, this paper will examine environmental education program assessment methods. Without proper reliable methods of data collection, the results may be inaccurate and lead to false claims.

On site survey (e.g. intercept) research has traditionally relied on paper and pencil surveys to gather information about research participants. With the advent of new tablet computer technology (e.g. i-Pads), many researchers are making a switch from more traditional methods. The usual rationale for doing so is that tablets save time (reduced data entry burden), money (lower cost per survey) and may encourage more participation because of the novelty of taking a survey on a tablet (Wilcox 2012). As the use of tablets increase, there is a need to understand how this may impact data collection methods and study results. Recent studies in the health profession (Hohwu et al. 2013) have shown little difference in response between paper and tablet surveys, but several studies have also shown that when asked, respondents have said they enjoyed taking the survey on a tablet, thus potentially influencing their answers. There have, however, been few studies that have investigated the difference in an environmental education setting and even fewer when dealing with children (who have a different relationship with technology than adults). Therefore, this study examined potential differences in how middle school students answered identical questions on a paper survey when compared to a survey taken on a tablet computer.

## **Methods**

This study took place during the fall 2013 and spring 2014 semesters, and participants were 7<sup>th</sup> grade middle schools students from schools districts in central Kentucky. The surveys were administered in the science classes of each middle school by a student from Eastern Kentucky University who was trained in survey administration to remove any administration bias. A convenience sample approach was used to acquire a total of 304 student participants, with 175 students taking the survey through the traditional paper and pencil technique and 129 students taking the same survey on a tablet computer (the difference in the number of students is a reflection of the limited number of tablets available to the researchers). The survey used was a slightly altered version of the validated Environmental Attitude Awareness Survey, which used a 5-point scale (1 =strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) to measure interest in nature, importance of nature, endangered ecosystems, and environmental stewardship (Larson 2010).

Researchers ran basic descriptive statistics and independent t-test to determine the difference between responses based on survey type.

### **Results**

Of the 304 students who participated in the study, 54% were boys with an average age of 12.97 years. Several of the questions had a statistically significant difference in means between the paper survey and the survey taken on a tablet. In the cases where there was a difference, in every case, the student who took the survey on a tablet strongly agreed with the statements, significantly more so, than those that took the survey on paper. Students who took the tablet survey more strongly agreed that; plants and animals are important to people ( $M = 4.48$  vs.  $M = 4.26$ ;  $t = 2.60$ ,  $p = .01$ ), that they like to spend time in places that have plants and animals ( $M = 4.33$  vs.  $M = 3.94$ ;  $t = 3.91$ ,  $p = .000$ ), nature is easily harmed or hurt by people ( $M = 4.41$  vs.  $M = 4.23$ ;  $t = 2.00$ ,  $p = .046$ ), and we need to take better care of plants and animals ( $M = 4.48$  vs.  $M = 3.03$ ;  $t = 25.59$ ,  $p = .000$ ).

### **Discussion**

The results of this study highlight that a difference in how surveys are taken, based on delivery method, may impact results. Previous studies have focused on adult survey takers, which have shown little difference between tablet surveys and traditional pencil and paper surveys. As noted by these study results, children may respond to these methods in different ways. The students that took the survey through electronic means had a stronger agreement for the statements about nature, and specifically plants and animals. This may suggest that students interacted differently (Nagel 2013), thus giving different survey responses with digital surveying than they would with traditional paper surveying methods. It is possible that children, who may be digital natives, are more willing to provide more truthful responses through digital means and may associate paper surveys with exams or other less desirable activities.

### **Implications**

While this study finds that mixing methodologies between tablet and paper surveying is troublesome, further research with youth is necessary to confirm the finding for environmental education. With the proliferation of technology and continued online presence younger populations, understanding and identifying ways to solicit feedback digitally, in a way consistent with other methodologies, is important. The more accurate information that can be gathered about the effectiveness of environmental education programs for children, the more practitioners can show the worthiness of these programs in an era of decline budgets for environmental related educational programs.

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## **EXPLORING FACTORS RELATED TO GEOCACHING PARTICIPATION**

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Despite the evidence suggesting participation in regular physical activity (PA) has a positive influence on health and wellness (Flegal, Carroll, Kit, & Ogden, 2012), the majority of youth and adults do not engage in sufficient levels of leisure-time PA (LTPA). Of particular concern are the declining levels of LTPA during adolescence. A novel activity that has the potential to engage youth in LTPA is geocaching. Geocaching involves using a GPS device to locate hidden treasures or “caches.” Geocaching includes features that may be attractive to youth such as using technology, participating with friends, and solving problems. Although these features are expected to result in positive psychological and physical activity outcomes, a more complete understanding of the psychosocial aspects that may promote participation is paramount. One of the few empirical studies examining participants’ PA levels during geocaching demonstrated that walking and geocaching have similar exercise demands (Minutolo, 2010). Geocaching also provides opportunities to be outdoors and develop interpersonal connections (O’Hara, 2008), both of which have been shown to influence participation in and maintenance of PA levels (Sallis et al., 1993). The current study was undertaken to determine which aspects of geocaching appeal most to youth and whether or not psychosocial factors of LTPA relate to and/or predict interests and abilities in geocaching. Given the utility of constructs from the theory of planned behavior and social cognitive theory in the prediction of PA (e.g., self-efficacy, social support, decisional balance; Conner & Sparks, 2005; Ferreira et al., 2007; Hagger et al., 2001), these constructs were expected to relate to geocaching interests and perceived ability levels.

### **Methods and Analysis Plan**

Youth 14-18 years old from a high school in rural western North Carolina were selected to participate in the study. Students were recruited through an adventure and service program and an after-school athletic team. A total of 89 teenagers were recruited for this study and 82 completed the survey instruments. This study received IRB approval and informed consents and assents were gathered prior to data collection. The questionnaires were administered to students in a classroom setting used by the after school adventure and service program. The survey instrument consisted of measures to assess: 1) LTPA self-efficacy, motivations and social support of friends and family (social cognitive factors; Adolescent Psychosocial Scale on PA, PACE, 2001), 2) LTPA attitudes and behaviors (planned behavior factors; PA Decisional Balance Scale, PACE, 2001), 3) geocaching interest and ability (as no scales existed, this scale was developed by the researchers), and 4) LTPA participation (Centers for Disease Control [CDC], 2008). All scales were on a 5-point scale except for LTPA participation, which asked participants to list the number of days in the week he/she participated in five categories of LTPA (muscle-strengthening, moderate intensity aerobic activity). Analyses included descriptive statistics, reliability and validity of the scales used, and correlation-regression analysis. Psychosocial factors of LTPA were hypothesized to predict geocaching interest/ability.

### **Results**

Forty-nine participants were female and 37 were male. Twenty-seven percent of females and 39% of males achieved PA recommended levels of 60 min 5 dys/wk. Mean values for geocache items ranged from 3.11 to 4.42 (5-point scale), with highest mean values for “enjoy being

physically active” ( $M = 4.42, SD = .86$ ), “looking for hidden treasure using GPS will be fun” ( $M = 4.41, SD = .79$ ), and “I think geocaching will be more fun than walking” ( $M = 4.39, SD = .77$ ). The validity of the geocaching scale was examined, indicating a three-factor solution explaining 76% of the variance. Four variables loaded on Factor 1: technological ability and enjoyment (40.5% variance); two variables loaded on Factor 2: enjoy being outdoors and physically active (22.5% variance); and two variables loaded on Factor 3: geocaching and hidden treasure as fun (13% variance). The geocaching scale indicated acceptable reliability with a coefficient alpha of .73. All other unidimensional scales demonstrated acceptable reliability values ranging from .71 to .85. There were modest but significant correlations amongst some geocaching variables: perceived fun searching for hidden treasure was positively related to PA enjoyment ( $r = 0.23; p = 0.05$ ), geocaching as more fun than walking ( $r = 0.44; p < 0.05$ ), and an interest in technology ( $r = 0.44; p < 0.05$ ). Perception of geocaching as more fun than walking also was related to enjoying using technology ( $r = 0.28; p < 0.05$ ), and demonstrated a trend with youth’s reported levels of PA enjoyment ( $r = 0.20; p = 0.072$ ). Correlation analysis revealed significant relationships between psychosocial PA variables and respondents’ level of PA but, counter to expectations, there was little to no relationship or predictive utility between psychosocial variables and geocaching.

### **Discussion and Implications**

We sought to: a) identify components of geocaching that may promote youth participation in PA, and b) better understand potential psychosocial factors related to youth’s Geocaching Interests/Abilities. Our evaluation suggests that geocaching may be an effective and novel way to encourage physical activity amongst youth (Minutolo, 2010), particularly youth who enjoy technology and like being outdoors. Participants reported relatively high levels of interest in geocaching attributes, such as using technology and being outside, despite their relatively low overall activity levels. Not only did youth endorse geocaching as interesting and fun, they also thought looking for a hidden treasure would be more fun than walking. These findings suggest that geocaching has the potential to increase LTPA amongst underactive youth because it may be perceived as fun and engaging even by youth who do not enjoy other physical activities and/or sports (Schneider, Silverberg, & Chavez, 2011). The results also indicate psychosocial measures commonly used to predict LTPA behavior in youth (Conner & Sparks, 2005; Ferreira et al., 2007; Hagger et al., 2001) had little or no influence on participants’ Geocaching Interest/Abilities. This finding was surprising as geocaching is a form of LTPA. Perhaps the novelty of geocaching accounts for these findings. Youth may have lacked preconceived notions of geocaching such as whether it would be physically demanding. Another plausible explanation is that the scale used to measure psychosocial variables was too general. Modifying the PACE psychosocial PA scales in reference to geocaching might have yielded different results. Also, the Geocaching Interests/Abilities Scale created by the authors may not reflect all aspects of geocaching participation, with additional items providing a more robust scale. For example, items focused more heavily on technology use versus other sub-domains such as being outdoors or participating in an adventure. Based on the relatively high levels of enjoyment outdoors, future geocache scales should consider incorporating more items related to the outdoors and interest in nature (Schneider et al., 2011). Limitations include a small, purposefully sampled group of rural youth within one school. We will discuss implications for municipal parks and recreation programming and research on geocaching, PA, health and wellness.

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## **PUBLIC SERVICE VALUES AS PREDICTORS OF RECREATION DECISION MAKING**

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In the 1970's a political movement arose aimed at "reinventing government" (Terry, 2005). This emergent institutional philosophy, dubbed the New Public Management (NPM), promoted the adoption of private sector attitudes, policies, and practices in public administration settings (Fixler & Poole, 1987; Hood, 1995). Public recreation departments were not exempt from NPM trends and moved towards fee-based recreation models and the privatization of recreation services (Martin, 1999; Van Slyke & Hammonds, 2003). As a result, the scope and nature of recreation services and economic decision making have become increasingly more variable and complex (McDaniels et al., 1999). Now, public recreation administrators find themselves making decisions regarding whether or not to outsource programs, increase fees, reduce staff, or in some cases close centers or services (Esprit & Smith, 2011; Shinkle, 2012).

Understanding how public recreation servants make and defend their fiscal decisions is critical, particularly as they continue to fight for financial stability and vie for limited public resources (King, 2014; Zimmerman & Payne, 2012). Recent research recommends public service values (PSVs) as predictors of public servant decision making (Witesman & Walters, 2013). Values, in recreation scholarship, have been used to investigate *participant* motivations, behaviors, and decision preferences (Carothers et al., 2001; Tanner et al., 2008). Few studies, however, have explored how values impact *administrative* decision making (Zimmerman & Payne, 2012). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate whether PSVs correlate with or predict a specific recreation administration decision. The PSV approach may elucidate recreation administrators' decision making processes and equip administrators with explanatory tools to influence public discourse and justify high stakes decisions to relevant stakeholders.

### **Methods**

Data were collected September 2012 from individuals living in the U.S. ( $n = 1,608$ ) using Qualtrics panel services. A non-probability, quota-based recruitment strategy was employed to ensure a sample was drawn that matched the U.S. population distribution on demographic characteristics such as age, gender, race and income status. Respondents were presented with a hypothetical scenario modeled after the work of Tetlock (1986), and asked to indicate, with a yes or no response, whether or not they would close a recreation center in the given context (see Table 1). They were then asked to indicate how confident they were in their decision using a 7-point Likert scale. Values were elicited using the Public Servant Values Questionnaire (PSVQ) which frames 40 identified public servant values, such as *Regime Loyalty* or *Advocacy*, in a public administration context and asks respondents to indicate how closely the statement resembles them on a 7-point Likert scale. Using *Advocacy* as an example, these statements read as follows: "He/she [referring to the respondent] believes that *Advocacy* is important. He/she believes that public servants should seek justice for everybody, even for people they don't know." Additionally, the binary decision responses were multiplied by the confidence scale to create a fourteen point, interval level dependent variable (see Witesman & Walters, 2013). After screening the data, hierarchical linear regression was conducted to determine the effect of PSVs on the decision to close a recreation center, when controlling for other variables (See Table 2).

## Results

Initial analysis indicated that 5 of the 40 identified PSVs (Witesman & Walters, 2013) including *Regime Loyalty*, *Rule of Law*, *Advocacy*, *Public Interest*, and *Social Justice* significantly contributed to the decision to close a recreation center. Linear regression of the five PSVs and respondent demographic information on the dependent variable indicated that the PSVs uniquely account for 7.3% of the total explained variance (12.4%) of the model ( $F(11, 1534) = 19.760, p \leq .001$ ). This result indicates that PSVs were statistically significant predictors of the decision to close a recreation center when controlling for other variables. Additional descriptive analysis revealed that 58% of respondents indicated they would not close a recreation center given the contextual factors of limited funding and no alternative recreation facility.

## Discussion

Approximately 58% of the sample chose not to close a recreation center in the fictionalized scenario, which seems to contradict common perceptions that when budgets are tight (see King, 2014), recreation services are among the first to go. This finding is elucidated to some extent by the results of the regression analysis, which identified five PSVs that individuals draw upon when making decisions about recreation funding or access to recreation services. These five values were grouped as "anti" closure values—values that correlated with the decision not to close the center; e.g. *Regime Loyalty*, *Social Justice*, *Advocacy*, *Public Interest*, and "pro" closure values—values that correlated with the decision to close; e.g. *Rule of Law*.

The "Anti" closure" values were derived from broader value sets such as *Universalism*. *Universalism* places the well-being of individuals and society above the well-being of the governing institution and emphasizes equitable access for all. Thus, individuals who were "anti" closure likely perceived recreation as a contributor to individual well-being, one that superseded the economic well-being of the city, and may have rejected the recreation center closure in as a reflection of their valuation of equitable distribution of resources. This finding is interesting when framed within the National Recreation and Park Association's (NRPA) pillars, two of which are specifically concerned with *social equity*, ensuring all people have equitable access to recreation services, and *health and wellness*, improving the overall health and wellbeing of society (NRPA, 2014). Our findings suggest that in the context of this study, NRPA values are at best being imparted to, or at least being mirrored by members of the U.S. population. More importantly, these pillar-esque values are used when people make complex decisions regarding recreation related interests. "Pro" closure respondents pulled from more *Traditional* value sets, suggesting that when fiscal dilemmas arise, the financial security of the governing body and its "essential" services should be given higher priority than the recreational needs of the community.

## Implications

While our findings suggest that PSVs were a small predictor of a specific recreation related decision, we believe that the preliminary evidence supports the future use of the PSV approach by administrators. First, when recreation administrators are called upon to defend what they do, they can use empirically elicited PSVs alongside other measures of value such as programmatic success stories, gap analysis results, or evidence based programming to do so. Second, if public servants are more aware of their own values and values held by their constituency, they can use those values as a guide to respond to the community's needs and/or moderate future public discourse on controversial issues.

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## Tables

Table 1

*Decision Scenario*

Decision scenario	Percent responding 'yes'	Model 'R <sup>2</sup> '	Values Positively associated with a 'yes' decision	Values Positively associated with a 'no' decision
Should a financially strapped city close its recreation center to save money even if many citizens cannot afford the private fitness facilities in the area?	42%	.126	Rule of Law	Advocacy Public Interest Regime Loyalty Social Justice

**Note.** All values are significant at the  $p < .01$  level or better.

Table 2

*Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis*

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SEB</i>	$\beta$
LCPRC ( $N = 1608$ )			
Block 1 $R^2 = .073, p < .001$			
Intercept	-6.708	.670	
Age	.014	.010	.036
Education	.278	.097	.077*
Personal Income	.2227	.087	.070*
Gender	1.148	.276	.104**
Political Stance	1.006	.162	.104*
Race	1.263	.375	.085**
Block 2 $R^2 = .124, p < .001$			
Intercept	-9.91	1.104	
Age	.010	.010	.025
Education	.261	.095	.072*
Personal Income	.152	.085	.047
Gender	.703	.276	.063*
Political Stance	.495	.168	.078*
Race	1.201	.366	.081*
Regime Loyalty	-.155	.078	-.051*
Advocacy	-.420	.102	-.122**
Social Justice	-.364	.122	-.088*
Rule of Law	.541	.122	.117**
Public Interest	-.356	.130	-.083*

**Note.** \*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .001$ ; *B* = unstandardized regression coefficient; *SEB* = Standard Error of the coefficient;  $\beta$  = standardized coefficient.

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## **IMPORTANCE-PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS IN PARKS AND RECREATION: IMPLEMENTATION AND ISSUES**

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This paper will explore the utility of the Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) offering a worthwhile method for practitioners within parks and recreation to assess patron satisfaction and make recommendations for improvement. The researcher will also address methodological and conceptual concerns as practitioners and researchers consider its implementation within a variety of settings. The rationale for providing a critical overview of this method is to offer practitioners an easy-to-implement way to assess a variety of attributes related to importance and performance resulting in recommendations for improvement of services.

### **Background**

The IPA was first used in the field of marketing when research revealed consumer satisfaction was a product of perceived importance and performance related to a list of attributes (Martilla & James, 1977). It has most commonly been used as a way to measure consumer or user satisfaction with a product or service. Martilla and James (1977) were the first to implement the process when they examined satisfaction related to automobiles. In the 38 years since this first use of the IPA, it has been applied and modified in a variety of settings including, but not limited to banking, dental care services, education, healthcare, hotel services, public administration, restaurant services, and leisure and recreation.

### **Implementation**

The IPA is easy to implement, understand, and apply, which makes the technique attractive in a variety of settings (Oh, 2001). The ease of application is cited as its major contribution and it has been a popular technique for management to administer and interpret the results. The technique provides a simple, easy to understand depiction of the most relevant areas as they relate to multiple areas of focus.

Martilla and James (1977) suggested four steps in conducting an IPA which is a two-dimensional scale or plot interpreting importance and performance data. In the first step, the researcher generates a list of attributes. The list of attributes is an important part of the process since management decisions are made based on the responses to the identified attributes. It is recommended that the researcher involves management and panels of consumers in creating the list of attributes (Oh, 2001). The second step consists of developing a measurement tool that assesses the importance and performance of the identified attributes. Martilla and James (1977) recommended the use of a 5 or 7-point Likert scale in the development of the measurement tool assessing the importance and performance of each attribute. During the third step, the researcher plots the grand mean scores of the combined importance and performance of each attribute provided by the respondents. Finally the researcher establishes four quadrants on a grid that suggest 'actions' for the reader.

Each of the four quadrants indicates different strategies to assist managers and administrators in identifying areas of respondent satisfaction or lack of satisfaction with various attribute importance and performance measures. The first quadrant is labeled 'concentrate here'. Scores within this quadrant represent attributes that are highly important, but the performance is low. It is suggested that the attributes in this quadrant should be focused upon in an effort to elevate performance of those attributes. The attributes that fall within the second quadrant are labeled

‘keep up the good work’. The attributes in this quadrant are both important and are performing well. In summary, the goals are being met with the most efficiency within this quadrant. The third quadrant is labeled as ‘low priority’. The scores in this quadrant represent low importance and low performance. Because the scores in this quadrant were low in both areas, it is not necessary to prioritize the attributes that fall in this quadrant. The scores that are plotted in the fourth quadrant are labeled as ‘possible overkill’. The area represents low importance and high performance. Since the attributes are low in importance, it is not necessary to focus attention in this area. Furthermore, it is possible that too much emphasis has been placed on these attributes since the performance is high.

### **Conceptual, Methodological, and Practical Concerns**

The placement or positioning of the quadrant cross-hairs dividing the four quadrants is fundamental and paramount in the IPA method in that it establishes the quadrants or categories in which individual attributes will be placed. This threshold determines the intersection between horizontal and vertical lines of the grids. Misplacing the threshold could have serious effects on the results of the analysis and produce incorrect or misleading satisfaction ratings (Coghlan, 2012; Sever, 2015). Many researchers have prescribed to the notion that placement of the crosshairs is left to the discretion of the researcher based upon research goals (Martilla & James, 1977), and others have expressed concern and provided alternate approaches. Bacon (2003) even suggested the positioning of the thresholds leading to the division of quadrants is the biggest issue in IPA, while Lai and Hitchcock (2015) made a call for a comprehensive framework due to the traditional IPA being compromised by validity and reliability issues.

In his review of the IPA, Oh (2001) raised conceptual issues related to the placement of the crosshairs. Specifically, he stated that “building additional cross-hairs into each quadrant of the standard IPA grid may improve accuracy in classifying attributes and deriving strategic suggestions” (p. 626). In response to conceptual and measurement issues, Azzopardi and Nash (2013) synthesized IPA literature and also discussed alternative approaches. Through their literature review, the authors concluded that the “IPA framework has not changed and many researchers address validity issues in a limited manner” (p. 222). Based on the IPA literature, the three options for alternative crosshair placement are scale-centered, data-centered, and diagonal.

### **Summary**

The scale-centered, data-centered, and diagonal method approaches have been widely used in multiple studies. Each is unique in how attributes are prioritized and reported and all have strengths and weaknesses. The position of the axis is critical in increasing the accurateness and utility of the results. While current literature still lacks a ‘one size fits all’ solution to validity and conceptual concerns, the researcher must consider strengths and weaknesses of each approach and make a choice best suited for the purposes of the research. While there lacks a consensus on best approach to establish crosshairs, a consensus does exist regarding the position of the axis as a critical issue for increasing the accurateness and utility of the results. In conclusion, the IPA has proven to be an effective method for practitioners as they utilize participant or consumer feedback to inform decision-making, but it doesn’t come without methodological concerns.

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# THE BENEFITS OF SPECTATING LEISURE ACTIVITIES ON ACADEMIC SUCCESS

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## Introduction

College enrollment has been increased by 32 percent since 2001 (U.S. Department of Education). Although there is a growth of students' enrollment, numerous students have failed to complete college degrees due to lack of social relationships and academic difficulties in complex nature of college life (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011). Several studies have argued that non-academic environments such as positive social circumstances in college life play a significant role in academic success in higher education (Murnane & Levy, 1996; Murray-Harvey & Slee, 2007).

In the field of leisure and recreation, leisure participation is significantly associated with social affiliation with other students while positive social connections improve a sense of belonging in a certain association (Lemon, Bengtson & Peterson 1972; Longino & Kart 1982). Particularly, a number of researchers have indicated that a sense of belonging by positive social environment has a significant power to promote students' well-being as well as finally lead to students' academic success (Murray-Harvey & Slee, 2007; Sung, Koo, Kim, & Dittmore, 2015).

In particular, intercollegiate athletic programs have a function to integrate students as well as improve a sense of belonging to a university while college sport teams create campus traditions, symbols and colors (Clopton, 2009; Sung, Koo, Kim, & Dittmore, 2015). Koo, Sung, and Martinez (in press) also revealed that student' spectating intercollegiate sporting games influence social and emotional adjustment in complex nature of college life. Moreover, Sung, Koo, Kim, and Dittmore (2015) resulted that spectating college sporting events are significantly associated with not only promoting sense of belonging to the university, but also improving students' academic performance in higher education.

However, there is a lack of research on the impact of spectating intercollegiate sporting event as an informal leisure activity on sense of belonging to a university, students' physical and psychological college adjustment, as well as academic success. Therefore the purpose of the study is to examine the direct and indirect relationships between intercollegiate sporting events and students' academic success through mediating role of a sense of belonging to the university, and physical and psychological adjustments constructs.

## Method

A convenient sample of 310 undergraduate students enrolled in a major public university in the southeastern region of the United States was recruited for this study. Of the total 310 students, 120 (38.7%) were male and 190 (61.3%) were female including 28 freshmen (9.0%), 67 sophomores (21.6%), 112 juniors (36.1%), and 102 seniors (32.9%). The majority of students (65.7%) were between the ages of 20 and 22 while the mean age of participants was 21.04 years ( $SD = 3.40$ ).

Spectator Sport Identification Scale developed by Wann and Branscombe's (1993) was used to measure students' involvement of intercollegiate sporting events by Likert scale items ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. The SSIS scale has been reported shown to be highly reliable; Wann and Branscombe (1993) reported an internal consistency of 0.91. Student Adaption to College Questionnaire (Backer & Siryk, 1989) was adapted to measure a sense of belonging, physical adjustment, and psychological adjustment in college life, anchored by (1)

strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. According to Dahmus, Bernardin, & Bernardin (1992), internal consistency of academic performance subscale ranged from .81 to .90.

## **Results**

An examination of construct validity using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) supported that the further use of the final measurement model as part of Structure Equation Model hypothesizing causal links among latent variables:  $\chi^2(382) = 835.512, p < .001$ ; Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual (SRMR) = .073; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .062; Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .904. The overall structural model indicated good fit to the data ( $\chi^2 = 853.281, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 389, CFI = .901, RMSEA = .062, \text{ and } SRMR = .079$ ).

The structural equations modeling revealed that team identification influence a sense of belonging to the university ( $\beta = .28, p < .001$ ). A sense of belonging derived from team identification has direct impact on psychological adjustment ( $\beta = .32, p < .001$ ) and academic motivation ( $\beta = .47, p < .001$ ). In addition, psychological adjustment derived from a sense of belonging to the university has a direct impact on physical adjustment ( $\beta = .568, p < .001$ ), and academic motivation ( $\beta = .15, p < .001$ ). Finally, physical adjustment directly influences academic performance ( $\beta = .371, p < .001$ ), which positively led to academic motivation ( $\beta = .24, p < .001$ ).

## **Discussion**

Many scholars have suggested that the non-academic environment including sense of belonging to the university, physical and psychological health (Well-being) have significant relationship with academic success in higher education (Astin, 1984; Bettencourt, Charlton, Eubanks, Kernahan, & Fuller 1999; Murray-Harvey & Slee, 2007; Walton & Cohen, 2011). The most significant results of this study was that students' informal leisure activities participating intercollegiate sporting events directly improve students' a sense of belonging to a university while physical and psychological adjustments influenced by the sense of belonging directly and indirectly promote students' academic motivation and performance.

This current study implies prominent suggestions that college administrators need to special attention to the development of college circumstance that students enable to participate informal leisure activities such as interactions with other friends while intercollegiate athletic programs promote campus tradition and ritual including tailgate party, team logo, and unique color representing a certain university. For example, a lack of social activities and academic setting is one of the major issues for students who failed to complete their college degree. (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011). The phenomenon has become a critical issue because the academic success is the major goal of higher education, which is related to students' future employment, level of wage, and skilled labors (Murnane & Levy, 1996). Meanwhile, this study may also suggest to sport marketers to pay special attention to building more attractive tool for students to easily participate and watch sporting events such as fireworks show or game promotions while spectating sporting events are highly associated with students' overall adjustment in complex college setting.

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# THE SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF PREGNANCY: A LEISURE PERSPECTIVE

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## Introduction

Current literature has identified the ways in which motherhood can affect women's leisure (A. G. Cramp & Bray, 2011; Kimmel, 2007) and how finding time for leisure can affect mothers' health and well-being (Condon, 2005; Currie, 2004). Research suggests that the experience of the gendered body plays a role in experiences of leisure for new mothers. Furthermore, for mothers of young children socially constructed expectations and prescriptions shape leisure behaviors and experiences, particularly in relation to physically active leisure (Brown, Brown, Miller, & Hansen, 2001; Clark, 2014; Miller & Brown, 2005). Despite the growing body of literature into the role of motherhood in leisure, what is absent from the leisure literature is the role of the physical experience of pregnancy. In a rare study of leisure and pregnancy, Clark and Anderson (2014) found that pregnant adolescents changed leisure behaviors to protect the health of the baby, due to societal pressures, and in preparation for the baby. The leisure literature, however, has yet to address pregnancy among adult women and its role in the transition to motherhood.

## Methods

The purpose of the study was to explore the lived experience of women as they transitioned through pregnancy and into motherhood. Participants included twelve pregnant women in a mid-sized city in Western Canada between the ages of 24 and 36. Participants completed two (n = 6) or three (n = 6) individual interviews during the following approximate time periods: second trimester, third trimester, and four to six months postpartum. Participants were asked to describe their experiences of pregnancy, their changing bodies, and their experiences of leisure since becoming pregnant or since the previous interview. Also, because some research has suggested that physical activity declines during pregnancy (A. G. Cramp, & Bray, S. R, 2009). We specifically asked participants to describe their experiences of physically active leisure. The first three authors independently analyzed the interviews of the first three participants following van Manen's (1997) detailed line-by-line analysis process highlighting key statements that were relevant to the phenomenon being studied. Following this independent process, the first three authors met to compare themes and to identify commonalities and differences across participants. The authors analyzed the data in an iterative process until the overarching themes were identified.

## Results and Discussion

Two themes central to the experience of these women revealed a complex, socially constructed experience of pregnancy and early motherhood that impacted the women's leisure. First was the loss of control that women experienced during pregnancy marked by three subthemes: a loss of control over their pregnant bodies, their actions, and their time. The second theme was lack of knowledge/misinformation regarding the safety of physical activity. The participants experienced lacking knowledge of or being misinformed about the capabilities of their bodies during pregnancy related to physically active leisure.

*Lack of control.* In seeking to understand the role that motherhood may play in women's leisure, it is important to take into account not only the period after the child joins the family, but also the transition from pregnancy into motherhood. First, and maybe most central to this

experience, is the loss of control experienced during pregnancy (Earle, 2003; Rudolfsdottir, 2000; Warren, 2004; Young, Peppard, & Taheri, 2005). When women are unable to secure freedom and autonomy, it may follow that they will lack this same sense within their leisure. The participants' experience of lacking control over their bodies played a role in constraining their leisure. For example, participants' described physical limitations such as physical fatigue, shortness of breath and soreness as limiting their ability to participate in leisure. In some cases, the perceived lack of control over their own body led them to cease participate in leisure at all, which in turn increased their sense of lack of control. For example, Emma (36) commented "I can't go out and have a drink on a Friday night like, that's the type of things I look forward to too [after giving birth], is having that body be mine."

The women in this study described negative feedback from others regarding such activities as playing sports, weightlifting, and spending time at a family farm. Camille (28) remarked, "I was telling people at work...that I was in the hot tub, and...that opened a can of worms!" When this occurred, women began self-regulating their actions by avoiding such activities in order to avoid further social sanctions. Participants also described being actively left out of social situations when others assumed they would not want to participate. A final consideration regarding the influence of the transition to motherhood on women's leisure is the way it redefines women's time. Time that the women in this study were able to devote to leisure became, at best, fragmented, or at worst, nearly non-existent. Participants described feelings of guilt for taking time away from their parental responsibilities to participate in leisure. Additionally, when participants did describe setting time aside for themselves, they would quickly justify that doing so would make them a better mom to their child(ren). This indicates that women recognize that they are expected to put their child above themselves and do not want to be viewed as a selfish mom for taking time away from this primary responsibility.

*Lacking knowledge.* Compounding the problems that the social nature of pregnancy brings about is a clear lack of knowledge and/or education about what types of physically active leisure are appropriate which aligns with current literature (Clarke, 2004). Physical activity is not only acceptable, but recommended during pregnancies that lack complications (Davies, 2003; Dempsey, 2005; Haskell, 2009). However, doctors themselves may be misinformed, providing women with shaky advice (Bauer, Broman, & Pivarnik, 2010). In the face of uncertainty about how much or what types of physical activity are appropriate and the potential for negative social sanctions, women may simply withdrawal from physically active leisure altogether during pregnancy. For instance, Jessica (34) explained that she "really stopped doing any leisure activities" due to concern that she might miscarry.

### **Implications**

The current study sought to begin to fill the gap in leisure research that has yet to focus on the implications the transition to motherhood may have on leisure. By better understanding the complex social experience of pregnancy, we can gain a fuller understanding of leisure, particularly as it relates to women's role within the family. The findings suggest that women experience an acute loss of control, face stiff social expectations, and must renegotiate the meaning of time. Each may impact the leisure of pregnant women and provides insight into the varying forces reshaping women's leisure. The findings have important health implications for women and, ultimately, implications for families.

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## **CREATING A RUNNER: BLACK GIRLS RUN! AND A COLLECTIVE IDENTITY**

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As obesity rates near crisis levels in the United States, especially for marginalized groups, policymakers struggle to understand how to help communities become more physically active. African American women in particular have been the subject of numerous studies that have been conducted in an effort to understand the extent to which policies and programs can help address the Center for Disease Control's most recent statistic that four out of five of this population are overweight or obese (Banks-Wallace & Conn, 2002). Mixed results of these interventions suggest that efforts to bolster levels of physical activity must do more than simply direct individuals to do the activity, they must help facilitate a psychological connection to the activity (Henderson & Ainsworth, 2000).

Black Girls Run! (BGR!), a national organization of Black women runners, is attempting to do just that. However, the difficulty of developing a connection to physical activity is amplified when the activity is not one that individuals feel is congruent with their other identities. Interviews from an initial study revealed that the perceptions of a long distance runner included being "white," "male," and having "zero body fat," which severely contradicted the Black cultural norms they had been brought up with. Many expressed that a Black female runner was often identified as a "Flo Jo or a Kenyan." Despite these constraints, many of these women also felt that BGR! provided them a valuable space to explore their desire to become a runner with women similar to themselves. BGR! allowed for the opportunity to participate in an activity that promotes greater health within this population; thus allowing for members to construct their own running identity (Clark et al., 2014). Building on these findings, the purpose of this study is to understand the extent to which members' connection with the organization helps them to develop a running identity over time.

### **Relevant Literature**

Salient social categories, such as race and gender, create a stronger sense of in-group and out-group. Members of an in-group that are also part of a marginalized group, i.e. groups where membership confers negative esteem, may feel their collective identity more strongly (Tajfel, 1982). Group members can then collectively change those dimensions that create the negative esteem or create new, more positive dimensions together. As "entrepreneurs of identity," these groups have the power to resist established norms through the process of identity creation (Reicher, 2004). In other words, it may be possible for Black women in the United States to reshape the extent to which recreational running is normatively associated with predominantly white, thin, females.

This power of collective identity has been a focal point for those interested in political collective action, recognizing the role identification plays in social change for under-represented groups. Collective identification within a movement, along with personal and social motivations, are key predictors of an individual's willingness to participate in a social movement (Simon et al., 1998). Furthermore, this sense of collective identification, which facilitates change, does not have to emerge through an entity whose primary purpose it was to create social movements (Pelak, 2002). This final point emphasizes the ways in which organizations might use identification processes for greater social progress. BGR!, founded in 2009 as an online blog where Black women runners could come together for support, has essentially become a social

movement. It has distinct colors, slogans, and events that allow its members to run while feeling unconstrained by the activity's supposed barrier to their race and gender identities. This study measures the extent to which the collective identity of BGR! as an organization facilitates the promotion of physical activity through the creation of a running identity for Black women.

### **Method**

A panel of 1,200 members of BGR! self-selected into this study as part of a larger survey conducted for the organization in 2014. Members were surveyed online in April of 2014, and again six months later, in October of 2014. A total of 346 women completed both surveys. This sample was not significantly different from the overall panel: both their mean and median age was 42, 88% were in full-time employment, 82% had at least a four year-degree, 47% were living with a spouse or partner, and 50% had at least one child. The Psychological involvement scale measured members' connection to the organization (Beaton et al., 2009). This scale combines three facets of an individual's involvement with an entity: pleasure, centrality, and self-expression. Identity as a runner was measured using the Athletic Identity Scale, a multi-dimensional measure of an individual's sense of identity within a particular activity (Jun & Kyle, 2011).

### **Results and Discussion**

The results of a repeated measured ANOVA found no significant change in members' identification as runners ( $F = .37, p = .545$ ). However, there was a significant, positive interaction between members' change in their connection to the organization and their change in a running identity ( $F = 18.60, p < .001$ ). The stronger their connection to the organization became over the course of six months (i.e. the more pleasure they felt as members, the more central the organization became, and the more they felt the organization was a reflection of themselves), the stronger their identity as runners became. Furthermore, a pairwise T-test confirmed that this positive change in running identity was significantly greater for members who did not consider themselves runners before joining BGR! ( $t = 2.29, p < .05$ ). In other words, for those members who were not connected to running before they joined, their growing connection to the organization was more strongly linked to their growth as self-identified runners during this time frame. This supported previous literature suggesting that connection with a collective (in this case, BGR!), can foster social change such as the creation of a running identity for Black women (Simon et al., 1998).

### **Implications for Practice**

This study provides initial evidence that BGR!, as an "invention" by Black women for Black women, is facilitating a connection to the activity of running through an identity it offers its members. In creating this new identity, it offers change for the community of Black women in the U.S., providing them with an identification that promotes greater amounts of activity both within and outside of the organization, encouraging more African American women to engage in physical activity (as evidenced by its growing numbers). More broadly, it also contributes to changing the social norms surrounding what it means to be a runner. As organizations in general have the power to enact social change through collective action (Chikoto & Halicki, 2012), marginalized groups, through the creation of self-defined sport and physical activity organizations, may be able to use this power to create congruency between individuals' other salient identities and their connection with sport and physical activity.

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## SHAPING SPACES WITHIN A LONG-TERM CARE HOME TO BUILD COMMUNITY

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Immediately after a move to a long-term care (LTC) home, an individual's range of social networks narrows from the broader, geographical community-at-large to more limited, segregated interactions within the home and may represent a permanent loss of long-standing social roles, relationships and identity (Ice, 2002). Older adults who are able to maintain their family and social relationships cope better in LTC homes (Uhlenberg, 2003) and experience positive self-concept and high levels of self-esteem (Antonelli Rubini, & Fassone, 2000). Yet, in reality, many LTC homes do not support individuals in developing and/or maintaining valued relationships with community members outside of the facility, including life-long friends and acquaintances (Gubrium, 1993; Ice, 2002). In fact, most LTC homes are highly age segregated, providing few opportunities for residents to connect with members from the community-at-large.

Not only are LTC homes largely detached from the external community, they also often lack a sense of internal community (Ice, 2002; Mor et al., 1995). In fact, literature suggests a lack of meaningful stimulation and interaction within most LTC homes imbues the culture with an overwhelming sense of monotony. Bradshaw, Playford and Riazi (2012) concluded that many homes are sterile and devoid of meaningful experiences. The authors described how residents in LTC homes voiced significant concerns about lack of autonomy and negative implications to quality of life. A lack of privacy and dignity, regimented routines and a feeling of emptiness were all linked to a decreased sense of control and threats to sense of community. Buckley and McCarthy (2009) explored the relationships residents have with family, friends, other residents, and staff. Findings revealed that residents described their relationships with other residents as shallow, with few residents indicating they had a true friend in the home. A consequence of these characteristics has led Bill Thomas, founder of the Eden Alternative, to declare boredom, loneliness and helplessness as the three plagues of long-term care (Thomas, 2004).

A sudden disconnect from the geographical community, coupled with the consequences of institutional living, including decreased levels of self-esteem (Antonelli, et al., 2000) and a lack of autonomy (Rash, 2007) contribute to feelings of isolation by individuals living in a LTC home (Clare et al., 2008; Slama & Bergman-Evans, 2000). Recognizing that the communities to which we belong have a significant impact on our personal lives and contribute to our sense of identity, the purpose of this paper is to explore how community can be created in a LTC home.

### Methods

As part of a larger study that sought to explore the experiences of community for residents, family and staff, the focus of this paper is on data collected through one-on-one interviews with 11 staff members working in a LTC home in Ontario, Canada. Interviews were between 40 and 70 minutes, digitally recorded, and transcribed verbatim. Data were analyzed using van Manen's (1997) process of interpretive phenomenological analysis, layering holistic, selective and detailed readings of the text. Cross-checking of coding and data interpretation regularly took place between the first and second author during the analysis phase.

### Findings

Analysis revealed how efforts at grounding daily life in community enabled residents, family and staff to cultivate feelings of valued relationships within the LTC home. For instance, as described by a member of the nursing staff: *"We have a solid group of people who sit out in the coffee area every afternoon and it's not just residents. It's residents and their spouse, residents*

*and friends, residents and their grandchildren—they come and chat and have an afternoon cookie or coffee and it's neat because they do it every day and it's just habit and it feels great, like having your friends over for coffee”.*

Promoting opportunities for residents to engage in relationships with other residents, staff and family members, the LTC home recognized the importance of continued reciprocity. Here a staff member speaks to a resident's perception of a Saturday market: *“She's a gardener and she loves cut flowers and seeing all the produce and she said, “I just love the idea of spending a couple dollars.” She would always come down and buy a plant for her daughter, whether it's a perennial or some cut flowers or a couple peppers, it's always for her daughter. She's buying a gift herself to give to her daughter”.*

Additionally, staff acted as natural community builders, both within the LTC home and as key links between residents and citizens in the surrounding geographical community. Not only did staff reassure family members of the well-being of residents, they were also champions of the LTC home, assuring family in their decision to move a relative into the home: *“I'm born and raised here. I know people in town that, they'll bring their mother here and after a few weeks I'll see them downtown or something and they'll say, “How's my mom doing?” And I'll say, “Oh, she's doing fine.” And I always say, “You brought her to the right place. The care at this place is just enormous. It's just perfect”.*

### **Discussion and Implications**

In order to achieve an environment within LTC homes where “elders feel at home, family members enjoy visiting, staff are respected, listened to and appreciated, the care is good, [and] life is worth living” (Thomas, 2003, p. 142) approaches to care are moving beyond an emphasis on biomedical concerns to a growing recognition of the humanity of individuals living in LTC homes. At their core, these approaches describe simple ways in which people interact and relate to other human beings living in LTC homes. In direct contrast to Bill Thomas' (2004) three plagues of LTC living, we found examples of interdependence, meaningful engagement, and self-expression which fostered a greater recognition of the person living in the LTC home, family, friends and staff members and their combined contributions to experiences of daily living for someone living in a LTC home.

As we have written elsewhere (Fortune & Whyte, 2011) leisure could provide community members and those residing in LTC homes with opportunities to build community in ways that are mutually enhancing; however, these opportunities have yet to be fully realized. We argue that a re-imagining of these spaces as sites for inclusive leisure experiences can not only foster much needed social support for individuals living in LTC homes, but equally so for individuals within the geographical community. As the findings from this study demonstrate, formal and informal community-based initiatives provide the possibility for people to come together and engage. Genuine public spaces can bring residents together with other residents, staff, family, and members of the (larger) community. These spaces, such as a coffee shop or community market, not only function as in-house community spaces, but also imbed LTC homes within the larger community context. We draw on these findings to suggest ways for recreation managers and practitioners working in LTC to re-consider the spaces within the homes in which they work. Specifically, we will discuss ways such spaces could be open to more reciprocal exchanges and opportunities for social engagement.

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## **RECREATION PARTICIPATION IN OUT-OF-SCHOOL TIME PROGRAMS RELATED TO ENHANCED SCHOOL PERFORMANCE**

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**Introduction.** The 21<sup>st</sup> Century Community Learning Centers (CCLC) is the only federal funding source dedicated exclusively to out-of-school time (OST) programs to date. Administered through state education departments, funded programs receive five-year grants to provide academic enrichment opportunities to underserved youth. Although all types of youth-serving organizations are eligible for the grant competition, across the nation, the majority of the grantees are schools. In fact, the 2011 annual report conducted by the federal evaluator indicated that only one third of the funded programs are non-school-based youth-serving organizations, which includes but is not limited to: park and recreation departments, community-based organizations, nationally affiliated nonprofits such as Boys and Girls Clubs of America and YMCAs (Learning Point Associates, 2011). Limited involvement from leisure service providers means park and recreation programs receive fewer funds to support organizational stability and capacity in providing quality leisure services. Furthermore, unlike other types of OST programs that often offer limited types of programming (i.e., tutoring, sports clubs, drug prevention programs, etc.), 21<sup>st</sup> CCLC programs are known for its comprehensive curriculum that not only emphasizes academic learning, but delivers a wide range of non-academic enrichment opportunities such as arts, sports, media, and youth development activities. Because of the demand for non-academic programming, park and recreation professionals have the potential to play a key role in OST settings like 21<sup>st</sup> CCLC programs in delivering a wide range of quality leisure experiences to underserved youth. However, Witt (2001) found that many park and recreation professionals did not seek to be part of school-based after-school programs because they did not see how their practices and profession related to the educational gains of youth.

**Literature review.** Bronfenbrenner's bioecological theory emphasizes the importance of process, person, context and time, and the interactions among these four elements, to successful human development (Bronfenbrenner, 1995). In addition to childcare, OST programs have the potential to provide youth with meaningful relationships and activity engagement opportunities (process), meet the needs of individuals (person), immerse youth in structured learning environments (context) and encourage sustained participation (time) for positive youth development. Recreational activities, defined in its broadest term as any non-academic activities, including sports, arts, games, and youth development, are commonly used as the fun "hooks" to bring youth into an OST program (Lauer, Little, & Weiss, 2004). Although there are numerous evaluation reports and studies around OST impacts in the current literature, most present OST participation as a black box full of fun recreational activities (Fiester, Simpkins, & Bouffard, 2005). Even among the few studies that have compared differential effects of the types of activity participation (e.g., community service, sports, performing arts, academic clubs), most studies simply compared youth who participated vs. not participated without being able to illustrate how greater or fewer participation in certain types of activities could be related to different outcomes (e.g., Barber, Stone, Hunt, & Eccles, 2005). As one of the very few exceptions, Larson, Hansen, and Moneta (2006) found that participation in arts allowed youth to experience more positive relationships, and sports participation provided a context for youth to develop a greater sense of initiative, emotional regulation and teamwork. However, sport participation was also related to higher stress. On the other hand, participation in academic clubs

showed fewer personal and interpersonal growth opportunities. Although such a study provides insights on how different types of activity participation may affect youth differently, the comparison did not address contextual factors such as organizational cultures or program missions that may mediate the effects. Using a park and recreation lens, this study examines **whether participation hours in four types of recreational activities, (a) youth development, (b) sports, (c) recess/social time and (d) arts, relates to better teacher ratings on students' school behaviors and homework completion, and whether such relations vary depending on whether programs operated through school systems or leisure service providers.**

**Samples.** Using data from the Michigan 21<sup>st</sup> CCLC state evaluation, the sample for the analyses was drawn from 26,032 K-12 students during the 2012-13 regular school year. The population was evenly distributed between males and females; most were racial minorities (61%), low-income (82%) and academically low performing (81%). About 64% of the grantees were school-based, but 60% were actually operated by non-school-based organizations. The final sample includes 5,521 teacher surveys from 188 programs reporting on students with sufficient demographic data, attending 30+ days and having opportunities to participate in all four types of recreational activities (71% return rate). Youth's participating hours in each type of the activities were recorded in an online data tracking system, EZReports, as part of the grant requirement. The teacher survey asked teachers to rate individual student's performance on a 7-point scale (1 significant decline ~ 7 significant improvement), with an additional option to indicate if a student did not need to improve. The questions formed two measures: school behaviors (10 items, Cronbach's alpha=.97) and homework completion (3 items, Cronbach's alpha=.92).

**Methods.** Because of the multi-level nature of the data, HLM 6.02 was employed. The first step was to identify the contribution of the differences among programs to differences in youth outcomes. Results of the ICC scores indicated about 10% of the differences among teacher ratings were associated with program-level characteristics warranting the use of multi-level modeling. The second step was to get a baseline understanding of differences in average teacher ratings for students from different demographics or program operations regardless of the activities they participated in. At the last step, participating hours among different activity types were introduced in the model, with hours in academic activities used as a control variable while examining the relations between recreational activities in relation to teacher ratings.

**Results.** Data showed female students and students with limited English proficiency had better teacher ratings in general than their counterparts. Whether the program was operated by schools vs leisure service providers was not directly related to the outcomes. As expected, greater academic participation was related to improved homework completion. After controlling for significant demographic and academic participation factors, sports participation related to better teacher ratings; however, such small but significant effects were only found for programs operated by leisure service providers (See Table 1 for effect size and Figure 1 for illustration). No significant effects were found for other recreational activities.

**Implications for practice.** Results suggested sport participation in Michigan 21<sup>st</sup> CCLC programs run by a leisure service provider were positively associated with students' school performance compared to those operated by schools. This may be attributed to the different processes and expertise of leisure service providers compared to school personnel, and highlights the benefits of participating in non-school based recreation for enhanced learning experiences.

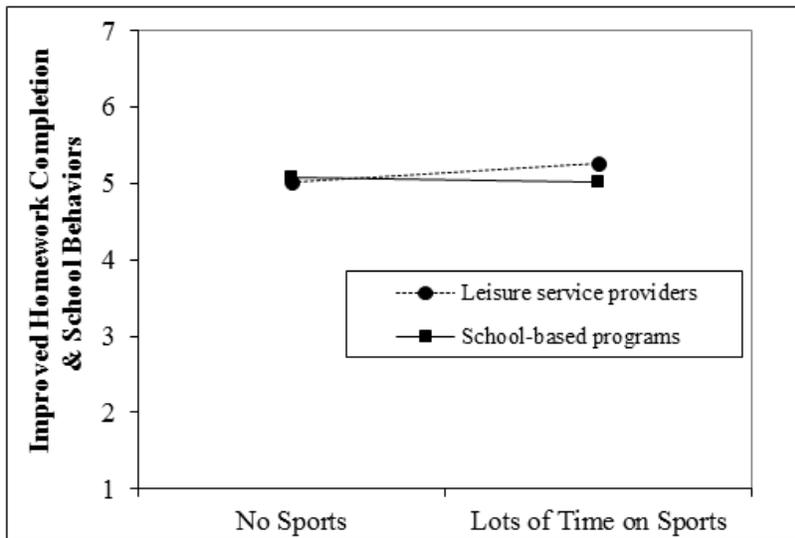
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**Table 1. Effect Sizes for Recreation Participating Hours Related to Teacher Ratings**

<i>Effect Size (r)</i>	<i>TEACHER REPORTS</i>	
	<i>Homework Completion</i>	<i>School Behaviors</i>
<b>Academic</b>	0.04**	0.04
<b>Free play &amp; social events</b>	0.01	0.00
<b>Sports</b>	0.05 <sup>(**)</sup>	0.05 <sup>(**)</sup>
<b>Arts</b>	0.00	0.00
<b>Youth development</b>	0.00	0.00
<b>Health and nutrition</b>	0.00	0.01
<b>Technology</b>	0.02	0.02

*NOTE.* Controlling for student demographic characteristics such as gender, grade level, race/ethnicity, low-income (free/reduced lunch status), limited English proficiency, academically low-performing and special education status. \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ . <sup>( )</sup> Interaction effect with program type.

**Figure 1. Effects of Sports Participating Hours Varied by Program Type**



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# **CULTURAL IMMERSION CAMP AND SOCIAL CONNECTEDNESS AMONG ASIAN AMERICAN ADOLESCENTS**

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## **Introduction**

Social connectedness plays an essential role in the everyday lives of adolescents, and is a key to positive personal development, lifestyle, and general health (Uchino et. al., 1996; Barber & Schluterman, 2008; Stoddard, McMorris & Sieving, 2011). The concept of social connectedness for adolescents was originally derived from attachment theory and Hirschi's theory of deviant behavior (Karcher, 2011). Attachment endows children with a sense of safety and subsequently drives them to bravely explore their environment. Extending attachment theory from childhood to adolescence, Hirschi's theory of deviant behavior states that bonding (i.e. connecting) within a socialization unit will likely affect adolescent's future behaviors positively (Hirschi, 1969). The degree of social connectedness to broad domains (e.g. family, school, friends & community) in adolescence is not only a factor for better health outcomes but also serves as protection against an array of risk behaviors, including mental health outcomes (Jose & Pryor, 2010; Jose, Ryan, & Pryor, 2012). From a Positive Youth Development perspective, social connection is a key factor in enabling young people to become fully functional adults (Lerner, et. al., 2005). However, for many youth of color the lack of social connection with family, friends and the community can lead to risky behaviors and severe mental health issues. The social environment of Asian American Adolescents (AAA) in particular, is a complex context due to internalized conflicts between Eastern (heritage) and Western (host) cultures. This conflict inhibits AAA maturation processes and is a significant source of stress (De Luca, Wyman, & Warren, 2012). Numerous studies have concluded that feelings of alienation and isolation among AAA arise when they become more acclimated to American culture and their connection with the value system of their parents diminishes or is in conflict (Rick & Forward, 1992; Lorenzo, Frost, & Reinherz, 2000; Umemoto & Ong, 2006; De Luca, Wyman, & Warren, 2012). The unique educational experience of camp serves as a facilitator to adolescent attachment (Catalano & Hawkins, 1996). As such, cultural immersion camps have been specifically designed to encourage cultural heritage awareness and connection among AAA. It was predicted that a cultural immersion camp might significantly reduce Asian American adolescents' mental health issues by increasing their level of ethnic identity, and thereby their social connectedness. Only a few studies have explored the relationship between ethnic identity and social connectedness. The predicted positive impact of the cultural immersion camp program on AAA would imply that an environment that positively reinforces their ethnic identity will in turn assist them in developing their sense of social connectedness.

## **Methods**

A total of 84 AAA from three cultural immersion camps participated in this study. Subjects were asked to fill out a pre-camp survey on the first day of camp, and then completed a post-camp survey on the last day. The survey assessed camp outcomes (64 response items). SPSS statistics 20 was used for data analysis. The dataset satisfies the requirements for paired t-test and regression statistics, thus permitting the valid inference of relationships. A paired t-test was used to examine the effects of camp experiences on adolescents' senses of ethnic identity and social connectedness. A linear regression model was applied to analyze the relationship between ethnic identity and social connectedness.

## **Results**

AAA's positive perceptions of both ethnic identity and social connectedness were increased through the cultural immersion camp experiences as demonstrated by a paired t-test analysis. Positive and significant beta coefficients between ethnic identity and social connectedness either in pre- or post-camp were also identified. Significant changes were found in both ethnic identity ( $p < .05$ ) and social connectedness ( $p < .05$ ). The gain scores were identified from mean difference scores (Ethnic identity  $\mu=5.50$  and Social Connectedness  $\mu=13.28$ ). The linear regression model ( $Y=B_0+X_1B_1$ ;  $Y$ =Social Connectedness,  $X$ = Ethnic Identity) was applied to both stages (i.e., pre- and post-camp) to explore the relationship between ethnic identity and social connectedness. The results indicate that the perception of ethnic identity will contribute to the level of social connectedness among AAA. Specifically, the slope change of two linear regression models indicates that ethnic identity has even stronger effects on levels of social connectedness after AAA have concluded the cultural immersion camp experiences.

## **Discussion**

The significant growth of ethnic identity and social connectedness among AAA is consistent with previous studies which showed that minority adolescents who gain cultural knowledge and ethnic pride for their ethnic group tend to have positive attitudes about themselves and their social environment. In comparing pre- and post camp experiences, the increasingly positive relationship between ethnic identity and social connectedness among AAA demonstrated that the level of social connectedness was significantly influenced by the perception of ethnic identity and ethnic group support. The intervention of cultural immersion camp experiences makes the relationship between ethnic identity and social connectedness even stronger. This suggests that the intervention focusing on ethnic identity construction and ethnic camp community support was important. Thus the findings of this study help to identify specific kinds of supportive resources that can promote AAA's levels of social connectedness.

## **Implications for Practice**

These findings highlight the significance of cultural immersion camp experiences as an important opportunity to significantly increase perceived levels of social connectedness among AAA. It also suggests that the potential importance of cultural immersion camps for minority adolescent social connectedness should be explored in more detail. One important step would be disaggregating the concepts of heritage, cultural knowledge, language, and ethnic identity to determine more specifically what elements have the greatest impact on perceptions of social connectedness. Researchers and youth practitioners might further explore other, perhaps latent, facilitators for the perception of social connectedness, and how these are related to the impacts of the immersion camp experience. Given the importance of family in Asian cultures, actively linking the family to the immersion camp could be important. Other demographic factors and additional community support might also serve as important elements enhancing AAA's social connectedness. Researchers also may wish to explore further how best to sustain the effects of the cultural immersion camp outcomes over time. Enduring long-term relationships among cultural immersion camp community members can be expected for minority adolescents who have a natural desire to stay engaged with people who hold similar values. There is a need to develop strategies to make it easier for minority adolescents to stay connected with their cultural immersion camp community members. This suggests a social ecological system perspective on promoting minority adolescents' social connectedness.

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**Table 1** Camp outcomes growth descriptive statistics

Variable		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Ethnic Identity (post)	62.7619	84	7.86424	.79912
	Ethnicity Identity (pre)	57.2619	84	7.32403	.85806
Pair 2	Social Connectedness (post)	126.8452	84	18.89380	1.63960
	Social Connectedness (pre)	113.5595	84	15.02717	2.06148

**Table 2** Camp outcomes growth *Pair Samples t-test*

PAIR		Paired Differences							
		M	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Differ.		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					Lower	Upper			
1	Ethnicity Identity (post) - (pre)	5.500	.94.35	.94.35	3.62969	7.3703	5.84	83	.000*
2	Social Connectedness (post)- (pre)	13.28	2.1870	2.1870	8.93584	17.635	6.07	83	.000*

\* $p < .05$ **Table 3** Linear Regression Model of Ethnic Identity and Social Connectedness

Variable	B	SE B	R	Sig
(Constant)	87.095	12.743		.000
Ethnicity Identity (pre)	.462	.221	.225	*.039
(Constant)	25.782	12.453		.042
Ethnicity Identity (post)	1.610	.197	.670	*.000

\* $p < .05$

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## **SERIOUS LEISURE PROFILES AND WELL-BEING OF OLDER ADULTS**

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The contribution of participating in leisure activities on promoting the well-being of older adults has been documented in numerous studies (e.g., Brown, McGuire, Voelkl, 2008; Everard, 1999; Kleiber, 2001; Nimrod, 2007; Siegenthaler & O'Dell, 2003). In contemporary society, the age of the world population is increasing at a rapid rate, as people are living longer. As such, examining the behavior of older adults warrants empirical attention. While there exists various forms of leisure participation, serious leisure is one form that characterizes the extent to which individuals are involved or committed to the activity (Stebbins, 1992). Earlier works of serious leisure examined a wide range of the population such as people with disabilities (Patterson, 2000), runners (Major, 2001), and football fans (Gibson, Willming, & Holdnak, 2002). Investigating the behavior of older adults using the serious leisure framework has been given attention in recent years. In studying older adults' serious leisure, a variety of activities have been investigated, including volunteering (Misener, Dotherty, & Hamm-Kerwin, 2010), shag dancing (Brown, McGuire, & Voelkl, 2008), and information seeking behavior (O'Conner, 2013).

While the aforementioned studies offer explorations of older adults' serious leisure experiences, the body of knowledge has been built by scholars in Western cultures. Perhaps exploring serious leisure using the population from non-Western cultures might provide insight to understanding the value of serious leisure. Furthermore, in spite of an increase in researches conducted using the serious leisure framework, few studies have addressed the well-being outcomes of serious leisure. The aim of the present study was to explore the association between involvement in serious leisure and well-being indicators (life satisfaction, happiness, and health perception) of older adults.

### **Methodology**

This study was based on a paper-and pencil survey of 192 older adults, age 61 and over, who were recruited at a local senior center in Korea. In order to collect samples, Goyang Senior Well-Being Center (GSWC) was chosen. GSWC provides not only activity classes, but also recreational facilities for free time such as line dance, table tennis, yoga, gate ball, weight training, and golf. This site consisted of over 20000 seniors who registered and attendance was 1500, more per day than usual. The survey was answered between the activity classes. Survey was processed voluntarily with the exception of presbyopia. The sample was collected in 2014 and was comprised of 67 (34.9%) males and 125 (65.1%) females. The mean of age was 73.3 (SD=6.35) and the majority of the participants (95.3%) were married.

The outcome variables in this study were life satisfaction, happiness, and health perception. Life satisfaction was measured by the 5-item Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larson, & Griffin, 1985). Items were rated on Likert-type scales of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The 4-item Subjective Happiness Scale developed by Lyubomirsky and Lepper (1999) was used to measure happiness. This instrument contains four items on a 7-point Likert-type scale. Health perception was assessed using one question: "How would you rate your own health at present?" Responses ranged from 1=poor to 5=excellent. Serious leisure was assessed using Gould et al.'s (2011, 338*p*) 18-item Serious Leisure Inventory and Measure (SLIM). This instrument measures central qualities of serious leisure that was classified by Stebbins (1992). It was rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale.

From the beginning the survey questionnaire, the demographic items were included: age, gender, and marital status. Additionally, leisure type and frequency, hour, and career were employed.

The hierarchical cluster analysis with Ward's method was used to identify subgroups of older adults based their scores on SLIM. The results of hierarchical cluster analysis provided two-cluster solution as best fit. The first cluster was labeled core devotees (n=98; 51.3%) as members of this group reported higher scores on characteristics of serious leisure. The second cluster was named moderate devotees (n=93; 48.6%). This classification was derived from Stebbins' (2007) theoretical scale of intensity of involvement. Hotelling's *T* square test was used to test for differences in outcome variables between the two clusters.

## **Results**

Hierarchical cluster analysis reported that participants could be grouped into core devotees (n = 98; 51.3%) and moderate devotees (n = 93; 48.7%). The gender ratio in two groups was 31 males (31.6%) and 67 females (68.4%) in core devotee. The moderate devotees were consisted of 36 males (38.7%) and 57 females (61.3%). It was identified that Labeled core devotees were reported higher score in the intensity of the serious leisure involvement regarding perseverance, significant effort, career progress, career contingencies, Identification with pursuit, and unique ethos in table 1. This theoretical scale of intensity of the leisure involvement was provided from Stebbins (2007, pp.20-21) in addition to the study of serious golfer by Siegenthaler & O'Dell (2003). Detailed demographic characteristics and participation pattern between the two groups were presented in Table 2. Age and gender were relatively consistent between the groups. Core devotees scored slightly higher on the frequency of participation in activity per week and average time spent on activity differed than the moderate devotees. As shown in Table 3, the results of the Hotelling's *T-square* test demonstrated that clusters made significant differences in this multivariate model ( $F = 10.04, p < .001$ ). With a Bonferroni adjustment to the alpha value, the univariate test of the outcome variables indicated that core devotees had significantly higher scores on life satisfaction ( $F = 23.43, p < .001$ ), happiness ( $F = 6.80, p < .005$ ), and health perception ( $F = 13.42, p < .001$ ). The core devotees had higher scores in terms of the level of SLIM in Table 4. This result sheds light on that consequent level of the seriousness accordance with leisure involvement wields great influence upon social and personal benefits in older adults.

## **Discussion**

Our findings contribute to an understanding in regard to how involvement in serious leisure is related to the indicators of well-being among older adults. The results revealed that core devotees of serious leisure have higher levels of life satisfaction, happiness, and health perception. In Siegenthaler and O'Dell's study of older adults, core devotees viewed serious leisure activity as a central focus of their life, and such involvement contributed to successful aging. The core devotees in our study reported higher scores on serious leisure characteristics than moderate devotees. It can be inferred that core devotees gained personal and social benefits (e.g., self-actualization, enjoyment, personal enrichment) from serious leisure activities, and such participation would lead to experiencing life satisfaction, happiness, and a better health. These results are consistent with Chen's (2014) study which suggested that serious leisure characteristics lead to higher levels of subjective well-being. A direction for future study might be to test the association between serious leisure and objective measures of well-being.

**TABLE 1.** Summary Statistics of Clusters

	Core Devotee		Moderate Devotee		Overall		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>
Perseverance	5.81	1.25	3.59	1.70	4.73	1.85	105.88*
Effort	5.42	1.61	2.56	1.40	4.03	2.08	171.95*
Career progress	5.79	1.34	2.98	1.53	4.42	2.01	182.02*
Career contingency	5.23	1.51	3.56	2.09	4.42	2.00	40.67*
Identity	5.60	1.62	3.44	1.54	4.55	1.91	89.17*
Ethos	6.04	1.21	4.14	1.67	5.12	1.73	82.09*

**TABLE 2.** Demographic characteristics and participation patterns between the clusters

	Core devotees		Moderate devotees	
	N (%)		N (%)	
Gender				
Males	31 (31.6%)		36 (38.7%)	
Females	67 (68.4%)		57 (61.3%)	
	Mean and SD		Mean and SD	
Age	72.40 (6.29)		74.26 (6.30)	
<sup>1</sup> Frequency of participation in activity (per week)	4.46 (1.92)		4.14 (2.08)	
<sup>2</sup> Average time spent on activity	2.19 (1.02)		1.99 (.92)	

**TABLE 3.** Means, standard deviations, and Hotelling's *T*-square test results

Variable	Core		Moderate		Overall		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>
Life satisfaction	5.09	1.38	4.84	1.39	4.97	1.39	22.43**
Happiness	5.91	1.25	5.41	1.53	5.67	1.41	6.80*
Health perception	4.13	1.06	3.53	1.22	3.84	1.18	13.42**

**TABLE 4.** Summary of Cluster Analysis in the Variables

Variables	Core Devotee		Moderate Devotee		Overall		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>
Self-enrichment	6.10	1.28	4.51	1.78	5.33	1.73	50.608*
Self-actualization	5.22	1.88	3.18	1.87	4.23	2.13	56.878*
Self-expression of abilities	5.27	1.94	3.01	1.59	4.17	2.10	76.903*
Self-expression of individuals	5.37	1.55	3.41	1.72	4.41	1.90	68.756*
Self-image	5.56	1.53	3.56	1.75	4.59	1.92	71.013*
Self-gratification-satisfaction	6.37	.999	4.98	1.77	5.69	1.58	45.216*
Self-gratification-enjoyment	6.56	.886	5.35	1.60	5.97	1.42	42.146*
Recreation	6.22	1.32	4.45	1.79	5.36	1.79	61.343*
Group attraction	5.92	1.50	4.69	1.87	5.32	1.80	25.121*
Group accomplishment	6.06	1.34	4.72	1.89	5.41	1.76	32.273*
Group maintenance	5.49	1.51	4.25	1.57	4.88	1.65	31.230*

Note. \* $p < .01$ , \*\* $p < .05$

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# **COLLAGE: AN ARTS-BASED METHOD FOR ANALYSIS AND REPRESENTATION**

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## **Introduction**

This paper is embedded within the fourth wave of race research in leisure studies, which places emphasis on broadening our discussions of race and racism to include issues of structural inequities, ideology, power, and white hegemony (Arai & Kivel, 2009). This wave also includes a call for the use of more diverse methodologies for examining race and racism (Arai & Kivel). This paper is founded, in part, on a decolonizing methodology, which recognizes the colonial, western influence in how we know things and what is privileged in research (Kovach, 2009). Art as a method of inquiry and representation enables “the fluidity of metaphor, symbolism, and interpretive communication (both verbal and non-verbal)”, ultimately privileging Indigenous ways of knowing (Kovach, p. 60). The presentation will discuss an arts-based process used in a participatory action research (PAR) project which explored and promoted healing with Aboriginal<sup>1</sup> women. The discussion will focus on the use of collage and the process involved in this arts-based analysis and representation.

## **Context**

The process presented stems from a study whose purpose was to examine Aboriginal women’s healing and the impact culturally meaningful supports, such as leisure, have on their healing. This project was done in collaboration with Minwaashin Lodge, an Aboriginal women’s support center in Ottawa, Ontario, Canada. Collaborators included an art-therapist from Minwaashin Lodge and eight Aboriginal women who participated in a three-day workshop to create a body-map (a life-sized canvas), which represented their experiences of healing. Data included these body-maps, along with a semi-structured interview with each woman about their body map. The project also incorporated artist talks and a variety of art exhibits in two Canadian provinces, Ontario and Quebec. Two of the exhibits were held in conjunction with Women Abuse Awareness Month at an art gallery, and then at a community center the subsequent year. Other exhibits occurred at Algoma University in Sault St. Marie, Ontario, a theater production titled, *Where the Blood Mixes*, and the *11th International Women’s World Congress*.

## **The Arts-Based Process of Analysis**

Given that PAR endeavors to create opportunities for citizens to play a significant role in all aspects of the research (Van Vlaenderen, 2004), data analysis was incorporated into the last day of the three-day workshop. This process involved the collective *witnessing* of each body-map (see Lu & Yuen, 2012). Witnessing involves seeing with presence and suspended judgment (Learmouth, 1994) while supporting and acknowledging the artist and her story. As the group walked around each canvas, words and phrases that described the body-map were said aloud. At the end of the viewing, each woman filled out a short form based on Solomon’s (2007) work with body-mapping. The form consisted of one fill-in-the-blank sentence. The example below contain the words of one woman as she reflected upon the body-map of another:

*When I see Roberta’s body map and I hear her story, I see a person living with transformation and hope.*

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<sup>1</sup> The term *Aboriginal* is an all-encompassing term to include people who identify themselves as status-Indians, Metis, non-status Indians, or Inuit. In Canada, *Native* and more recently *First Nations* are the official terms that have replaced *Indian*. Throughout my research, I generally use the term *Aboriginal*, though the people I have met referred to themselves using all four terms.

The process of witnessing served as a form of data analysis with the women. *Transformation* and *hope*, along with other words on the forms were then used to inform the author's creation of a collage using Adobe Photoshop. Collage "refers to a genre of art ...and refers to the process of cutting and sticking...materials on a flat surface" (Butler-Kisber, 2010, p. 102). The 'materials' in this instance were photos of the body-maps. As suggested by Butler-Kisber, collage was used to synthesis a process— in this case, the process of healing.

Using the women's analysis to inform the creation of the collage was inspired by Butler-Kisber's (2010) use of *collage in conceptualization*. She states, "after a research question has been articulated, a series, or a cluster of collages, are created to respond to the question" (p. 116). For this study, the questions were 1) What is healing for Aboriginal women? and 2) What is the impact of culturally meaningful supports on the process of healing? In accordance with Butler-Kisber's process, the collages were created from feeling, or a sense of experience. Some of the women's words from their fill-in-the-blank statements (e.g., transformation) were used for the collage titles which "represent the essence of what is being portrayed" (Butler-Kisber, p. 116).

### **Implications for Practice**

PAR began as part of an activist approach designed to empower marginalized populations and to encourage social action. While the intent is straightforward, the process is not. In order to empower and encourage, researchers must work with collaborators to find approaches that are engaging and interesting. During the discussions related to analysis, the women were not interested in participating in more traditional forms of analysis (i.e., thematic coding). Conversely, witnessing each other's art offered a meaningful way to engage in the analysis.

While witnessing provided a meaningful way for collaborators to take part in the research process, collage provided a meaningful method of representation. Collage helped alleviate the *crisis of representation* (Swandt, 2001) I experienced as I tried to find alternative ways to capture the lived experiences of healing. Collage elicits a sensory response that enables viewers to respond concretely and emotionally (Butler-Kisber, 2010). Such a response sets the foundation for engaging with others. In addition to creating opportunities for collaborators to engage in aspects of the research, PAR also strives to create social change (Van Vlaenderen, 2004). Using an arts-based method such as collage for representation can be associated with resisting oppression and moving beyond the margins. Notably, a public forum, such as an art exhibit, needs to be incorporated into the process for this social change to occur. The forum will ensure the involvement of both Aboriginal people and greater society. Aboriginal traditions and knowledge in North American's urban communities have been denigrated in virtual non-existence. As Spears (2006) highlights "the possibility of finding accurate information about Aboriginal culture...is beyond the reach of the average [person] because this information is suppressed within dominant communication systems" (p. 82). Using art as a form of representation makes the knowledge accessible and provides a platform for advocacy, education, and public discourse.

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## **ACCULTURATIVE STRESS AND SPECTATORSHIP OF SPORTS EVENTS AMONG INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS**

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The last few decades have witnessed a considerable increase in international students' enrollment in U.S. colleges and universities. Within the field of leisure studies, a significant body of literature has focused on examining the role of participation in leisure and physical activity in international students' adjustment process, which is oftentimes characterized by feelings of isolation, confusion and stress (deAraujo, 2011). There has been limited research, however, that examines the effectiveness of watching live sports events in reducing international students' acculturative stress. The objectives of this exploratory investigation that focused on first-year Chinese students at a large Midwestern university were two-fold: 1) To identify students' expected acculturative stress during the pre-immigration stage and the actual causes of the acculturative stress during the transition phase; 2) To explore the role of leisure participation, and watching American football in particular, in lowering international students' acculturative stress and in their adjustment process.

### **Methods**

The qualitative approach that utilized semi-structured in-depth interviews was adopted in this study. Purposeful criteria-based sampling was used to identify participants (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The interviewees included 15 first-year Chinese graduate students attending a large Midwestern university who had never studied in the United States before. The participants ranged in age from 21 to 25. Nine were female, and six were male. In order to participate in the study, participants had to attend three intercollegiate football games during the Fall semester, 2014. As incentives, the tickets for the football games were provided free of charge. The first round of in-depth interviews was conducted right after the beginning of the Fall semester. In order to investigate the change in international students' acculturative stress and the role of watching live football games in reducing acculturative stress, the second round of in-depth interviews was conducted at the end of the Fall 2014 semester. The semi-structured interview questions included, among others: "What stressful situations have you encountered after coming to the U.S.?" "How did watching live American football affect your feeling of acculturative stress?" Pseudonyms were used to protect participants' privacy and confidentiality. The interviews were transcribed and translated, and the analysis of the collected data was performed using constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

### **Results**

*Perceived acculturative stress at the pre-immigration stage and the actual causes of the acculturative stress during the transition stage.* In the pre-immigration stage, participants believed that language barrier would be the major stressor after arrival. However, the actual causes of acculturative stress turned out to be quite varied and included limited knowledge of American social norms, lack of socialization opportunities and perceived discrimination. Participants also revealed a feeling of being "in the middle," since maintaining contacts with other members of their ethnic group provided them a feeling of comfort but also visibly slowed down their adaptation process. Moreover, participants reported a number of instrumental as well as societal factors (Caplan, 2007) leading to acculturative stress, including high academic expectations, cultural differences, and language barrier. Dimensions of acculturative stress were

found to be interrelated rather than separate. For example, interviewees revealed a desire to build bridges to the mainstream culture and community but faced stressors related to language barrier, lack of cultural familiarity, and cold reception from the mainstream students.

*The influence of watching live sports events on acculturative stress and adaptation.* Participants mentioned a number of leisure activities they were actively involved in and discussed the roles of leisure participation (both positive and negative) in dealing with acculturative stress. Interviewees believed that watching football was partially effective in alleviating acculturative stress in the short term. They reported that watching live football games not only provided them with opportunities to bridge out to different ethnic groups and to build social networks, but also created a liminal space that allowed them to forget about daily pressures and to release stresses. The effectiveness of watching football games in alleviating acculturative stress was limited however, as the students' knowledge of the sport was quite rudimentary and they were unable to have in-depth conversations with American football fans. Moreover, due to time constraints, mainstream graduate students could devote little time to leisure activities, including watching football. Additionally, most of the Chinese students were accustomed to home-based leisure activities. They also discussed the potential negative effects of watching live football games, including increased stress due to loss of potential study time.

## **Discussion**

The findings helped to increase our understanding of the acculturative stress experienced by Chinese international students and the roles of leisure participation and watching live football games in lowering the stress. In line with previous research (Hwang, Wood, & Fujimoto, 2010), acculturative stress was found to be mainly triggered by the lack of language skills and understanding of the new social norms. The viewership of football games assisted international students in lowering acculturative stresses through promoting opportunities for socialization and communication with mainstream students, by helping to build bridges to the broader community, developing new interests, and helping to learn about the American culture.

## **Implications for practice**

Numerous organizations such as recreation and athletic departments, university career centers, student unions, and campus churches assist with the adaptation of an increasing number of international students attending American universities. They provide international students-orientated services and events that include activities focused mainly on language acquisition and introducing American culture to the newcomers. Based on the findings of this study, a number of recommendations can be made to maximize these organizations' ability to assist incoming foreign students. First, campus services and organizations should coordinate their efforts, work on seamless exchange of information regarding the needs and barriers experienced by the foreign students, and develop a portfolio of events, such as watching live sports event, which would allow for the development of social networks. Second, leisure activities need to be organized in such a way that any potential negative effects such as stress can be minimized. Third, campus administrators should provide foreign students with detailed information regarding adaptation challenges they may encounter and the ways to lower acculturative stress *before* they arrive on campus when students have the time and desire to prepare themselves for the new experience. Lastly, both the students and the faculty advisors and administrators should be provided with information and training to help them understand the complexity of the adaptation process.

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