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Abstracts from the
2018 NRPA Research Sessions

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Preface

Welcome to the 41st year of research presentations at the Annual Conference of the National Recreation and Park Association. This year marks the 4th year these presentations have held the NRPA Research Sessions (NRS) title. Beginning at the 2015 Conference, research sessions were retitled, and refocused to put greater emphasis on applicability of research to practice and attention to implications for practitioners. Thematic areas for abstracts now reflect the NRPA pillars; Health and Wellness, Conservation, and Social Equity. Other 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. An additional category has been included to capture any “Other” submissions that may fit the scope of the conference and the spirit of the NRPA Research Sessions.

The format changes are reflected in the content of the abstracts as well as in the approach to the oral and poster presentations. While this has resulted in fewer submissions, the intent is that the material will be more relevant to the audience, and more attended by participants. This year we received 37 abstracts for review, including one panel presentation. Of those, 22 oral presentations (including one panel) and 9 posters are included in this year’s sessions. All of the abstracts were double 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 2018 NRPA Research Sessions commence on Wednesday, September 26 at 2:30 p.m. with the George Butler Lecture, an invited keynote lecture on an emerging topic in parks and recreation. The 2018 Butler Lecture Speaker is Dr. Andrew Mowen, Professor of Recreation, Park and Tourism Management at The Pennsylvania University. Dr. Mowen will address the value and priority of recreation and parks to local government officials in relationship to other government services. The abstract for this keynote appears as the first in this booklet. Oral presentations for the 2018 Research Sessions will begin on Thursday, September 27 at 9:45 a.m. The poster session will be held in the Exhibit Hall this year, allowing more attendees to view and interact with research. The posters will be available beginning at 12:00 p.m. on Wednesday, September 26.

The organization of the NRPA Research Sessions is a collaborative effort. Our thanks go out to the review coordinators and reviewers whose dedication and willingness to serve are much appreciated. Their names are listed on the following page. 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. Tina Liang for coordinating the poster session. We also extend our thanks to the presenters for sharing their work and the moderators for facilitating the sessions.

Shu Cole and Benjamin Hickerson
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THE RELATIVE PRIORITY OF PARKS AND RECREATION: WHERE WE ARE AND WHITHER WE ARE TENDING

Andrew J. Mowen, Professor
Department of Recreation, Park and Tourism Management
The Pennsylvania State University

While Americans continue to utilize, value, and derive considerable benefits from governmental park and recreation services (PRS), the notion that we are an essential service is a myth. Recent evidence from Census and national-level data demonstrates that park and recreation funding is one of the most volatile or discretionary priorities for local elected and appointed officials. When times are good, PRS enjoys significant increases in operational and capital investment; when times are bad, PRS are among the hardest hit compared to other local services (e.g., police, fire, education). Moreover, given current economic and demographic trends, it is concerning that older, lower-income, African-American, disabled, and rural Americans are less likely to use and perceive benefits from local parks when compared to national data from 25 years ago. Further, local officials’ number one priority for their community is economic development (i.e., attracting and retaining businesses), a priority they do not perceive PRS as being a key contributor to. For PRS to address these gaps, a collective focus on advocacy, positioning, mastering public-private partnerships, and developing resilient financial sources is warranted.

Dr. Andrew J. Mowen is a Professor in the Department of Recreation, Park and Tourism Management at The Pennsylvania State University. He began his career as the Manager of Research for Cleveland Metroparks. Dr. Mowen’s work focuses on the contribution of parks and protected areas in promoting a range of individual and community benefits and he has published over 80 peer-reviewed articles focused on these issues. Notably, Dr. Mowen was the lead researcher for NRPA’s national survey of Americans’ use of local parks as well as their study of local officials’ priorities. His current projects assess the impact of urban parks and programs on health and social cohesion as well evaluating the efficacy of cost recovery strategies in parks and recreation. Dr. Mowen is a member of the American Academy for Park and Recreation Administration and serves on the editorial board for the Journal of Leisure Research and the Journal of Park and Recreation Administration.

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URBAN GREENWAYS AND SOCIAL EQUITY IN DIVERSE COMMUNITIES
Lincoln R. Larson, NC State University
Samuel J. Keith, University of Georgia
C. Scott Shafer, Texas A&M
Brandon Harris, Clemson University
Chuck Flink, Greenways Incorporated
Mariela Fernandez, Clemson University

Greenways provide ecological services and recreation opportunities that promote urban quality of life (Gobster, 1995; Larson et al., 2016; Shafer et al., 2000), but these benefits are often inequitably distributed (Kabisch & Haase, 2014). Social equity in the development and utilization of urban greenways has therefore become a prominent concern. For example, some research suggests that even when greenways are present, certain populations are less likely to use them for social and cultural reasons (Lindsey et al., 2001; Starnes et al., 2011). Many studies also show that a vast majority of greenway users are white, high income, and highly educated compared to non-users – even when those greenways pass through racially and economically diverse neighborhoods (Coutts & Miles, 2011; Lindsey et al., 2006). In other words, despite having access to greenways, historically disadvantaged groups often have the lowest chance of experiencing benefits related to use of urban trails. These findings have raised many questions about the social impacts of greenways, generating debates about discrepancies in the anticipated and realized goals of urban trails and the populations they are designed to serve (Keith et al., 2018). Central to this discussion is the issue of gentrification, an important unintended impact of park and greenspace expansion in historically disadvantaged communities. In many places where parks and greenways are constructed to address environmental justice concerns, reduce disparities, and improve quality of life (by enhancing physical and mental health, reducing crime, etc.) evidence often suggests that property values increase, demographic transition occurs, and benefits remain inequitably distributed (Immergluck & Balan, 2017; Wolch et al., 2014). For all of these reasons, we must develop a more holistic understanding of the social, environmental, and economic consequences of urban park and greenway development (Starnes et al., 2011). Continued clarification of the various functions and purposes of greenways would help planners and managers recognize how different types of urban trails are utilized by different populations, how these trails impact broader urban environments, and how different stakeholder groups can be effectively engaged throughout the greenway planning and management process. Drawing on research from multiple case studies in cities around the country, this interactive panel session will help participants identify strategies for integrating community needs and cultural context into greenway planning and management. Specifically, through three related segments and subsequent group discussions, the panelists will focus on the following

Applications to Practice Outcomes:

1) Discuss demographic differences in greenway use patterns and preferences. Sam Keith (Univ. of Georgia) and Dr. Scott Shafer (Texas A&M Univ.) will discuss their study of urban trail users in diverse neighborhoods of Atlanta and San Antonio, investigating who is using urban greenways, why, constraints to use, and perceived greenway-related benefits.

2) Analyze unintended social and economic consequences associated with urban greenway development. Brandon Harris (Clemson Univ.) will discuss his study of the newly constructed 606 Trail in Chicago, focusing on the effects of trail construction on crime patterns in trail proximate-neighborhoods and the ways in which unintended green gentrification can reinforce intimate segregation and impact community identity and character.
3) Develop strategies for enhancing social equity by productively engaging diverse communities in greenway planning and management. Chuck Flink (Greenways, Inc.) and Dr. Mariela Fernandez (Clemson Univ.) will discuss their experiences planning and studying parks and greenways in diverse communities across the United States, highlighting evidence-based best practices for ensuring that all stakeholder groups have a voice in these efforts.

**Part 1 - Greenway Use Patterns & Preferences across Diverse Neighborhoods**

**Speaker: Samuel J. Keith**  
*Warnell School of Forestry & Natural Resources, University of Georgia*

Sam Keith is a Ph.D. student at the University of Georgia, where his work focuses on greenway use and management across diverse urban contexts. His Masters thesis at Clemson University studied urban trail users in Atlanta and San Antonio.

**Speaker: C. Scott Shafer**  
*Dept. of Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences, Texas A&M University*

Dr. Scott Shafer is a Professor and Department Head in Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences at Texas A&M University. His work focuses on environmental planning and design for outdoor recreation, and he has published extensively on the topics of greenway planning and management.

**Abstract:**

Greenways represent corridors of benefits with a unique capacity to contribute to sustainable urban development, yet more research is needed to understand the extent to which greenway-related benefits are realized and distributed across diverse populations and settings. Using intercept surveys of greenway users during summer 2015, our study explored use patterns and preferences along two trails traversing diverse neighborhoods: the Eastside Trail in Atlanta, GA (n=505), and the Leon Creek Greenway in San Antonio, TX (n=429). Descriptive statistics and regression-based analyses revealed that exercising and escaping the stress of city life were the top motivations for visiting both trails, and safety and security were rated as top concerns among visitors (particularly women and racial/ethnic minorities). On the urban Eastside Trail, where more users accessed the trail by foot or bicycle and engaged in a variety of trail-based activities, cultural benefits linked to social interaction and community connectivity were more widely acknowledged. On the suburban Leon Creek Greenway, where most visitors tended to travel longer distances to access the trail, typically for physically-active recreation, experiential benefits stemming from outdoor recreation in natural settings were more strongly recognized. Both trails attracted substantial numbers of racial/ethnic minorities, with Hispanics and other non-white users representing about 55% of Leon Creek Greenway and 32% of Eastside Trail visitors. Social and nature-based motivations were more common among these user groups. Planners and managers can utilize these results to identify strategies for maximizing greenway-related benefits among diverse groups of potential trail users.

**Part 2 - Greenways and Green Gentrification: A Case Study of Chicago’s 606**

**Speaker: Brandon Harris**  
*Department of Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Management, Clemson University*

Brandon Harris is a Ph.D. student in the Dept. of Parks, Recreation, & Tourism Management at Clemson University. His current research focus is on social identity and its influence on recreational interest, social justice issues within both the collegiate and urban environments, stigma as a leisure constraint, and the impact of social and built environmental constructs on human behavior and emotion. His dissertation work is exploring the broader social, cultural and economic impacts of greenway development in Chicago.
Abstract:
Parks and greenways provide many benefits to communities of color. However, the benefits of these parks or greenways may be attenuated or, in time, eliminated due to the presence of green gentrification. This process, which begins with the establishment of new green spaces in historically divested communities, leads to increased tension over space ownership, a deterioration of the social and cultural fabric of communities, and residential displacement. The threat is heightened when a community of color is located in close proximity to a predominantly White community. In these cases, green gentrification is seen by local developers and speculators as a pragmatic way to “clean-up” and resell the neighborhood. In response to the threat of gentrification, residents of communities of color may elect to self-segregate in park or greenway segments located in their neighborhood, a process known as intimate segregation. Using a mixed method approach consisting of intercept interviews (n = 86) and observational data collected through the System for Observing Play and Recreation in Communities (SOPARC) (n = 4556) during the summer of 2016, our study explored the relationship between intimate segregation and green gentrification on Chicago’s 606, a 2.7 mile linear greenway that connects the Puerto Rican neighborhood of Humboldt Park with that of the more affluent White West Town neighborhoods. Data were analyzed using both logistic regression models and thematic analysis. Quantitative results showed The 606 to be a binary environment, significantly divided based on race – providing evidence of intimate segregation. Qualitative interviews supported these findings, revealing that Puerto Rican trail users from Humboldt Park often isolated themselves in trail segments located within the neighborhood based on feelings of discrimination and enclave protection (i.e., green gentrification resistance). The study helps bring attention to the urban greenway paradox, providing additional evidence for park and greenway disparities and inequalities in urban resource planning and management.

Part 3 - Engaging Diverse Communities in the Greenway Planning Process

Speaker: Chuck Flink, FASLA
President, Greenways Incorporated

Charles “Chuck” Flink, FASLA, is one of the nation’s leading greenway planners and designers, having completed comprehensive greenway, trail, and open space plans for more than 225 communities within 36 states as well as consulting work in a variety of countries. During the past 35 years, Chuck has worked to develop successful greenway projects in several disadvantaged neighborhoods in Detroit, MI, Memphis, TN, Miami, FL, Nashville, TN, Springdale, AR, and Durham, NC. Chuck is known for his participatory planning and community engagement work. He was elected to the American Society of Landscape Architects Council of Fellows in November 2003. He is Professor of the Practice at the College of Design, North Carolina State University in Raleigh, NC.

Abstract:
Generally speaking, greenways are not going to be ranked as a top priority for disadvantaged communities. Jobs, public safety, access to quality food, health care, affordable housing and many other issues often rank much higher in need. Communicating the relevance and importance of greenways to residents of disadvantaged neighborhoods is therefore challenging and conducting meaningful engagement within these communities can be difficult. There are, however, examples where greenway development has enriched the lives of residents by providing jobs, improving access to the outdoors for self-directed health and wellness activity, offering choice in mobility and transportation, and celebrating diversity and culture. Specific case studies featured in this presentation will include the Miami River Greenway, Northwest Arkansas Razorback Regional Greenway and the Wolf River Greenway in Memphis. Methods of engagement will be discussed and evidence based best practices will be defined.
Speaker: Mariela Fernandez  
*Department of Parks, Recreation & Tourism Management, Clemson University*

Mariela Fernandez is an Assistant Professor in the Dept. of Parks, Recreation, & Tourism Management at Clemson University. Her current research agenda uses a social and environmental justice lens to examine park disparities in Latino neighborhoods. Two major questions guiding her work include “How do park disparities affect the health outcomes and behaviors of Latino residents?” and “What strategies are Latino residents, governments, and community organizations using to address park disparities?”

**Abstract:**

Community and park planners make improvements to the built environment to positively influence health outcomes. An important component of improving the built environment includes engaging community members in the planning process. Yet attempts to engage community members have not always been successful, particularly for Latinos living in the United States (e.g., Israel et al., 2006; Rowel et al., 2012). The limited engagement among Latinos has been explained by their low-income and ethnic status, which prioritizes employment and family matters, respectively. Consequently, this study examined the specific strategies and tactics utilized by a grassroots nonprofit organization to engage Latino residents to advocate for more equitable green space in their neighborhood. The research utilized a case-study approach focused on Chicago’s Little Village neighborhood. Data were collected via individual interviews and the information was gathered through historical and archival documents, websites, and participant observations during community meetings. Findings revealed that a social justice approach, community organizing, and democratic leadership were instrumental in engaging residents. The study also stressed the importance of cultural competence when engaging residents in park and greenway-related projects.

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References


SOCIALLY ASSISTIVE ROBOTS: AN INNOVATIVE LEISURE EXPERIENCE FOR OLDER ADULTS AT COMMUNITY SENIOR RECREATION CENTERS

Jennifer A. Piatt, Indiana University-Bloomington
Selma Sabanovic, Indiana University-Bloomington
Casey Bennett, Indiana University-Bloomington
Lori Eldridge, Indiana University-Bloomington

Introduction and Rationale

As health care has continued to advance, older adults are living longer and independently within their own homes. To further complicate this demand for services from the local community, more and more family members (i.e., adult children, grandchildren, siblings) are unavailable locally to participate in community, family, and home activities socially with the older adult (Daily, 2017; Ward, Schiller, Goodman, 2012). As a result of this new family dynamic, older adults are experiencing more self-isolation, loneliness, and lack of daily interactions with others (Piatt et al, 2016). Furthermore, depression, with an estimated annual cost of $83 billion in health care dollars, currently ranks as one of the top ten chronic illnesses within the United States and is extremely prevalent among the older adult population. Prior research has demonstrated that leisure professionals can play a significant role increasing independence and decreasing the onset of secondary health conditions that lead to long term care and institutionalization of the individual (Shiau-Fang Chao, 2014).

This shift in health care has led to a greater demand on the local parks and recreation industry to provide unique and innovative leisure experiences outside of long-term care that promote health and active lifestyles. Socially assistive robots (SARs), a new and unique programming concept, may be one-way community recreation centers who serve older adults can address depression and self-isolation. SARs are best described as a form of assistive technology developed to facilitate social interaction rather than physical interaction and have proven to be beneficial with the older population (Piatt, et al, 2016; Tapus, Mataric, & Scassellati, 2007). The SAR utilized within this project was the seal-like companion, Paro, designed to be facilitated as a form of animal assisted therapy. As hospital days continue to decrease and health care shifts away from being provided only within institutional settings, SARs, and specifically PARO, appears to be an appropriate addition to wellness programs within community recreation that focus on the older adult population.

Application to Practice

Prior research suggests that SARs have positive psychological, physiological, and behavioral effects (Tapus, et al., 2007)). SARs can provide social engagement to older adults, ultimately reducing self-isolation (Bemelmans, 2012) and loneliness (Libin & Libin, 2004; Piatt et al, 2016). SARs have only started to be facilitated in community and home setting and most research and therapeutic interventions have occurred in institutions (i.e. assisted living, nursing homes).

This research team has completed prior research that has assessed outcomes associated with older adults with major depression disorder (MDD) who used Paro (an animal-like seal SAR) in their home environment for 4 weeks. Data were collected through the PHQ-9 scale, and from the wearable and robot sensors used to predict changes in the depression status of older adults living in the community (Bennett et al., 2017). Results from our research studies has demonstrated that Paro is an appropriate intervention in the community for the older adult population. The research demonstrated that the interaction with the SAR was associated with a significant decrease in participant’s depression level as measured by the PHQ-9 scale, and the data from wearable and robot sensors can be used to predict changes in the depression status of older adults living in the community (Bennett et al. 2017).

Since several community recreation centers focus on programmatic needs of the older adult population, SARs, and specifically Paro may be a positive intervention within wellness and
animal assisted therapy programs. In addition to the shift in health care in the community, there is also a shift to encourage people to live independently within the home environment as long as possible and delay the transition to institutional care. Including Paro within the programmatic needs of the older adults can decrease symptoms associated with major depressive disorder, and promote social interaction. Furthermore, Paro can be a cost-effective and realistic form of animal assisted therapy.

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References


EMPLOYED COLLEGE STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF FREE TIME
Katherine A. Jordan, Clemson University
Denise M. Anderson, Clemson University

Introduction
College students with few leisure skills (knowledge, interests, and technical skills) experience boredom (i.e., long for an activity but unaware of what to do) during free time that can lead to risky behaviors such as alcohol and substance use as well as sedentary behaviors such as watching TV and surfing the internet (Eastwood, Frischen, Fenske, and Smilek, 2012; Panek, 2014; Payne, Ainsworth, and Godbey, 2010; Shinew and Parry, 2005). Studies focusing on free time management, free time motivation, and boredom during free time have highlighted important findings concerning the necessity of having leisure skills (Caldwell, Baldwin, Walls, and Smith, 2004; Hickerson and Beggs, 2007; Wang, Kao, and Wu, 2011). College student free time use might also be impacted by their level of involvement in extracurricular activities as a child and young adolescent. Studies suggest that being overscheduled has adverse effects including activity related stress, reduced leisure time, and reduced family time (Brown, Nobiling, Teufel, and Birch, 2011; Quist, 2007). Being overscheduled in childhood and adolescence might impact one’s ability to build leisure skills, thus leading to boredom during unstructured free time (i.e., time that is not scheduled, structured, or planned out).

Rationale
Researchers argue that college students today have more free time, specifically time outside of academics and related activities, than they have in the past (Babcock and Marks, 2010), thus increasing the importance of learning leisure skills and how to manage one’s time effectively to gain the most benefit from one’s free time (Chen, Yarnal, Hustad, and Sims, 2016). Employed college students, however, might not have as much free time available as their non-employed peers. This study, as part of a larger study on the effects of term-time employment on college students, explored the role employment and pre-college life experiences played in free time attitudes and behaviors.

Methods
Participants in this exploratory qualitative study were undergraduate students employed on campus in the Federal Work Study program (FWS), the University Professional Internship and Co-op program (UPIC), and/or through general part-time opportunities on campus unaffiliated with the FWS or UPIC programs. Participant recruitment emails were sent to undergraduate students in work programs as well as academic classes. Participants had to be at least 18 years old, undergraduate students, and employed on campus to be included in the study. The primary method of data collection was semi-structured interviews that occurred in person, followed an interview guide, and lasted between 30 minutes and one and one-half hour (n=34) (see Table 1 for participant characteristics). Interviews were recorded, transcribed verbatim, and checked for accuracy against the recordings. To increase trustworthiness, the researcher employed two additional researchers to assist in the coding, categorization, and theming of the data as suggested by Roulston (2010) and verified interview summaries with participants (i.e., member checking).

Results
Theme 1- Employed college students have highly structured schedules. On top of academic and employment responsibilities and time commitments, all but six participants were involved in organized extracurricular activities including sororities and fraternities, intramural and club sports, personal interest clubs and organizations, and academic clubs and organizations. Time commitment wise, these participants appeared to be busy and for the most part, did not have a lot of time available that was not dedicated to responsibilities, both required and voluntarily chosen. Their time was highly structured with little to no unstructured free time. Once participants discussed employment and extracurricular involvement, they were asked what else
they did outside of employment, academics, and organized extracurricular activities. It became apparent that there were two groups of participants. **Theme 2** - those who knew what to do with unstructured free time were comfortable with unstructured free time and **Theme 3** - those who did not know what to do with their unstructured free time experienced boredom during this time. Those who were bored during unstructured free time liked being busy or performed better when they were busy (sub-themes of theme 3). This feeling stemmed from having either worked since they were legally able, having been heavily involved in extracurricular activities during high school, and/or having been raised in a busy household.

**Discussion and Application to Practice**

The findings from this study highlighted two issues that should be further explored as well as considered when planning and implementing recreation and leisure programming. First, while organized and structured free time activities have benefits, it is important to question whether being overly involved can negatively impact one’s ability to manage unstructured free time. While well intentioned, it appeared that for some participants, being involved in clubs and sports during their free time kept them from building the skills necessary to know what to do when faced with periods of unstructured free time. This is an issue that should be further explored. Being unable to manage unstructured free time leads to boredom and boredom has been linked with negative leisure behaviors. Practitioners and researchers alike should consider the purpose of structured free time activities and ways that these activities might be utilized to provide skills necessary to be engaged in positive recreation and leisure behaviors during unstructured free time (e.g., leisure education programming). Second, employment also played a role in issues with boredom during unstructured free time. These participants had worked for several years by the time they began college and expressed higher levels of financial need than their peers in this study. Due to their employment history as well as current employment, these participants were ill prepared for unstructured free time and relied on being busy to avoid unstructured free time. This finding highlights the role socioeconomic status might play in unstructured free time attitudes and behaviors, specifically how avoidance of unstructured free time contributes to busyness and vice versa. This finding also raises the question of whether the development of leisure skills and the ability to function during unstructured free time is a privilege. These issues need to be further explored to better understand the impact socioeconomic status and employment has on the ability to manage unstructured free time. In sum, this study provided insight into the phenomenon of busyness and boredom during unstructured free time. Having the skills necessary to engage in unstructured free time has lifelong health implications and can assist in coping with life transitions. Yet if free time is highly scheduled and structured, opportunities to play, explore, imagine, or to simply be in the moment are lost. While there are benefits to involvement in structured free time activities, they might be taking away from one’s ability to function during unstructured free time and inadvertently driving those who are bored during unstructured free time into a constant state of busyness. Practitioners should consider offering programs that are fun while also educational so participants can gain skills and the competence to feel comfortable when faced with periods of unstructured free time. Practitioners should also create spaces and opportunities for people to engage in unstructured free time.

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References


Rationale
Leisure, as a conceptual foundation for the parks and recreation profession, has waxed and waned over the years. Along with the infusion of leisure theory and research into academic preparation programs and the professionalization of the field (i.e., establishing a unique body of knowledge) in the late 1970s and 1980s, debates about the relevance of one to the other have been ongoing. In fact, Samdahl (2016) claimed “…like water and oil, recreation practitioner training and the scholarly study of leisure were thrown together but did not mix” (p. 9). But she also acknowledged the possibility that “theory and research that has been adopted into the undergraduate curriculum enhances students’ preparation, but that point is best judged by practitioners” (p. 8). As a word, leisure has been problematic over the years due to its association with free time or slow-paced, relaxing activities. While academic departments in the U.S. appear to be distancing themselves from the word “leisure” largely due to a lack of resonance with the public (Parr, 2014), there is evidence that the word has permeated the identity of professional parks and recreation practice. The Commission for Accreditation of Park and Recreation Agencies (CAPRA) was created in 1993, establishing benchmarks for the delivery of high-quality services (2009). These standards are revised every five years to reflect changes in best practices over time. Parr (2016) reviewed each edition of the CAPRA standards to determine the extent to which “leisure” (both word and concept) appeared in the standards. The “conceptual foundations of play, recreation, and leisure” as a basis for determining programs and services, and “education for leisure,” appear in every addition of the CAPRA Standards since 1996. The purpose of this analysis, as part of a larger study, was to determine the extent to which the word “leisure” is used in agency application materials and how agencies interpret the concept based on the evidence provided for the “program determinants” standard. This information can assist agencies in their accreditation process and shed light on how “leisure” is interpreted in light of the evidence provided.

Method
Throughout the CAPRA National Accreditation Handbook, applicants are referred to relevant chapters in the latest editions of Management of Park and Recreation Agencies for guidance. In the chapter “Program Services and Event Management,” Edginton & O’Neil (2011) provide the following characteristics of recreation, play, and leisure experiences: freedom/choice; creative, spontaneous expression; quality of life; wise use of leisure; promote a land ethic; promote and protect human dignity; enhance social, physical, mental, and spiritual wellbeing/growth and development; pursuit of joy and pleasure: excitement; challenge; and community building. A request was sent to all agencies accredited through CAPRA listed on the NRPA website (N=142) (http://www.nrpa.org/certification/accreditation/CAPRA/accreditedagencies/). Agency representatives (n=34) provided copies of their most recent self-study, either via email attachment, dropbox, or CD. Agency responses for standard 6.1.1 - Program Determinants were cut and pasted into a table for ease of analysis. The number of different modifiers each agency used with the word leisure was tabulated (e.g., leisure programs, leisure opportunities). Additionally, references to the 11 characteristics, by agency, were tabulated.

Results
Of the 34 agencies, 12 did not use the word leisure in their narrative or supporting documents for Standard 6.1.1. Thirteen agencies used one modifier, 8 used 2 different modifiers, and 1 agency used 3. Table 1 shows the frequency of each modifier and the number of agencies using each one. “Leisure” was mentioned seven times without a modifier. Table 2 shows the frequency of each of the eleven characteristics with which the agencies contextualized the concept of leisure. Each instance of a characteristic was counted separately. Five of the
agencies did not mention any of the characteristics, 11 used 1-3 characteristics, 14 used 4-5 characteristics, and 4 used 6-7 characteristics in their documentation.

**Application**
Since accreditation of recreation and park curricula began in the mid-1980s, generations of professionals have been educated with a background in leisure theory and philosophy; many of whom are instrumental in developing and executing the best practices encompassed in the CAPRA Standards. Previous research showed that leisure has been a part of the standards since their inception. Hence the claim that “The great experiment of the 1970s was a failure…” (Samdahl, 2016, p. 9) was perhaps overstated at best. This analysis examined how conceptual foundations of recreation, leisure, and play are evidenced in day-to-day practice. NRPA has embraced parks and recreation as vehicles to address social issues related to health and wellbeing, conservation of natural and cultural resources, and social equity. Overwhelmingly, leisure, recreation, and play were viewed by these agencies as opportunities for enhancement of physical, social, emotional, and cognitive health for individuals, and for building communities. Many reported their role in fostering an appreciation for natural and cultural resources, creative expression, and an attention to marginalized populations in their communities. Professionals who view the purpose of their jobs as efficient and effective production of programs, services, places, and spaces are missing a significant opportunity to impact individuals and communities. It is only when these containers are viewed as means toward larger ends that the true potential of “leisure services” will be realized.

**Recommendations**
- Promote professional development opportunities that include conceptual foundations of recreation, leisure, and play for staff at all levels.
- Ensure staff are knowledgeable of the larger aims of the agency and the role each person plays in achieving these aims.
- Include opportunities for choice, development and demonstration of respect, and growth as criteria for development of new programs/services/spaces or redesign of existing programs/services/spaces.

Mary Parr, Kent State University, mparr@kent.edu
### Table 1. Number of Agencies Using Leisure Modifiers

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### Table 2. Frequency of Conceptual Elements

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<td>Land ethic</td>
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<td>Human dignity</td>
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<td>8.1</td>
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<td>11</td>
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<td>Freedom/choice</td>
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References


EXPRESSIVE WRITING AS A TECHNIQUE FOR REDUCING PARENT STRESS
Eric Legg, Arizona State University
Shelby Rinck
Erika Karner, Arizona State University

Introduction/Rationale
Parents play an essential role in the youth sport experience including considerable time as coaches, chauffeurs, financiers, and cheerleaders (Busser & Carruthers, 2010; Dorsch, Smith, & Dotterer, 2016; Fredricks & Eccles, 2004). A wide body of research has examined optimal parent behaviors. For example, when parents are supportive and emphasize mastery and learning, youth participants are more likely to have a positive experience and stay in sport (Bean, Jeffrey-Tosoni, & Fraser-Thomas, 2016; Davies, Babkes, Nichols, & Coleman, 2016).

Recent research has begun to explore the parent experience and not just its impact on youth. This research points to the possibility of both positive and negative experiences for parents. For example, parents may develop a sense of community with other parents (Legg, Wells & Barile, 2015). However, the demands of being a youth sport parent can also create an immense amount of stress including in areas such as competition, coaches, finance, time, siblings, organization-related, and developmental needs (Dorsch, Smith, & Dotterer, 2016; Harwood & Knight, 2009).

Though previous research sheds some light on the parent experience, two gaps exist. First, the literature on youth sport parent stress has been conducted with elite youth soccer players and tennis players. These parents would likely experience different stressors related to increased time commitment (including travel) and performance expectations. Further, as primarily an individual sport, the experience of tennis parents is likely different from parents in a team sport. As such, Clark and Harwood (2014) allude to the importance of exploring different parent contexts and call for additional in-depth studies of parent experiences. Second, though some efforts have been made to increase and improve parent education and training (e.g. Dorsch, King, Dunn, Osai, & Tulane, 2017), few, if any, attempts have been made to directly address parent stress.

Expressive writing represents one technique that may improve both mental and physical outcomes. In expressive writing interventions, participants write about a particular topic – generally, the emotions experienced with a stressful event. Existing research suggests that expressive writing for as little as four days can lead to improved health outcomes. Further, a wide body of research points to expressive writing as effective in improving outcomes such as improved sense of meaning, lowered blood pressure, improved immune system, and decreased desstress (Frattaroli, 2006).

Given the success of these interventions, it is likely that expressive writing could have broader applicability, and given its potential ease of implementation, it is worthy to explore with a population, such as youth sport parents, that has limited time available to complete an intervention. Thus, the purpose of this study is twofold: 1) explore the emotions of youth sport parents through the use of an expressive journaling technique; and 2) pilot test an expressive writing intervention as a means to reduce youth sport parent stress. In this abstract, we present the results related to the first purpose.

Methods
Twelve youth sport parents from youth flag football and soccer teams completed a total of 32 journal entries across a 4-week time period. Each week parents responded to the prompt, “Please write for approximately 15 minutes about your experience as a youth sport parent. As you write, think primarily about the emotions that you experience. These emotions may be negative (e.g. – I find myself very nervous watching my child play) or positive (e.g. – I get really excited when my child does well). However, your focus should be on the emotion and not simply describing the activity.” Journals were completed using a secure online journaling site,
and parents provided researchers access to the journals. Following completion of the journaling activity, two researchers developed qualitative themes through content analysis (Sparks & Smith, 2014).

**Results**

Though some journals mentioned joy and pride in seeing their child participate, have fun, and succeed, overwhelmingly the journals focused on the negative emotions and stress that parents experienced. Specifically, we identified four general categories of stress: 1) responsibilities; 2) role as parent; 3) coach; and 4) performance. Under responsibilities, parents spoke generally about stress (e.g. being a parent is stressful), and the amount of time and financial commitment required. Parents also struggled with their own role as a parent. Most frequently, this included uncertainty about doing the right thing (e.g. pressuring a child too much or not at all). In addition, parents sometimes felt disappointed with their child’s attitude or effort and thus felt responsibility as a parent. Coaches were also a primary source of stress though not always for the same reasons. In some cases, parents expressed stress that their child’s coach did not have the technical knowledge to improve their child’s skill. In other cases, the parent directed their frustration towards the coach’s attitudes and behaviors – generally deeming that the coach was overly competitive or demonstrated poor sportspersonship. A minority of parents did express stress related to their child’s performance – concerned that their child was not playing well enough or scoring as much as they should.

**Application to Practice**

Results suggest that parents experience a substantial amount of stress in their role as a youth sport parent. Our themes overlap with previous work (Clark & Harwood, 2014; Harwood & Knight, 2009) and also support the importance of context, as we note variation among our sample of parents of recreational participants compared to previous findings with parents of elite youth sport participants. Given that parents constitute a crucial component of youth sport programs, a better understanding of sources of parent stress can help administrators improve the parent experience. For example, facilitating conversations and expectations between parent and coach may help alleviate this source of stress. One way to do this would be through parent meetings and regular communications. Positive Coaching Alliance (PCA) offers free templates and guidelines for facilitating these discussions. In addition, expressive writing may offer an effective, non-intrusive, limited time commitment way to help parents cope with their own stress. Though these results are only preliminary, previous research supports this concept in other areas and parents did appear to use the journal opportunity as a means for discussing stress related to their role as a youth sport parent. Thus, it would seem that parents may be willing to engage in a similar intervention, especially if writing guidelines and prompts are provided.

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Selected References


EXAMINATION OF BRIDGE EMPLOYMENT PREDICTORS OF PUBLIC RECREATION
Michael Mulvaney, Illinois State University

Professionals Rationale
Longer life spans and better health have influenced what it means to retire. A demographic shift in the workforce is also occurring in the U.S. as baby boomers approach the normal retirement ages during the next 10-15 years (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015). The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that more than 40% of Americans over the age of 55 will be employed in 2020, making up more than 25% of the labor force in the U.S. Turning to the recreation profession, these aging workforce trends have appeared to impact the professionals in a couple of ways. First, the field is witnessing a significant exodus of human resource talent through retirements. For example, the number of retirees in Illinois public park and recreation agencies nearly doubled from 6.6% of the workforce in 2006 to 12.8% in 2015 with 25.7% of the current workforce planning to retire by 2027 (Mulvaney, 2016). This trend raises significant challenges (and potential opportunities) for these agencies. A second issue facing the park and recreation profession centers on the career planning of these professionals. In particular, anecdotal evidence suggests that while some of professionals elect to pursue a traditional retirement route by transitioning from full-time employment to full-time retirement, a growing number of professionals are choosing to return to the workforce after they retire from their career jobs. Referred to as “bridge” employment (B.E.), these post-retirement jobs act as transitions between long-term career positions and total retirement (Hill et al., 2015). B.E. has been found to range from part-time work, self-employment, and temporary employment to full-time employment experiences (Topa et al., 2009). Despite these trends, little work has been done to explore B.E. in the recreation profession. The purpose of this study was to explore the characteristics influencing B.E. intentions of public park and recreation professionals. The intent of this research is to serve as a starting point for future B.E. research within the setting of public parks and recreation. As the field experiences a growing number of its professionals at or near retirement, research investigating the links between these professionals and B.E. intentions is needed. Furthermore, as a field predicated on enhancing the quality of life within communities, one might argue that the field should be a “front runner” in the promotion (and enhancement) of supportive work environments for their professionals. The research was guided by the tenets of Social Cognitive Theory’s (S.C.T.) reciprocal determinism (see Bandura, 1986) and the existing B.E. literature. This study sought to identify predominant influences (i.e., variables) within the three areas of Bandura’s (1997) reciprocal determinism (behavior, environment, and individual). This review resulted in the identification of specific variables and it was hypothesized that behavior outcomes (i.e., B.E. intentions) would be affected by an individual’s attributions (financial preparedness, health perceptions, job satisfaction, & social retirement anxiety) & environmental factors (career attachment & professional development opportunities).

Methods
Guided by S.C.T. and the literature, six hypotheses were tested:

- Hypothesis 1: Intentions to participate in B.E. will be higher for pre-retirees who display lower (perceived) levels of financial preparedness compared to pre-retirees who display higher levels of financial preparedness.

- Hypotheses 2-6: Intentions to participate in B.E. will be higher for pre-retirees with higher perceptions of personal health (H2), job satisfaction (H3), social retirement anxiety (H4), career attachment (H5), & satisfaction w/professional development (H6) compared to pre-retirees who display lower perceptions of these factors.

Participants for the study were selected from the membership database of the Illinois Park & Recreation Association (IPRA). An email was sent to each of the 2,326 full-time recreation professionals in the database. Employing a technique utilized by Kendrick & Wollan (2009), the email invited professionals who anticipated retiring within ten years or less and were currently...
employed on a full-time basis to complete an online survey. All of the study’s variables were measured using the online survey and were derived from existing scales (Ellemers et al., 1998; Flether & Hansson, 1991; Judge et al., 1995; Kim & Feldman, 2000; Mariappanadar, 2013; Wayne et al., 1997). A series of reminders were sent to the participants, resulting in 227 respondents completing the survey. Initial data analyses included examining the data for missing values, multivariate outliers, linearity, normality, homoscedasticity, & multicollinearity. Hierarchical regression analyses were computed to test the study’s hypotheses. The individual characteristic variables (gender, tenure in organization, years worked in the field, position type, agency type, family type, single vs. dual income, household income, & years to retirement) were specified as the first block of variables and the individual and environmental factors under consideration were added to the second block.

**Results**
The regression analyses indicated the first block of individual factors did not account for a significant amount of variance in bridge employment intentions. A significant change in explained variance for B.E. intentions was obtained when adding financial preparedness, social retirement anxiety, career attachment, & satisfaction with professional development opportunities providing support for hypotheses 1, 4, 5, & 6 (Table 1). Personal health (H2) and job satisfaction (H3) were not significant predictors.

**Discussion & Application to Practice**
This study helps build a much-needed knowledge base regarding the growing number of professionals who are at, or near, retirement. This study suggests and demonstrates that there is a career transition and socialization process that arises as professionals near the retirement phase of their career. In particular, the study’s findings identified a few areas of concern and/or opportunity for professionals and their agencies. First, professionals who perceive to be less financially prepared for retirement are more likely to pursue B.E. Second, professionals who have anxieties about disrupting long-standing friendships and support networks within the workplace are more likely to seek B.E. Conversely, the study’s findings suggest professionals with stronger career attachment and who are more pleased with the quality and quantity of professional development opportunities are more interested in B.E. These findings provide support for targeting specific human resource efforts that assist professionals with this transition (i.e., financial planning, social programming for retirees, etc.). Strategies such as providing professionals with more realistic previews of what retirement (and possible bridge employment) will be like prior to retirement could help these professionals better plan and manage their post-retirement experiences. The findings also highlight the potential value for agencies to better promote B.E. opportunities (i.e., marketing to post-retirement professionals, part-time/project management experiences, etc.) within their workplace. As more agencies are turning to contingent workers to address staffing problems, bridge employees could be a more attractive option as they are often a better trained and more readily available alternative than other contingent staff (Kim & Feldman, 2000).

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References


ENGAGING IN AUTONOMOUS OUTDOOR LEARNING: FINAL EXPEDITION AND YOUTH AUTONOMY
Yun Chang, Illinois State University

Introduction
Autonomous learning components have been widely applied to outdoor adventure program designs based on their perceived importance in facilitating youth autonomy, independence, empowerment, and maturity. The value of the outdoor Final Expedition, a popular autonomous learning component, has also been advocated by many researchers and practitioners (Daniel, Bobilya, Kalisch, & McAvoy, 2014; Sibthorp, Paisley, Gookin, & Furman, 2008). This autonomous learning component is usually carried out as a culminating experience, where participants have been equipped with basic outdoor living skills and carefully assessed to proceed. But a long-term critique of outdoor programming is the lack of empirical evidence to support how specific course components produce particular impacts (Baldwin, Persing, & Magnuson, 2004; Paisley, Furman, Sibthorp, & Gookin, 2008), including the Final Expedition.

This study examines the effectiveness of the Final Expedition in enhancing youth autonomy. Understanding of this issue is important since there is very little information on the underlying mechanisms and relationships between autonomous learning components and youth development in outdoor adventure programs. Research questions on this autonomous learning component include: (a) What is its effect on youth autonomy; (b) What is the effect of certain characteristics (e.g. participant gender and roles played during Final Expedition) on youth autonomy; and (c) how it is valued by adolescents in evaluating their overall outdoor program experience.

Methods
A total of 72 participants in this study, aged 16 to 20, were self-selected and enrolled in backpacking and kayaking courses provided by the Outward Bound School. All selected courses examined in this study were 22 to 33 days in length, including the Final Expedition. The study used a mixed-method research design based on Noom’s (1999) Adolescent Autonomy Questionnaire to explain and interpret the effect of Final Expedition on youth autonomy. The questionnaire was administered three times throughout the course, where time 1 (T1) was collected the first day, Time 2 (T2) was collected the day before the Final Expedition, and Time 3 (T3) was collected after participants finished the Final Expedition, which was followed by a semi-structured interview to assess participants’ perception of the trajectory of their course experience.

Results
Results of the one-way repeated measures ANOVA show that participants’ autonomy was significantly different at the three time points, with a large effect size (F(1.827, 129.737) = 20.060, p < .05, partial $\eta^2$ = .220). Post-hoc analysis reveals that participants’ autonomy consistently increased during the first part of the course (from T1 to T2) and during the Final Expedition (from T2 to T3) (Table 1). Results of the two-way mixed ANOVA (Table 2) show a significant interaction between gender and time point (F(2, 140) = 3.965, p < .05, partial $\eta^2$ = .054), as well as participants’ role (follower versus leader) in the Final Expedition and time point (F(1.791,125.350) = 3.719, p < .05, partial $\eta^2$ =.050).

The simple main effect test on gender effect shows that (1) gender had a significant impact on youth autonomy at T1, but not at T2 and T3, where female participants’ autonomy levels ($M = 3.13$) were lower than the male levels ($M = 3.43$) at the beginning of the course (T1) ($p < .05$), and (2) female students’ autonomy levels significantly increased from T1 ($M = 3.13$) to T2 ($M = 3.35$) and from T2 ($M = 3.35$) to T3 ($M = 3.57$). The autonomy level for male students significantly increased from T1 ($M = 3.43$) to T2 ($M = 3.52$) and T1 ($M = 3.43$) to T3 ($M = 3.62$), but not from T2 to T3 when the Final Expedition took place.
By examining the interaction between the roles participants played in the Final Expedition and its impact on youth autonomy across time, students who played follower roles during Final Expedition were found to have autonomy levels significantly higher at T₃ (M = 3.77) compared to T₁ (M = 3.33) and T₂ (M = 3.45). This means that students in follower roles gained in autonomy levels after the Final Expedition. Students playing leadership roles, however, did not gain in autonomy levels during Final Expedition.

The qualitative data shows that the Final Expedition was described by participants as “beneficial,” “mentally & physically challenging,” “meaningful,” and related to their “being independent.” In relation to their overall outdoor experience, participants identified the value of the Final Expedition in areas related to “exploring group relationships,” “levels of achievement,” “leadership,” and “independence gained.” Participants thus seemed to value both the challenges and benefits of this component.

**Discussion and Implications**

Study participants experienced a significant increase in youth autonomy over the courses’ three time periods, an outcome that supports research positing that outdoor programs may help participants develop stronger beliefs in their competence and foster autonomy (Wurdinger & Paxton, 2007; Zimmer, 2010). Study findings also suggest that the Final Expedition component affords opportunities for “learning reinforcement” in youth autonomy, which confirms that including autonomous learning components in long-term outdoor programs can be beneficial to participants’ learning outcomes.

The finding that female participants showed significantly lower autonomy levels compared to male participants at the beginning of the course, but after completing the course their sense of independence and autonomy increased significantly (reaching the level of male participants), is important. As increasingly more females are now engaging in outdoor adventure programs, practitioners should not neglect some of the inherent differences between male and female’s initial sense of independence in the trajectory of their development. Also significant to the field are the ways in which Final Expeditions in particular may be more effective in enhancing female autonomy and confidence levels.

Lastly, participants who played follower’s role experienced a significant increase in autonomy during the Final Expedition, but those who played leadership roles did not. While this may sound surprising, in that leaders are generally thought to display more autonomy due to their unique decision-making opportunity and group management responsibilities the role gives them (e.g. deciding on departure time and navigation), the fact that everyone’s opinion and needs must be taken into account might make leaders feel less independent. This realization in turn may make the role of leader more challenging for some than that of follower. Having a conversation beforehand or giving timely feedback to leaders immediately following the autonomous learning component such as Final Expeditions can be crucial to combat any pressure, letdown, or potentially negative perceptions they may experience before or after the course is completed.

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Table 1. Summary of one-way repeated measures ANOVA of autonomy levels

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Table 2. Summary of two-way mixed ANOVA and group interaction across time periods

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Female (n = 23)</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>.57</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male (n = 49)</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>.54</td>
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<tr>
<td>Role in Final</td>
<td>Follower (n = 16)</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>.60</td>
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<td>.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expedition</td>
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<td>.53</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>.56</td>
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References


Introduction

Throughout history the desire to understand and pursue happiness has been a fundamental human drive (Oishi, Graham, Kesebir, & Galinha, 2013) and a concern of philosophers and scientists throughout history. The benefits of being happy, often operationalized in current research as subjective well-being (SWB), are numerous as it fosters sociability, altruism, liking of self and others, healthier individuals, more fulfilling marriages and friendships, greater involvement in one’s community, and higher incomes (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005). Researchers have spent an extensive amount of time trying to understand the foundation of happiness and most agree there are three primary components to happiness: (a) Relevant life circumstances, (b) a genetically determined set-point for positive mood and happiness, (c) the extent to which people engage in happiness increasing strategies or behaviors (Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, & Schkade, 2005).

One of the driving factors of SWB is leisure, a happiness increasing behavior (HIB), as it is consistently ranked as one of the highest facilitators of happiness (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999; Lyubomirsky, King, & et al, 2005). While engagement in leisure has a strong theoretical connection to happiness, little research has focused on how leisure induces happiness. Leisure is often cited as a fundamental component of SWB (Diener et al., 1999; Lyubomirsky, King, et al., 2005) and research supports the positive role participating in leisure activities has on SWB (Iwasaki, 2007; Newman, Tay, & Diener, 2014; Rodríguez, Látková, & Sun, 2008), but few studies have focused on and empirically investigated the manner in which leisure participation facilitates SWB (Newman et al., 2014; Wang & Wong, 2011).

The theoretical DRAMMA model as proposed by Newman, Tay, & Diener (2014) attempts to understand this connection by linking leisure and subjective well-being (SWB) via the five psychological pathways of detachment-recovery, affiliation, meaning, mastery, and autonomy through leisure satisfaction. The DRAMMA model is logical framework to test this relationship as it is a bottom-up theory, which is in alignment with how HIBs enhance an individuals’ happiness but has yet to be empirically studied. College students are a natural population in which to study this model as emotional health is at an all-time low for entering college students (Egan et al., 2014) and college students spend more engaged in leisure than any other activity, except sleeping (Mortenson, 2011), thus it is imperative that we understand how leisure influences students’ SWB. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to quantitatively test the DRAMMA theory of leisure and SWB by examining the effects the five psychological mechanisms have on leisure satisfaction and SWB with a university student population.

Methods

In order to understand the relationship between leisure and happiness the DRAMMA model was quantitatively tested using the following research: (a) Do the five psychological mechanisms of the DRAMMA model predict SWB?; (b) Do the five psychological mechanisms of the DRAMMA model predict leisure satisfaction?; (c) Does leisure satisfaction predict SWB?; (d) How well does the DRAMMA model explain SWB in a college student population? To answer the research questions a survey was developed by combining several preexisting instruments or subscales, in addition to a section for basic demographic data. The instrument had a total of 100-items in four sections: (a) demographic and leisure participation information; (b) psychological outcomes of leisure participation; (c) leisure satisfaction; (d) subjective well-being. The reliability analysis, using Cronbach’s Alpha were within an acceptable range.

The population for this study were students at large midwestern residential institution and the sample was comprised of full-time undergraduate students enrolled at the main campus during the spring semester of 2016. Using a University created list students received an initial
email requesting their participation in the study. Two follow up emails were sent at two and four weeks after the initial invitation. Composite scores for each subscale were calculated and data analysis consisted of descriptive statistics, multiple regression to answer research questions 1 and 2, linear regression to answer question 3, and path analysis to answer question 4.

**Results**

The survey was sent out to 16,816 students with a total 1,210 individuals responding to the survey with 704 being usable for data analysis. According to multiple regression analyses the five psychological mechanisms accounted for 12% of variance in SWB, $F(5, 698) = 19.28, p < .001, R^2 = .12$. While also predicting 58% of the variance in leisure satisfaction, $F(5, 698) = 196.34, p < .001, R^2 = .58$. In addition, linear regression found that leisure satisfaction accounted for approximately 10% of the variance in SWB, $F(1, 702) = 76.05, p < .001, R^2 = .98$. Path analysis was used to test the overall model strength and fit (see Figure 1). The analysis indicated strong fit indices (see Table 1) but suggested a few model modifications (see Table 2). Even though the modifications are considered exploratory they had strong theoretical support, thus additional parameters where added from affiliation and meaning directly to SWB which strengthened the fit indices (see Table 3). For the population of this study affiliation and meaning are the two most important factors leading to leisure satisfaction and SWB.

**Application to Practice**

The study was positioned to help individuals in higher education understand an additional mechanism to facilitate SWB in college students along with gain further understanding of how out of class experiences can affect students. The study can help recreation programmers understand the role specific psychological mechanisms play in reaching the targeted outcome of leisure satisfaction and SWB. In addition, the study expanded the understanding positive psychologist have of the relationship between leisure and SWB.

With the above in mind, recreation professionals should consider providing intentional programming to maintain and increase happiness to be of paramount importance as recreation and leisure has a significant influence on individuals’ leisure satisfaction and happiness. Practitioners should develop recreation and leisure programs that are meaningful in addition to programs that offer opportunities for social interaction. Often recreation and leisure professionals develop opportunities under the pretense of skill development being a priority consideration. However, based on this research skill development should be a secondary consideration.

Danny Twilley, Ohio University, twilley@ohio.edu, 740.597.3109
Figures and Tables

**Figure 1.** Standardized Tested Path Model

Table 1

**Summary of Path Analysis Model Fit Statistics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>CI LO 90</th>
<th>CI HI 90</th>
<th>NFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default model</td>
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<td>.08</td>
<td>.05</td>
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<td>.98</td>
<td>.98</td>
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<tr>
<td>Saturated model</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence model</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
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</table>

Table 2

**Modification Indices Regression Weights**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modifications</th>
<th>MI</th>
<th>Par Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation ----&gt; SWB</td>
<td>12.65</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mastery ----&gt; SWB</td>
<td>8.56</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy ----&gt; SWB</td>
<td>10.09</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3

**Summary of the Modified Path Analysis Model Fit Statistics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>CI LO 90</th>
<th>CI HI 90</th>
<th>NFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation to SWB</td>
<td>.026</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.088</td>
<td>.992</td>
<td>.994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation and Mastery to SWB</td>
<td>.013</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.068</td>
<td>.997</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
References


ANGLERS’ RESOURCE QUALITY PERCEPTIONS
Lija D. Krievs
David B. Klenosky, Purdue University

Introduction
Fishing is among the most popular outdoor recreation activities in the United States with 15.6% of the U.S. population ages six and older, participating in fishing in 2015 (Recreational Boating & Fishing Foundation, 2016). The popularity of fishing is driven in part at least by the availability of places to go fishing. Very little is known, however, about how people who fish, i.e., anglers, think about fishing areas and sites. Past research on angler perceptions of fishing areas and experiences has explored a variety of factors, including fish quantity (number of fish, catch rates, and stocking levels), fish quality (fish size and species), environmental characteristics (site accessibility, water/site quality/cleanliness, management practices, and weather/climate), angler motivations (enjoying nature, socializing/competing with others, and getting rest and relaxation), and demographic characteristics (Alcorn, 1981; Bingham et al., 2011; Graefe & Fedler, 1986; Hampton & Lackey, 1976; Holland & Ditton, 1992; Johnston, Arlinghaus, Stelfox & Post, 2011; Martin & Pope, 2010; Moeller & Engelken, 1972; Oh & Ditton, 2006; Ready, Epp & Delavan, 2006; Schramm, Gerard & Duane, 2003; Sutton, Dew & Higgs, 2009; Weithman & Anderson, 1978). This work is important but has focused primarily on the factors associated with desirable fishing settings or experiences; little has been done to examine fishing quality in settings that are relatively less desirable or that have negative attributes, such as occurs in urban areas and post-industrial settings. Data collected in a previous investigation used a conjoint approach to examine the impact of selected factors on fishing site choice (i.e., different levels of travel time, quality of fishing, residential development, industrial activity, air quality, and noise) (Klenosky, 2004). Follow-up questions asked respondents how they would describe fishing quality across four levels – ranging from excellent, to good, fair, and poor. The present study provides an analysis of the responses to these fishing quality descriptions; and, in doing so, seeks to contribute to the literature on angler perceptions and resource quality in the context of fishing.

Methods
Study data were collected from n=1267 anglers in the Midwest US via a mail survey of licensed anglers and fishing show attendees (n=911); and an online survey posted on fishing forums (n=356). The resulting study sample reported residing in a mix of urban and rural zipcodes. The present analysis focused on a set of open-ended questions asking respondents how they would describe excellent fishing quality, as well as good, fair, and poor fishing quality. Qualitative analyses focused on coding each response to the four fishing quality questions to find recurring themes. Table 1 provides a sample of the top theme created for each FQ-level. The combined sample had an average age of 44.7 (SD=13.79), were largely male (88.2%) and Caucasian (93.8%). For the majority (56.0%) fishing was rated their most important outdoor recreational activity; for about a fifth (21.6%) their second or third most important activity, and another fifth (21.2%) one of many outdoor activities in which they engaged. Finally, when asked to rate themselves in terms of their fishing ability, most rated themselves as intermediate (31.6%) or advanced (54.1%), about a tenth (10.6%) as expert, and a small number (3.5%) as beginner.

Results
Across all four fishing quality (FQ) categories, the most frequently mentioned factors were quantity, noise, size, habitat-quality, and environmental-quality (Figure 1). References to quantity and noise were consistently the top-two factors mentioned when describing any of the four FQ categories. For excellent-FQ, quantity was mentioned in terms of the opportunity for high catch rates, having large numbers of fish or a large population of a given species, or
reaching or catching more than the limit. This pattern was similar for good-FQ, but changed beginning with fair-FQ. Specifically, for fair-FQ, the responses referred to a slower catch rate, catching less fish, lower numbers, or less than or harder to reach the limit. Finally, for poor-FQ, responses referred to low catch rates, few if any fish, getting skunked, and having difficulties reaching the limit. References to size or size of fish available was the third most mentioned for excellent-FQ, good-FQ, and fair-FQ, but for poor-FQ, size was mentioned less frequently. The biggest discrepancy for size across the four quality levels was between excellent-FQ and poor-FQ; with excellent-FQ referring to large, above average, lunkers, or trophy size fish and poor-FQ referring to small, stunted, and below average size fish, and a low chance of catching a trophy size fish. The next two most commonly mentioned factors referred to habitat-quality and environmental-quality. Habitat-quality referred primarily to the characteristics of the water and supporting habitat at the site with excellent- and good-FQ being described as clean, clear, having forage, and/or structure; and fair- and poor-FQ as being dirty, polluted, weedy, and/or lacking structure. Environmental quality related primarily to responses about area at or around the site including air quality and the overall cleanliness. For excellent-FQ, this referred to having no smells, clean air, no pollution, and clean environment; while for fair- and poor-FQ this denoted to the presence of bad odors and smells, pollution and trash, and dirty or unkempt surroundings. Other factors were mentioned occasionally in respondents' descriptions of the four FQ-levels including species, setting quality, fish-quality, access, and company/fun.

Discussion/Application to Practice

The study data were collected from a sample of anglers that reside in a mix of urban and rural settings. While not generalizable to the general fishing population, the results provide insight into the range of meanings underlying anglers' fishing quality perceptions. In particular, the study results indicated that quantity, noise, size, habitat-quality, and environmental-quality were the most frequently mentioned factors when describing fishing quality as excellent, good, fair, or poor. Quantity was, by far, the top priority for all four FQ-categories, with noise being the second most frequently mentioned factor. Responses about the number of fish caught or available to catch decreased as fishing quality went from excellent to poor. For noise, responses about crowdedness, pressure, amount of development, and presence of recreational boaters were reported increasingly more often as fishing quality went from excellent to poor. Size, environmental-quality, and habitat quality were all about the same importance for excellent, good, and fair fishing quality, but for poor fishing quality, environmental-quality, and habitat quality were mentioned much more frequently, while size was mentioned less frequently. Pollution, garbage, and smells in the air contributed heavily to perceptions of poor fishing quality. The factors identified in this analysis are similar to those reported in prior research by Schramm et al. (2003) who found that a clean fishing environment and the perceived availability of good numbers and sizes of fish were important to 70% of all anglers. The results of the present investigation confirm the importance of these positive activity experience factors; but also provides insight into perceptions of fishing experiences that anglers generally associate with fair or poor-quality settings – settings that are common in urban areas and post-industrial landscapes. While there is considerable interest in restoring or at least rehabilitating such areas for recreation use, overcoming perceived negative site and experience attributes will continue to be a major management challenge (see for example, Klenosky, Snyder, Vogt, and Campbell, 2017).

David B. Klenosky, Purdue University, (765) 494-0865, klenosky@purdue.edu
Table 1. Sample coding of responses by theme within fishing quality level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking by Frequency of Mentions</th>
<th>Fishing Quality Level</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Sample Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Quantity</td>
<td>“excellent is a numbers game to me”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Noise</td>
<td>“no other fishermen or disturbances in the area”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Size</td>
<td>“catches of sizable, above limit fish”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Habitat-Quality</td>
<td>“good water quality standards, seasonal insect hatches, [...] Natural vegetation in good health, providing good riparian areas.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Environmental-Quality</td>
<td>“Clean area, [...] no landfill nearby, air quality good.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Quantity</td>
<td>“consistent predictable catches of a reasonable number”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Noise</td>
<td>“Reasonable quietness [...] low development.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Size</td>
<td>“Average species size, with an exception here and there for a good fish.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Habitat-Quality</td>
<td>“good holding water, good cover and food sources”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Environmental-Quality</td>
<td>“no factories, smells, or pollution.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Quantity</td>
<td>“No signs of activity[...]. Having to work hard to locate fish [...]”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Noise</td>
<td>“noisy, too many boats (wave runners)”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Size</td>
<td>“a few large, but more small than large.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Environmental-Quality</td>
<td>“Dirty shores used worm containers. Litter in the water.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Habitat-Quality</td>
<td>“borderline poor water clarity, no depth, no cover.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Quantity</td>
<td>“No fish caught”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Noise</td>
<td>“noise, and heavy boat traffic”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Environmental-Quality</td>
<td>“trash areas, water or air odors”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Habitat-Quality</td>
<td>“really murky and/or stinky water. It could also be an otherwise decent area under the wrong conditions. (water level/temp./algae bloom)”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Size</td>
<td>“Catching only small fish”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Percentage of mentions for each coded theme across the four fishing quality levels.
Selected References


MANAGING DOGS IN PARKS: BALANCING CONSERVATION AND VISITOR EXPERIENCES
Lincoln R. Larson, NC State University
Elizabeth Boles Johnson
Ramesh Paudyal, University of Florida

Introduction
In the United States today, over 55 million households own one or more dogs, and most have a strong desire to recreate with their canine companions (APPA, 2015; Carr & Cohen, 2009). Growing evidence suggests that many dog owners like to experience parks with their pets in tow (Walls, 2009). Studies highlighting tangible benefits associated with dog walking, including enhancement to psychological well-being and physically active lifestyles (Graham & Glover, 2014; McCormack et al., 2016; Sterl et al., 2008), reinforce these assertions. By welcoming pets into parks, managers can enhance the visitor experience and create a more animal-friendly urban environment. But dogs can also generate negative ecological and social problems in parks (Bekoff & Meaney, 1997). A growing body of research highlights the impacts that dogs have on native ecosystems, from impacts on the diversity and abundance of wildlife (Banks & Bryant, 2007) to their role as disease vectors (Weston et al., 2014). Off-leash dogs in particular are prone chasing wildlife, trampling vegetation, and defecating in inappropriate places (Foster, 2006). The aggressive or disruptive behavior of dogs can also negatively affect other visitors, resulting in dissatisfaction, complaints, and potential displacement (Arnberger & Haider, 2005; Vaske & Donnelly, 2007). In many cases, such conflicts pit dog owners against other types of recreationists (Sterl et al., 2008; Urbanek & Morgan, 2013). Park managers therefore face a difficult challenge: how do they balance the desired experiences of both dog owners and non-dog owners while still achieving conservation goals? To address this issue, dog access is often regulated or restricted in many parks and protected areas through leash laws, fees, and other strategies (Forrest & St. Clair, 2006). But any effort to limit or restrict the presence of dogs in parks typically evokes strong reactions from the pro-dog walking community (Walsh, 2011). There is a growing need to understand positive and negative impacts of dogs in parks as well as the policies designed to manage them (Leung et al., 2015; Weston et al., 2014). Our study sought to address this need by (1) identifying potential sources of conflict between dog owners and non-dog owners using a public park, and (2) characterizing the dog management preferences of different groups of park visitors and the factors that influence them.

Methods
We focused on Lake Conestee Nature Park (LCNP) in Greenville, SC, an urban wildlife sanctuary with over 400 acres of land and 11 miles of trails to explore. We selected LCNP as a study site because of its popularity with dog owners. Dogs are allowed in all areas of the sanctuary and neighboring Conestee Park (a municipal park with a dog park and other facilities), leading to potential conflicts (Conestee Foundation, 2016). Managers are interested in understanding these conflicts and strategies that could be used to mitigate impacts of dogs within this ecologically sensitive recreation resource.

To understand dog-related beliefs, attitudes, and preferences, we conducted an intercept survey of LCNP visitors during Fall 2016. We approached all visitors passing a designated entrance point on systematically selected weekdays and weekend days in an effort to capture a range of park users (n = 123 dog owners, n = 81 non-dog owners). The survey response rate was 90%. The survey instrument covered a variety of themes including background information for each respondent (e.g., demographics, dog ownership), park use (e.g., visitation frequency, effect of dogs on desire to visit), environmental value orientations, perceptions of dogs’ impact on nature and park users, beliefs about dog owners’ behavior, and preferences for various dog management strategies (voluntary compliance, spatial restrictions, and financial restrictions). Data were analyzed using (a) independent samples t-tests to compare dog-owners and non-dog
owners on a range of variables and (b) OLS regression models to examine the factors associated with support for different types of dog management strategies.

**Results**

Dog owners and non-dog owners were similar with respect to most demographic and park use variables (Table 1). Both groups of users reported high levels of value orientations, though dog owners were less likely to acknowledge ecological impacts of dogs in the park. Non-dog owners were less supportive of dog owners’ behavior in the park. The presence of dogs had a positive effect on both groups’ desire to visit LCNP, and a significantly greater influence on dog owners (Table 1). Voluntary compliance with current LCNP dog management practices (free access for dogs at all times, but only on a 6-foot leash) was preferred over the other management alternatives, particularly among dog owners, individuals with pro-environmental orientations, and those who thought that dogs negatively impacted nature (Table 2). Financial restrictions on dogs (fees and fines) were opposed by many visitors, especially women, younger visitors, and frequent dog walkers. The only significant positive predictor for this strategy was the belief that dogs negatively impacted nature. Similar opposition was observed for spatial restrictions (total or partial spatial/temporal bans on dogs). Individuals who rated dogs’ behavioral impacts on other users as more severe were more likely to support this approach (Table 2).

**Applications to Practice**

Results suggest that both dog owners and non-dog owners were generally in favor of dogs in the park (e.g., the presence of dogs positively impacted both group’s desire to visit LCNP), and both groups displayed stronger support for voluntary compliance with current park management policies compared to more stringent alternatives. Although implementation of additional financial or spatial restrictions on dogs in the park would likely minimize ecological impacts, negative effects on visitor experiences and significant costs of diminished public support could outweigh those benefits. Dog owners and non-dog owners expressed similar environmental value orientations, but dog owners were much less likely to recognize dogs’ impact on nature. To influence the compliance of dog owners with existing policies, managers could attempt to craft messages that highlight these impacts and appeal to pet owners’ inherent sympathetic attitudes towards other animals, thereby increasing their concern for the welfare of wildlife species (Shuttlewood et al., 2016). Overall, our data indicate that dogs do not appear to be a major problem or source of conflict in the park. This finding aligns with other studies showing current dog regulations coupled with responsible actions of dog owners can greatly reduce the environmental and social impacts of our canine companions (Parsons et al., 2016). While pets in parks are likely to remain a source of controversy (Walsh, 2011), it appears that managers who adopt publicly acceptable policies and effective communication strategies can successfully maximize the benefits and minimize the negative impacts of dogs on ecological and human health in public open spaces (Rock et al., 2016).

Lincoln R. Larson, NC State University, 919-515-8947, lrlarson@ncsu.edu
Table 1. Percentages, means (with SD), and difference test of demographics, park use characteristics, and beliefs about dogs and dog owners behavior at Lake Conestee Nature Park (n = 197).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable/Indices</th>
<th>Dog ownership</th>
<th>Diff. stat. (p-value)</th>
<th>Effect size#</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sample averagea</td>
<td>Non-dog owner</td>
<td>Dog owner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>55</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.4 (0.6)</td>
<td>4.4 (0.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.6 (0.9)</td>
<td>3.0 (0.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.3 (0.6)</td>
<td>0.1 (0.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.8 (1.0)</td>
<td>1.8 (1.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.0 (0.8)</td>
<td>4.0 (0.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.9 (0.7)</td>
<td>3.7 (0.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.5 (0.9)</td>
<td>2.6 (1.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# Cramer's V for Chi-square test and Eta-squared for t-test.
aScales scores ranged from -2=Strongly disagree to 2=Strongly agree
bItem measurement: -1=makes visit less often, 0=doesn't affect, 1=makes visit more often.
cScale score ranged from 1=Not a problem to 5=Severe problem

Table 2. Parameter estimation from the OLS regression model predicting dog management preferences at Lake Conestee Nature Park (N=178).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>No changea</th>
<th>Spatial restrictionb</th>
<th>Financial restrictionc</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>S.E.</td>
<td>p-value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (≤40 years)</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender (female)</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dog Walking Frequency at LCNP</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Values Index</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dog ownership (dog owner)</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dogs Impact Nature Index</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dogs Impact Users Index</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a"No Change" scale (2 items): M = 0.9, SD = 0.7, from -2=Strongly oppose to 2=Strongly support
b"Spatial Restriction" scale (3 items): M = -0.7, SD = 0.8, from -2=Strongly oppose to 2=Strongly support
c"Financial Restriction" scale (2 items): M = -0.4, SD = 1.0, from -2=Strongly oppose to 2=Strongly support
References


PSYCHOLOGICAL SENSE OF COMMUNITY (PSOC) AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS
Cody Suggs
Marian H. Wooten, University of North Carolina at Pembroke
Leah Holland Fiorentino, University of North Carolina at Pembroke

Introduction/Rationale

Psychological Sense of Community (PSOC) addresses the experiences of an individual within a specific community. The underlining attributes of PSOC serve as a major contributor to individuals obtaining a valued experience within these specific, community environments; the attributes are: 1) membership - a sense of belonging or identification among the community, 2) influence - a bi-directional attribute that facilitates both individual and collective influence on the community, 3) integration and fulfillment of needs - reinforcement acting as a contingency to create community togetherness, and 4) shared emotional connection - time and energy spent in order to strengthen emotional commitment (Obst & White, 2007).

All four of these attributes can influence successful co-curricular programs and their associated social environments. Research by Mannarini, Rochira, and Talò (2012) highlights the importance of individual identity with the spatial community in developing PSOC and connectedness to others. Thus, the higher education environment provides multiple opportunities for PSOC to develop among college students through opportunities to join organizations related to one’s interests. PSOC might be especially relevant to the culture of a college campus.

Numerous benefits can be derived from membership in campus organizations. Research on organizational membership shows that individuals are attracted to community membership when they feel welcomed and accepted within the community (McMillan, 1996); then stronger community interaction leads to an increased level of shared events with community environments, which in turn translates into more positive relationships and connections (McMillailn & Chavis, 1986; Pretty, 1990). Specific research on Greek life and Campus Recreation participation highlights the benefits to members. Greek life has been shown to increase one’s sense of belonging, development of study skills, development of skills for life after college, and persistence toward graduation (Long, 2012; Nelson, Halperin, Wasserman, Smith, & Graham, 2006; Walker, Martin, & Hussey, 2015). Campus Recreation programs enable students to develop social bonds and a sense of campus community, as well as providing overall improved quality of life on a campus (Forrester, 2015; Henchy, 2011; Miller, 2011).

In order to investigate PSOC among student groups on a college campus, four hypotheses were tested: H1: There will be no significant difference in group identity categories and self-reported reinforcement of needs scores; H2: There will be no significant difference in group identity categories and self-reported influence scores; H3: There will be no significant difference in group identity categories and self-reported membership scores, and H4: There will be no significant difference in group identity categories and self-reported shared emotional connection scores.

Methods

The target population for this study consisted of students enrolled at a small regional, public university in southeastern United States. Individuals from the following co-curricular groups were invited to participate: Greek life, Campus Recreation’s club sports teams, and service clubs (i.e., Student Involvement and Leadership and Community and Civic Engagement). Groups were selected for comparison because they represent recreational organizations apart from academics, like a major club. The Principal Investigator (PI) attended meetings of each organization and provided students with a website for the questionnaire, which remained open until from November 21, 2016-January 31, 2017.
**Results**

Of the 500 students invited to participate in this study, 404 (80.8%) participants completed the survey. Over half (58.6%, N=235) of respondents were female. Respondents self-reported ethnic/racial backgrounds, with the following four categories selected most frequently: African American/Black (38.4%, N=154), Caucasian/White (31.4%, N=126), American Indian (10.9%, N=44), and Hispanic (10.2%, N=41). When asked about the type of organization individuals referenced when completing the questionnaire, almost half (48.1%, N=193) selected Greek life; 99 (24.6%) selected Campus Recreation, and 93 (23.1%) selected a service club.

PSOC was measured via Sense of Community Index 2 (SCI-2) which was developed by Chavis, Lee, and Acosta (2008). Items in the SCI-2 were grouped into four subscales (membership, influence, reinforcement of needs, and shared emotional connection) in accordance with Phipps (2012) to use for hypothesis testing.

One way ANOVA testing was used to test all hypotheses under consideration. In selecting ANOVA researchers assumed the sample was normally distributed and samples were independent. For H1 the ANOVA (F=16.63, p<0.001) revealed significant differences in self-reported reinforcement of need scores. Least Significant Difference (LSD) post hoc tests are indicated in Table 1. The ANOVA conducted to test H2 was significant (F=16.29, p < 0.001). LSD post hoc tests are indicated in Table 2. An ANOVA (F=37.29, p < 0.001) showed significant differences in self-reported membership scores (H3). LSD post hoc tests are indicated in Table 3. Results of an ANOVA to test H4 indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between groups (F=32.40, p < 0.001) based on shared emotional connection scores. LSD post hoc tests are indicated in Table 4.

**Application to Practice**

For all four hypotheses, members of Greek organizations reported significantly higher scores than did members of other types of campus organizations. For hypotheses 1, 2, and 4, Campus Recreation club sports participants reportedly significantly higher scores than did service club members. One possible explanation is the time invested in a Greek organization and a club sport. Greek organizations bring members together on a regular basis for weekly meetings and service and social opportunities. Club sport teams practice on a regular basis and travel regionally to other universities for competitions. Service clubs meet less frequently, and membership may not involve the same level of time commitment or last as long.

While this study looked at the effects of involvement in a college setting, findings may be applicable to the broader community due to the prevalence of similar and/or equivalent organizations, such as hobby or interest driven clubs, adult league sports, and service clubs. Moreover, the relevant literature and results speak to the importance of the benefits derived from sustained involvement in an organization (McMillan & Chavis, 1986; Pretty, 1990). This information proves useful to all to recreation programmers – not just those on a college campus - as a reminder of the importance of community building through programming. Furthermore, the research provides insight into the way PSOC may be built and strengthened within an organization—via the level of commitment membership entails.

Leah Holland Fiorentino, University of North Carolina at Pembroke, leah.fiorentino@uncp.edu
### Table 1.
**Impact of Group Identity on Reinforcement of Needs Scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Campus Recreation</th>
<th>Greek life</th>
<th>Service club</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reinforcement of needs</td>
<td>Mean Scores</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Scores</td>
<td>12.10&lt;sup&gt;ac&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>13.43&lt;sup&gt;ab&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>LSD post-hoc testing revealed significant difference (p=0.004)
<sup>b</sup>LSD post-hoc testing revealed significant difference (p<0.001)
<sup>c</sup>LSD post-hoc testing revealed significant difference (p=0.01)

### Table 2.
**Impact of Group Identity on Influence Scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Campus Recreation</th>
<th>Greek life</th>
<th>Service club</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Influence score</td>
<td>Mean Scores</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Scores</td>
<td>11.27&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>13.19&lt;sup&gt;ab&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>LSD post-hoc testing revealed significant difference (p<0.001)
<sup>b</sup>LSD post-hoc testing revealed significant difference (p<0.001)

### Table 3.
**Impact of Group Identity on Membership Scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Campus Recreation</th>
<th>Greek life</th>
<th>Service club</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Membership score</td>
<td>Mean Scores</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Scores</td>
<td>12.22&lt;sup&gt;ac&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>14.57&lt;sup&gt;ab&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>LSD post-hoc testing revealed significant difference (p<0.001)
<sup>b</sup>LSD post-hoc testing revealed significant difference (p<0.001)
<sup>c</sup>LSD post-hoc testing revealed significant difference (p=0.01)

### Table 4.
**Impact of Group Identity on Shared Emotional Connection Scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Campus Recreation</th>
<th>Greek life</th>
<th>Service club</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shared emotional connection score</td>
<td>Mean Scores</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Scores</td>
<td>12.16&lt;sup&gt;ac&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>14.62&lt;sup&gt;ab&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>LSD post-hoc testing revealed significant difference (p<0.001)
<sup>b</sup>LSD post-hoc testing revealed significant difference (p<0.001)
<sup>c</sup>LSD post-hoc testing revealed significant difference (p=0.02)
References


OUTDOOR RECREATIONAL CONFLICT AND CROWDING INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT
Curtis Clemens, Oklahoma State University
Donna Lindenmeier, Oklahoma State University

Recreational activities that are to be practiced and within the natural setting can be referred to as outdoor recreation (Moore & Driver, 2005). When the objectives of outdoor recreational activity are impacted due to the behavior of another person or party outdoor recreational conflict occurs (Moore & Driver, 2005). There must be involvement of unwarranted stress among at least one participant of the recreational activity or activities, and the person’s objective of the outdoor experience must be congested due to the behavior of another person or group (Jacob & Schreyer, 1980; Schneider & Wynveen, 2015). When the supply of space does not match the demand, crowding may occur (Stokols, 1972). Studies have been completed to understand crowding and recreational conflict between people or groups with different recreational goals (Mann & Absher, 2008; Vaske, Needham, & Cline, 2007; Vittersø, Chipeniuk, Skár, & Vistad, 2004). The instruments used in the past studies were intended for specific activities, locations, or particular forms of measurement (Beal, Watts, Landry, Vogelsong, and Wendling, 2011; Mann & Absher, 2008; Vaske et al., 2007; Vittersø et al., 2004). Developing an instrument that can be standardized for multiple locations and recreational activities will create ease for further research into outdoor recreational conflict. This study produced a standardized instrument to measure perceptions of outdoor recreational conflict and crowding when two people or parties are sharing the same natural resources. Unlike previous instruments, this one was designed so that it may be used with any outdoor recreation activity, group, and location without needing to reassess validation of the survey every time it is used.

Methods
The outdoor recreational conflict and crowding instrument was developed utilizing previous studies, literature, and concepts (Anderson, 1980; Anderson & Brown, 1984; Beal, et al., 2011; Dekker, 1976; Mann & Absher, 2008; Manning, 2011; Moore & Driver; 2005; Ragheb; 2001; Thapa & Graefe, 1999; Vaske et al., 2007; Vittersø et al., 2004). A Delphi technique was utilized having an expert panel test the content, consequential, and construct validation of the instrument (Brown, 1968; Dalkey & Helmer, 1963). The expert panel consisted of outdoor recreational professionals and scholars with a background in outdoor recreation and instrument development. After the instrument was validated, data was collected from residents who lived within a 35-mile range of DuPont State Recreational Forest. A systematic random and snowball method was used to collect data. The instrument identified residents perceived outdoor recreational conflict and crowding when sharing the same natural resources as tourists. A total of 108 participants (male: 59 & female: 49) responded to the survey. A principle and exploratory factor analysis were used to assign the items of the instrument into subscales. Internal consistency analysis of coefficient alpha was utilized to identify reliability of each question and subscale. Finally, a Pearson’s correlation analysis was conducted to justify further construct validity.

Results
Of the 31 items, 20 of them received a 100% essential rating form the expert panel. Eight items received an essential rating from 83.33% of the expert panel. The final three items received an essential rating from 66.67% of the expert panel. The factor analysis placed the items in four different categories. Although there was a low sample size, the highest eigenvalue of the study was a 13.634. This value suggests that the sample was robust for the population. The first subscale was labeled “perceptions of behavior statements.” That subscale had an excellent internal consistency rating of $\alpha = .959$. The second subscale was labeled “tolerance with crowding statements.” That subscale had good internal consistency rating of $\alpha = .891$. The third subscale was labeled “tolerance with interactions statements.” This subscale had an acceptable internal consistency rating of $\alpha = .771$. The fourth subscale did not meet the
minimum alpha of .70, so the researchers eliminated the items. The final instrument contained three subscales that were valid and reliable (Clemens, 2017).

**Discussion**

The study successfully validated a standardized and reliable instrument for measuring perceived outdoor recreational conflict and crowding issues between two people or parties. While the instrument will still need testing for reliability after further use, it will provide an added understanding of outdoor recreational conflict and crowding without the need of assessing validity for each use and location. New research is suggested to continue to identify outdoor recreational conflict and crowding at other known territorial areas such as surf beaches, kayaking rivers, and climbing walls. Pearson's correlations indicated that all three subscales are correlated and may influence each other and perception of conflict. It is recommended to analyze this correlation further. Finally, aligning this instrument with other standardized instruments may produce a better understanding how perceived conflict and crowding can interact with other concepts of leisure, i.e., motivation, benefit, experience, social engagement (Clemens, 2017).

**Application**

Utilizing this instrument can assist recreational practitioners and natural resource managers when trying to determine potential issues occurring within their area to manage to use best and decrease outdoor recreation conflict and crowding. As managers understand the perceptions and recreation goals of the participants, they can better plan and manage the capacity and activities in the area. Managers of outdoor recreational sites may change their trail usage and accessibility depending where individuals recognize high conflict or crowding problems. Specific trails may only be accessible for cyclists and hikers while other pathways may be for horses only. Also, if management identifies specific recreational groups are perceiving conflict in areas consistently, they may be active in promoting sharing resources through signage, online and brochure promotions, and talking to groups that conflict with each other to encourage a positive shared experience. In addition to resource managers, guides and trip leaders who recognize conflict in specific locations can better decide where to take groups, consider different activities on a trip, and alter the timing of excursions and activities, all to prevent or reduce conflict and crowding with other parties. In conclusion, the development of this standardized instrument for measuring perceived outdoor recreational conflict and crowding issues will further assist scholars in enhancing their understanding of conflict and crowding and support practitioners and management of natural resource locations to manage resources usage and work with groups who perceive conflict when sharing outdoor recreational resources (Clemens, 2017).

Curtis Clemens, Oklahoma State University, curtis.clemens@okstate.edu
Table 2. Percentage of expert panel rating each questions as essential and subscale coefficient alpha

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceptions of Behavior Statements</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group X do not follow the written rules of the Recreation Location.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>.959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X litter.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are too many Group X.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X are not friendly.</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X disrupt wildlife.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X are in my way.</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X behave in a discourteous and rude manner.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X intentionally vandalize natural environment.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X block/disrupt my natural views.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X fail to be aware of others around them.</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X unintentionally damage the natural environment.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X are too noisy.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X are unsafe.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X do not pick up after themselves.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X block entrances and exits.</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X do not follow the common unwritten rules of Recreation Location.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance with Crowding Statements</td>
<td></td>
<td>.891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X’s presence reduce my enjoyment of Recreation Location.</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X cause me to feel crowded at Recreation Location.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would recreate at Recreation Location more often if there were fewer Group X.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I choose to go to Recreation Location at a time when I think there will be fewer Group X.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I avoid Recreation Location if I know there will be a lot of Group X.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance with Interaction Statements</td>
<td></td>
<td>.772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X bother me at Recreation Location.</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group X make feel unsafe at Recreation Location.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not want to interact with Group X while at Recreation Location.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I change my plans (timing or activity) because I think there are too many Group X I would say something to the Recreation Location management.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I think there are too many Group X at Recreation Location, I would say something to Recreation Location management.</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
References


The Oklahoma Wildlife Expo is an annual outdoor recreation event hosted by the Oklahoma Department of Wildlife Conservation (ODWC) that attracts visitors from across the state and beyond. The Wildlife Expo features outdoor recreational and educational opportunities for the whole family with more than 100 activities, educational displays, and seminars, including shotgun shooting, rock climbing, archery, wildlife management, mountain biking, fishing, ATV riding, wildlife watching, hunting, etc. According to the U.S. Census, the population in Oklahoma has become more diverse, for instance, the Hispanic population has increased from 8.9% in 2010 to 10.3% in 2016. Likewise, Oklahoma, like the nation, faces record growth in older population. The 65 and older group is the fastest growing and is expected to increase from 13.5% in 2010 to 18.8% of the state’s projected populations in 2030 (Oklahoma State Plan on Aging 2015-2018). As suggested by Stodolska (2015) recreation providers who work in diverse communities or whose communities’ demographics are shifting should follow different strategies to maximize the benefits and alleviate constraints on the use of recreation resources by ethnic and racial minorities. According to ODWC, the estimated attendance at the 2017 Wildlife Expo was about 46,053 with a 6% increase from last year. This outdoor recreation event has been conducted for twelve years, and through a small increase in recent years, attendance of minorities has remained low. The purpose of this study was to conduct an assessment of this outdoor recreation event to identify attendants’ profile and their overall satisfaction of the event.

Methods
Data collection was conducted by an on-site visitor survey developed in collaboration with ODWC. All participants were voluntary respondents (18 years old and above). The study was designed to inquire respondents' profile and their assessment of the Wildlife Expo. It included a section with standard demographic questions (i.e., gender, age, race, and ethnicity) and questions related to the characteristics of their visit and participation in the event (i.e., number of adults in the group, number of children in the group, prior attendance, and rating of overall experience). The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and chi-square analysis.

Results
From the total of 649 respondents, 53% were females, 44% were males, and 3% did not respond. The age of respondents ranged from 18 to 80 years; the median age was 39 years old. The highest representation of people between 31-50 years old (65%), followed by 51-64 years old (17%), 18-30 years old (12%), and the smallest representation of 65 years and older group (6%). Most respondents reported their race as White (81%), American Indian or Alaska Native (7%), Bi-racial or Multi-racial (4%), Black (2%), Asian (2%), and about 5% of respondents hesitated to select any race. Only 4% of respondents identified their ethnicity as Hispanic or Latino, while the vast majority of visitors were not Hispanic or Latino (94%), and 2% provided no response. About race and ethnicity, the results reflect a significant difference between Oklahoma demographics and those of the Wildlife Expo participants (Table 1). Most participants reported one or more children within their group (81%), and the rest of visitors only had adults in their group. About 60% of respondents have attended the Wildlife Expo in a prior year, while only 40% were first-time visitors. Overall, 15% of first-time visitors were Hispanics, Native Americans, Blacks, Asians, and Bi-Racial or Multiracial. The most represented group among first-time visitors were 31-50 years old (62%), followed by 51-64 years old (15%), 18-30 years old (14%), and the least represented were 65 years and older with only 9%. Most respondents (98%) came from the state of Oklahoma, and only 3% came from out of state. Participants were asked to rate their overall experience on a five-point scale from 1 (Very Dissatisfied) to 5 (Very Satisfied). Most respondents rated their overall...
experience as highly satisfactory with "Very Satisfied" (83%), "Satisfied" (14%), and "Neutral" (2%). According to chi-square analysis, non-white visitors and white visitors experienced the same overall satisfaction. Males and females also reported similar satisfaction with the event. Only 1% of respondents rated their overall experience at the Wildlife Expo as "Very Dissatisfied" (Figure 1). The main reasons reported by respondents for their low rating were regarding facilities, including bathrooms and seating areas, lack of food vendor choices, and missing recreation activities offered in previous years.

**Discussion**

Findings of this study show most of the surveyed visitors to this annual outdoor recreation event in Oklahoma were returning visitors (60%) with a high level of satisfaction (83%). The typical survey respondents were White, females, not Hispanic or Latino, median age 39 years old, and with one or more children in their group. Results of the study indicate demographics collected from respondents at the 2017 Wildlife Expo had some differences in the demographics of the Oklahoma population (U. S. Bureau of Census). Black, Bi-racial or Multi-racial, and Hispanic or Latino had a significant underrepresentation among respondents (Table 1). The fastest growing age group (65 years plus) was underrepresented among respondents. Despite increasing diversity in the state, findings showed attendance of diverse groups remains low though "very satisfied" in the largest outdoor recreation event in Oklahoma.

**Application to practice**

Researching participation, use, and preferences for outdoor recreation among different groups can provide useful information for practitioners to increase the multiple benefits of outdoor recreation participation for diverse groups. Understanding changing demographics and constraints should be considered when planning for outdoor recreation (Shinew, Floyd, & Parry, 2004). Recreation programs and facilities should be designed to meet the varied needs of diverse groups to enjoy outdoor recreation. For instance, language-related constraints for people unable to understand English could be reduced by making information available in other languages (Ghimire, Green, Poudyal, & Cordell, 2014). As the number of ethnic minorities and older adults in the U.S. population is expected to increase, innovation in outreach, marketing, and recruitment may help to increase their participation in outdoor recreation. Targeted marketing and social media outreach may help to increase diverse participation. The findings can help recreation practitioners as they make decisions to invest their resources into services and facilities that meet the needs demanded by diverse outdoor recreation participants.

Catalina Palacios, Oklahoma State University, 615-724-8592, catalip@okstate.edu
Table 1. 2010-2017 Wildlife Expo Demographics vs. US Census for Oklahoma

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Wildlife Expo</th>
<th>U.S. Census for Oklahoma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bi-racial or multi-racial</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian or Alaska Native</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian Hispanic or Latino</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Hispanic or Latino</td>
<td>96%</td>
<td>94%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. “Excellent” satisfactory rating from 2010-2017 relative to attendance
Selected References


THE ROLE OF YOUTH SPORTS IN LIFELONG HEALTH
Joseph Lovell, Dixie State University

Introduction/Rationale
Organized youth sports attracts millions of youth participants each year. While the percentage of youth that participate in at least one day has remained stable around 70%, participation in team sports on a regular basis continues to decline each year with the recent participation rate being in the 30% range (The Aspen Institute, 2017; Crane & Temple, 2015). Even more alarming is each year approximately 35% of young athletes stop participating in sport and by the time a child reaches the age of 14, 70-80% are no longer engaged in active sport participation (Cary, 2004; Engh, 2002; Merkel, 2013). While the reduction in sport participation rates are concerning to leisure professionals, the impact of physical inactivity is concerning for all of society. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2011) reported 17% of youth in the United States are obese. In addition, more than one-third of adults are obese in the United States (Ogden, Carroll, & Kit, 2014). According to Mokdad et al. (2001), obesity and diseases related to obesity have increased health care costs dramatically and has negatively affected the economy. In addition, the recent societal focus on mental health issues has been related to the inability of individuals to develop a positive perception of social and emotional wellness. These negative health indicators have led to the conclusion that physical inactivity is one of the major public health concerns of the 21st century (Blair, 2009).

Participation in sport has been associated with creating and leading a healthy life as well as having a positive relationship with psychosocial and emotional development. (Fraser-Thomas, Cote, & Deakin, 2007; International Platform on Sport and Development, 2011). As organized sport has traditionally been a major pursuit for youth in the United States, there is a concern the lack of continual participation in sport may negatively influence the health and wellness of individuals in adolescence and may even extend into adulthood. High school athletics appears to be the main avenue for sport participation once a child enters secondary school. Cohen, Taylor, Zonta, Vestal, and Schuster (2007) reported the average high school offered 14 sport programs to students with an average of 31% of the student body participating in sport programs. However, when a school offered 13 or less sport programs, only 14% of the student body participated. These data points indicate the majority of students are restricted from participating in sports. Intramural sports has been used by some schools to increase physical activity and improve perceived wellness in adolescents. However, intramurals sports are only available in 45% of secondary schools in the United States (Fuller, Sabiston, Karp, Barnett, & O’Loughlin, 2011). With the limited options for sport participation in adolescence and the majority of youth dropping out of sport by high school (Cary, 2004; Engh, 2002; Merkel, 2013), there is a need to understand the influence sport participation may have on an individual’s health later in life. The purpose of this study was to investigate the differences in physical activity levels and perceived wellness later in life between participants and non-participants of high school athletics. This purpose helps to answer whether or not participation in high school athletics enhances perceived wellness and develops habits of physical activity for later in life.

Methods
The intent of the study examined if participation in high school athletics has a positive influence on physical activity levels and perceived wellness later in life. The study sample consisted of 564 alumni (69.1% female) from a university in the Midwestern United States. Participants completed a self-reported electronic survey utilizing the Godin Leisure-time Exercise Questionnaire to gauge the participant’s physical activity during a typical seven-day week with regard to strenuous, moderate, and mild exercise (Godin, 2011). Participants’ self-perceived wellness was recorded through self-reported completion of the modified Perceived Wellness Survey focusing on physical, emotional, and social wellness as well as a combined total wellness score (Adams, Beznar, Garner, & Woodruff, 1998). Using participation in high school athletics as the independent variable, the data was analyzed based on the physical activity levels and
perceived wellness scores of previous high school athletes and non-athletes later in life (59.2% HS athletes). Participants were also stratified for comparison into the three adult stages of the lifespan: young adulthood, middle adulthood, and late adulthood.

**Results**

The physical activity levels and perceived wellness of individuals in the three adult life stages were examined using an ANOVA comparing former participation and non-participation in high school athletics. An ANOVA indicated significant differences between groups in all areas. Post-hoc analysis was utilized to examine the differences (Table 1). Athletes in young adulthood showed significant differences in strenuous physical activity (p<.01) when compared to non-athletes in young adulthood. Athletes in late adulthood showed significant differences in moderate physical activity (p<.01) when compared to non-athletes in late adulthood. Non-athletes in young adulthood showed significant negative differences in emotional wellness (p<.001), physical wellness (p<.01), and total wellness (p<.001) when compared to athletes in young adulthood. Additionally, athletes in middle adulthood had significant differences in total wellness (p<.05) when compared to non-athletes in middle adulthood.

**Application to Practice**

This study provides strong evidence that high school athletics may be a valuable tool in developing habits for healthy lifestyles as youth transition into adulthood. Based on the results of the study, it is reasonable to consider that high school aged youth that participate in similar sport programs may achieve similar results. Therefore, leisure professionals should consider structured participation in sport as a viable avenue to improving physical activity and perceived wellness later in life. Because programming for youth in high school is often limited, there is a need for more structured sport opportunities for all youth, not just the select few that make the high school team. Parks and recreation agencies have a great opportunity to help fill this void by offering additional recreational sport programs that target youth in high school. The major challenge for recreation professionals will be creating an environment and structure similar to high school athletics, specifically trained coaches, equipment, facility access, and community support. Therefore, park and recreation professionals should consider allocating or re-allocating resources as well as seeking funding to develop and provide structured recreational sport opportunities for adolescents. These recommendations, if implemented, could have a profound impact on the future health of the nation by contributing to the improvement of individual physical activity habits and increasing individual perceived wellness throughout the lifespan. This additional focus for parks and recreation agencies may extend further in helping to decrease the obesity epidemic and other health related diseases associated with physical inactivity as well as poor personal wellness and thus improve the overall health and wellness of society.

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Table 1. *Significant results utilizing the means and post hoc analyses based upon high school athlete and non-athlete by life stage*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Group 1 (Mean)</th>
<th>Group 2 (Mean)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strenuous Physical Activity</td>
<td>Athlete Young Adult (2.55)</td>
<td>Non-Athlete Young Adult (1.70)</td>
<td>.002**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate Physical Activity</td>
<td>Athlete Late Adult (3.79)</td>
<td>Non-Athlete Late Adult (2.34)</td>
<td>.002**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Wellness</td>
<td>Athlete Young Adult (23.60)</td>
<td>Non-Athlete Young Adult (21.54)</td>
<td>.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Wellness</td>
<td>Athlete Young Adult (24.05)</td>
<td>Non-Athlete Young Adult (22.06)</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Wellness</td>
<td>Athlete Young Adult (73.13)</td>
<td>Non-Athlete Young Adult (68.15)</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Athlete Middle Adult (71.09)</td>
<td>Non-Athlete Middle Adult (69.58)</td>
<td>.037*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001
References


PLANNING FOR RECREATION AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN A COMMUNITY
Catalina Palacios, Oklahoma State University
Donna Lindenmeier, Oklahoma State University
Lowell Caneday, Oklahoma State University

Introduction/rationale
Residents play a key role in the planning and development of varied recreational opportunities and tourism in their community. Recreation and tourism planning in a community should be based on an active participation of residents as decision-makers. If tourism and recreation planners understand how residents perceive the impacts of tourism in a community, tourism and recreational development options can be planned in a way that improve the overall quality of life for residents (Andereck, Pachmayer & Zhao, 2012). In communities that are undertaking tourism local authorities, community leaders, and recreation planners should engage in development initiatives that enhance local infrastructure, increase recreational community choices and improve varied amenities to be shared by residents and tourists alike. Likewise, a favorable attitude towards tourism should be promoted within the community (Palacios, 2017). The city of Guthrie in Oklahoma is a national historic landmark site with a wide variety of natural, historic, and cultural attractions. Guthrie is a rapidly growing city with a unique and business friendly climate which combines a focus on an extraordinary history with economic development opportunities (Logan County Economic Development, 2018). Community leaders and local authorities have undertaken efforts to consolidate Guthrie as a tourist destination, providing a variety of attractions, facilities, special events and recreational activities to increase the number of tourists to the community. The purpose of this study was to examine residents’ perceived impacts of tourism and ratings of potential tourism development options in Guthrie for planning and development of further recreation and tourism in the community.

Methods
Data were collected using a questionnaire using Qualtrics for online surveys and an identical paper survey from voluntary participants residents (18 years or older) of Guthrie. The instrument was developed based on prior research and included questions of perceived impacts of recreation and tourism (Perdue et al., 1990; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Wang & Pfister, 2008; Byrd, et al., 2009; Latkova & Vogt, 2012), acceptability of recreation and tourism development options (Andereck & Vogt, 2000), demographics, and community attachment. Perceived recreation and tourism impacts were evaluated by attitude statements. Acceptability of potential recreation and tourism development options was measured on a 5-point scale not acceptable/very acceptable. Demographics (i.e. gender and age) and two questions related to community attachment (i.e. length of residence and civic organization membership) were also included in the survey. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics.

Results
A total of 83 usable surveys were completed of which 34% (28) were taken online and 66% (55) were taken using paper surveys. Most (65%) of the respondents were female and 35% were male. The age of respondents ranged from 18 to 100, with 48 years old as the median age. The average length of residence of respondents in Guthrie was 23 years and most (60%) were active members of a civic organization (i.e. local church, PTA, scouts, etc.) in the community. Overall, perceived positive impacts of tourism had the highest mean (3.79) among respondents, in comparison to perceived negative impacts of tourism development in the community (3.03). The highest mean score (4.17) on perceived positive impacts of tourism was equal for both, the improvement of the local economy due to increased tourism, and an increase in community’s tax revenue. The perception of better shopping, restaurants, and entertainment options in the community as a result of tourism (4.15) was next. As for perceived negative impacts of tourism, the highest mean score (3.62) was about increased traffic problems due to tourism development in the community, followed by more litter in the area due to tourism (3.32) (see Table 1). The ratings of acceptability of potential recreation and tourism development options indicated the most acceptable options were special
events and outdoor attractions, with festivals/fairs/events (M=4.40); parks (M=4.39), and outdoor recreation opportunities (M=4.37) receiving very high ratings. On the contrary, development of bars, taverns, or clubs (M=3.53) was the least acceptable option to the majority of respondents (Table 2).

**Discussion**
The results indicated that respondents had favorable attitudes toward recreation and tourism development. Overall, perceived positive impacts of tourism outweighed perceived negative impacts. Respondents had a positive perception of the role of tourism in their community in comparison to the perceived negative impacts. These findings are consistent with previous research (McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Perdue et al., 1990). Respondents seemed to be concerned about environmental issues such as increased traffic problems and more litter in the area due to tourism development. Respondents seemed to agree more about their perception of the economic benefits of tourism development than about its contributions to the community, particularly in regards to improved quality of public services due to tourism. In a historic landmark site, as Guthrie, respondents rated as the most acceptable potential recreation and tourism development options: 1) festivals/fairs/events, 2) parks, and 3) outdoor recreation opportunities in the top three. This ranking could be an indicator that respondents are more supportive of potential tourism and recreation development which not only attract more visitors to the community but can also be enjoyed by residents alike.

**Implications for practice**
Conducting research and to involve locals by asking the types of recreation and tourism development options desired and needed in their community can help community leaders, recreation and tourism practitioners, and local entrepreneurs to plan for effective tourism development. The findings of this study can help recreation and tourism developers in the development of strategies for planning recreation and tourism that meet the needs of residents in their community. If recreation and tourism planners understand how residents perceive the impacts of tourism, then tourism initiatives can be planned in a way that improves the overall quality of life for residents (Andereck, Pachmayer & Zhao, 2012). Moreover, informing the community about tourism and its impacts can help strengthen the tourism industry by allowing all stakeholders to make informed decisions about the types of recreation and tourism development that take place in their community (Byrd, et.al, 2009).

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Table 1. Mean scores for perceived impacts of tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tourism Positive Impacts (Scale mean= 3.79)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism increases a community’s tax revenue</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased tourism improves the local economy</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping, restaurants, entertainment options are better in communities as a result of tourism.</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism development increases the number of recreational opportunities for local residents</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism industry provides worthwhile job opportunities for community residents</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism development improves a community’s appearance</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism decreases unemployment</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism development increases income and standard of living</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism provides incentives for protection and conservation of natural resources</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism helps preserve the cultural identity of my community</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The quality of public services in my community has improved due to tourism</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tourism Negative Impacts (Scale mean= 3.03)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism development increases the traffic problems</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism results in more litter in an area</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism development increases property taxes</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism results in an increase in the cost of living</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism development increases crime</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism results in more vandalism in a community</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism produces long-term negative effects on the environment</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Acceptability of potential recreation and tourism development options

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tourism Development Options</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Festivals/fairs/events</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parks</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor recreation opportunities</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurants</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historic/cultural attractions</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Museums</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bed and Breakfats/ inns</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail stores</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels/motels</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bars/taverns/clubs</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Selected References


AQUATIC MANAGEMENT AND LGBTQ PARTICIPANTS IN PARK AND RECREATION SETTINGS

Austin R. Anderson, University of Southern Indiana
William D. Ramos, Indiana University-Bloomington
Eric Knee, Indiana University-Bloomington

Rationale

The strategic goals of diversity, inclusion and social equity are at the heart of most modern public park and recreation departments across the United States. Within aquatic spaces specifically, there has been a historical lack of diversity when it comes to participation patterns across a variety of demographic categories (USA Swimming, 2011, 2016; Waller & Norwood, 2011). Given these historic disparities within aquatic spaces, this study was undertaken to identify possible managerial initiatives and barriers aimed at inclusion of LGBTQ participants in public park and recreation aquatic settings.

This study examined the management of aquatic venues in a number of areas (facilities, programming, human resource management, marketing, policies) as it pertains to LGBTQ participants and participation. The study utilized semi-structured interviews to examine the steps that current aquatic managers are currently taking (or lack thereof) when it comes to creating environments that are perceived to be open (or closed) to LGBTQ participants. The study provided an examination of different perspectives of aquatic administrators toward managing LGBTQ participation by including study participants in park and recreation settings from a variety of geographical areas and experience levels.

Methods

In-depth interviews were conducted with ten targeted aquatic managers within public park and recreation settings. These interviews were conducted via in-person and telephone interviews that ranged in length from 20-45 minutes. Participants were targeted through personal contacts of members of the research team and a national list of public aquatic managers shared by the American Red Cross (ARC) and participants in their Centennial Program.

Interviews were transcribed and analyzed using systematic constant comparison analysis consistent with tenants of the grounded theory approach (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). This analysis allows important thematic elements to emerge from the participants and their experiences within a particular area of interest (Mills, Bonner & Francis, 2006). In this study, the combination of in-depth interview data and constant comparative analysis within the grounded theory approach allowed the investigators to gather rich, descriptive data from participants about their management experiences vis-à-vis the LGBTQ community.

Results

The experiences of the selected aquatic managers related to the overall management of LGBTQ participants and participation varied based upon the individual demographics of the manager and the aquatic facilities themselves but did cluster around clearly defined themes emerging from the analysis of the data. These themes included: (a) physical space, (b) non-aquatic initiatives, (c) training and human resources, (d) departmental and organizational mission, (e) aquatic programming and regulations and (f) barriers to inclusion.

Discussion

Outcomes from the analysis can inform park and recreation professionals on the intersections of managing aquatic settings and addressing the concerns of the LGBTQ population. For example, a professional wishing to contribute to a positive and inviting culture for LGBTQ participant groups can focus their efforts on these specific areas in order to attract a diverse community of participants. Even though the participants from this study did not engage in specific programming for members of the LGBTQ community, individuals did acknowledge how members of the LGBTQ community are a part of their staff. Thus, providing additional conversation regarding equity in the workplace and the need for professional development trainings.
The information in this study serves as a starting point for open dialogue and administrative decision making around LGBTQ population groups in aquatic settings. The study underlines several important managerial areas in which current administrators feel uncomfortable and ill-equipped to address. This points to a vital need for further education, discussion, and community engagement when it comes to aquatic facilities and members of the LGBTQ community.

**Application to practice**

This study can produce important management policies and best practices aimed at rethinking and advancing the ways in which aquatic professionals facilitate diverse, inclusive, and equitable programs. While data revealed the areas that aquatic managers recognize as important to promoting LGBTQ inclusion, it further reveals existing “blind spots” in managing for LGBTQ inclusion. For instance, facility design was almost universally discussed by managers with little focus on programming and managing for the LGBTQ population. By drawing attention to these disparities, this study provides an important context for aquatic professionals to refocus their management strategies to ensure inclusive access to LGBTQ participants. This refocus necessitates training, understanding, and growth in all areas of aquatic management, particularly those found to be uncomfortable for managers. Finally, aquatic managers often focused their responses on general statements of diversity and inclusion, promoting openness by not singling out specific populations. This is certainly an admirable sentiment; however, results show that this discourse leads to broad statements of inclusion and often results in programs not having explicit statements and policies of inclusion. Implementing such statements and directly relating them to action-based outcomes would benefit aquatic programs’ efforts to promote diversity, inclusion, and social equity. Future studies are recommended using a larger and more diverse sample, as well as utilizing different methodologies to understand current management practices with diverse populations.

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References


DOES LEISURE EXPERIENCE AS RESOURCES TO COPE WITH STRESSORS INCREASE POSITIVE AFFECT IN DAILY LIFE?
Shang-Ti Chen, Penn State University
Jinshil Hyun, Penn State University
Alan Graefe, Penn State University
Martin J. Silwinski, Penn State University

Introduction
Daily stressors refer to “routine challenges, such as the everyday concerns of work, caring for other people, and commuting between work and home.” (Almeida, 2005, p. 62). Daily stressors have negative effects on health and well-being, such as increasing the likelihood of general affective distress (Charles, Piazza, Mogle, Sliwinski, & Almeida, 2013). Researchers have demonstrated that leisure experiences operate as a coping resource (Iwasaki & Mannell, 2000). Understanding how individuals utilize resources, such as leisure experiences, to cope with daily stressors is important for designing interventions that maintain psychological health and increase well-being (Qian, Yarnal, & Almeida, 2014).

Coleman and Iso-Ahola (1993) reported that leisure experience can serve as a “buffer” resource between stressors and psychological health; that is, leisure experiences have a positive influence on psychological health and reduce negative effects of stressors on health. Pressman et al. (2009) further indicated that individuals who had experienced more stress but who participated in more leisure activities showed lower levels of depression and higher positive affect (PA). Taken together, experiencing leisure, such as engaging in a meaningful physical activity or enjoyable social interactions, is associated with a lower level of stress and a higher level of PA.

Given that PA and stress are dynamic, change over time, and vary across individuals, information derived from single time-point assessments is limited (Zautra, Affleck, Tennen, Reich, & Davis, 2005). Use of multiple time-scale research design permits precise examination of the relations between leisure experiences and everyday PA and stress from macro time-scale measures to micro time scales. That is, the research design facilitates inspection of within-person as well as between-person associations (Sliwinski, 2011). However, there has been little research that examined the role of leisure in multiple time scales. Examining between- and within-person associations between leisure and PA is of theoretical as well as practical interest to provide daily intervention. The purpose of this study is to examine the moderating effects of leisure experiences during the previous month on the momentary association between stress and PA in daily life.

Methods
Data for the present analysis are drawn from The Effects of Stress on Cognitive Aging, Physiology and Emotion (ESCAPE) project, a longitudinal study that collected intensive repeated measures of its namesake variables at multiple time scales. The current study used data from the second wave only. A total of 176 participants completed Ecological Momentary Assessment (EMA) 5 times a day for 14-days that included a short smartphone-based survey about their stress and affect. Momentary PA was calculated as the average of the participant’s ratings of four items including happy, enjoyment, joyful, and pleased at each occasion (Diener & Emmons, 1984). The items were assessed on a continuous visual analogue scale (not at all = 0, extremely = 100). Momentary stressors was assessed by participants checking yes (1) or no(0) to “Did anything stressful occur since the last survey?” Prior to the 14-day EMA protocol, leisure experiences were measured through10 items that assessed how often participants had spent time doing each leisure activity (e.g., involvement in hobbies; visiting friends or relatives) in the previous month (Pressman et al., 2009). Scale scores are calculated as the sum of responses (maximum = 50). Data analysis was conducted using SAS 9.4. Incomplete data were treated as missing at random. Statistical significance was evaluated at α = 0.05. Between-person correlations were conducted to confirm the relation between leisure experiences, momentary PA, momentary stress, and age. Multilevel models (Snijders & Bosker, 1999) were used to examine
whether leisure experiences moderated the within-person association between stressors and level of PA in daily life.

Results
The current study included 176 adults (67% women; age = 25-66, M = 48.03, SD = 11.11). Momentary measures (i.e., PA and stressors) were averaged across all within-person measures to compute the between-person correlations in Table 1. On average, leisure experiences and momentary PA were moderately correlated (r = 0.37, p < .001) (Cohen, 1988); leisure experiences were not correlated to momentary stressors. Average momentary stressors and PA reports across beeps were negatively associated (r = -.21, p < .01). By fitting the multilevel model, we tested the effects of person-centered leisure experiences and momentary stressors on momentary PA, controlling for age, gender, and education. As shown in Table 2, leisure experiences significantly (estimate = 0.83, p < .001) predicted momentary PA, indicating that people who engaged in more frequent leisure activities were more likely to have better PA in daily life. In addition, results show that momentary stressors significantly (estimate = -14.55, p < .001) predicted momentary PA. That is, at the moment, people reported lower PA at times when a stressor occurred compared to times when a stressor did not occur. Finally, we tested whether leisure experiences moderated the effect of stressors on PA. Results showed that the interaction between person-centered leisure experiences and daily stressors was not significant (estimate = 0.18, p > 0.05).

Implication to Practice
The current study examined the within- and between-person associations between PA and stress in daily life, as well as potential stress-buffering effects of leisure. Our findings are consistent with previous research (e.g., Qian, Yarnal, & Almeida, 2014) that there are no moderating effects of daily leisure time on the association between stress and PA in daily life. That is, people who engaged in more frequent leisure activities at baseline did not have better PA at the moment under stress compared to those who have lower frequent leisure activities. The findings should be considered by practitioners in the development of enjoyable leisure experiences for monitoring and enhancing emotional well-being in daily life. In addition, to examine the effectiveness of intervention, practitioners can consider measuring changes in daily PA as an outcome. Future studies are recommended examining uplifting events and negative affect, as well as stressors and PA, to further examine the moderating role of leisure experience in daily experiences.

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Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Age</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Leisure experiences</td>
<td>0.22*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. PA</td>
<td>0.24*</td>
<td>0.37*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Stressors a</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.21*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|M| 48.03 | 24.93 | 58.71 | 0.17 |
|SD| 11.11 | 7.05  | 18.68 | 0.18 |

Note. N = 176. *p < .05. M = mean. SD = standard deviation. a Mean value reflects average taken across days and beeps for each individual.

Table 2

Unstandardized Estimates and Standard Errors: The Effect of Person-Centered Leisure Experiences on The Association between Positive Affect and Stressors in Daily Life

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Momentary Positive Affect</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>SE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fixed Effect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>60.13*</td>
<td>2.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.35*</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Momentary Stressors</td>
<td>-14.55*</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Momentary Stressors</td>
<td>-16.08*</td>
<td>6.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person-Centered Leisure Experiences</td>
<td>0.83*</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Momentary Stressors X Person-Centered Leisure Experiences</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Random Effects            |          |     |
| Variance Intercept        | 299.27*  | 34.00|
| Variance Any Stressors    | 153.37*  | 22.93|
| Covariance Intercept and Any Stressors | -88.85* | 22.21|
| Residual Variance         | 247.33*  | 3.37|

| -2LL                      | 93598.80 |
| AIC                       | 93606.80 |

Note. * p < .05, N = 176. SE = standard errors. Model controlled for age, gender, and education.
References


PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS TURNS WORKING CATTLE FARM INTO COMMUNITY PARK

Tricia Ann Jordan, Western Kentucky University
Brad Stinnett, Western Kentucky University
Fred Gibson, Western Kentucky University

Introduction/Rationale

Park and recreation practitioners are faced with shrinking resources coupled with increasing expectations to enhance programs and facilities necessitating the need for new funding sources (Jacoby-Garrett, 2016; Hayward, 2012). Public-private partnerships (P3s) provide one means to meet this funding challenge while also granting access to additional expertise (Busler, 2014). P3s involve circumstances in which the public sector partner with either non-profit or for-profit organizations to program, enhance revenue, or promote economic growth (Busler, 2014). These partnerships occur in park development (Jordan, Upright, & Gibson, 2015), program management (Jacoby-Garrett, 2016), and tourism initiatives (Weiermair, Peters, & Frehse, 2008).

Communities benefit from these partnerships because they result in increases in efficiency, innovation, quality and often reducing costs and promoting economic growth (Gibson et al., 2015; Busler, 2014). Potential challenges that partnerships must overcome include incongruencies in expectations, mission, and governance of partner agencies, poor role clarity, weak accountability, lack of understanding, and bad communication (Jordan & Upright, 2016; Jordan et al., 2015; Rall, Reed, & Farber 2010). To overcome these challenges and contribute to the success of the P3, researchers propose P3s have committed leadership, defined vision, clearly defined roles and expectations, and candid, transparent communication (NCPPP, 2017; Rall et al., 2010; Weiermair et al., 2008).

Each project has its own unique characteristics. Continual examination of how communities use P3s as part of park and recreation programming and development allows other practitioners to learn from peers’ experiences. This case sought to understand how one community developed a working cattle farm into a community park using P3s. Researchers examine challenges experienced, benefits of P3s, and lessons learned.

Methodology

The case study research design allowed for the understanding of complex issues surrounding the park’s development (Slavin, 2007) and gathering each participant’s perspectives as the project evolved (Yin, 2014; Creswell, 2007). Data collection occurred in three phases: Phase 1, review of P3 literature; Phase 2 review of project documents including master plan, meeting notes, and newspaper articles; Phase 3 semi-structured interviews of park steering committee members (n=6) and project partner interviews (n=3) and park observations (Olson, 1982; Patton, 2002). Researchers designed an interview process to aid consistency (Patton, 2002). Interviews occurred from January 1-February 28, 2017. An interview guide established questions topics and allowed for follow-up questions (Ehigie & Ehigie, 2005). With permission all interviews where taped and detailed interview notes were taken. Interviews lasted 45-60 minutes. Transcription occurred immediately after each interview. Transcripts were checked for accuracy. Observations occurred from Fall 2016-Fall 2017. As a participant observer, the researcher sought to understand existing park development versus proposed development from interview and master plan data collected. The constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) allowed themes to emerge from the data. A convergence of evidence from the multiple data sources supported each theme (Yin, 2014). Themes were developed by each researcher individually and finalized through a group discussion of the findings. Utilization of a thick description aided in transferability by providing the project’s context (Creswell, 2007). Issues of validity and reliability were addressed through research design by selecting key-informants with first-hand project knowledge (Bogdan & Bilken, 2003) and maintaining an evidence chain (Merriam, 1998; Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2014).

Results
The project began with a bequest including a 265-acre cattle farm and accompanying $2.5 million-dollar trust in 2009. Property features included rolling hills, pastures, timber stand, lake/ponds, home, and barns. Initial challenges faced by community leaders included project funding, partnership identification, and incorporation of various community needs, interests, and wants related to park development. A steering committee guided the process. Committee membership includes the mayor, administrator, park superintendent, engineer, community development director, city council representative, two trustees, and park property manager (n=9). As part of the planning process, community input was sought, partnerships where identified, and master plan evolved. Current partners include a community bank, the cooperative extension, a trust, and the city. Initially developed park features: disk golf courses, multi-purpose walking trail, accessible canoe/kayak launch, parking, event barn, and welcome center/conference room space. Future additions include a dog park, playground, pavilion, and extension office.

The results of the coding process produced three thematic areas including benefits, challenges, and lessons learned. Multiple sub-themes are associated with each area. Table 1 contains a summary of emergent themes and sub-themes.

**Application to Practice Outcomes**

This case study serves as an example for others using P3s in park development by providing insight into the process. The emergent themes support the idea that communication is critical to project success (NCPPP, 2017; Rall et al., 2010; Weiermair et al., 2008). Recommendations stemming from this project suggest communication should occur throughout the project not just during initial stages when the project is exciting and new. It is important to continue this communication as the project evolves. Avoiding uncomfortable topics may be detrimental to established partnerships and the project. Through open and honest communication, the roles, responsibilities, and funding commitments of partners may be clearly defined. Communicate to help foster partner relationships. Communicating your story and vision for the parks development is vitally important as leadership changes occur and new partners join the project. Finally, effective communication with internal and external stakeholders is imperative.

As found within previous research (Jordan & Upright, 2016; Jordan et al., 2015; Rall et al., 2010) poor role clarity, lack of understanding, and incongruent expectations were challenges associated with this projects P3. Planning may alleviate some challenges. Planning recommendations from this project include developing a sound foundation for the master plan. This allows partners to stay true to the document’s visions while also allowing flexible. Finally, understanding project revenue streams is vital. Consider multiple revenue streams and clearly establishing responsibility and authority of funding distribution and oversight for each partner.

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Table 1: Summary of Benefits, Challenges, & Lessons Learned

Benefits

Resources:
- Human resources: “More involved produces better outcome and greater expertise”
- Economic
  - New attraction: “Conferences, meetings, recreational space”
  - Connectivity: “Tied to quality of life and ability to attract new industry; ability to retain populations, workforce, and knowledge”

Challenges

Communication
- Frequency: “How often during each project phase is necessary”
- Form: “Meetings and attendees”
- Content: “Roles, responsibilities, and relationships”

Understanding
- Project completion: “Project conceptualization to park opening”
- Project vision: “Lack of mutual agreement of vision”

Funding
- “Appreciation of trust funds”
- “Timing of trust fund spending: Development or park maintenance spending”
- Delineation of “partner responsibilities/roles”

Lessons Learned

Communication
- “Vital part of partnership”
- “Maintain frequency throughout project”
- Include “internal and external”
- “Keep telling story”
- “Develop roles, responsibilities, and relationships”

Planning
- “Coordinate property development”
- Spend “time clearly defining roles and responsibilities”
- Master Plan: “Stay true to vision / mission, dynamic and flexible document, allow property features and infrastructure to guide development “
- Understand the project will be “time intensive”

Understanding Funding Sources
- Project will “cost more than anticipated”
- Identify “funding roles, responsibility, and authority upfront”
- Use “multiple funding sources”: grants, contributions, other external sources
References


Yin, R.K (2014). *Case study research design and methods* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA
12-Week Exercise and Life Satisfaction of Older Adults in LTC Facility

According to the Administration on Aging (2011), the number of older adults in the United States stood at approximately 40.4 million in 2010, and this number is projected to increase to 55 million in 2020 and 70 million in 2030. As the population of older adults increases, the number of individuals who need Long Term Care (LTC) facilities increased accordingly (Harris-Kojetin, Sengupta, Park-Lee, & Valverde, 2013). Approximately one million people nationwide live in an LTC facility, and 91 percent of them need help with activities of daily living, and 86 percent of need help with their daily medication (Best-Martini & Botenhagen-DiGenova, 2003).

These older adults needed physical as well as emotional assistance in order to experience satisfaction with their lives. Many researchers have examined the relationship between life-satisfaction and exercise among older adults. These researchers have suggested that exercise may potentially improve older adults’ reported life-satisfaction levels (Hacker, 2009; Inal, Subasi, Ay, & Hayran, 2007; Lannem, Sørensen, Frøslie, & Hjeltnes, 2009). More specifically, prior research has demonstrated the important relationship between resistance band exercise and improvements in life-satisfaction levels in a private setting (American College of Sports Medicine, 2013).

However, little literature exists that describes results with older adults in LTC facilities. In addition, current research has yet to examine many of the results derived from organized resistance band exercise programs for older adults in LTC facilities and the potential effects on reported life-satisfaction levels. As a result, this study examined the relationship between life-satisfaction levels and resistance band exercise programs for older adults in LTC facilities with the intent to determine if a resistance band exercise program can increase perceived life-satisfaction among older adults living in LTC facilities.

Methods

Participants of this research were older adults who were residing in a LTC facility in a southwestern city. Older adults were identified as persons who were 65 years old or older for this study. Older adults who met the criteria and agreed by signing the informed consent form participated in the study with the inclusion criteria for the proposed research were 1) participants should be at least 65 years of age and a resident of a LTC facility, 2) be free of medical disease such as diagnosis of Alzheimer’s, vascular, or drug/alcohol induced type dementia, 3) complete and sign an approved informed consent form prior to the research, 4) receive health clearance from a physician, and 5) be willing and able to participate in the 12-week program. Convenience sampling was utilized that 10 experimental participants and 12 control participants completed 12 weeks’ intervention based on the criteria selection. Participants were asked to complete the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) instrument at baseline, 4th, 8th and 12th weeks regardless of being in the experimental or control group. The experimental group was asked to complete the resistance exercise by utilizing the elastic exercise bands 3 days per week for 12 weeks, while the control group freely participated in the existing exercise program in a LTC facility. The intervention site provided strength and aerobic exercise classes for 30 minutes from Monday to Friday. The Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was utilized to compare difference of life-satisfaction level at baseline 4-week, 8-week, and 12-week testing period by employing the SPSS 20 to analyze the data with a pre-determined alpha at .05.

Results

The life-satisfaction level means of the experimental group gradually increased from baseline to the 12-week testing period. The mean scores of SWLS increased from baseline to the 4-week testing period (2.0 increase) and from 4-week to 8-week testing period (1.7 increase) gradually. However, the greatest increase occurred between the 8-week and the 12-week testing period (6.4 increase). The means of the control group indicated no continuous patterns existed. The mean scores of SWLS decreased from baseline to 4-week testing period (0.6 decrease). The results revealed that the means of control group from 4-week to 8-week testing period increased (1.9 increase) then...
decreasing over the last four weeks (1.0 decrease). In addition, the life-satisfaction levels mean of the experimental group that there were no statistically significant differences between baseline and 4-week, baseline and 8-week testing period, or between 4-week and 8-week testing period. However, there were statistically significant increases of SWLS levels between baseline ($p = .008$), 4-week ($p = .008$), 8-week ($p = .0005$) and 12-week test. The mean scores of SWLS of control group suggested there were no significant differences in life-satisfaction levels among all six comparisons.

**Discussion**

Results indicated that the mean scores of life-satisfaction levels for the experimental group revealed a gradual increase from baseline to the 4-week and from 4-weeks to 8-weeks survey, but there were no statistically significant differences. The mean score differences revealed by the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test indicated there were no statistically significant differences from baseline to 4-week, baseline to 8-week, and 4-weeks to 8-weeks. These findings were supported by Seefeldt, Malina and Clark (2002) that older adults typically are uncomfortable trying new programs so that the first four weeks of the new program are the hardest to be adapted to their satisfaction. There may be associated reasons such as participants’ uncertainty about the benefits of exercise because of a generational bias or that their life required more physically demanding work so participation in exercise might be undesirable. As many because older adults take additional time to develop self-efficacy, self-concept of the easiness and self-esteem related to their feelings related to new programs (Van Norman, 2010). However, starting with the 8-week interval there was a higher reported increase in life-satisfaction from 8-weeks to 12-weeks that represented a greater increase than baseline to 8-weeks. The analysis of 12-week scores supports a statistically significant as indicated by mean scores compared to baseline, 4-week, and 8-week scores. These outcomes are supported by the literature (Learmonth, Paul, Miller, Mattison & McFadyen, 2011) indicating improvement in reported life-satisfaction might need time to adjust to new programming before one can anticipate an increase in reported life-satisfaction.

**Implications for Practice**

The findings from this study provide valuable insight that resistance band exercise could be a beneficial to be a positively impact reported life-satisfaction for older adults residing in an LTC facility. This study can be useful to service providers and exercise professionals for the better understanding of resistance band exercise and its psychological benefits to older adults. Furthermore, practitioners could consider enhancing Despite the interesting findings, service providers and practitioners in an LTC facility should be aware and carefully assess both benefits and limitations of older adults involved in resistance band exercise programs.

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Table 1
Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Results of Life-satisfaction Levels Based on Different Time Periods over 12 weeks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Z Scores</td>
<td>Sig</td>
<td>Z Scores</td>
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<tr>
<td>Baseline</td>
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<tr>
<td>4 weeks</td>
<td>-1.725&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.084</td>
<td>- .771&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 weeks</td>
<td>-1.755&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.079</td>
<td>-1.086&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 weeks</td>
<td>-2.670&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>-.549&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.583</td>
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<tr>
<td>4 weeks</td>
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<tr>
<td>8 weeks</td>
<td>-.676&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.499</td>
<td>-1.842&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.065</td>
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<tr>
<td>12 weeks</td>
<td>-2.668&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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<td>.088</td>
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<tr>
<td>8 weeks</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 weeks</td>
<td>-2.809&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>-1.708&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.136</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note. b. Based on positive ranks
    c. Based on negative ranks
COLLEGE STUDENTS’ POST-VACATION BLUES AND COPING BEHAVIORS
Wen Xi, Indiana University
Chengming Hu, Southeast Missouri State University
Shu Cole, Indiana University

Study Rationale
Taking a vacation is regarded as an effective mechanism to recover from stress caused by mundane duties and everyday work (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2005). During vacation, people are often free from their daily responsibilities and able to recreate or recover personal strengths that are important for them (Hobfoll, 2004). Certain people, however, suffer from some level of depression, or post-vacation blues, when returning home or back to a normal routine after a vacation (Hur, 2004). They may also realize how boring or mundane their normal routine is after returning to it (Beck, 2011). Since college students are one of the key markets for major long vacations such as the spring break (Field, 1999), a better understanding of what post-vacation blues they experience and what types of coping behavior they can apply to deal with stressful situations are critical for both tourism managers and college educators. The purpose of this study is to identify what types and levels of post-vacation blues that college students have had after their spring break and to investigate the coping behavior applications used by students with different levels of post-vacation blues.

Methods
Using the original ways of coping checklist (WCC) scale (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980), questionnaire responses of 116 full-time college students who participated in the pilot test in 2015 after Thanksgiving break were measured to determine their post-vacation coping behaviors after their spring break. A total of 17 coping behaviors were selected from data and categorized by four major dimensions (seeking social support, wishful thinking, problem focused, and detachment) using principle component analysis, where a revised WCC scale was found to have good internal reliability. (Cronbach’s Alpha = .931). The paper-based questionnaire that includes three sections measuring demographic information, level of post-vacation blues, and the preference of coping behaviors was then distributed among 331 full-time undergraduate students at a major Midwestern university during the first ten days after spring break. Specific post-vacation blues were identified from the checklist of depression symptoms (Hur, 2004; Beck, 2011) and coping behaviors were measured by the revised WCC scale. A one-sample t-test using a test value of 1.5 was used to examine which post-vacation blues symptoms were significantly experienced by college students. To further investigate the group’s coping behavior preferences relating to different levels and kinds of post-vacation blues, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) using the general linear model (GLM) procedure was conducted.

Results
The mean perception ratings by all participants ranged from M = 2.52 (Difficult to concentrate) to M = 1.07 (Thoughts of suicide). The one sample t-test using a test value of 1.5 revealed that eight post-vacation blues symptoms were rated as significant, as the means were significantly higher than the scale’s mid-point - 1.5 (medium perception) (p <0.05). The rest of three post-vacation symptoms were either reported as not significantly different or significantly lower than the mid-point. The most frequently perceived post-vacation blues feeling reported was “Difficulty concentrating.” Participants also stated that they experienced fatigue and a lack of energy, sleeping problems, irritability, anxiety, loss of their interests, hopelessness, and eating problems. Symptoms such as suicide attempts, feelings of guilt and worthlessness, and aches or pains were the three least-frequent perceived post-vacation feelings (Table 1).

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was run to determine different patterns of coping behavior applications among participants with different levels of post-vacation blues. Preliminary assumption checking revealed that data was normally distributed, as assessed by the Shapiro-Wilk test (p > .05), where homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices was identified as assessed by Box’s M test (p = .366). The results indicate that when students felt more anxiety,
difficulty concentrating, irritability, sleep problems, and eating problems, they apply wishful thinking or detachment as coping behaviors at significant levels (Table 2).

**Discussion**

McMahan (2013) suggested that a person often suffers from post-vacation blues after returning home to a normal routine from a long vacation, especially if it was a pleasurable one. The college spring break, which is defined as the week where students can get away from the stress of college and winter blues, offers for many the first and last most-relaxing and enjoyable time of the entire school year (Hobson & Josiam, 1993). The findings of this study therefore confirm the appearance of post-vacation blues symptoms in college students after spring break. More specifically, the six symptoms that most college students reported after spring break are difficulty concentrating, sleeping problems, fatigue, irritability, anxiety, and eating problems. Group comparisons between participants with different levels of post-vacation blues indicate that certain coping behavior strategies are more likely to be applied by participants having a greater extent of post-vacation blues. When post-vacation blues symptoms were more extreme, students often used wishful thinking and detachment or escape to feel better. The fact that students resort to these two mechanisms to reduce emotional stress indicates that they may not have enough resources or knowledge of where they can locate information or more professional services to help their mental health and recovery from post-vacation blues symptoms. There were no significant differences between participants who applied the tactic of being problem-focused and those seeking social support to deal with post-vacation blues.

**Conclusion and implications**

The study successfully addresses post-vacation blues that college students experience and how they respond to them when they go back to school after a long break. The range of symptoms identified in the sample confirms that students experience various types of blues after spring break, most of which are closely related to their daily life routines, which in many cases can be stressful and demanding. Faculty members should have appropriate knowledge of post-vacation blue symptoms and provide timely information for students that can highlight the benefits of leisure activities in course material, as well as its potential outcomes. In addition, school staff including advisors should consider designing and offering appropriate counseling services as well as social events or other activities after the long break to provide support among those who are having negative responses to post-break college life. An effective, carefully designed marketing campaign should thus be applied to deliver information and resources to students that can help them understand the nature and symptoms of the post-vacation blues, how common these responses are among college students, and how to properly respond to them.

**Limitations and future research**

The results of this study could be limited or influenced by participants, class situations, and instrument factors. First, the sample size may not be large and random enough to produce a generalized result. Second, the survey only asked students to answer a designated survey to identify their specific post-vacation blues. This may cause other types of post-vacation symptoms or depressive feelings to be overlooked. Also, future research is needed to investigate participants’ personal mental status both before and after the long vacation to confidently conclude that the detected depressive symptoms are post-vacation blues. Future studies can also be extended to professional staff and general employees to see if this group experiences the same issue and levels of post-vacation blues as college students.

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| Table 1. Descriptive statistics of post-vacation blues & coping behavior pattern |
|-----------------------------------|-------|--------|
| Post-vacation blues               | Mean  | SD     |
| Persistent sad, anxious, or “empty” feelings | 2.10* | .95    |
| Feelings of hopelessness or pessimism          | 1.65* | .87    |
| Feelings of guilt, worthlessness           | 1.43  | .75    |
| Irritability, restlessness                | 2.08* | 1.03   |
| Loss of interests activities or hobbies     | 1.64* | .87    |
| Fatigue and decreased energy              | 2.40* | 1.02   |
| Difficulty concentrating                | 2.53* | .98    |
| Sleeping problems: sleeping too much or too little | 2.48* | 1.00   |
| Eating problems: overeating, or appetite loss | 1.81* | .94    |
| Thoughts of suicide, suicide attempts      | 1.08  | .34    |
| Aches or pains: headaches, cramps, etc.    | 1.58  | .83    |

*Means significantly above the 1.5 mid-point P < .05

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. Significant Univariate Effects for symptom level</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Post-vacation blues</td>
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<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult concentrate</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sleeping problem</td>
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<tr>
<td>Irritability</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Eating problem</td>
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Note: Symptom level: 4 = To a great extent; 3 = Somewhat; 2 = Very little; 1 = Not at all
References


A VALIDITY STUDY OF THE LEISURE SATISFACTION MEASUREMENT MODEL
Hoan Do, Ohio University

Introduction
The Leisure Satisfaction Scale (LSS) short form was developed by Beard and Ragheb (1980) to measure the degree to which leisure participants’ needs are met. The scale consists of 24 items to measure six sub-dimensions: Psychological, Educational, Social, Physiological, Relaxational and Aesthetic satisfaction. LSS short form has such statements as “My leisure activities provide me opportunities to try new things” (Educational subscale) and “My leisure activities have helped me to develop close relationships with others” (Social subscale), and respondents were asked to rate how strongly they agree/disagree with these statements on a five-point Likert scale (1 means Strongly Disagree and 5 equals Strongly Agree).

LSS short form has been employed in multiple studies on leisure satisfaction (LS), subjective well-being and positive psychology (see, e.g, Celik, Tercan & Yerlisu-Lapa, 2014; Fenech, 2012; Kaya, 2016; Lapa, 2013; Liu, 2014; Park, Lee & Kim, 2016; Walker & Ito, 2017). To date, the LSS short form is the most widely used instrument to measure leisure participants’ satisfaction with their experiences. However, validity evidence for leisure data produced by LSS is based on Beard and Ragheb’s (1980) exploratory factor analytic results, while no confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of leisure satisfaction model had been reported in the literature. This study aims to fill this gap to enhance our understanding of the leisure satisfaction construct and inform future studies that employ LSS short form as their measurement instrument. Answer to the following research question is sought in this paper: Is leisure satisfaction as measured by the LSS short-form a valid measurement model?

Research methodology
Data analyzed in this study were part of Twilley’s (2016) unpublished doctoral dissertation. After IRB approval was obtained, an email was then sent to over sixteen thousand undergraduate students on a public university main campus to introduce the research purpose and invite participation, followed by the link to the survey questionnaire. Two follow-up emails (two weeks and four weeks after the initial email) were sent as a reminder to students who had not responded to the survey in the first email to encourage participation and increase response rate. The final sample consists of 704 students, yielding a response rate of 43.8%. In terms of gender composition, 453 respondents were females (64.3%), 243 were males (34.5%) and 8 identified themselves as belonging to other gender groups (1%). Students came from a variety of academic majors, including technical/natural sciences, social sciences and humanities, and also students who remained undecided about their specialization. A diversity of favorite leisure activities was reported in our sample, from relatively passive ones like watching Netflix to physically demanding engagement such as rock climbing and kayaking and dexterity-required activities like nail art and knitting. Over half of respondents (52%) primarily participated in a balanced combination of both indoor and outdoor activities, while 27.6% usually took part in indoor activities and 20.4% reported outdoor settings.

A standard CFA model (without error correlations and recursive effect) based on Beard and Ragheb’s (1980) proposal was fitted to the data using Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012) (figure 1). Robust maximum likelihood was employed as estimator due to the negative distributions of manifest variables. Four most important fit statistics recommended by Kline (2016) were considered, including Satorra-Bentler scaled $\chi^2$ statistic, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) (and its 90% confidence interval), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI). Decision to retain or reject a model was based on consideration of all these four fit statistics, plus inspection of the covariance residual matrix and $R^2$ values instead of $\chi^2$ statistics only, because it is possible that this test is significant because of its sensitivity to large sample size (Brown, 2006; Kline, 2016).

Result and discussion
Overall, both global and local fit statistics suggest poor model fit. $\chi^2(df=246,N=704) = 1074.323$ was significant, $p < .001$, which suggests our model is significantly worse than the best-fitting model. RMSEA = .069, 90% CI=[.065, .073], suggesting moderate fit. CFI=.887 < .95, which means our model is 88.7% better than the empty model and is below the common threshold of 95%. SRMR = .077 < .08, which suggests acceptable fit.

For first-order constructs (subscales), the vast majority of $R^2$ values were within [.3, .7] range, and average $R^2$ for each sub-dimension was from .49 to .62, which suggests first-order constructs explained medium amount of variance in observed variables. The second-order construct (leisure satisfaction) poorly accounted for the variance in the six first-order constructs. Average $R^2$ was .39, and the second-order construct explained less than 17% of variance in Relaxational, Social and Physiological satisfaction (table 1). Normalized residuals for covariances were very large: 30 values were outside the [-3, 3] range, and several absolute values were higher than 7.

The leisure satisfaction model by Beard and Ragheb (1980) was rejected on the basis of poor global and local fit statistics, and possible explanations for the badly fitting model are as follows. Firstly, model specification might be wrong at local level, which means a non-standard CFA (with error correlations and factor cross-loadings) would yield better fit. However, we made no modifications becausewe did not have theoretical support for respecifications, and model adjustment based purely on statistical grounds might merely chase sampling errors and does not reflect true covariance patterns in the population (McCallum, 1986). Moreover, a different factorial structure could be peculiar to this dataset due to age and cultural reasons, as has been found in Choi and Fu (2015)'s factor analysis. Model specification might also be wrong at global level, which means the reflective measurement model recommended by Beard and Ragheb (1980) might not be the right structure for LS.

4. Implications for practice

Due to the lack of structural validity evidence, the LSS short form should not be used and interpreted as proposed by Beard and Ragheb (1980) until further research sheds more light on the psychometric properties of the scale and the nature of leisure satisfaction construct. We suggest use of other instruments with stronger, established validity evidence, and practitioners should always report validity evidence of their project data. In line with Choi and Fu (2015), we also recommend the consideration of measurement context because factor structure of leisure satisfaction might differ across cultural settings. Finally, discussions on LS measurement are called for, and other models, such as those based on the conceptualization of LS as a formative measure, should be considered and tested.

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**Figure 1.** Factorial structure of leisure satisfaction as proposed by Beard and Raghed (1980)

**Table 1**

*Amount of standardized variance in first-order constructs explained by the second-order construct*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First-order constructs</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychological</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>.656</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
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<td>Relaxational</td>
<td>.141</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aesthetic</td>
<td>.422</td>
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References


MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND INITIATIVES USED BY PARKS AND RECREATION AGENCIES TO ADDRESS HEALTH FACTORS IN LOCAL COMMUNITIES

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Introduction / Rationale
Research has increasingly pointed to local P&R agencies as critical for promoting health and addressing desired PH outcomes has become a growing focus for P&R agencies. However, many agencies have limited data and proven strategies on which to base their actions. The global research question has shifted from one of asking IF P&R agencies can positively affect PH factors, to HOW they can best do so with limited resources. The research addressed local community P&R as an interactive system through three-stage Delphi Panel of local parks and recreation agencies administrators and Case Study methods of two agencies, strategies, programs, practices, gaps, and limitations were identified. The study also examined a secondary system of translation of academic research to the practitioner realm.

Methods
A multi-methods research approach included a literature review, identifying key health factors, strategies, national programs, and organizational elements that P&R agencies can address, along with identifying how agencies in the U.S. and Canada are doing so. A three-stage 17-member P&R Delphi Panel was conducted to identify and prioritize factors and strategies for intervention. A Case Study of two larger agencies deepened and validated the findings. A Key Issues Analysis Matrix helped to thematically code for priorities.

Results
The modifiable PH factors that P&R agencies can address include physical activity, nutrition, safety or perception of safety, social and parental engagement, transportation and access to locations (especially nature), and cessation or reduced consumption of tobacco and alcohol. The study compiled key organizational, programming, built environment, and related policy strategies, methods, initiatives. In addition, the research created a national repository of sample documents for open sharing. Limitations in current practice applications and knowledge transfer to P&R were highlighted.

Conclusions and Applications to Practice
While much of the evidence related to preventive health factors is available to researchers, it is very slow in dissemination to the practice realm. Practitioners need to be aware of successful strategies and methods being used around the U.S. The K2A framework adaptation could help bridge this gap. A systems-based toolkit and strategies for research and intervention outlines how local P&R can address the modifiable health factors in local communities. Key strategies, policies, and guidelines were compiled for research and practice settings. A toolkit approach is outlined for community-specific agency analysis, and action. Gaps and limitations are highlighted between the interactions between research and practice realms.

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THEMED MESSAGES EFFECT ON SAN FRANCISCO AND LOS ANGELES YOUTH OUTDOOR RECREATION BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS.
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Jerusha Greenwood, California Polytechnic State University, San Luis Obispo
Marni Goldenberg, California Polytechnic State University, San Luis Obispo
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Brian Greenwood, California Polytechnic State University, San Luis Obispo
Susan Houge Mackenzie, University of Otago

Introduction. The physical and mental health benefits of spending time in nature is well documented (Charles, Louv, Bodner, Guns, & Stahl, 2008; Pretty, Peacock, Sellens, & Griffin, 2005; Ryan et al., 2010). Outdoor environments offer physical, cognitive and mental health benefits (e.g. Hillman, Erikson, & Kramer, 2008; Ryan et al., 2010; Wolch et al., 2011). Moreover, being surrounded by a green area can result in lower rates of obesity and reduced screen time (Dadvand et al., 2014). Improved academic performance, problem solving, and concentration have also been linked to time in outdoors (Herzog, Black, Fountaine, & Knotts, 1997). Studies of executive brain function indicate that cognition, self-regulation, and attention are positively influenced by nature (Dadvand et al., 2015; Kuo & Faber Taylor, 2004). Yet many Americans, especially minorities and youth, are increasingly disconnected from nature (Lougheed, 2008).

Minority groups, including race/ethnic minorities or those of low socio-economic status, face more barriers to outdoor recreation than majority groups (Wilhelm-Stanis, Schneider, Chavez, & Shinew, 2009). Persistent barriers could impact attitude toward and intent to recreate outdoors. Barriers are pronounced for youth who rely on others for access to outdoor recreation, and even more so for minority youth who are consistently underrepresented in outdoor activities. In a 2016 report of recreation participation among youth 6 to 24 years old, Caucasian youth accounted for 70% of all participants, compared to 12% Hispanic youth and 9% African-American youth (Outdoor Foundation, 2016). Minority groups in general are more likely to live in crowded urban areas; 58 American metropolitan areas are over 50% non-white, up from 43 in 2000 (Brookings, 2011). Youth living in urban areas may be less likely to recreate outdoor for reasons such as cost, lack of knowledge of information, other family obligations, or lack of social support or recreation partners (Shores, Scott, & Floyd, 2007). Negative parental attitudes toward outdoor activities can inhibit access, and may stem from safety concerns, media coverage, or individual factors such as age or gender of the parent or child (Austin, Furr, & Spine, 2002). When outdoor access is restricted and youth spend time indoors, studies suggest this time is likely sedentary and with negative health consequences (Francis, Lee, & Birch, 2003). Taken together, urban living and indoor time put minority youth at greater risk for poor mental and physical health outcomes.

One approach to examine minority youth outdoor recreation is with the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Azjen, 1985), which posits that behavioral intention consists of attitude toward, social norms of, and perceived behavioral control about a desired behavior. Applications of the theory to urban minority youth include not personally valuing outdoor recreation, perceiving that friends or family do not value it, or lacking access to outdoor, natural areas. If managers knew what might influence youth to recreate outdoors, they could craft targeted messages aimed at influencing intentions.

Schwab et al. (2016), analyzed listening groups from urban minority youth as to their motivations interests, and reasons for recreating outdoors. The themes that emerged included Connect with Family and Friends, Unplug & Escape, and Adventure. Youth also suggested that social media and mobile technologies/platforms would be an effective way to delivers such messages to youth. Although it may seem counterintuitive to engage youth via their screens, much marketing literature recognizes the potential of social media or peer-to-peer sharing to influence youth behavior. Thus, the purpose of the current study was to use a quasi-experimental
design to test the effectiveness of themed video messages on urban minority youth’s attitudes, social norms, and perceived behavioral control to recreate outdoors.

**Method.** This quasi-experimental study tested the effectiveness of three themed-video messages (Escape & Unplug, Adventure, Connect with Family and Friends) at influencing behavioral intentions to recreate outdoors. The three messages and a control group were randomly assigned to urban, mostly minority youth, ages 12-16 living in San Francisco and Los Angeles, California. Youth (n=800) participated in a quasi-experimental design study utilizing three themed-video messages and a control group, and race/ethnicity as factors. Constructs measuring 11 TPB and 6 theme scale items served as the dependent variables. Participants were selected from zip codes with predominately urban, minorities living in these areas. The analysis included a t-test and a 4x4 ANOVA. A Tukey procedure was used to test for post-hoc differences among levels of the variables.

**Results.** Most of the participants were male (55%), ages 14 and 15 (54%) who closely identified with Hispanic or Latino (26%), White, non-Hispanic (29%), Black or African American (22%), and Asian (12%). A t-test was conducted to determine if San Francisco and Los Angeles youth varied on the 17 items. Significant differences in means scores were present for wanting to do something challenging, I enjoy spending time in natural areas, and my family members think I should visit natural areas on a regular basis. In all three cases, mean scores were higher for Los Angeles youth. Mean scores for the 17 items ranged from 3.28 to 4.20 on a 5-point scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The highest overall mean scores were I would want to spend time with friends or family there, I would want to have an adventurous experience, and I enjoy spending time in natural areas. The interaction effect between the six themes and race/ethnicity was significant for I would want to have an adventurous experience. The 11 TPB items were classified as attitudes, social norms, behavioral control, and behavioral intentions. There were no significant interaction effects, so race/ethnicity and the treatments were analyzed separately. Race/ethnicity had a significant effect on all four dimensions of TBP, and the treatments effected behavioral control. A post-hoc Tukey procedure indicated that the connect with family and friends video mean score was significantly higher than the control group and the other two treatment videos. In the race/ethnicity analysis for behavioral control, White (non-Hispanic) and Black/African American scored significantly higher than Hispanic/Latino and Asian. White was significantly higher than the other three groups on social norms, and different than Asian and Hispanic/Latino for attitudes. White and Black/African American was significantly higher than Asian and Hispanic/Latino on behavioral intentions.

**Application to Practice.** Social media is a relatively low-cost medium through which outdoor recreation professionals can engage youth. However, the volume of information, photos, or requests for user engagement can hinder the effectiveness of any one marketing campaign. Identifying a theme that most influences youth behavioral intentions to recreate can help professionals develop targeted social media efforts. Results from this study indicate that connecting with family and friends is an important idea to promote when sharing program information with potential participants. Previous literature indicates that minority groups often value recreation more for the social interaction than time in nature (Whiting, Larson, Green, & Kralowec, 2017). Creating marketing programs for families or groups of friends, and offering group discounts could attract more participants to outdoor recreation. As Asian and Latino/Hispanic minority groups had lower scores on nearly all items than White and Black/African American participants, creating marketing materials that feature images of minority groups, are in the language of local minority groups, or recognizes specific cultural pastimes or holidays, and promotes recreation with friends and family could be a way to attract a population currently underrepresented in outdoor recreation.

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References


SKILLS AND PERSONALITY TRAITS OF THE COLLABORATOR: A STUDY OF STATE PARK MANAGERS
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Introduction
There is much written about the ways in which collaboration can improve government outcomes (Poister, Thomas & Berryman, 2013; Yang & Holzer, 2006; Lee, 2014; Portney & Berry, 2010; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010). In addition to the evidence that collaboration can improve governmental outcomes, there is also literature that describes the difficulties and problems associated with the collaboration process (Irvin & Sansbury, 2004; O’Leary & Bingham, 2009; Carpenter & Kennedy, 1988). Because it is difficult to use collaboration, it has been found that practitioners are not widely adopting it (Leong, Emmerson & Byron, 2011).

If collaboration is to be more widely used by practitioners it is necessary to better understand what factors lead to successful collaborative outcomes. There are two general categories into which these factors fall: 1) external factors, which consist of organizational culture (Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv & Sanders, 1990) and stakeholder attributes (Yang, Wang, & Jin, 2014), and 2) internal factors, which consist of personal traits (Goldberg, 1992) and collaboration skills (O’Leary, Gerard & Choi, 2012). A significant amount of research emphasized the importance of external factors, while a smaller but growing body of research, places the emphasis on internal - or what might also be called individual - factors. Though collaboration is praised for its potential and criticized for its difficulty, little is known how individual characteristics impact collaboration outcomes. It is the premise of this study that individual characteristics such as personality traits and collaboration skill play a greater role in collaborative outcomes than is currently assumed. An improved understanding of the link between individual characteristics and collaboration outcomes will have both theoretical and practical implications and will improve governmental performance.

Methods
In order to test how collaboration skills and personality traits impact collaboration success, this research uses an established index for the dependent variable; collaboration success, using the 17 Likert-scale questionnaire established by Thomson, Perry and Miller (2009). For the independent variables the research will also use established measures; for personality traits, the Mini-IPIP scales developed by Donnellan, Oswald, Baird & Lucas (2006); for collaboration skill, the comprehensive skill list created by O’Leary, Gerard & Choi (2012). To collect the data, letters were sent to 700 state parks, asking state park managers to fill out an online survey. 153 surveys were completed resulting in a final response rate of 22%. Data collected from the Qualtrics web survey was analyzed using STATA 12.1. The statistical analysis included: 1) descriptive statistics, 2) testing the scales using Chronbach’s alpha (α), 3) ordinary least squares (OLS) regression, and 4) and structural equation modeling (SEM).

In addition to the quantitative methods, qualitative methods were also used, and 17 state park managers across the U.S. were interviewed. They were asked questions about their personality traits, collaboration skills, and success with collaboration, in order to provide additional context about the topic of collaboration. The interviews were recorded, transcribed, and content analysis was performed.

Results
One thing that became apparent through content analysis is that the benefits from and complexity with the collaboration process change throughout the process, and this process
occurs in phases. See figure 1 for a diagram of the phases of collaboration. Park managers find that the most difficult part of collaboration occurs when the group's ideas need to be reduced, or as this stage is called the goal alignment or "focus" stage.

The survey analysis found that the personality trait "agreeableness" and - to a lesser extent - "extroversion," along with "group process" and "interpersonal skills" and the demographic variable "education" were positively associated with successful collaboration. See figure 2 for a diagram of the structural equation model. While it found that personal characteristics are positively associated with collaboration success, the study also revealed that external factors such as stakeholder and park characteristics are not significant.

**Discussion**

Findings from the interviews indicate that park managers have the most difficulty working with stakeholders at the goal alignment phase of collaboration and findings from the survey indicate that group process skills lead to successful collaboration. Upon further examination, it was discovered that group process skills are the skills that are heavily used during the goal alignment phase of collaboration. Those individuals who have good group process skills are able to successfully navigate the goal alignment phase and this leads to successful outcomes. However, the way that individuals are obtaining group process skills is largely a result of their personality rather than through formal training in these skills. In summary, the study finds that though group process skills are necessary to succeed at collaboration, it is individuals who are predisposed with personality traits that are advantageous in group process situations that have more successful outcomes.

**Implications for Practice**

The obvious implication for practice is that park managers need training in group process skills so that they can succeed at the goal alignment phase of collaboration. Though training can and should be provided by the organizations they work for, it is recommended that higher education programs include collaboration and group process skills into their curriculums. Another area of concern, expressed by many park managers, was difficulty finding people to collaborate with. In order to reduce the "silo effect," it is recommended that government leadership promote networking. This can be done by: promoting collaboration opportunities, encouraging employees to join professional organizations, providing resources to attend conferences, and inviting more park staff to meetings with other stakeholders. Due to a variety of factors, including: reduced funding, diminished staffing levels, increased legal requirements, and complexities due to population increase and user-demand, park managers will need to increase their use of collaboration in order to meet these challenges. In order to ensure these collaborations are successful, managers need increased opportunities to network and formal training in group process skills.

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Figure 1: Phases of Collaboration

**GATHER**  **FOCUS**  **GARNER**  **FINISH**

Ideas \(\rightarrow\) Goal \(\rightarrow\) Support \(\rightarrow\) Better Results

Ideas \(\rightarrow\) Allignment \(\rightarrow\) Resources

Figure 2: Skill and Personality impact on Collaboration Success Structural Equation Model

[Diagram showing the relationship between education, agreeableness, extroversion, interpersonal skills, group process skills, and collaboration success]
References


Evaluation of Swim Lesson Parents' Perceptions of Water Safety
Marcia Shirilla, University of Delaware

Introduction/rationale
  In the United States, drowning is the leading cause of injury-related death for children between 1-years old and 4-years old, and it is the 3rd leading cause of death in children (Delaware Coalition for Injury Prevention, 2017). Approximately 3,650 unintended drowning deaths occur each year, but many of these deaths are preventable (Delaware Coalition for Injury Prevention, 2017). A multi-layered approach to drowning prevention traditionally includes protections such as pool fences, supervision, and pool alarms. However, young children are curious, capable, and surprisingly able to overcome these obstacles, which is why private swim lessons designed to teach children the skills necessary to save themselves should they happen to enter the water alone, were introduced at a local fitness club.

  The local community is a relatively wealthy area, less than 2 hours away from many popular beaches, and even closer to many boating communities in local bays. Plus, many families have access to private swimming pools, or their own backyard swimming pool. With this frequent and easy access to water for children, the primary goals of this private swim lesson program were to teach children the skills needed to survive in water alone and to educate parents about water safety topics.

  A recent evaluation of this program and a group swim lesson program was conducted to assess parent perceptions of water safety topics while their children were enrolled. One major goal of the private lesson program was to improve these parental perceptions through conversations with their child’s instructor. However, it was unclear whether this goal was just a desire of the management team, a hopeful outcome based on sporadic conversations, or a learning objective that was deliberately and consistently included in the lesson program. The overall evaluation included both a process evaluation to investigate what water safety education the instructors incorporated in their lessons and discussed with parents, plus an outcome evaluation to investigate what parents knew about water safety after their children took swim lessons for at least four weeks. The findings from this study can be used by the aquatic management team to improve their parental education process, thereby influencing other long-term drowning prevention outcomes.

Methods
  Five swim lesson instructors and 25 parents were included in the study. All parents had at least one child enrolled in one of the swim lesson programs.

  A process evaluation investigated instructors’ perspectives and philosophy on incorporating water safety education into their swim lessons. Instructors completed lesson log forms to document what actually occurred during each lesson for a 4- to 5- week period. After submission of the lesson logs, each instructor was interviewed using a semi-structured interview with open ended questions about the program process, water safety, and their swim lesson philosophy.

  For the outcome evaluation, a Parent Perceptions of Water Safety survey was developed based on two similar studies (Moran & Stanley, 2006; Sandomierski, 2011) that assessed parent perceptions of water safety. The questions covered background information on the child and family’s swimming ability, the parent’s perception of the ideal age to learn to swim, and why they enrolled their child in swim lessons. The survey then included several items regarding water safety. The questions included five themes: swimming ability, supervision, awareness, swimmer confidence and lifejacket use. After approximately 4-weeks of swim lessons, the evaluator approached each parent while their child was in a lesson and requested their participation. Parents completed the survey during their child’s lesson.

Results
Demographic information indicated that the two groups of parents did not differ in the background questions that related to the ideal age to learn to swim, why they enrolled their children in lessons, and their child’s best achievement in lessons. These similarities indicated that pre-existing philosophies regarding water safety for the two parent groups were similar.

Regarding the process of water safety education, all the instructors spent about the same percentage of classes talking to parents about water safety, introducing these topics haphazardly throughout the lesson period during only about 30% of the lessons. The private lesson instructors had intended to talk with parents about a wide variety of topics, whereas the group lesson instructors did not think they had time or opportunities to talk with parents. Private lesson instructors did not cover the breadth of topics that were desired. Also, despite feeling like there was little time or opportunity to discuss water safety, group lesson instructors found at least some brief moments to talk with parents about the safety skills their children learned, pool rules, and supervision.

These small differences in the amount and type of water safety topics discussed in private versus group lessons resulted in no differences in overall parent perceptions of water safety outcomes. There was room for improvement in knowledge about life jackets, supervision, bathtub safety, and CPR knowledge. CPR knowledge was one of the most problematic findings from this evaluation, as CPR is considered one of the many layers of protection to prevent accidental drowning with children. In total, 58.6% of participants felt they could perform CPR on a young child in an emergency. However, only 20.7% responded with the correct 30:2 compression to breath ratio, and another 10.3% responded with an acceptable ratio of 15:2. The remaining participants (69%) were evenly divided between providing a wrong answer or not answering at all.

On a positive note, parents of children in both groups felt that their children were learning about water safety during their lessons. This finding provides a great opportunity for more intentional inclusion of water safety from the instructors. Instructors and parents can then work together to help children transfer that knowledge to their recreational swimming environments.

Application to practice

The results of this study may benefit practitioners interested in conducting an evaluation of their swim lesson program, particularly regarding perceptions of water safety. In addition, the results from this study suggest that swim lesson programs should be more intentional about addressing water safety topics such as life jacket use, supervision, bathtub safety, and CPR knowledge. Aquatic programs are uniquely positioned to educate parents about water safety because of the close relationship between instructors, parents, and children, and therefore should focus on encouraging everyone to improve their knowledge and be prepared should an emergency arise.

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References


Examining Children’s Recreation Activities among Single-Parent Families
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Godwin Ogbeide, Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis

Introduction
According to the US Census (2016), nearly twenty million children under age 18 now live in single-parent household in the United States. This may be largely due to the increasing divorce rates over the past decades. Following a divorce, most children would reside in single-parent household. The sudden change in family structure not only influences parent-child interactions (McGrath, Yeung, & Bedi, 2002), but also may generate a negative impact on children’s health and wellness, and long-term development (Hetherington & Stanley-Hagan, 1999). Regular physical activities are beneficial for children because these activities can reduce the risk of health issues and improve their cardiovascular, muscular and mental health (Murka et al., 2015). In the same vein, the participation and engagement in recreation activities are also helpful for children in single-parent families. Participating in recreation activities not only can increase these children’s physical activeness, but also can improve their self-esteem, self-concept and relieve anxiety/stress (Calfas & Taylor, 1994). Research also found that children’s active participation in recreation activities plays an important part in family leisure, which is directly related to family cohesion and family adaptability (Hornberger, Zabriskie, & Freeman, 2010). Maintaining a positive family culture can reduce some negative impacts brought by family structure change, and therefore, benefit the long-term development of children in single-parent household (Taylor & Conger, 2014).

The purpose of this study was to examine the participation in recreation activities from children who reside in single-parent household. Particularly, this study attempted to address two research questions:

- What are the most popular recreation activities among the children of single-parent families?
- What is the associations between demographic (i.e., age, gender, siblings), built environment (i.e., access to different recreation facilities), parent characteristics (i.e., gender, education, frequency of participation in recreation activities) and children’s participation in recreation activities?

Methods
The target population for this study was families in the Midwest of the United States of America. In cooperation with local schools, parents were invited to participate in the study. The sample used in this research were single-parent families that respond to the survey.

The questionnaire for this study was designed based on a review of literature from prior studies. The instrument gathered several information including the demographics of the parents and children. To examine the built environment, the parents were asked to indicate if they have close access to (1) indoor recreation facilities (e.g., playroom), (2) workout/exercise facility, (3) sandbox, and (4) outdoor recreation facilities. To measure children’s engagement in different recreation facilities, parents were asked to rate how often their children participated in the following activities on a scale ranging from 0= never to 5 = always: (1) walking/hiking, (2) swinging, (3) biking, (4) jump ropes, (5) running, (6) swimming, (7) playing on trampoline, (8) skating / skateboarding / rollerblading, (9) playing major sports (e.g., football, soccer, basketball,
baseball, etc.), (10) playing video games, (11) playing computer games, and (12) watching TV. To examine parents’ characteristics, they were asked to report (1) gender, (2) education, and (3) the frequency of engaging in the above-mentioned recreation activities.

Results

Information of 110 children (5-17 years old) were included in the analysis. The average age is 8.5 years old (SD = 2.69). Nearly more than half of them (55.1%, n = 59) were male. The majority of the sample (86.4%, n = 95) have one or more siblings. Most of the children resided with their mother (84.9%, n = 90). Around half of their parents graduated from high school (51.7%, n = 46) and approximately one quarter (27%, n = 14) of the parents have a bachelor’s degree.

The most popular recreation activities among these children were walking/hiking (M = 2.41, SD = 1.37) and watching TV (M = 2.48, SD = 1.25). Regression analyses were then conducted to identify the potential influencers. In terms of the activity of walking/hiking, the model was statistically significant (R² = .512) and the results showed that the frequency of children’s engagement in walking/hiking was negatively related to their access to indoor recreation facilities (β = -.35, p = .001) and the access to sandbox (β = -.22, p = .020), but positively related to the frequency of parents’ engagement in walking/hiking (β = .608, p < .01). Parent’s gender is also influential (β = .219, p = .031) and children who live with their father tend to walk/hike more often than those who live with their mother. Regarding the activity of watching TV, the model was statistically significant (R² = .568), and the results showed that the frequency of watching TV is solely and positively related to the parent’s involvement (β = .761, p < .001). The more frequent the parents watch TV, the more likely their children would do the same.

Application to Practice

This study indicates that children’s physical activity or recreational lifestyle is highly dependent on single parents’ involvement in such activity. Simply telling children to exercise or participate in one physical or recreational activity or the other is not enough. It required a conscientious effort on the part of the single parents or guardians in engaging in the activity they want their children to practice. Hence, if single parents or guardians want their children to engage in a healthy recreation program, they need to lead by example by engaging in the same or similar recreation program. Children in single parents’ home are very susceptible to what one parent can do for them. Hence, single parents should be mindful of the appropriate lifestyles they wish for their children and teach by example.

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Figure 1. Frequencies of the Sample’s Participation in Recreation Activities

Table 2. Regression Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Model 1: DV: Frequency of Walking/Hiking</th>
<th>Model 2: DV: Frequency of Watching TV</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$R^2 = .512$</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>$p$</td>
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<td>Have Sibling</td>
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<td>Access to Indoor Recreation Facilities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Parent’s Involvement</td>
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<td>&lt;.01**</td>
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</table>

N = 110, *p < .05, **p < .01

*Major Sport includes soccer, football, basketball, and etc.
References


‘THINKING INTERSECTIONALLY’ IN RECREATION EQUITY STUDY: A CASE STUDY OF URBAN PARKS AND PUBLIC BEACHES IN THE DETROIT METROPOLITAN AREA

Jinwon Kim, University of Florida
Seongsoo Jang, Cardiff University
Brijesh Thapa, University of Florida

Introduction
Numerous need-based recreation equity studies have typically used race/ethnicity (e.g., Non-whites and African Americans) and income-related (e.g., household income and poverty) variables independently to identify the needy groups. However, such an additive approach failed to consider the intersections between variables when defining the needy groups. While measuring the recreation equity, the needy groups should be identified by considering a simultaneous and intersectional perspective on demographic and social categories (e.g., White and African American poverty groups). The term, intersectionality refers to the interactivity of multiple social categories, such as race, class, and gender, in shaping individuals' experiences (Crenshaw, 1991). As noted by Watson and Scarton (2013), “thinking intersectionally offers leisure scholars potential to engage with difference in more meaningful ways than a mere recognition of plurality and diversity” (p. 44). Despite the importance of ‘think intersectionally’ in recreation equity studies, however, very little has been done in this direction. Therefore, the main purpose of this study was to examine the intersectionality of two social categories, race/ethnicity and poverty, in terms of recreation access to different types of recreation settings (urban parks and public beaches) in the Detroit Metropolitan Area (DMA). To achieve the research purpose, this study (1) investigated the relationships between intersectional social categories (e.g. White American poverty, African American poverty, and Asian poverty) and levels of access to urban parks and public beaches in the DMA and (2) explored important local variations (i.e., spatial heterogeneity) in modeling ‘intersectional’ recreation equity caused by spatial dependence across the study area. The findings of this study can expand on existing intersectionality studies in recreation and leisure research (Watson & Ratna, 2011; Watson & Scraton, 2013) by providing empirical evidence of executing the location-based recreation equity.

Methods
DMA was selected as the study area because the DMA not only contains a high density of public beaches and urban parks but also include a variety of racial groups, which are characterized by extreme economic inequalities across neighborhoods. Defining the unit of analysis is critical in any spatial analysis. In this study, the unit of analysis is census tract (CT). So, 784 CTs which include all intersectional variables (e.g., White poverty, African poverty, and Asian poverty) were utilized.

The dependent variables in this study were the levels of access to public beaches and urban parks, defined as the shortest road network distances (in miles) from each CT to the nearest public beach and urban park. This access measure reflects the minimum distance approach, recognizing that many recreation settings are mainly used by nearby residents and that the nearest recreation setting typically represents the easiest opportunity for frequent or everyday use. As independent variables, measures of intersectional and other neighborhood deprivation for each CT were used. Intersectional composition was defined as the percentage of neighborhoods for each CT that combined racial/ethnic composition and level of poverty. Specifically, each CT had a certain percentage of a racial/ethnic population below the federal poverty line. By combining the three racial/ethnic compositions (i.e., White, African, and Asian) and poverty levels, three intersectional variables were created in each CT: White Poverty (WP),
African Poverty (AFP), and Asian Poverty (ASP). Additionally, other socioeconomic variables that might affect the level of access to recreation settings in a given CT were employed as control variables; (1) the percentage of households without a vehicle (VEHIC); (2) the median house value ($) per CT (MHV); (3) the median household income ($) per CT (MHI); (4) the percentage of the population below the federal poverty level (POVT); and (5) the population per square mile (POPD).

Geographic data such as CT boundaries and the street network were acquired from the Michigan GIS data library. Public beach and urban park locations were collected from the Michigan Department of Environmental Quality and Environmental Systems Research Institute, respectively. Census data were obtained from the 2015 American Community Survey (ACS, 2017) in the DMA. Geographic Information System (GIS)-based network analysis was used to measure the levels of access to public beaches and urban parks. Then, spatial regression models using ordinary least squares (OLS) and geographically weighted regression (GWR) were used to measure the degree of equity globally and locally. Data analysis was conducted using ArcGIS (version 10.4.1), the ArcGIS Network Analyst extension, R, and GWR (version 4.0). The value of adjusted $R^2$ was 0.194. AFP and ASP were statistically significant at the 0.04 level, suggesting equitable access to urban parks.

Results

Table 1 presents regression model results depending on the type of recreation settings in the DMA. The results of two OLS regression models indicated that neighborhoods where poor African and Asian Americans are densely populated have equitable access to urban parks, but inequitable access to public beaches. Furthermore, the results of GWR models showed that considerable local variations in the relationships between levels of access to public beaches and urban parks and intersectionality variables identified across the study area. Figures 1 and 2 map the spatial distribution of local coefficients of the intersectionality variables in the GWR models. Lastly, the GWR models improved the overall model fit (high adjusted $R^2$) and performance (low corrected Akaike’s information criterion: $AIC_c$) compared to the OLS models (Table 1) and the model fit varies across CTs (Figure 1 and 2). These findings indicated that the GWR intersectional equity model provided significantly better goodness of fit than the OLS model.

Implications and Conclusion

The findings of this study indicated that neighborhoods where poor African and Asian Americans are densely populated have better recreation access to urban parks but poor access to public beaches. Furthermore, considerable local variations in the relationships between levels of access to public beaches and urban parks and intersectionality variables identified across the study area. Recreation equity has been a long-standing subject for leisure policy makers. The findings of this study are important and informative for leisure environment planning and interventions for remedying leisure inequity in metropolitan areas. The findings of this study can help parks and recreation agencies better understand local intersectional patterns of recreation equity, an important first step in facilitating the formulation of more efficient and effective planning and policy approaches.

Table 1. OLS and GWR Results for Model 1 (Urban Park) and Model 2 (Public Beach)

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Model 1 (Urban Park)</th>
<th></th>
<th>Model 2 (Public Beach)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OLS (β)</td>
<td>GWR (β)</td>
<td>Range</td>
<td>OLS (β)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
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<td>-1.154</td>
<td>1.297</td>
<td>5.468</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WP</td>
<td>-0.050</td>
<td>-8.342</td>
<td>0.495</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFP</td>
<td>-0.248*</td>
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<td>-0.442</td>
<td>0.508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASP</td>
<td>-0.210*</td>
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<tr>
<td>VEHIC</td>
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<td>-0.075</td>
<td>-0.003</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>MHV</td>
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<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MHI</td>
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<tr>
<td>POVT</td>
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<td>0.007</td>
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<tr>
<td>POPD</td>
<td>-0.000*</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R2</td>
<td>0.194</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>0.275</td>
<td>0.463</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N: 784; AICc (OLS): 2,219.72; AICc (GWR): 2,073.14
Joint F-statistic: 24.66 (p-value < 0.01); Neighbors: 126

Notes: OLS: Ordinary least squares; GWR: Geographically weighted regression; CI: Condition index; AICc: corrected Akaike’s information criterion.

**Figure 1.** Spatial distribution of local coefficients and local R² (Model 1: Urban Park)

**Figure 2.** Spatial distribution of local coefficients (Model 2: Public Beach)
References


Introduction. The Pacific Crest Trail is a 2,650 mile trail stretching from Mexico to Canada and running through California, Oregon and Washington. From 2013-2016, an average of 2,000 northbound permits were issued each year. But according to hiker self-report, an average of 580 hikers completed the trek in that same time. About two-thirds of the PCT is in California, and while there are small towns along the way in which to resupply, the towns are often miles from the trail and require a car to reach them. Many hikers attempt the trail without much money available, so a shower or bed for the night isn’t always an option. Hikers can go days, weeks even, without a shower, bed, without washing clothes or without eating fresh fruit or vegetables. However, a type of magic exists for these weary hikers. Along the trail are people called Trail Angels who provide water, food, transportation, and even a place to bathe, do laundry and sleep for the night. Often former thru-hikers themselves, Trail Angels, who provide what is called Trail Magic, seem to act out of the goodness of their heart and seem to expect nothing in return. Or do they? What is their motivation to act so selflessly toward complete strangers? The phenomenon of Trail Angels has received little attention in the literature, yet selfless altruism is such a rare act in everyday, off the trail society. The purpose of this study was to examine the motivations of trail angels, benefits accrued to them, and other reasons or outcomes that motivated their service.

Trail magic is “a system of positive reciprocity …one positive act begets another positive act.” (Andrews, 2007, p. 31). Angels live near the trail for all or part of the thru hiking season and offer food, water, shelter, or transportation to hikers (Lechter & Lechter, 2009; Redpath, 2016). Research on the PCT or the Appalachian Trail is often conducted as a full participant-observer, sharing the author’s experiences and that of hikers and angels interviewed on the trail. Lum, Keith, & Scott (2015) hiked sections of the PCT to interview hikers and study the “social world,’ in order to provide useful information for natural resource managers. These authors suggest that angels have reached the level of career volunteers, meaning they have moved from occasionally volunteering to career or service volunteering, a role for which they have specialized knowledge, experiences, and skills (Stebbins, 2015). Career volunteering is “motivated by altruism and self-interest,” and the rewards one gains from doing it (Stebbins).

Glover and Filep (2016) analyzed 50 blogs of trail angels on the Appalachian Trail to understand trail magic. Their results explain angel behavior by the theory of reciprocity, which posits that people will reward kind actions and punish unkind ones (Falk & Fishbacher, 1998). Trail angels felt it a “privilege” to offer something back to others and reconnect with the land and an experience that had so "profoundly influenced" their lives (Glover & Filep, p. 140).

While these accounts make clear that trail angels have an impact on hikers, it is not clear why trail angels serve as they do. Giving back a few times during one hiking season would seem to fulfill or repay the kindness they had received. Why are some angels career volunteers? Is it truly selfless service? What motivates their return to the trail year after year to give above and beyond the kindness they received?

Method. To answer the research questions, a 14-item survey of open-ended questions, was piloted and posted on two well-established Trail Angel Facebook group pages. Both groups serve as an active resource for PCT thru-hikers, and angels post trail updates, weather, information, availability, and share experiences. The Tailored Design Method (TDM) for online survey distribution was followed to help achieve a high response rate (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009). The survey was open for two weeks, and 30 useable responses were received. No incentives were provided. Data were analyzed using content analysis, which is a
qualitative technique to systematically look for patterns in the data and draw inferences (Krippendorff, 2012). Two researchers independently coded the data using an inductive, open coding process (Creswell, 2007). They started with open codes, highlighting key terms that provided insights into each question, then grouped codes into broader themes that represented the emergent ideas. The coders worked independently, then met to reach agreement on codes, definitions, and examples. Representative quotes are reported in the table below. The codes were ultimately grouped into two major themes.

**Results.** Two-thirds (67%) of the respondents were females, ranging in age from 22 to 61, with an average age of 48. One-third (33%) of the respondents were males, ranging in age from 34 to 71, with an average age of 57. Angels had been serving for an average of 4 years.

Motivations for serving as trail angels emerged from the data and can be divided into two categories: empathic altruism and psychological egoism. Angels who were motivated by empathic altruism found pure joy in helping others and in seeing others achieve a goal. Those motivated by psychological egoism were motivated by meeting new and interesting people, having someone to talk to, and the potential to receive trail magic during a later thru-hike.

Representative quotes are in the table below.

**Discussion/Implications.** Previous literature suggested that trail angels were engaged in career or service volunteering, a definition that includes ‘altruism,’ yet the altruism found in this study seems to have two sources. First is empathic altruism, described by Batson (1991) as “feeling empathy for [a] person in need evokes motivation to help [that person] in which benefits to self are not the ultimate goal of helping; they are unintended consequences” (Batson & Shaw, 1991, p. 114). Batson has been described as “the strongest proponent that people often help others purely out of the goodness of their hearts” (Aronson, Wilson, & Akert, 2005). In contrast to Batson’s empathic altruism, psychologist Robert Cialdini’s idea of psychological egoism suggests that humans are motivated by self-interest, even when they appear to be acting in an altruistic manner (Cialdini, Brown, Lewis, Luce, & Neuberg, 1997), and suggests that when people help others, they do so because of personal benefits they expect to obtain, either directly or indirectly, from doing so (Cialdini et al., 1997). From Cialdini’s perspective, there is no such thing as a selfless action.

In the end, volunteers operating from either form of altruism benefit those they serve. If one kind action begets another kind action, whether expected or not, these kindnesses should be good for the recipient and those they encounter in the future. This study was limited to results from a small number of trail angels. There are likely many more former thru-hikers who did not choose to serve as angels, or who started and stopped. Some responses in this study raise interesting questions and trail management concerns. Angels briefly mentioned an attitude of entitlement among hikers, of hikers leaving trash on the trail, harming the natural space with large gatherings, and of being rude or disrespectful. Angels also change the thru-hike experience by removing some of the need to be completely self-reliant in the backcountry. The negative consequences of trail angel behavior on the trail, hikers, and angels are topics worth future investigation.

Keri Schwab, California Polytechnic State University, San Luis Obispo, keschwab@calpoly.edu
| Statements Reflecting Empathetic Altruism | “Smiles bring joy to the world.”

“Making someone's day. I work just past the 1000-mile mark and often hikers come in dragging and discouraged after what is a pretty tough section. The food, drinks, companionship and simple recognition that there's someone there to welcome and to care about the hiker gives them new energy.”

“Showing my children that helping people is a reward in and of itself.”

“Helping others with no expectation of anything in return feels really good.”

“When I know I've helped someone, I get a sense of doing some good. It brings me joy.” |
| Statements Reflecting Psychological Egoism | “I get to share my mountain. They teach me new things all the time. They strengthen my soul. We live off the grid, and I don’t have anyone to talk to. So it’s nice to sit and chat.”

“. . . being a Trail Angel has filled a void in my life after retiring from working as an RN for 30 plus years. Each and every one brings joy with their enthusiasm and perseverance. I love having them in my car and hearing all the laughter and stories they share.”

“Our saying is that we do this to be a blessing to the hikers, but in return we are blessed. We love hearing about their travels, their home states or countries; their families and jobs. They give us entertainment and a peek into their lives.”

“It's the closest I will probably ever come to hiking the trail. I get to experience the PCT vicariously thru meeting the hikers and hearing their stories. I'm not normally a very social person, but doing this gives me the opportunity to meet people that I connect with. I understand their appreciation of nature. I admire their desire and ability to experience it while lugging everything they need around on their back.” |
References


Flow, Sports Event Satisfaction, and Behavior Intention by Older Adults
Sangguk Kang, Indiana University

Introduction/Rationale
Flow is an experiential state that individuals is fully focused on what they are currently doing and experience loss of self-consciousness through active interaction with skill-related behaviors (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002; Privette, 1983). From the flow theory, individuals can enhance their happiness through flow state and flow state continues when the skill and challenging environment are equivalent with activities such as sports activity. However, this flow state is different from other passive enjoyable or fun activities (e.g., watching other sports through TV, listening to music).

As a positive psychology, flow can be enhanced through appropriate capabilities under challenging circumstance, competitive sports events can stimulate older adults flow state since events provide challenging environment through competition with other older athletes based on older adults level of skills (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2002; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Since event can inspire older adults to be more active and increase their leisure activity with flow experience, older adults might have a higher chance of event satisfaction and event participation (Bauman, Murphy, & Lane, 2009; Chhetri, Colin, & Mervyn, 2004; Funk, Jordan, Ridinger, & Kaplanidou, 2011). Funk et al. (2011) found that satisfied sports events individuals have higher possibility to participate in sports and sports events in the future. In addition, since flow state is related with fully loaded happiness through interactive activity, flow can be positively related to event satisfaction and behavior intention.

Therefore, the research hypotheses are:
H1: Flow state will have a positive influence on the sports event satisfaction.
H2: Flow state will have a positive influence on the behavior intention.
H3: Sports event satisfaction will have a positive influence on the behavior intention.

Methods
Participants were selected from older athletes in the 2015 sports event (National Senior Games) for older adults in Minneapolis and St. Paul, Minnesota. A cross sectional study was conducted. Since the sports event was national wide for amateur older athletes, most of the participants were highly skilled athletes from all across the United States. Data was collected via paper-based surveys, which all participants filled out on voluntary basis. A total of 307 usable surveys out of 315 were collected. Eight surveys were incomplete due to leave for prepare the games. Paper surveys were found to be especially useful for participants with a busier schedule; about 20 surveys were returned the next day after being finished off-site. Average time for survey completion was 10-15 minutes. Descriptive statistics and Cronbach’s alpha analyses were performed by SPSS 24.0, and a subsequent analysis was conducted by the structural equation modeling method by AMOS 24.

Flow state scale was adapted by Chen, Ye, Chen, & Tung, 2010 and examined with four observed variables (e.g., “I lose track of time in the NSG.”). Cronbach’s alpha was .809 with four items on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Not at all; 5 = Very much). Sports event satisfaction was adapted by Funk et al. (2011) and examined three observed variables (e.g., “I am satisfied with my decision to participate in the NSG.”). Cronbach’s alpha was .858 with three items on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 5 = Strongly agree).
Behaviour intention was adapted by Lee, Lee, & Choi (2010) and Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman (1996) and examined three observed variables (e.g., “I will keep participating in the NSG.”). Cronbach’s alpha was .881 with three items on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 5 = Strongly agree).

Results

From a total of 307 participants, the breakdown by gender consisted of 142 male (47.2%), 165 female (52.8%). Age range was 51-92 with a mean age of 66.48 years (SD = 7.76). In terms of ethnicity, most of the survey participants were Caucasian (94.5%). The majority of respondents (86.3%) graduated at least college level education. Regarding employment, 25% were employed full time, 15% were part time, and 60% were retired from work. In addition, 56.7% were married, while rest of 43.7% was single, divorced, or widowed. In 2014, more than half of household income was more than $50,000. Including this time, 14% were first-time participants in the NSGs, 27% were second-time, and 59% participated at least three times.

The measurement model was computed through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) while using maximum likelihood estimation to test factor structure of the measures. All standardized factor loadings of observed variables were significant with value ranged from .68 to .91. These values exceeded the reasonable minimum criteria of .5. The χ2/df (69.772/32) ratio showed a proper value of 2.180, which is less than 3 for a good model fit (Bearden, Sharma, & Teel, 1982). The structural model of this research (CFI = .975, NFI = .955, TLI = .964, RMSEA = .062 with the 90% confidence interval .042-.082) showed good hypothesized model fit.

Through SEM analysis, all hypotheses were tested. Flow state was positively related with sports event satisfaction (β = .408, p < .001) and behaviour intention (β = .275, p < .001). Sports event satisfaction was positively related with behaviour intention (β = .238, p < .001). Therefore, H1, H2, H3 were supported.

Application to practice

The primary purpose of this research was to identify the relationships between flow state, sports event satisfaction, and behaviour intention. The results of structural equation modeling showed several meaningful outcomes. First, flow state was positively significant on both sports event satisfaction and behaviour intention. Since flow state showed a large magnitude to the sports event satisfaction and behaviour intention, this study confirmed that guarantee the flow experience in the sports event is an important state for sports event satisfaction and their future event participation. If event organizers provide events program with challenging environment based on the participants skills, older adults should have higher sense of flow experience. Second, sports event satisfaction was positively significant on behaviour intention. Hence, satisfied sports event participants will likely participate in the future events and recommend to their friends or neighbors.

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(RE)PRODUCTIVE WOMEN IN THE (RE)CREATION VOCATION
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Brooke N. Burk, Minnesota State University, Mankato
Linda Oakleaf, Missouri Western State University

Introduction/Rationale
Women are uniquely challenged with balancing multiple identity roles. Historically mothers, partners, and friends; for some women, these identities also include recreation professional. The unique challenges presented to mothers pursuing a career have been explored previously (Trussell, 2015; Ward et al., 2004) but our breadth of knowledge on navigating this journey requires further inquiry. For example, According to Ward et al., women are challenged with balancing dual roles as a mother and academic due to the demands of both. Unfortunately, in this instance there are limited policies in place for scholars in higher education to succeed as both parents and educators/researchers.

Recognizing the unique issues that women face in fulfilling their multiple roles at home and work, the authors set out to examine structural barriers and supports faced by mothers on the tenure track by interviewing recreation and park educators. To explore the unique connection between mother and recreation professional, we used a third wave feminist lens guided by scholarship in Third Wave Feminism: A Critical Exploration. This theory states that within multiple messy and complex identities, women can take knowledge that is gained from lived experiences (most notably, observing their female role models) to “transform social institutions from within” (Spencer, 2004, p.11).

Methods
The co-authors employed a qualitative research design grounded in the Oral History tradition. Participants (N=17) were identified by the co-authors through professional association and snowball sampling to include women employed full-time in the field of recreation, parks, leisure, tourism, or related studies. In the summer of 2016, participants were contacted electronically for telephone interviews. The interviews consisted of 11 formal questions, with audio recordings ranging in length from 29 to 65 minutes. The interviews were digitally recorded and later transcribed by the co-authors, who then verified the accuracy of the transcriptions with the participant and fellow co-authors for internal consistency.

Emergent themes were grouped into categories by their relevance to the research framework and applicable topic of discussion. Within the theoretical framework of third-wave feminism, these major themes and subthemes were coded and analyzed. While each co-author worked independently, all three communicated consistently with the others by utilizing and replying to comments in a collective working document file and also meeting regularly (approximately every five weeks) in an online medium. Open dialogue and collegiality between researchers facilitated efficient dialogue concerning potential issues of positionality (as all three co-authors are mothers) and decisions about analysis.

Results
Analysis of the transcripts revealed three major themes: a) Time (im)balance, b) perceiving success, and c) support system structures. The first major theme, time imbalance, was influenced by the presence of a perceived “second shift” with responsibilities at home, intensive mothering practices, and the amount and increasingly faster pace of fulfilling expectations at work. Secondly, mothers reported that perceiving success was related to self-imposed and social pressures of working and parenting properly. The final major theme, support system structures, included findings related to employer policies and workplace culture.

Time imbalance was found to be inclusive of five subthemes: Employment appreciation, longitudinal identity negotiation, scholarship development, responsibility and identity balancing
skills, and an alternative mindset of seeking harmony. The second major theme, perceiving success, is also inclusive of five subthemes, as follows: Others’ expectations of the participant, concern for others’ perceptions of the participant, feelings of judgment, colleagues’ support, and work speed-up in the corporate university. Finally, support system structures is comprised of seven subthemes in the sample studied for this research. These subthemes are returning to work after childbirth or adoption, work performance, combining personal and professional spaces, individual department culture, serving as role models for students, communicating with academic administration, and consequences for the university of becoming a “family-friendly” workplace.

Implications for Practice

Extending upon the current literature in this area, these working mothers in recreation, park, and leisure education were troubled with the blending, blurring, and compartmentalizing of their personal and professional roles. Study participants also expressed the need for institutional changes to support parents professionally. Unfortunately, many educated, trained, productive women leave the workforce after becoming mothers not of their own choice, but because they feel that they are unsupported and thus pushed out of their employment roles (Stone, 2007).

This research identified potential solutions that could be employed to address current and future constraints. In the presentation, researchers will address ten specific strategies which emerged from the data which can harmonize personal and professional happiness as a full-time working mother in parks and recreation. Practitioners will also discuss ways to specifically provide effective support for work colleagues who are parents. Findings from this study will help employers in the recreation, parks, and leisure profession retain valuable employees.

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References


