DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 323 204 SP 032 611

AUTHOR	Kelsey, Craig, I ..; Busser, James, Ed.
TITLE	The Journal of Recreation and Leisure. Spring 1990 Volume 10 Number 1.
PUB DATE	90
NOTE	265p.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Serials (022)
JOURNAL CIT	Journal of Recreation and Leisure; v10 n1 Spr 1990
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC11 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Community Recreation Programs; *Leisure Time; Literature Reviews; Outdoor Activities; Parks; Play; *Recreation; *Recreational Activities; Therapeutic Recreation; Travel

ABSTRACT

This volume contains the following articles under the headings "Philosophical Ideas" (Articles 1-5), "Research Studies" (Articles 6-15), and "Practical Techniques" (Articles 16-22): (1) "Coming Home to a Change of Lifestyle" (Connie O'Connor); (2) "The New Age and Leisure" (Karla Henderson, Angela Whorton); (3) "A Backcountry Dichotomy" (Gary Willden); (4) "Great Books in Recreation and Leisure" (Charles Hammersley); (5) "Leisure Travel Can Stretch Your Mind" (Benjamin deHoyos); (6) "The Recreational Beach Environment: Perceptional Difference of Users, Employees, and the Public" (Robert Buerger, James Palmer, Thomas More); (7) "Considerations in the Assessment of Leisure Interests and Needs of the Adult Mentally Retarded" (Amanda Lambert, Dale Cruse); (8) "Evaluating the Intensity of Childrens Play: A Description of Heart Rate Monitoring Methodology in a Natural Play Environment" (Michael Crawford, Mary McPhail Gray, Tom Thomas); (9) Conflict and Perceptions Among Voluntary Association Members" (Carlton Yoshioka, Dan McLean); (10) "Therapeutic Value of Wilderness Programs on Behavior and Attitude in Defiant and Rebellious Adolescents" (Doug Nelson); (11) "Applying Needs Assessments in Public Recreation" (Robert Antozzi, William Higelmire); (12) "Competencies for College Athletic Directors" (Sandra Hupp; Deb Endersbe); (13) "One-on-one Therapeutic Recreation versus Group Activiti--: Should Both Be Offered?" (Jaclyn Card, Lee Chamberland); (14) "Regional Supremacy of State Parks and Recreation Areas" (Craig Kelsey, Steve Rubio); (15) "Park Ranger Professionalism: Forward or Backward?" (William Hendricks, Dale Cruse); (16) "Situational Leadership" (Jay Naylor); (17) "Managing Conflict in Therapeutic Recreation Settings" (Anita Martin Hale); (18) "The Skills to Move On" (Mike Vandergriend). (19) "Winter Recreation: A Change in the Wind" (Dennis Nelson); (20) "Performance Appraisal in Leisure Services: The Major Legal Considerations" (Michael Phelan, Michael Schuett); (21) "Community Integration for Special Populations" (Harold Smith); and (22) "Pre-retirement Education" (Jess Caudillo). (JD)

THE JOURNAL OF RECREATION AND LEISURE

Spring 1990 Volume 10 Number 1

THE JOURNAL OF RECREATION AND LEISURE

Spring 1990 Volume 10, Number 1

TABLE OF CONTENTS

SECTION 1: PHILOSOPHICAL IDEAS

SECTION 2: RESEARCH STUDIES

-CALL FOR PAPERS-

The Journal of Recreation and Leisure

Spring 1991 Issue Volume 11

Guidelines

1. Articles will be accepted from September through December 1990 for the Spring 1991 Volume 11 issue of the Journal of Recreation and Leisure.

2. Articles may be of any length, subject matter (resource management, therapeutic, administration, higher education, commercial, tourism, etc.), format (research, practical application, philosophical, theoretical, etc.) and reference style (APA, Campbell, etc.).

3. Submit completed articles by DECEMBER 31, 1990 with the title page consisting of the Author(s) name, institution, article title and 250-500 word abstract on one page and the article without author identification attached.

4. The articles will be juried in the month of January 1991 by a five member editorial board using a blind-review process.

5. The Journal will be published in February 1991 and distributed at the Southwest District AAHPERD Conference. Each author(s) will receive one complimentary copy of the Journal.

6. Submit completed articles to:

Dr. James Busser
School of HPERD
University of Nevada
4505 Maryland Parkway
Las Vegas, NV 89154
(702) 739-3291

COMING HOME TO A CHANGE OF LIFESTYLE

Connie O'Connor, Ph.D.
California State University, Chico

ABSTRACT

Introduction

LEISURE LIFESTYLING may well be the key to stress management. However, receptivity to that concept may not be operant. In our quite work oriented society, we may have closed off our ability to even consider something so frivolous as leisure. Though the realization is here that our society has a rather visible amount of stress, the way to effectively combat it is blurred.

"Workers are weary, parents are frantic and even children haven't a moment to spare", according to a recent rather lengthy article in Time Magazine(1) entitled: "How America Has Run Out of Time". The author speculates that: "Leisure could be to the '90s what money was to the '80s".

Another recent Time article(2) presented an aesthetic spread sheet on the $360 million Hyatt Regency Waikoloa investment in luxury and fantasy. The most expensive resort ever built, at this point, Hyatt has a "hunch" today's travelers are in desperate search of an "Experience". After much campfire brainstorming, the Waikoloa staff: "...camp up with a menu of activities, priced them fantastically and still cannot always keep up with the demand". Some of the recreationally programmed items include: a day in the saddle with the Hawaiian cowboys at$1,460 for four; dinner at the Hulihee Palace at $1,995 for four; a day of hunting on the slopes of Mauna Kea at $1,150 for four; and the bargain of the day—a swim with the dolphins at $55 for a half hour.

Is this type of activity an impossibility to the average person? Not at all. Travel agents could tell a tale of the **family** outing into far flung corners of the world. Just recently a department head at a state university that he had taken his family on a expensive trip, similar to the Waikoloa experience. He said he would do it again and that Master Card gave his family an opportunity for quality time. He added that he hoped he would have a string of such memories by the time his children grew up.

A more poignant story comes from another professor on campus, a victim of cirrhosis of the liver. This exciting classroom instructor said in a taped interview that he was totally unequipped to handle leisure time. "I climb the walls on week-ends," he said. "I was never trained to value recreation very highly. That lack of education is pretty hard on me now".

Recreation Professionals Face up to the Challenge

In the last few years, students entering Leisure Studies departments around the U.S. have gone into a specialty area not formerly given much attention to until the '80s. The vast majority of recreation majors are in the private/community option area. They have ambitions to work largely in the private sector, in recreation or leisure business, or the corporate recreation, convention services, hotel and resort, management areas.

The current recreation professional needs new skills for today's market. This individual needs to know how to address the needs of the leisure consumer. This leisure consumer has become a visible entity in the '80s. This consumer should enter high visibility status in the '90s as the multiplication process takes place.

There is an abundance of proof from scientists from a variety of fields, that positive activity (they don't call it recreation) can rouse, restore, and improve behavior. They are learning this body of knowledge, in order to help stress burdened Americans come home to a change of lifestyle.

Once the scientific language of this massive and supportive information is understood and assimilated, it will be crucial for the recreationist to obtain program packaging skills that will literally enable this professional to save lives, as well marriages, minds and multitudes of body parts.

This may lead to a new respect for the profession of PECREATION MANAGEMENT, whose worth could come to be seen as being as valuable as that of the computer or medical scientist. In fact, the recreationist even today is seen as an adjunct to the medical profession in terms of the presenting of health prevention and stress buffering programs.

Drugs and Alcohol are Competing With the Recreation Experience

Many people today are coming home to a change of lifestyle that is far from positive. The syringe and shot glass are a practical solution to the problem of stress wreckreation. Wreckreation is not to be confused with recreation. The latter would have made positive response more permanent.

Dr. Robert Julien(3) states it very well in Primer of Drug Action where he itemizes the re-creational value of drugs. He states that they aid in the:

1. Relief from anxiety
2. Achievement of a state of disinhibition or euphoria
3. Achievement of altered states of consciousness
4. Expansion of creative abilities
5. Attempt to gain interpersonal or external insight
6. Escape from uncomfortable or oppressive surroundings
7. Experience of altered states of mood.

Recreational pharmacology is acceptable today. Julian states:

> As society becomes more crowded and as people become more frustrated and angry, psychoactive drugs may become an acceptable form of recreation, relaxation, escape, in the absence of any better alternative. Alternatives should be developed now, before psychoactive drugs do become the only course. Drug use, however, has been the prime recreational alternative for those whose geographical situation or economic status does not allow them enough room to live in. Drugs help one to tolerate confinement when one is unable to escape. When no other alternatives are available, drugs provide an effective means of altering one's mood or of achieving altered states of consciousness, changes that are normal, not abnormal, human desires.

Yes, drugs and alcohol do help when no other alternatives are around. First they help, then they hurt. For the millions of drug and alcohol abusers who jumped from the frying pan of stress into the fire of compulsion, the choice is no longer there. Once they did have a choice. It was to choose a lifestyle. They choose one. It became a deathstyle.

Pure Unadulterated Stress is Another Option Area for the Leisure Waster

The self-inflicted disease of stress is just as imprisoning as a physical addiction. Many can't seem to get out of it. They don't have the conditioning that would lead them to an exploration of the work/play balance approach. That sounds too simplistic, too childlike.

They stay with the very adult, "stiff upper-lip" approach. They also maintain a stiff "all-over-vascular" system. The one thing they do stretch (and to the **very end** of the day), is their work and problem preoccupation. Then they try to sleep. It just doesn't work.

The body is brighter than our will. It knows when we are living wrongly.

But do we really need to resort to drugs and stress? In an impatient age the answer is instantly yes. In the relaxation need awareness age (which is rapidly becoming a medical, mental, family and financial necessity), we may be more inclined to opt for healthy play.

Find your play, find your health! This may well be the actuarial table reality of the '90s.

The Body Benefits of Play: A Body Systems Approach

What does play do for us?

First of all, it needs to be **our** play, personalized in a way that reflects our own uniqueness rather than some external criteria. It needs to be instrinsically satisfying. If it satisfies this requirement, the brain's limbic system reward sites will become activated chemically. Neurotransmitters involved in brain chemistry that bring about feelings of well-being will be produced. This will then go from the brain to the body in the form of endocrine and autonomic nervous system activation that will bring about the following body system response.

<u>Digestive System</u>: Stomach acids secret naturally. Stomach contracts relaxedly. Result is better nutrition, no uncomfortable tightness.

<u>Nervous System</u>: Thinking is more rhythmic, responses more coordinated. There is a wider range of sensory perception. We actually see a wider range of colors, have a stronger sense of touch, smell, sound when happy.

<u>Endocrine System</u>: Negative bio-chemicals are reduced. The pituitary, pineal, thyroid, pancreas and sex glands all operate to our advantage rather than tear us apart as they are inclined to do when we are stressed.

<u>Cardiovascular</u>: Our heart and blood vessel systems are relaxed and work at maximal efficiency when we are happy. Glucose and oxygen are delivered more rapidly bringing more energy.

<u>Muscular</u>: Our muscles are relaxed. Thus oxygen and glucose are consumed more easily and metabolic wastes are worked out.

<u>Respiratory</u>: Lungs breath more fully. The alveolar and bronchiolar ducts and sacks open way up to make more oxygen available to our body which in turn gives us more operational energy than when we are in basic mode.

<u>Skeletal</u>: Even our bones are more functional within the positive limbic system state known as happiness. The marrow stays spongey and moist. The better oxygen delivery keeps a drying out process from taking place. King Solomon may have understood physiology when he declared that "joy worketh like a tonic but a weary spirit drieth up the bones".

Lympathic: The immune system is aided and abetted when the body is in that relaxed state of positive well being. The spleen, thymus, tonsils and lymph nodes all function to battle the bugs and strike out the stress.

Excretory: The lungs and skin (sebaceous glands) work more effectively with the flushing effect of happiness.

We are better "all under" in the happiness state and we usually **look** better as well. Our eyes have a twinkle, skin clearer, face more expressive, posture is better--in the happiness versus unhappiness state of being.

There are other areas of biological investigation into the body and brain's tendency to respond at reward sites to specific recreations. Brain researcher Marian Diamond(4) has discovered some helpful material in her lab at Berkeley. Dr. Diamond has explored brain development that occurs when rat pups are given "enriched environments" of moms, playmates and toys versus rat pups living without toys and only one sibling and mother. The pups with enriched environments had an increase in brain weight as adults. Dr. Diamond declares that: "Witn use you can keep those dendrites out there, extended, but without stimulation, they shrink down...You use it or lose it."

When asked about her series of interviews of active elderly people, and the tendency of their brain to stay functional, Dr Diamond responded:

> Yes, I looked for people who were extremely active after 88 years of age. I found that the people who use their brains don't lose them. It was that simple. These people were interested in their professions even after retirement. They kept healthy bodies. They drank milk and ate an egg each day--that was one common denominator that goes against the prevailing thought today. And other

denominators were activity, and love of life and love of others and being loved. Love is very basic.

Call it arousal, intensity or response, love, enthusiasm, -- the evidence suggests that it is not just the experiences we have, but the degree of our positive response to the experience that makes it so beneficial to body and mind.

Another thing that appears to be important is the regularity of intervals between episodes of re-creative experience. A study by Hunsiker(5), showed that reinforcement can't be separated by too much time. Close distancing of intervals keeps priming up. Priming means to keep the system engaged. Hunsiker found that thirsty rats would run faster for water reinforcement when trials were separated by less time.

Hunsiker's results are true in our leisure lifestyle as well. We do play the piano, love our friends, stay fit, and remember poetry, **better** when we are involved regularly with that piano, friend, fitness activity. When we abandon our leisure interests for awhile we may feel a little rusty at the next encounter. It may even be painful.

The Body That Never Sleeps

All this is a heavy argument for the leisure lifestyle. Stress is everywhere. Leisure opportunity is everywhere. To those who don't plan for leisure, stress is sure to have it's impact. It is very possible to work and worry 20 hours a day.

New York, along with other large cities, is called "the city that never sleeps". There are many people today who live in bodies that never sleep. They may get some sleep every night but they never really rise fully recovered from the stress overload of the day before. There is always that residual tension and stress. Sleep does not wash away all the raveled sleeves of care, when one's life is overly stress burdened.

Let's look at the **EXCLUSIVE-WORK-STYLE** oriented Life. This is one in which there is **no** change of lifestyle to come home to.

9 hours: **Work**

1 hour: **Preparation for work**
Dressing, eating with the mind intensely focused in work readiness patterns.

1 hour: **Transportation to and from work**
The mind is accelerating in the work focus area. The external environment has become a blurry unreality.

5 hours: **Work recuperation along with work preoccupation**
Recovering from your day is essential. But the stress and strain still seems to be in the body. The mind further perpetuates the physical tightness by reviewing and repeating the day in the brain's highly active and cooperative reverberating circuitry. You may appear to be in the external world, with a visible attempt at talking to someone or reading the paper but your polyphasically active mind is on it's internal treadmill, taking a true stress test.

4 hours: **Toss and Turn Aerobics**
Once in bed you may find yourself at your most physically active state of the day. Your mind is also active. You are alive with energy. You may finally drop off and get a few needed hours of maintenance and repair. Then, it's up and off on another day of work oriented living.

Now wouldn't a leisure lifestyle have been more cost effective? The cost to the body, mind, social relationships is high in the life of the exclusive work-style oriented.

The pragmatic value of a leisure lifestyle is that it competes with your workstyle for brain space and body involvement. You are not allowed to remain fully involved with work stimuli.

The problem of overly extended and similar stimuli bombardment such as that in the work orientation has to do with reverberatory circuits in the brain. This circuitry needs change. It can become overloaded. The synapses, just like fuses can literally be blown. The beneficial neurotransmitters become used up. The chemistry of mental transaction becomes less effective through repeated firing. In summation, you need to get some of the thought processings off that very overworked neuronal pathway and onto a fresh new track.

According to Gary Lynch(6), professor of neurobiology at University of California at Irvine, "Memory can't be formed constantly with every new impulse, whether it's hearing words, tasting, or whatever. We'd be overloaded, maybe even schizophrenic, from all that input. No, the chemistry of memory should be something that does not happen very often." Lynch has investigated the meshwork of proteins at the brain's receptor site. He compares the receptors to little catcher's mitts, in the membrane of the target bump. When that membrane is "chewed up" out pop the catcher's mitts, or receptors. The problem is that the membrane can be overused, "overchewed".

Human beings can push themselves beyond what is good for them and to where their lives become counter productive. More doesn't mean better.

One solution would be to repair the damage of excessive cerebration in one area by putting our attention on another area. The thesis expressed here is that the leisure lifestyle offers us this option to over-intensification in one particular life pattern.

LEISURE LIFESTYLES FOR THE HEALTH OF IT

The choice of leisure lifestyles is enormous. Choices need to be made. Categorization is necessary. Below are eight major leisure lifestyle categories.

RANK BELOW
Rank 1-4 your top 4 choices. Your own unique personality will determine these.

___**Aesthetics**
An activity involving the senses and appreciation.
It increases perception, develops finer sensitivities, soothes.
"Art is the transmission of feeling the artist has experienced"

Leo Tolstoy

___**Craftsmanship**
This involves working with the hands. It can be a lightening rod for stress. It allows for a mastery of materials and perhaps a mastery of oneself.
"Writing is a form of therapy. Sometimes I wonder how all those who do not write, compose or paint can escape the madness, the melancholic, the panic fear which is inherent in the human situation.

Graham Greene

___**Humanitarian**
This activity is service oriented and involves helping others. It is a highly worthwhile activity, develops loving capacities and gives one a sense of control over the problems of the world.
"Noble deeds and hot baths are the only curse for depression"

Dodie Smith

___**Mental Action**
This type of mental play is the activity of the thrilled thinker. The mind is stretched, exercised, made more flexible.
"Life is the gift of nature but good living is the gift of wisdom"

Greek Proverb

___Nature
This activity gets the participant down to earth. It has a tranquilizing effect, gives a wider perspective on life and offers a sense of freedom.
"Many eyes go through the meadow but few see the flowers in it"
Ralph Waldo Emerson

___Performance
This activity involves participating in something while people watch. It is one of the most expressive of all lifestyles. It makes life more intense and stimulating. There is strong bonding between fellow performers.
"In life, I don't go around stealing money, or manipulating everyone around me. But if you've had a bad day, doing that on state is a great outlet"
Loni Ackerman, Evita

___Physical Activity
This involves a fun to fitness range of body motion. It releases pent up energies, build zest, helps us think better, increases self esteem. It makes body more flexible, strong and relaxed.
"The first wealth is health"
Ralph Waldo Emerson

___Social Action
This is that activity which involves being with people. It gives us a way to escape from pressures, be recognized as a person.
"Isolation is the worst possible counselor"
Miguel De Unamuno

A deeper exploration into each of these categories would be helpful. Let's take a look at an abridged Lifestyle Catalog. These sketches of specific lifestyles can give you the opportunity to try a few on for size.

LIFESTYLE SKETCHES
Find your play, find your life!

Aesthetics

MOVEMENT
You love the movement of physical activities. You don't just want to win or socialize, but to experience the movement of the activity. You enjoy listening to your body--it's rush and roar, it's peace, quietness.

SIGHT
Your visual sense is strong. You enjoy looking at antiques, art, scenery. You love walking out in nature and you notice

every little thing. You like sightseeing tours, festivals, theater going--anything where there are things to see. Travel is a special treat for your eyes!! You think about beauty when you are contemplating or relaxing. You often just sit back, close your eyes, and review beauty you have seen.

TASTE

You love good foods. You like to cook, entertain, explore, experiment. You feel cooking is creative and it enables you to prepare a quality meal that seems to cause you to eat less because you're more quickly satisfied. You enjoy relaxed meals, with pleasant talk. You collect recipes.

Craftsmanship

AUTO RESTORATION

You love to fix up old cars. You have an extensive workshop out in the garage where you go and restore old model cars to your heart's content. You have a wood stove out there and a radio and television. Your son assists you. Your wife comes out to knit while you are working. It's a family hobby. You belong to a club and often you go on rides together. You enjoy the companionship of fellow car restorers who often drop in at your garage to see what's happening. You share many ideas and learn much from them. You are always learning new things. You take an occasional workshop, read books, subscribe to several auto restoration magazines.

BONSAI/BOOK BINDING/BRASSRUBBING

You are a craftsman! You love doing all kinds of things with your hands. You have worked with bonsai since you were a child. You have a whole home full of your creations. They are also eagerly received presents. You got into book binding and brass rubbing and brass rubbing while on a trip to Europe. You picked up some old books written in the original language and now you want to take up Spanish, French and German. You discovered brass rubbing when you saw others working on it in a church in Zurich. You find that brass rubbings make beautiful wall hangings. You have a hobby room in your master bedroom. Your hobby room overlooks a garden where you sit for hours at your work table before the sliding glass door. People in the apartment are curious and you have made friends with just about everyone there. Some of them work with you in your workroom. You have gone on many brass rubbing expeditions with them. You collect books on your crafts and are a member of clubs which send you monthly magazines.

Humanitarian

ALCOHOL AND DRUG REHABILITATION WORKER

You work as a volunteer with a home for substance abuse youth. Two Tuesdays a month you have some kind of recreational activity in the home, and the other two Tuesdays you take the group out for some recreational event. You enjoy working with this group of from 8 to 15 people. You have gone through training to do this type of work. It is something that you need some skills in order to do. You take the responsibility very seriously. At the same time you find this volunteer job enjoyable. You like to be a good listener for your clients. You hope you are a good model. You enjoy life end try to help them see that they can do so too, and without the help of drugs. You read everything you can on alcohol and drug addiction. There is much to learn. You enjoy the sharing sessions with the other counselors, both professional and volunteer.

FIREMAN VOLUNTEER

When you are on call in your work as a volunteer fireman, you are off and running when the fire alarm goes off. You find this work very satisfying. Everyone appreciates what you do for them. People fighting fires get close to one another. A real bonding takes place. You even enjoy the training that goes along with this lifestyle. You wear your firefighter's outfit very proudly. You love taking care of the equipment and polishing the truck. You like riding in the truck with the siren ringing. You are doing your part and know how worthwhile it is.

LIBRARY AIDE

You have always loved books, so you enjoy your volunteer work in the university located in your community. You like to help students and the occasional non-student visitor, find things they are looking for. You have learned the computer resource system and feel confident in being able to find the materials. It gives you a strong sense of power. You like this library aide leisure lifestyle because it doesn't involve heavy expenses on your part. You work with your favorite things, books.

Mental Action

ADULT EDUCATION CLASS REGULAR

You love to take adult education classes and in the past ten years have taken some 20 courses including: Conversational French, Woodworking, Film As Art, World Cultures, Beginning Ceramics, Marriage and the Family, etc. You like to take one every semester. In your home you have a comfortable chair for reading and paper writing, a big desk for writing and study, a typewriter, a computer, and two large 15 foot library walls. You are very proud of your book collection. You have a collection of books which incudes classic literature, how-to-do-it books, all the texts of the classes you have taken along with supplementary books you picked up at the used book store to further enlighten you as to the course subject matter. You have all kinds of friends you have picked up along the way. There is your ten year friend Liza, who you met in Accounting 1 and Tom who you met in Geography of California. You have friends interested in everything from art to zoology. they have one thing in common. They love learning.

COLLECTING

You are an avid collector. You started as a boy with your baseball cards. You and your father used the garage for the model trains you collected. You set these up complete with landscape on a 16 x 20 foot track layout. In high school you got into rocks and shells because of a geography class outing you went on as a freshman. In college you got into crazy hats and of course, bottles! Now you collect recipes and have become quite a cook.

Nature

AMATEUR FARMER

You live on 10 acres and have developed it into your own farm. You and your wife keep chickens for your eggs and meat, have a cow you take turns milking every day, make your own butter, grow your own vegetables. You have an orchard of 3 nut and 10 fruit trees and a large berry patch. You also raise and sell Golden Labs. You find this to be a profitable and rewarding hobby. You and your wife both love these dogs and find them easy to raise because of their nature. You have 3 females and a male. Your house is an old farmhouse you purchased and remodeled. It is very comfortable and you often sit on the big front porch in the evening and talk with neighbors and friends who drop by. You find this preferable to watching television. You usually talk about gardening and Golden Labs. You have a barn with a dog kennel at one end. You have two horses at the other end which you and your wife ride often in the early morning. You have a tractor. You have all kinds of tools. You like your life!

OUTDOOR RECREATION

You are an outdoor recreationist. You are always off backpacking, kayaking, water skiing, biking, gold panning, scuba diving, skiing. You feel these activities get you out into nature and that is where you want to be. You feel free in the out of doors and feel that being inside is bad for your attitude. You notice that you are very up after some time outdoors. You have taken classes in everything you do. You want to be skilled and you want qualified people to teach you. You also subscribe to all kinds of periodicals on the interests you have. You feel very motivated after reading these monthly magazines. You also have a big collection of books on your various outdoor interests.
Equipment is a big expense for you. You spend the largest part of your income on this. You also spend a good amount on participation also. You have some wonderful outdoor friends. You belong to a hiking group, a biking club, a ski club and are

always taking classes where you add new friends to your activity companion list. You find these type of friends more interesting than most people. They are adventurers and energetic.

Performance

BANJO BAND
You have just recently learned the banjo and play with a group that you really enjoy. And the audiences usually go wild when you play. There is something about the banjo that affects both you and an audience. You feel lucky to be in this group and you are getting better and better every day. You wife is a musician also. She is a member of a chamber music quartet. She plays cello with them. Your home is set up for performance! You have a baby grand piano in the living room with an instrument wall containing all kinds of stringed instruments. You have always liked instruments and began collecting them long ago but never got around to playing them. Your wife's cello is in the place of honor in this room which has a good acoustics system and a great lighting system both coming from outdoors and special light features.

ACTING
You are a member of the local drama group. You are a very energetic person and give the credit to this acting lifestyle which is very intense and exciting. You have an area of your living room which has a wall long mirror and you stand in front of this to practice your lines and movement. You take part in two plays a year. You feel the variety of roles has been very educational for you. Acting is also good for your memory. You find actors to be very social, fun loving, intelligent people. You enjoy the active social life you have with this group. They seem to be interested in many things and are always doing something new and different. You subscribe to Theater Week and Fireside Library which sends you a new Broadway show every month. You invite friends over for play reading often.

Physical Activity

BICYCLISTS
You love heading out to your garage, complete with bike repair area and bike gear storage. You work in there on rainy days. You have a wood stove and you also store all your bicycle magazines, books and bike tour phamplets there. But you love even more getting on your 21 speed Trek and heading out of the garage for a 20 mile trip you will make in 1 1/2 hours. The freedom is so refreshing after your office bound day. This ride is a daily occurrence. You have panniers packed with food and tent for week-end trips and you usually go on two trips a month. You really look forward to 3 day week-ends. Your summer vacations are usually bicycle trips. Next summer you'll pack your bike off to Peru for a month of touring. You subscribe to

Cycling magazine, have taken a bike repair class, have 4 bicycling buddies and belong to the Wheelsman Club. You love the wild colors of your biking outfits. You feel very healthy and both fit and flexible.

Social

AMATEUR RADIO
You love sitting in your den at your amateur radio set up. You can talk to people from all different parts of the United States. You have made many friends through this activity. Every now and then you visit one of them and you feel like you have known them for years. This nationwide message handling network is something you really love being part of. You belong to the association of amateur radio operators, the American Radio Relay League. There are some 150,000 licensed amateur radio operations in this group. You get QST, the ARRL monthly publication and learn from it. You are part of an emergency coordination system. There are also bulletin stations, phone stations, observers, and experimental stations. There is a Museum of Amateur Radio and contests for operating proficiency.

BALLROOM DANCING
You love to dance. You have made your living room into a dance studio and feel that now you really live in it. Every Saturday night you have parties in this room. You have a great sound system, good wood floor for dancing and dance teachers who teach a new dance at the beginning of every Saturday night event. You have a closet full of dance outfits you wear while you take part in your favorite lifestyle. The dressing up is as much fun as the dance itself. You have just added Country Dance to your list of dances you like to do. You are not married but have three dance partners.
You belong to a dance club. You collect books on ballroom dance. You find this activity has increased your physical as well as your mental health. You find that dancing is a very enjoyable way to appreciate music.

We could go on and on with this. There is so much to life, yet many people are working themselves to stress. Today we don't need to be kings to live royally. We do need to have imagination. We have to realize the world of resources out there waiting to be mined. WE are all in a gold rush era. The gold is the gold of a rich leisure life. It is not a luxury but a necessity in a stress struck world.

You do have a choice. What will you have?

Take some time to take a look at life up ahead.

If you choose leisure you are choosing a lifestyle. If you continue to stay with stress, you have embarked on the deathstyle. Today does determine tomorrow.

Footnotes

Coming Home to a Change of Lifestyle

1. Gibbs, Nancy (1989, April 24), Time, 58-67

2. Gibbs, Nancy (1989, February 27), Time, 71-72

3. Julien, Robert M. (1981), Primer of Drug Action, (San Francisco, CA: W.H. Freeman and Company, 87

4. Hopson, Janet (1984, November), Psychology Today, 63-73

5. Hunsicker, J.P. (1974), Journal of Comparative and Physiological Psychology, 87, 618-621

6. Hopson, Janet (1984, April), Psychology Today, 28-39

THE NEW AGE AND LEISURE

Karla Henderson
University of North Carolina

Angela Whorton
Crossroads Developmental Center

ABSTRACT

A New Age is emerging. It is an age of optimism where people are putting together their collective consciences to make the world a better place. The New Age paradigm is really not new but is a coming together of a reaffirmation of values such as peace, love, and justice that have always been important in

the world. People are realizing and practicing the desirability and necessity of creating a livable world. This paper provides a background concerning New Age thinking and addresses the relationship that exists between leisure and recreation programming and the New Age. It is difficult to explain exactly what New Age thinking is because it is defined differently by different people just as leisure as a subjective state is defined differently by different people. In general, New Age thinking is comprised of awakening to a belief in the self and one's human potential and an acknowledgment of the connections that exist between the self and other human beings as well as with nature. The practice of this thinking can be embodied in one's leisure. Further, leisure service professionals can encourage the development of self and the interconnectedness of all life forms through the provision of recreation activities. New Age thinking is a philosophical paradigm that may be useful as a framework for providing leisure and recreation activities for individuals in our communities.

Introduction

The questions that have been asked for centuries are "who am I?" and "what am I doing on this earth?" To answer these questions, each of us is involved consciously or unconsciously in a search to develop a set to beliefs and to function in a way that is compatible with the beliefs. The world, however, is changing very rapidly and sometimes it is overwhelming to cope with the enormity of pressing global issues and the threat of instant destruction. Many people are taking solace in this age of transition by reexamining the philosophies of life they believe are important and looking at the world with a new vision.

New Age consciousness as a paradigm or alternative, offers a way to begin to understand the "higher purpose" of the role of people on the world. New Age consciousness is a way of thinking about ourselves and who we fit in the universe. The purpose of New Age thinking is to lead to personal and social transformation. The journey is inward and self-directed but the results are outward and have implications for society in general.

In this paper, we would like to consider the implications of New Age thinking for our understanding of leisure and recreation programming in today's society. The premise suggests that not one aspect of our lives can be separated from another; thus, we must view leisure as an integral part of all of living, not just something one does when there is nothing else to do or when one's work is done. A New Age understanding may provide insights into how professionals can conduct recreational programming for a variety of populations in the future.

What is the New Age Paradigm?

It is hard to say what "New Age" is and what it is not. One of the challenging aspects of New Age thinking, like a conceptualization of leisure, is that it is highly personal. What may mean New Age thinking to one person may not mean New Age thinking to another. Each person can shuffle the ingredients of the paradigm to fit his/her needs. There appears to be no universal definition of the New Age except perhaps that the ultimate goal is to create a more livable world. It is a process of thinking whereby one stands outside her/his own experience and view it from a higher perspective. The thinking leads to both personal transformation, change, or restructuring and ultimately societal transformation. Those who share a New Age consciousness are striving to better understand themselves and to practice a lifestyle that has the potential for making the world a more desirable place to live.

Many ways exist to describe New Age thinking. It is about people who care about themselves and others. It is about individuals who want to be "kinder" to themselves, to others, and to the environmental world in which we live. It is an emphasis on human potential individually but also upon the need for cooperation and relationship. New Age thinking posits that political institutions will not change without a change in the individual's heart and mind.

New Age consciousness is really not new. The way in which it was embodied, discussed, and manifested into the 1980's was perhaps different than during other periods of time such as during the Renaissance or the period of enlightenment in ancient Greece, but the basic concepts of the past have reemerged today. Indeed, religious leaders of many parts of the world have espoused the philosophy of "love thy neighbor as thyself" for centuries. In the post-industrial society, however, it has become critical to once again examine just exactly what loving means.

Some opponents of the New Age see the thinking as antithetical to mainstream religion, particularly Christianity. While new age thinking does not have as its goal the subversion of religion, perhaps religions need to be questioned if their doctrines are not making the world a more livable place. New Age philosophy does not advocate for one religion; the thinking suggests that we can learn much from religions and spirituality in general.

The new age is not a place in time but a way of thinking about the world. It is the bringing together of ideas about peace, justice, and love that have been developing over the years. It is a realization and acknowledgment of the value of self in relation to one's interconnectedness with the world. In a world that is so rapidly changing, it is time to focus on what contributions each one of us can make toward a more livable world. New age thinking results in a restructuring of our present attitudes about ourselves and our present ways of living. The new age conceptual model is needed because our existing models are no longer completely effective in this post-industrial society.

Howe-Murphy (1988) suggested that the New Age paradigm teaches that: (a) the mind, body, and spirit are inseparable and integrated, (b) the individual is self-organizing in that the individual has the inherent abilities to naturally return to a state of balance and to define what is individually significant, (c) the individual and her/his total environment are interdependent and mutually influence each other, (d) life is dynamic and constantly changing, and (e) inner consciousness is connected with global consciousness (p. 4-5). These principles provide a framework for applying the New Age thinking that addresses the development of human potential and the interconnectedness of all life. The theory and practice of a phenomenon such as leisure has implications within the New Age consciousness.

The Connection to Leisure

An obvious link between New Age consciousness and the basis of leisure can be easily found. Leisure is often embodied in the coming together of people of like minds who are striving for personal and/or social transformation or change. A greater appreciation of the meaning of leisure in people's lives and the necessity for leisure in order to manifest life changes is a way of thinking about how leisure fits into the New Age consciousness. The realization of the centrality of leisure to the human condition as well as the holistic nature of leisure experiences also provide a way of understanding how leisure fits an expanding paradigm (Murphy, 1987). Further, leisure is an experience that involves a connection of the mind, body and spirit in reaching is "peak" potentials. The individual in leisure has the opportunity to transcend oneself and to empower oneself in the here and now as well as for the future. In many philosophical ways, the purest understanding of the New Age may be directly linked to the value associated with the benefits of leisure. People feeling good about themselves is a shared goal of New Age consciousness as well as of leisure.

The application of New Age consciousness to leisure has several other direct relationships. For example, stress is a common part of life. We know that some stress can help each of us function better in society. Too much stress, however, can result in grave consequences. With increasing stress experienced by many people in today's societal confusion, it is even more critical that people are given an opportunity to take time for themselves to contemplate who they are and what they need.

Empowerment describes how one comes to believe one has control over his/her own life--not necessarily over life in general but over how one thinks and how one reacts in the world. Learning to think positively about ourselves through successful experiences of leisure in various areas of activity including sports, outdoor recreation, arts, crafts, and just "being", is one of the obvious ways people become empowered. Feeling empowered also relates to how each of us finds "meaning" in our life and how we nurture one another in the appreciation of individual differences, weaknesses, and strengths. People learn who they are in leisure and this carries over into other contexts of life. Finding meaning and learning about oneself is a self-directed journey, but in the group structure in which leisure often occurs, one can learn about the self in relationship to others.

New Age consciousness can be embodied through many aspects of life but leisure is one of the dimensions in which time is available for people to contemplate their lives. Leisure allows for the "state of being" that is necessary for individual transformations and changes. Leisure also offers a way to explore what brings meaning into one's life. Leisure has been used for the purpose of personal transformation for centuries, but we are just now beginning to understand how time, activity, and experience are inexplicably associated with leisure.

The New Age consciousness is manifested in a variety of ways. Aspects of how people portray the New Age are only small pieces of what the encompassing ideology is. The New Age consciousness has been associated with: relaxation techniques, meditation, stress management, creative visualization, feminism, metaphysics, spiritual journeys, channeling, reincarnation, power of positive thinking, holistic medicine, homeopathic medicine, crystal healing, rolfing, dietary reform, mysticism, sex therapy, yoga, astrology, biofeedback, organic gardening, hypnosis, Jungian psychology, inner peace, peace education, and new age music, to name only a few. All of these activities have in common the notions of personal and social transformation and change as well as interconnectedness and interdependency. Each offers a means for focusing on the human potential aspects of living and offers a dimension of leisure potential.

Some people would argue that the New Age consciousness and many of the activities described above are narcissistic and hedonistic; some people would argue that leisure is narcissistic also with its focus on the self. In most cases, people are seeking information and experiential opportunities for themselves to learn about such things as holistic health, meditation, yoga, self-hypnosis, and dietary reform which will enable them to become physically and mentally healthier and thus, able to contribute more to the world.

New Age philosophers would argue that revelation is necessary before revolution will occur. They would say that the best way to change the world is to begin by changing oneself. One must have leisure as a possibility to begin to make the decisions necessary to lead to personal and societal change.

One of the outcomes of New Age consciousness is inner peace. The concept of feeling good about oneself is a dimension of inner peace. The New Age consciousness provides a framework for learning to be who we are so that we can do the things we want to do better. Some of both New Age consciousness and leisure necessitates "getting out of your own way" so you can begin to make desired changes.

Leisure also connotes a connection with the environment. When one experiences leisure in the form of everyday experiences or as "peak" or flow experiences, one feels the connectedness with the world. The ecological ethic evolves directly from interconnections in the universe. The New Age consciousness puts a major focus on caring for the environment and appreciating the oneness of humans and nature. This experience of connection with the outdoors often occurs in leisure and is necessary in order to develop ethics concerning the environment and the care that must be given. The New Age offers little new information concerning environmentalism. New Age thinking, however, suggests that the major concern we had for the environment in the 1970's can not be forsaken in the 1980-90's. An environmental ethic, an outdoor ethic, an ecological ethic will remain as important today as ever. Since most of us experience the outdoors in our leisure, this connection is evident.

On a philosophical basis, New Age consciousness and leisure appear to have commonalities if for no other reason than it is difficult to clarify these amorphous concepts. Yet, many parallels are evident in the emerging philosophies of the two concepts. The New Age consciousness also has direct implications for the professional doing recreation programming.

Implications for Recreation Programming

A number of implications of the New Age consciousness may exist for recreation programming in communities, youth-agencies, and for special populations. Probably most obvious and most tradition in recreation programming is the way in which aspects of new age living can be incorporated into the program offerings. Such instructional classes and groups related to self-hypnosis, yoga, and meditation would be good examples.

The need to form partnerships with other agencies and to practice cooperation and interdependency is another way of viewing the philosophy of New Age consciousness within recreation agencies. Continuing efforts to work together and to share resources between public and private agencies are ideal ways that organizations can underline the need for networking and social cooperation.

Helping people to make decisions about their time and leisure through aspects of leisure education is also implicit in the view of the New age. The philosophical focus on change and transformation can be taught to people through their choice of leisure activities. Experiential education in any number of forms may be related to a better understanding of what people's purpose on earth is.

Stress management and the role that is plays in making life better for all is also another aspect that can be programmed for within recreation organizations. People can be helped to find ways for coping with the complex world through various techniques and strategies that can be learned.

Concern for relationships and fostering community through the involvement of people in their own lives through recreation participation is also key. Recreation organizations do not need to always focus on offering services but may be instrumental in enabling people to find their own resources, in serving as a broker for connecting people or connecting people and information, and facilitating the coming together of people within neighborhoods to solve their own problems and issues.

Activities that involve working for peace are also an aspect of the New age. Walsh (1986, 1988) has described a number of ways that recreation programmers can address issues of peace such as constructing a peace trail, offering special celebrations that surround peace "holidays", conducting recycling projects, and stressing non-competitive as well as competitive recreation activities. The concept of "New Games" while not longer really "new", is an excellent example of how recreation activities can foster new ideas about people and their relationships to one another. All of these projects and activities bring to people's attention the need to examine their values for a changing world.

Most of these ideas suggest an extension of the recreation programming that is already being done by many leisure service organizations. New ways of thinking about the role of the recreation programmer might be considered as well. Rather than a direct service provider, many other opportunities might exist for the enabler, facilitator, and recreation broker role. Further, perhaps leisure ought to be infused with other aspects of life rather than as a separate "recreation department". In communities, leisure education might be occurring in social welfare programs, unemployment centers, and a variety of other places where the impact may be more completely felt. People's view of leisure services may be too narrow at the present time and it may be up to recreation/leisure service professionals to develop an expanding view of leisure not only as activity but as a "way of life".

It is difficult to take an ideological notion like New Age thinking and pragmatize it to fit a specific view of a profession. Thinking about the New Age consciousness is, however, one way to expand our minds to the coming changes that need to be addressed. The thinking may provide a philosophical basis for understanding some of those needed changes. New Age thinking can provide a new conceptual model. Howe-Murphy and Murphy (1988) suggested it is essential that the knowledge base be broadened in the therapeutic recreation profession and that service delivery be reexamined. This is true for all areas of leisure services.

Further, New Age thinking can provide a way for individual professionals to understand themselves better in the world. Through this ideology, a higher consciousness may be found which can provide the impetus and energy for undertaking changes that need to be considered. It is difficult for many of us to separate the personal from the professional and the New Age consciousness suggests that this separation may not be necessary. As Howe-Murphy and Murphy suggested, "Leisure, as with other elements of one's existence is relevant to the degree that the individual perceives his or her experience as emanating from within one's own being and connection with the universe" (1988, p. 51). A set of beliefs in the form of a New Age consciousness can help each of us as individuals to be better persons and thus, able to function better as professionals.

Conclusions

It is hard to say just exactly what new age thinking is and what it is not. It is difficult to say just exactly what leisure is and what it is not. We have not offered many new ideas in this article, but we hope we have described the New Age ideology and some of the potential applications it may have to understanding the phenomenon of leisure and the directions in which our practice might be moving.

The New Age consciousness is a way of thinking and living. It is based on an inward journey which leads to outward change, both personally and socially. Regardless of what aspect of life we are discussing, all of us are trying to understand who we are and what we are doing on the planet. It is necessary to have leisure as a central component of our lives and the lives of our constituents. New age consciousness can provide an additional philosophical framework for helping to give leisure the place which it so richly deserves in all individuals' lives.

Bibliography

Howe-Murphy, R. (1988). Shifting paradigms: Implications for leisure studies curricula. Society of Park and Recreation Educators Annual on Education. 3, 1-9.

Howe-Murphy, R. & Murphy, J.F. (1988). An exploration of the new age consciousness paradigm in therapeutic recreation. In C. Sylvester, et al (Eds.). Philosophy of Therapeutic Recreation. Washington, DC: National Recreation and Park Association.

Murphy, J. (Speaker). (1987). Quantum leisure: An examination of a new paradigm for the recreation and leisure profession. (Cassette recording N. NRPA-143). Alexandria, VA: National Recreation and Park Association.

Walsh, E.R. (1986). Programming for peace. Parks and Recreation, 20(3), 50-53, 67.

Walsh, E.R. (1988). Peace: A world of program possibilities. Parks and Recreation, 22(7), 44-49.

A BACKCOUNTRY DICHOTOMY

and a Personal "Sense of Wonder":

(Motorized vs. Self-Propelled Trail Users)

Gary D. Willden
Weber State College, Ogden, UT

ABSTRACT

This paper presents a highly personal exploration of the philosophical roots of some of the author's biases regarding outdoor recreation in general, and self-propelled versus motorized trail users in particular.

It is part Lament for some of the Past, which was.
It is part Indictment of aspects of the Present, which are.
It is part Celebration of America's great outdoors, which ever will be.

The purpose of the narrative is not to malign any element of society, but to stimulate thinking and perhaps greater awareness of the intensely personal recreation heritage each of us has. It offers no panacea, nor even viable short-term solutions. It is simply; an exercise in nostalgia, a critical look at what is, and a hopeful plea for what might yet be.

Introduction

> We are rapidly multiplying not merely types of work, but types of play as well...a leisure-time commitment can serve as the basis for an entire life-style...the realm of leisure, unlike that of work, is little constrained by practical considerations. Here imagination has free play and the mind of man can conjure up incredible varieties of "fun"... producing large numbers of "fun specialists". As technology makes new sports possible, we can anticipate the formation of highly varied new play cults...skydivers... glider enthusiasts, scuba divers, hot rodders, drag racers (trail bikers, 4-wheelers, snowmobilers)...each of these represents a leisure-based subcult already organized around a technological device.
>
> Toffler, 1971, pp. 288-290

I suppose I was more fortunate than most. I was blessed with the opportunity to grow up the son of a man who loved the outdoors. Not that he was particularly well-versed in lore, knowledgeable in the natural sciences, or even of a strong philosophical bent; Dad was simply <u>at home</u> away from home. <u>The Outdoors was for me, a treat</u>.

When he took me hunting, we spent more time admiring than hunting. When we went camping, we marveled more than we pioneered. While driving through scenic areas we were forever forsaking the pavement for the "scenic route" (Dad's euphemism for wherever an intriguing dirt track might lead). As Wallace Stegner said of his friend Dave Bonner. "...He is a back-road fiend, and is relatively unhappy on asphalt...Everything on a back road always looks spectacular to him (Stegner, 1980, p. 51).

We'd bounce along dirt mountain roads, high up off the Alpine Scenic Loop behind Mt. Timpanogos, and I'd be in awe of the grandeur about me. Timp, the "Sleeping maiden" of Ute

Indian legends, reclined majestically over six-thousand feet above to a summit I had first achieved the previous summer on the annual mass climb of the mountain. Late fall foliage was breathtaking in the subtlety of its coloration, but as a 13-year old I was only dimly aware of hues beyond the startling yellows and oranges of the "quakies" and the scrub oak (populus tremuloides, and quercus gambelii).

It was deer season and I loved it. Not that hunting was so fulfilling, but it was just so great to be outdoors with my Dad! At that time there were not the great drunken hordes in phosphorescent orange we see today in their Winnabunkas and Runnamuckas; only a relative few, dressed in simple red, were out for the hunt (not for the "harvest"), for the companionships (not for the drinking, brawling), for the fun and father-son togetherness (not for the macho weapon-wielding), and for the beautiful outdoors, crisp fall air and sunshine (not for the mechanized "camp-out").

Dad joked about hearing "bucks snort" and sang (off-key) renditions of Mason Williams' ditties (such forgettable favorites as the "Moose-Gooser's Lament", and the "Dog-Kicker's Dirge"). Dad was a down-to-earth man, with an (occasionally) earthy sense-of-humor. He loved the outdoors. I loved him and the things he loved.

Travel in the fifties was still something of an adventure, as opposed to the regimented and artificial tourist experience of today. While financially unable to travel far we did travel frequently, and to destinations not found on most tourists' itineraries of the day. We explored the back-country of many western National Parks when it was still bold to do so; Yellowstone (complete with lots of bears!), Bryce, Zion, Arches, the Canyonlands country and more fell under our tread and scrutiny. Wonders beheld were wonders indeed; not scientifically-interpreted phenomena reduced to the lowest common denominators of fact, frequency, volume, dimensions, genus and species.

Of course, in the words of Mark Twain, "Things sure aren't like they used to be, and it's doubtful if they ever were." I may just be experiencing that little understood blurring of hindsight that causes most of us to idealize the past. If I sharpen my retrospective view numerous detractors come into focus; early clear-cutting in the forests, mountain cabin slums, problems with littering, human/animal conflicts, and other precursors to the massive dilemmas in our outdoors today. Unfortunately, we have not, in large measure, grown 40 years smarter since I was a boy, only 40 years deeper.

As a child, I grew up in a suburban environment on the west side of the Salt Lake Valley. With the spirit injected by my father's propensities and some degree of my own innate adventurousness, I spent a great deal of time out and about my home, neighborhood, and greater vicinity. Our town just quit at the end of my streta and opened onto hills, sand & gravel pits, and dry farms. My friends and I hiked and explored these environs and made of them our own extended range/playground. We jumped off the 'cliffs' at the gravel pits onto the sand slopes below and built two-story tree houses in the old elm trees that bordered the subdivision.

In the midst of such antics however, I would frequently be stopped in fascination at: the way sand slid downslope - fanlike, fluidly; the texture of the elm tree sap that oozed from wounds and tree crotches, multi-colored and viscous; the succession of wildflowers that dotted the fields down even to the tiny 'belly-flowers' which I would study and then take home in bouquet to my mother. Indeed, the "Sense of Wonder" concerning the Natural World, so praised by Rachel Carson, (1956) developed early and strong in my being, and <u>the Outdoors was a miracle</u>!

Occasionally three or four of us (neighborhood kids my age) would hike two miles out to "the Trees", a small cluster of elms and maples west of home through the gravel pits and across the dry farms. We'd take sandwiches, sit in the branches and watch the grain wave in the breezes. I never tired of watching that scene. It must have been much like a coastal child watching the surf; there'd be a dip in the grain heads off a hundred yards or so and we'd sit transfixed as it flowed like a small breaker toward us, and then delight as first the sound of it and then the light breath of air would reach our perch.

I'd lie on my stomach for long periods and become utterly lost in the subtle movement of water at the edge of Big

Cottonwood Creek when we went camping each summer. It offered endless transport in imagination visualizing life as a water strider or stone fly. Wouldn't it be something afterall to be able to walk on water - Oh, we of little faith!

Sitting beside a small campfire, I turned up my 8-year old nose at my burnt tin-foil dinner. All decked-out in blue and gold, resplendent and proud in my new Cub Scout uniform ("Official BSA"!), I experienced my first scout day camp at good old Camp Tracy Wigwam, up Millcreek Canyon east of Salt Lake. (In 1954, in many ways, it was so easy to be an innocent).

Oh, so many experiences....but always emphasizing breadth and variety of exposure, often perhaps, at the expense of depth and understanding.

At 17 however, I found my way into the Army Guard and enlisted in the Special Forces. Excitement! Challenge! Opportunity! I was to become a "Green Beret"! Military training suited me just fine. I reveled in the experiences; Basic & Advanced Training, Jump School at Fort Benning, and finally training as an instructor in an Alpine Detachment to teach high-angle rock climbing, search and rescue, and mountaineering. It was memorable. I was developing a more positive self image, greater faith in my physical self. I learned to trust and rely on my body. It would do what I wanted it to do. <u>The outdoors had become a stage</u> upon which my long-latent desires for activity found expression. Nature was a milieu in which I could test myself, test others, seek fulfillment.

Discordant notes sounded however, and with increasing frequency, in the pastoral movements of this "My World Symphony". While experiencing something almost akin to mystic transport during hikes and cross-country ski tours along lovely routes such as the Desolation Trail (posted: "CLOSED TO MOTOR VEHICLES"), the sudden **roar** of an approaching gaggle of trail bikers or snowmobilers would intrude; shattering my solitude, puncturing my peace.

Their riders could not be reasoned with. I tried, repeatedly. They seemed to feel that possession of such a machine provided all the license they required to do whatever they pleased. Signs, restrictions and closures were meaningless. To them **Horsepower was all-power.**

Suddenly, for me all was changed, interrupted, while I was in Germany for two years. Germany! That compact nation, only slightly larger than my own native Utah, but home to 60 millions! I learned lessons of intensive land use; making every square foot count. Thousands have hiked popular paths through the woods and fields of Germany, some for centuries, yet without the environmental damage apparent on my favorite Utah mountain trails following the passage of mere tens on one summer weekend! Unfortunately, I had little opportunity to wander those marvelous Teutonic ways and byways as I was busy peddling my bike through city and town, village and farm, in suit and tie, my books in my wicker basket.

I mellowed, matured, and returned home to attend BYU. In time I found what was to become my niche in life - one could make a living with a major in Recreation! Home at last!! I had found what I wanted to be "when (<u>if</u>) I grew up". Recreation courses and field experiences along with other new-found interests sparked much excitement. I climbed, skied, and explored caves all over the West. I participated in survival expeditions and experimented with a nonconsumptive lifestyle. <u>The outdoors had become an obsession</u>, my raison d'etre. While recreating so vigorously, I was re-creating my very existence.

I became indeed, a wilderness "consumer", shopping about carefully for the choicest experiences, the most beautiful locales, the most challenging activity. I formed my own business(es) to earn my living in and from the outdoors. I guided backpacking and climbing parties from all over the country to some of my "secret places" all over the West. Moreover, underlying all of my outdoor pursuits was a foundation of elemental respect for my wilderness playgrounds. I truly espoused and practiced a "leave no trace" ethic. Those I instructed and guided were thoroughly indoctrinated as to what constituted acceptable behavior and practices on my trips. Some probably thought I resembled Truman Madsen's definition of a <u>Fanatic: One who has lost his direction and doubled his speed</u>. Nevertheless, I felt **certain** of my direction.

As the years wore on I gradually became immersed in the outdoor activity fraternity; with friends of similar ilk I hiked, backpacked, climbed, skied, toured, floated, tubed, canoed, kayaked, caved, soared, walked, and ran. I botanized, geologized, archeologized, astronomized, fossilized (!), and anthropologized. I saw, felt, smelled, touched, tasted, and perceived. The Natural World was home and classroom, bedroom and dining room, observatory and laboratory, teacher and taskmaster,...and friend.

From the National Speleological Society I learned: Take nothing but pictures, leave nothing but footprints, kill nothing but time. Form the International Backpacker's Association and others I learned: Pack it in - Pact it out - Pack it <u>all</u> out! From the Seattle Mountaineers I learned about "The Ten Essentials". From the Army Airborne and Green Berets I learned about training and preparedness. From Larry Dean Olsen I learned about the priorities of survival and about cooperation. From Edward Abbey I learned to value that which I had learned to love. And, from special people along the way I learned to love that which had true value. "Sermons in stones, books in flowing brooks". Lessons learned along the ways and byways of an outdoor life.

In his book "The Sound of Mountain Water", Wallace Stegner refers to John Muir (doesn't everybody?) "...who practically invented the Sierra and who should certainly have been one to mourn the pollution of the clean wilderness. He wasn't. Instead of thinking what men did to mountains, he kept his mind on what the mountains did to men" (Stegner, 1980, p. 64).

Time and again during back-country jaunts and expeditions I experienced (close) encounters (of the worst kind) with other trail users/abusers which left me with firm commitments to try to educate offenders and potential future wilderness desecrators to minimize over- and improper use of the wild outdoors.

Examples:

A beautiful campsite near a pristine lake in the Wind Rivers; completely and totally destroyed (at least for the next generation or so) by a Boy Scout troop who ditched their tents and cut boughs for beds and lean-to's, stripping the greenery from every fir and pine within 200 yards of the site, up to the height a 13-year old can reach.

An instructor for the National Outdoor Leadership School (NOLS) marching his charges down a trail in the Winds "harvesting" the ripe, delicious huckleberries by scooping up a whole plant from the trailside and picking the tiny berries off as he walked; being followed by 15 clients who, certain that their guide knew best, followed suit.

Sierra Club and Wilderness Society groups in both the Winds and the Uintas, exceeding all Forest Service limits and going into fragile drainages in groups of 30-40 people with 40-90 horses! So many, and all, seemingly oblivious to the havoc they're wreaking with their feet and hooves, gaze at the wonders of "nature" above and around them, never noticing the destruction at their feet.

Each of these "self-propelled" trail users/abusers, and many others like them have been paid a courtesy call by a young guide and have been requested to consider the consequences of their actions; had alternatives and options for their offensive techniques suggested. Sometimes these comments were received well and appreciatively and at other times with rancor and bitterness. But for all of these self-propelled users there is yet hope; in education, in maturation, in greater awareness.

There is, however, a substantial segment of the back-country trail using population which has, in my experience, proven to be singularly incapable of modifying its inappropriate wilderness behavior: The Motorized Trail User. After over 30 years of unpleasant coexistence with this offensive species, I have come to the conclusion that hoped-for cooperation and change are most unlikely, and that other solutions may have to be sought.

Pro/Con biases run deep in such issues and determine proponents/opponents on either side will not likely be stirred by such a superficial (and biased!) treatment as this one. However, in the words of George Leonard, we frequently find ourselves either wittingly or "..unknowingly playing the Dichotomy Game, an old standby of reporters and scholars in this culture. The rules of this game are quite simple: Find a dichotomy. Widen it. Formalize it and analyze it. Teach it in school. Live dichotomously" (Leonard, 1974, p. 144).

Anyone trapped into playing the Dichotomy Game is forced to elect between two mutually-exclusive theories/practices/ beliefs. In actuality, there's no need to get sucked into this old either/or game. In the real world, both viewpoints always hold at least partial truth, and there are generally other possibilities as well. Nevertheless, the Motorized/Self-Propelled conflict has its dichotomies. They're in every facet from participation style, motivation, intensity, frequency, behavior, financial investment, tax structures, and location, to other less measurable components such as attitude and intent.

Well, enough of polemics. We're off to the outdoor amphitheater. Nature has set the stage, man's technology has provided the props, and as in any self-respecting Shakespearan drama, the characters' costume changes give clue to their changing roles. The seasons are the playmaker: Spring-Summer-Fall it Hikers verus Bikers. Winter scenes are played by Cross-country Skiers vs. Snowmobilers. As the curtain rises:

Scene One: "Cross-country skiers complain that the solitude of the outdoor recreation experience is ruined by the noise of the snowmobile while the snowmobilers contend that since their registration fees pay for trailheads and trail maintenance, their rights are to be considered first" (UORA, Snowmobiling in Utah, p. 14).

The Outdoor Recreation Agency representative counters that procedures are underway to ameliorate this inequity. Sound level (decibel) maximums have been reduced and skiers and snow machiners alike made new commitments to cooperation in various outdoor recreation conferences and planning sessions. Before the scene can change however, a hopeful Agency understudy introduces a new wrinkle.

> "Land Managers in other states satisfy cross-country skiers' needs by requiring skiers to register their skis, just as snowmobilers register their vehicles. The registration fees are used to fund the building and maintenance of parking areas and to give skiers their own quiet locations with groomed trails and warning, informational and directional signs. (UORA, Utah Cross-Country Skiing, p. 7).

Now, such a speech on the part of a protagonist may or may not please all theater-goers. I, for one can do nicely without groomed trails and am basically opposed to "warning, informational and directional signs", but a small registration fee for access improvements, parking areas, and separate use areas for motorized and self-propelled users?... Where do I sign?

Scene Two: "...competition between two recreational activities can disrupt the social patterns of recreation use. When this occurs, the more primitive form of participation will be overwhelmed by the more modern (read: technological) form. This is based on the assumption that when two activities overlap spatially, the one with the more modern form of transportation will prevail" (Jubenville, 1978, p. 239). What better soliloquy for **zoning** of recreational use? "By staging from separate trail heads and using natural barriers to separate the snowmobiler and cross-country skier, one has effectively zoned...zones should have well-defined topographic boundaries to separate them physically, visually, and aurally" (Jubenville, 1975, p. 218).

Such approaches are part of a story sub-plot; management by design. Directing vehicle use with the aid of natural barriers to subtly say "Stay on the Trail" can alleviate many offenses. And inasmuch as recreational vehicle use is established as a "legitimate form of recreation" (UORA, Utah OHV Resource Inventory and OHV User, n.d., p. 13)., and inasmuch as "Realistically, the only way to eliminate the environmental degradation associated with off-road vehicle use is to eliminate off-road vehicle use is to eliminate off-road vehicles" (Jubenville, 1978, p. 274), (wish we could, eh!..), Zoning of back-country uses seems to be an acceptable compromise. Jubenville does seem to recognize that there will be those incapable of respecting established zones. He lists six alternatives to help in directing ORV Users to appropriate locations: 1. Developed and marked trails 2. Fencing 3. Signing 4. Access points 5. Citizen participation in decision-making, and 6. Law enforcement (Jubenville, 1978, p. 248-249).

Scene Three: Ah yes, Law Enforcement. A uniformed representative of Utah's Finest strides center stage to explain: "No person shall operate a recreation vehicle in connection with acts of vandalism, harassment of wildlife or domestic animals, burglaries or other crimes, or damage to the environment which includes pollution of air, water or land, abuse of the watershed, impairment of plant or animal life or excessive mechanical noise" (Utah Recreation Vehicle Act, Section 13). "But how can that be enforced?" asks a member of the audience of the Man in Blue. "I've seen offenders run down closure signs and tear up fragile meadows with their knobbies; taken their license numbers, made complaints, offered to testify with other witnesses and all only to be told not to bother, that they won't be prosecuted beyond a "slap on the hand". Silence from The Lawman. "Failure to deal positively by federal, state, country and community governments with these problems is irresponsible and contributes to the growing wave of public anti-OHV sentiment" (UORA, Utah OHV Resource Inventory and OHV User, p. 13).

"There are, everyone agrees, a small number of users that cause environmental degradation and conflict with other resource users. There are two basic types of environmental abusers; (1) The deliberate abuser or criminal, and (2) those who do not realize because of inadequate education or lack of social awareness, the results of their acts" (ibid., p. 12).

Narrator (off-stage): "Perhaps if the recommendations of the Outdoor Recreation Agency study, "Utah's Off-Highway Vehicle Users" were fully implemented, some improvement would be noted. Recommendation One states that OHV dealers, school districts, the Division of Parks and Recreation and other develop required certification courses in proper OHV use". Such a "OHV Safety and Environmental Education Certification Program", similar to the existing required "Hunter Safety Course" could go a long way toward eliminating current difficulties.

Audience kibitzer: "Education and certification aren't the answer! Take a look at the practices of some of our well-known "conservationist" outdoor groups". (Example 3, p. 4). "The outfitted parties were the worst offenders, particularly those sponsored by a few conservation organizations. A group of 20 people may have had as many as 100 horses for a 10-day pack trip through an area that was not durable enough to sustain that level of use" (Jubenville, 1975, p. 93).

Author: Dear Reader, I'm sorry, but if I knew **the answer** I'd have given it sooner and saved all the verbiage. **Serious** cooperation is needed between user groups and organizations. Education (and perhaps certification) are needed at all levels. A **Trail User's Code of Ethics** and perhaps a self-policing policy by organized groups from both camps might help too. Back-country ZONING, and funding for some substantial enforcement programs would also make a difference. Whatever steps are officially taken, it seems imperative and incumbent upon all outdoorspeople to responsibly use their outdoor resources and communicate the importance of that attitude to all others possible. It may yet be that self-propelled and motorized trail users can become more alike, if only in a mutual regard for the inherent value, fragility, and irreplaceable nature of their shared resource base.

John Muir said, "In Wild(er)ness is the Preservation of the World". Perhaps in greater awareness and sensitivity will be the **Preservation of the Wilderness**.

References

Carson, R. The Sense of Wonder, Harper & Row, New York, N.Y., 1956.

Jubenville, A. Outdoor Recreation Management, Philadelphia, W.B. Saunders Co., 1978.

Jubenville, A., Outdoor Recreation Planning, Philadelphia, W.B. Saunders, Co., 1975.

Jubenville, A., "Wilderness and the Conservation Organization: A Time for Policy Appraisal?" Environmental Conservation, 1(2): 93.

Leonard, G., The Ultimate Athlete, New York, Avon Books, 1974.

Stegner, W., The Sound of Mountain Water, New York, Dutton, 1980.

Toffler, A., Future Shock, New York, Bantam Books, 1971.

Utah Outdoor Recreation Agency, Snowmobiling in Utah, n.d.

Utah Outdoor Recreation Agency, Urban Trails, n.d.

Utah Outdoor Recreation Agency, Utah Cross-Country Skiing, n.d.

Utah Outdoor Recreation Agency, Utah Off-Highway Vehicle Resource Inventory and OHV User, n.d.

Utah Outdoor Recreation Agency. Utah's Off-Highway Vehicle Users, n.d.

GREAT BOOKS IN RECREATION AND LEISURE

Charles H. Hammersley
University of Idaho

ABSTRACT

The increasingly accelerating pace of our culture and profession has focused our collective attention towards the future, thereby, distancing us from the wisdom of the past. The evolving societal demands on our field have changed our professions image, but not, its essence. This essence is reflected in the philosophies of the exceptional leaders and thinkers in our field expressed through their writings.

This article attempts to identify the "great books" in recreation and leisure. Through informal inquiry of colleagues, practitioners, and an extensive literature review eight works

are proposed for inclusion in this prestigious category. Names such as Huizinga, de Grazia, Pierper, Brightbill and others who contributed their timeless insights in the evolving recreation and leisure profession are recognized. Once these works were identified, arguments for the importance of exposing students and practitioners to the philosophical foundations of the profession are developed. Concerns include the continuing market oriented developments of the field without a moderating philosophy representing our human service origins. The need for understanding and contemplating the long term impacts of a profession driven by economic imperatives gains insights from visionaries in the past and present. Through a great books course students would find a blend of the past with that of the modern profession, a balance of the practical and the ideal.

Great Books In Recreation

The profusion of articles, pamphlets, and books in recreation and leisure services continues to overwhelm the practitioner and educator alike. Among this rising tide in a vocational and technical paper sea, our philosophical foundations are adrift. Accelerated societal changes and resulting new demands on our field have changed our image, but not the essence of our profession. This essence is elucidated by the exceptional thinkers and leaders in our professions past, and present. However, current recreation and leisure studies curricula requirements, in most institutions, are deficient in courses exposing students to the great thinkers and founders of our field.

Academic institutions are requiring students to have some background in the history and/or philosophy of recreation and leisure This is usually a brief recounting of historical events and leaders that impacted the evolution of our profession. Goodale and Godbey (1988) offer an excellent synthesis of history and philosophy in "The Evolution of Leisure." Even in this extraordinary work, the authors succumb to a "cliff note" mentality in using excerpts from a vast array of books covering politics, religion, sociology, psychology, economics, education and philosophy which prohibit any in-depth comprehension of specific writers.

If a profession is based on a unique body of knowledge, then, the continuum of that knowledge is based on exemplary thinkers and philosophers. The preservation and continuity of the uniqueness of our body of knowledge is dependent on exposing students to this heritage. If we, as educators, reduce this information to excerpts, we defeat the synergistic value of the original work. These extraordinary and outstanding literary achievements deserve our undivided attention in a new recreation and leisure studies course.

A "Great Books in Recreation and Leisure" course would inculcate our future professionals and current practitioners in the timeless values and philosophies of the leisure service profession. A great books course would ideally include three or four of the books listed below, with each being reported on and discussed by members of the class.

By proposing a need for a great books course the immediate question is, what criterion identifies a great book in recreation and leisure? John Agresto (1988) identifies great books as "always new, always contemporary, always relevant - that they can transform our view of ourselves and the world" (p. 11). This they certainly do, great books are great because they talk about great things and great ideas. Certainly many writers are neglected in their own time. Ideas take time to be absorbed into a cultures collective consciousness, or for original thoughts to be understood. The writers of the proposed great books were and are analytic and moral philosophers whose primary interests in play, recreation, or leisure impacted the state of human affairs. They offer new insights into ourselves and our culture and new horizons for the mind These philosophers have made a timeless contribution to our professional identity and present issues which are still relevant in today's society. Therefore, through informal interviews with colleagues, practitioners and an extensive literature review, the following books are proposed as great books in recreation and leisure.

de Grazia, Sebastian (1973). Of Time, Work and Leisure, Millwood, New York: Kraus International Publications

Huizinga, Johan (1955). Homo Ludens: A Study of the Play Element in Culture. Boston: Beacon Press.

Only the first two books had a consensus for inclusion as great books, other suggestions were:

Aristotle. Nicomachaen Ethics, Bk. 6. Tr. by L. H. Greenwood. 1909. Salem, New Hampshire: Ayer Co.

Brightbill, Charles (1961). Man and Leisure: A Philosophy of Recreation. Englewood cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Nash, Jay B (1960). Philosophy of Recreation and Leisure. Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown Co.

Neulinger, J. (1981). To Leisure: An Introduction. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Pieper, Josef (1964). Leisure: The Basis of Culture. New York: New American Library.

Romney, G. Ott (1972). Off the Job Living: A modern concept ofrecreation and its place in the postwar world. Salem, New Hampshire: Ayer Co.

Granted, there are other insightful and educational works that may be added to this list. The effort to identify a complete collection of great books in recreation and leisure must be a continual process.

However, the question arises, what purpose or use is a collection of great books? Jay B. Nash (1960) stated "we cannot expect much help from the experience of yesterday; yet we have only yesterday's words, concepts , and ideas for guides" (p. 197). In the academic endeavor to advance the field, more attention is being turned to creating new courses based on current trends in technology, communication, commercial recreation and tourism. This expansion of the core requirements necessitates a compaction of the recreation and leisure studies curriculum. A result of this compaction is that most undergraduates and graduate students are never adequately exposed to the great thinkers and philosophers of our profession.

Techniques and practical applications are the bricks of the recreation and leisure studies curriculum, but ideas and values are the mortar. These factors combine to form the basis of knowledge on which our professional foundations are built. Without this exposure to our professional heritage the current curriculum denies students the educational balance that historical and philosophical writers can offer.

The long term impact on professionals in the field who are only exposed to current time deepening, recreation management and commercialization theories will be sever. The democratic human service ethics which encompass our professions beginning would be transformed to a movement emphasizing leisure for a few and free time consumption for the many, depending on their discretionary income. The ability to meet the needs of the individual will become the ability to develop, advertise and package leisure wants. Edginton and Ford (1985) state "that individuals seek out experiences, not products, activities, services, facilities...," (p.83) yet much of the field continues to focus on these market developments. The leisure market is ceilingless, it is based on acquiring and consuming goods and services and ignores human growth and development as the greater good and purpose of the profession. Sebastian de Grazia (1973) alludes to an old saying "what is honored in a country is cultivated there," (p.3). What are the recreation and leisure institutions cultivating?

Through a great books course, students would find a blend of the past with that of the modern profession, a balance of the practical and the ideal. As our profession speeds into the next decade, should it not pause to reflect upon its philosophical origins, and ponder the questions of content ve.sus form of recreation and leisure studies curricula.

Special Note: All of the suggested great books are available from the publishers except the books by Charles Brightbill, "Man and Leisure" and Jay b. Nash, "Philosophy of Recreation and Leisure." These two books are available from the University of Idaho, Recreation Department, Memorial Gym, Room 109, Moscow, Idaho 83843.

References

Agresto, J. (1988). Getting the Most Out of Literature, Basic Education, 33, (2), 9-11.

de Grazia, Sebastian (1973). Of Time, Work, and Leisure. Millwood, New York: Kraus International Publications.

Edginton, C.R. & Ford, P.M. (195). Leadership in Recreation and Leisure Service Organizations. John Wiley & Sons.

Goodale, T. & Godbey, G. (1988). The Evolution of Leisure. State College, P.A. Venture Publishing.

Nash, Jay B. (1960). Philosophy of Recreation and Leisure. Wm. C. Brown, Co.

LEISURE TRAVEL CAN STRETCH YOUR MIND AND CHANGE YOUR LIFE

Benjamin de Hoyos
Brigham Young University

ABSTRACT

The national picture of tourism is made up of individuals who are motivated to travel. They do so if they have learned that traveling will satisfy their needs and wants. Using

various sources of information, they form an image in their minds of a destination. If the image is perceived as satisfying their needs and wants, they will travel.

Who are the tourists? Why do people take vacations? What is the stimulus that causes interest in travel?

Some studies in travel literature indicate that travel motivations can fit into several categories.

Psychological: Perhaps the relief of pressures, relieves feeling of tension.

Self-Actualization: Provides the opportunity for self discovery; satisfaction of inner desires.

Educational: To know and be able to understand.

Aesthetic: Appreciation of beauty, relationship to environment, scenery.

A zest for desiring new experiences in the chosen lifestyles of many people in American is becoming a way of life. Self improvement tends to be a relatively elite activity.

Several references specifically link recreation and health, implying relationship between the two.

Others believe the intrinsic motivations are the reasons why people travel; sun, beaches, good food, night life, shopping etc... Yet many others said the reasons are to have fun and enjoyment.

Introduction

Travel and tourism are inevitably related to leisure. It is true that travel takes time and may be reserved for long weekends and vacations, but Americans still take to the roads by the millions when they get the chance. The national picture of leisure travel is made up of individuals who are motivated to travel.

What is the Appeal to Travel?

Who are the tourists? Why do people take vacation? What is the stimulus that causes interest in travel? At one time people journeyed out of necessity. Military ventures, business trips, visits with families, and household moves were the primary reasons for traveling. The recreation student is aware that as the efficiency of transportation improves, the amount of leisure time increases. Today travel, though still done for the above reasons, is associated with leisure and recreation activities. Travel agencies estimate that more than fifty percent of the bookings in their industry are for individuals involved in leisure-time pursuits.

Leisure Travel "New Romanticism"

From Trafalga Square and the Roman Coliseum to regular campsites and youth hostels all around Europe, or National Parks in the U.S., American tourists are back in force all year. While many relax on the beach or on luxury tours, surprisingly a large number of people devote their leisure travel to all sorts of productive "fun" projects.

The Effect of Culture on Travel

For May White, self-improvement is almost an obsession. After raising a family, she feels that now is her time to learn and do "all those things she always wanted to do." Her list of self-improvement efforts in the last 10 years is staggering; she has a desire for travel, history, geography, photography, languages, culture etc.... and all this for preparation and "back grounding" for Leisure Travel.

In 1984, Mary traveled through central Europe. While in Austria she found herself "hooked" on the history of the Austrian Empire, beginning with "Franz Joseph" and "Sissie", then expanding into the whole history of the Hapsburg Empire. While in Venezia she was attracted to architecture, glass blowing and many other cultural folkways. Needless to say, she has become sort of an "expert" in some of those areas. Yes, travel for her has yielded a desire for more knowledge of the culture of these countries. She is taking lessons in Italian, French, and other languages, as well as European history. All this has developed a greater desire for more travel to other areas, more learning, and yes, more "fun" plus growth.

Travel Motivations

What elements are integrated to the tourist experience? What are the values received and perceived from tourism? These are questions which market analysis and demographic studies may help to answer.

Some studies in travel literature indicate that travel motivation can fit into several categories:

Psychological: Perhaps relief from pressures relieves feeling of tension and fatigue and restores mental efficiency. Some people achieve relaxation through physical activity: Jogging, playing golf, etc., but for a great many, relaxation comes not from physical or mental activity but from the absence of it.

Self Actualization: "Be true to one's own nature" provides the opportunity for self-discovery; satisfaction of inner desires.

Educational Significance: "Knowledge". To know and understand. "We think it is important for people to know something about their country so we travel to places that are historical like Boston, Williamsburg, and the Capitol." Travel can be highly educational as well as recreational whether it involves exploration of environments close to home or in foreign countries.

Aesthetics: "Appreciation of beauty" relationship to environmental scenery.

Ideal Image

The link between needs, motives and references from the travel literature indicate that those who say they travel "to get away or to relieve tension" can be observed as to satisfy a basic physiological need. Such motivations may be for physical or mental relaxation. Travelers often return from a trip physically tired, but mentally refreshed. Nevertheless there seems to be a difference between those people who take an active vacation and those who elect for a passive vacation; both are motivated by a need, which is to reduce tension. Passive tourists are seen as achieving tension relief by giving or becoming part of the surrounding environment. From the submission comes that very relief of tension that will result in reduced tension. The active tourist achieves tension reduction through physical activity. The activity can also be seen as being related to achievement, as such being related to the need of self-esteem. Traveling for health reasons can be interpreted as a way of attempting to satisfy one's safety needs. By taking care of the body and the mind we are "protecting" ourselves and helping assure our own longevity and so many popular discussions are centered on the benefits of Leisure Travel: "Keeping the

'Spark' Alive", "Burn-out: Causes and Cures", "Letting Go--Moving On", "Building Community: Agenda for the 21st Century". All these references specifically link recreation and health, implying a relationship between the two.

Intrinsic Motivations

The following list of needs and motivations has been given as to why people travel.

1. Sun
2. Beaches
3. Good food
4. Mountains
5. Historical places and traditions
6. Night life
7. Good shopping
8. Political and social stability
9. Unusual geography (natural features)
10. Culture and people
11. Luxury accommodations
12. Acquiring knowledge

A zest for desiring new experiences in the chosen lifestyle of all the Mary's in America is becoming a way of life. Self improvement tends to be a relatively elite activity. There are many speculations as to the reasons why people like to travel. In a recent study by "Kelly", the intrinsic popular reason was given "because I like it". Other studies have given the reasons; the purpose is to yield as much fun and enjoyment as possible, as well as educational pursuits.

Leisure travel is getting away, going, and arriving. Some say the best part is getting back home.

References

Iso-Ahola, Seppo. 1980 The Social-Psychology of Leisure and Recreation. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown.

Bosselman, Fred P. In the Wake of the Tourist. Washington, D.C. "The Conservation Foundation."

Gunn, Clare A. 1979. Tourism Planning. New York: Crane Russak.

Kelly, John R. 1982. Leisure. Englewood Cliffs, N.J. Prentice-Hall.

Dann, Graham M.S. 1978. "Tourist satisfaction: A highly complex variable." Annals of Tourism Research.

THE RECREATIONAL BEACH ENVIRONMENT;

PERCEPTIONAL DIFFERENCE OF USERS, EMPLOYEES, AND THE PUBLIC

Robert Buerger
James Palmer
State University of New York, Cortland

Thomas More
USDA Forest Service, Vermont

ABSTRACT

This study investigated what attributes beach users, those employed at the beach and the general public, perceive as important in the coastal recreation environment. During the summer of 1982, 300 beach users and 99 beach employees at three New York State park beaches along the southeast shore of Lake Ontario were personally interviewed. Beach users and beach employees were asked to evaluated 20 beach attributes based on their own personal perception. In 1984, 52 randomly selected City of Oswego (lake shore community near test beaches) residents (public) evaluate the same 20 beach attributes using a mail questionnaire. A comparison of the beach user and public responses showed a significant difference in perception of the

beach attributes "low cost of entrance" (important for public), "opportunity to see wildlife" (public), and "rules and regulations" (public). Moderately significant differences were indicated for the attributes "socializing at the beach" (public), "weather" (user), and "people who work at the beach" (public). All demographic variables were significantly different between beach users and the public except for the variable "income." Beach employee perceptions were not closely related to either beach users or the public. The results of this study indicate that beach users are not a cross section of the public social strata but do have similar economic resources at their disposal. Also, the two groups perceive the beach environment differently specifically in terms of how people at the beach should be managed. Beach employees own perceptions of the beach were not similar to either group and should not be used alone to make decisions about how to manage recreational use at the beach.

Introduction

Lake Ontario public beaches provide an important recreation opportunity. The limited amount of remaining cos'al land coupled with the growth in demand for coastal recreation resources places increasing pressure on those who manage recreation areas in the coastal zone to assure that the opportunities they provide meet the expectations of the public. However, the questions of "Who are the recreating public using Lake Ontario beaches?" and "Are beach user perceptions of the recreation beach environment generic to all potential users?" have not been addressed. The consequence for managers of not identifying different user groups may be, targeting coastal recreation programs towards a known user group (those presently using public beaches) to the exclusion of potentially many other user groups that comprise the general public. The impact of this action would be twofold. First, public recreation agencies would not meet their mandated obligation to provide recreational opportunities for all potential users.

Secondly, with recreation opportunities as limited as those found in the coastal zone, potential users dissatisfied with present opportunities may have no other choice for an alternative coastal recreation experience. The consequence of this scenario for managers of coastal recreation facilities from dissatisfied users are increased abuse (vandalism, misuse, etc.) of facilities, under-use of the recreation area, or reduced public support for agency actions ranging from no support to active lobbying against agencies' actions. The purpose of this study was to answer these questions by investigating users, the general public, and agency beach employees perception of the Lake Ontario recreational beach environment.

Perception of Recreation in the Beach Environment

Historically, as with many types of public administrated natural resource-based recreation settings, the beach environment was thought to provide a generic recreational experience to all users. Different user perceptions of the beach environment by managers was not understood resulting in a recreation setting suitable for meeting the expectations of only specific user groups. As Cheek et.al. (1977) points out, "When attempting to explain recreation participation, planners and managers have often operated from a resource perspective in toto, failing to understand people, their behavior, and a wide variation in the recreation policies that utilize a specific site or facility. Not all publics adapt to established facilities, resources, and management policies in the same way." Past research into user and manager perceptions of natural resource-based recreation areas other than the beach environment has shown a discrepancy exist in perception between manager and users: Stone (1956); Lucas (1964, 1970); Hendee and Harris (1970); Clark et.al. (1971); Peterson (1974); and Wellman et.al. (1982). In the beach environment Buerger (1984) found that state part employees at New York State park beaches could not accurately predict attributes important to users' recreation experience at the beach. If managers of public beach recreation areas do not understand what is important to users, how then can facilities be developed and managed to meet different public recreation needs? As past research has shown, the beach environment attracts many different types of recreational users. Spaulding (1977), in his study of beach users suggests that willingness to pay (for use of beaches) is more closely related to group involvement (recreating with family and friends) and psychological characteristics (relaxation) than more traditional variables (sex, age, income, etc.). At urban beaches West and Heatwole (1979) found that different ethnic groups tended to favor certain beaches. They point out "if it can be shown that different subgroups perceive or have attitudes which differ from what is commonly believed to represent good management, these should be incorporated into management decisions as long as they are not detrimental to society or the physical environment." Cutter (1979) suggests that users select beach recreation sites more often due to convenience than preference for the ideal beach environment. Age of user, crowding, and environmental quality were found to be important factors in use decisions by Hecock (1970) and Peterson and Newman (1969). As can be seen from past research, the reasons for beach selection by different user groups can vary. Future expansion of public beach recreation opportunities are limited due to availability and the prohibitive cost of coastal land. Understanding who are the present beach users, the personal perception of the beach by those who work there, and how both groups compare to the public as a whole in terms of what is important in a recreational beach environment will help managers of these facilities provide the most satisfying recreational experience to the greatest number of people.

Methodology

During the summer of 1982, 300 beach users and 99 beach employees (state park employees) at three New York State park beaches along the southeast shore of Lake Ontario were personally interviewed. Beach users were asked to evaluate 20 beach attributes based on the importance of those beach attributes to their recreation experience at the beach. This sampling provided data for beach users who were divided into weekend and weekday sub-groups. Beach employees evaluated the same 20 beach attributes based on their own personal perception of the beach environment.

During the fall of 1984, 117 residences were randomly selected from the Oswego city phone book. Oswego is a New York coastal city (population 19,773 in 1980) located along the southeast shoreline of Lake Ontario. A questionnaire was mailed in September to each of the sample residences with a second follow-up mailing in October. The questionnaire asked the Oswego sample to evaluate the same 20 beach attributes that beach users and beach employees evaluated in the 1982 study. The cover letter accompanying the questionnaire requested an adult from the household to complete the questionnaire and return it in the enclosed envelope. Of the 117 addresses, eight were not deliverable; 52 usable responses were returned for a 44.7 percent response rate. This sample provided data about the general public group.

Subjects' responses to the twenty beach attributes were evaluated using a multi-attribute model. The potential advantage of a multi-attribute model over an unidimensional overall effect approach is the multi-attribute model's ability to provide insight into an individual' belief as to the level to which a specific object possesses certain attributes weighed by the importance of each attribute of that object to the individual (Wilkie & Pessemier, 1973). Simplified people evaluate products, landscape, activities, ideas, etc. on two levels: (1) overall belief about the item in reference to suitability or desirability, and (2) attitude toward the importance of each of the items' components, fixtures, or characteristics. These attitudes presumably combine or summate to produce an overall attitude towards the item (Myer & Alpert, 1968).

For the purpose of this study, a multi-attribute model was designed to specifically measure respondents' perception of the importance of the beach attributes. The model can be described as follows:

$$A_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} B_{ik} \ W_{ik}$$

Where: i = attribute
k = respondent

Such that:

A_i = group perception of attribute i
B_{ik} = respondent k belief about importance of attribute i
W_{ik} = strength of importance of attribute i by respondent k

The questionnaire structure (personal interview and mail questionnaire) used to collect the data in this study reflects the theory the multi-attribute model is based on. The 20 beach attributes were placed on the questionnaire in statement form (i.e., safety while at the beach is important to my recreation experience at this beach). Subjects first evaluated these statements using a five-point Likert Scale that ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. After all 20 attributes had been evaluated using the Likert Scale, the subjects were then instructed to take an imaginary $100 and to buy those attributes which were most important to their recreation experience at the beach (this procedure is based on constant sum scaling). Subjects could divide the money among attributes in any manner they wished, but they must spend exactly $100.

The Likert Scale measurement represents the B_{ik} component of the model while the constant sum scale equates to the W_{ik} factor in the equation. Likert scale responses were converted into numerical values (strongly agree = 5 to strongly disagree = 1) and multiplied by the constant sum score (dollars spent on that attribute) resulting in a respondent's perception score for each attribute (A_{ik} component of the model). For group evaluation of a particular attribute, total respondent scores for that attribute were summed to produce a composite score.

EXAMPLE 1

ATTRIBUTE STATEMENT EVALUATION

Hypothetical response of one subject toward the attribute: Safety

$$A_i = \sum_{i=1}^{1} B_{ik} \; W_{ik}$$

PART 1

LIKERT SCALE

B_{ik} = respondents k belief about importance of attribute i

Safety while at the beach is important to my recreation experience at this beach	Strongly Agree (5)	Agree (4)	Neutral or Undecided (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly Disagree (1)
	X				

PART 2

CONSTANT SUM SCALE

W_{ik} = strength of importance of attribute i by respondent k

$100 to buy attributes most important to individuals beach experience:

Safety	$ 45
Beach	$ 35
Relaxing	$ 15
Solitude	$ 5

PART 3

ATTRIBUTE STATEMENT SCORE

A_i = perception of attribute i by respondent k

Likert response (B_{ik}) = strongly agree = 5
Constant sum response (W_{ik}) = 45
Attribute statement score (A_i) = 45 x 5 = 225

225 = Attribute statement score of one person for the attribute safety

RESULTS

From the data collected, four sample sets were established. Those subjects interviewed while recreating at the beach are described as "Weekend users" or "Weekday Users." The general public surveyed by the mail questionnaire are identified as "Oswego Residents" and the state park beach employees are

TABLE 1

Background of Surveyed Populations

Characteristic	Weekend User	Weekday User	Oswego Resident	Park Employee
	Percent			
Sex				
Male	45	35	54	62
Female	55	65	46	38
Age				
Under 25 years	30	36	12	61
25 to 50 years	60	53	48	25
Over 50 years	9	11	39	14
Income				
Under $10,000	9	17	22	45
$10,000 to $20,000	27	24	18	30
$20,000 to $30,000	38	22	29	22
Over $30,000	26	37	31	3
Occupation				
Professional/Manager	35	27	20	13
Clerical/Sales/Service	22	17	14	59
Crafts/Laborer	9	13	35	28
Student	15	16	4	0
Not employed outside home	18	27	27	0
Education				
High School (up to grade 12)	40	38	35	42
Some college	58	52	43	54
Graduate study	2	9	22	4
With whom do you live?				
Alone	9	7	19	3
Spouse	20	16	29	11
Children (and spouse if married)	44	38	37	21
Relatives	16	30	12	56
Non-relatives	10	9	4	9
Number	86	141	52	102

TABLE 2

Beach Recreation Patterns of Surveyed Populations

Characteristic	Percent: Weekend User	Weekday User	Oswego Resident	Park Employee
How long would you expect to spend at the beach?				
Under 2 hours	3	9	4	
2 to 4 hours	50	58	23	
4 to 8 hours	47	33	73	
About how many people normally come with you?				
I go alone	0	2	4	
1 other	23	17	15	
2 to 5 others	62	64	54	
6 to 10 others	13	16	19	
More than 10 others	2	1	8	
Would these people usually be:				
Family	51	44	19	
Friends	25	31	19	
Family and friends	25	22	58	
I would come alone	0	3	4	
How far have you traveled to this beach?				
Under 10 miles	6	18		
11 to 30 miles	52	52		
31 to 50 miles	28	13		
51 to 100 miles	9	8		
Over 100 miles	6	9		
How many other times have you visited this beach?				
Never	15	12		
Once	7	6		
2 to 5 times	19	19		
6 to 10 times	16	14		
More than 10 times	43	48		
How often have you visited [other] beaches in the past year?				
Never	4	2	40	6
1 to 5 times	33	23	36	31
6 to 10 times	10	19	16	16
More than 10 times	53	56	8	48
Satisfaction with your beach recreation experiences this past summer.				
Greatly satisfied	41	33	63	49
Satisfied	41	45	25	36
Neutral	14	15	12	9
Dissatisfied	5	4	0	4
Greatly dissatisfied	0	4	0	2

described as "Beach Employees." Demographic characteristics about each group are presented in Table 1. From this data, it can be seen that beach users were different from the Oswego residents in all categories except income. Beach users can be characterized as being composed of more females, younger, less educated, and live with spouse and children or with relatives more so than Oswego residents. Sample data related to recreation patterns at the beach can be seen in Table 2. From the data, beach users appear to enjoy this type of recreation. Over 50% have been to a beach ten or more times in the past year. In comparison, 40% of the Oswego resident sample had not been to a beach in the last year. Interestingly, the Oswego sample would expect to stay considerably longer (up to six hours longer) at the beach in comparison to beach users. Also, beach users usually go to the beach with families or friends while the Oswego resident sample would more likely visit the beach with a mixed group of family and friends. Table 3 presents the rank order of importance for the 20 beach attributes. Based on the rankings, significant differences were found between the two groups for the users attributes "low cost" (important for Oswego residents), "see wildlife" (important for Oswego residents), and "rules and regulations" (important to Oswego residents but it is unclear whether they want stricter or more lax regulations). Moderately significant differences exist for the attributes "socializing" (important to Oswego residents), "weather" (important to beach users), and "people who work there"

TABLE 3

Importance of Beach Recreation Attributes to the Surveyed Populations

Characteristic	Rank Order of Importance			
	Weekend User	Weekday User	swego Resident	Park Employee
The weather while at the beach.	1	1	10	3
Safety while at the beach.	2	5	1	1
The condition of the beach (texture of sand, amount of litter).	3	2	2	2
The water conditions (temperature, clarity, smell, waves).	4	6	3	6
Relaxing as part of the beach experience.	5	3	6	7
The preservation of the natural environment at the beach.	6	4	4	5
The visual quality of the beach.	7	8	9	9
Beach facilities (picnic tables, concessions stands, grills, etc.).	8	7	7	4
Rules and regulations concerning people's behavior on the beach.	9	9	5	8
The low cost of gaining entrance to the beach.	10	12	8	13
The sensory attributes (sounds, smells) of the beach.	11	11	12	12
Socializing (with family, friends and others).	12	10	11	11
The way in which the beach has been developed (parking lots, buildings).	13	14	14	15
Beach activities (swimming, games).	14	15	17	14
The people who work at the beach (rangers, lifeguards, concessioners).	15	16	13	10
The distance from my hom o the beach.	16	13	16	16
The opportunity to passively watch people and activities on the beach.	17	17	18	18
Solitude as part of the beach experience.	18	18	19	19
The opportunity to see wildlife at the beach.	19	19	15	17
Having a large number of people on the beach.	20	20	20	20

Note: "Below is a list of statements about the recreation attributes of beaches. For each statement indicate how important that attribute is to your recreation experience at the beach."

(important to Oswego residents). When subjects were queried as to their satisfaction with their beach recreation experiences during the past summer, the Oswego resident sample was found to be significantly more satisfied with the experience than the beach user group.

Demographic data collected from park employees would indicate that they do not share similar characteristics with either beach users or the Oswego sample. A general profile of park employees would be young (under 25 years of age), male, who are in the low to moderate income range, service-oriented professionals, predominately college educated, who live with relatives or spouse and children. This profile would suggest many of those in the sample are summer seasonal employees. Park employees were similar to beach users in their own beach visitation patterns. Sixty-four percent had visited other beaches six or more times during the past year. In terms of satisfaction with their experience, park employees were more similar to the Oswego resident sample. Park employees' personal rankings of the beach attributes show similarities to both groups, along with some individual perceptions unique to the park employee sample. Park employees' perceptions of the attributes "weather," "water conditions," "rules and regulations," and "activities" were similar to those exhibited by beach users while their perception of the attributes "relaxing" and "safety" were more closely related to the Oswego sample. For the attributes "facilities," "low cost," and "people who work at the beach" employees' perceptions were not similar to either the beach users nor the Oswego resident sample.

Conclusion

The implications of this study are that those who are presently using public beaches can be characterized as a specific user group that is different from the general public. Specifically, the differences lie in their perceptions of the recreational attributes of the beach, demographic characteristics and patterns of use. Beach employees demographic characteristic and perception of the beach environment appears to be different from both beach users and the general public. Consequently, if beach employees make decisions about recreation programs and facilities at the beach based solely on their own personal perception of what is important, they may well be providing an experience that is desirable to few potential recreating user groups.

Those who manage public recreation beaches are mandated by law to provide recreation opportunities for all people while protecting the resources they manage. If this mandate is not being met, the result could be user dissatisfaction, underutilization of the resource, degradation to the facility or citizen action against the managing agency To meet mandated goals managers must know the public's recreational needs and the characteristics of present users. Only then can programs and facilities be administered to meet the expected needs for the greatest number of users.

Acknowledgments

This work is the result of research sponsored by the New York Sea Grant Institute, a member of the Sea Grant College network operated by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, U.S. Department of Commerce, under Grant #NA81AAD00027 and by the U.S. Forest Serv e, U.S. Department of Agriculture. The U.S. Government is authorized to produce and distribute reprints for governmental purposes not withstanding any copyright notations that may appear herein.

References

Buerger, R., 1984. The Beach Environment: Users and Management Staff Perception of the Recreation Attributes. IN: Gambling With the Shore, Atlantic City, M.P. Lynch (Editor). The Coastal Society.

Cheek, N. and D. Field, 1977. Aquatic Resources and Recreation Behavior. Leisure Sciences 1(1): 67-83.

Clark, R., J. Hendee, and F. Campbell, 1971. Values, Behavior and Conflict in Modern Camping Culture. Journal of Leisure Research 3(3): 143-159.

Cutter, S., K. Nordstrom, and G. Kucma, 1979. Social and Environmental Factors Influencing Beach Site Selection. IN: Resource Allocation Issues in the Coastal Environment, Newport, N. West (Editor). The Coastal Society.

Heckok, R., 1970. Recreation Behavior Patterns as Related to Site Characteristics of Beaches. Journal of Leisure Research 2(4): 237-250.

Hendee, J. and R. Harris, 1970. Foresters' Perception of Wilderness - User Attitudes and Preferences. Journal of Forestry 68(12): 759-762.

Lucas, R., 1964. Wilderness Perception and Use: The Example of the Boundary Waters Canoe Area. Natural Resources Journal 3(3): 394-411.

Lucas, R., 1970. User Evaluation of Campgrounds on Two Michigan Natural Forests. St. Paul. North Central Forest Experiment Station.

Myers, J. and M. Alpert, 1968. Determinant Buying Attitudes: Meaning and Measures. Journal of Marketing 32 (October): 13-20.

Peterson, G. and E. Newman, 1969. Modeling and Predicting Human Response to the Visual Recreation Environment. Journal of Leisure Research 1(3): 219-237.

Peterson, G., 1974. A Comparison of the Sentiment and Perceptions of Wilderness Managers and Canoeists in the Boundary Waters Canoe Area. Journal of Leisure Research 6(3): 194-206.

Spaulding, I., 1977. Factors Influencing Willingness to Pay for Use of Marine Recreation Facilities: San Beaches. Marine Technical Report 15, Kingston, University of Rhode Island.

Stone, G. and M. Taves, 1956. Research in the Human Element in Wilderness Use. IN: Proceedings Society of American Foresters, Memphis. Society of American Foresters, pp. 26-32.

Wellman, J., M. Dawson, and J. Roggenbuck, 1982. Park Managers' Predictions of the Motivations of Visitors to Two National Park Service Areas. Journal of Leisure Research 14(1):1-15.

West, N. and C. Heatwhole, 1979. Urban Beach Use: Ethnic Background and Socio-Environmental Attitudes. IN: Resource and Allocation Issues in the Coastal Environment, Newport, N. West (Editor). The Coastal Society.

Wilkie, W. and A. Pessemier, 1973. Issues in Marketing's Use of Multi-Attribute Models. Journal of Marketing Research 10 (November): 428-441.

CONSIDERATIONS IN THE ASSESSMENT OF LEISURE INTERESTS AND NEEDS OF THE ADULT MENTALLY RETARDED

Amanda A. Lambert
L. Dale Cruse
University of Utah

ABSTRACT

Assessment of the leisure needs of the adult mentally retarded poses special problems and demands careful

consideration of the diversity and complexity of the population. Numerous au hors agree that, prior to successful implementation of any assessment procedures, the purpose of the assessment and the goals of recreational programming must be clearly defined.

Many adult mentally retarded cannot read or have difficulty expressing needs and preferences. These barriers necessitate creative approaches to and awareness of alternative methods of inquiry regarding an individual's current references and future needs. Parents, caregivers, other practitioners or trainers, and physicians can provide relevant information pertaining to medical history, socioeconomic status, family life, community resources, etc. Several authors offer a variety of approaches in assessment of an individual which include: observation, self-report, and interviewing. Ideally, a combination of these approaches will yield the most relevant and comprehensive information in assessing an individual's needs. The literature on this subject is quite clear concerning some of the precautions to take in the use of any of the available assessment instruments and approaches and subsequent program implementation. Many authors stress selection of age appropriate activities; the use of activities that improve social and motor skills, but not at the expense of intrinsic enjoyment; and a commitment to overcoming barriers inherent in working with the mentally retarded.

An awareness and critical evaluation of the available instruments and approaches in assessment will help to facilitate appropriate, effective recreational programming. Sensitivity to the unique needs of the adult mentally retarded is a prerequisite to the selection and implementation of any assessment tool.

Introduction

Assessments are a necessary precursor to the development of any individual program plan in recreation and leisure. Assessing the leisure needs and interests of the mentally retarded poses special problems and consideration due to the complexity and diversity of functional abilities among individuals. An assessment should be designed and implemented with programming in mind. The purpose of the assessment must be clearly identified and stated prior to implementation, and consideration must be given to an understanding of the importance of a thorough assessment, the sources of available techniques and models, problems associated with assessments, and appropriate utilization of results. Perhaps the most essential element in assessment and subsequent program planning is to begin with a philosophical understanding of the right of the mentally retarded to engage in community and home activities that are age appropriate, and that promote and facilitate feelings of enjoym nt, relaxation and self confidence.

What exactly is an assessment? Julia Dunn (1984) provides some basic foundations upon which assessments are based.

Essentially, assessment is a process of gathering and interpreting information for the purpose of making decisions regarding treatment or programming. Dunn points out that the kind of decision to be made will indicate the nature of the information that is required. Clearly, the scope of subsequent programming will directly affect the type and amount of information needed. Gathering of pertinent, relevant information on an individual will help to insure that individual will benefit from the services offered and will identify strengths, weaknesses, and potential problem areas.

Most writers would agree that for the adult mentally retarded the first step in any assessment is a thorough investigation of background information. Schleien, Light, McAvoy and Baldwin (1989) suggest a variety of sources to help provide this information: family members, care providers, teachers, related services personnel, and any other relevant support staff. Pertinent information provided, according to Schleien, et al. (1989), will include:

> the participant's family background, physical and medical needs, education needs, social/emotional needs (e.g. types of reinforcers that are effective, preferences, means of selecting items), family and individual leisure preferences and activities in which family members commonly engage during their discretionary time, and information regarding client and community resources. (p.30)

Much of the necessary information concerning I.Q., gross and fine motor skills, unusual behavior, health and social history can be obtained from medical files or attending physician. Thorough documentation and records kept on this information cannot be underestimated. At the same time, the undue influence this type of information can have on limiting or restricting programming should be kept in mind.

Past and current activity or leisure preference can be assessed by a number of different methods. Wuerch and Voeltz (1982) suggest that identification of leisure activities is aided by consultation with those that spend time with the individual: parents, caregivers, siblings, and other therapeutic personnel. Most mentally retarded persons spend a great deal of time at home, so parental preferences are essential to assess. According to Wuerch and Voeltz, pertinent questions to ask parents or caregivers include those activities already occurring in the home, leisure activities the individual has mentioned as an interest, the way in which an individual spends her or his time, and currently preferred activities. Information from parents or caregivers can be obtained by telephone, in person, or through the use of a survey similar to the "Home Leisure Activities Survey" (p. 17). Additional questions to ask may include the frequency with which the individual participates in an activity, whether the activity was done independently or with assistance, social interaction, if any, limitations on activity participation, and opportunities for participation in the household. O'Morrow and Reynolds (1989) stress gaining a thorough knowledge of the setting itself, including the influences of parental relationships, presence or absence of brothers and sisters, emotional or physical deficiencies, social problems, housing conditions, and the extent and quality of neighborhood and school and resources. Other considerations from Wehman and Schleien (1981) include location of home (rural vs. urban), sensitivity of local communities and neighbors to handicapped persons, interaction of individual with others in the neighborhood, and available, accessible community resources. Much of this information may be difficult to obtain due to time or staffing constraints. Early identification of barriers to participation, including lack of public transportation skills or an inability to handle money, will facilitate a more comprehensive recreation and leisure plan. Always keep in mind that these barriers to participation can be overcome and are not barriers to an individual's potential for leisure enjoyment.

Assessing the individuals themselves can pose several problems. Many mentally retarded have difficulty expressing or communicating their preferences, or the responses themselves may be ambiguous, inappropriate, or difficult to understand. In light of the wide diversity of functioning levels, three basic methods of individual assessment can be used: Observation, self-report, and interviewing. Wuerch and Voeltz (1982) have devised the "Student Interest Inventory" (p. 20), which is based on the assumption that outward behavior reflects inner feelings, levels of enjoyment, and interest. Through careful observation it is possible to ascertain an individual's likes and dislikes, keeping in mind any outside or external influences that may affect the behavior of the individual. Wehman and Schleien (1981) suggest observation based on "duration assessment, the amount of minutes/seconds spent with each leisure material" (p. 23). An observer can then assess which objects are preferred. Recreational equipment, games, cards, plants, and even self-care can be used.

Casual and naturalistic observation (Austin 1982) involves making no attempt to manipulate or change the natural environment while watching the individual during unstructured recreation or play. Austin also discusses specific goal observation where the observer sets definite goals for observation to meet a particular purpose or assess a well-defined behavior. All of the above methods of observation can provide information on motor skills, interpersonal interactions, activity preference, body language, and attention span. For most mentally retarded, assessment will be based on activity-type checklists used during an interview.

There are a number of assessment instruments to determine leisure patterns. Pollingue and Cobb (1986) list, among others, the "Leisure Environment Profile," the "Leisure Preferences Checklist," and the "AAMD" (p. 57). All of these instruments provide information on current activity participation, family activities, and available resources. Navar (1980) cautions practitioners in the choosing of an assessment instrument that indicates information related to the ultimate leisure abilities of the clients. She points out that a simple activity checklist may present problems in that individuals have had very little exposure to leisure activities, or that indicated interests may not be appropriate. Schleien, et al. (1989) discuss other checklist problems associated with lack of freedom or opportunity in making choices, and communication skill deficits resulting in ambiguity. They stress the importance of knowing the individual and of having a familiarity with facial expressions and communications that indicate an individual's preference. Interviewing of the adult mentally retarded must be approached in much the same way as with any population. Individuals should feel that the specialist is interested in them, listens, and speaks with the person, rather than to the person. An interview should be based on respect, trust, concern, and interest. Ferguson (1983) elaborates extensively on the components of a well structured interview, which include: explaining the purpose of the interview, asking only one question at a time, being patient in receiving answers, using the individual's name, and clarifying any uncertain answers. A thoughtful, careful interview can provide invaluable information concerning an individual's readiness for activity, leisure patterns, leisure related problems, and ability to use the telephone, transportation, and money.

Any assessment instrument must be used cautiously. Certo, Schleien, and Hunter (1983) stress that reliance on assessments can lead to leisure skills and materials being used solely as "vehicles to improve motor performance" (p.31). It is important to retain the game-like quali'.ies of activities, not using them only to facilitate the improvement of some social or motor skill. Standardized assessment information that indicates poor functional ability may result in an individual being excluded from instruction or involvement. There always remains a need to regard an individual's preference an enjoyment in light of selected procedures to develop self-initiative, confidence, independence, and enjoyment.

Once the assessment information has been obtained, there are a number of concerns that deserve careful consideration in the selection of activities for the individual. Stein and Sessoms (1983) define some of the important factors in programming to be: a knowledge of the participant that individual's needs; the setting of goals and establishment of procedures to satisfy those needs; and selecting appropriate activities that possess the greatest potential for fulfillment. Numerous authors (Certo, et al. 1983; Schleien, et al. 1989; Wehman & McLaughlin 1981; Wehman & Schleien 1981; Wuerch & Voeltz 1982) stress the importance of activity selection that is age appropriate. Assessment information that yields age inappropriate activity preference must be viewed in light of circumstances that have led to those preferences. Selection of activities that are age appropriate will de-emphasize the discrepancy between a mentally retarded individual and one who isn't. Regardless of an individual's current level of functioning, activities can and should be made available through skill training and necessary modifications. There should be an ultimate focus on independence, rather than instructional cues and positive reinforcement. Carter, Van Andel & Robb (1985) encourage activity selection based on self-improvement goals, and state that "decision making, independent functioning, and expression of likes and dislikes lead to development of a unique self" (p. 294).

Information obtained through a thorough assessment is crucial to the relevant and effective leisure and recreation programming for the adult mentally retarded. The mentally retarded have numerous concerns that surpass that of many other populations, including: social interaction skills; physical, cognitive and emotional constraints; self-esteem; issues of dependence vs. independence; community integration; and misconceptions about the mentally retarded held by the community. Recreation becomes the medium through which feelings are identified, expressed, and a positive self-concept formed. Ethical use of assessment information will enable the specialist to gain invaluable insight into an individual's needs, interests, and potential for a life long pursuit of independent leisure enjoyment.

References

Austin, D. (1982). Therapeutic recreation processes and techniques. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Carter, M. J., Van Andel, G.E., & Robb, G. M. (1985). Therapeutic recreation: A practical approach. St. Louis: Times Mirror/Mosby College.

Certo, N. J., Schleien, S. J., Hunter, D. (1983). An ecological assessment inventory to facilitate community recreation by severely disabled individuals. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, (4), 29-38.

Dunn, J.K. (1984). Assessment. In C. A. Peterson & S. L. Gunn (Eds.), Therapeutic recreation program design: Principles and procedures (pp. 267-323). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Ferguson, D.D. (1983). Assessment interviewing techniques: A useful tool in developing individualized program plans. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 17 (2), 16-22.

Navar, N. (1980). A rationale for leisure skill assessment with handicapped adults. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 14 (4), 21-28.

O'Morrow, G.S., & Reynold , R. P. (1989). Therapeutic recreation, a helping profession. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Pollingue, A. B., & Cobb, H. B. (1986). Leisure education: A model facilitating community integration for moderately/severely mentally retarded adults. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 20 (3), 54-62.

Schleien, S. J., light, C. L., McAvoy, L. H., & Baldwin, C.L. (1989). Best professional practices: Serving people with severe multiple disabilities. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 23 (3), 27-39.

Stein, T.A., & Sessoms, D. H. (1983). Recreation and special populations. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Wehman, P., & McLaughlin, P. (1981). Program development in special education. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Wehman, P., & Schleien, S. (1981). Leisure programs for handicapped persons. Austin, TX: Pro ed.

Wuerch, B. B., & Voeltz, L. M. (1982). Longitudinal leisure skills for severely handicapped learners. Baltimore: Paul Brooks.

EVALUATING THE INTENSITY OF CHILDREN'S PLAY:

A DESCRIPTION OF HEART RATE MONITORING METHODOLOGY

IN A NATURAL PLAY ENVIRONMENT

Michael E. Crawford
Mary McPhail Gray
Tom R. Thomas
University of Missouri, Columbia

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to design and validate field research procedures for studying the play intensity levels of preschool children's playground behaviors. A portable heart rate monitor, the UNIQ Sport Tester PE 300, was adapted for use with young children. Reliability trials against standard electrocardiography provided evidence of the validity of the retrofit. Children's playground behaviors were then video-taped while wearing the Sport Tester so that heart rate data could be subsequently analyzed and correlated with playground movement forms. During data collection the Sport Tester demonstrated some sensitivity to subject body type and a few subjects displayed reactivity to the collection procedure resulting in some lost data. Analysis of HR data on video tape revealed moderate to high HR gains across different movement forms with 4-limb exertions and locomotor forms demonstrating the largest gains. Case studies of individual children revealed highly individualized patterns of play and HR exertion. Recommendations for further modification of data collection

procedures and possible areas of analysis of future studies are given in light of findings.

Introduction

The need to investigate children's activity levels as they relate to fitness has become readily apparent. Increasingly, pediatric physical therapists in schools have noted deficiencies in balance and coordination in children between ages five and 14 (Wallace, 1987), to quote from a recent report by the American Physical Therapy Association;

> ...test results compiled in recent years revealed that only one in 300 children could pass the flexibility tests. Fifty percent failed the tests for balance and reaction time. Two-thirds couldn't pass the minimum criteria in tests of lower body strength....

These findings in conjunction with increasing obesity in children of all ages in the United States (Gortmaker, Dietz, Sobol, and Wehler; 1987) and decreasing activity levels (Timmer, Eccles, and O'Brien; 1983) leads to speculation about the effectiveness of pre-school curricula in promoting physical activity. In a recent national survey elementary aged children of both sexes reported playing on playgrounds as their third ranked physical activity most frequently performed (Ross, Pate, Caspersen, Damberg and Svilar; 1987). Therefore, as playgrounds represent one of the most commonly engaged in forms of free exercise, questions regarding the fitness potential of such play are worthy of consideration.

Day care centers provide an ideal environment for the study of young children's play and fitness levels. Over 55% of women with children under 6 are in the work force; 2.2 million (38%) of these children attend day care centers where professionals are responsible for their activities during an 8 to 10 hour day (Kahn and Kamerman, 1987). Day care settings allow for the study of natural play patterns in peer group settings and the simultaneous evaluation of the effect that playground equipment and environments have on young children's fitness.

In the past 30 years there have been multiple attempts to develop national fitness norms for children. The most recent (and scientifically valid) attempt was made by the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance (AAHPERD). The AAHPERD National Children and Youth Fitness Study II (NCYFS) has just been concluded, unfortunately it has compiled norms only down to six years of age. Thus for those pre-school educators who desire to express the status of a particular child or group of children in terms of average scores for strength, flexibility, endurance, fitness, etc. quality normative data are simply lacking on a comprehensive basis.

When considering the evaluation of fitness levels of young children one of the first questions to consider is how to measure play intensity. Naturally, cardiovascular expenditure or heart rate (HR) represents the most logical fitness variable to begin with in attempting to build a scientific description of early childhood play.

Thus, the purpose of this article is to describe how heart rate (HR) telemetry and measurement procedures were modified for children and used to capture HR data in a natural play setting. To that end sample data from a three-year longitudinal design are presented as an illustration of the effectiveness of first-year techniques. It is hoped that other research teams will adapt this technology and provide further replication and corroboration of its effectiveness.

Procedure

In a recent study, Siegel (1987) provided both resting and target heart rate values down to 4 years of age. A limitation of this study, however, was the reliance on average HR values since a teacher count was not practical and younger children in particular were unable to use conventional self-reported methods. A related study by Gilliam, Freedson, Geenen, and Shahraray (1981) utilized an HR halter device to obtain data from 6- and 7-year-olds. However, a limitation of this design was the inability to precisely correlate HR values with behavioral activities which were obtained from parental diaries.

The design of this study employed telemetry to collect actual HR data as a means to counter the difficulties Siegel faced both in terms of collection of data and in accuracy of results derived from the use of averaged values. This study also utilized a continuous videotape record of behavior in order to overcome the limitations of behavioral diary methods used by Gilliam et al. (1981).

Researchers representing Child Development, Therapeutic Recreation, and Health and Physical Education collected basic heart rate data on a convenient sample of 41 two- to six-year-olds in an early childhood program. Both a resting and an active HR were taken to study the aerobic effects of outdoor play on playground equipment. Researchers designed an intervention which would reduce subject reactivity and maintain as much ethological purity as possible. Given that young children are not likely to tolerate traditional HR measurement, which includes devices with hard wires and some restriction on movement, the researchers sought to increase the validity of the findings through: (1) using contemporary technology in as miniaturized and light-weight a form as possible, (2) allowing an acclimation period prior to data collection to reduce the novelty of cameras, HR monitors and researchers presence, and (3) familiarizing subjects with HR apparatus through description, personal acclimation (trial donning), and by introducing the "power belt" in a conceptually understandable way.

In consultation with the University electronics staff, an adaptive use was made of the "UNIQ Sport Tester PE 300" manufactured by Polar Electo OY of Finland. The device is a "heart-rate microcomputer" marketed as a self-monitoring device for adult fitness programs and includes an elasticized belt carrying the electrode transmitter which is worn across the chest against the bare skin. The transmission by magnetic induction is made to a digital watch which has as one of its five programs the simultaneous display of heart rate and stopwatch.

To measure the accuracy of the sport tester with data from electrocardiography, one member of the research team conducted validity trials comparing performance during rest, aerobic work, and recovery for treadmill jogging and stationary cycling. Data from the Sport Tester and ECG (Burdick M200) were taken simultaneously using three-beat averaging for the ECG.

To collect subject data, the electrodes were moistened and children were invited to wear the "power belt". Teachers had introduced the device at an earlier group time and emphasized the importance of a healthy heart. This cooperation and support from the teachers was essential. While the research team became very familiar with the children (60 hours of data were taken over a two-month period), approximately one-quarter of the children needed teacher support and intervention to initially accept the belt. These children appeared to be either highly anxious or mistrusting of new experiences or, in a few cases, tactile defensive. Once the belt was accepted however, only one child refused to keep it one for the required 15 minutes.

Resting heart rates were taken by one researcher wearing the watch and recording by pencil and paper the signal read from the belt on a child in the classroom. The child was involved in one of a range of quiet activities, from listening to a story to quiet individual table play which occurred in the normal curriculum schedule.

Active HR's were taken while simultaneously video-taping a child's free play movements on the playground. One member of the research team wore the wrist watch and signaled a video camera operator when the device was activated so that the entire 15 minute record of each subject's activity was videotaped. The actual heart rate was read every 30 seconds by the watch-wearer into the microphone of a two-way FM radio, the Midlan "75-101 Portable Transceiver." The receiver earpiece of a second transceiver was modified as an input to the audio jack of the video "camcorder", which was used to tape the subject at play. Adaptation of the transceiver allowed the two members of the research team to talk to each other during the recording process (see Figure 1).

Researchers who were reading the heart rate monitored their own behavior and distance from the subject child in order to be within range of the transmission every 30 seconds. This procedure took practice--the researchers attempted to stay out of the child's visual field and could read the signal from behind the child, holding the watch approximately four feet from the actual transmission electrode. Nevertheless, there were problems. The HR instrument, while highly reliable, was also short in range and occasionally situationally responsive or dependent upon the subject's body type. This limitation resulted in: (1) the occasional phenomenon of subjects attempting to "run" adults around the playground, inventing an impromptu game of "keep away" while taking apparent delight in

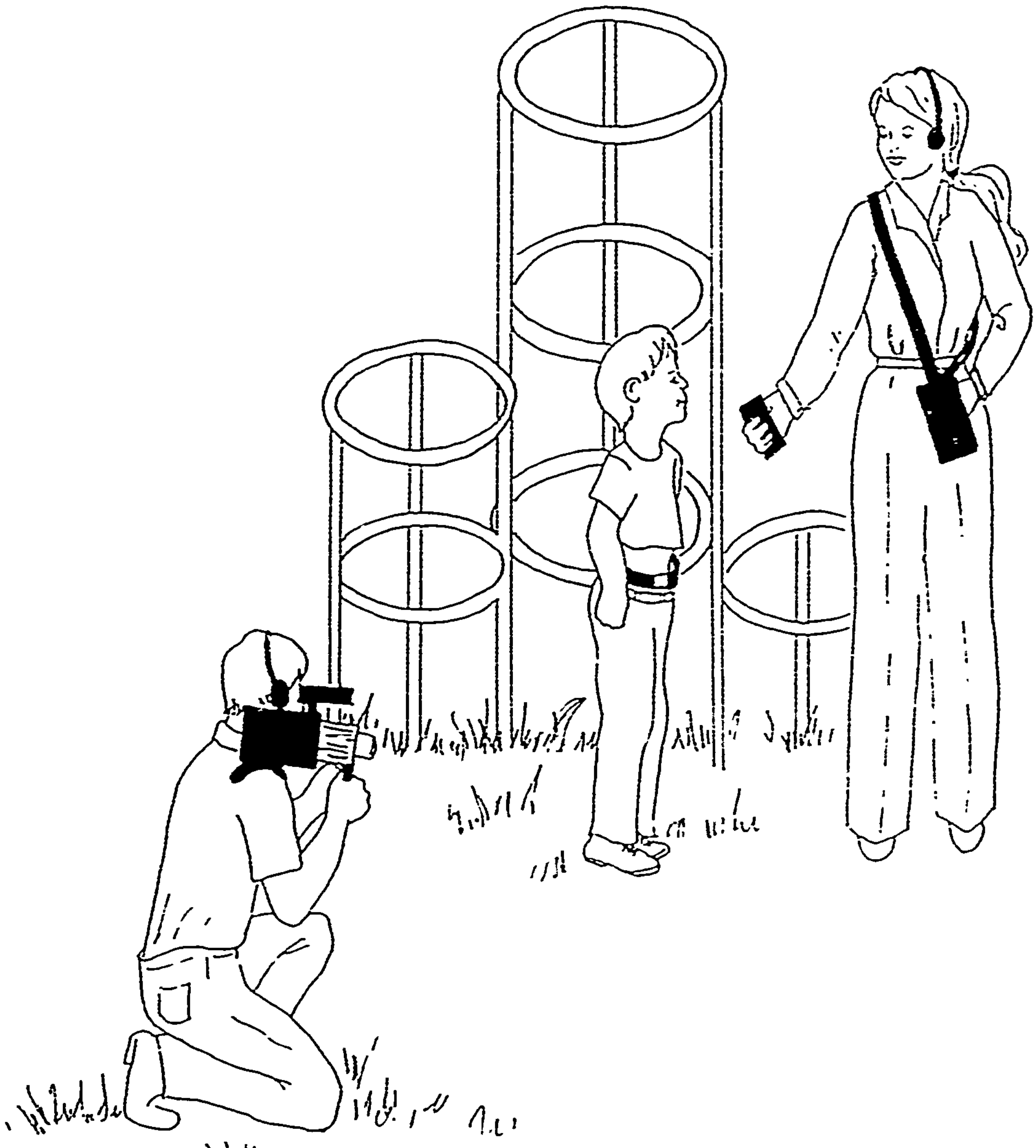


Figure 1

their ability to control the behaviors of adults. This occurred in an estimated 10% of data collection attempts; (2) signals from the instrument occasionally being shielded either by the subject's body (in the case of endomorphs) or by multile layers of clothing (on very cold days when jackets and sweaters were worn on top of shirts) or by signals not being sent due to the inability of leads to maintain contact with the subject's torso (in the case of ectomorphs). The latter is viewed as a direct result of attempting to retrofit an apparatus to children originally designed for adult use.

Results and Discussion

The results of laboratory validity trails indicated that the Sport Tester performed accurately (within the 98th percentile) when compared to traditional electorcardiography equipment (see Table 1). The reader will note that this accuracy was achieved across several different aerobic conditions and regardless of subject gender. Regarding actual field data, Table 2 summarizes results for six sample subjects in both classroom resting and active playground HR conditions. The reader will note that the mean of subject active heart rates in outdoor activities ranged from 122 to 140, while their resting heart rates ranged from 102 to 114. For these subjects, the range of heart rates was from 85 to 140 in quiet (resting) activities and from 80 to 180 in outdoor activities. The overall HR mean values for active o ‌ or play in this sample concur with those results obtained by Gilliam et al. (1981);

Table 1

Reliability Comparison of Sport Tester to ECG

Measured HR during Rest, Treadmill Jogging, and Recovery, Male Subject, Age 34

	Min	ECG (bpm)	Sport Tester (bpm)
Rest	1	67	68
	2	77	78
	3	71	71
	4	73	71
	5	64	63
$\bar{x} \pm$ S.D.		70 ± 5	70 ± 5
Exercise	1	128[1]	128
	2	129	129
	3	133	132
	4	133	133
	5	135	134
	6	138	137
	7	155[2]	155
	8	162	161
$\bar{x} \pm$ S.D.		139 ± 13	139 ± 12
Recovery	1	91	92
	2	81	82
	3	85	84
	4	81	80
	5	78	79
$\bar{x} \pm$ S.D.		83 ± 5	83 ± 5

[1]6.2 mph
[2]9.2 mph

Measured HR during Rest, Stationary Cycling, and Recovery, Female Subject, Age 25

	Min	ECG (bpm)	Sport Tester (bpm)
Rest	1	78	78
	2	80	84
	3	75	75
	4	86	84
	5	69	70
$\bar{x} \pm$ S.D.		78 ± 6	78 ± 6
Exercise	1	132[1]	132
	2	144	144
	3	130[2]	130
	4	126	125
	5	125	123
	6	120	120
	7	123	122
	8	123	122
	9	123	120
$\bar{x} \pm$ S.D.		127 ± 7	126 ± 8
Recovery	1	77	76
	2	83	80
	3	85	83
	4	85	87
	5	93	92
$\bar{x} \pm$ S.D.		85 ± 6	84 ± 6

[1]Work load 600 kgm/min
[2]Work load 450 kgm/min

Table 2

Comparison of Active and Resting Heart Rates (expressed as beats per minute)

Subject	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sex	M	F	M	F	M	F
Age (Years/Months)	5-10	6-1	6-1	6-3	6-6	6-8
Activity						
1. Upper Body/ Arm Exertions	6.7%[1] 142[2] 135-149[3]	41% 119 110-147	63.3% 120 107-137	---	14.8% 133 125-142	7% 127 116-138
2. 4-Limb Exertions	83% 134 124-153	10% 148 135-164	---	39% 146 132-166	7% 158 151-165	26% 131 122-156
3. Locomotor Forms	3.3% 125 ---	31% 156 130-175	33.3% 127 114-137	35% 143 131-152	63% 143 114-180	30% 148 133-171
4. Passive/Onlooker Behavior	6.7% 119 119	17% 121 105-139	3.3% 116 ---	25% 122 117-131	14.8% 127 117-134	33% 106 80-122
Indoor Resting HR						
Mean ($\bar{x}$)	107	113	102	114	108	105
Range	96-117	104-124	85-116	107-124	93-140	86-117
Outdoor Active HR						
Mean ($\bar{x}$)	134	134	122	139	140	123
Range	119-153	105-175	107-137	117-166	114-180	80-171

[1]% of total time spent in this activity category. [2]x HR in this activity. [3]HR range within this activity category.

children engaged in active outdoor play rarely reach HR values of sufficient intensity to promote cardiovascular fitness. Following tabulation of HR data, analysis of individual activity patterns on the playground proceeded. A dictionary of playground movement forms was developed by the researchers which resulted in a sixteen level activity code and allowed collapsing and categorization of all outdoor activities into one of four groups: upper-body exertion, 4-limb exertion, locomotor forms and passive, on-looker behavior (Table 3).

Table 3

Movement Codes for Outdoor Activities

Generalized Movement Category	Specific Movement Forms
1. Upper Body Exertion	Push/Pull Throw/Catch Arm Hang Hand Manipulations Lifting
2. 4-Limb Exertion	Climbing Riding Trike Crawling Wrestling Climbing Up Stairs Vigorous Swinging
3. Locomotor Forms	Running Jumping Walking Sliding
4. Passive, Onlooker Behavior	Kneeling/Standing/Sitting/Watching Passive Swinging

While visual analysis, in conjunction with HR data, suggests the possibility for aerobic validity of all categories, means were highest for locomotor forms and 4-limb exertions. Furthermore, within this analysis highly individualized patterns of exertion were seen. For instance, Subject 1 spent 83% of the time in 4-limb exertions, while Subject 3 spent no time in 4-limb exertion and 63% in upper-body exertion. These two activity categories, upper body and 4-limb exertion, illustrated ranges of HR similar to those high-active subjects in Saris, Binkhurst, Cramwinckel, Waesberghe, and Veen-Hegeman's (1980) sample of kindergarten children.

Early childhood educators exemplify a tradition of multi-sensory, exploratory curriculum planning. However, such planning rarely utilizes the activities and equipment of playgrounds for the objectives of child fitness and gross motor skill development. While a number of plausible explanations can be given for this practice (Gray and Crawford, 1988), it has serious implications for adult supervisory behavior and equipment selection in early childhood care environments. Hildebrand (1988) comments on the early childhood professional's "common practice of merely monitoring children on the early childhood playground" and rarely making the same effort to involve all children in motor skills or fitness activities as they make in language and cognitive development curriculum.

In the National Association for the Education of Young Children's (NAEYC, 1986) position statement on Developmentally

Appropriate Practices in Early Childhood Programs only one paragraph of a 17 page document mentions outdoor experiences: "...young children through age 8 need daily outdoor experiences to practice large muscle skills, learn about outdoor environments and experience freedom...it is not simply a time for children to release pent-up energy" (p. 11).

The overall inadequacy of pedagogical information in this area reflects social/cultural biases in the profession and the almost total absence of a research base to stimulate more adequate professional training. According to Berger (1986) accidents occurring to children depend upon the amount of adult supervision, the safety of the play space and the child's activity level. Yet there is at this time no research completed in early childhood environments which has attempted to analyze these three variables. Within this investigation the heterogeneity of movement forms performed by children in conjunction with the wide range of HR intensity (some of which approached target heart rate ranges necessary for aerobic training) suggests that there are opportunities for playgrounds and outdoor play to contribute to fitness. However, the third variable - adult presence - would need to be modified from simple playground monitoring to active leadership in order to achieve this end.

Summary of Research Implications

In this initial study the very low rejection rate by children of the HR telemetry belt (less than 5%) is encouraging.

Our rejection results with this relatively non-obtrusive approach appear at least equal to if not superior to more traditional HR measurement applications (Delozier, Rips, Guton, and Basch, 1988). Remarkably, this low rejection rate was achieved without apparent sacrifice to reliability. In consideration of portability and low cost (Sport Tester, $150; transceiver, $40), this is a promising technology for future application applied settings.

Improvements of data collection procedures are possible however. For the next generation of data collection, a further retrofit of the Sport Tester device will be designed that provides a larger transmission field and will therefore increase the researcher's distance from subjects. This could be achieved through modification of the method of sending HR signals from electrode to receiver from a short range magnetic induction signal to a long range radio signal. These modifications would allow for continuous record collection in an un-obtrusive manner. To this end the radio telemetry employed in non-human research with animal and bird tracking studies appears to hold some promise.

Based on this initial sample, researchers believe that subsequent analyses of larger sample may eventually identify patterns of individual activity choices which will correlate aerobic HR levels with specific environmental features of the playground.

O'Hara and associates (1989) documented a valid elementary age observation coding system in which the assignment of ordinal activity points to sample fitness behaviors correlated well with HR telemetry data. An adaptation of this system to pre-school populations with the playground dictionary of behaviors this study has identified would make possible the verification of the relationship between HR intensity levels and free play behaviors.

Modification of free play settings to achieve more intensity in children's behaviors through development of more sophisticated pedagogical approach (adult leadership as opposed to supervision) might afford opportunities for children to reach target heart rate ranges within these settings (perhaps through movement exploration challenges and/or obstacle course type games that could be adult organized and led). That hypothesis needs testing however, and in so doing also presents a philosophical hurdle for some regarding the appropriateness of the imposition of adult will into settings that have traditionally been child controlled (Kahn and Kammerman, 1987). For now it seems clear that only providing for free play on playgrounds will not significantly assist in addressing the poor physical fitness of so many of our nation's children.

References

Berger, K.S. (1986). The developing person through childhood and adolescence. New York: Worth Publishers, Inc.

Delozier, M.G., Rips, J., Guton, B., and Basch, C.E. (1988). "Conducting Treadmill Tests on Preschool Children." JOPERD Vol. 59 No. 8 pp. 83-87.

Gilliam, T.R., Freedson, P.S., Geenen, D.L., and Shahraray, B. (1981). "Physical Activity Patterns Determined by Hart Rate Monitoring in 6- 7-year-old Children." Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise Vol. 13 No. 1, 65-67.

Gortmaker, S.L., Dietz, W.H., Sobol, A.M., and Wehler, C.A. (1987). "Increasing Obesity in the United States." American Journal of Diseases of Children. Vol 141, pp. 535-540.

Gray, M.M. and Crawford, M. (1988). "Learning by Doing: Motor Confidence, Classroom Behavior and Interaction with Playground Equipment." Paper presented at NAEYC National Convention, Anaheim, CA.

Hildebrand, V. (1988). Guiding young children. New York: Macmillan.

Kahn, A.J., and Kamerman, S.A. (1987). Child care: Facing the hard choices. Dover, Mass: Auburn House Publishing Co.

NAEYC position statement on developmentally appropriate practices in early childhood programs serving children from birth through age 8. (1986). Young Children, 4-19.

O'Hara, N.M., Baranowski, T., Simons-Morten, B., Wilson, B.S., and Parcel, G.S. (1989). "Validity of the Observation of Children's Physical Activity." Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport Vol 60, No. 1, p. 42-47.

Ross, J.G., Pate, R.R., Caspersen, C.J., Damberg, C.L. and Svilar, M. (1987). "Home and Community in Children's Exercise Habits." JOPERD Vol. 58 No. 9 p. 85-92.

Saris, W.H.M., Binkhurst, R.A., Cramwinckel, N.B., Waesberghe, F., and Veen-Hegemans, A.M. (1980). "The Relationship between Working Performance, Daily Physical Activity, Fatness, Blood Lipids and Nutrition in School Children." In K. Berg and B.O. Eriksson (Eds.), Children and Exercise IX. Baltimore: University Park Press, 166-174.

Siegel, J. (1987). "Children's Target Heart Rate Range." JOPERD Vol 59 No. 4 pp. 78-79.

Timmer, S.G., Eccles, J., and O'Brien, K. (1983). "How Children Use Time," in F.T. Juster and F.P. Strafford (Eds), Time, Goods and Well-Being. Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research.

Wallace, L. (1987) "Children's Poor Physical Condition Is Leading Cause of Sports Injuries." JOPERD Vol 58 No. 3, p. 19.

CONFLICT AND PERCEPTIONS

AMONG VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION MEMBERS

Carlton F. Yoshioka
Arizona State University

Daniel D. McLean
City of Cedar Rapids

ABSTRACT

Growth of organizations may result in conflict. The presence of conflict may be the result of a number of variables over which an organization may or may not have control. They as the former represent the "old guard" and the latter represent the "new guard". This paper explores leader and member perceptions of a state park and recreation association toward current and future services, strengths and weaknesses.

The findings suggest that the presence of conflict in the state organizations is not high. Issues that provide potential for conflict are single section domination, communication patterns, leader versus members, and old versus new.

Introduction

As state and local volunteer organizations grow they experience some change, both positive and negative. Starbuck (1965) suggested that there is no single pattern of organizational growth. When growth takes place, the process of formalization, greater complexity, and redistribution of power occur as the organization seeks to handle its increased size.

Hall (1972) has suggested that voluntary organizations are different from other organizations in that they rely upon membership participation in order to remain viable. There must be the appearance of a democratic institution in a volunteer organization. Craig and Gross (1970) indicated that voluntary organizations must remain permeable to new ideas and interests if democracy is to be maintained.

Hall (1972) pointed out that organizational growth appears to have some important consequences that impact upon interaction patterns of members. First, growth brings new members into organizations with a variety of experiences, expertise, innovations, and desires for the organization and themselves. Kanter (1983) suggested that change, which new members bring to organizations, requires stability. An organization that is receiving new members through growth can deal with change best if there is a core of older members to provide a link for stability.

An immediate outcome of new members is that they upset existing patterns of interaction and communication. Further, new members are "superimposed on the existing system and penetrate into it, with the frequent result of setting the 'new guard' versus the 'old guard'" (Hall, 1972). As a result, blockages may appear in communications patterns.

It is this growth and change in communication and organizational patterns that can lead to conflict in organizations. Conflict is a frequent reoccurring behavior in organizations. Due to the complex and dynamic nature of today's organizations, the various groups involved develop different communications patterns and networks. When individuals and groups interact, these differences can produce conflict.

Change and especially growth has been evident in voluntary organizations (Naisbitt, 1982). Within parks and recreation the National Recreation and Park Association and many state organizations have experienced this growth. The Iowa Park and Recreation Association (IPRA), one of the five organizations representing parks and recreation in Iowa, has grown from less than 300 members in 1974 to over 650 members in 1984. During the same period the budget for IPRA has grown from less than $25,000 to more than $100,000 and two and three fourths full time staff members have been hired. In a unique organizational relationship the state Amateur Softball Association (ASA) commissioner's office staff is also the IPRA staff. The two organizations share 50 percent of all office and personnel costs.

It appeared that IPRA was a growing and changing organization. A large percentage of the membership was not even in the profession in 1974 (48 percent). The average length of individual membership within IPRA was 5.4 years. There was a concern among the general membership about future directions and existing services provided by the Association. The leadership of the Association determined that it was time to assess the functions and direction of the Association.

The particular interest of this study was to determine if there was a congruence between members and leaders of the IPRA's present practices and future directions. The study was part of a more extensive effort to assess future directions and satisfactions with current IPRA activities by the general membership. The question being tested was whether a difference of perception exists between leaders and member related to Association activities.

Specifically the objective were to:

1. Determine the Association's current strengths and weaknesses,
2. Determine the Association's future efforts in terms of strengths and weaknesses for members of IPRA.
3. Examine the difference in responses between IPRA leaders and members to specific Association activities (Association strengths and weaknesses, and strengths and weaknesses of Association future efforts).

Methodology

The population for this study was selected from the Iowa Park and Recreation Association membership. The sample was drawn from the IPRA membership list. The professional sections included in the study were therapeutic, parks, community, and educators.

At the outset it was determined that the instrument should reflect opinions of members beyond that of the study committee. The Delphi Technique (Delbecq, Van de Ven, and Gustafson, 1975;

Brooks, 1979) was selected as the process for identifying potential opinions. The Delphi technique allowed for the identification of activities respondents considered important. Respondents were selected for this survey based upon their experience and knowledge of the Association, the professional area they represented and their diversity from other respondents. There were a total of twenty-two individuals selected for the Delphi.

Completion of the Delphi involved three phases. During phase one, individuals were asked to identify up to twenty activities that they felt were important for the Association to be involved in now and in the future. They were not asked to prioritize responses. When all responses were returned, data was collated into twenty-five statements reflecting different activities.

Phase two involved asking respondents to take the collated statements and to numerically rank them by descending level of importance to Association operations. Responses were collated with a rank order being assigned to all statements. Only the top fifteen statements were retained.

Phase three involved asking the respondents to again rank order the retained activities. This final ranking was accomplished to refine activity statements which would be included in the mail questionnaire.

The mail questionnaire consisted of three parts. Parts one and two included future directions of the department and current levels of service respectively. Part three included socio-economic data of the individual respondents.

The format and procedure for construction and administration of the instrument has been documented (Dillman, 1978). A total of 278 questionnaires were sent out. A total of 210 were returned, accounting for an 75.5 percent response rate. Three mailings were used to insure the greatest possible return. The first and third included a questionnaire with the second being a reminder post card. Mailings were accomplished at two week intervals.

Statistical Analysis

The Delphi Technique identified potential statements related to current and future Association activities. The determination of difference in activity responses between Association leaders and members was accomplished by the two tailed t-test ($p \geq .05$). The comparison measured the mean differences of the subjects in each assigned group. Before taking the t-tests, however, principal component factor analysis was applied to reduce the number of Association variables. Each set of Association statements was scutinized to reduce the problem of multicollinearity between dependent variables utilized in the study (Tinsley and Kass, 1980). In this research the principal component factor analyses were employed using a varimax rotation and with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0 criterion to determine the factors to be extracted.

Results

The results of the data revealed that generally leaders and members of the professional organization were in agreement with the current activities and future directions of the Association. Only four factor groups out of 15 were significant to the .05 level in comparisons between Association leader and member responses. In Table 1, Association stengths resulted in four factors being extracted from the set of common measures. Factor A related to attitude, dedication and communication of the Association staff and its membership. Factor B depicted member involvement and participation. Factor C associated with financial responsibilities of Association staff and its obligation with the Amateur Softball Association (ASA). Factor D connected the professional aspects and its role with the regional and national recreation organizations. The t-test comparison between leaders and members resulted in differences only in the responsibilities interrelated to ASA and the ability to have a fill time Association staff. The leaders appeared more favorable to this relationship than members.

The original array of measures of Association weaknesses were reduced to four factor groups (Table 2). Factor A consisted of communication to members through the various Association channels. Factor B referred to the lack of professional activities such as research and legislative activities. Factor C referred to limited membership base and lack of involvement of all Association sections. Factor D

TABLE 1

Results of the Level of Agreement
Concerning Association Strengths

FACTOR ANALYSIS

		Strengths	Rotated Factor Groups A	B	C	D
STR	1	Progressive Attitude	.604	.134	.396	.043
STR	2	Officer Dedication	.526	.129	.212	.340
STR	3	Publications	.542	.022	.354	.334
STR	4	Communications with Members	.684	.273	.094	.241
STR	5	Educational Opportunities	.026	.779	.143	.131
STR	6	Member Participation	.435	.703	-.034	-.016
STR	7	Member Involvement	.515	.622	.017	.139
STR	8	ASA Relationship	.119	.036	.856	-.062
STR	9	Full Time Staff	.216	.441	.582	.271
STR	10	Great Lakes Region Role	.272	.027	-.036	.837
STR	11	Professionalism	.085	.473	.229	.647

T-Test Comparison of Association's Leaders & Members

Variable		Number of Cases	Mean	Stand. Dev.	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
FAC A	Leaders	25	6.60	1.68	-.67	80	.507
	Members	57	6.89	1.90			
FAC B	Leaders	4	4.25	.50	-1.35	8	.214
	Members	6	4.83	.75			
FAC C	Leaders	26	3.07	.93	-2.57	80	.012
	Members	56	3.64	.92			
FAC D	Leaders	26	3.88	.95	-.11	80	.910
	Members	56	3.91	.97			

TABLE 2

Results of the Level of Agreement
Concerning Association Weaknesses

FACTOR ANALYSIS

		Weaknesses	Rotated Factor Groups A	B	C	D
WEK	1	Communication	.574	.131	-.030	.281
WEK	2	Publications Efforts	.757	.041	.131	-.042
WEK	3	Advertisers	.767	-.047	.207	.067
WEK	4	Board Composition	.269	.610	.163	-.364
WEK	5	Research Agenda	.130	.775	-.150	.130
WEK	6	Legislative Effectiveness	.031	.722	.121	.123
WEK	7	Membership Base	.077	.056	.572	.290
WEK	8	Service to Parks	.151	.061	.701	-.288
WEK	9	Commission Member Involvement	.124	.063	.571	.233
WEK	10	Marketing	.132	.325	.149	.624
WEK	11	Outside Communications	.384	-.008	.147	.653

T-Test Comparison of Association's Leaders & Members

Variable		Number of Cases	Mean	Stand. Dev.	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
FAC A	Leaders	26	4.76	1.70	-2.00	80	.049
	Members	56	5.44	1.27			
FAC B	Leaders	25	5.96	1.59	- .28	77	.784
	Members	54	5.87	1.21			
FAC C	Leaders	26	5.19	1.16	- .74	79	.461
	Members	55	5.41	1.32			
FAC D	Leaders	26	4.19	1.44	.79	80	.433
	Members	56	3.98	.94			

related to restricted communications with other allied interest in park and recreation. There was general agreement with the weakness factors except for the result in the communication efforts related to member (Factor A). Members perceived communications effort to be weaker than did leaders.

Table 3 presents the efforts the Association should make in the future. The results were not significantly different from the current Association strengths. The rotated factors of each analysis resulted in primarily the same grouped variables. The t-test again determined that statistical differences exist between leaders and members regarding the ASA commitment (Factor C). This factor contributes to potential discord and conflict in both current and future efforts relating to Association financial operations.

The overall data set was reduced to three factors in the last analysis of future efforts related to Association weaknesses. Table 4 revealed that Factor A involved activities of the Association such as research, marketing, legislation and both member and outside affiliations. Factor B primarily involved communications efforts of the Association. Factor C referred to the limited service to parks and conservation members, and the domination of the community section in Association activities. This last factor was at the .017 level indicating a significant difference between leaders and members. The apparent discrepancy could be due to the difference in perception between parks and conservation,

TABLE 3

Results of the Level of Agreement
Concerning Association Future Efforts

FACTOR ANALYSIS

		Future Efforts - Strengths	Rotated Factor Groups A	B	C	D
FES	1	Member Participation	.742	.118	-.088	-.010
FES	2	Member Involvement	.806	.060	.039	.144
FES	3	Publications	.116	.509	.120	.353
FES	4	Great Lakes Region Role	.114	.785	-.182	-.032
FES	5	Professionalism	.385	.526	.031	.117
FES	6	Financial Stability	.222	.088	.560	.054
FES	7	ASA Relationship	.039	-.044	.478	-.082
FES	8	Educational Opportunities	-.152	.337	.161	.667
FES	9	Communication with Members	.510	-.024	.011	.576
FES	10	Full Time Staff	.239	-.039	.293	.640

T-Test Comparison of Association's Leaders & Members

Variable		Number of Cases	Mean	Stand. Dev.	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
FAC A	Leaders	48	3.12	.761	-.12	165	.901
	Members	119	3.14	.866			
FAC B	Leaders	48	5.66	.651	1.02	158	.311
	Members	112	5.47	.797			
FAC C	Leaders	49	3.24	.723	-3.22	164	.002
	Members	117	3.63	.702			
FAC D	Leaders	47	2.89	.787	-.84	166	.339
	Members	121	3.00	.791			

TABLE 4

Results of the Level of Agreement
Concerning Association Future Efforts

FACTOR ANALYSIS

		Future Efforts - Weaknesses	A	B	C	D
			Rotated Factor Groups			
FEW	1	Member Base	.482	.181	.186	-.007
FEW	2	Marketing	.533	.352	.187	.150
FEW	3	Research Agenda	.565	.152	.022	.544
FEW	4	Legislative Effectiveness	.762	-.052	.033	.209
FEW	5	Fund Raising	.740	.120	-.004	-.046
FEW	6	Short of Staff	.297	.560	-.004	-.046
FEW	7	Communications	-.008	.745	-.043	.350
FEW	8	Outside Communications	.139	.647	.296	.100
FEW	9	Service to Parks Section	.134	-.079	.763	.057
FEW	10	Publications Efforts	-.017	.349	.556	.208
FEW	11	Commission Member Involvement	.162	.115	.651	.075

T-Test Comparison of Association's Leaders & Members

Variable		Number of Cases	Mean	Stand. Dev.	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Prob.
FAC A	Leaders	45	10.4	2.6	-.71	145	.480
	Members	102	10.7	2.3			
FAC B	Leaders	45	6.86	1.80	-.41	157	.690
	Members	114	6.99	1.75			
FAC C	Leaders	45	6.66	1.53	-2.41	156	.017
	Members	113	7.43	1.90			

community and the remaining Association's sections. The results showed that Association leaders were more sensitive to the apparent discrepancy than was the membership.

Discussion and Implications

The intent of the study was to determine the Iowa Park and Recreation Association's strengths and weaknesses; determined future efforts as they relate to the identified strengths and weaknesses; and examine differences in responses between IPRA members and leaders. Past research indicated that the Association should experience change with increased membership. This would include differing perceptions as to current and future directions, disruption of traditional communications patterns, and potential conflict. In those areas where a commonality of philosophical base and professional training was present, the membership showed general agreement. This is applicable to strengths, weaknesses, and future directions. The existing membership base of IPRA comes from the traditional public areas of recreation. Efforts to expand the Association's membership base outside of traditional areas could result in conflict as the common philosophical base is challenged.

The IPRA and ASA full time staff and administrative relationship is an example. The IPRA portion of the relationship serves a global population while the ASA relationship serves a much more defined population. The two organizations have limited philosophical ties that are primarily linked through community sports membership. The majority of

IPRA membership is not associated with ASA and has no contact with the organization or its members. There is limited philosophical linkage between the two organizations, yet each organizations current level of service to members is dependent upon a mutual financial association.

Despite the obvious strong membership service benefits to IPRA members, the results of the study found a lack of understanding and resulting support for the relationship between IPRA and ASA as it currently exists. The implication is a need to educate the Association membership about the relationship and its benefits.

The study indicated a problem with communications as perceived by members versus leaders. Based on Hall's research this was expected since leader tenure in the Association was an average of four years longer than the general membership. It was expected that the leader's perception of communication efforts would be more positive than the general membership. This primarily due to greater leader involvement in Association activities.

The result suggest that integration of new members into the Association must begin with their education about the Association, its purposes and history. The old guard, which is sometimes resistant to change and ideas, must become the leaders in the integration process. The Association, to be most effective, needs to develop innovative approaches for involving new members in Association activities.

Conclusion

The Iowa Park and Recreation Association is experiencing change brought about by growth. The common philosophical foundations among members has reduced the potential for conflict. If the Association pursues non-traditional membership bases, change may become accelerated, and in some cases, be traumatic.

The future direction of the Association is dependent on how it perceives and responds to its current mission. Shall the Association maintain its traditional role and minimize conflict in change, or shall it expand to non-traditional roles and increase the likelihood of conflict in change?

Regardless of those decisions, the Association must address issues such as ASA/IPRA relationships, community section domination, communication patterns, leaders versus members, and old versus new. The data provides a foundation for future decision making that can result in a change process that is positive and reinforcing to the Association.

Bibliography

Brooks, Kenneth W. 1979. "Delphi Technique: Expanding Applications," North Central Association Quarterly, 53, 377-385.

Craig, John G., and Edward Gross. 1970. "The Forum Theory of Organizational Democracy: Structural Guarantees as Time Related Variables," American Sociological Review, 35 (1), 19-33

Delbecq, Andre, L., Andrew H. Van de Ven, and David H. Gustafson. 1975. Group Techniques for Program Planning, Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman and Company, 174p.

Dillman, Don A. 1978. Mail and Telephone Surveys: The Total Design Method, New York: John Wiley and Sons, 325p.

Kanter, Rosabeth Moss. 1983. The Change Masters, New York: Simon and Schuster, 432p.

Naisbitt, John. 1982. Megatrends, New York: Warner Books, Inc., 190p.

Starbuck, William H. 1965. "Organizational Growth and Development," in James G. March, ed. Handbook of Organizations, Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 454p.

Tinsley, H.E. and R.A. Kass. 1980. "Discriminate Validity of the Leisure Activity Questionnaire and Paragraph About Leisure", Educational and Psychological Measurement, 49, 227-233.

THERAPEUTIC VALUE OF WILDERNESS PROGRAMS ON BEHAVIOR AND ATTITUDE IN DEFIANT AND REBELLIOUS ADOLESCENTS

Doug Nelson
Brigham Young University, Provo

ABSTRACT

Statistical results of measures of mental health and attitude indicate that participants in wilderness programs show increased and improved mental health, attitude, as well as increased self-concept, social skills and personal values.

> "I went into the woods because I wished to live deliberately to confront only the essential facts of life, and see if I could not learn what it had to teach, and not, when I came to die, discover that I had not lived" (Henry David Thoreau).

Definition

Wilderness programs have traditionally been viewed as primarily recreation in that the participants seeks refuge from their normal daily work routine or as an educational process in that they seek to enhance their competency in the outdoors. Indications from observation and research done by Thorstenson and Heaps (1973) with a number of wilderness survival programs infer that these types of programs when designed properly can be beneficial in the development of (a) self-confidence; (b) strengthening interpersonal relationships; (c) character development; (d) development of a workable system of personal values; (e) spiritual development; and (f) development of outdoor survival skills. The term "wilderness programs" as it relates to the therapeutic process focuses on wilderness experiences such as backpacking, rock climbing, rafting, survival skills. The term "wilderness programs" as it relates to the therapeutic process focuses on wilderness experiences such as backpacking, rock climbing, rafting, survival, biking, etc., which involve challenge, adventure, and professionally managed risk (Mason, 1987).

In order for this process to be effective as a therapeutic modality, the experience must require combined physical, emotional, intellectual, and social confrontation. The outdoor setting takes individuals away from technology and offers a simple yet demanding self-development experience and tests the participant's ability to adapt the learning in a relevant application (Cloward, 1989). Cloward further states "establishing a relationship between self and the environment tends to clear away facades, and social pressures, reducing one tc the realities of self and long range life planning."

Historical Background

In the mid 1960's there was an increase in environmental awareness and interest in seeking outdoor adventure experiences. Some sought the outdoor experience for the challenge and to test themselves against "Mother Nature" and the odds. Others desired only to learn outdoor skills, and still others desired a holistic approach by becoming in tune with nature and self. Private enterprise capitalized on this expanding outdoor interest and as a result, many outdoor programs and companies began. A number of educational institutions also became involved. Primarily, the educational focuses were aimed at providing cooperative recreational experience and skill training for their students. Many courses were started with a few emerging as leaders in using the outdoors as a classroom and teaching outdoor skills as a vehicle to cause change in behavior and attitude of their participants. Two examples of these programs were Outward Bound in Colorado and B.Y.U.'s Primitive Outdoor Survival program (Youth Leadership 480) in Utah.

OUTWARD BOUND

Outward Bound was originally founded as a survival training school for British merchant seaman during World War II when it was noted that many of the merchant seamen who sailed the North Atlantic died in wreaks or explosions. It was observed that the majority of the deaths were young, healthy and apparently capable seamen (Berman, Anton, 1988). The theory of Outward Bound developed out of the feeling that the older seamen survived the calamitous events over the younger ones because they knew more and had faced more stress; therefore it was purposed that younger seamen should be put into situations that would allow for "pre-stress." (Casey, 1978)

Outward Bound was developed by Dr. Kurt Hahn, Headmaster of the Gordonston School in Scotland. His idea was to develop character and self-confidence by confronting challenges and learning through experience. Wilderness survival, outdoor skills training, and group living were key ingredients of his teaching. The purpose was to encourage greater self-confidence and self-knowledge and generate feelings of sensitivity and responsiblity for others (Tapply, 1977).

<u>YOUTH LEADERSHIP 480</u>

During the late 1960's an outdoor survival program was developed at Brigham Young University (Olsen, 1972). The program was an intense wilderness living experience for 29-days using minimum gear with physical and emotional stress situations. The purpose of the program was to effect change in BYU students who were being dismissed from the University for academic and standards violations (Zimmerman, 1972). It was felt that many of the students who found themselves in academic trouble or in rebellion against school standards, were capable of competing academically as well as disciplining themselves, but lacked the confidence and self-respect to compete with their peers in an academic environment.

As a result of the success of the success of the initial survival programs, other programs similar in nature were developed at BYU focusing on a variety of populations. Young married couples participated in a short-term outdoor program for the purpose of developing and enhancing communication skills (Olson, 1971). Native American Indians participated in an outdoor survival program specifically designed to reacquaint and anchor cultural heritage and identity (Zimmerman, 1972). Other more traditional courses in sociology, psychology, education and administration found benefits from a cooperative program with survival wilderness courses (Craig, Seggar, & Staley, 1974).

Rationale for Wilderness Programs

In recent years it has become apparent that institutionalization is not deterring crime, nor does it seem to be the best form of treatment and therapy for adolescents with behavioral disorders. Statistics show that persons under the age of 18 are responsible for 45% of all arrests for serious crimes and 23% for all arrests of violent crimes (Wells, 1985). Wells believed "...that alternative community based treatment centers such as group homes that became popular in the 1960's were inappropriate for the 'hard core' adolescent." This, in part, may be due to the great amount of "down time" or time when the patient is not involved in a productive or therapeutic activity which is common in this type of treatment center.

Other programs designed to help troubled youth found little community, state, or federal support. The result was a lack of funding, lack of experienced and trained personnel and little political influence. Youth were often removed from the treatment programs when serious problems arose which the program did not have the resources to handle, giving the youth further proof they were losers and destined to fail (Wells, 1985).

Adolescence in the modern world presents special challenges and problems. Due to increased technology and affluence, teens are often insulated from reality and become directionless, unmotivated, and irresponsible. Late adolescence is characterized by an increased need to attain independence and adult recognition. Former authoritarian child/teacher, child/parent relationships are strained by the growing pains of the emerging adult (Carter & McGoldrick, 1980). Teenagers are stretching to develop a sense of identify, direction, and the assurance of future security in terms of intellectual potential, career and economic status, and sex-roles. In wilderness therapy approaches, Berman and Anton (1988) state:

> ...the natural environment is viewed as a non-ambiguous, objective learning atmosphere which demands adaptive rather than defensive behavior. In a properly structured experience, the cause and effect relationship of dysfunctional behaviors and their outcomes are explicitly and immediately clear in the wilderness setting. Thus, the relevance and undeniable results of behavior are directly translated into observable behaviors in the real world. (p.44)

Results

Wilderness programs have been increasing in popularity and the amount of completed research giving attention to these programs has increased as well. While the total number of studies to date are still limited, the studies have generally supported the conclusion of a literature review done by Barcus and Bergeson (1972). They reported "...the few formal research projects evaluating effects of outdoor survival training programs suggest that such programs produce some positive change toward improved personal functioning."

Other studies using a variety of outcome measures across a range of conditions have generally concluded the same. Many studies have reported improvements in self-concept, self-esteem, self-confidence and related variable (Robbins, 1976; Thorstenson & Heaps, 1973; Wichmann, 1983; Leroy, 1983). Additionally, reports of decreased psychopathology and improvement on psychometric measures such as the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and the Sixteen Personality Factors Test have been reported (Cave, 1979; Reid & Matthews, 1980) as well as decreased anxiety (Thorstenson, Heaps, & Snow, 1975). Decreased recidivism rates in juvenile offenders have been reported following wilderness experience (Barcus and Bergeson, 1972; Reid & Matthews, 1980). Socially desirable changes including decreased reliance on public assistance and decreased involvement with drugs and alcohol have been found (Reid & Matthews, 1980). In addition, improved social skills (Barcus &

Bergeson, 1972), group cohesiveness (Cave, 1979), as well as improved attitudes towards others (Barcus & Bergeson, 1972), and toward parents (Stimpson & Pederson, 1970) have also been reported. There is also evidence of improved attitudes toward the natural environment (Purde & Warder, 1981) and increases in outdoor skill-building (Kaplan, 1974). Increase grade-point average has been reported (Barcu. & Bergeson, 1972) as has increased relaxation (Greentree, 1977) and increased motivation to evaluate personal priorities or values (Robbins, 1976).

There is significant evidence that outdoor wilderness programs are effective with adolescent and young adult participants. This age group constitutes the majority of the subjects reported in the literature. The wilderness experience takes adolescents from their everyday social environment and places them in a wilderness setting where they can test their own newly acquired adaptive and coping skills against nature. The students learn that they can make decisions, exert personal power and determination, and enjoy the support of other adolescents within the small groups who are facing the same challenges.

Recommenentions

Much of the research suggests the effectiveness of wilderness programs as a therapeutic tool in changing the behavior and attitude in young adults. Little research has been completed to identify and isolate the components of the programs that have the highest degree of measurable impact on the student. More research needs to be done to determine which aspects of the wilderness environment are the keys to this success. A particular important issue is whether the leadership or skills taught can be duplicated in a traditional therapeutic setting with the same measurable effectiveness. What effect a traditional therapy component combined with the wilderness program would have, both immediately and over a period of time, in reducing the recidivism rates is also a critically important issue meriting further investigation.

References

Barcus, C.G., & Bergeson, R.G. (1972). Survival training and mental health: Review. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 6, 3-7.

Berman, D.S., & Anton, M.T. (1988, Spring). A wilderness therapy program as an alternative to adolescent psychiatric hospitalization. Residential Treatment for Children & Youth, 5(3), 41-53.

Carter, E.A., & McGoldrick, M. (1980). The family life cycle: A framework for family therapy. New York: Gardner Press.

Casey, J. (1978, Fall). Winter survival. New Times, 2(20), 41.

Cave, S.R. (1979). Evaluation of level of stress and group cohesiveness in the wilderness experience using the MMPI and sociograms. (Doctoral dissertation, The University of New Mexico, 1979). Dissertation Abstracts International, 40, 3918B.

Cloward, D. (1989, November). (Personal interview, Vice President, The Achievement Foundation Inc., Orem, Utah.)

Craig, C.W., Seggar, J.A., & Staley, J.S. (1974). The sociology semester: Clasp, a year of experience in undergraduate innovative learning. Paper presented to the Innovative Methods Teaching Sociology, Pacific Sociological Association, San Jose, California.

Greentree, I.S. (1977). Wilderness challenge training: The impact of programmed environmental adversity upon adult self-actualization and interpersonal behavior. (Doctoral dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1977). Dissertation Abstracts International, 39, 380B.

Kaplan, R. (1974). Some psychological benefits of an outdoor challenge program. Environment and Behavior, 6, 101-116.

Leroy, E. (1983, Spring). Adventure and Education. Journal of Experiential Education. 6(1), 18-22.

Mason, M.J. (Spring-Summer 1987). Wilderness family therapy: Experimental dimensions. Contemporary Family Therapy, 9, 91-92.

Olsen, L.D. (1972). Outdoor survival skills, Provo, Utah: Brigham Young University Press.

Olson, L. (June 30, 1971). Primitive life puts zest into marriage. Salt Lake City, Utah: Desert News.

Purde, R.R., & Warder, D.S. (1981). Environmental education and attitude change. Journal of Environmental Education, 12, 25-28.

Reid, W.H., & Matthews, W. M. (1980). A wilderness experience treatment program for antisocial offenders. International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology, 24, 171-178.

Robbins, S.K. (1976). Outdoor wilderness survival and its psychological and sociological effects upon students in changing human behavior. (Doctoral dissertations, Brigham Young University, 1976). Dissertation Abstracts International, 37, 1437A.

Stimpson, D.V., & Pederson, D.M. (1970). Effect of a survival training experience upon evaluation of self and others for underachieving high school students. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 31, 337-338.

Tapply, R.M. (1977, June). High adventure: Confronting the essentials. Parks and Recreation, 12, 26-80.

Thorstenson, C.T., & Heaps, R.A. (1973). Outdoor survival and its implications for rehabilitation. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 7, 31-33

Thorstenson, C.T. Heaps, R.A., & Snow, R. (1975). Effect of a 29-day wilderness survival experience on anxiety and hearing sensitivity. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 9, 117-120.

Wells, L.J. (1985). Expedition outreach: A guide to wilderness therapy. Idaho; Wells.

Wichmann, T. (1983, Winter). Evaluation outward bound for delinquent youth. Journal of Experiential Education, 5(3), 10-16.

Zimmerman, R. (1972, October). A proposal for expansion of an outdoor self-discovery program designed for youth, youth leaders, and adults. Paper presented to Board of Trustees, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah.

APPLYING NEEDS ASSESSMENT IN PUBLIC RECREATION

Robert K. Antozzi
Fredricksburg Parks and Recreation, Virginia

William F. Higelmire
Eastern Illinois University, Charleston

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to discuss the development of a model community needs assessment tool for leisure service agencies. Community Recreation Needs Assessment (CRNA) is seen as a process for assessing and prioritizing the leisure needs of a community and its publics. The CRNA process should include several publics: residents and participants, agency clientele, community organizations, special interest groups, and government publics. The two major foci of the paper are the arguments for the utilization of a needs assessment and the discussion on needs assessment methodology.

Introduction

Public recreation and leisure services agencies exist to provide services which are commensurate with the leisure needs of their communities. Leisure need, however, can only be satisfied by the provision of appropriate leisure services. This need, which is described as the discrepancy between the "leisure services that ARE actually being provided to the community and services that SHOULD be provided to the community" (Antozzi, 1981, p. 17) is determined by a process termed needs assessment.

A needs assessment process which is applied to public recreation has distinctive properties and an application which will achieve the desired data exemplifying total community need. Community Recreation Needs Assessment (CRNA) is, conceptually, seen as being an inductive and product oriented process for assessing and prioritizing the leisure needs of the total leisure service community and its component publics. The component publics which should be, but all of which are not normally assessed in this process are: (a) community residents and program participants, (b) community agency clientele which may include school children, institutions which serve the individual with a disability, senior citizen organizations, and etc; (c) community organizations such as women's club, the boy scouts, and etc.; (d) special interest groups which are not identified above, and (e) government publics to include the recreation commission or advisory council, city or county board, and the perspective of the leisure service staff (Antozzi, 1986). The involvement of the above components in CRNA will be provided in a later section. Ideally, the CRNA process would involve the cooperation and interaction of competitive agencies to eliminate redundancy and inefficiency, and would specifically follow the parameters of the leisure service agency's purpose.

Community recreation needs assessment is seen as a major element in leisure service planning where it is used to provide the agency with the information it needs to formulate its direction. It can be adduced that this direction information, with consideration for both current and anticipated need, is the discrepancy between that which is being provided and that which should be provided, hence, leisure need (Antozzi, 1981). In addition to specifying the direction the leisure service agency should follow in providing services to its constituency, needs assessment offers accountability to the agency for allocation of its resources and facilities and provides for an improved communication link between the agency and its constituency. The needs assessment process culminates with prioritization of the achieved need data whereby the planning process continues with their translation into agency goals and objectives (Nogradi, 1980), which may be pursued by one of more management procedures. However, these data are subsequently analyzed in relation to agency purpose, present and future service provision, current and potential agency resources, and the professional judgment of the agency managers (Antozzi, 1986).

Need For a Needs Assessment Model

Needs assessment is a very complicated and involved process. Because it is so complex, needs assessment is often a neglected element of leisure service planning (Nogradi, 1980). The leisure service profession is often characterized as having a "lack of determination of user behavior, needs and interests, and a set of objectives that better accommodate the needs of the suppliers than the users (Nogradi, 1980, p. 30)." In fact, Nogradi (1980) and Southland (1979) both express concern over the actual extent to which needs assessment is actually carried out.

One argument which supports the need for a needs assessment model is that most of the needs assessment practices of leisure service agencies do not consider the individual growth needs, and do not incorporate perspectives that account for the differences in population groups (Murphy, 1977). Conversely, many current needs assessment methods involve the mere development of a wish list, a list of complaints, or a list of problems (Shapek, 1975). Additionally, Kraus and Curtis (1977) relate that the criteria for recreation and park facility planning advocated by a number of city planners is merely an expression of social need, and that this should be but one of the factors used to analyze the achieved need data for current and future leisure need.

Other examples of poor need assessment practices advocate methods that inadequately surmise the "real" leisure needs of the constituency. Recreation need is often determined via: (a) political procedures whereby decisions are determined through the interaction among government leaders, organized special interest groups, practicing professionals and, on occasion, the public, (b) the budget process whereby the analysis of projected operating budgets is also used as a surrogate for demand on the assumption that legislatures respond to the demands of their constituencies, (c) the analysis of participation rates whereby participation rates are used for establishing demand and, combined with an inventory of present supply the unfulfilled need is estimated, (d) the use of standards whereby estimated standards are used in identifying inadequacies in the supply of recreation opportunity and (e) surveys whereby questionnaires of the local population are used to provide empirical data that give the planner or decision maker a picture of what people do, would like to do, how they feel and what they want (Antozzi, 1981).

The political process falls short of suppressed, unorganized and reticent individuals, those not attentive to recreation due to leisure services not being commensurate with their needs and interests, and those whose leisure opportunities are minimized for various reasons. An overtone of the political process, as described here places a high premium on those who have a strong or influencing voice. The budget process as an assessment of community recreation need is based, at best, on limited and special interest feedback.

The analysis of participation rates should be used as a reference tool when assessing leisure needs, and only AFTER need determination and prioritization have taken place. The use of standards contains as its premise the equitable allocation of resources to all communities. Users of this method assume that all communities have the same personality, population components, behaviors and needs, and preempted the need for community expression. The survey, however, is the foundation of the most cogent needs assessment procedures, but standing alone it can do no more than provide initial data from survey respondents, the data of which is not representative of the total community and is based on survey interpretation.

Needs assessment packages most often demonstrate an unorganized, haphazard, and unscientific application of needs assessment methods. Murphy (1977) concurs by stating, "it is increasingly apparent a sensitive instrument and a rationale basis must be developed which will provide for the allocation of resources to meet the variances in need condition across sub-units and respond to the plurality of life styles representative of contemporary American community life" (p.70).

As a second and final argument for the development of a needs assessment framework, no community recreation needs assessment model has been found to exist, and it is evident that the assessment tools currently available to the recreation profession are severely limited. The development of a CRNA framework, therefore, is the precursor to the development of a model.

Framework Components

A study was undertaken in the state of Virginia to determine the enabling and restraining forces of CRNA. The data collection phase consisted of a review of literature, in depth interviews, a postcard questionnaire, and a mailed survey (Antozzi, 1981). Data interpretation analyzed: (a) Leisure service agency attitudes toward CRNA, (b) the extent to which respondents consider specific variables to be necessary components of the community recreation needs assessment process, (c) the extent to which respondents consider specific variables not to be necessary components of the community recreation needs assessment process, (d) the extent to which the size of the respondent's community affect the values placed on various components of the community recreation needs assessment process, and (e) the extent to which the various components of the community recreation needs assessment are seen as appropriate or inappropriate to the needs assessment process (Antozzi, 1986).

A synthesis of the above data suggests a mechanism for implementing a CRNA. Of 92 identified enabling and restraining variables, 70 were found to have ratings significantly greater than neutral or significantly important. None were found to be significantly unimportant (Antozzi, 1981). These variables were organized into concepts, constructs and item variables which, when assembled, outline a framework for a needs assessment process. However, for the purposes and brevity of this paper, they were collapsed to their respective construct.

A Needs Assessment Framework

Three needs assessments have been undertaken utilizing the components of the framework addressed in the previous section: (a) 1984 in Black Mountain, North Carolina, (b) 1987 in Fredericksburg, Virginia, and (c) 1989 in Charleston, Illinois. The demonstration and success of these three needs assessment applications provide the basis for the espousal of the following needs assessment framework. Those areas NOT found to be significantly important in the aforementioned analysis are preceded by an asterisk.

CONCEPT A.: The conditions must be right for the leisure service agency to undertake a CRNA.

CONSTRUCT A.1.: The agency must have faith in the needs assessment process. In order for the leisure service agency to have faith in the process, and therefore undertake a CRNA, it must contain a format such that the results will be usable and appropriate to the needs of the agency staff. The staff must be able to use the data for planning purposes, short or long range.

CONCEPT B.: The conditions must be right to maximize the chances for completion of the data collection process.

CONSTRUCT B.1.: The agency must have enough grasp of the needs assessment process to establish a CRNA administrative concept to include: (a) needs assessment as part of the community planning process in order for it to be seen as cogent and the results effectively use, (b) maintaining total control of the process and the data, and if not contracted out, and (c) the use of an outside agency to be contracted to administer the needs assessment, where it may or may not be necessary for the contracted agency to have complete control of the process and the data.

CONSTRUCT B.2.: The needs assessment process will have a much better chance of achieving the desired results if fiscal responsibilities are enacted such as: (a) planning far enough in advance to be established as a fiscal priority with the local government, (b) establishing a detailed CRNA budget, and (c) ensuring a cost effective process.

CONSTRUCT B.3: The development of a community and staff involvement policy is necessary for the very specific delineation and specificity of the duties and expectations of all the major participants involved in the process. This will enhance the support mechanism, belief in the process, and efficacy of the process it should: (a) be presented to the involved publics before planning, (b) be written in specific and clear terms, (c) must state the purpose, need and utility of CRNA; (d) must specify the degree and extent of participant involvements, and (e) must specify the rights and responsibilities of those involved.

CONSTRUCT B.4: A community involvement strategy must be developed to detail the how and when to process participants. The publics who may be affected by the results of the needs assessment should be involved at pre-planning times during the process. Early in the process, it may be best to achieve specific feedback from low income areas, special population, etc. so as to develop the basic outcome concepts. Later in the process if a pool is determined to be included in the product, for example, it may be wise to include special interest groups associated with swimming during the concept refinement stage of the process. The involved publics should have more than one opportunity to express their attitudes and opinions. These opportunities could be offered in a variety of ways, e.g., surveys, forums, community meetings, sub-committees by invitation, radio talk show feedback, etc. A timetable of events should be developed very early in the process which is very visible to the community and which is flexible enough to be responsive to the affected publics. Effort should be made to maximize the involvement of appropriate groups. Forethought should be made concerning the value systems of the involved publics. A great deal of thought must go into the development of an atmosphere which encourages citizens to act freely and candidly. It is of paramount importance that the process facilitators are receptive to all input and information. The nonacceptance of any input presents an atmosphere of a predetermined outcome.

CONSTRUCT B.5: Communications with the involved publics must take place on a regular basis during the needs assessment, must be meaningful, and must be accurate. Effective information dispersal methods must be developed. A combination of public service announcements and paid advertising of all forms of local media provides the best results. Verification surveys sent post hoc to the involved publics will assist in the review of the accuracy of decisions and findings. Proposed final decisions or actions and how they will affect the public must be thoroughly reported to the public in anticipation of additional responses for which adjustments may need to be made. Final decisions should be reported with appropriate publicity.

CONSTRUCT B 6: Previous use of education and training in CRNA has been found to be of significant benefit in several areas (Antozzi, 1981). Education and training in CRNA may be helpful for all who become involved. The education of the affected public in CRNA not only increases their knowledge of the subject, but also provides the basis for increased interest, support, and eventual involvement by many who would not otherwise have been involved. This educational process must begin with the initiation of the process and continue throughout the process. Brief descriptions of that which is being done should be included with each mailout and media announcement. It is paramount that local regulations governing the application of this process be reviewed to eliminate any potential problems and to adhere to any legislation regulating a part or all of the process.

CONSTRUCT B.7: Involvement of the agency staff in the needs assessment process has the potential for both positive and negative impact. Agency staff members should play an important role in the organization and strategy of the needs assessment process. This will provide positive staff outcomes once the process is complete, and a very dedicated and involved staff during the process, thus facilitating a better product. Staff support for, and commitment to, the CRNA process is vital to the facilitation of the process and commitment to the outcomes. Involvement in the process is the surest method, if the CRNA is carried out by the local agency. If the CRNA is contracted, education in the process and involvement at appropriate times during the process will usually suffice. It is extremely important to insure, through education, training and supervision, that the agency staff does not bias the process or the data. Periodic staff meetings should be held to reinforce the need to allow the process to proceed naturally and the need for the staff to remain aloof from the involved publics perspective and information delivery. It is also vital that the data are reported accurately and without staff influence.

CONSTRUCT B.8: The CRNA process involves a variety of competencies, contacts with outside agencies and organizations, and a variety of ways to use the media. During the organization of the CRNA process, the process manager and staff should determine the various competencies needed for it to be effective. Most skills can be secured in house, however, agencies may wish outside assistance in some areas. If the CRNA is to occur on a regular basis, a CRNA resource file may be initiated for future references. The media sources which are appropriate for the needs assessment process should be identified prior to the initiation of the process. Almost all forms of media will be applicable and many will contribute to the process at no cost to the locality.

CONCEPT C.: Conditions which improve the chances for increased accuracy of the results should be emphasized.

CONSTRUCT C.1.: The data produced by the CRNA snould be both reliable and valid. For this to be assured, data should be gathered from representative populations and the final results supported by empirical data.

CONSTRUCT C.2.: Cogent survey procedures must be insured. Survey instruments must contain credible and valid procedures, and address the needs of the affected publics.

CONCEPT D.: The conditions which should be avoided in order to enhance the chances of a CRNA to be initiated may be considered.

* CONSTRUCT D.1: The leisure service agency and its staff often have fears of the needs assessment process. If fears that its operation will be reviewed and scrutinized as a result of the process. It is often concerned that the involvement of the citizenry will result in a loss of agency power in agency management and decision making. Agencies often feel that the results of a needs assessment will demonstrate ineffectiveness on the part of the agency.

CONSTRUCT D.2: Needs assessment, for one reason or another, is sometimes considered a low priority by the leisure service agency. Agencies often find that they have, or think they have, insufficient experience with, knowledge in, or administrative and management skills for the needs assessment process. They have been found to have insufficient manpower, funding, time and other resources for the needs assessment. Agencies may feel that a needs assessment is not a priority.

* STRUCT D.3: Leisure service agencies may have a negative attitude about needs assessment. The agency may be one which resists change as a means of maintaining that current role of the agency staff. A leisure service agency may also believe that needs assessment is something which is done by specially trained consultants.

CONCEPT E.1.: The conditions to be avoided in order to enhance the chances for the completion of the data collection process may be considered.

* CONSTRUCT E.1: Needs assessment may be a low agency priority due to inadequate agency

leadership in the needs assessment effort, a disassociation of needs assessment from the rest of the planning process, a lack of sufficient education/training resources for the staff and the general public, and/or a lack of sufficient education/training emphases for the staff or public in CRNA.

CONSTRUCT E.2.: Poor management techniques can affect the data collection process and the chances for its completion. They may facilitate unclear roles of the involved public, a broad citizen participation policy, administrative and management problems during the needs assessment process. Another problem which adds to this condition is a needs assessment process which is much too long.

CONSTRUCT E.3.: Inappropriate use of the CRNA process can affect the data collection process and the chances for its completion. This may contribute to the circumvention of the public's need in the process, and having elected officials imposing their demands on the process. Another situation which may contribute to this problem is the illegitimate/subversive use of the CRNA process in order to legitimize a hidden agenda.

CONSTRUCT E.4.: Inappropriate community interactions during the CRNA process can affect the data collection process and the chances for its completion. This may cause: (a) a lack of inadequate coordination with other community agencies, (b) the needs assessment process being unresponsible to the needs of the public, (c) insufficient information given to the involved publics on which to provide meaningful feedback, (d) inadequate dissemination of results to the involved publics, and (e) an unsatisfactory level of public involvement. Other contributing conditions which may be considered are the pressure of decision making, and the concern of failure by involved publics.

CONCEPT F.: The conditions to be avoided in order to enhance the chances of using the collected data.

* CONSTRUCT F.1.: Need assessment results may be a low agency priority due in inadequate agency leadership in CRNA, and/or the fact that

the needs assessment process had become disassociated with the essential steps of the planning process.

CONSTRUCT F.2.: Poor management techniques of the CRNA process may cause it to become must too long, or it may allow the data to become distorted by persons who intend to distort the data.

CONSTRUCT F.3.: Inappropriate political influences may cause the data to become invalid because of its impact on the process. The influences may be characterized by: elected officials imposing demands on the CRNA process, and political considerations taking precedence over the CRNA results.

CONCEPT G.: The conditions of suppression of community interaction, or demotivation, which should be avoided in order to enhance the chances of completion of the CRNA process.

CONSTRUCT G.1: The Leisure service agency must insure that the interaction of the CRNA process with the community do not involve: (a) significant delays in the interaction between various involved publics, (b) poor environments for group interaction, (c) poor preparation of group meetings, and (d) poor presentation of group meetings.

CONSTRUCT G.2.: The leisure service agency must insure that presentation of information to the involved public does not involve: (a) inappropriate task goals in group interaction sessions, (b) the presentation of information to audiences in a manner to which they are not responsive, and (c) the overuse of technical jargon.

CONSTRUCT G.3.: The leisure service agency administration of the CRNA process will have difficulty completing the process if agency leadership problems develop, or if a low motivation of agency staff is perceived to exist.

CONSTRUCT G.4.: The completion of the CRNA process will be affected by inappropriate agency behavior to include: (a) perceived use of ulterior motives by CRNA managers, and (b) perceived use of stalling tactics by CRNA managers.

* Additionally, the process may be affected by professionals assuming a distance from the involved publics.

CONSTRUCT G.5.: The completion of the CRNA process will be affected by: (a) low participation by the affected publics, (b) dominance by specific individuals or groups, (c) unresolved conflicts among involved publics, and (d) clique formation within community groups.

CONCEPT H.: The conditions of suppression of community interaction, or demotivation, which should be avoided in order to enhance the chances of using the collected data.

* CONSTRUCT H.1.: The conditions of poor agency administration which may affect the use of the collected data are: agency leadership problems and a perceived low motivation of agency staff.

* CONSTRUCT H.2.: The conditions of inappropriate agency behavior which may affect the use of the collected data are: (a) the perceived use of stalling tactics by needs assessment managers, (b) and the perceived use of ulterior motives by CRNA managers.

CONCEPT I.: The condition of a lack of community interest or involvement in the CRNA process which should be overcome in order to enhance the chances of completing the CRNA process.

CONSTRUCT I.1.: Skepticism toward the establishment will hinder the chances of completing the needs assessment process. The conditions which will reduce the chances of completing the CRNA process are: (a) a low meaning or understanding of the CRNA process, and (b) a lack of understanding of the issues.

CONCEPT J.: The conditions to avoid in order to enhance the chances of producing accurate needs assessment results.

CONSTRUCT J.1: The production of accurate needs assessment results will be affected by unsound CRNA process methodology and data analysis practices such as: (a) inappropriate needs assessment process steps, (b) inaccurate CRNA questions or methods in collecting need data, (c) inadequate validation or precision of need data, and (d) unsound methods of weighing and prioritizing need data.

CONSTRUCT J.2: The production of accurate needs assessment results will be affected by nonattention to current changes in community variables such as current changes in population size and composition.

* Additionally, nonattention to current changes in laws and regulations may reduce the chances of producing accurate needs assessment results.

Summary

The determination of community leisure need by the leisure service agency is defined as the process of needs assessment. It is described as the discrepancy between actual services provided and services which should be provided (Antozzi, 1981). CRNA is an inductive and product oriented process. The five component publics that should be assessed in the needs assessment process are: (a) residents and participants, (b) agency clientele, (c) community organizations, (d) other special interest groups, and (e) government publics.

Needs assessment is seen as a major element in leisure service planning and provides the leisure service agency with an accountability tool as well as a link with its constituency. The needs assessment information should consider both the current and anticipated leisure needs of the community. Once needs assessment information is achieved, it is prioritized. However the planning process continues with the translation of the need data into agency goals and objectives, to which administrators would apply appropriate management mechanisms.

An adequate needs assessment methodology is a neglected part of the leisure service planning process. When needs assessment is undertaken, the results often resemble a list of complaints or wishers. Poor examples of needs assessment practices which profess to achieve real need are: (a) political procedures, (b) budgetary analysis, (c) analysis of participation rates, (d) the use of standards, and (e) surveys.

Needs assessment procedures are seen as often being unorganized and grossly unscientific. The need for a rational and cogent needs assessment framework has become very apparent since current assessment tools are severely limited and neither a framework or model has not been found to exist. A needs assessment framework would be the first step in the development of a suitable needs assessment framework.

An extensive study was undertaken by Antozzi in 1986 to achieve the data necessary for the development of a potential framework. The results provided 92 enabling and restraining variables organized in concepts, constructs, and items which, when assembled, provide a needs assessment framework which specifies that which is necessary to accomplish a valid needs assessment procedure. A needs assessment framework based on the application of three needs assessments in recent years was provided to the reader. Areas of the framework which are seen as less important to the needs assessment procedure are identified as such.

References

Antozzi, R.K. (1981). An Examination of the Enabling and Restraining Forces in Community Recreation Needs Assessment. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Virginia Tech, Virginia.

Kraus, R.G., & Curtis, J.E. (1977). Creative administration in recreation and parks. Saint Louis: C.V. Mosby.

Murphy, J.F., & Howard, D.R. (1977). Delivery of community leisure services: An holistic approach. Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger.

Nogradi, G.S. (1980). Need assessment in selected municipal recreation departments. Recreation Research Review, 9(6), 29-35.

Shapek, R.A. (1975). Problems and deficiencies in the needs assessment process. Public Administration Review, 35, 754-758.

Southland, M. (1979). The development of guidelines for the improvement of the utility of needs assessment results. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Florida State University, Florida.

COMPETENCIES FOR COLLEGE ATHLETIC DIRECTORS AS VIEWED BY ATHLETIC DIRECTORS AND EDUCATORS

Sandra Hupp
Deb Endersbe
Washington State University

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to compare the perceived importance of management competencies for college athletic directors as viewed by selected athletic directors and educators teaching in graduate athletic administration programs. The subjects for the study consisted of 88 NCAA Division II and III

collegiate athletic directors and 52 educators. The "Administrative Competencies in Physical Education and Athletics" (Paris & Zeigler, 1983) was used to rate the importance of 50 administrative competencies that form seven competency dimensions: Planner, Fiscal Officer, Communicator, Resource Developer, Educator, Evaluator, and Leader.

Findings suggested that the collegiate athletic directors and college educators have a similar view of the importance of six of the seven competency dimensions including Fiscal Officer, Communicator, Resource Developer, Educator, Evaluator, and Leader. Athletic directors and educators did differ on the Planner compe ency. Athletic directors rated this dimension significantly lower in importance than the educators.

Introduction

Job competency of athletic directors is of importance to college and university administrators. It is also important for college educators to have knowledge of competencies necessary for athletic directors as they prepare students to fill these positions. A field is not considered to have professional status without explicit statements concerning what constitutes competency in that field and how competencies may be obtained and assessed (McCleary, 1973). In building college curricula for graduate programs in athletic administration, competency areas in athletic administration should be identified and fully understood. Quain (1984) suggested that academe and the sporting industry should work together in identification of needs and job responsibilities of athletic administrators.

Knowledge of competencies athletic directors perceive as important could benefit college educators preparing course materials for students who enroll in graduate athletic administration programs. The knowledge of these competencies could help directors, educators, and students present a more united front when discussing athletic director competencies. It is important to know if those currently engaged in athletic administration, and those preparing students for such professional positions have the same or similar views of the importance of various competencies deemed necessary for people in athletic director positions.

Review of Literature

A review of graduate athletic administration programs in college catalogs (Bowling Green University, Temple University, Ohio University, University of Massachusetts, and others) reveals that often athletic administration programs are referred to as sport management programs. Usually similar or the same core course work is required by all candidates in the athletic administration and sport management programs.

For the purposes of this study brochures and college catalogs for three graduate athletic administration/sport management programs were reviewed --- University of Massachusetts, St. Thomas University, and Ohio University. Information about these successful athletic administration/sport management programs was reviewed. All three programs stress the importance of an internship experience. The program at the University of Massachusetts in Amherst has a strong business orientation. The graduate program is based on the belief that practical experience is useful in this profession and should be used in conjunction with practitioners from the business sector (Hicks, 1985). The sport administration program at St. Thomas University includes a curriculum designed to blend management and sports business to meet the challenges of the world of sports (Kreutzer, 1985). The program at Ohio University offers three plans or options to complete work for a master's degree. The student and advisor determine the course of study to meet individual student needs and interests.

Information on job responsibilities and essential characteristics of intercollegiate athletic directors was studied by Williams and Miller (1983). The sample of athletic directors included 163 men and 157 women college athletic directors. Results of the study indicated that job responsibilities were significantly different when compared by competitive level (college athletic division). No differences existed when compared by gender. The highest ratings for essential graduate course work included communication skills, business related skills, and public relations. After these, knowledge and skills unique to athletic administration rated next highest.

The practitioners, 165 people in sport management and sport directing, in the Quain and Parks study were asked to rank order their choices for curriculum content from a list of 50 possible study areas. The results indicated the top ten choices were: management, public relations, marketing, budgeting, interpersonal communications, athletic administration, sales communication, computer literacy, and accounting. According to Parks and Quain (1986), the acquisition of competencies utilized in positions of sport management today are of great use to the student in preparing for jobs in the field of sport. This does not mean curriculum should be determined by practitioners; however, their input should be an asset in the development of college curriculum. Jamieson (1980) stated, "... it is the identification of this knowledge that is imperative in order to provide the means to educate those who elect to become professionals in a chosen field."

According to Zeigler and Bowie (1983), there are numerous skills that the effective manager should develop such as budgeting, accounting, and interpersonal interaction. Many of these skills, however, may be acquired only through unique experiences provided in a work situation. Zeigler modified Katz's (1974) classical categoeies of skills to form these categories: personal skills, human skills, technical skills, conceptual skills, and conjoined skills.

The instrument Paris and Zeigler (1983) used in their study included 51 competencies divided into seven dimensions:

Planner, Evaluator, Educator, Fiscal Officer, Leader, Resource Developer, and Communicator. Five to ten questions were included in each dimension of the "Administrative Competencies in Education and the Allied Health Professions." The response choices, Likert scale in nature, ranged from essential to non-essential. Paris later adapted this questionnaire and provided information to establish it as a valid and reliable instrument.

In an attempt to determine the types of skills considered important by administrators in sport management positions, Quain and Parks (1986) conducted research with practitioners about eight subjectively determined competencies including: writing, personnel management, public speaking, time management, money management, human relations, personal fitness, and knowledge of sports. Results of the study suggested a profile of the administrator with responsibilities for budgeting, personnel and ultimately the organization's productivity.

Method

The purpose of this study was to compare the perceived importance of management competencies of college athletic directors as viewed by selected athletic directors and by educators teaching in graduate athletic administrative programs.

A random sample of 200 athletic directors in four year institutions of higher education in Divisions II and III of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) was selected from the NCAA Directory. Limiting responses to those athletic directors in those two divisions provided control for differences in the operations of large (Division I) universities.

Educators were identified from all schools listed by the National Association of Sport and Physical Education (NASPE) as offering graduate programs in athletic administratrion/sport management and the 1982 Directory of Graduate Physical Education Programs. The total population of 60 was included in the study.

Questionnaires were mailed directly to the 200 athletic directors. The head of each of the 60 departments of the graduate athletic administration programs was mailed a letter with two questionnaires and asked that two graduate faculty who teach in the graduate athletic administration program respond and return the questionnaire. Questionnaires were all mailed within three days of each other, follow-up post cards were mailed two weeks after questionnaires were distributed, and all respondents were to return the completed questionnaire by a specific date. Responses were received from 88 athletic administrators (44%) and from 52 of a possible 120 graduate faculty (43%).

The Administrative Competencies in Physical Education and Athletics Survey (Paris & Zeigler, 1983) was used to assess the importance of various competencies in athletic administration. This instrument was validated and also found to be reliable. Alpha reliability coefficients for the seven competency dimensions ranged from .75 to .94. In the survey instrument, information on athletic administration competencies is determined by 50 competency statements grouped into seven competency dimensions including: Planner, Fiscal Officer, Communicator, Resource Developer, Educator, Evaluator, and Leader. Each competency dimension has between five and ten questions. Respondents rate each statement using a five point Likert scale with the choices: essential, highly important, important, minimally important, and non-essential. Demographic information was collected on the following: NCAA Division, gender, years in present position, college experience, secondary experience, administrative experience, and formal education preparation.

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the respondents in this study. Analysis of variance was employed to determine if differences existed between the directors and educators on perceived importance of seven competency dimensions.

Results

Demographic questions were directed toward determining the experience and professional preparation of those currently working and teaching in the athletic administration area. One question asked the NCAA athletic division of the respondent's institution. The majority (67%) of the athletic directors were with Division III colleges. The majority of educators (87%) were employed in NCAA Division I schools. Eleven (13%) of the athletic directors and 13 (25%) of the graduate faculty were women.

Questions 2 through 5 asked the number of years in present position, total number of years as an athletic director or educator at the college level, experience at the secondary level, and number of years of administr tive expereience. (See Table 1.) The findings indicated that 54 of the athletic directors (61%) had 10 years or less experience in their present postion. Only 21% (18) of the athletic directors had been in their current positions for more than 15 years. There were 32 (62%) of the college educators who had been in their current position for 10 years or less and 15 (29%) who had over 15 years of experience in their present position. It is interesting to note that only 30% of the athletic directors reported five years or less college athletic administration experience and only 29% of the educators reported five years or less experience teaching in a graduate athletic administration/sport management program.

Another question dealt with the educational preparation of the respondents. Responses were limited to bachelor, master, and doctorate degrees. Specialization areas included physical education, athletic administration, administration, and other. (See Table 2.) The administration category included such responses as administration, recreation administration, business administration, school administration, college administration, and management. The number of responses given for each degree differ from the number of respondents because not all

Table 1

Job Experience of Athletic Directors and Educators

Years of Experience	Current Job No.	Current Job %	College Exper. No.	College Exper. %	Second. Exper. No.	Second. Exper. %	Admin. Exper. No.	Admin. Exper. %
Athletic Dir.	(n=88)							
1 - 5	29	33	26	30	23	26	12	13.5
6 -10	25	28	28	32	16	18	19	21.5
11 -15	15	17	14	16	5	6	12	13.5
16 -20	7	8	8	9	2	2	4	4.5
21 -25	5	6	3	3	2	2	1	1
Above 25	6	7	6	7	2	2	5	6
Omitted	1	1	3	3	38	43	35	40
Educators	(n=52)							
1 - 5	13	25	15	29	21	40	7	14
6 -10	19	36.5	12	23	5	10	12	23
11 -15	5	10	11	21	5	10	10	19
16 -20	6	11.5	6	11.5	3	5.5	9	17
21 -25	6	11.5	3	5.5	1	2	10	19
Above 25	3	5.5	1	2	0	0	1	2
Omitted	0	0	4	8	17	32.5	3	6

Table 2

Educational Degree and Specialization Area for Athletic Directors and Graduate Faculty

Specialization	Degree					
	BA		MS		PHD	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Physical Ed.						
Administrtors (n=88)	44	50	31	35	6	7
Educators (n=52)	29	56	24	46	18	35
Total (n=140)	73	52	55	39	24	17
Athletic Admin.						
Administrators	0	0	6	7	1	1
Educators	0	0	3	6	7	13
Total	0	0	9	6	8	6
Administration						
Administrators	2	2	11	12	9	10
Educators	0	0	3	6	13	25
Total	2	1	14	10	22	16
Other						
Administrators	21	23	21	24	8	9
Educators	5	10	3	6	9	17
Total	26	19	24	17	17	12

respondents listed each degree received. Some respondents listed only one degree; bachelor degree, master degree, or doctorate degree, while others omitted the question. Respondents indicated 42 different specializations for college study.

A bachelor degree in physical education was reported by 44 (50%) of the athletic directors, and by 29 (56%) of the educators. In addition, there were 69 (78%) of the athletic directors with a master's degree, 31 (35%) in physical education, six (7%) with a degree in athletic administration, 11 (12%) with a degree in another administrative area, and 21 (24%) with degrees in other areas. A doctorate degree was reported by 47 (90%) of the educators and 24 (28%) of the athletic directors. From a total sample of 140 only 17 (12%) respondents reported having a master or doctorate in athletic administration.

A summary of the mean scores for each competency dimension for the athletic directors and the educators is shown in Table 3. The scale choices and numerical values were as follows: (1) Essential, (2) Highly Important, (3) Important, (4) Minimal Importance, and (5) Non-essential. The range of scores was between 1.3 and 2.7 indicating that, as a group, the respondents viewed all competencies as essential or highly important. Both groups agreed that the dimensions of Resource Developer, Communicator, Evaluator, and Educator were the four lowest in importance with the Evaluator and Educator competency dimensions

Table 3

Comparison of Athletic Director Competencies

Dimension	Means * AD	ED	F	p
Fiscal Officer	1.7	1.6	1.84	.177
Leader	1.7	1.7	0.52	.471
Planner	2.1	1.3	10.06	.001**
Resource Developer	2.2	2.1	3.21	.075
Communicator	2.2	2.1	1.54	.217
Evaluator	2.2	2.2	0.52	.474
Educator	2.5	2.7	2.79	.097

* Scale scores: 1=essential to 5=non-essential.

** $p < .05$

being the two least important. Athletic directors viewed competencies in the Leader and Fiscal Officer dimension as the most important while educators viewed the Planner and Fiscal Officer as the most important competency dimensions.

Results of an analysis of variance procedure indicated that the athletic directors and educators seemed to have a similar view on the competency dimensions of Fiscal Officer, Communicator, Resource Developer, Educator, Evaluator, and Leader. (See Table 3.) A Tukey post hoc test indicated the groups differed significantly only on the Planner dimension. The athletic directors rated this dimension significantly lower than the educators.

Disscussion

It appears from this study that athletic directors at NCAA Division II and III institutions and educators teaching in graduate athletic administration/sport management programs agree on the importance of six competency dimensions (Fiscal Officer, Communicator, Resource Developer, Educator, Evaluator, and Leader) for athletic directors, as defined by Paris and Ziegler (1983). Both groups agreed that the Fiscal Officer competency was one of the most essential competencies for athletic administrators and that the Educator dimension was the least important. All competency dimensions were viewed by both groups as either essential or highly important. Athletic directors and educators did differ on the Planner dimension, with the educators rating this dimension significantly higher than the athletic directors surveyed.

According to Mullin (1984), the surveys being undertaken in athletic administration at this time will be critical in the development of graduate curricula. Further, it may be important that educators are aware of the current skills and competencies required for athletic administrative personnel. With the continual grwoth in sport related graduate programs, it is important that professionals in the field and educators preparing students for those professional positions have some means to communicate information about views on job competency.

Perhaps similar studies should be conducted periodically to see if athletic directors and educators continue to agree on the importance of various competencies for athletic directors. Other studies should be conducted, including NCAA Division I athletic directors, to determine if different views on these competencies exist between any of the NCAA athletic director groups and educators. Further research is needed to determine if these identified competencies viewed as essential and highly important for athletic directors are actually being covered in graduate courses. Athletic administrators should be encouraged to communicate with educators concerning their views on competencies necessary for athletic administrators. Additional research is needed to identify if these competencies are the only important competencies required for persons in positions of athletic administration.

References

Hicks, C. (1985). Master of science program in sport management. Department of Sport Studies Handbook University of Massachusetts, 16-23.

Jamieson, L.M. (1980). A competency analysis of recreational sports personnel in selected institutional settings. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.

Katz, R.L. (1974). Skills of an effective administrator. Harvard Business Review, 52, 90-102.

Kreutzer, A.L. (1985). Master of science sports administration. Department of Sports Administration St. Thomas University, brochure.

McCleary, L. (1973). Competency-based educational administration and applications to related fields. (ERIC) Documentation Reproduction Service No. ED 0‾7 136).

Mullim, B.J. (1984). A graduate curriculum in sport management: Considerations before taking the big plunge! In B.K. Zanger & J.B. Parks (Eds.), Sport management curricula: The business and education nexus. Bowling Green, OH: Bowling Green University.

Paris, R.H. & Zeigler, E. F. (1983) Management competency as viewed by selected educational administrators in Ontario sport and physical education. Canadian Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation Journal, 49, 27-30.

Parkhouse, B.J. (1980). Analysis of graduate professional preparation in sport management. Athletic Administration, 11-14.

Parkhouse, B.J. & Ulrich, D.O. (1979). Sport management as a potential cross-discipline: A paradigm for theoretical development, scientific inquiry, and professional application. Quest, 31, 264-276.

Parks, J.R. & Quain, R.J. (1986). Curriculum perspectives. Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance, 57, 18-21.

Quain, R. J. (1984). The REM statement. In B.K. Zanger & J. B. Parks (Eds.), Sport management curricula: The business and education nexus. Bowling Green, OH: Bowling Green University.

Quain, R. J. & Parks, J. B. (1986). Sport management survey: Employment perspectives. Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance, 57, 18-21.

Williams, J. M. & Miller, D. M. (1983). Intercollegiate athletic administration: Preparation patterns. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, 54, 398-406.

Zeigler, E. F. & Bowie, G. W. (Eds.) (1983). Management competency development in sport and physical education. Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger.

ONE-ON-ONE THERAPEUTIC RECREATION ACTIVITIES VERSUS GROUP ACTIVITIES: SHOULD BOTH BE OFFERED?

Jaclyn A. Card
University of Missouri-Columbia

Lee R. Chamberland
Cariboo College
Kamloops, British Columbia

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine the difference of independence in leisure behavior of two small groups of elderly, mentally ill nursing home residents. One group received regularly scheduled recreation group activities. The second group received one-on-one therapeutic recreation activities as well as the group activities. The Comprehensive Leisure F ing Scale (CLEIRS) was used to measure independence in leisure behavior. Some therapeutic recreation specialists assume that one-on-one therapeutic recreation intervention is the most effective method for improving independence in leisure behavior of elderly, mentally ill residents but few

studies exist to support the assumption. In this study, there were no differences in independence in leisure behavior between the two groups. Group activities and one-on-one therapeutic recreation activities did not appear to aid more in increasing the degree of independence in leisure behavior of elderly, mentally ill residents than group activities alone.

Introduction

The goal of all health care professionals should be to aid the client in increasing his or her level of independence. In the therapeutic recreation profession, one goal is for the client to progress to his or her highest achievable level of independence in leisure behavior. In order to achieve that goal, therapeutic recreation professionals must concentrate on components of independence.

Personal control and competence are two important components of independence in leisure behavior (Rogers, 1982). People need to feel as though they have some control over their environment; they need to feel competent in activities in which they participate. If an individual is lacking either competence or control in leisure activities, then the potential for independent leisure behavior is reduced (Rogers, 1982).

Unfortunately, institutionalization often means a loss of personal control and competence (Garrigan, 1986). Competency and control-taking behaviors are often discouraged in nursing homes; instead reinforcement is given to passive, controlled behaviors. Hence, residents develop patterns of behavior consisting of passivity and dependency. Independence may be gained through a process of doing what one wants to do rather than what someone else thinks one should do (Rogers, 1982).

Studies support the positive effects of increases in perception of competence and control on the aging population (Iso-Ahola, 1988). Fidler (1981) suggested that satisfaction with one's self comes from demonstrated masteries and higher levels of life satisfaction. Physical and mental abilities resulting from having a perception of control over one's environment contribute to life satisfaction as well. Studies by Langer and Rodin (1976), Rodin and Langer (1977), Schulz (1976) and Schulz and Hartman Hanusa (1978) indicated that increases in perception of control for nursing home residents led to increases in physical and psychological well-being. MacNeil (1988) noted that increases in leisure satisfaction resulted in increases in life satisfaction and Schulz (1976) stated that the presence of controllable events has a positive effect on the well-being of elderly individuals.

Recreation activities can be used as an effective intervention technique in the treatment of elderly residents (Garrigan, 1986) or mentally ill residents (Vale & Mlott, 1983). If an activity program does not facilitate development of performance competency, then much of its potential benefit and impact is lost (Fidler & Fidler, 1978).

A significant loss of meaning in life for members of the elderly population appears to exist. Therefore, it is important to assess feelings of independence so that those feelings can be addressed in a therapeutic program (Fry, 1986). Assessment of independence in leisure behavior is an important first step to take before implementing a one-on-one or group activities program (Dunn, 1984; Howe, 1984; Szekais, 1986).

Some therapeutic recreation specialists assume that one-on-one activities programs are more effective than group activities in increasing independence in leisure behavior. However, no studies were located to support this assumption. One-on-one intervention is expensive in terms of a therapeutic recreation specialist's time but if one-on-one therapeutic recreation activities do increase independence, the technique should be employed with many elderly, mentally ill residents.

The purpose of this exploratory investigation was to determine the difference of independence in leisure behavior between two small group of elderly, mentally ill residents. The Comprehensive Leisure Rating Scale (CLEIRS) was used to assess degree of independence for both group; the first group of two received one-on-one therapeutic recreation activities as well as regularly scheduled group activities and the second group of two received regularly scheduled group activities only. The study was implemented because some therapeutic recreation specialists assume that one-on-one therapeutic recreation activities are the most effective method of improving independence in leisure behavior but studies do not exist to support that assumption. Research is needed to determine the effect of one-on-one therapeutic recreation activities plus group activities versus group activities alone.

Methods

Subjects

The subjects live in a 100 bed intermediate/skilled care nursing facility. The therapeutic recreation specialist at the nursing home, in conjunction with the researchers, selected residents who were similar in age, years institutionalized, medication, physical and mental ability, and leisure behavior. Based upon the information collected about the residents, the subjects randomly selected for the groups were Frances, Dola, Rhoda, and Arden. Random assignments were also used for group assignment. Frances and Arden were randomly assigned to the first group and Dola and Rhoda were randomly assigned to the second group. The subjects ranged in age from 72 to 81 had lived at this nursing home from three to 15 years and were all finale. All had the primary diagnosis of schizophrenia.

Description of CLEIRS

The Comprehensive Leisure Rating Scale (CLEIRS) was used as the assessment instrument. It is a two part instrument that measures degree of independence in leisure behavior. The first part measures perceived freedom in leisure; the second part measures activity competency.

Four scales are included in CLEIRS. Each scale measures separate parts of a single concept of degree of independence in leisure behavior. The scales are patterned after the following: the concepts of the Leisure Diagnostic Battery Short Form (Witt & Ellis, 1985); and the Brief Leisure Rating Scale (Ellis & Niles, 1985); and activity competency guidelines developed by Navar (1980).

The first scale measures perceived freedom in leisure. There are 28 items on the scale and scores range from 1 (never characteristic of the resident) to 5 (always characteristic of the resident). A higher score indicates a higher degree of perceived freedom in leisure. The second scale measures perceived helplessness in leisure. There are 25 items on the scale utilizing the same scoring range and description as the first scale. A high score indicates a sense of helplessness in leisure.

The third and fourth scales measure activity competency. Specifically, the breadth scale measures the variety of activity competency and the depth scale measures depth of activity competency. The ratings for both scales are from 1 indicating no skill to 5 indicating exceptional skill. There are 12 items for each scale. A resident functioning with a high degree of independence in leisure behavior should score high on the freedom, breadth, and depth scales with a low score on the helplessness scale.

Reliability and validity for CLEIRS were established on 176 nursing home residents in Missouri. Cronbach's alpha ranged from .97 on breadth to .79 on helplessness (Card, Compton, & Ellis, 1986). Validity was reported using factor analysis.

<u>Intervention</u>

The two residents in the first group received one-on-one therapeutic recreation activities provided by the therapeutic recreation specialist. The program was conducted individually two times a week for one hour each session for four weeks. The therapist continued to conduct daily group activities and was able to observe the four residents during the group activities as well as during the one-on-one activities.

CIEIRS was completed by the therapist on each subject two times prior to one-on-one activities, one time after three sessions and then again following six sessions. CIEIRS was then completed two days and 13 days following the last session. Scores were examined to determine if the addition of one-on-one therapeutic recreation activities aided more in increasing the first group's level of independence than the second group's level of independence.

The researchers planned the programs that were used for intervention based upon the residents' care plans. The activities are included in one of the five Project LIFE programming books (Project LIFE is a grant with the major purpose of improving the lives of elderly, mentally ill institutionalized people). The one-on-one activities were the same for both subjects in the first group. Each session opened with exercises followed by two additional activities. The specific one-on-one activities included:

Session 1: Exercises (Card, Dunne, Harris, Hitzhusen, Howard & Jackson, 1986)
Growing Seeds Without Soil (McDermott, Jackson, Dunne, Hitzhusen, & Card, 1988)
Mirrored Movements (Card, Dunne, Hesselink, Hitzhusen, & Jackson, 1987)

Session 2: Exercises (Card et al., 1986)
Making a Bird Feeder (McDermott et al., 1988)
Roots (Beck, Harris, Card, & Howard, 1988)

Session 3: Exercises (Card et at., 1985)

Cruise The News (Beck et al., 1985)

Charleston (Card et al., 1987)

Session 4: Exercises (Card, et al., 1986)

Charades

Hearts (Beck et al., 1985)

Session 5: Exercises (Card et al., 1986)

Rainbows (McDermott et al., 1988)

Charleston (Card et al., 1987)

Session 6: Exercises (Card et al., 1986)

Wind Chime (McDermott et al., 1988)

Hearts (Beck et al., 1985)

Session 7: Exercises (Card et al., 1986)

Critics Corner (Beck et al., 1985)

Charleston (Card et al., 1987)

Session 8: Exercises (Card et al., 1986)

Name That Tune (Card et al., 1987)

Hearts (Beck et al., 1985)

Treatment of Data

The researchers used visual inspection of data to determine differences among the subjects and between the groups. Due to the small sample size, inferential statistics could not be used to interpret the results.

Results

The researchers assumed that independence in leisure behavior would increase more for residents receiving one-on-one therapeutic recreation activities and group activities than for residents participating in group activities only. Improvement would indicate a higher level of independence in leisure behavior for the subjects.

The first subject of the first group, Frances, remained relatively stable on all four scales. Results for the second subject of that group, Arden, indicated an increase on the freedom scale, a decrease on the helplessness scale, a slight increase in breadth scores and an increase in depth scores; this indicated an overall increase in independence in leisure behavior. The first subject in the second group, Dola, remained relatively stable on the freedom scale while the other member, Rhoda, increased slightly. Scores for the helplessness scale indicated stability for Dola and a decrease in helplessness for Rhoda. Dola remained relatively stable in breadth of activities and decreased slightly in depth of activities. However, Rhoda increased in both breadth and depth of activities.

Conclusion

The results indicated that degree of independence in leisure behavior increased for one subject of the first group (one-on-one therapeutic recreation activities and group activities) and remained relatively stable for the other. In the second group (group activities only), one subject increased in degree of independence in leisure behavior and the other subject remained relatively stable. The results of the study indicated no noticeable differences in independence in leisure behavior for those residents receiving one-on-one activities in addition to group activities and for those residents participating in group activities only.

Table 1

Residents' CLEIRS Scores by Tests One Through Six

Residents	1	2	3	4	5	6
			FREEDOM			
Frances*	82	73	81	80	76	79
Adren*	48	56	73	79	83	81
Dola+	57	46	62	55	60	56
Rhoda+	68	81	85	86	89	86
			HELPLESSNESS			
Frances*	72	76	83	78	81	74
Adren*	98	99	87	85	78	84
Dola+	93	91	85	85	89	86
Rhoda+	82	68	70	61	65	60
			BREADTH			
Frances*	27	27	32	31	26	30
Adren*	20	22	25	23	28	24
Dola+	20	24	22	23	23	23
Rhoda+	22	29	32	34	37	38
			DEPTH			
Frances*	24	22	28	26	24	24
Adren*	12	19	24	20	20	24
Dola+	24	27	24	26	24	19
Rhoda+	24	21	30	26	27	32

*First Group = One-On-One Therapeutic Recreation Activities and Group Activities

+Second Group = Group Activities Only

One-on-one therapeutic recreation activities in addition to group activities did not appear to aid substantially in increasing independence in leisure behavior more than group activities alone. In the facility used in the study, use of a one-on-one format is an option that will be considered for the residents but group activities will continue to expand in numbers of activities offered. Groups have been adapted for intervention with a variety of ages and disabilities and are being used successfully with the impaired elderly (Jones & Clark, 1981; Stabler, 1981).

Group activities allow for a greater number of residents to be involved in a therapeutic recreation situation, and is therefore, less expensive in terms of a therapeutic recreation specialist's time. Groups also encourage independence for group members, allow for flexibility in programming and can be adapted to various functioning levels (Szekais, 1986). Therapeutic recreation specialists employed in nursing homes may find group activities to be a viable option or addition to one-on-one therapeutic recreation activities and may aid in reaching the goal of increased independence in leisure behavior for elderly, mentally ill residents.

References

Beck, T., Harris, P., Card, J., & Howard, G. (Eds.) (1985). Leisure is for everyone's mind. Columbia, MO: University of Missouri-Columbia.

Card, J., Compton, D., & Ellis, G. (1986). Reliability and validity of the Comprehensive Leisure Rating Scale. Journal of Expanding Horizons in Therapeutic Recreation, 1, 21-27.

Card, J., Dunne, J., Harris, P., Hitzhusen, G., Howard, G., & Jackson, L. (Eds.) (1986). Leisure is for everyone's body. Columbia, MO: University of Missouri-Columbia.

Card, J., Dunne, J., Hesselink, B., Hitzhusen, G., & Jackson, L. (Eds.) (1987). LIFE and the arts. Columbia, MO: University of Missouri-Columbia.

Dunn, J.K. (1984). Assessment. In C.A. Peterson & S.L. Gunn (Eds.), Therapeutic recreation program design: Principles and procedures (pp. 267-320). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Ellis, G., & Niles, S. (1985). Development, reliability, and preliminary validation of a Brief Leisure Rating Scale. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 19(1), 0-61.

Fidler, G.S., & Fidler, J.W. (1978). Doing and becoming: Purposeful action and self-actualization. The American Journal of Occupational Therapy, 32(5), 305-310.

Fry, P.S. (1986). Assessment of pessimism and despair in the elderly: A geriatric scale of hopelessness. Clinical Gerontologist, 5(1/2), 193-201.

Garrigan, S.S. (1986). "Who did you used to be?" The psychological process of aging's impact on institutionalization: Implications for activities. Activities, Adaptation, and Aging, 8(3/4), 75-78.

Howe, C.A. (1984). Leisure assessment instrumentation in therapeutic recreation. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 18(2), 15-24.

Iso-Ahola, S.E. (1988). Research in therapeutic recreation. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 22(1), 7-13

Jones, G.M., & Clark, P. (1981). Multidisciplinary group work on a psychogeriatric ward. British Journal of Occupational Therapy, 44(8), 253-254.

Langer, E., & Rodin, J. (1976). The effects of choice and enhanced personal responsibility for the aged. A field experiment in an institutionalized setting. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 34, 191-198.

MacNeil, R.D. (1988). Leisure programs and services for older adults: Past, present and future. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 22(1), 24-35.

McDermott, S., Jackson, L., Dunne, J., Hitzhusen, G., & Card, J. (Eds.) (1988). LIFE and the outdoors. Columbia, MO: University of Missouri-Columbia.

Navar, N. (1980). A rationale for leisure skill assessment with handicapped adults. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 14(4), 21-28.

Rodin, J., & Langer, E.J. (1977). Long term effects of a control-relevant intervention with the institutionalized aged. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 35, 897-902.

Rogers, J.C. (1982). The spirit of independence: The evolution of a philosophy. The American Journal of Occupational Therapy, 36(11), 709-715.

Schulz, R. (1976). Effects of control and predictability on the physical and psychological well-being of the institutionalized aged. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 33, 563-573.

Schulz, R., & Hartman Hanusa, B. (1978). Long-term effects of control and predictability-enhancing interventions: Findings and ethical issues. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 36, 1194-1201.

Stabler, N. (1981). The use of groups in day centers for older adults. Social Work with Groups, 4(3/4), 49-58.

Szekais, B. (1986). Therapeutic group activities. Activities, Adaptation and Aging, 8(3/4), 1-10.

Vale, W.H., & Mlott, S.R. (1983). An assessment of treatment enjoyment and effectiveness in psychiatric hospitalization. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 17(1), 26-32.

Witt, P., & Ellis, G. (1985). Development of a short form to assess perceived freedom in leisure. Journal of Leisure Research, 17, 225-233.

REGIONAL SUPREMACY OF STATE PARKS AND RECREATION AREAS

Craig W. Kelsey
Steve Rubio
University of New Mexico

ABSTRACT

Analyzing the five comparative measures of state population per state park acreage, visitors per acre, revenue generated per acre, state park budget per acre and state population per state park budget for nine geographic regions of the United States, it was found that regional supremacy does exist. The Southeast Central Region maintains a distinct advantage over the other regions in four of the five comparative indicator areas. The Mountain Region held the least indication of supremacy with no indicators placing in the top three of the regional analysis.

Introduction

In a recent study (Kelsey, 1989 in review) five comparative measures of state parks and recreation areas were developed on a regional and national level to assist the parks and recreation professional in their planning efforts. These indicators consisted of determining the number of residents per acre, visitors per acre, revenue produced per acre, state park budget per acre of each state's parks and recreation land, and also, the state park budget by state resident population. These comparative measures enable the planner to obtain a clearer picture of how their state park system compares to other states in their region and to the nation as a whole.

Previous Findings

It was found that the average number of state population residents per available state park acre was 17.48 with a regional range as high as 66.82 to as low as 4.49. The variation in regional averages had a great deal to do with population density of some states with fewer available state park lands while other regions experienced just the opposite phenomenon. It was also determined that the average number of visitors per state park area was 50.50 with a regional range of 245.68 to 12.23.

This finding was closely related to the average amount of revenue generated per state park acre which was $22.61. The regional range went from a high of $261.06 per acre to a low of $4.63 per acre. Generally, the greater the number of visitors per acre the higher the amount of revenue generated per acre. The state park budget per acre was $61.27 with some regions expending as much as $437.75 per acre while others spent as low as $11.38 per acre. The regional differences had to do with regions with low state budgets but higher numbers of state park acres while the opposite was true in other regions. The last indicator developed was the amount spent per resident on state parks which was $3.50 per resident nationwide. The range was from $6.67 per resident to $2.36 per resident with state population affecting this factor the most dramatically.

Regional Supremacy

To determine if there existed any regional differences or if any particular region maintained an advantage or supremacy over other regions, an analysis was made of each comparative indicator for each region. It was found that all regions, excluding the Pacific Region, had some element of superiority but that a clear regional supremacy did emerge (See Table 1).

New England Region

This region consisted of the six states of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut in which 729,000 state park and recreation acres existed with a regional population of 12,738,000. The one major element of this region was that it had 17.47 residents per acre which was third out of the nine regions in supremacy.

Mid-Atlantic Region

This region has 834,000 acres of state park land spread over the three states of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania and has a regional budget of $154,576,000. This positioned the region in second place for budget per acre at $189.14 and third place at $4.11 for budget per population.

Northeast Central Region

Over thirty-nine million (39,605,000) visitors experienced the 982,000 state park acres of the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin. Ranking this region second in the number of visitors per state park acre.

Northwest Central Region

This region consists of the states of Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska and Kansas. There are 17,577,000 residents in this seven state region with 3,914,000 acres of state park land positioning this region first in the fewest number of residents per state park acre.

South Atlantic Region

This 1,030,000 acres of state park land generated a revenue of $49,041,000 which placed the eight states of Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia and Florida third in the amount of revenue generated per state park acre.

Southeast Central Region

This region consisting of Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama and Mississippi provides 232,000 acres of state park land that have 59,000,000 visitors, yielding $261.06 per acre of revenue in which a budget per acre of $437.75 and expenditure per resident of $6.67 exist. This places this region first in those four categories and makes it the strongest region of the nine.

Southwest Central Region

The four states of Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma and Texas make up this region with $26,502,000 in revenue produced by 402,000 acres. This places this region in second place for this indicator and in third place for both visitors per acre and budget per acre with $108.13 and $164.43 respectively.

Mountain Region

This eight state region consisting of Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, Utah, and Nevada did not place any of their indicators in the top three while still providing 900,000 acres to 13,020,000 residents with 16,723,000 visitors. This is the only region that did not show some element or indication of a higher than average profile.

Pacific Region

The states of Washington, Oregon, California, Alaska and Hawaii yielded 4,727,000 acres of state park land to a resident population of 35,738,000 which gave it second place in the resiuent per acre category. The regional budget of $185,172,000 also produced a second ranking in the category of budget per population.

Regions of United States	Indicator 1 (res./acre	2 vis/a	3 rev/a	4 b/a	5 b/p	Regional Supremacy	Ranking
New England	17.47^	44.6	30.11	65.91	3.77	3	.6
Mid. Atlantic	44.70	100.02	39.95	184.14✓	4.11^	3	.6
N.E. Central	42.50	150.06✓	40.33	100.49	2.36	4	.4
N.W. Central	4.49+	12.23	4.63	11.38	2.53	3	.6
S. Atlantic	38.99	63.06	47.61^	101.69	2.60	5	.2
S.E. Central	65.56	254.68+	261.06+	437.75+	6.67+	1	2.4
S.W. Central	66.82	108.13^	65.93✓	164.43^	2.46	2	.8
Mountain	14.47	37.32	18.58	44.45	3.07	6	.0
Pacific	7.57✓	38.54	9.53	39.17	5.18✓	2	.8
United States	17.48	50.50	22.61	61.27	3.50		

Table 1: Comparative indicators by region of U.S. where + = 1st (3 pts.), ✓ = 2nd (2 pts.), ^ = 3rd (1 pt.) yielding regional supremacy rankings.

Summary and Conclusion

Clearly the Southeast Central Region shows the highest level of supremacy based on the five comparative indicators developed by Kelsey (1989). By awarding each first place indicator with three points, each second place indicator with two points and each third place indicator with one point, it can be seen that this region scores the highest. The Mountain Region with no placing indicators suggest the least level of supremacy. It should be noted that supremacy rankings can be affected by many factors not the least of which is the design of the regions for comparative analysis to the natural wonders inherited by each state within those regions. It is the intent of this analysis to show comparison for future planning rather than to make judgements about the management of the American state park systems.

References

Kelsey, C.W. (1989) State Parks and Recreation Areas: The Development of Some Comparative Measures. Parks and Recreation (in review).

PARK RANGER PROFESSIONALISM: FORWARD OR BACKWARD?

William W. Hendricks
L. Dale Cruse
University of Utah

ABSTRACT

For more than 50 years the various roles and functions of the park ranger have been discussed and debated by park managers, park rangers and other concerned individuals. The similarity of questions asked in the past and today is astounding. How can park rangers provide effective and efficient management of natural and human resources? What level of education and training will adequately prepare park rangers for the challenges of parks and recreation management? What professional standards must be addressed to further the advancement of the field? What trends have taken place in the evolution of the park ranger field? Many agencies have answered these questions in a similar fashion, developing their park

ranger programs to meet the needs of individual parks and natural resources. While this reactionary approach has encouraged several agencies to concentrate on park law enforcement and visitor services, it has also created a wide range of interpretations regarding the appropriate functions of the park ranger. There is little consensus among park administrators and policy makers when considering suitable park law enforcement training levels and services. Education and training requirements also vary greatly, threatening the current professionalism of the field and its future advancement. Increasingly, park managers desire personnel with superior interpersonal skills, yet they also prefer park rangers who are excellent interpreters and resource managers. Without a doubt, action must be taken immediately by professional organizations and parks and recreation agencies to prevent further dilution of the field. The purpose of this paper is to provide an overview of the park ranger field and a discussion of its progression towards professionalism.

Historical Perspective

The roots of the park ranger field can be traced back to 1880 when Harry Yount, appointed as "game keeper" in Yellowstone National Park, provided protection for the area's wildlife and natural resources (Albright, Cahn, 1985). Shortly thereafter, "forest rangers" were employed at Yosemite, paving the way for the estabishment of the initial park ranger program in the National Park Service (Albright, Cahn).

Early park management issues focused on resource preservation and visitor use management. Throughout the 1920s and 30s the National Park Service was faced with managing increased visitor usage, and a visitor population that was rapidly becoming predominately urban and mobile (Albright, Cahn, 1985) (Garrison, 1983). In addition, Albright and Cahn mention the high rate of applicants for seasonal positions, the need to improve recruitment and training standards, and the implementation of hiring specialized ranger naturalists. Garrison, who worked for the National Park Service from 1923 through 1972 adds insightful reflections on a dilemma faced by park rangers today and as early as 1937: whether or not park rangers should carry firearms.

While the National Park Service concentrated on visitor use and resource preservation, other federal, local and state agencies began to initiate park ranger programs. In the post World War II era a number of these agencies used the titles of park attendant, park technician, caretaker or patrolman. Often employees, with little, if any formalized training, were merely issued a citation book and a badge, and expected to perform their jobs admirably.

For most agencies, significant change in the role of the park ranger has only been recognized in the past 20 years. Changes occurred as parks became overcrowded, park visitor awareness and concern for natural resources began to decline, and a rise in the number of crime incidents in many parks increased. Suddenly, park rangers found that they were spending the majority of their time dealing with park law enforcement and visitor services (Morris, 1982) (Dwyer, Murrell, 1986) (Peach, 1987). Philley and McCool (1981) in viewing park law enforcement from another perspective, note that many "writers" felt there had been an overreaction by park managers to the levels of crime in national parks, creating a negative impact on visitor experiences. While perceptions of crime and visitor satisfaction may differ, escalating demands on visitor and resource protection have necessitated several of the transformations which have occurred in the traditional park ranger role.

Current Status

In recent years, agencies have taken a different approach and perspective in the provision of visitor services and protection. No longer are employees ill prepared to serve the public. The development of the Utah Division of Parks and Recreation is fairly typical of the evolution of many departments. By the late 1960s Utah was sending personnel through Peace Officer Standards and Training (P.O.S.T.) courses, which preceded their status, in 1973, as state peace officers. In 1984, the department began to send its park rangers to a law enforcement academy which coincided with their upgraded status to armed park rangers with full time, : tewide peace officer powers. Like many other agencies, Utah has maintained a balance between the protection of natural and human resources, retaining a "generalist" approach following designation as peace officers (J. Christianson, J. Hover, personal communication, November 13, 1989.)

Advancement of the field has also occurred in other aspects of park ranger duties. Technological improvements have benefited maintenance and resource management practices, aiding in the protection and preservation of parks and natural resources. Furthermore, some agencies have developed excellent interpretive training programs, utilizing in-house and outside resources and personnel (Lustig, 1985). In example, the California Department of Parks and Recreation, at the William Penn Mott Jr. Training Center, has developed performance objectives to aid in the establishment of professional interpretive standards (Murphy, 1983).

Progress towards a profession?

It may seem that the aforementioned advancements in the park ranger field would support evidence of progression towards profesionalism. Indeed, many agencies and individual park rangers, particularly in the past two decades, do perform at the equivalent of a professional level. So, why question the professionalism of the park ranger field? The following general areas, some discussed initially more than 50 years ago and yet to be resolved, have hampered and stifled the overall professionalism of the park ranger.

1. Armed park rangers or unarmed: In 1937, Lon Garrison and other national park rangers had formulated opinions on the

appropriateness of arming park rangers (Garrison, 1983). Leroy, Nelson, and Moncrief (1981) addressed this very same issue some 44 years later. While there never will be a consensus on this topic by administrators, park rangers or educators, the subject has been the cause of serious moral, organizational, and liability problems. Ironically, even with an expanded focus on law enforcement in recent years, some agencies have removed weapons from their park rangers, opting for a more traditional park ranger role.

2. Park rangers as peace officers: A variety of options are available to most agencies when considering law enforcement services. It may be beneficial to contract out law enforcement or security services (Perry, 1983), with park rangers performing traditional functions of resource management, maintenance, and/or interpretation. Perry also mentions the option of a local law enforcement agency providing protection in parks located in their jurisdiction, negating the need for park rangers to receive law enforcement training.

Currently, many park rangers designated as peace officers and public officers are not receiving adequate training, management support, or guidance through the development of agency policies and procedures. In a recent directory, compiled by the Park Rangers Association of California (Bryce, 1989), the writers of this paper calculated that 83% of the respondents (agencies employing park rangers) performed some level of law enforcement services. Only 16% of the agencies performing law enforcement duties carry a firearm and a number of departments require 40 hours or less of law enforcement training for entry level park rangers. Other agencies require attendance at a basic Peace Officer Standards and Training academy and the completion of at least 40 hours of training annually. The disparity in training signifies the obvious necessity to come to an agreement on the appropriate level of training and services for park rangers performing law enforcement duties.

3. Professional standards: As agencies have developed park ranger divisions to suit their individual program and resource needs, the term "park ranger" has become extremely generic. Agencies do require the flexibility to structure individual park ranger programs; however, the wide variety of job descriptions requiring varying degrees of technical and educational preparation has somewhat diluted the traditional park ranger role.

Once again, the Park Rangers Association of California Directory (Bryce, 1989) substantiates the need for the establishment of professional standards. Respondents were asked to indicate if they performed law enforcement, fire fighting, interpretation, resource management and/or maintenance tasks. In response, there were 20 different combinations tabulated by the writers of this paper (i.e. interpretation, law enforcement, resource management was one combination), presented by 77 agencies. Furthermore, adding to the complexity of the professional standards issue, the writers computed responses from the directory and found that 44% of the respondents required a high school diploma as a minimum educational requirement, 31% required an associate degree and 25% required a bachelor degree. The park ranger field is currently headed in so many directions, it will be difficult for agencies to come to a consensus to determine the appropriate actions that must be selected to resolve the numerous issues and concerns that must be addressed.

The Future

What steps must be taken to raise the level of professionalism of park rangers? Obviously issues raised over 50 years ago are still being debated and if the park ranger field is to advance further, plans must be implemented to prevent a regression of headway made in the last two decades. The following are considerations in light of a changing, dynamic society, placing increased pressures on park rangers nationwide.

1. Education and training: As an administrator for the National Park Service, Horace Albright, more than 5 decades ago, emphasized the hiring of educated individuals for seasonal and permanent park ranger positions (Albright, Cahn, 1985). While competition for positions is not what it was 10 years ago and maybe even 50 years earlier, many of today's agencies are still hiring individuals with adequate educational backgrounds and training. Unfortunately, a significant number of job announcements and descriptions do not reflect this. If the quantity of quality applicants declines in the future, the field

will not reach its potential level of professionalism. Agencies requiring less than an associate degree, while allowing exceptions for those who have gained expertise in the field, should raise their educational standards to ensure that applicants have a solid base of theoretical knowledge or technical expertise in a desired discipline.

2. Continuing education: An increased emphasis must be placed on the completion of continuing education courses by park rangers. Even the most qualified park personnel must revise and improve their skills and knowledge. Many agencies recognize the need for a balance of training received in the various roles and functions of the park ranger. However, law enforcement tends to dominate continuing education classes in many departments because of the formal standards established by the Peace Officer Standards and Training Commission. If an agency desires to employ "generalist" park rangers then competency must be attained in each function performed. Continuing education should be an integral part of every agency's training program.

3. Interpersonal skills: Increasingly, administrators are looking for park rangers with excellent "people" skills (Mott, 1985) (J. Christianson, J. Hover, personal communication, November 13, 1989). These attributes must not replace interpretive and resource management skills, but must compliment other park ranger functions. Careful analysis of park management services demonstrates the correlation of each of the traditional park ranger functions and the requisite of excellent

interpersonal skills. Field and Wagar (1973) recognize these relationships by emphasizing the need to incorporate interpretation into the scheme of park rangers' duties in relation to resource management. It becomes readily apparent that park rangers will continue to be challenged with a wide variety of responsibilities relying heavily on skills that will benefit the park visitor's experience and protection of natural resources.

4. Professional organizations: At the forefront of developing professional standards should be professional organizations designed to serve park rangers. Traditionally park rangers have lagged behind fellow park and recreation employees in the number of memberships in professional societies. Professional organizations not only provide a basis for professional standards, they foster a network of communication beneficial to agencies of all sizes and structure. Park rangers must become active in professional organizations at both the state and national levels recognizing that unity is the only way to overcome the obstacles the field encounters.

Conclusion

The park ranger field has developed into a complex system requiring individuals with diverse backgrounds, able to manage a myriad of situations in the operation, protection and preservation of parks and natural resources. Only through a concerted effort of local, regional, state and federal agencies will the field progress towards a profession. Resources must be shared, enthusiasm generated, and desire maintained if the optimum level of professionalism is to be attained.

This paper has presented a number of issues that must be addressed by professionals in the park ranger field if it is to evolve into a true profession. Obviously, park rangers cannot go another 50 years discussing the same issues without offering some answers. If professionalism is to be achieve, progress must begin now.

References

Albright, H.M., & Cahn, R. (1985). The birth of the national park service: the founding years, 1913-33. Salt Lake City: Howe Brothers.

An interview with William Penn Mott. (1985). Park and Recreation 20 (11), 34-42.

Bryce, D. (1989). Ranger directory. Park Rangers Association of California. (Available from [PRAC, P.O. Box 28366, Sacramento, CA 95828]).

Dwyer, W. O., & Murrell D. S. (1986). Future trends in park protection. Park and recreation. 21 (2), 52-55.

Field, D. R. & Wager, J. A. (1973). Visitor groups and interpretation in parks and other leisure settings. The Journal of Environmental Education. 5 (1), 12-1.

Garrison, L. A. (1983). The making of a ranger. Salt Lake City: Howe Brothers.

Leroy, L., Moncrief, L. A., & Nelson, C. (1981). To arm or not to arm. Park and Recreation. 16 (6), 38-40.

Lustig, L. W. (1985). In-service training for interpretive excellence. Trends. 22 (4), 8-11.

McCool, S. F., & Philley, P. M. (1981). Law enforcement in the national park system: perceptions and practices. Leisure Sciences. 4 (3), 355-371.

Morris, D. (1982). Natural resources management training in the nps. Trends. 19 (1), 36-39.

Murphy, D. W. (1983). Interpretation: professional standards. California Parks and Recreation. 39 (4), 28-29.

Peach, L. (1987). Patrolling the park beat. National Parks. 61 (11,12), 24-29.

Perry, M. J. (1983). Strategies for combatting crime in parks. Park and Recreation. 18 (9), 49-52, 67.

SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Jay Nalyor
Brigham Young University, Provo

ABSTRACT

Someone once described leadership as "the ability to get someone else to do something you want done because they want to do it." Someone who possesses the ability under any given circumstances to get the job done is truly a valuable asset to an organization. Those who work under such a leader are likewise fortunate. Situational leadership, because it is often spontaneous and unpredictable, is a real test of leadership ability. Because of the "situation," a leader who has successfully used an autocratic style of leadership and who is accustomed to making most of the decisions may of necessity adjust to a more democratic approach and thereby involve others in the decision process; a leader who has been successful by being direct, may need to show greater empathy and understanding as a situation develops. A "situation" will play an important role in how the leader approaches an issue.

The ingredients of situational leadership include people, things, and conditions. It comprises the daily events that influence lives, relationships, jobs and performances. Life is made up of situations. To an observer, situations people struggle with may seem trivial or unimportant; in reality however, those having the experience may be feeling deep emotional pain, depression, or lack of self-worth. Such a situation should be dealt with quickly and carefully in order to help the person return to an acceptable level of productivity.

Characteristics of Situational Leadership

Consider the characteristics of situational leadership: (1) two or more people are usually involved, although one person may face the situation alone, (2) something needs to be done, (3) alternative actions need to be considered, (4) the consequences for each action must be weighed, (5) a course of action is decided, and (6) there must be follow-through to complete the plan.

How to Succeed in Situational Leadership

Success in situational leadership requires (1) preparation--knowledge and experience in procedures and techniques of leadership; (2) anticipation--having a finger on the pulse of the organization and its members in order to foresee situations; (3) understanding--knowing what people expect and deserve so they receive fair treatment; and (4) a sense of community--the ability to conceptualize, see, and feel the relationships created or challenged by certain decisions; and to foresee and prepare for the ramifications of planning.

Professional Responsibilities

When an individual joins a staff, the individual should understand the role he or she is to play. The various skills, competencies, and interests that will be used to fulfill assignments come into play. With all these elements in place, one might presume that the organization will now function smoothly; however, because of the many situations that surface daily, requiring resolution, this is rarely the case. The following is a typical case:

> Frank, an experienced recreation leader, was hired as director of the Crenshaw Community Youth Center. As director, he was given full responsibility to plan and carry out programs for the Center. Early in his programming, he circulated a flyer advertising a "Casino Night" at the Center. The evening would be filled with many types of gambling activities, using play money provided by the Center; the kids would arrange with their parents to use their own equipment--roulette wheels, twenty-one tables, crap shooting tables, etc. Awards would be given to individuals who were the most successful at winning during the evening. A local record company had agreed to provide awards for the night. The community newspaper saw the announcement and ran an editorial questioning the desirability of the activity for the youth of the community. Because Frank was new in the community and very few people had become acquainted with him, the intent, purpose, and far-reaching effects of such an activity were questioned in the editorial.

If Frank were to apply the "characteristics of the situational leadership" referred to earlier, he would

(1) Identify the individuals concerned with the activity, in this case, the newspaper and other concerned citizens.

(2) Consider what immediate action he could take that would be appropriate and helpful. He might arrange a meeting with the group to acquaint people with his motives and expectations.

(3) Consider his options. If the meeting failed to alleviate the fears and support was lost, he could cancel "Casino Night" and schedule something else in its place. He might decide to modify the plans for the activity so they would be less objectionable. He might decide to involve parents in the plans and make the activity more of a family activity.

(4) Consider the consequences of each alternative action before making a decision.

(5) Schedule the meeting, making sure he is prepared to answer the group's concerns.

(6) Once a decision has been made and the plans accepted, follow through to ensure the activity's success. (Note: In this real-life situation, Frank followed this procedure, and "Casino Night" turned out to be the most successful activity of the year.)

As noted, to succeed as a leader, one must <u>prepare</u>. Someone once said, "To fail to plan is to plan to fail." This is certainly true in leadership situations. One must <u>anticipate</u>, by being aware and having a finger on the pulse of the community. In the case above, some felt that gambling was a moral issue, and therefore it needed to be carefully considered and well planned, if conducted at all. An activity that challenges the mores of a community, regardless of how antiquated the community may seem, especially to a new leader, should be avoided. Leaders must <u>understand</u> what people expect from them and what they will tolerate; this is especially true where children are concerned. The successful leader must demonstrate a <u>sense of community</u>, react quickly, and correct problems and establish a confidence level with the community.

Meaningful relationships within the community are created or challenged by the issues and how they are handled.

Qualities of a Successful Leader

It would be difficult to create an all-inclusive list of qualities necessary for successful leadership; it would be equally difficult to find someone who possessed all such qualities. The following four qualities, however, are essential to successful leadership and are not negotiable: (1) empathy; the ability to understand and relate to how the other person feels; (2) considerations; careful weighing of the consequences of those actions before action is taken; (3) consistency; equal treatment of individuals and circumstances. When possible, decisions should be based on policy, and at all times, on defensible judgement; and (4) emotional stability; calmness and objectivity, and decisions based on meaningful criteria, not emotion.

Election, assignment, or circumstance may place an individual in a leadership position; unfortunately, this does not guarantee quality leadership. When a leader fails to demonstrate relevant skills and knowledge necessary for the assignment, demonstrates weak qualities of leadership in significant situations, displays a questionable attitude that disrupts people's lives, or diminishes hope for their success by inappropriate actions, someone else deemed better qualified will get the opportunity to lead.

MANAGING CONFLICT IN THERAPEUTIC RECREATION SETTINGS

Anita Martin Hale
University of Idaho, Moscow

ABSTRACT

This paper examines the area of conflict management as it relates to therapeutic recreation services. Specific information is provided regarding types of conflict, sources of conflict, and the possible results of conflict in the therapeutic recreation setting. Several situations in which conflict is likely to occur are addressed as well as the implications of conflict for therapeutic recreation managers. Methods of resolving conflict are also included. Although the primary emphasis of the paper focuses on the therapeutic recreation manager the information provided is pertinent and helpful regardless of the management situation.

Just hearing the word conflict brings discomfort to most managers. It is a known fact about human behavior that wherever people live, work, learn, or play together there is conflict. Individuals will disagree, misinterpret ideas, and clash in perceptions, interest and values. In order to be an effective manager, it is necessary to obtain all the available information regarding conflict management.

Therapeutic recreators hunger for information about management in general and specific managerial issues such as evaluation, budgeting and staff development or personnel (Howe, 1982). By addressing the specific area of personnel conflict several other areas of management are opened up. The purpose of this paper is to examine conflict as a whole, its implications for therapeutic recreation managers, and how to use conflict constructively and effectively to bring new and innovative solutions to old problems.

What is Conflict?

Current definitions of conflict are centered around the same concept, relationships. According to Stoner & Wankel (1986), organizational conflict is a disagreement between two or more organization members or groups arising from the fact that they must share scarce resources or work activities and/or from the fact that they have different statuses, goals, values, or perceptions. This is a rather broad definition of conflict and does not specify how severe a disagreement is, how conflicts are managed, or what the outcomes of conflict can be.

Conflict is characterized by extreme distrust, competitive tendencies, and denial of legitimacy (Gandz, 1979). Therapeutic recreation professionals may find themselves dealing with a variety of conflict situations.

Types of Conflict

According to Stoner and Wankel (1986) there are five basic types of conflict:

1. Conflict within the individual occurs when an individual is uncertain about what work he or she is expected to perform, when some demands of the work conflict with other demands, or when the individual is expected to more than he or she feels capable of doing. This is sometimes referred to as role conflict.

2. Conflict between individuals in the same organization is frequently seen as being caused by personality differences. More often, such conflicts erupt from role conflict (as between managers and subordinates) or from the manner in which people personalize conflict between groups.

3. Conflict between individuals and groups is frequently related to the way individuals deal with the pressures for conformity imposed on them by their work group.

4. Conflict between groups in the same organization.

5. Conflict between organizations, usually this type of conflict is referred to as competition (p. 83).

Of course, there are many different ideas surrounding the types and kinds of conflicts, however, the above information appears to be applicable to almost any situation.

Sources of Conflict

There are many sources of conflict, some are obvious some are hidden. It is vital that any manager be able to identify the sources of conflict. Too often, managers are not reflective planners; they spend their time reacting to immediate needs and crises (Tjosvold, 1982). Conflict may arise in predictable circumstances or unexpected situations. Some sources of conflict are cited by Stimac (1982).

1. Conflicting perceptions. Individuals disagree because they perceive events differently.

2. Differing ideas. Individuals have ideas that clash.

3. Conflicting values. Individuals embrace different sets of values that influence their perceptions and judgments.

4. Aggressive behavior. Individuals assert their rights while knowingly or unknowingly denying others theirs.

5. Behavior that hurts. Individuals wittingly or unwittingly act in hurtful ways toward others.

6. Personality clashes. Intangible personality characteristics of people create friction between them (p.55).

Stoner and Wankel (1986) go on to cite three additional sources of conflict that are especially applicable to the therapeutic recreation manager: (1) shared resources, (2) differences in goals, and (3) interdependence of work activities. Ironically, simply "being" generates conflict.

The Results of Conflict

Conflict does not have to be a negative experience. If dealt with effectively, conflict can be the road map to increased problem solving, cooperation, increased communication, and more effective leaders. On the other hand, conflict can lead to distorted perceptions, and increase in negative stereotype, increased rivalry, or apathy among workers. There are three factors which determine whether the net result of a given dispute will be a functional conflict or a dysfunctional conflict: the level of conflict, the organizational structure and culture, and the way in which the conflict is managed (Stoner & Wankel, 1986).

Conflict in Therapeutic Recreation Settings

Recreational therapists deal with a variety of different conflict situations on a daily basis. According to Vessell (1980), the following situations may create conflict; the necessity for frequent contacts beyond the boundaries of one's department; the demands of frequent contacts beyond the boundaries of one's agency; and the demands for innovative and creative problem solving. Recreational therapists must communicate effectively with a variety of individuals, such as: physical therapists, occupational therapists, speech therapists, physicians, nurses, and administrators. In addition, there is the client/patient who is seeking the services. All of these individuals have different goals, values, ideals, and perceptions regarding their roles in different settings, as well as the role of the recreational therapist.

The recreational therapist may find themselves dealing with situations which are contrary to their professional beliefs. Many times the recreational therapist is forced to work primarily in group settings, or deal with low staff/high patient ratios. It is not uncommon for the recreational therapist to share equipment and space, and find it necessary to constantly defend and promote their profession. These are issues that can result in dysfunctional/destructive conflict.

Like most disciplines in the health service profession, the recreational therapist must deal with a variety of clients with varied needs and attitudes. Often, the recreational therapist may find conflict with a client who feels or believes there is no need for the services of a recreational therapist. This is a frequent scenario which comes not only from the client but from those professionals and lay people who are unfamiliar with the concepts of therapeutic recreation.

The above information provides many challenges for the therapeutic recreation manager. How mangers deal with these challenges can determine the effectiveness of their programs, the morale of the staff, and the quality of services provided. Therapeutic recreation managers must learn to manage conflict and not let conflict manage them.

Implications of Conflict for Therapeutic Recreation Managers

The roles of management and the functions of individual managers in the delivery of human services are extremely complex and at times confusing (Keller, 1985). In order to understand the overall concept of conflict, therapeutic recreation managers will need to seek out additional information regarding management techniques, talk with other managers, and become sensitive to the atmosphere of the work environment.

When therapeutic recreation managers assess the work environment, they must look at the number of interdisciplinary contacts for which each therapist is responsible. This must be done to determine the number and type of possible conflict, the therapeutic recreation manager must be able to identify and satisfy the needs of the staff. Needs are ingrained, innate, characteristics that are found among people and are inherent to individuals without regard to time or place (Howe, 1981). The overall satisfaction of a person's basic needs is vital to maintaining emotional, physical, or spiritual stability. So by understanding people's needs, the manager can better determine effective ways of identifying and dealing with conflict situations.

It is the role of management in therapeutic recreation to create a working environment where personnel can accomplish duties, create and maintain relationships, and work together harmoniously and creatively to obtain the organization's mission or purpose (Keller, 1985). Intragroup stress arises as a result of conflict among group members or as the result of potentially threatening interpersonal encounters typical of groups in which members come from highly divergent and mutually antagonistic population sectors (Feidler, (1967).

Any manager is aware of the dangers of an overly stressful work environment. Intense conflict which is not dealt with effectively can lead to low productivity, poor problem solving efforts, negative talk, poor creativity, decreased job satisfaction, and staff burn out. All of these symptoms can have a devastating affect on independent therapeutic recreation programs as well as the therapeutic recreation profession as a whole.

Before conflict can be resolved to the satisfaction of both parties, it must be confronted (Stimac, 1982). Many times therapeutic recreation managers are placed in supervisory roles without adequate preparation or training. They may not be equipped to deal with confrontation and intragroup communication. However, to avoid confrontation, to ignore or skirt troublesome areas, to delay facing what is interfering with a relationship, is to fail to get to the bottom of provocative issues and only leaves people dissatisfied (Stimac, 1982). It is vital that all managers be trained in basic communication techniques in order to feel comfortable dealing with all types of conflict.

How to Resolve Conflict

Theodore Kheel (1979), a renowned conflict mediator, states that in order to effectively resolve conflict "the main emphasis has to be on agreement making, rather than on confict resolution, because if an agreement is made, there is no conflict" (p. 29). Conflict resolution strategies are classified into three main categories: (1) avoidance, (2) delay, and (3) confrontation. The following information is an overview of these three categories as presented in Michele Stimac's article "Strategies for Resolving Conflict: Their Functional and Dysfunctional Sides" (1982).

Avoidance: Consider the strategy of avoidance. Avoidance may be seen as a negative path to resolving conflict. However, avoiding confrontation may be the most expeditious and functional thing to do under certain conditions. Sometimes it is necessary for managers to trust their instincts, if one's gut level says avoidance is better, often it is. If a manager feels that the other person is unable to handle confrontation at a particular time, then it may be better to avoid it if possible.

Another appropriate reason for avoiding confrontation may be when the confronting party feels that he/she lacks the skills to handle confrontation, yet sincerely wants to learn these skills. Avoiding confrontation in the meantime is better than burgling through and compounding the conflict (Stimac,1982). It is important for managers to note that if they are avoiding confrontation because of lack of courage, fear of taking a risk , or refusal to acquire confrontation skills, they are setting themselves up for disaster in the future.

Delay: Delay is the second strategy used for resolving conflict. There are certain situations in which delaying confrontation is very appropriate. If a great deal of anger is involved and either party is caught in a rage, irrational thinking and acting may occur. Instead of confronting the problem at such a time, it might be better to defuse the issue by allowing time to provide a clearer perspective and distance from the situation and thus reduce the "heat" in the relationship (Stimac, 1982).

Many times it will be necessary for the manager to gather additional data to get a more accurate, complete perception of the conflict situation. It is always wise to delay confrontation until all the data is collected, if possible. If confrontation is undergone with only partial vision the overall process is threatened from the outset.

Other reasons for delaying confrontation may be when the time and place are not appropriate or if a disturbing event in either party's life has left him or her psychologically unprepared for confrontation. The climate and conditions must be favorable, otherwise managers may be setting themselves up for failure.

Delay can be a functional alternative to confrontation. The definition of delay, however, obviously implies that the involved individuals plan to eventually confront the problem and deal with the situation.

There are times when delaying confrontation can also be very dangerous. A manager should never delay dealing with conflict in hopes that those involved will forget the issue. Immediate feedback concerning behavior is generally more effective than delayed feedback because: (1) the memory of the event, and (2) the dynamics to be discussed are fresher (Stimac, 1982). Sheer procrastination is a very non-productive behavior and should be avoided at all costs. Responsible managers must get on with the business at hand even if it is the difficult task of confrontation.

Confrontation: This particular strategy has both positive and negative aspects, depending on the intentions of the confronter and the manner in which it is handled. It is very important that the people involved consider one another's perspective and personal world if positive confrontation and complete resolution are to be accomplished.

It is not uncommon for managers to use the power mode in confronting conflict. This technique, however, has been proven to result in negative effects and short-term resolutions. Usually when a manager employs the power technique there is only one winner and the losing party is generally frustrated and angry. Unfortunately, the loser usually finds some way to retaliate and a second conflict is added to the first.

Confrontation using the negotiation mode is the most effective and desirable conflict resolution method (Stimac, 1982). Using negotiation is the best way to reconcile parties, heal wounds, and provide lasting and satisfying resolutions. There are seven basic principles to using the negotiation method:

1. Be sure to establish a neutral territory, this reduces the one-sided power experienced in a manager-worker relationship and helps to break down barriers.

2. The key to significant communication is active listening; it is vital that the parties let each other know verbally and nonverbally that they understand what the other is communicating.

3. Each party must assert his or her right to fair treatment. This must equal for all involved. As each person expresses his/her perception of the problem he/she must also elicit the other's perceptions and ideas.

4. People must be allowed to "keep face"; this is essential if defenses are to be lowered. By using "I" messages, individuals will lower defenses without their dignity being denied.

5. It is important to seek consensus on the issues in conflict, ways to resolve them, and ways to reduce any tension

that results from the conflict. Only when both parties can take responsibility for the problem will it truly be resolved.

6. Both parties must adopt a spirit of compromise. Any non-negotiable issue, such as money-expenditures, must be clearly stated from the onset in order to decrease game playing and misunderstandings.

7. Finally, it is essential that all parties be satisfied with the outcome. Even though tension between parties often remains, it is necessary to continue to discuss the problem until a satisfactory resolution is found.

Conflict, as stated earlier, is unpredictable and ubiquitous, but none the less can be resolved if the appropriate strategy is used. When the effective manager or the astute employee locks horns with another individual, an understanding of the complexity of the situation and knowledge of the strategies available can help affect such resolutions.

Conclusions

The above information has been presented to help therapeutic recreation managers as well as other health service personnel, identify, understand, and deal more effectively with conflict. It is not conflict in general that should be avoided, because constructive conflict is the essence of problem solving. It is time for all health service managers to take a more aggressive role in dealing with conflict situations.

Conflict can be the road to building a lasting and trusting relationship with co-workers and others if dealt with effectively. The wise manager will offer their staff the knowledge and experience available in resolving conflict. By acknowledging the potential for conflict and facilitating appropriate methods of resolving conflict, the health service manager is setting the stage for a successful and rewarding production.

References

Brollier, C. (1985). Occupational therapy management and job performance of staff. American Journal of Occupational Therapy, 39(10), 649-654.

Fiedler, F. E. (1967). A theory of leadership effectiveness. McGraw-Hill.

Conflict resolution--or agreement making?...An interview with Theodore Kheel, (1979). Personnel, 56(4), 29-37.

Gandz, J. (1979). Resolving conflict: A guide for the industrial relations manager. Personnel, 56(6), 22-32.

House, R. J. (1970). Role conflict and multiple authority in complex organizations. California Management Review, 12(4), 53-60.

Howe, C. Z. (1981). Select concepts in management for therapeutic recreation specialists. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 15, 11-17.

Keller, J. M. (1985). Creating a positive work environment for therapeutic recreation personnel. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 19(1), 36-43.

Maslach, C. (1982). Burnout - the cost of caring. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Niehouse, O. L. (1981). Burnout: A real threat to human resources managers. Personnel, 58(5), 25-32.

Rhenman, E., Stomberg, L., & Westerlund, G. (1970). Conflict and cooperation in business organizations. John White and Sons, Ltd.

Stimac. M. (1982). Strategies for resolving conflict: Their functional and dysfunctional sides. Personnel, 59(6), 54-64.

Stoner, J. A. & Wankel, C. (1986). Management (3rd Ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Tjosvold, D., (1981). Managing peer relationships among subordinates. Personnel, 58(5), 13-22.

Vessell, R. (1980). The devastating costs of professional burnout. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 12 (3), 11-14.

THE SKILLS TO MOVE ON - A PERSONAL PHILOSOPHY

Mike Vander Griend
University of California, San Diego

ABSTRACT

Universities have the responsibility of providing students with the "skills to move on." What skills must be provided? Students need to know how to write appropriate resumes, interview successfully, and develop job seeking skills. Along with these skills, recreation management programs must continue to provide the high quality basics: high level advising, NRPA approved courses and relevant internships. With the aforementioned, recreation majors will have the skills to successfully make the transition from campus to career. To provide anything less would be wasting the student's time and resources. Most recreation management programs are very successful in providing for the student's career needs. It is important that we continue to do so.

Introduction

I knew I was in trouble when I first met Dr. Lyle Olsen at San Diego State. His demeanor spelled mischief. And, as soon as he knew I was of Dutch heritage, he really showed me little slack. The Dutch, he said, were a little too conventional for him. Lyle was to become one of my favorite teachers. I've had many memorable moments with him: dinner at his place, tennis court battles, coaching baseball in Sweden.

Over the years Lyle and I have had numerous conversations of the purpose and meaning of education. On these occasions I have had the opportunity to match wits with Lyle. You see, Lyle feels students should go to college to become liberally educated. I believe students go to college to develop concrete skills to get a job. Lyle believes a college education should be a dinner with many dishes, served with numerous spices and fine wines to delight and fascinate the student's palate. Perhaps I am too practical. To me, education should be meat and potatoes to sustain the body for the hard work ahead (a real job). Lyle would like to see more electives in a curriculum. I want more business courses for recreation management majors.

Our arguments continue. Fortunately, both of us are now leaning more towards the middle in our differing ideas. I am more willing to have a liberal education for students as long as that student has the skills to move on to a satisfying and rewarding career. Lyle agrees.

Just what are the skills necessary to move on?

A Relevant Curriculum

If we were to take a poll why students chose to become recreation management majors, most would say that afun-filled summer camp experience led them to this profession. Freshmen come to our curriculum assuming that the majority of their coursework will be in recreation leadership. Is not that what recreation is all about? Practitioners know differently. To practitioners, managing recreation programs means budgeting, personnel problems, and seeking alternative sources for funding.

Herein lies the problem. Many of our students want to learn forty-five different earthball games. Yet practitioners are saying our students need to have the fundamental skills of management to survive on the job. It is our responsibility to make sure that our curricula contain those classes that give students the basic tools to someday manage recreation programs. Certainly we are not expected to turn out highly skilled administrators. Those abilities only come with years on the job. However, our students should have had enough exposure in grant writing, accounting, and personnel policy to feel comfortable tackling those types of responsibilities. Too often I have seen college recreation curricula with emphasis on recreation leadership or, far worse, professors teaching "pet courses" that have little or no relevance in the work-a-day recreation world. I feel this is a real injustice to students and a waste of our majors' money and time.

Quality Advising

Some professors love advising students. Their office doors are always open. Other teachers, as we have come to notice, find advising akin to running a marathon backwards. Some teachers avoid this responsibility like the plague.

I can understand both sides of this issue. Universities place an inordinate amount of pressure on us to do university and department committee work and research. Yet our schools also expect quality teaching and student advising. Teachers prioritise. Some prefer research. Others want student contact. Yet advising may, in my opinion, be the most crucial of our responsibilities. Selecting classes, motivating students, defining students' life's goals are all nurtured in the advising session. Remember back in school when you were an undergraduate struggling through the university general requirements and the recreation curriculum. I bet your favorite teachers were those that gave you high quality counseling.

Let me give you an example of an advisement program that works. For years, Dick Wells, at San Diego State University has been the lead undergraduate advisor for majors. Students can go to other teachers for advisement, but when it comes to the nuts and bolts curricula questions, most students head to Dick's office. Fortunately, the Department Chair has seen how crucial quality advisement is and has selected the right person for that important task. Over the years many students have commented on how helpful is SDSU's advisement program. Recreation management programs should be attempting to reach that level of advising sophistication.

Quality Internship

Fortunately, most recreation management programs require internships. Internships are excellent for students to begin their transition from college to career. If our advising has been successful, the student should have a fairly clear picture of what type of internships will be worthwhile for them. Internships require the students to focus on their goals. Students should take an active role in the selection of internships. Students have the opportunity to develop job search techniques, i.e., resume writing skills, networking, and successful interviewing. Let the students fail and succeed in this process. Shortly, they will be required to do these skills "for real."

I believe someone in the recreation management department should be solely responsible for internships. Usually the person selected has an excellent working relationship with practitioners and enjoys networking for internships in the recreation community.

Resume Writing, Job Hunting Skills, Interviewing Techniques

I am always amazed on how much effort universities place on the orientation process for incoming freshmen, and how little effort is given to the transition phase when students graduate. Colleges have orientation workshops where incoming freshmen learn about the university and how to cope with the idiosyncrasies of professors, school bureaucracies, and student life. Yet, when students are about to graduate, most schools abandon the student. I think it is imperative that somewhere in our senior curricula students gain a knowledge of resume writing, job search skills and interviewing techniques. Some professors may scoff at the thought of teaching these skills. However, who else is better equipped to help senior students. For three or four years we have been doing "high level" advising to our students. Now is the opportunity to capsulate our hard work with some practical skills that students can use during the transition phase from college to career. Over and over, I see seniors who are very confused about "what to do next." At a time in their student life when they should feel most confident (they're seniors after all) they seem most vulnerable. If teachers cannot or will not advise, students turn to parents for help. Generally parents are empathetic but unskilled in this role. Students could go to the career center. Career counselors are highly skilled in helping students. It is my experience that students prefer not to go to career centers. They are much more comfortable working with their major professors in determining career goals. In a senior administration class, job seeking skills should be taught. As it becomes time to begin the interviewing process, students will be equipped to handle comfortably the transition to careers. I have admired the confidence of students who have excellent resumes and interviewing skills and know how to network effectively as they seek jobs.

To be effective in our teaching, it is necessary to have NRPA approved coursework, quality advising, relevant internships, and coursework in job seeking skills. For Lyle, my mentor, make sure that along with the above classes, students get a well-rounded liberal education. Lyle would, I feel, agree.

References

Bolles, Richard. The 1989 What Color is Your Parachute. Berkeley: Ten Speed Press, 1989.

Bolles, Richard. The Three Boxes of Life and How to Get Out of Them. Berkeley: Ten Speed Press, 1978.

WINTER RECREATION: A CHANGE IN THE WIND

Dennis A. Nelson
Utah State University, Logan

ABSTRACT

During the past twenty years there has been a dramatic increase on the emphasis of winter recreation in the United States. This increased emphasis has been the result of a number of factors. This paper will address those factors as well as identify the trend and direction of winter recreation for the near future. The article will not only look at the role of public recreation in the promotion of winter related activities, but also that of commercial recreation which typically proceeds the attention given by public institutions. The article will

focus on three major areas of emphasis which have brought winter recreation to the forefront. The three areas include: Winter Recreation Technology, Education and Understanding of Winter Recreation Activities and the Individualization of Winter Recreation Activities and its effect on participation in winter recreation activities. The article will examine in detail the effect that each of these areas of emphasis have on the winter recreation movement.

Introduction

During the past twenty years winter recreation has increased in its emphasis and direction. Individual states are taking a more active part in promoting winter activities for cities and institutions inside their own state boundaries. A survey of several states involved in winter recreation reveals that promotion dollars spent on winter recreation have taken a dramatic jump over the past 10 years, and that the percent of the overall budget spent on winter recreation promotion has also increased (Cadez, 1989).

It is more important to study the reasons behind these changes than to examine the changes themselves. The following questions need to be addressed: What is the cause of this increase? What has directed this increase towards promotion of winter recreation by the state tourism and travel offices? What is the trend for the future concerning winter recreation? The body of this paper will attempt to answer these questions and provide an overview of the status of winter recreation and the direction winter recreation is headed.

Over the past decade three major areas of emphasis have brought winter recreation to a more prominent position in the overall recreation picture. These three areas will be examined in order of their importance to the field. First, increased development of winter recreation technology aimed toward recreational equipment and facilities. Second, increased understanding and education of the potential of winter recreation as brought about by organizations like International Winter Cities Committee. Third, a recent change in the individualization of winter-time activities. This article will examine each of these areas as they relate to the status of winter recreation.

Winter Recreation Technology

The increase in winter recreation activity is directly related to the technological developments of winter recreation equipment and products. Skiing, both Nordic and alpine, is by far the most popular winter recreational pursuit. It is estimated that well over 50 million people ski every year (Economist Publication, 1988). Cross-country skiing alone has enjoyed a tremendous increase in the number of participants over the last five years. There are many reasons for this increase in cross-country skiing, but the most prevalent appear to be the relatively low cost of participating and the physical exercise benefits. Snowmobiling is another winter recreation activity that has blossomed as a result of technological advancements. Major snowmobile races and tours are organized and carried on throughout the United States in winter recreation areas. Many are sponsored by state and local parks and recreation agencies.

Machine-made snow is a technological advancement that has had a tremendous influence on winter recreation participation. According to a recent survey commissioned by the Winter Cities Corporation, it was reported that almost three-quarters of all United States Ski areas have snow making facilities. The use of man-made snow has saved many ski events the most recent being the winter Olympics in Alberta, Canada. Synthetic ice is another technological advancement which promotes typical winter sports activities. Sheets of synthetic ice can be laid over an existing gym floor to simulate an actual ice surface. This has possibilities for extending the winter recreation sport of skating and hockey.

Many new inventions and developments in equipment have added interest in winter activities. Because of the large number of recent developments only a few of the most dramatic will be examined.

Up until twenty years ago the use of inner tubes was limited to summer use. Using the idea of the car inner tube, a year-round multiple-use play tube has been developed. During the summer the tube can be used on lakes and beaches as well as backyard pool parties. In the winter this same tube serves as a sled for winter fun.

Snow boarding has increased dramatically and developed into a sanctioned sport at many major ski resorts. Areas are being groomed specifically for snow boarders to use and enjoy in areas away from the traditional downhill skier.

The fashion world has taken advantage of the increasing number of men and women, as well as children involved in winter recreation activities. New technological developments have made winter clothing less bulky and more suitable to fashion. The clothing produced today is more practical than most winter clothing manufactured twenty years ago and much more pleasing to the eye. The materials developed and used are lighter, water repellent, and are designed for fashion as well as comfort use.

New ideas in technology have left their mark on winter recreation. As these ideas are developed and manufactured into equipment and clothing, technology will continue to be a major contributor to the increased participation in winter related recreation activities.

Education and Understanding of Winter Recreation's Potential

Winter recreation has been greatly enhanced by the attention given winter activities during the Winter Olympics. At the most recent Winter Olympics in Calgary, Alberta, Canada more individuals than ever before witnessed the events and activities surrounding this world-wide gathering. We have discussed the role of technological development to winter recreation participation. Technology has provided a means of education and understanding of winter related activities. Those who watched the Winter Olympics, whether in person or through the media, were stimulated to participate in the activities. Even though many of the Olympic sports watched can not logically be replicated in one's own backyard, or even his own community, they can however, provide a basis for understanding. An individual can relate to the challenge and opportunity of winter recreation activities and in their own way participate on a smaller scale. This awareness and understanding has lead to an increased participation rate in many winter recreation activities, such as skiing, ice skating, hockey, and even snow and ice sculpture.

Recreation areas are realizing the importance of year-round planning and scheduling of facilities. Outdoor parks and golf courses, for example, are using what was a typically dormant area in the winter and turning it into a recreation site for use year-round. Golf courses, for example, are being used for cross-country skiing and ice skating. City and state parks are being used for skiing, skating, tubing, snowmobiling and winter festivals. In our state and national parks, which were at one time closed for the season to the general public, we are seeing increased usage during the winter season. Some parks are experiencing an even greater number of participants in the winter than at any other time of the year. Yellowstone Park is a prime example of this year-round use idea. Crisp winter scenery in our natural resource areas can be equally as beautiful as that seen during summer months.

The Winter Cities Movement has had a tremendous influence in bringing an understanding of the season of winter and especially winter recreation. Since Mayor Itagaki and his associates in Sapporo and Hokkaido began the Mayors' Council on Winter Cities, there has been a constant push to understand and educate the public about the potential of winter. The Winter Cities Movement has brought together ideas from throughout the world in an effort to share and communicate ways to not just survive the winter season, but to enjoy winter and actually prosper from it. This was brought out very vividly in the most recent meeting of Winter Cities Corporation at Forum 88, held in Edmonton, Alberta, Canada. The theme of the conference was the "Business of Winter." Recreation was viewed as one of the five major areas of concentration for the International Organization (Proceedings, 1988).

Winter festivals and carnivals have had a key role in promoting winter recreation throughout the United States. Until recently there were only a dozen winter carnivals nationwide. These were held in areas typically known for their ice and snow: areas like Aspen Grove, Colorado. Now, winter festivals are being held in many major cities and even small rural communities throughout the United States. Administrators are beginning to see the benefits economically, of putting together a winter activity, and at the same time, individuals are becoming acquainted with and involved in winter recreation. Winter festivals are being billed as the way to fight cabin fever.

Most of the activities programmed around winter festivals are recreational in nature and are relatively inexpensive. Typical activities include: snowshoe racing, cross-country skiing, sleigh rides, snow sculpture, ice skating, ski racing, art and photography contests, and carnival activities. All of these events and organizations have provided a new perspective to winter and the possibilities for recreation during this season of the year.

Individualization of Winter Recreation Activities

Another factor which has had an influence on the increase of winter recreation is its affordability. Those who want to participate must identify activities that will fit within their individual budget. The trend is not only towards less expensive activities but activities that appeal to the health-conscious and activity-conscious society that we live in. Up until the 1960's, many could afford to participate in winter recreation activities if they chose to, because the activities were centered around natural settings and the availability of snow and ice. During the 60's and 70's many winter recreation activities were aimed at those who could afford it. Skiing was the most popular activity and if an individual couldn't afford the equipment and the lift passes they were left out of the so-called "in group." We have seen during the past decade a movement away from the elitist idea regarding winter recreation. It is true that alpine skiing is still expensive and that expense prohibits some of the general populace from participating, but there are a great number of activities that have emerged which require a minimal cost. These activities may be experienced singly or in group situations. Some of the more popular examples of these activities include: ice fishing, bird watching, cross-country skiing, photography, snowshoeing, backpacking into yurts, winter caving, and ice skating.

Winter recreation is a growing and changing phenomena. We have learned as a people to adapt to its harshness, its cold and its wet and have developed activities to help alleviate the stresses that the climate can create. Recreation is as essential in winter as it is in summer and in some ways even more necessary. Winter does create new challenges by offering programs that can be participated in by all ages and all income levels. However, we must never lose sight of our primary goal of enriching and meeting human needs.

References

Cadez, Gary. CADWEST Research Consultants, Unpublished Reports, 1989.

Economist Publication, "The Business of Winter" Winter Cities Conference Corporation, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada. 1988.

Proceedings, Winter City Corporation, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada. 1988.

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL IN LEISURE SERVICES:

THE MAJOR LEGAL CONSIDERATIONS

C. Michael Phelan
Michael A. Schuett
University of Illinois, Urban

ABSTRACT

Due to increasing litigation by employees, leisure services managers are giving more attention to performance appraisal instruments than they have in the past. Because of this litigation, managers should be aware of the major legislation affecting public recreation. Three pieces of legislation: Title VII of the Civil Rights Act, the Age Discrimination in Employment Act and the Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures are considered. Several court rulings which have an impact on personnel decisions are presented to illustrate the government's position on the subject. The importance of objectivity in appraisal instrumentation along with suggestions for improving the performance appraisal process to reduce the possibility of litigation are offered for the leisure services manager.

Introduction

The 1980s has been a decade of change for public recreation in the United States. Changes brought about by the decline in federal dollars have necessitated new and different ways of administering leisure services. The end of General Revenue Sharing, along with other forms of government retrenchment, have placed increased burdens on the budgets of public leisure services agencies. This strain on leisure services' budgets is forcing these agencies to change their traditional ways of operating (Howard & Crompton, 1980).

Unlike their counterparts of the 1960s who had ample government funds to subsidize most, if not all programs, today's leisure services managers are having to maximize every dollar. Considering the competitive business climate of today's leisure services industry and in order to deal with the growing demands for accountability (Kunstler, 1985), Lutzin (1980) advises that public leisure services managers should develop, pursue and exploit every means possible to provide for the development and expansion of services and resources. As a means of developing resources, leisure services managers should promote the maximum productivity and commitment on the part of its employees (Kraus & Curtis, 1986). And in order to promote maximum productivity, leisure services professionals have recognized the value in adopting from the private sector proven management strategies.

One of the concerns identified by leisure services agencies where proven management strategies have been effective is in the area of personnel management. Kraus and Curtis (1986) state that personnel management is a primary factor in the success of all types of organizations and is necessary to maintain a smoothly functioning, productive organization.

While many leisure services managers have recognized the need for effecti ; personnel management, not all are incorporating the latest knowledge and techniques into their agencies. Greene, Adam and Ebert (1985) state that many of today's managers practice management techniques much as their nineteenth century predecessors did by applying personal experience and tradition to the workplace. These experiences are usually learned from a lifelong association with a single enterprise or trade and are practiced because "they worked," or at least seemed to work.

In the area of personnel management, it is unwise for leisure services managers to continue with personnel practices simply because "they worked" in the past. The need to follow established guidelines in developing personnel policy cannot be overstressed. Broad interpretation of civil rights legislation has established the government's position regarding the use of objective criteria in making personnel decisions. As Mohrman, Resnick-West, and Lawler (1989) point out "performance appraisal and legal considerations are so intertwined that we can no longer consider the design of appraisal systems without paying attention to legal issues" (p. 160).

The purpose of this article is to identify the guidelines and the legislation established by the federal government which affect personnel decisions in leisure services settings. The personnel decisions focused on are those which are arrived at through the performance appraisal process. Specifically, highlights of the Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures (1978), will be examined. In addition to the guidelines, civil rights legislation and several court cases which illustrate the government's position on this subject will also be considered.

The Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures

Prior to the government's adoption of the Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures (1978), Title VII of the Civil Rights Act and the Age Discrimination in Employment Act were broadly interpreted to secure equity in personnel decisions. Title VII which covers most employers who have more than fifteen employees, prohibits discrimination in employment due to an individual's race, color, religion, sex or national origin. Arvey and Faley (1987) summarized the Act by stating that employers are forbidden to:

> (1) fail, refuse to hire, discharge an individual or otherwise discriminate against an individual with respect to his compensation, terms, conditions, or privileges of employment because of the individual's race, color, religion, sex or national origin, or
>
> (2) limit, segregate, or classify employees or applicants for employment in any way that would deprive the individual of employment opportunities because of the individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin (p. 57).

Alpander (1982) points out that an organization must be able to demonstrate to the government that its personnel policies and practices which have a discriminating effect are based on job performances and not on any other factor. An agency must be certain, therefore, that its method of appraising employee's performance is acceptable to the government's standards.

Since Title VII did not cover age, the Age Discrimination in Employment Act was written to prevent discrimination in personnel decisions based on an individual's age. The Act, administered by the Equal Opportunity Employment Commission, applies to all employees age forty to seventy unless the employer can demonstrate that age is a bona fide occupational qualification (BFOQ) for the job in question. In a 1985 decision, the Supreme Court ruled that, in order to use age as a BFOQ, an employer must show that all employees or nearly all employees over a certain age lack the necessary skills for the job (Wermiel, 1985).

The number of legal cases filed under both of these Acts has increased every year since 1978. The government has made its resolve on these matters clear and the results for employers has not been favorable. This is illustrated dramatically by Ivancevich and Gluek (1989) who report that employers are only winning five percent of the race, sex and age discrimination cases which are resolved within the court system.

While these acts of legislation are interpreted to establish the government's position, specific guidelines such as Park 1607 of the Uniform Guidelines On Employment Selection Procedures (1978) describe the characteristics of acceptable procedures recognized by the government. These guidelines were adopted by the four government agencies responsible for civil rights enforcement: The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), Civil Service Commission, Department of Labor and

Department of Justice. These Guidelines, also administered by the Equal Opportunity Employment Commission, were developed to insure that any decisions by employers which adversely affect a group of people be valid. The requirements state that "all users are encouraged to use selection procedures which are valid, especially users operating under merit principles" (p. 153). The Guidelines continue to describe more fully the term "selection procedures" to mean any process used as a basis for making any employ decision. Part 1607.2, Section B. states:

> Employment decisions include but are not limited to hiring, promotion, demotion, membership (for example in a labor organization), referral, retention, and licensing and certification,.... Other selection decisions, such as selection for training or transfer, may also be considered employment decisions if they lead to any of the decisions listed above (p. 153).

The Guidelines also indicate that the only forms of validity recognized by the EEOC are criterion-related validity studies, content validity studies or construct validity studies. In addition, employment decisions should not be made based on scores of performance appraisals which measure knowledge, skills or abilities which are normally learned in a brief orientation period, and which have an adverse impact. Ivancevich and Glueck (1989) define an adverse impact as employment procedures that result in a significantly higher percentage of a protected group in a population such as Blacks, Hispanics and Asians being rejected for employment, placement or promotion. Further, if a rater decides to use a selection procedure based on a ranking system, and that method has a greater averse impact than the use of an appropriate pass/fail system, the rater must show sufficient evidence of validity to support the ranking basis. Finally, if cutoff scores are used, they should be set so as to be reasonable and consistent with normal expectations of acceptable proficiencies within the work force.

The EEOC requirements state that when any informal and unscored procedure which has an adverse impact is utilized, the user should eliminate the adverse impact or modify the procedure to one which is a formal, scored, or quantified measure and then validate the procedure according to EEOC guidelines. As a means of determining validity, the EEOC is emphatic that no procedure will be recognized as being valid based on a procedure's general reputation, the reputation of its author or casual reports of the validity of the procedure. As contained in the Guidelines:

> Specifically ruled out are: assumptions of validity based on a procedure's name or descriptive labels; all forms of promotional literature; data bearing on the frequency of a procedure's usage; testimonial statements and credentials of sellers, users, or consultants; and other nonempirical or anecdotal accounts of selection practices or selection outcomes (p. 159).

In citing sister legislation to the Uniform Guidelines On Employee Selection Procedures (1989), Latham and Wexley (1981) identified what they consider to be the highlights of the related Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 for developing performance appraisal criteria. This act requires most government agencies to: (1) develop an appraisal system that encourages employees to participate in establishing performance standards, (2) develop standards based on critical job elements, and (3) rate employees against a standard and not against other employees or a bell curve.

Due to government requirements, writers have been stressing the need to move away from subjective performance evaluations. Because of federal regulations and requirements over the last 20 years, Rabin (1985) has observed that the movement in performance appraisal is toward objectivity in rating standards and criteria. Lundegren and Farrell (1985) stress the need for clear-cut objective rating systems. Klingner and Nalbandian (1985) indicate that when performance appraisals lead to organizational decisions such as promotions and pay, it is subject to the same validity and reliability checks used in selecting employees. Campbell (1978) stresses that not only is it vital that measurement data be valid but also that it is perceived to be valid and fair while Tedrick (1983) gives the most practical advice in meeting federal guidelines by stating that the more objective the performance measure, the better.

The government's resolve toward objectivity, validity and reliability in personnel decisions, can be demonstrated by observing court rulings on the subject. Two such cases, EEOC v. SANDIA CORP (23 FEP 810 [1989]) and PARSON v. KAISER ALUMINUM AND CHEMICAL CORP. (17 FEP 1281 [1978]), illustrate the position that the courts have taken regarding objectivity.

The Sandia Corporation is a subsidiary of Western Electric Company located in New Mexico which operates solely on federal dollars to develop new technologies, including nuclear weaponry, nuclear power and safety, and solar energy technology and projects. Due to federal budget cuts, Sandia was put in the position of reducing its work force. Supervisors were instructed by Sandia to prepare a list of employees recommended for termination. The list was prepared and the terminations of employees was based on these supervisory recommendations. In the case of EEOC v SANDIA, the courts found that Sandia's dismissals were arbitrary and the list of employee's recommended for termination was not based on objective criteria. As a result, Sandia had to pay back benefits and reinstate all employees 65 years of age and younger at the time of the trial.

In the case of PARSON v KAISER ALUMINUM, Kaiser was found to be subjective in its promotion techniques in violation of Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, as amended (1972), and that previous criteria used to evaluate employees for promotion evaluated subjective character traits and not objective job-related skills. By evaluating employees on subjective character traits, Kaiser's actions were found to have an adverse impact on black employees. The courts ordered Kaiser to promote those black employees to supervisory positions who would have received promotions in the past had there been objective criteria in place.

These two cases, among others serve as a notice by the government that organizations which use performance appraisal instruments as a means of making personnel decisions need to confirm their appraisal procedures as being objective as possible, valid and reliable.

The authors conducted an informal survey of the appraisal forms used by leisure service agencies in the state of Illinois. These appraisal forms illustrate the point that many performance appraisals are being conducted using less than objective criteria. Most of the appraisal forms examined used trait-rating as their major criteria for evaluation and not objective performance. Some of the most frequently found traits included: "initiative," "effectiveness under pressure," "attitude," and "maturity." Other forms even went so far as to contain sections rating employees on their "enthusiasm for their job," "work above and beyond what's required," "friendliness," and "demonstrating a sense of humor at appropriate times." These terms, and others like them, create problems for the rater in that these terms mean different things to different people. Because of the problems with definition of traits, Mohrman, Resnick-West and Lawler (1989) report that the courts have not ruled favorably towards the organization which uses such rating systems. As previously stated, organizations need to establish, whenever possible, their performance appraisal forms on objective, job-related criteria or the courts will rule in favor of the employee. Therefore, unless friendliness is required of maintenance personnel, or if these traits are job-related and not measured by a valid and reliable appraisal form, leisure services agencies should reexamine their performance appraisal instrument.

Items included in a good performance appraisal form should therefore rate the employee on only those items related to the job performed. Klinger and Nalbandian (1985) state that such rating systems are invalid if personality characteristics are unrelated to job performance, and, even if related, the reliability of trait-rating is frequently marginal at best. They also note that it can be difficult for evaluators to use trait-rating without lapsing into amateur psychologizing.

To summarize thus far, to better their performance appraisal systems, leisure services managers should undertake three tasks; (1) remove subjective rating items, (2) replace subjective items with objective ones. This can best be done by having performance appraisals directly constructed from job descriptions, and (3) increase employee input into the design of both job descriptions and appraisals.

The first step, removing all subjective rating items is the quickest and easiest way to make vast improvements in any performance appraisal system. Any and all scales that call for managers to use their personal feelings and opinions in evaluating employees should be eliminated. Managers who perform evaluations generally have not received training in psychology to appropriately evaluate an employee's initiative, attitude, and effectiveness under stress, and therefore would not be able to defend these ratings in court.

Once the subjective items have been removed, it is important to replace them with items that are objective and this can best be accomplished by linking job descriptions with performance appraisals. For example, if a member of a planting crew is required to plant 75 plants per hour, then the crew member should be rated on the amount of plants below, equal to, or in excess of the performance standard and not on whether or not he demonstrates "a sense of humor at appropriate times." When job descriptions are linked to performance appraisals, the employee will be appraised on pertinent job performances and requirements and not on personality traits. As a result of using job descriptions as a basis for constructing performance appraisals, managers need to review job descriptions periodically to update them along with the performance appraisal form whenever there have been changes in the duties of the employee.

The third item to improve performance appraisals is to include employees in the process of designing job descriptions and performance appraisals. Including employees is the most logical method of developing job descriptions because not only do the employees know best the duties of the position, but, by including the employees in the process they are more likely to perform better on the job because of their involvement in their future.

Banks and Roberson (1985) offer two suggestions for managers to follow to improve their performance appraisal system. First, build into the rating process as much structure as possible to minimize rater discretion and subjectivity. It may be useful to repeat the advice of Tedrick (1983), that the more objective the rating system, the better. The second suggestion is not to require raters to make judgements for which they are not qualified. This not only applies to supervisors who appraise employees on such tenuous matters as "emotional stability" or "moodiness" but also those situations whereby the supervisor cannot accurately observe or account for an employee's performance.

Additional guidance for developing a sound appraisal system is found in Figure 1. This "prescription" developed by Bernardin and Cascio (1987) provides the leisure services manager with a guide for insuring a legally defensible performance appraisal system. If followed, the manager will be in a position to more likely receive a favorable ruling if an employee should initiate litigation as a result of a performance appraisal decision.

Summary

The leisure services profession has evolved greatly since the early playground and recreation movements. Since that time, the profession has changed dramatically in size and scope. We are presently in an era of fiscal restraint with little hope of ever returning to the "great society" in terms of dollars spent

Figure 1

Prescriptions for legally defensible appraisal systems

1. Procedures for personnel decisions must not differ as a function of the race, sex, national origin, or age of those affected by such decisions.
2. Objective-type, nonrated, and uncontaminated data should be used whenever available.
3. A formal system of review or appeal should be available for appraisal disagreements.
4. More than one independent evaluator of performance should be used.
5. A formal, standardized system for the personnel decision should be used.
6. Evaluators should have ample opportunity to observe ratee performance (if ratings must be made).
7. Ratings on traits such as dependability, drive, aptitude, or attitude should be avoided.
8. Performance appraisal data should be empirically validated.
9. Specific performance standards should be communicated to employees.
10. Raters should be provided with written instructions on how to complete the performance appraisal.
11. Employees should be evaluated on specific work dimensions rather than a single overall or global measure.
12. Behavioral documentation should be required for extreme ratings (e.g. critical incidents).
13. The content of the appraisal form should be based on a job analysis.
14. Employees should be provided with an opportunity to review their appraisal.
15. Personnel decision makers should be trained on laws regarding discrimination.

Source: Bernardin, H.J., & Cascio, W. F. (1987). Performance appraisal and the law. In S. A. Youngblood & V. Huber (Eds.), Readings in personnel and human resource management (3rd ed.). (p. 239). St. Paul: West Publishing.

for social programs. Since federal money for public recreation is decreasing, the leisure services manager must spend each dollar effectively. In order to cope with an increasingly competitive market for available dollars and participants, the leisure services manager must adopt strategies and techniques proven to be effective. One effective strategy is to become familiar with the personnel legislation and guidelines established by the federal government and incorporate a properly designed and administered performance appraisal into the agency's plan.

The quantity and depth of legislation only briefly explored in this article, along with the commitment of the government to enforce this legislation, indicate that it would be wise for a leisure service agency to have a properly developed and validated performance appraisal instrument as part of its management strategy. Since, as indicated earlier, employers are only winning five percent of the race, sex and age discrimination cases (Ivancevich & Gluek, 1989), understanding the law therefore should be a major concern for leisure services professionals. At a time when available money is diminishing and insurance and equipment costs are rising, an agency can ill afford to pay large damages for a managerial or procedural misjudgement which could have been avoided. The law is very clear that only those appraisal instruments which have been developed and validated along established guidelines and which are administered in an acceptable manner will stand up in court if they should become the focus of litigation.

References

Alpader, G. G. (1982). Human resources management planning. New York: American Management Associations.

Arvey, R. D. & Faley, R. H. (1987). Fairness in selecting employees (2nd ed.). Reading: Addison-Wesley.

Banks, C. G. & Roberson, L. (1985). Performance appraisers as test developers. Academy of Management Review, 10, 128-142.

Bernardin, H. J., & Cascio W. F. (1987). Performance appraisal and the law. In S. A. Youngblood & V. Huber. (Eds.), Readings in personnel and human resource management (3rd ed.). (pp. 235-247). St. Paul: West Publishing.

Campbell, A. (1978, August). The impact of civil service reform on productivity and motivation. Military Productivity and Work Motivation: Conference Proceedings. U.S. Navy: NPRDC SR 78-15, p. 41.

Greene, C. N., Adam, E. E. Jr., & Ebert, R. J. (1985). Management for effective performance. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Howard, D. R., & Crompton, J. L. (1980). Financing, managing and marketing recreation and park resources. Dubuque: Wm. C. Brown.

Ivancevich, J. M. (1980, April). A longitudinal study of behavioral expectation scales: Attitudes and performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 139-146.

Ivancevich, J. M., & Glueck, W. F. (1989). Foundations of personnel: Human resource management. Homewood: Irwin.

Klinger, D. E., & Nalbandian, J. (1985). Public personnel management contexts and strategies. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Kraus, R. G., & Curtis, J. E. (1986). Creative management in recreation, parks, and leisure services (4th ed.). St. Louis: Times Mirror/Mosby.

Kunstler, R. (1985, October). Financing in the leisure industry. Parks and Recreation, pp.44-46.

Latham, G.P., & Wexley, K.N. (1981). Increasing productivity through performance appraisal. Reading: Addison-Wesley.

Lundegren, H. M., & Farrell, P. (1985). Evaluation for leisure service managers. Philadelphia: Saunders College Publishing.

Lutzin, S. G. (Ed.). (1980). Managing municipal leisure services. Washington: International City Management Association.

Mohrman, A. M., Resnick-West, S. M., & Lawler III, E. E. (1989). Designing performance appraisal systems. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Rabin, J. (1985). Personnel: Managing human resources in the public sector. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Tedrick, T. (1983). Personnel evaluation: In search of valid performance standards. Journal of Parks and Recreation Administration, 1 (3), 38-42.

Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedure. (1978). 43 FR (August 25, 1978). 29 CFR part 1607. Washington, D.C.: Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.

Wermiel, S. (1985, June 18). Justice adopts a tough test for retirement. The Wall Street Journal, p.2.

COMMUNITY INTEGRATION FOR SPECIAL POPULATIONS

S. Harold Smith
Brigham Young University, Provo

ABSTRACT

The National Therapeutic Recreation Society Philosophical Statement identifies a continuum of services for Special Populations from therapy, to leisure education, and to recreation participation. The basic theory behind the continuum is one that assumes that service is provided at all levels according to client need so that each individual will have the

greatest opportunity for successful living through a formal integration process. Traditionally therapeutic recreation service providers have done a creditable job in the areas of therapeutic intervention and leisure education. Historically, however, most Health and Human Service providers, including Therapeutic Recreation, have not been successful in helping clients make the transition into normal daily living situations. Part of the problem in Therapeutic Recreation is the lack of definition as to what is Therapeutic Recreation and whose responsibility is it to provide services that facilitate transition and integration outside of the traditional treatment/service settings. This material presents a review of current thinking about the relationship between Therapeutic Recreation and Special Recreation. It also addresses specific responsibilities and functions of both Therapeutic Recreation and Special Recreation in facilitating integration for Special Populations into community programs. Discussion includes needs of the client in transition, a master planning process for integration, and barriers to integration.

Introduction

The well known continuum of care model of therapeutic recreation service as espoused in the National Therapeutic Recreation Society Philosophical Position Statement (1982) indicates that therapeutic recreation service is a process wherein the therapeutic recreation specialist assists the client in moving from one level of service provision, i.e., therapy, leisure education, recreation participation, to the next according to the functional and developmental abilicies of the client. Movement through the continuum by the client should be facilitated by the TR specialist as individual client skills and abilities allow. Carter (1987) identifies this movement as "transition" when she states:

> Transition is the passing from one condition, stage, activity or place to another: the passage of a client from one environment or stage to another through programs designed to reinforce and/or develop skills and values inherent to independent functioning (p.1).

Although the therapeutic recreation service system seems to have been fairly successful in the movement of clients through the therapy and leisure education phases of the process, success in movement from the more secure "treatment" setting into the integrated community setting has been difficult. In addressing this challenge Carter (1987) states:

> One of the major problems facing persons with disabilities is the lack of a continuum of services to provide effective bridges between service providers, resources, and information. The absence of appropriate transition bridges limits their ability to maximize independence and holistic functioning (p.1).

Smith (1988) adds:

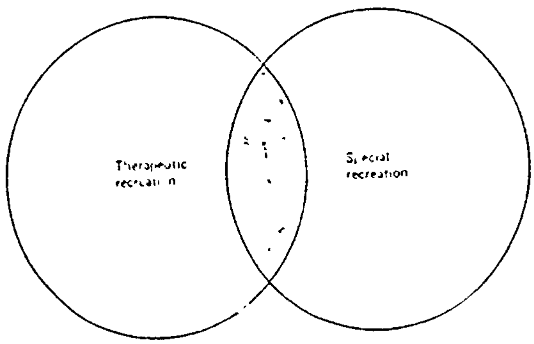
> In reality, there are far too many situations where there is little, if any, transitioning between the treatment setting and the community...Far too often a client is discharged from the treatment setting into a hostile or, at least, an unsupportive community setting (p.63).

Perhaps the major reason why the therapeutic recreation service system has not been successful in transitioning the client into a successful integrated community setting is the lack of definition and agreement among therapeutic recreation providers on whose responsibility it is to implement this process. In response to this question, Kennedy, and others (1987), state:

> Two philosophical points of view have emerged within the field of therapeutic recreation. One defines therapeutic recreation primarily as the provision of leisure services for those people who have some type of limitation...The other view holds that therapeutic recreation should restrict itself to the application of purposeful intervention employing the therapeutic recreation process, and should, therefore, relinquish the provision of community recreation for special populations to community recreation personnel...We... take the position that a polarity does exist. We believe therapeutic recreation and special recreation...stand as two separate entities that occasionally overlap. Overlap occurs when a therapeutic recreation program...offers the client an accompanying benefit of recreation experience, or when a special recreation program...serves as an intervention, bringing about a desired therapeutic benefit (pp. 14-15).

To more clearly define this relationship, Kennedy provides the following model.

Figure 1
Therapeutic Recreation and Special Recreation as two separate entities that sometimes overlap.



The Master Plan

It would then appear that for successful client transitioning into an integrated community setting that cooperation between therapeutic recreation and special recreation must take place. Indeed, the very essence of the overlapping between the two service systems is a willingness to work together in meeting the needs of each client. Smith (1988) states:

> The operational dynamics for successful transition then involve individual as well as share responsibilities with and between the treatment setting and the community setting. The treatment setting has the responsibility to prepare the client to not only cope with their individual challenges, but also to gain the basic skills/behaviors necessary for successful community living...the community must prepare itself to accept and successfully integrate the individual upon discharge....(pp. 66-67).

When both the treatment and community settings understand and accept their roles in this process transitioning and integration become a long-term process with client needs and abilities becoming the central focus of the implementation process. Carter (1987) relates this cooperative venture as one being familiar to both settings in that the approach is directly related to individual program planning in the therapeutic recreation setting and the master planning process in the community setting. She also states that the process is divided into the following eleven steps or tasks to be accomplished.

1. Information gathering
2. Identification of network of service providers
3. Selection/appointment of an advisory team
4. Assessment of needs
5. Establish program structure/content

6. Design management plan with operating policies/procedures
7. Implement training
8. Market services
9. Implement services
10. Evaluate
11. Follow-up and monitor process. (p. 5)

For this process to be successful both therapeutic recreation specialists and special recreation personnel must shoulder major responsibilities. The therapeutic recreation specialist must prepare the client with those skills needed to be successful in an integrated community setting. Special recreation personnel must act as advocates for the client/individual and assist in removing the barriers that typically hinder this process. A short discussion of each of these major responsibilities follows.

Treatment Setting Responsibilities

As previously stated the treatment setting has the responsibility to assure that the client has developed the basic skills and abilities necessary for successful integration. The treatment setting must also be aware of the community environment the client will be entering upon discharge so that specific skills and behaviors for success in that environment will be addressed. Although the role of "out reach" has not been a highly successful one in therapeutic recreation, the need for these types of services is great and will greatly enhance the potential success of client movement from the treatment setting to the community. Carter (1987) identifies the following core behaviors as essential to appropriate client independent functioning in the community, while recognizing that the natural environment hones individual client functioning.

1. Minimal levels of physical strength, endurances and flexibility
2. Coordination and overall mobility and fitness
3. Decision making
4. Transfer and skill generalization
5. Reality orientation
6. Impulse control
7. Protective assertiveness or self-defense
8. Safety
9. Discrimination
10. Money and time management
11. Travel skills
12. Comprehension and compliance with verbal and written directions
13. Leisure motivation and skills
14. Self-direction in unstructured situations
15. Communication, expression, recall, memory, adaptation and ADL skills
16. Social interaction skills
17. Planning and balance skills (p. 13).

Community Setting

The greatest challenge to special recreation providers is an awareness of and coordination among the many possible community service providers. Functioning primarily as an advocate, special recreation personnel must help establish and maintain an effective network of services that will assist the client in achieving community integration and independent life function. Smith (1988) states, "historically, this has been a slow and difficult process. Currently, however, client needs and resource availability

virtually mandate the community to be involved" (p. 67).

Typically many barriers stand in the path of successful client transition and integration into the community. Carter (1987) directly addresses this issue by listing the type of typical barriers that are facing both the client and special recreation providers.

1. Lack of finances, qualified staff, accessible facilities, and transportation.
2. Inordinate volumes of red tape, forms, and protocol.
3. Lack of communication and support from referral agencies and families.
4. Unclear role delineation by service providers.
5. Lack of adapted equipment.
6. Limited awareness of and misperceptions about client needs (p. 14).

Although most would feel that these barriers are negative, Carter (1987) explains that they are in fact the key to cooperative planning.

> These barriers are among the justifications to link agency functions. Multiple benefits are realized with comprehensive service planning; access to facilities and programs is expanded; resources are shared and costs are reduced; opportunities for mutual education communication are developed; relevant client-based services are provided; expertise is shared; a service continuum is implemented; a centralized advocacy or political power base is formed; and staff are revitalized by the opportunity to broaden and use their expertise (p. 14).

Summary

Although it is true that community specialize recreation programs have been slow to develop (Kennedy, 1987), it is an over simplification to place the major burden of unsuccessful community on their shoulders alone. Far too often therapeutic recreation specialists feel and openly express the attitude that they have little responsibility for their clients upon discharge. What a short sided and damaging attitude this is. Leisure/recreation is the only service, therapeutic or community based, that prevails lifelong irrespective of the clients' physical location or functional ability (Carter, 1987, Kennedy, 1987, Smith, 1988). How important it is, therefore, for both therapeutic recreation and special recreation to assume responsibility for and to work closely together to provide those services that will allow for the successful implementation of the continuum of service philosophy, especially in that area of identified overlap.

References

Carter, Marcia J. (1987) "Transition Planning." Presentation Washington State Conference and Northwest Regional NRPA Conference. April, 1987. Spokane, WA.

Kennedy, D. W., D. R. Austin, and R. W. Smith. (1987). Special Recreation: Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities. Philadelphia, PA. Saunders College Publishing.

National Therapeutic Recreation Society. (1982). Philosophical Position Statement. NRPA. Alexandria, VA.

Smith, S. H. (1988). Transition Planning in Therapeutic Recreation/Special Recreation. In Proceedings of 9th Annual Intermountain Leisure Symposium. Salt Lake City, Utah. University of Utah.

PRE-RETIREMENT EDUCATION

Jess D. Caudillo
University of Idaho, Moscow

ABSTRACT

This paper examines some of the studies completed on pre-retirement education programs and the benefits derived by employees. In spite of the changing views of gerontologists with respect to retirement, there has been some growth in the

prevalence of retirement preparation programs. In an attempt to provide evidence on the impact of pre-retirement program growth, preliminary information on a nationwide study recently completed is also included. There are some indications that a significant expansion of pre-retirement education programs is needed.

In September of 1988, a national group of business and education leaders met with the United States Congress to revamp the country's retirement programs and policies or face a "retirement disaster" early in the 21st century, according to William C. Greenough, Chairman of the Committee for Economic Development. The committee which includes educators and top executives from almost 60 corporations urged policymakers to increase incentives for personal savings for retirement, encourage widened coverage by employee pensions and to provide pre-retirement programs.

Although most retirees do relatively little specific planning for retirement, some adopt favorable attitudes toward retirement before they are retired; they orient themselves and look forward to it. Sheppard (1970) believed that work behavior, as well as future retirement behavior, was influenced by the topic of retirement and retirement preparation. Retirees with precounseling were found by Greene (1969) to be better adjusted with a great difference between those counseled and those not counseled. According to Greene, retirement counseling reduced resistance to retirement which, along with increased morale and work performance, was beneficial to both employee and employer. Kasschau (1974) stated that there was need for retirement planning programs to be studied through research methods, and for incorporation of specific goals within retirement planning programs. Puner (1974) found a critical need for pre and post-retirement planning programs.

Pre-Retirement Program Development

Pre-retirement programs have been in existence for nearly fifty years. Such programs are designed to ease the transition to retirement and to minimize problems which may be encountered. They were thought to be necessary because of the importance of the worker role as a source of identity and status (Donahue, 1960). The loss of this role was seen as a potential source of a number of pathological results for the retiree. However, other studies suggest that the most important factor in retirement adjustments are health and finances and few retirees actually miss their job (Atchley, 1976).

Pre-retirement programs are known by many names; retirement planning; pre-retirement counseling; retirement education; and retirement preparation. These programs have either an individual or group approach. The individual approach features one or more briefings with the prospective retiree during which he or she is advised of pension benefits, social security regulations, and general retirement information. This method is the most common in industry and is usually handled by a company personnel manager (Fitzpatrick, 1979).

Studies on pre-retirement education programs began shortly after development of group discussion programs at the University of Michigan and the University of Chicago.

Hunter (1968), in examining the studies undertaken from 1950 to 1963, concluded that a review of retirement planning programs, sponsored by union and industry, failed to reflect the growth of programs which were being sponsored by universities and colleges. Kasschau (1974), questioned the many authors who had hailed the increasing trend among employers to provide pre-retirement counseling, when evidence suggested little change in retirement planning programs over the past decade. According to Kasschau, programs generally offered only pension benefits information and were impossible to evaluate. Manion (1974) found pre-retirement education carried out primarily by progressive employers, employee interest groups, and non-profit organizations.

Research Study

In an attempt to provide evidence of employers providing pre-retirement education programs, a survey of 560 major companies affiliated with the National Employee Services and Recreation Association was conducted by the University of Idaho. A random sample of companies throughout the United States affiliated with NERSA were identified. The preliminary results indicate that the individual approach versus the group approach is most common with small companies. The individual approach features one or more briefings with the prospective retiree during which he or she is advised of pension benefits, social security regulations, and general retirement information, and is usually handled by the personnel manager. There is some indication that the group method is more comprehensive and is likely to be employed by large organizations where there are a number of idle workers at a given time. This approach includes group discussions, role playing, lectures, printed materials and/or audio-visual materials in order to provide a broad coverage of retirement issues and to deal with the feelings and concerns of the participants. It is important to note that preliminary findings seem to indicate that probably no more than 60% of the large companies surveyed, provide a comprehensive pre-retirement program. However, almost 95% of the samples indicate that they believe that the company should sponsor some kind of program to prepare workers for retirement. This would seem to indicate that workers desire assistance in preparing for retirement, and that they appreciate such assistance when it is rendered. The true value of retirement preparation programs may be in the assistance that can be provided when it is needed, during the pre-retirement stage.

Although the final results of this study are incomplete and may show negative results, it appears that pre-retirement education programs can have a number of positive effects for workers and employers. While attitudes toward retirement education programs have changed for the better since the initial development of such programs. workers facing retirement exhibit some real concerns about income, health, and family relations. Employees desire employer sponsored programs that will meet their needs. This observation coupled with the possible benefits derived by employers efforts, tend to indicate a prediction that the growth of pre-retirement education programs will and should continue.

References

Atchley, R. C. (1976). The sociology of retirement. New York: Halsted/Wiley.

Donahue, W., Orbach, H. L., & Pollak, O. (1960). Retirement: The emerging social pattern. Handbook of Social Gerontology (pp. 17-23). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Fitzpatrick, E. W. (1979, Spring). Evaluating a new retirement planning program. Aging and Work (pp. 87-93).

Greene, M. R. (1970, Summer). Retirement counseling, retirement adjustment and the older employee. Industrial Gerontology (pp. 37-38).

Hunter W. W. (1957). Preparations for retirement of hourly wage employees in Niagara Falls (pp. 26-28). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, New York Division of Gerontology.

Kasschau, P. L. (1974, Fall). Reevaluating the need for retirement preparation programs. Industrial Gerontology (pp. 42-59).

Manion, U. V. (1974, Fall). Issues and trends to pre-retirement education. Industrial Gerontology (pp. 28-36).

Puner, Morton (1974). To the good long life: What we know about growing old. New York: Universe Books.

Sheppard, H. L. (1970). Towards industrial gerontology, An introduction to a new field of applied research and study. Cambridge, MA: Schenkman Publishing.