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Northeastern Recreation Research Symposium Policy Statement

The Northeastern Recreation Research Symposium seeks to foster quality information exchange between recreation, tourism, and resource managers and researchers throughout the Northeast. The forum provides opportunities for recreation and tourism resource managers from different agencies, states and government levels as well as those in the private sector to discuss current issues, problems and research applications in the field. Students and all those interested in continuing education in recreation and tourism resource management are particularly welcome.

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Proceedings of the 1996 Northeastern Recreation Research Symposium

March 31 - April 2, 1996



On Lake George in Bolton Landing, New York

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Managing Recreation Resources to Enhance Regional Cultures *Francisco Valenzuela* (U.S. Forest Service-Milwaukee)

Barriers to Implementation of Sustainable Tourism Initiatives *Andrew Holdnak* (University of Florida)

The Tourism Life Cycle and Net Migration in a Vermont Community *Varna M. Ramaswamy and Walter F. Kuentzel* (University of Vermont)

Outdoor Recreation Activity Preferences: A Geographical Perspective Based on Population Density *A. Williams and Robert A. Robertson* (University of New Hampshire)

The Problems of Movie Induced Tourism *Roger Riley* (Illinois State University), *C. Van Doren*, and *D. Baker* (Texas A&M University)

Involvement With New Hampshire Snowmobile Association's Trailmaster Program: A Profile of Volunteer Activities and Motivations *Michael Provost and Robert A. Robertson* (University of New Hampshire)

Salmon Falls River Greenbelt Plan: A Study in Coordination Between Non-Profits, Municipalities, and States *P. Schumacher* (Town of South Berwick, ME) and *J. Demetracopolous* (Great Works Regional Land Trust)

Understanding Natural Beauty *Tom More* (USDA Forest Service, Northeastern Forest Experiment Station), *James Averill*, and *P. Stanat* (University of Massachusetts)

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Sustainable Tourism and Cultural Attractions: A Comparative Study in Ethnic Interpretative Centers in China and Canada *Y. Li* (University of Western Ontario)

Ethnicity and Recreation: A Case of Korean Immigrants *W. Jeong and H. Kim* (Pennsylvania State University)

Teaming with Wildlife: A Natural Investment *N. Edelson* (International Association of Fish and Wildlife Agencies)

The Value of River Protection to Businesses in Vermont *Kari Dolan* (National Wildlife Federation, Montpelier, VT)

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Collaborative Planning and the USDA Forest Service: Role of the External Partners *Rick Beauchesne* (West Virginia University)

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Bike Paths: Standardizing Design Standards *Skip Echelberger* (USDA Forest Service, Northeastern Forest Experiment Station) and *Anne Lusk* (The Greenway Connection, Stowe, VT)

Computer Simulation for Recreation Management on the Carriage Roads of Acadia National Park. *Ben Wang and Robert Manning* (University of Vermont)

Hands on or Hands Off? Disgust Sensitivity and Preferences for Environmental Education Activities. *Rob Bixler* (Cleveland Metroparks) and *Myron Floyd* (Texas A&M University)

Professional Preparations for the Management of Festival Events. *J. Zanhar* (City College, Ottawa, Canada) and *J. Kurtzman* (Sports Tourism International Council, Ottawa, Canada)

Historical Perspectives of Festival Events. *J. Zanhar* (City College, Ottawa, Canada) and *J. Kurtzman* (Sports Tourism International Council, Ottawa, Canada)

The Concept of Value in Outdoor Recreation. *Tom More* (USDA Forest Service, Northeastern Forest Experiment Station)

Influence of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors on Environmental Concern and Behavior. *Victor Caro* (West Virginia University)

Economic Impacts of Snowmobiling in New Hampshire. *Dan Gardoqui and Robert A. Robertson* (University of New Hampshire)

The Influences of Demographic Factors on Incentive Reward Preferences. *Kimberly J. Shinew, Margie Arnold, and D Tucker* (University of Illinois)

The Coalition for Unified Recreation in the Eastern Sierra (CURES): A Profile of a Cooperative Recreation and Tourism Planning Initiative. *Nancy Myers* (U.S. Forest Service) and *Steve Selin* (West Virginia University)

**Ethnicity in Parks
and Recreation:
Keynote Session**

THE IMPLICATIONS OF INCREASED RACIAL AND ETHNIC DIVERSITY FOR RECREATION RESOURCE MANAGEMENT, PLANNING, AND RESEARCH

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Abstract: Increasing racial/ethnic diversity is an important consideration in recreation resource management. Research has provided useful insights into the needs of racial/ethnic minority groups; but a comprehensive understanding of these important groups has yet to be developed. A cooperative approach among researchers, managers, and planners is critical to making significant progress towards meeting the recreation needs of racial/ethnic minority groups.

Introduction

Increasing ethnic and racial diversity presents recreation managers and planners with significant new challenges. Some managers of recreation areas are seeing new users and "nontraditional" activities. Other managers see limited use by some ethnic and racial groups of facilities and programs which they feel should appeal to a more diverse clientele. Some managers have frustrating experiences in reaching out to "minority communities," while others are successful. Recreation planners note differences in outdoor recreation participation patterns across racial and ethnic groups, but are unclear about the implications for policy. In all of these cases, uncertainty on how to proceed is heightened by limited experience serving minority groups, few minority employees, and low minority participation in recreation planning and public involvement efforts.

Research on the recreation preferences and behavior of racial/ethnic groups has provided some insight into how to best serve the needs of these important groups. However, major questions have been left unanswered. After working on these problems for a number of years, we have concluded that significant progress will only come with increased cooperation among managers, planners, and researchers. Hopefully our combined experiences and insights will allow us to move forward in meeting the needs of our increasingly diverse customers. We hope that today's session will be an important step in that important effort. We begin our presentation with this brief overview of research findings that draws on our earlier work (Dwyer and Gobster 1992).

Participation In Activities

A number of studies have identified differences in recreation activity participation between African Americans and whites (e.g., Washburn 1978; Klobus-Edwards 1981; O'Leary and Benjamin 1982; Stamps and Stamps 1985; Dwyer and Hutchison 1990; Dwyer and Gobster 1991; Dwyer 1993, 1995a). Findings generally show lower participation among African Americans in dispersed outdoor recreation activities such as camping and hiking; and higher participation in active, social, and urban oriented activities like ball playing and picnicking. There is a tendency for African Americans to concentrate their recreation participation closer to home than whites (Dwyer and Hutchison 1990; O'Leary and Benjamin 1982; Metro, Dwyer, and Dreschler 1981; Dwyer 1993). There is, however, little agreement on why these differences exist. Continuing debate focuses on whether differences are due to the differing socio-economic backgrounds (the "marginality" explanation) or to culturally based preferences (the cultural or "ethnicity" explanation). Support for one thesis over another varies by group, location, and outdoor recreation activity. This line of research has been extended to Hispanic American and Asian American groups; but the patterns of similarities and differences are less clear (Dwyer 1993). Analysis across a range of racial/ethnic minority groups is complicated by different demographic profiles of groups, and because these groups are sometimes concentrated in different areas. For example, in a random telephone sample of Illinois residents, Hispanic American and Asian Americans were younger than African Americans or whites; Asian Americans tended to have the highest incomes and the largest family sizes; and African Americans were the group most likely to live in Chicago (Dwyer 1995a). Attempts to predict participation in outdoor recreation activities based on demographic variables have met with limited success. For example, models for predicting participation in 31 outdoor activities in Illinois that included variables reflecting race, age, residence, income, gender, and household size explained from 8 to 15 percent of the variation in participation. In the Illinois analysis, race was never the most significant variable in explaining participation; and was the second most useful for only four activities. Results from other studies suggest that the significance of race in explaining participation varies according to the activity, the racial/ethnic groups involved, and the area where the study is conducted. In the Illinois study, race was relatively more useful in explaining participation in activities that involve water, snow, and ice.

In contrast to the comparative approach, some researchers have begun to look at the nature and meaning of leisure participation within specific ethnic groups. This focused approach may be helpful in understanding Asian American ethnic groups, who may come from diverse cultures (e.g. Hutchison 1993; Allison and Geiger 1993). For example, Zhang and Gobster (in press) showed that outdoor recreation activity had strong cultural meaning and significance for many Chinese Americans living in Chicago's Chinatown. These cultural ties were evident in participation and preferences for traditional activities such as taiji, but for the most part underlaid activities that were also popular within mainstream Anglo American culture. "Relaxing" was one popular activity in this respect; engaged in on a daily basis, participants in face-to-face interviews found it hard to define relaxing in terms of discrete leisure activities or separate it from the non-leisure part of their lives. A critique of past

approaches to explaining participation, and suggestions for more comprehensive approaches are presented by Taylor (1990), Carr and Williams (1992), Hutchison (1988), and Carr and Chavez (1993).

Environmental and Development Preferences

Studies of site preferences have tended to focus on comparisons between African Americans and whites. These studies have generally shown that both racial groups have a high regard for nature; but that African Americans generally prefer settings with higher levels of maintenance, more open, formal tree plantings; a greater social orientation; and higher levels of facility development (Kaplan and Talbot 1988; Dwyer and Hutchison 1990; Dwyer and Gobster 1991). Studies of urban children's nature preferences and experiences have likewise shown that African American children tend to prefer more open forest settings, and that dense forest areas can be associated with fear or danger (Metro, Dwyer, and Dreschler 1981; Gobster 1991a). Kellert (1984) also reported major differences in the environmental preferences of urban African Americans and whites, including a generally greater interest and emotional attachment to nature and wildlife among whites. There have been some studies of Hispanic American groups (e.g., Chavez 1993; Ewert and Pfister 1992; Irwin et al. 1990), but there has been little work on Asian Americans or other groups. Irwin et al. (1990) found that Mexican American campers favored more closely spaced campsites so they could be near other campers, and placed a higher priority on tangible campground design features such as toilets, camping space, water, and fire rings than did white campers, who tended to emphasize intangible elements. Chavez (1993) found that Central Americans had higher preferences for picnic areas, parking facilities, and other amenities than did other Hispanic Americans or Anglos.

Social Units of Participation

Studies examining the social patterns of park and recreation use show commonalities and differences across racial groups. In Chicago parks, Hutchison (1987) found the social composition of white and African American groups most similar, with Hispanic Americans tending to have larger groups with a higher proportion of adults. Gobster (1991b) reported higher average group sizes among Hispanic, East Asian, and South Asian American users of an urban trail. Studies of national forest recreation settings have also reported large average group sizes among Hispanic American and Native American campers and day users (e.g., Irwin et al. 1990; Chavez 1993). The importance of social group composition of Hispanic American wildland users has been noted by Carr and Williams (1992), who identified the predominance of families, extended families, and groups of adults or children with their comadres and compadres. Simcox and Pfister (1990) found Hispanic Americans using National Forests in Southern California to be more tolerant of crowding than were Anglos.

Within Group Variations

The initial research focus on between-group differences in recreation participation, preferences, and social patterns of use brought the issue of cultural diversity to the attention of managers and planners, and began to suggest how the needs of particular groups might be met. However, these comparative studies also masked the considerable variability within groups, and cursory

interpretation could lead to stereotyping (Woodard 1993). Research on variation in the recreation preferences and behavior within ethnic and racial groups developed in response to the above concerns. Woodard (1988) analyzed the leisure behavior of African Americans in a southwest Chicago neighborhood in terms of social class and intragroup regionality. Taylor (1990) examined the leisure behavior of African Americans, Jamaican Americans, Italian Americans, and other whites in New Haven Connecticut. Klobus-Edwards (1981) found that African Americans living in predominately white neighborhoods of Lynchburg, Virginia exhibited different leisure behaviors than African Americans living in predominately African American neighborhoods. Research on Hispanic American ethnicity in outdoor recreation by Carr and Williams (1992) identified three dimensions of ethnicity that potentially influence outdoor recreation behavior: ancestral group membership, generational status, and acculturation. To further investigate these cultural dynamics, Allison (1988) suggests more in-depth, ethnographic approaches as alternatives to surveys.

Trends and Leisure Acculturation

Because of limited research, there is mostly speculation on the extent to which the recreation preferences and behavior of ethnic groups change over time. Some insight on these issues can be gained from an examination of the role of an activity in a particular culture and the acculturation process. In some instances a recreation activity may be one means by which individuals integrate into the predominant culture, and minority individuals may tend to participate in activities that are popular with the majority culture. At the same time, a recreation activity may serve as a means of maintaining the "traditional" culture. Both types of forces are evident in our society as groups partly "melt into" the general population; but at the same time hold on to certain elements of the traditional culture (Floyd and Gramann 1993; Carr and Williams 1992). An example of the latter is the significant attention that is given to ethnic festivals in major cities -- some of which involve "ethnic" recreation activities. These events illustrate how cultural diversity can enrich park and recreation programs for everyone (Dawson 1991).

Projections of Future Participation

Although the limited base of studies constrains our ability to make projections of leisure and ethnicity, demographic models can provide some indication of possible population based trends. Cohort component population projection models have been used to explore the implications of changing age and racial/ethnic structure on future participation in recreational activities. Under the assumption that participation rates in particular outdoor recreation activities by race/ethnicity and age will remain constant over time, the models suggest that with projected changes in the age and racial/ethnic structure of the population there will be significant changes in the number and characteristics of participants in the years ahead. Although the results vary by activity and region of the country, they do point to the significant implications of changes in the racial/ethnic structure of the population for outdoor recreation participation in the future (Murdock et al. 1990, 1991; Dwyer 1995a, 1995b, 1996).

Discrimination and Equity Issues

West (1989) identified prejudice and discrimination (or fear of their occurrence) in recreation areas and programs as significant factors in the recreation behavior of African Americans in the Detroit Metropolitan area. He found African Americans were significantly more likely than whites to have felt unwelcome or uneasy using Detroit regional parks because of interracial factors. Subsequent studies by Chavez (1993), Gobster and Delgado (1993), Blahna and Black (1993), Zhang and Gobster (in press) and others have helped to further define the existence of, sources of, and responses to discrimination, and how it can be dealt with by park and recreation area managers.

Implications for Management and Research

Past research has identified enough differences in recreation participation, preferences, and social patterns of use to suggest that racial/ethnic background is an important factor to consider in park and recreation planning. Observations of recreation areas used by a wide range of groups, and experience with other cultures suggests that the differences may be significant along a number of dimensions of recreation resource planning and management, such as: public involvement efforts, staffing, programs, training, marketing, advertising, and signage.

The differences between racial/ethnic groups can help identify special considerations for particular groups; but it is also important to recognize the considerable variation in recreation preferences and behavior within each group. For example, it may be generally correct to say that urban park managers should provide soccer facilities in areas frequented by Hispanic Americans, but it is incorrect to think that all Hispanic Americans like or play soccer, or that by providing soccer fields the needs of the Hispanic American community have been met. At the same time, managers should recognize that there are significant commonalities in recreation preferences across racial and ethnic groups.

It is important to recognize that current patterns of participation may not fully reflect the preferences of an individual or group. For example, a number of studies have shown that urban African Americans are more likely than other groups to engage in outdoor recreation at developed sites in and near an urban area, and generally travel shorter distances to engage in recreation. This might reflect a preference for an urban or developed environment, but at the same time might also be the result of limited resources for travel, fear of discriminatory behavior, lack of knowledge of more distant resources, lack of experience or equipment, or a number of other factors. We need to explore those factors more fully.

There is a strong need for a sustained and focused research effort targeted on helping managers meet the needs of their increasingly diverse customers. This calls for in-depth studies of racial/ethnic groups that go beyond surveys of the population that include small numbers from minority groups. These in depth studies should also go beyond participation patterns and include other significant dimensions of outdoor recreation to include settings, facilities, programs, staffing, information, public involvement, etc.

Additional quantitative analysis of within-group variations requires heavy sampling in racial/ethnic groups. In most surveys of the general population, racial/ethnic minority groups represent such a small proportion and have such low participation rates that there are few observations on which to base within-group variations in participation patterns.

With the increasing significance of immigration and mounting interest in cultural origins and identity, the role of outdoor recreation in minority cultures is likely to become an increasingly important issue.

While racial/ethnic background of customers is a significant concern of recreation resource managers and planners, it is only one of many dimensions of variation across outdoor recreation preferences and behavior. It is critical that we recognize all of that diversity and provide areas, facilities, programs, and staffing that will meet the diverse needs.

The ties between cultural diversity and recreation vary significantly across locations, and with the limited number and scope of studies completed it is misleading to extend research findings to all situations. No amount of research can or should substitute for maintaining a dialogue with present and potential customers. The results of research are often useful in such a dialogue and approaching the needs of various ethnic groups. Communication with minority communities on such issues appears to be greatly facilitated when the managing agency has a professional workforce that reflects the diversity of the community. The challenges of meeting the diverse recreation needs of Americans in the years will require a cooperative approach that involves researchers, managers, and planners.

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HOW PARKS CANADA HAS RESPONDED TO THE CHALLENGE OF RACIAL AND ETHNIC DIVERSITY

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Abstract: Parks Canada faces the challenge of involving ethnic groups in the commemoration of historic sites, and involving native people in the management of national parks. It has been very successful in the latter and less so with the former. Parks Canada also has considerable experience in providing services in French and English, the languages of its two founding nations.

French Canadians Are Not An Ethnic Group

When Tom More phoned me to invite me to present this paper, I asked him, "Why me?" He replied that he thought we in Canada had a lot of experience in dealing with our large French-Canadian minority.

Well, I was horrified. I didn't know what to say. I looked around to make sure no one had heard, even though we were speaking on the telephone. You see, Tom had inadvertently uttered what to my Canadian federal public servant ears was an unutterable blasphemy.

Now I am not for a moment criticising or reproaching Tom, who does not have a disrespectful or thoughtless bone in his body, let alone a blasphemous one. However, you have to realize that in Canada, the French Canadians are never referred to as an ethnic or racial minority. They are one of our two founding nations, along with the English Canadians. They are part of the mainstream of Canadian life. The French-Canadian is no more a member of an ethnic minority in Canada than an American would be because he or she comes from south of the Mason-Dixon line. There are certainly regional and cultural differences between French and English Canadians but there are regional and cultural differences between people who live in New York and New Orleans. That does not mean they are treated as different ethnic groups.

Therefore, even if I had absolutely no insights to offer about racial or ethnic diversity, and how Parks Canada responds to it, I thought I still had a patriotic and constitutional duty as a Canadian public servant to correct through this paper any notion you might be harboring that French Canadians were an ethnic minority.

For example, both English and French are official languages in Canada. By our constitution, federal laws are always published in both languages and are equally valid in each, our parliament is conducted in both languages, and in the federal law courts, you can have your case tried in whichever of the two languages you choose. Every second prime minister of Canada has been a

French Canadian. I don't think ethnic and racial minorities in the United States can say the same about the Presidency.

Nor are they really a minority numerically. Consider some statistics. If you look at language, of 27 million Canadians at the last census, in 1991, about 7 million reported French as their mother tongue. This is about 25 % of the total Canadian population. If you consider ethnicity, about 6 million said they were of exclusively French ethnic origin, and another two million said they were of mixed ethnic origin, for a total of 30% of the Canadian population. So depending on how you measure it, 25 to 30 % of the Canadian population is French Canadian to some extent. Contrast this to your own main minorities. Your census asks slightly different questions, but reported that in 1990, there were about 31 million blacks in a total population of 252 million, or about 12 %. It also asked about Hispanics. 23 million people said they were of Hispanic origin or about 9% of the population. So at 25 to 30 % of the population, French Canadians are a very large group to be a minority. French Canadians are an even bigger proportion when you consider only 60% of Canadians said English was their mother tongue. If you ignore those whose mother tongue is not English, the proportion of French in the population is 40%, almost half. Hardly a minority.

Also, there is no evidence that French Canadians use national parks any differently than anyone else, either more or less. The campgrounds in the parks in Quebec are full every day in the summer, just as the ones in Banff are full. The ski trails are just as well used as the ski trails anywhere else. French Canadians appear to have the same propensity to participate in outdoor recreation activities as the English Canadians.

Since the majority of French Canadians live in Quebec, there have to be participation differences based on supply: French Canadians in Quebec do not mountain climb as much as English Canadians in the west, because there are no mountains in Quebec. On the other hand, French Canadians canoe a lot more than English Canadians in the west, because there are a lot more lakes in Quebec. But English people in Ontario also canoe a lot. So there is no discernable difference.

Does that mean we do nothing in our parks to accommodate French Canadians? Do we treat them exactly like everyone else? Is poor Tom completely wrong?

Well, no, actually. Recall that I said that we are officially a bilingual country. It follows that federal services should be available everywhere in both languages. So in spite of the fact that French Canadians are concentrated in Quebec and the East, there is a policy that there should be at least one person on duty at the visitor centre in all parks that can provide service in both official languages. All pamphlets and publications, such as the main park brochure, should be available in both languages. Interpretive panels should be in both languages. Service signs such as directions to washrooms are usually icons, so they are automatically multi-lingual. There are also supposed to be programs, such as interpretive walks, given in the two languages in every park.

However, the sad reality is that whatever bilingual services have been offered in the past, have probably all become victims of

budgetary cuts in any case. In the first place, the policy was never successfully policed, so even in rich times, there was no guarantee that you would find programs in French in a park in English Canada. You would see French publications, but now, because of budget cuts, you often won't even see English publications, so you certainly won't see French ones. You will still see bilingual interpretive panels, since they last a long time, and were frequently centrally prepared and shipped out to the parks. But you can imagine the position of a manager who has to make a choice between cutting a popular interpretive program attended by large numbers of English speaking people, and an interpretive program in French barely attended by a few and sometimes even cancelled for lack of response. Which one would you cut?

In fact, in Banff today, you will find it easier to get an interpretive event in Japanese than in French. And I see that as the way of the future. As Parks Canada becomes a more and more market oriented, their programs are going to cater to paying customers, and any disadvantaged minorities (of which French Canadians as we have learned are not one) will get short shrift.

Ethnic Minorities and Their Use of Parks

What about the other racial and ethnic groups in Canada? As you can see from the table, when you look at all our ethnic origins, once you get past British and French (and we now know these don't count), you have to go all the way down to the Chinese, at about 2% to get any visible minority at all. And 2% of the population is only about half a million people. You can see, we really do not have any big groups to contrast with your 31 million blacks or 23 million Hispanics.

Table 1. Ethnic origins of Canadians

Origin	Percentage in Population
British	44%
French	31
German	10
Italian	4
Ukrainian	4
Dutch	4
Polish	3
Scandinavian	3
Chinese	2
S.E. Asian	2
Black	1
Portuguese	1
Hungarian	1

Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census. The list only shows major groups. Percentages do not add because of multiple responses.

Consequently, there is not much research to tell us about whether there are culturally or ethnically driven differences of tourism behaviour or participation in outdoor activity with these groups. What little evidence I've been able to find (Ontario Ministry of Tourism, 1990) suggests there is very little difference and what difference there is shows up in recently arrived immigrant groups, not in older, established ethnic communities. This would imply that the differences are perhaps better explained by the group's relative newness to the country, rather than to any racial or ethnic preference.

The real challenge of ethnic diversity for Parks Canada comes from a totally different direction. Parks Canada operates a system of over 100 historic sites, just as the National Parks Service does here. What our historic site planners noticed, however, was that the historic site system was not a particularly comprehensive view of Canadian history. About 1/3 of the sites were military forts, and there were a lot of fur trade sites (which are often also forts). These, however, are only a small part of Canadian history. What was missing was the history of industrial development, the history of agriculture, science, cultural achievement, and three big amorphous areas: women's history, aboriginal peoples' history, and what is called cultural communities history, or the history of how the various waves of immigrant groups arrived in Canada and help to shape the country. This was a particularly glaring gap, as we pride ourselves on being a multi-cultural country. Note that the emphasis here is not on getting ethnic minorities to better appreciate Canadian History but to get Canadian History to recognize the contribution of the ethnic minorities.

This sounds good, but here is what happened. The first site where we tried to commemorate the history of immigration was called Grosse Ile, which means Big Island, in the St. Lawrence. It was sort of like Ellis Island: it was a quarantine station for immigrants. However, 96% of the immigrants who used it were Irish. They came in big waves in the 1830's and later after 1848 and the Irish Potato Famine. Thousands died on the trip to Canada and thousands died on the island. Some reports say that as many as 20,000 are buried there in mass graves.

This seemed to Parks Canada a perfect place to recognize and commemorate the contribution that immigrants made to building Canadian society, particularly since the federal government owned the land. They determined a theme for the park, "Land of hope and welcome". While they recognized the suffering of the many Irish who had died or survived there, they decided not to emphasize it, but to stress the more general and positive aspects of immigration and its contribution. Our Prime Minister Mulroney and your President Reagan, Irishmen both, even presided over some sort of ceremony kicking off the development of the park.

Then the blame hit the fan. When the plans were announced, the Irish ethnic community rose up in arms. There was the McGill Irish Society from Montreal, there was the Celtic Arts Society from Toronto. There were innumerable briefs presented and protests written to the minister about the disrespect being accorded to the poor souls who had died, the cover-up of the great evil that the British colonialists in Ireland had done to the Irish to force them to flee in the first place. There was even a group created that was called Action Grosse Ile, which sounds like a French right wing terrorist group, who called for the island to be interpreted as a memorial to those who had died as a result of the British government's genocidal policies in Ireland.

Of course the minister responsible for Parks Canada was not the least happy with this storm of protest, and a lot of hasty consultation and compromise took place. The Site is now called "Grosse Ile and the Irish Memorial", and they are working out the way to portray it, a task made easier by the fact that there is so little money for development of new sites that they probably can't do much in any direction.

Lest you think that it is only the Irish that are particularly volatile and sensitive, much the same problem arose in Banff National Park, when historians decided to commemorate the Ukrainian internment camps set up in Banff in the first world war. The Ukrainian Canadian Civil Liberties Association protested vehemently and I don't think it is settled yet.

The point of raising these stories is not to tell you how we have perfected the art of being blind-sided or of stirring up hornets' nests. But we have learned two things.

First, we have learned that ethnic groups are proud, sensitive, and extremely well organized politically. We are therefore going to have to involve the communities and their leaders in our planning from the very start, if we want to commemorate ethnic history and avoid conflict. Second, we have realized that these communities may be a source of resources and partnership for the development of historic sites, which could make a lot of difference in these times of fiscal constraint.

Native People and the Parks

So far, I've given you the impression that ethnic and racial diversity are not presenting Parks Canada with great challenges, except if we chose to stir controversy up by ourselves. There is, however, one area where diversity is a direct challenge to Parks Canada and particularly to the National Parks, this concerns the native people of Canada.

A bit of background you should know. In Canada, unorganized land belongs to the province, not the federal government. So when the federal government wants a park, which it must own outright, it is necessary to obtain the land from the province. In the eighties, it became increasingly difficult to get provincial approval to have a national park. The provinces simply did not want to cede territory to the federal government without getting a lot of concessions in return, which the federal government could not afford. The upshot was a strategy to concentrate on establishing parks in the far north, which is still Federal territory, and where there are many significant natural areas needing protection.

Great idea, except in 1982, when we patriated our constitution, that is, brought it back from England, where it had been an act of the British parliament since its inception in 1867, the new constitution contained a clause which said that the Government of Canada recognizes the Native People's inherent right of self-government as an existing right within the constitution. This permitted all the first nations to make land claims all across Canada, in particular, in the north.

What is important about this is that it led to the situation where one part of the Federal Government, Dept of Indian and Northern Affairs, was negotiating with Native people about what land they have title to, and what they can do with it, while another part of the Federal Government, Parks Canada, was negotiating with the same native peoples and the administration of the northern territories (the same department of Indian and Northern Affairs) for title to the same land.

Obviously, the land claim and the park had to be part of the same negotiation. Fortunately, the native people and Parks Canada

frequently had the same aims, protection of the land and its natural resources. Unfortunately, the native people wanted to continue to harvest the resources to preserve their traditional ways of life, and Parks Canada had always forbidden resource exploitation in the parks.

Parks Canada quickly realized that unless they compromised on the resource exploitation issue, there would be no park negotiation at all. So they compromised and agreed to allow traditional resource use. Suddenly they had allies. Although the native peoples usually wanted their land claims settled before actually finally agreeing to a park, they generally supported a recognition of a national park reserve, where the land could be set aside and earmarked for a park, pending final negotiation of the details.

Inevitably, of course, the devil is in the details. You cannot negotiate with a partner whose support you are counting on without giving a little something away. A few examples will illustrate.

In Ivvavik National Park, negotiated in 1984, Parks Canada created a wildlife management advisory council, made up of park managers and Inuvialuit people to recommend to the minister what should be done to manage the wildlife resources of the park. They also agreed to training programs to transfer skills to the Inuvialuit to permit them to benefit from park jobs.

In Wood Buffalo National Park, which had existed for a long time, the 1986 land claim agreement for that area of the north brought with it guaranteed hunting and fishing rights for the native people, training and employment guarantees, and the creation of a wildlife advisory board. This was much the same arrangement as in Ivvavik park.

In 1989, the Land claim was signed for the area around Mingan National Park Reserve in the St. Lawrence, and a management council was created. The council had the right to review everything to do with the management of the park, and park managers had to regularly submit their operating plans to the council. If the council did not approve the plan, they could advise the minister, who would make a decision. Not quite a veto, but certainly a lot of power.

By 1992 with the negotiations for Aulavik National Park, Parks Canada committed to consultation with the Inuvialuit agencies on all matters related to park management, including archeology, religious and cultural sites. It was still advisory, that is Parks Canada had the final veto, but they were agreeing to a much broader consultation.

In 1993, at the Gwaii Haanas Park Reserve in the Queen Charlotte Islands, the Haida Nation, which claimed the land, were not ready to concede ownership or even sovereignty. As a result, a unique agreement was reached which recognizes that both Canada and the Haida Nation believe they own the land and don't agree that the other one does. However, notwithstanding this disagreement, both agree the area of Gwaii Haanas should be preserved so have agreed to develop a park. The park is managed by something called the Archipelago Management Board, which consists of two government of Canada officials and two Haida

Nation representatives, and one of each being co-chair. Its purpose is to examine all initiatives and undertakings relating to the planning operating and management of the archipelago. They will try to manage by consensus, but if there is a disagreement, then the disagreement will be referred back to the Government of Canada and the Haida Nation for further negotiation. In other words, neither side has a veto. It is complete power sharing. We've come a long way baby, as the ad says.

Of course, the rights of the Haida include harvesting for subsistence and for ceremonial purposes, basically, all their traditional ways.

Most of the other parks in the north, from the long established ones like Auyuittuq to the proposed Tuktut Nogiat, are in the process of negotiation right now. And in all of them there is some sort of management board.

You can see over time a trend is emerging. The first nations are requiring a greater say in how the parks are managed in order to

allow them to be created. It is fortunate that there is no fundamental disagreement between the aims of Parks Canada and of the Native people. We seem to be getting along quite well with the management boards and councils and still accomplishing our objectives, although I hear anecdotally that it sometimes takes some getting used to, because the styles of doing business for a native group and a southern bureaucrat are sometimes different.

So I guess what we have learned from both our dealings with ethnic groups and native peoples is that you have to give a little in order to get a little.

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**Rural and
Sustainable
Tourism**

A CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR FACILITATING RURAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract: This paper examines why some rural communities are able to make substantial progress in their tourism development efforts while others experience problems due to a variety of constraints. Based on in-depth case studies conducted in four rural Pennsylvania counties, a conceptual model for understanding and facilitating rural tourism development is presented.

Introduction and Purpose

Historically, many small towns and rural regions beyond the major cities have provided amenity resources attractive to tourists. Tourism relies on the development and utilization of natural, historical, cultural, and human resources in the local environment as tourist attractions and destinations. Even more so today, there is great interest among a variety of special interest groups in rural tourism development. One of the reasons for this great interest is the potential for positive local economic impact resulting from an in-flow of dollars spent by visiting tourists. Even with both real and potential negative impacts, tourism development is still being promoted as a viable economic development strategy to help stabilize, diversify, and improve local rural economies (Brown 1992; Stokowski 1992).

In many areas worldwide, especially in rural areas, new development initiatives have begun to place more emphasis on the sustainable development of tourism resources. However, such development approaches remain problematic and as policy are certainly not easily implemented (Burr and Walsh 1994; Haider and Johnston 1992). While some rural communities have been able to identify, develop, and utilize their natural, historical, cultural, and human resources successfully as tourist attractions, others have been stymied in such efforts. Why are some rural communities able to make substantial progress in their tourism development efforts while others experience a variety of problems and constraints? Based on in-depth case studies conducted in four rural Pennsylvania counties, this paper presents a conceptual model which is hopefully useful for understanding and facilitating the process of rural tourism development.

Methodology

Four Pennsylvania counties, each having a 1990 population over fifty percent rural, were selected from different geographic regions of the state as part of a larger research project involving in-depth case studies of tourism's role as an economic development tool. Although geographic distribution across the state was an important factor in the selection of the counties, other variables were also of importance. These included some variation among the four counties in total land area, population, population density, population change, percent of the population

considered to be rural, age composition of residents, per capita and median income, education, and current unemployment rate. Also of interest were county variations in past and present dependence on tourism, current tourism development efforts, different types of tourism present (e.g., natural resource, outdoor recreation, historical heritage, cultural heritage, special event), and both tourism-related and non-tourism-related economic development activity.

Within each county, key informant interviews were conducted with a wide variety of individuals who could be characterized as leaders in county, city, borough and township government, in a variety of public and private agencies, in different businesses, and in other organizations. Some of these individuals were professionally associated with tourism-related efforts and initiatives, such as an Executive Director of a Tourism Promotion Agency, but most were not. Additionally, a modified "snowball" technique was employed through these key informant interviews to identify other individuals for further contact about local tourism-related efforts. In addition to identifying other key informants, this technique was especially useful in locating individuals involved in a tourism-related business or voluntarily involved in a special initiative or project related in some way to tourism development. Because these individuals were involved with a specific tourism action, they were distinguished as action informants.

An instrument was developed for the purpose of interviewing both key and action informants in the four counties. The interview instrument design was semi-structured and consisted of open-ended questions related to topics of interest which enabled the researcher as an interviewer to probe for elaboration and clarification of informant responses. The instrument was pilot tested in one rural county, and after some minor modification of format was subsequently used in the three other counties. For this study, 43 individual key and action informant interviews were conducted in the four counties over a sampling time frame of approximately five months.

The raw data for this study are the field notes and tape records compiled from the key and action informant interviews conducted in the four rural counties. All field notes and tape records were transcribed into a standardized format in order to facilitate data analysis. These were then qualitatively analyzed through a comparative content analysis by noting certain recurring themes, similarities, and differences which were evident among the responses of different informants.

Findings

Based on informant responses and the perceptions of the researcher, certain differences were evident in the tourism development approaches in each of the four counties. While two counties appeared to be making substantial progress in their tourism development efforts, the other two counties seemed to be experiencing a number of problems due to a variety of constraints. Based on what appears to be working in the two counties making substantial progress, a seven-step model for conceptualizing and facilitating rural tourism development has been developed. This model especially focuses on process and the critical components of interactions and linkages within supportive internal and external structures (Figure 1).

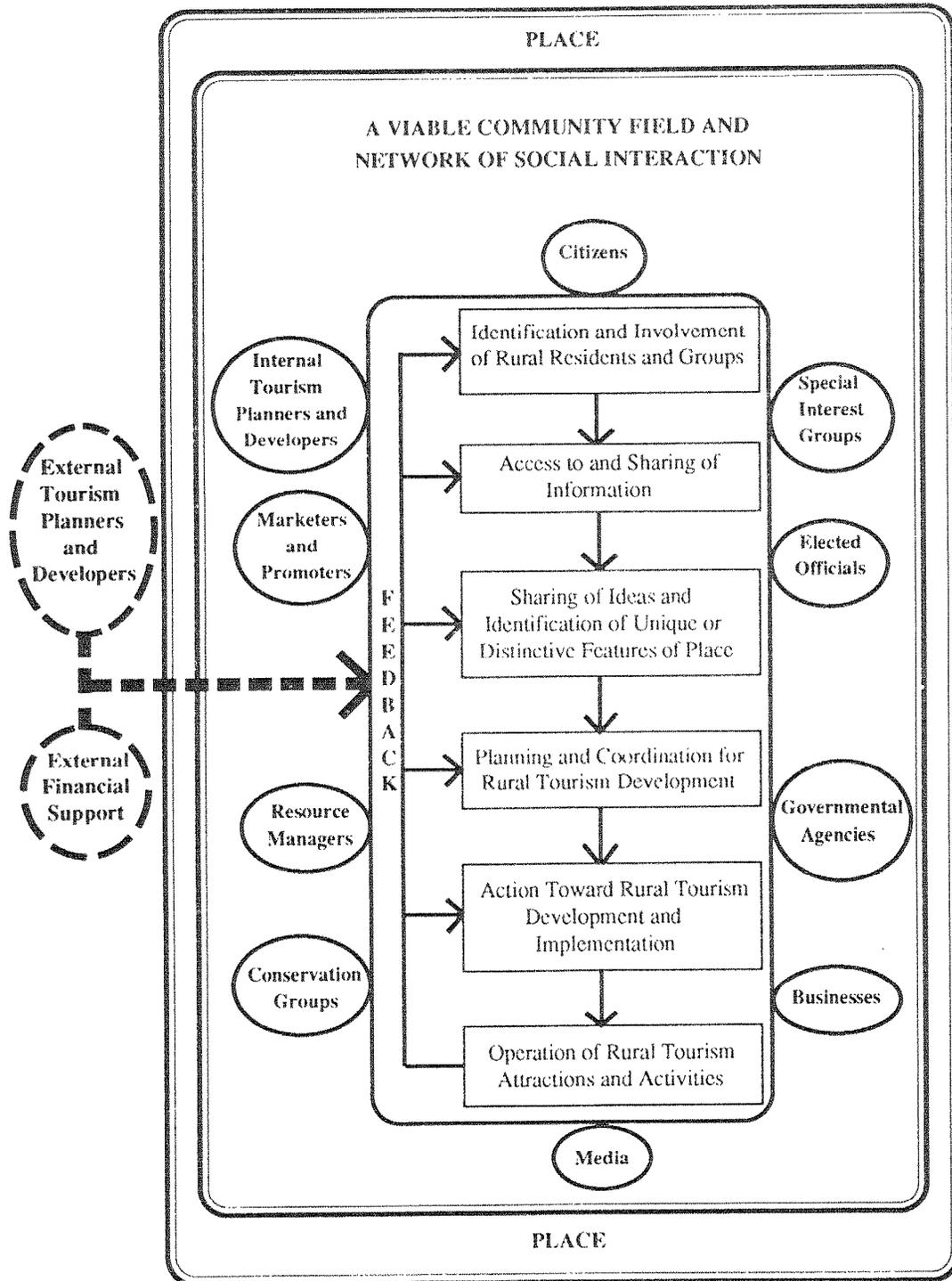


Figure 1. A conceptual model for facilitating rural tourism development.

A Conceptual Model for Facilitating Rural Tourism Development

As a first step in this process, it is necessary to identify and involve rural residents and special interest groups that are supportive of tourism and tourism-related development. In this study rural leaders were generally supportive of tourism and perceived it positively with varying levels of optimism. It is individuals such as these who can provide initial leadership and influence the broader rural populace. However, it is important at a very early stage in the process to be able to demonstrate the value, importance, and benefits of rural tourism. Rural residents must also realize that tourism is not an outright panacea for the economic difficulties being experienced in many rural places. Instead, it should ideally be viewed as one component of an economic development or revitalization strategy for rural areas and communities which may complement other efforts. Perhaps this can be accomplished through the use of illustrative case studies of successful tourism development efforts in other rural areas. Such information, along with hard data on both the direct and indirect benefits of tourism, must be readily available and comprehensible to not only those interested in developing tourism, but also to the general rural populace.

As a second step in the process, people need to have access to and be able to share information in order to make sound judgments for decision-making. If there is not fairly widespread interest in and support for tourism development initiatives in a rural area or community, there is a strong probability that such efforts will not be successful. There will be groups that are non-supportive of tourism. In this study rural leaders perceived opposition to tourism and tourism-related development among some rural residents. Mentioned most often in this respect were elderly residents because of their perceived opposition to change. Yet, rural leaders also had the perception that rural residents were ready for change, realizing that change was necessary in order to create opportunities for a healthy economy. As part of accessing and sharing information, it may be necessary to actively seek out opposition groups, determine why they are in opposition, and then make an active effort to gain their support. In this study, rural leaders perceived increased residential support and willingness to extend hospitality to visitors if awareness could be increased through sharing information about the value and importance of tourism and its real and potential benefits.

It is also important to be able to help rural residents become aware of the potential negative impacts of tourism and tourism-related development, for decisions must be made about the costs of increased tourism that residents are willing to absorb in relation to benefits which may accrue. Social impacts from visiting tourists, more intensive development of natural, cultural, and historical resources, and increased burdens of infrastructural support must be offset by advantages of social and cultural exchange and strengthened economies. Rural communities need to utilize all strategies available to them to increase their awareness about tourism in order to initiate effective actions to deal with tourism development.

As a third step, there must be a sharing of ideas among interested residents about current and potential tourist attractions and activities. This involves the identification of the unique or

distinctive features of place—the components of the rural mystique and the natural, cultural, and historical resources—which may possibly be developed for tourism. Although this may be difficult for long-time residents to do, in this study most rural leaders were able to perceive place uniqueness or distinctiveness. If tourism development is to be part of a county-wide economic development plan, then the identification of unique or distinctive features must be included for the entire county. Some of these unique or distinctive features or places may actually be the fields of care or sacred places to which rural residents attach great meaning and sentiment, and as such, they may not want to share these with tourists. Other features or places may be more public symbols, which still have meaning for rural residents in which they take great pride, but may be more appropriate for development as tourist attractions.

Once the unique or distinctive features of place are identified, it may be easier to recognize certain types of tourism already present and types which could be developed more. Informants in this study were able to identify a wide variety of types of tourism present in their county, such as heritage tourism, cultural tourism and the performing arts, outdoor recreation activities, enjoyment of rural scenery and wildlife, sightseeing, antiquing and specialty shopping, bed & breakfast stays, special events and festivals, genealogy, class and family reunions, conventions, and even serving pass-through travelers.

The fourth step in the process is planning and coordination for rural tourism development. The perceived importance of planning and coordination was evident among rural leaders in this study. The question is planning and coordination for what? There were some substantive issues perceived by rural leaders as important for planning and coordination of rural tourism development. Related to an ideal for which to strive in terms of tourism-related development, informants perceived the importance of maintaining a careful balance in development, not degrading valuable tourism resources, and protecting and preserving those resources for the future. These ideals involve substantive planning issues associated with the challenge of implementing sustainable tourism development. Informants also perceived the need to plan for maintaining local involvement and control so that tourism development is not imposed externally. Also perceived was a need to plan for tourism development to directly benefit local residents and communities and insure that residents still have access to important and valuable resources. Informants also identified the need to plan for a focus, goal, or theme for county-wide tourism development in order to have a unified and effective, county-wide marketing effort. Related to these county-wide efforts, was the need to plan for the development and promotion of a variety or mix of better tourist attractions, activities, sites, and points of interest.

Although the then current negative impacts of tourism were perceived to be minor by these rural leaders, they did perceive the need to plan for control of potential negative impacts should the scale of tourism increase in the future. Also necessary was effective planning for the development of a supportive infrastructure and for associated development of hospitality services. Additionally, informants perceived the need to plan for actively seeking out the interest, cooperation, and support of local

businesses, and to increase residential awareness and support for tourism development.

One of the perceived constraints to successful rural tourism development, also mentioned by these rural leaders, was the lack of professional expertise and knowledge at the local level in planning for tourism development. Even though a number of different interest groups were active in certain tourism development efforts, overall coordination and cooperation was lacking. Volunteers were perceived to be the main participants in such efforts and although their participation is important, a consequent lack of professionalism, limited progress, and difficulty in county-wide promotional efforts were all perceived by informants as constraints to successful tourism development.

Depending on the scale of tourism development perceived to be desired or attainable in a rural community or county, the need for the expertise, knowledge, leadership, and organizational skill of professional tourism planners and developers becomes evident. If the scale of development is small, volunteer groups may be able to accomplish tourism planning and development efforts on their own internally, with no or minimal assistance from outside professionals, although this still may be a challenge. If more importance is attached to tourism development as an economic revitalization tool for rural communities and the scale of development becomes larger, the more overwhelming the planning and coordination process can become for volunteer groups working in tourism development. This will inevitably necessitate the employment of full-time, professional planners and developers, either internal or external to place, as illustrated in Figure 1.

Through planning and coordination, the fifth step of action directed toward actual rural tourism development and implementation occurs, followed by the sixth step of the actual operation of rural tourism attractions and activities. Finally, there must be an evaluation or feedback step which loops back to and continuously affects and modifies all of the previous steps, an important characteristic of all closed system models. Although this process of feedback operates internally, all places are interconnected to other places through a system of spatial interaction and transfers within a framework of circulation. Places have unique internal characteristics, an inside, but also have an external connectivity to other locations and situations, an outside. Being able to effectively take advantage of a supportive connectivity with the outside appears to help facilitate the process of rural tourism development.

Discussion and Implications

A major question underlying this conceptual process for facilitating rural tourism development, especially the step of planning and coordination, is where can rural communities or areas turn for the human resources, planning expertise, and financial support and capital necessary for planning, coordination, and development of tourism resources and supporting infrastructure. Although there must be cooperation and support by elected officials and governmental agencies at the local and county level, as illustrated in Figure 1, external financial support from the state and perhaps even federal levels may be

important and necessary in order to successfully facilitate rural tourism development. Additionally, the private sector can play an important role in supporting rural tourism development.

What may be key to this whole process is the existence of conditions which facilitate effective social interaction between individuals and special interest groups, enabling a viable community field to develop which integrates a variety of local interests and extra-local support. Local leaders as citizens, elected officials, governmental agency employees, resource managers, business owners, members of conservation groups, individuals in the media, marketers and promoters, along with tourism planners and developers, all play key roles in this process, as members of diverse special interest groups interacting and networking with one another, enabling a viable community field to develop. Efforts here contribute not only to rural tourism development, but to the long-term development and viability of the rural community.

If local, state, and federal governments are truly concerned about improving and sustaining rural economies, improving the quality of life for rural residents, and making a viable contribution to the process of rural community development, resources should and could be allocated for rural tourism development where reasonable. Perhaps as one component of a larger developmental strategy, resources could be directed at removing some of the perceived constraints or barriers to rural tourism development and at the substantive planning issues identified by rural leaders in this study. For example, resources could be aimed at directly involving more rural residents and groups, facilitating their access to and sharing of information, sharing of ideas and identifying place uniqueness, and planning and coordinating for rural tourism development.

The support and involvement of rural leaders are important and vital components in rural tourism development, and their perceptions, efforts, and actions affect the more general perceptions, efforts, and actions of all rural residents. A greater recognition and understanding of these perceptions will hopefully help tourism-related planning and development initiatives be more effective in attaining goals and in the process, benefit rural communities and residents.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF ECOTOURISM AND THE NECESSITY OF USING ENVIRONMENTAL AUDITING IN ITS PLANNING AGENDA

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Abstract: The concept of ecotourism is seen to be quite synonymous with that of alternative forms of travel. Its development in recent years has proved that further enlargement of ecotourism's segment in the future, is possible. Despite this growth, the definitional approaches of the concept have been misleading and have often created a confusion among practitioners in the industry. The latter confusional stages of theorizing ecotourism have presumably contributed to the prevailing attitude in managing the concept. Taking into consideration the fragility of the environment in conjunction with the sensitivity of ecotourism visits to sites, the use of environmental auditing is important. Environmental auditing concentrates its application on identifying the present and potential environmental impacts on the ecosystems. It lays the grounds for describing the environmental elements (water, waste, etc) and details their impacts through the use of environmental indicators. In overall terms, the technique can assist the resources' managers to safeguard their assets within the sites and to implement their ecotourism strategies. The paper tends to describe and view the concept of ecotourism as a sub-component of natural tourism. It further outlines the need to exercise environmental auditing as a technique which monitors the environmental impacts throughout the tourism life cycle of a site, and to safeguard and sustainably manage the resources.

Introduction

Ecotourism has become one of the most popular concepts of tourism in recent years (Hvenegaard, 1994; Dowling, 1995). The increased awareness of environmental issues, in conjunction with the realization that the concept of over-development in tourism has to be abolished, have placed ecotourism at the forefront of a variety of tourism development actions. Moreover, ecotourism as well as tourism as a whole have to be developed in line with sustainable development programmes. In this respect, the World Travel and Tourism Council and the Earth Council, have presented Agenda 21 especially for the tourism industry. Agenda 21 outlines twelve guiding principles for sustainable tourism development (Table 1). It further specifies nine action steps for the public sector as well as ten priority areas for the private sector. Looking at the public sector, there are two elements which are important for the scope of the current review (WTTC/ WTO/ EC, 1995).

- 1) Tourism products must contain sustainable elements; and
- 2) The public sector has to measure the progress of achieving sustainable development.

In line with the two suggested principles of sustainable tourism development, this paper examines the product of ecotourism. An overview of the concept, which includes its definitional perspective, is presented in order to clarify the elements of ecotourism. Additionally, the technique of environmental auditing is outlined by looking at its framework, its methodology and its benefits when applied by the tourism destination authorities. The key recommendation of this review is that environmental auditing is a tool which can measure the scope and the progress of ecotourism development and safeguards and manages the resources sustainably.

Table 1. The guiding principles for tourism - Agenda 21.

1. Travel and tourism assist people in leading healthy and productive lives in harmony with nature.
 2. Tourism should contribute to the conservation, protection and restoration of the Earth's ecosystem.
 3. Travel and tourism should be based upon sustainable patterns of production and consumption.
 4. Nations should cooperate to promote an open economic system in which international trade in travel and tourism services can take place on a sustainable basis.
 5. Protectionism in trade in tourism services should be halted or reversed.
 6. Tourism, peace, development and environmental protection are interdependent.
 7. In order to achieve sustainable development, environmental protection shall constitute an integral part of the tourism development process.
 8. Tourism development issues should be handled with the participation of concerned citizens, with planning decisions being adopted at local level.
 9. Nations shall warn one another of natural disasters that could affect tourists or tourist areas.
 10. Since the full participation of women is necessary to achieve sustainable development advantage should be taken of travel and tourism's capacity to create employment for women.
 11. Tourism development should recognize and support the identity, culture and interests of indigenous peoples.
 12. International laws protecting the environment should be respected by the worldwide travel and tourism industry.
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The Concept of Ecotourism

Ecotourism experts claim that its segment accounts for 10% of international tourism, with an estimate that it will increase by 20-50% per year (Fillion et al, 1994). However, despite the fact that this statistical estimate has not been matched by any common acceptable data, there is a growing concern that its segment accounts for a significant proportion of world travel. Currently,

one of the weaknesses of measuring the number of visitors participating in ecotourism holidays, derives from the breadth of terminology which exists. There are many terms sprinkled throughout the literature such as 'sustainable', 'minimal impact', 'responsible' or 'endemic' tourism. Furthermore, there is enough evidence to support the notion that consumers have shifted away from 'mass tourism' towards experiences that are perceived to be more individualistic and enriching. In contrast, there is a lack of understanding of what is the accurate nature of that experience. Inevitably, this has created a disequilibrium over the theoretical (definitional) approaches of ecotourism. A brief review of a few definitions demonstrates the confusion:

- 1) Ceballos-Lascurain views ecotourism in the light of experiential and *educational* factors (1991: 33);
- 2) Boo terms ecotourism quite synonymously with *nature tourism* (1990: 10).
- 3) Tickell as travel to *natural areas* as well as the enjoyment of human culture without causing damage (1994: ix).
- 4) Buckley tends to describe it as a *nature-based product*, with *sustainable management and educational components*, with contribution to conservation (1995: 3).
- 5) Dowling demonstrates five key principles of ecotourism that are *nature based; ecologically sustainable; environmentally educational; locally beneficial and generates tourism satisfaction* (1995: 87).
- 6) Blamey states that the ecotourism experience is "one in which an individual travels to a relatively *undisturbed natural area* that is more than 40 km from home, the primary intention being to study, admire or appreciate the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations (both past and present) found in these areas" (1995: 20).
- 7) Commonwealth Department of Tourism in Australia determines ecotourism in the light of its *natural based, environmentally-educational and sustainable management components*

In order to define ecotourism precisely, it may seem quite difficult because the concept 'ambitiously attempts to describe an activity, set forth a philosophy, and espouse a model of development' (Ziffer, 1989:5). Nevertheless, it is useful to consider that the latter mentioned definitions of ecotourism, contain three common elements: 1) nature-based, b) environmentally-educational, and c) sustainable management.

With respect to these elements limitations arise as to what is the nature-based experience; of whether a particular natural activity includes educational or interpretative components; and what are the criteria of sustainable management (Blamey, 1995).

Moreover taking into consideration that travel to ecotourism sites may increase the environmental deterioration with serious negative environmental impacts on the aspects of the natural environment (Tisdell, 1995: 367-8), then environmental management techniques

are needed in order to monitor the application and the progress of a sustainable management programme.

On the other hand, conservation groups have developed guidelines which acknowledge appropriate behavior which travelers should appoint, such as the Audubon society (cited in Valentine, 1992). However, while the codes of behavior can assist with the sustainable management of an area, and that those tourists who respond to these codes are those which hold environmental attitudes, it may be argued that much of the sustainable management of ecotourism sites depends on how to measure the environmental impacts. In this respect, an environmental management technique which could monitor the actual and potential environmental impacts, is the tool of environmental auditing.

Environmental Auditing

Environmental auditing's origin can be traced back to the late 1960s and 1970s in the USA, due to the new legislative requirements such as the National Environmental Policy act (NEPA) in 1969, the Clean Air Act in 1970 and Clean Water Act in 1979. The results of the above legislation had a positive impact on the business environment, which resulted in repeat practices of environmental audits.

The accepted definition of the concept came in 1989 by the International Chamber of Commerce (ICC) as: "A management tool comprising a systematic, documented, periodic and objective evaluation of how well environmental organization, management and equipment are performing with an aim of helping to safeguard the environment by: a) Facilitating management control of environmental practices, and b) Assessing compliance with the company policies, which would include meeting regulatory requirements" (UNEP/IEO, 1989:100).

The main purpose of an environmental audit is to measure the actual and potential environmental impacts which occur in companies as well as destinations. It further creates and raises employee awareness of environmental issues; discovers the cost-saving opportunities and waste minimization alternatives; allows management to give credit to employees based on their environmental achievement practices; establishes environmental training programmes; and measures the effective use of resources.

Nevertheless, considering that these benefits can assist companies to a large degree, constraints are also noted. Research conducted in 1990, suggested that the environmental statements of EA were described insufficiently; the information which was evaluated from monitoring programs to check the predictions was misleading; and the timescale framework of some impacts was estimated inadequately (UNECE, 1990).

At the tourism industry level, environmental auditing is "a means to an end-sustaining the viability of the tourism industry" (Goodall, 1994b: 656). Tourism enterprises must exercise procedures to assess their environmental performance, with EA providing that procedure to tourism firms (Goodall, 1992: Stable et al, 1993; Goodall, 1994a, 1994b). Looking at the environmental auditing types for the private sector they can be distinguished into seven types (Goodall, 1994a):

Compliance audits. This type of audit is concerned with checking conformity with current environmental legislation and regulations. An ecotourism facility may check if its activities, noise or waste management, comply with environmental laws.

Site audits. This type of audit concentrates on spot checks on buildings and plants, in order to identify the potential or actual areas with environmental problems. An ecotourism facility may check if its energy efficiency or waste recycling practices, fulfil the appropriate standards.

Product audits. In this category of audits, the products of the companies are reviewed against the criteria of their policies and standards. The tour operator's wildlife package as an example, can

be measured in terms of number of traveler's as well as the facilities surrounding the package, such as the type of accommodation.

Activity audits. A single activity of the company is considered, especially those that cross business boundaries of the company, most often upon the distribution and transportation networks. An example can be seen from a hotel which can assess the public transportation of its staff's travel, in relation to their environmental performance.

Issue audits. An audit of this type usually focuses on how well the company is dealing with specific, highly important environmental issues. A hotel can assess the issue of recycling paper in its operational procedures and to check if its paper can be recycled.

Corporate audits. This audit covers the firm's entire operation in relation to their environmental policy. The main purpose of this audit is to examine the efficiency of a national park's management for instance, and to assess the efficiency of management in implementing the environmental policy, as well as, if the policy is well-known throughout the organization.

Associate audits. Finally, the purpose of this audit is to examine companies' associate agents or suppliers. A tour operator, for example, can assess its suppliers in terms of the number of environmental products which they deliver or trade.

The available types of EA in the private sector show the extent to which companies dealing with ecotourism as well as with any other forms of tourism can commit their activities in an environmental manner. Similarly, tourism destinations also have to demonstrate an environmental auditing procedure for their activities. A destination's environmental auditing is a more complex process in comparison with the private sector. The geographical scale of a tourism resort, its different components as well as the accessibility of monitoring the environmental impacts, demonstrate the difficulties in successfully applying an environmental audit.

Environmental Audits in Ecotourism Destinations

Environmental auditing in the local government or municipality institutions can trace its involvement back to the 1970s, with the development of national and international standards in Canada (Ledgerwood et al, 1992). Currently, public sector organizations claim to be 'land use managers' and 'service providers' for parks and open spaces (Dean, 1991). As a result, their role of exercising an environmental auditing approach can be seen to be "an assessment

of the current state of the local environment, the factors affecting it and the environmental impacts of local authority policies. It is to be used as a baseline against which to assess the progress and impact of local environmental policies and practices" (FOE, 1990). Crucially, the public sector environmental auditing approach can be considered to differ from the private sector's auditing procedures for two reasons.

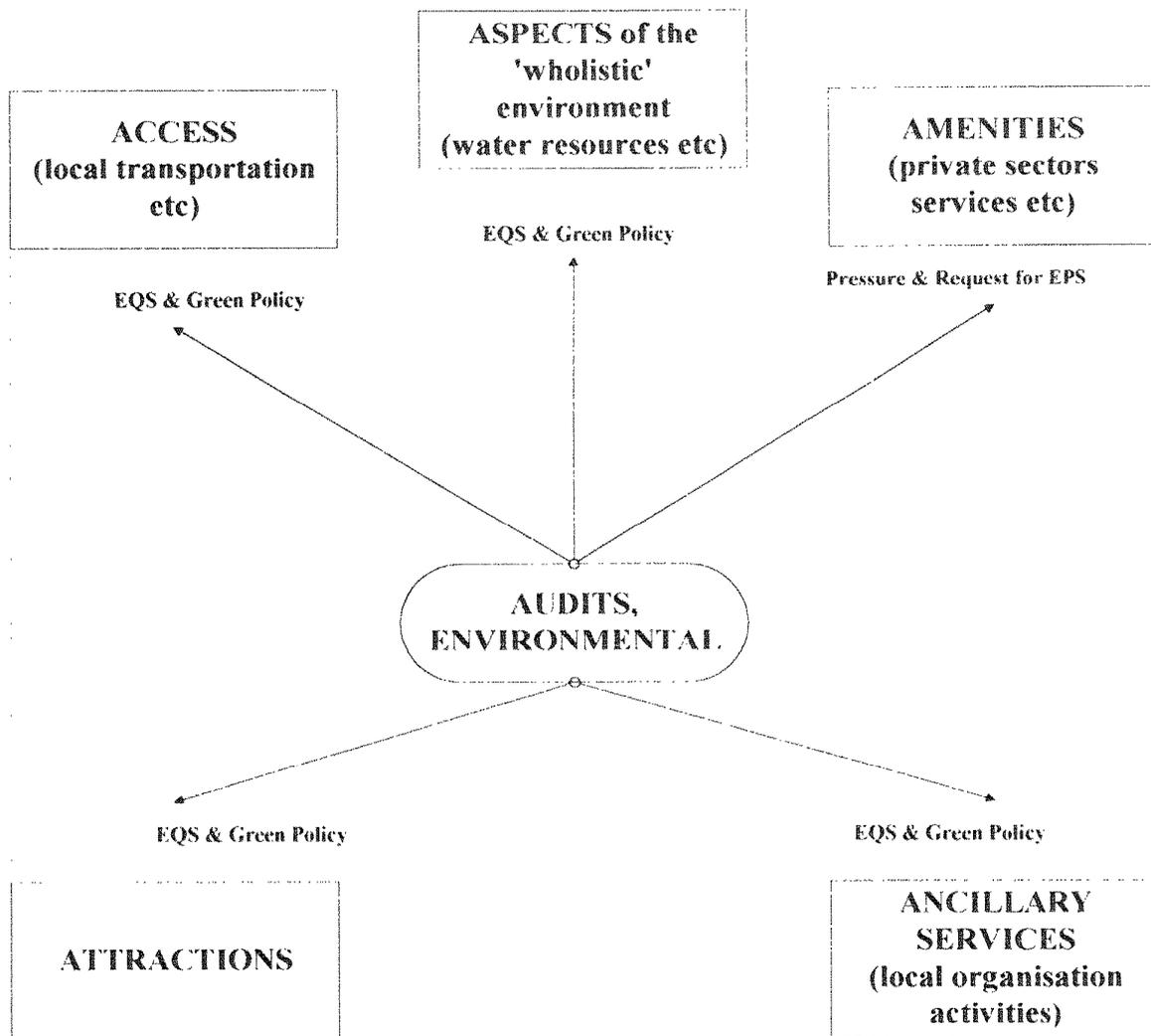
First, the authority has to protect and improve the local environment within its territory. In this instance, the first environmental audit type is conducted, the *State of Environment Report*, which concentrates on gathering data for the environmental elements and the environmental quality indicators. Secondly, the public sector has the ability to enforce environmental laws. As an outcome, the local authority or municipality has a regulatory, influential, and management role, absent within the private sector (LGMB, 1991). The roles in the areas of, for instance, environmental health, landfill management and soil management, have to be assessed. Here, the second type of EA is conducted, the *Internal Audit*, which analyses the authority's functions, through its two sub-audits (LGMB, 1991; Dean, 1991): a) *Policy Impact Assessment*, which reviews and appraises the activities, services and practices of the authority, and b) *Management Audit*, which is an examination of the public sector's departmental procedures and structures from which environmental policies are controlled.

These proactive procedures can aid in the minimization of negative environmental impacts which the local area carries, and at the tourism destination level, audits can assist them to address their environmental commitment. In the context of EA being practiced within the area, the resort's components can be assessed throughout the tourism life cycle of a site (Diamantis and Westlake, 1996).

The use of an audit can monitor the actual and potential environmental impacts of the aspects of the wholistic environment (water resources etc) as well as of the ancillary services (local organization activities), amenities (private sector services etc), access (local transportation services etc), and attractions (Figure 1).

The monitoring process of the components of the destination provides, as an outcome, environmental quality standards for the Aspects of the wholistic environment, ancillary services, access, and attractions. Additionally, it can pressure the amenities component of the resort to exercise environmental audits and to provide their environmental performance standards to local authorities (Stabler and Goodall, 1993; Diamantis and Westlake, 1996).

Moreover, tourism destinations should foresee environmental auditing as an element for their ecotourism planning and development. Considering the fact that "tourism cannot achieve full global and local environmental sustainability in the foreseeable future" (Goodall, 1994b:664), the use of EA needs to be practiced continuously in order to ensure that tourists act as ecotourists and not destroyers of nature, and that tourism management of an area practice their commitment of monitoring the progress of their sustainable management practices. As a result, environmental auditing should be a core element of the conceptual framework for ecotourism activities, in order to support the conservation attitudes of the destination.



EQS: Environmental Quality Standards

EPS: Environmental Performance Standards

: Monitor of Environmental Impacts

Figure 1. The environmental commitment of destinations.

Conclusion

The successful development of ecotourism at a site or destination needs to be associated with environmental management techniques. Environmental auditing is delivered as a tool, which can monitor the

present and potential environmental impacts as well as form the basis of ecotourism development. Given that the tourism and environment relationship has been expressed with antagonistic or negative elements, it is necessary to adopt the latter tool

(Environmental auditing), not only as a way of assessing the base of an ecotourism's development, but most importantly to commit ourselves to this process. Finally, by applying the environmental auditing approach, destinations and specific sites are able to realize their role of managing resources in such a way, in order to achieve sustainable development practices in their activities, and to contribute to the overall high quality of services offered to tourists.

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SEASONAL HOMES IN BERKSHIRE COUNTY, MASSACHUSETTS: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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The purpose of this study was to define and describe how the seasonal home market has changed in the last seven years in Berkshire County, Massachusetts and to assess the impact and magnitude of the market. Seasonal home market continue to grow in the county; however, the bulk of the growth occurred in the 80s and growth was confined to the central and southern regions of the county.

Introduction

Berkshire County, Massachusetts has long been a seasonal mecca for vacationers. Residents of metropolitan areas have left the fast pace city life to visit and relax in the rolling hills of Berkshire County. These "guests" often stayed for extended periods of time and could be called "permanent or resident tourists." Unlike the typical traveling tourists, these guests or visitors would stay in the county for extended periods of time and over the years have built, purchased or rented homes or housing units. Some of these housing units are opulent mansions and estates owned by some of the wealthiest people in the world while others are called "camps" and are typically unheated lakeside cabins. Nevertheless, many of the dwelling units in Berkshire County have been owned by second home residents whose primary residence was elsewhere, but who owned, rented and occupied a portion of Berkshire County's housing stock (BCRPC 1988). This study extends the analysis of the seasonal home market from the most recent report completed in 1988 to current estimates of the market in 1995. This study, commissioned by the Town of Adams, looks to further define and describe how the market has changed in the last seven years (the BCRPC Report was completed in 1988), to assess the impact and magnitude of the market, and to assist in the decision-making of the impacts of the Greylock Center Development in Adams. The study was completed by the author through the Center for Economic Development (CED) at the University of Massachusetts.

What is a seasonal or second home? The most accepted definition of a second home usually is stated as such: "housing structure used for recreation and or vacation purposes on a seasonal basis and owned and perhaps rented by a household or other entity who maintains a primary residence elsewhere..." (Stewart and Snydes 1994).

In initially framing this study which was funded by the Town of Adams, Massachusetts, it was hoped to provide an accurate picture of the distribution and impact of seasonal tourism throughout Berkshire County. Missed in the definition of seasonal home markets are those people who stay in a location,

but who many not necessarily be tied to a permanent housing structure such as a seasonal home. In this exploratory study of Berkshire County, Massachusetts, it was initially thought that a perhaps more accurate assessment of tourists who come to a region could be gathered. Thus, the term "long term tourist stay market" was coined to examine perhaps a variety of non-permanent residents. This could include seasonal or second home users, but the impact of the use of these structures in some tourist communities may well overlook seasonal residents who actually behave much like seasonal home users but do not necessarily reside in a seasonal home. A county such as Berkshire County, Massachusetts may attract a number of people who rent apartments, stay in homes, rent rooms, stay with family or friends for an extended period. This could also include seasonal workers. Berkshire County attracts a variety of seasonal markets due to its major attractions such as Tanglewood and Jacob's Pillow, which are significant cultural arts and music venues which operate on a seasonal basis. However, the key to unlocking the overall impact was to examine use in more detail and provide insights into the distribution of the patterns of use throughout the county. The study was initiated by the town of Adams in Northern Berkshire County which desired to benefit from more seasonal home type of use through the development of an environmental resort which was proposed to be developed in the Greylock Glen area of the community.

An extension of the definition problems further articulates the seasonal home identification and definition problems based specifically on use. For example, the use of seasonal homes may follow a number of different patterns which were obtained through interviews with local realtors, seasonal home owners, and businesses in Berkshire County. The use of seasonal homes may include the following types: 1) occasional to regular weekenders -- those who come to the county during the seasonal weekends and stay or visit a percentage of this time; probably are physically in the county 40 to 80 days per year; 2) regular weekenders -- those who faithfully come to the county for the majority of years weekends as high as 40 weekends per year and perhaps two full weeks per year and a number of 3 or 4-day weekends per year; probably in the county 80 to 110 days per year; 3) warm weather seasonals -- those who come to the county from roughly June 1 through the end of the fall foliage season or about October 15, probably in the county upwards of 125 to 135 days per year; 4) summer seasonals -- those who come to the county for the summer months of July and August; probably in the county 30 to 60 days per year; and 5) summer rentals -- those who vacation in the county at seasonal units for periods of one to three weeks; probably in the county for 5 to 20 days per year.

Ownership patterns were found to also varied through the initial preparation in framing this study. For example, the following different types of ownership patterns do exist: 1) out-of-state/county ownership -- usually obvious pattern of seasonal home ownership which makes identification easy; 2) local ownership -- individuals, partners, corporations which own seasonal homes and rent them to individuals, families and groups; 3) multiple owners -- collection of families of owners, some which may be local and external to the county; 4) multiple seasonal home owner -- owns more than one seasonal home in a variety of different areas and who may or may not use the home on a seasonal basis and who may employ a year round caretaker

of the property: 5) seasonal home ownership conversion -- converts to primary residence and who once used the home as a seasonal home but due to retirement now uses the home more like a primary residence; 6) seasonal home ownership transition -- telecommuting concept: one who lives in a nearby metropolitan area such as New York City but the nature of their job allows them to occupy the seasonal home on a more permanent basis.

Compounding the problems of identification problems were the state of tax records throughout the county. In exploring the tax records in an initial investigation for this study, it was found that some seasonal homes are difficult to uncover. Furthermore, attempts to uncover the "other market" -- the long term tourist stay market were even more difficult. Thus, although the intentions were good in the initial framing of the study, it was concluded that the best which could be accomplished in this study was to obtain more accurate counts and assessments of seasonal homes throughout the county.

An excellent review of the definition and data collection problems of seasonal homes was presented in "Understanding Seasonal Home Use: A Recommended Research Agenda." by Susan Stewart and Daniel Stynes (1994). In the preparation of this study, this article was carefully reviewed which included such items as: 1) understanding seasonal home choice and use; 2) seasonal home characteristics; 3) understanding seasonal home owners and users; and 4) measuring the impact of seasonal properties. A serious limitation to this study was the timeframe allowed for data collection and completion of the report. From initial investigation to completion of the report, a one month period was given. The purposes and intentions for completing the report had to be compromised given the restricted timeframe.

Purpose of Study

The purposes of this research paper/project are multiple:

- 1) to examine and update the seasonal housing market in Berkshire County for the Town of Adams with concerns about economic development impacts;
- 2) specifically to update the *Survey of Second Home Ownership in Berkshire County* done by the Berkshire County Regional Planning Commission in 1988;
- 3) to address specific issues specific to the seasonal housing market -- including the count of units; distribution within the county based on a regional distribution of North, Central and South County; examination of the property and personal property tax implications; sales of seasonal housing units and examination of the permanent residence of the Berkshire County seasonal home market.

Methods

To update the counts and impacts of seasonal homes within Berkshire County, the 1988 report formed the starting point combined with data from the 1980 and 1990 census. This was further supplemented with interviews of town tax assessors. Direct, in-depth comparisons across the county were made by selecting a sample of 9 of the 31 towns, three from each region of the county. Berkshire County is divided into three distinct regions -- North, Central and South County. Key to the identification of seasonal homes in Berkshire County is the *Personal Property Commitment Book* -- which identifies

properties which are seasonal and where personal property is indeed taxed. Careful checks of these properties allows for more accurate counts and market identification of seasonal home use. Other sources of secondary data provided useful based line data for comparison and validity on counts. They included: *1995 Berkshires Builders and Buyers Factbook*; *Massachusetts City and Town -- Average Single Family Property Tax Bills* from Massachusetts Department of Tax Revenue (1995); *1990 Census Data*; and *Lifestyle Market Analyst Data* (1993) -- for examining lifestyles of residences of primary owners. Descriptive analyses were conducted on the count data and contingency table analysis on the regional analysis within the county.

Selected Findings

The Seasonal Housing Count and Update

The bulk of the growth in the seasonal home market in Berkshire County occurred primarily in the 80s. The number of seasonal home units based on direct counts and personal interviews with tax collectors in 1995 for all of Berkshire County was estimated to be 6,968 units; without the cities included in the count, 6,673 units were counted as seasonal. Compared to the same towns used in the 1988 BCRPC Study, 6,648 units are seasonal. From 1976 to 1988, the number of seasonal homes increased 2,651 units and from 1988 to 1995, the number increased 1,017 units. Census data from 1980 to 1990 indicated an increase of 2,268 units. The 1990 census sets the seasonal units in all cities and towns in Berkshire County at 6,454; without the cities -- 6,205 units and when compared to the communities included in 1988 BCRPC Study -- 6,175 units (Table 1).

The Seasonal Housing Distribution within Berkshire County

For all Berkshire communities -- 19.1% were seasonal; for all towns without cities (excluding Pittsfield and North Adams) -- 26.6% were seasonal; and for all comparable towns with the 1988 BCRPC Report (excludes Adams, Florida, Dalton, Pittsfield, North Adams) -- 30.7% were seasonal in 1995 (Table 2). In direct comparison to the 1988 report, it was estimated that about a 3% increase in the overall distribution of the housing stock with the comparable towns occurred while in actual numbers of seasonal units, the increase amounted to approximately 16.4%.

The distribution of seasonal housing was highest in South County, where nearly 58% of the housing stock is seasonal; next highest in Central County where 39% is seasonal, and lowest in North County where only about 3% is seasonal (Table 3). The seasonal share of all housing from 1988 to 1995 has increased the most in Central County (comparisons based on the same set of towns for the 1988 report and the 1995 CED data). There is a relationship with the percent seasonal units and their location. Basically, South County has the highest number of towns with the high concentrations of seasonal units, Central County has the highest number of communities with moderate concentrations of seasonal units and North County has the highest number of communities with low concentrations of seasonal units (Table 4).

Table 1. Estimates of the seasonal home market size in Berkshire County.

Source	Year	Number of Seasonal Homes	Notes
US Census	1960	3,318	Census Estimates
US Census	1970	3,323	Census & BCRPC
BCRPC	1976-77	3,300	BCRPC Counts
US Census	1980	4,186	Census Estimates
BCRPC	1988	5,951	BCRPC Counts
US Census	1990	6,454	Seasonal Units Est.
CED	1995	6,968	Assessor Interviews and Sample Counts
Increase in Units	'60 to '95	3,650	
Increase in Units	'70 to '95	3,645	
Increase in Units	'76 to '95	3,668	
Increase in Units	'80 to '95	2,782	
Increase in Units	'88 to '95	1,017	
Increase in Units	'90 to '95	514	
Increase in Units*	'60 to '70	-18	
Increase in Units	'70 to '76	-23	
Increase in Units*	'70 to '80	863	
Increase in Units	'80 to '88	1,765	
Increase in Units*	'80 to '90	2,268	'88 to '90 -- 503 units
Increase in Units	'90 to '95	514	
BCRPC Inc. in Units	'76 to '88	2,651	
BCRPC/CED			
Inc. in Units	'88 to '95	1,017	
BCRPC/CED			
Inc. in Units	'76 to '95	3,668	

a/ Increases are from time period to time period and are not cumulative.

b/ BCRPC estimates and CED estimates based on actual counts/estimates at assessors' offices

* Census estimates based on vacancy rates in April of census year.

In 1995, the communities with the highest share of seasonal housing were: Otis (71%); Sandisfield (68%); Becket (66%); Monterey (62%); Tyringham (56%); Stockbridge (53%); and Alford (52%). North County and communities like Adams have not realized any significant increases in the number of seasonal housing units (Table 2).

Property Tax Implications of Seasonal Housing

Three communities were compared from the 1988 BCRPC Study on seasonal homes with regard to the percent evaluation of seasonal homes. For New Marlborough the percent valuation of seasonal homes in 1988 was 50.3% and in 1995 it was 52.9%; for Stockbridge the percent valuation of seasonal homes in 1988 was 42% and in 1995 it was 52.3% (estimate); and for Great Barrington the percent valuation of seasonal homes in 1988 was 10% and in 1995 it was 10.3% (estimate). Williamstown was added to this sample pool but not compared to 1988 figures -- its percent valuation of seasonal homes in 1995 it was 7.8%.

Personal property tax can be additional source of revenue for towns; however, only New Marlborough and Williamstown had accurate up-to-date summary data available. New Marlborough had an additional personal property tax revenue of \$49,481 while Williamstown had tax revenue of \$9,266 in 1994.

There is a relationship with the percent seasonal units and tax rate categories. The communities with the highest concentrations of seasonal homes have the lowest tax rates, the communities with moderate concentrations of seasonal homes have moderate tax rates and those communities with the lowest concentration of seasonal units have the highest tax rates (Table 5).

The actual tax rates for each category were:

High Percent Seasonal Units -- average tax rate = 8.134;

Moderate Percent Seasonal Units -- average tax rate = 13.165;

and Low Percent Seasonal Units -- average tax rate = 14.265.

The average housing values for the towns with high percentage of seasonal housing units is \$168,848, with moderate percentage is \$122,706 and with low percentage is \$100,830. However, these figures include all housing values. The average per capita budget was higher in towns with high percent seasonal units: High Percent Seasonal Units -- per capita budget = \$2,052.46; Moderate Percent Seasonal Units -- per capita budget = \$1,794.70; and Low Percent Seasonal Units -- per capita budget = \$1,598.00.

The estimated tax revenue for Berkshire County from seasonal homes is \$11.5 million dollars and an estimate of the total valuation is of these units is \$984 million with an average tax bill

Table 2. 1995 Seasonal housing unit estimates by town and city in Berkshire County.

<u>Town</u>	<u>Region</u>	<u>City or Town</u>	1995 <u>Seasonal Homes</u>	Single <u>Home Parcels</u>	<u>% Seasonal Homes</u>
Adams	North	Town	1,979		0.0%
Alford	South	Town	120	230	52.2%
Becket	Central	Town	991	1,492	66.4%
Cheshire	North	Town	28	997	2.8%
Clarksburg	North	Town	10	544	1.8%
Dalton	Central	Town	15	1,816	0.8%
Egremont	South	Town	280	656	45.7%
Florida	North	Town	10	259	3.9%
Great Barrington	South	Town	200	1,874	10.7%
Hancock	Central	Town	125	253	49.4%
Hinsdale	Central	Town	200	700	28.6%
Lanesborough	Central	Town	120	1,134	10.6%
Lee	Central	Town	320	1,667	19.2%
Lenox	Central	Town	420	1,511	27.8%
Monterey	South	Town	395	638	61.9%
Mount Washington	South	Town	60	130	46.2%
New Ashford	North	Town	15	53	28.3%
New Marlborough	South	Town	400	762	52.5%
North Adams	North	City	10	2,509	0.4%
Otis	South	Town	961	1,345	71.4%
Peru	Central	Town	80	268	29.9%
Pittsfield	Central	City	285	10,816	2.6%
Richmond	Central	Town	140	690	20.3%
Sandisfield	South	Town	370	546	67.8%
Savoy	North	Town	30	260	11.5%
Sheffield	South	Town	250	1,083	23.1%
Stockbridge	South	Town	533	1,021	52.2%
Tyringham	South	Town	125	225	55.6%
Washington	Central	Town	70	238	29.4%
West Stockbridge	South	Town	159	588	27.0%
Williamstown	North	Town	121	1,748	6.9%
Windsor	Central	Town	125	409	30.6%
Berkshire County Total			6,968	36,462	19.1%
Total without Cities			6,673	25,116	26.6%
Total Compared to '88 Report			6,648	21,592	30.7%

Table 3. Changes in seasonal housing by region.

<u>Region</u>	1988 Seas. <u>Count</u>	1995 Seas. <u>Count</u>	1988 % <u>of Housing</u>	1995 % <u>of Housing</u>	1988 Seas. <u>Distribution</u>	1995 Seas. <u>Distribution</u>
North	316	204	8%	5.7%	5.3%	3.1%
Central	2,177	2,591	28%	31.0%	36.6%	38.9%
South	3,458	3,853	39%	42.3%	58.1%	57.9%

a/ These figures compare the same number of towns from 1988 BCRPC Report; therefore, not all counted in cities/towns.

Table 4. Location by percent seasonal housing units

<u>Region</u>	Percent Seasonal-->	High <u>(40% and above)</u>	Moderate <u>(19% to 39%)</u>	Low <u>(Less than 19%)</u>
North		0	1	7
Central		5	6	1
South		8	4	0

Table 5. Tax rate categories by percent seasonal housing units.

Tax Rate	Percent Seasonal -->	High (40% and above)	Moderate (19% to 39%)	Low (Less than 19%)
High (14.32 and Above)		0	3	6
Moderate (8.83 to 14.31)		4	6	5
Low (8.82 and Below)		7	1	0

a/ High Percent Seasonal Units -- average tax rate = 8.134

b/ Moderate Percent Seasonal Units -- average tax rate = 13.165

c/ Low Percent Seasonal Units -- average tax rate = 14.265

of \$1,664 per seasonal unit (note assumptions in full text of report). The average value of all seasonal units is approximately \$141,480 and in communities with greater than 40% of the housing stock categorized as seasonal the average value is \$167,848; when Becket and Hancock were removed from the high percent seasonal housing communities, the average housing unit value was over \$199,000.

Potential Tax Impacts for Adams

Potential tax impacts for Adams were examined under different development scenarios. Those scenarios were for development of 100, 200, 300 or 400 seasonal housing units. For the purposes of

the measures of these tax impacts, the average seasonal housing value was set at \$167,848 and the current tax rate of 15.90 per 1000 was used. In addition, a personal property tax revenue was assumed at 5% of total evaluation and set at the current tax rate.

For 100 homes Adams would realize an additional \$266,878 in revenue; for 200 homes -- \$533,757; for 300 homes -- \$800,635; and for 400 homes -- \$1,067,513 in revenue. Additional costs to service these units were not calculated; an additional \$13,000 to \$53,000 could be earned through the personal property tax revenue source (Table 6).

Sales of Seasonal Housing Units

Sales of housing units were the highest in communities with a high percentage of seasonal units and the percent change from 1990 to 1994 was 33.9%; 84 units were sold in the high percent seasonal communities which were valued in excess of \$200,000 and a total of 268 units valued above \$200,000 were sold in Berkshire County in 1994; this represented 13% of all sales in Berkshire County in 1994 according to the *Berkshire Builders and Buyers Guide*.

The Seasonal Housing Market -- Where are They Coming From?

From a sample of nine towns in Berkshire County; it appears that the bulk of the seasonal home owners come from New York.

Approximately 50.4% are from New York with 21.6% from Manhattan and another 28.9% from areas outside central New York City. Another 14.8% are from Massachusetts, 10.4% are from New Jersey, 9.1% are from Florida and 6.5% are from Connecticut. The cost of living in the primary residential market of the seasonal homeowners is 10 to 30% higher than Berkshire County and as much as 115% higher in Manhattan -- a primary market for Berkshire County. This suggests substantial additional income to spend while residing in Berkshire County. Median household incomes range in these primary markets range from \$33,000 per year to \$60,000 per year. For example, Manhattan has 92,000 households with incomes in excess of \$100,000 per year which is one of Berkshire County's primary markets.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Seasonal Housing Trends.

The bulk of the growth in recent years in Berkshire County occurred in the 80s. Non urban Berkshire County as a whole appears to have seen an approximate 3% increase in second homes as an overall part of its single family housing stock during the past seven years. This increase is about half the rate of the previous eight years (1980 to 1988). The largest concentration of seasonal units is in South County with few homes in North County. Not surprisingly, South County has seen the most second home development with an 8% increase, while North and Central counties have seen a 2% and 6% increase respectively when all communities are considered. Those communities which have larger concentrations of seasonal homes have lower tax rates, more spending per capita, and higher housing values. However, when the same towns are compared with the 1988 BCRPC Report, North County has actually experienced a decrease in numbers (32% decrease) while South County has experienced an 11.4% increase and Central County 19.1% increase based on CED counts and estimates. One might surmise that some of the seasonal housing in North County has been converted to permanent housing. However, one should not jump to overwhelming conclusions based on these counts and

Table 6. Tax revenue impacts for Adams with increased level of seasonal homes.

Tax Revenue Scenarios of Increased Number Seasonal Homes*

	Number of Units	Ave. Value	Assessed Value	Tax Rate	Total Additional Tax Revenue
If Adams added	400 units	\$167,848	\$67,139,200	15.90	\$1,067,513
	300 units	\$167,848	\$50,354,400	15.90	\$800,635
	200 units	\$167,848	\$33,568,800	15.90	\$533,757
	100 units	\$167,848	\$16,784,400	15.90	\$266,878

* Assumes rates, assessments and valuations remain constant.

estimates. It is likely that some of these trends have occurred, but perhaps not at the magnitude found here. In the sample of towns examined in this study, the majority of those who purchase seasonal homes came from New York (over 50%) and other nearby Northeast States. A large portion (22%) are primary residents of Manhattan. The distribution of seasonal units does appear to be spreading northward with Central County gaining a bigger share of all seasonal units. However, North County has not yet seen an increase in the number or share of seasonal units.

Issues of Concern in Seasonal Housing Developments

If a community is to consider the need to attract more seasonal home use then the cautions noted in the 1998 BCRPC Report should be followed and considered. Communities should work to adequately plan for development of seasonal home areas with special regard to potential sewage and water supply problems or other environmental and aesthetic concerns.

There is some concern that a portion of the second homes constructed to marginal development standards in the county years ago are being converted to year-round dwellings. This has resulted, in many instances, of substandard second homes becoming substandard permanent dwellings as noted in the 1988 BCRPC Report. Additional concerns if this type of development is encouraged include: 1) small lot sizes with septic and water supply systems on the same lot; 2) lakefront second home developments; 3) eutrophication of many of Berkshire County's lakes; 4) second home development and affordable housing; and 5) rapidly escalating housing prices.

These were all problems noted in the 1988 BCRPC Study. In addition, communities should be aware that a number of different types of long term seasonal guests are likely to reside within the county for extended periods. The benefits brought to the county are valuable and significant. Increases in tax revenues are clearly evident here. However, the benefits of the seasonal market have not been equally distributed throughout the county. The seasonal housing market has changed and although it is still growing, the growth has been more modest in the decade of the 90s.

As noted in the BCRPC Report, "the real value of this current study lies not so much with analyzing second home trends in the recent past, but in that it provides a reliable data base from which to analyze trends in the future. This will be particularly useful in monitoring an anticipated northward movement of second home development, due to the very high price of real estate in South Berkshire, and the establishing of North Berkshire as a primary tourist destination, once projects such as the Greylock Glen resort in Adams and the Massachusetts Museum of Contemporary Art (Mass MoCA) in North Adams are completed." (BCRPC Report, 1988)

This study found that the seasonal home market has not yet been realized in North County.

This study served to update and provide reference points for decision making. Additional research is needed to provide the most accurate counts possible. The methods of estimating and counting seasonal units are a limitation in this study. Additional research is needed at a larger scale to determine more about the seasonal housing units and to examine further the long term

tourist stay market. There is likely a portion of Berkshire County's "guests" who come to the county and stay for long periods of time who are missed in these types of counts and estimates. There are likely people who come and stay and rent apartments, houses and/or college dorm rooms who are missed, but may actually engage in activities and purchases much like a typical seasonal homeowner. Seasonal home owners may also invite a number of guests to stay with them for long periods of time. The original intent of this study was to identify part of this market, too. Unfortunately, there exist no sources of data on the numbers of these types of guests. This is a shortcoming of this study; however, one should be aware that they exist and can have substantial impact within the county and the respective communities in which they visit. Furthermore, it was be worthwhile to more fully examine the seasonal homeowners and the long term seasonal guests to determine such why they purchased in Berkshire County, their spending patterns and visitation patterns to the county and the full economic impact of these units with the respective communities. Recent studies of seasonal home markets conducted by Chase Manhattan Bank and Mediamark Research indicated that the seasonal home market will grow substantially over the next two decades. Adams' tax revenue could benefit from the addition of seasonal units in the community.

Seasonal Housing Market Trends in the Future.

Surveys by Century 21 have found that 20-30% of all second home owners plan to turn their vacation retreats into retirement homes and that number is likely to increase (Mahar 1995). Age 45 is a threshold age for most buyers and 55 is closer to the median age of a buyers according to a Chase Manhattan survey of second home owners. The odds of owning a second home around one's 50th birthday increase. Being between 45 and 54, one is 33% more likely to own one and being between age 55 and 64, one is 65% more likely to own one. It is a fair guess to suggest that the number of boomers who buy vacation or seasonal homes will at least equal the roughly 7% of their parents generation that have done so. If this is the case, then the number of seasonal home owners could swell by 40% in the next decade. (Crispell 1994; Smith et al. 1995; and Mahar 1995).

While only 7% of all Americans own seasonal homes, some 28% of all doctors and lawyers earning over \$60,000 or more per year own two to four homes, with the share rising to roughly 33% among those whose primary residence costs over \$300,000 according to Mahar (1995) and a Chase Manhattan Bank survey.

A Chase Manhattan Bank study found that nationwide 28% of all seasonal home owners rent out their houses and the average rent is \$760 per week. The prime market area for second home buyers could also be measured by the fact that the average homeowners travel 304 miles to reach their seasonal home (Mahar 1995).

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SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE ADIRONDACKS: USING THE INTERNET TO EMPOWER LOCAL COMMUNITIES

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Abstract: Rural tourism development projects are often seen as a remedy for ailing rural economies with unique and breathtaking natural environments. These projects often proceed at the expense of the environment and do not take into consideration the social changes that occur in small communities when large scale tourism becomes the mainstay of the economy. Tourism development facilitated by locally-based decision making is the best hope for developing sustainable tourism. The Internet is a new tool for opening communication channels between residents, tourists, politicians and business leaders in order to facilitate the discussion necessary for sustainable tourism development.

Introduction

Rural tourism development historically has focused on improving the economy often at the expense of the environment. Tourism development in ecologically significant or fragile areas often destroys the resource which served as the initial attraction. The development of tourism which protects and enhances the environment is an important component of rural economic development. The most important aspect of this process is community involvement in determining the limits of acceptable change to the environment and the level of development which accompanies tourist accommodations and attractions. Without community decision making and total community involvement there is no hope for sustainable tourism development.

The rest of this paper will discuss tourism development strategies which focus on the community aspect. The Adirondack Park is used as an example where these models can be applied to an area searching for economic development, ecological conservation and most importantly locally-based decision making pertaining to what is acceptable to the people of the Adirondacks. Communication between all of the persons involved in developing

tourism is critical to the success of any region trying to attract tourists.

The Internet is a powerful new tool which can facilitate this process. The communication channels between residents and between tourism destinations and tourists can be improved with the Internet. This paper will also discuss the role of the Internet as an information, education and marketing tool for sustainable tourism development.

Tourism Development

Communities and tourism destinations around the world have selected development policies that shape their tourism products for better or worse. There are many different approaches to the tourism development process. This paper looks at two common models and then presents a third approach that is based on a community's resources and an active empowerment process of participation. Two common approaches to tourism development include the "sales/promotion" model and the "let it happen" model. The third approach that will be discussed in the paper is a tourism "product development / marketing" model. Positive and negative aspects of each of these models will be discussed as well as the application of the Internet for community participation in the final model.

Sales Promotion Model

Several tourism development models have been provided to communities over the years which have included as primary elements sales and promotion components (Fridgen 1991, Gunn 1988, Koth et al. 1991, McIntosh and Goeldner 1990, Weaver 1991). As these models are implemented the focus has been in many cases, on promotion of the existing attractions, and the development of infrastructure to support additional tourists who are attracted to the area as a result of promotional efforts. As suggested by Gunn,

"Tourists are seen to be simply fried chicken eaters; boat, camera, lot and RV buyers; and a myriad of other specific product consumers." (1972, p8). From this 'tourism myopia' comes a fragmentation of development which has focused on infrastructure rather than on tourists' experiences" (Fridgen 1991).

The models begin with an inventory of existing resources and attractions so that a community or destination has a listing of what there is to sell to the tourists. This inventory consists primarily of existing attractions, infrastructure and services available not only to provide an enjoyable experience to attract the tourists, but also to accommodate their needs. Communities find that once the inventory is complete, their tourism product is defined and sales and promotion can begin. If these efforts are successful then the costs, such as social impacts to the community, can be dealt with when the time comes.

When communities get to this point in the tourism development process there is an organizational effort made to place responsibility for promotion with the community institutions. This organization may be a tourism agency or a division of an existing quasi-government entity, a convention and visitors bureau, tourism authority or part of a chamber of commerce.

Budget mandates for most of these organizations require that activities be limited to sales and promotion.

Promotion comes in a variety of formats and media: promotion, advertisements, brochures, videos, World Wide Web home pages, and sales mission to potential geographic markets. Criteria to measure the effectiveness of the promotional efforts include occupancy rates, retail sales, traffic counts and attraction visitation. Rarely do the promotion organizations (CVBs or tourism authorities) monitor impacts related to the tourism development. Success or failure of tourism development efforts has not historically been measured in terms of changes in community quality of life such as: per capita income, driving time from point to point, availability of goods and services to residents, increases in recreational opportunities, or how people "feel" about living in their community. Inclusion of these "community values" in the planning and development process is an important component of the models cited above, however the promotion and sales efforts seem to, time and time again, take the drivers seat and run the tourism development model.

"Let it Happen" Model

The "let it happen" model is an extreme case of community tourism development suggested in the sales/promotion model, however, there is no effort to coordinate the final tourism product. In communities or destinations where the "let it happen" model is in place, competition drives development. If one type of development seems to be successful then others follow with like development to try to capture market share. To make secondary development or growing competition within the region cost effective, supply costs are kept to a minimum but yet just high enough to capture as much of the demand as possible. In addition to competing for market share of visitors to a destination, communities also see themselves in competition with other destinations to attract a finite travel market. This competitive development model often leads to a development cycle of "more and bigger is better."

Unfortunately for many communities, who have fallen into the "let it happen" model, the market dictates return on investment. Many of the decisions to build have been short lived with heavy costs in terms of loss of community identity, additional investment to redevelop attractions, and resident employment instability. Sometimes businesses and services developed to meet tourists' needs are in conflict with many community values and principles. A good example is the "liquor by the drink" restriction in many Southern and Western states. These restrictive laws are seen by many hotel and restaurant investors as too restrictive to promote good business practices -- giving the tourists what they want.

Proposed tourism developments are often presented for community approval as economic development projects and the benefits to the community are laid out in detail. The social costs to the community however are usually not factored into the decision making process. The investors and developers have everything to gain if they have done their homework and as a result end up with a successful enterprise. The social costs of these developments, on the other hand, are shared by the entire community.

Product Development/Marketing Model

The "product development/marketing" model builds upon those presented as sales promotion models. The models cited above are not unlike most tourism planning models which tend to include similar components of demand and supply linked with transportation and communication systems (Gunn 1988). The models also suggest that there be an "involvement of publics" which allows for review and comment by community stockholders. This involvement task is difficult at best and is usually offered as a token comment opportunity for those well meaning citizens who have an interest in their community. The primary difference in the proposed tourism "product development/marketing" model is that it provides an opportunity for the community involved early in the process and to keep tourism development on the community "agenda." This section will discuss in greater detail, the components of the model and how communities might manage development, realizing that collection and management of information is critical in the decision making process.

As with the previous models, inventories of infrastructure and attractions (supply) are important in the tourism product development / marketing model. This inventory should be gathered, organized and categorized using local knowledge of the destination's residents. These "resources" should be mapped and organized into three categories. The first category is made up of "special places" in the area which only the locals know about and they consider to be held as a local common good. Locals would not consider changes to these places as positive and feel that these should be protected from tourism development. The second category would include resources that are considered prime attractions for tourists. These resources may need to be changed but the local residents feel that these areas could be shared with visitors and changes or development to accommodate the increases in use would be positive. The third category to be mapped would be areas of the destination that are in need of improvement or renovation. These would be the places in the area that are in need of attention so that visitors to the destination would not receive a negative impression.

As the mapping exercise progresses, residents of the community should begin to develop a vision of how they want their community to be in the long run. For example: once special areas have been identified how will they be protected and managed, and who will be responsible for the cleanup and monitoring of areas in need of renovations. Another challenge is to attract investors to enhance the tourism product in a responsible and sustainable manner. Services and improved infrastructure such as transportation and water treatment facilities must also be considered as part of the development process.

As with the other models there needs to be an organization responsible for these efforts. However, the organization's mandate changes from one of promotion and sales to one of integrated planning and marketing. In addition to efforts concentrating on tourist markets, the tourism authority should facilitate the inventory process, provide educational programs focusing on the economics of sustainable development and how the community might set limits of acceptable change. These are all important aspects of the tourism development process. Community stakeholders are empowered with an understanding

of the opportunities and threats that may come with tourism development. Residents acting in their own self interest can foster an integrated planning process rather than a fragmented myopic approach discussed above. All of the members within a community are so interrelated that tourism development of any kind is going to have an impact on how they function. As individuals, enterprises, and tourism developments begin to network through sharing of information, a greater self-interest is fostered, not diminished. The tourism organization has the responsibility to provide information and opportunities for citizens to participate in the process so that through openness and discussions, residents are able to influence decisions that will effect their community.

The "product development/marketing" model can be effectively used in regions looking to improve tourism efforts without the long term destruction of the natural and social environments. One such area is the Adirondack Park in upstate New York.

The Adirondack Park

Created in 1892 by an act of the New York State legislature, The Adirondack Park today covers an area of approximately six million acres. This is an area larger than Glacier, Yosemite, Olympic, Yellowstone and Grand Canyon National Parks combined. The Adirondack Park is a unique mix of public and private land of which 3.4 million acres are privately owned and principally devoted to forestry, agriculture and open-space recreation. The other 2.6 are owned by the State of New York and constitutionally-protected as "forever wild."

The landscape of the Adirondacks is dominated by spruce-fir and beach-birch-maple forests. There are over 70 tree species, 55 species of mammals, 218 species of birds and 86 species of fish. The Adirondacks also form the headwaters for most of five major watershed basins including the Hudson, Mohawk and St. Lawrence rivers. Within the Park there are 2,800 lakes and ponds and more than 1,200 miles of rivers fed by 30,000 miles of brooks and streams. The Adirondack Park offers outdoor recreation opportunities unsurpassed on the East Coast of the U.S., but there is much more to the Park than its natural wonders.

There are more than 130,000 year-round residents living within the bounds of the Park. In addition to these persons there are also 200,000 seasonal residents. Adirondackers are more or less characterized by their strong sense of independence and their connectedness to the land on which they live. The Adirondacks are not an easy place to make a living, as is evident by the low per capita incomes within the Park and high seasonal unemployment rates. The 130,000 year-round residents live within 105 small towns and hamlets inside the Park boundaries. The Park's economy is closely linked to the health of the environment. Forestry and tourism are the two main sectors of the region's economy. In some Adirondack counties travel and tourism related businesses provide almost half of the local jobs. While the Park does not generate the same levels of tourism related sales tax revenue for New York State that are generated on Long Island or the Hudson River Valley, the significance of tourist spending is greater to the Adirondack economy than any other part of New York State.

The importance of tourism to the Adirondack economy is not disputable. However, the ability for future tourism development to meet local economic needs and protect the environment of the Park is something needing further consideration. The "product development/marketing" model offers several improvements over the traditional tourism development models all of which can be enhanced and improved with the Internet.

The Internet

As of January 1996, 36% of all households in the United States had computers and more than half of these computers were equipped with modems (CyberAtlas). Hoffman, Kalsbeek and Novak (1996) estimate that 28.8 million people in the United States, ages 16 and over, have potential or actual access to the Internet. More than 16.4 million people actually use the Internet with 11.5 million accessing the WWW. In addition to this, 1.51 million people have used the WWW to purchase products and services. Within the framework of the "product development/marketing" model this section will discuss opportunities for improving the tourism development process with the Internet.

Community Networks

The development of community based networks provides a "community information infrastructure" with the inclusion of resources such as government information, local happenings, health news, tourism attractions, etc. The overall tourism product is made up of a wide array of organizations offering or assisting in the delivery of the final product which is the travel experience (Perdue and Pitegoff 1990). The linkage of the tourism product with the needs and wants of local residents, whom planning and development of tourism resources is designed to benefit, is typically weak. As a communication vehicle, the Internet will make it easier for local voices to be heard. Establishing links between residents and then communicating the vision of these people to the planners and business leaders of the community improves the chances for developing sustainable tourism.

Inventories

The community networks can also be used as a collection mechanism for data throughout the region and used to disseminate this information to other areas. Through the use of GIS (Geographical Imaging Systems)-based internet applications, residents are able to map specific attributes as they relate to them personally, and graphically view how other residents perceive the region. Specific areas of focus include special places, prime attractions and areas in need of improvement as discussed above. This information is not only valuable in the development of a clearer picture of the desires of residents of a region, but will be beneficial in more accurately representing the region in promotional and planning activities.

Promotion

The connection of all of the information generated by residents with those individuals and groups from outside the region (investors, tourists, etc.) can best be accomplished through the WWW due to its widespread use and multi-media capabilities. Currently, most destination-based WWW pages are merely computer-mediated brochures, not making full use of the communication capabilities of the medium. The ability for two-

way communication is not being utilized. Destinations need to provide more feedback opportunities for persons currently using the WWW to gather tourism destination information.

Web pages need to be designed to address a wide range of interests and must foster interactivity. At the very least, WWW pages should give the potential tourist the capacity to access information for completely planning their visit to the region. Tourists place more value on informal information sources such as friends and family than they do on formal information designed to convey a specific message about a region (Raitz and Dakhil 1989). Regions, like the Adirondacks, may want to redirect some of their promotional energy to address the potential of informal communication. With the expansion of listservers and chat groups, computer-mediated word-of-mouth information will take on a new level of importance. The Internet offers great potential in the provision of personalized, timely and accurate information for consumers. (Hoffman, Novak and Chatterice 1995)

The Internet, while receiving a huge amount of positive commercial attention, should not be viewed as a cure all, but rather as a tool with unique capabilities for communication, promotion, public relations and education. Development of community networks is complicated and while it can be done, great care needs to be taken in their design and implementation because they will provide the representation of the community to the potential tourists and investors.

Discussion and Implications

Some of the ideas discussed above are already being applied by organizations, both governmental and non-governmental, in the Adirondack Park today. The Adirondack Park Agency is working with the Center for Technology and Government to create easily accessible databases to better serve residents. This activity could be further extended to creating a database for tourism issues, easily accessible to tourists seeking information about the Adirondack Park.

The most unique application underway is being carried out by the Adirondack North Country Association (ANCA). ANCA is currently working on an interactive multimedia kiosk for the Crown Point visitor center. Visitors to the center will be able to locate and receive directions to specific locales and scenic routes within the Adirondack Park. The eventual goal is to have one of these at every visitor center in the Park with a central mapping and updating system at Crown Point. This is an application which serves tourists who have already decided to visit the Adirondacks, but it also points out the potential for reaching people who may not have made the decision to travel, via access to the WWW from the comfort of one's home or business.

The Lake Placid/Essex County Redevelopment Initiative is an excellent example of community involvement and locally-based decision making. Town meetings have taken place from Lake Placid to Crown Point to Ticonderoga in order to determine what types of changes are necessary to improve the economy through tourism promotion in the region while minimizing impacts to the natural and social environments in this area of the Adirondack

Park. Chat groups and electronic bulletin boards are one way to keep people involved and continuously update residents about meetings and changes in public policy.

The Internet, specifically the WWW, offers the residents of rural areas many opportunities to communicate their needs and wants when it comes to defining and shaping sustainable tourism development projects. Initially, the communication lines between rural residents can be improved. Then, continued communication with planners, investors, business leaders, etc. will give local residents even more control. And finally, the promotion of the region as seen through the eyes of the people who live there to those who wish to visit the region may be the most attractive feature of all.

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**Recreation and
Tourism in
The Nineties**

USING ECOSYSTEM-BASED MANAGEMENT

TO DEVELOP COMMUNITY

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Abstract: Traditionally, community foresters have managed trees for the many benefits they provide communities. By vegetative management, community foresters have created more livable streets and communities. Today, community foresters and other natural resource managers have access to more holistic processes such as Ecosystem-based Management to help integrate not only trees, but viable natural systems into community development. The Ecosystem-based Management process is guided by the principles of conservation, sustainability, diversity, and connectivity which have been defined in both ecological and social terms. But, can the ecosystem-based process work to better integrate natural systems into community development if the traditional land use planning process has failed?

Changing American Landscapes

Since World War II and the prosperous 1950s, American landscapes have been changing—some drastically. Furthermore, there is a great deal of history surrounding the concentration and dispersion of American populations and settlements since the Industrial Revolution and the technological advances of the Civil War (Hawley, 1950 and Warren, 1972). J. P. Jackson (1950) publisher of the journal *Landscape* writes that landscapes are spatial representations of complex social, political, and economic processes, and there is much that can be learned through the seeing of these changing American landscapes. In America, the development of rail, air, auto, and other transportation systems, increases in communications and other technological advance, the change from an industrial-based to service-based economy, an increased division of labor, and the suburbanization of people, commerce, and capital has fueled a different type of development. This development is symbolized by Levitt Town type subdivision, the American Strip Mall, and by the spreading urban and rural Blob of suburbia. There has been a change of the traditional nuclear consolidated city, typified by turn of the century Pittsburgh, into the “Galactic Cities” of Boston, New York, Seattle, and the king of Galactic Cities, Los Angeles. In the *Urban Invasion of Rural America*, Pierce Lewis (1994) describes the Galactic City as a city where all the traditional urban elements float in space like stars and planets in a galaxy, held together by mutual gravitational attraction, but with large empty spaces between.

Benefits of Natural Resources to Communities

We are familiar with many of the benefits of natural systems to communities and much research has and is being completed in this area (Albrecht, 1993; King, 1996; National Park Service, 1992). Nature provides the raw materials and areas for forest, agriculture, and recreational businesses. Natural open space increases the value and salability of homes and other real

property and attracts new and progressive businesses to areas. By conserving natural landscapes rather than allowing indiscriminate development, local agencies can reduce cost for public services such as sewer, water, flood control, snow removal, trash, roads, and education. Nature has positive impacts on physical and mental health and provide our communities with clean water and air. The Santa Monica Mountains National Recreation Area is referred to as the “lungs of Los Angeles” in terms of mental health, nature provides opportunities for the expansion of independent and team competency and can help increase the self-confidence and self-esteem of people. Natural systems provide alternative areas where individuals can express their human disposition in a socially responsible fashion through recreation, volunteer work, exploration, self-contrast, self-insight, wonderment, and learning. Aldo Leopold (1949) writes that nature is the perfect norm for the evaluation of our society and natural systems provide opportunities for education and evaluation including research and outdoor classrooms. Natural systems provide wildlife habitat and corridors. They provide opportunities to appreciate and understand our natural world and heritage. Natural systems associated with communities can be the training grounds for the understanding, use, and support of destination parks and forests. The planned use of natural systems can help communities absorb change by the creation of special places and the preservation of structured and shared symbols. Natural systems can help create and maintain the container community occurs in and increase human interaction. The local autonomy of a community can be defined and reinforced through the planned use of open space. This use of open space increases the psychological identification with a local and makes us feel more comfortable and at-home in our communities (Bender, 1987; Hawley, 1950; Warren, 1972). Frederick Law Olmstead wrote that parks and opens spaces where benign magnets for social democratization and recreation (Wilson, 1989). The green infrastructure of nature provides opportunities for people to generalize across interest lines and helps create a social system, or community, that is characterized by experience reinforced by space.

All the benefits provided by natural systems help develop healthy and sustainable communities (Hunter, 1994). But, negative impacts to the quality and quantity of natural systems found in context with changing American landscapes are becoming apparent. Problems associated with the loss, fragmentation, and isolation of natural resources, whether viable agricultural lands, forested lands, watersheds, or recreational opportunities for urban populations, have been described by a number of authors (Boughton et al., 1991; Falk et al., 1992; Harper et al., 1990; Lubka, 1982). There seems to be no evidence that these changes to natural systems associated with communities will be abated in the foreseeable future. Furthermore, some sociologists are of the opinion that the current sprawling, heterogeneous settlement pattern also fuels the destruction of a sense of neighborhood and community (Bender, 1978; Hawley, 1956; Warren, 1972). Perhaps recent migration to rural areas of America is an indication that people are searching for a sense of neighborhood and community that has been lost in modern community design and development, but what is community? As natural resource managers we are familiar with the term community in an ecological sense, but what is a human community?

Community

The notion of community is a fundamental idea and there are hundred of definitions surrounding the concept (Luloff, 1996). Some definitions express heart felt sentiments of safety, security, and comfort including the positive visions of the good life (Bender, 1978). Community has been defined as an aggregate of people who share a common interest in a particular locality. Community has been described as having a number of dimensions including coincidence of service area, psychological identification with locality, supporting institutions, local autonomy in decision making, and strength in the horizontal interaction between residents (Warren, 1972). Community has experiential and local dimensions that allow community to be defined as experience reinforced by space. Some communities are better able to deal with change than others—the competent community (Cottrell, 1983). These communities: collaborate effectively in identifying the needs of the community; achieve a working consensus of goals and priorities; agree on ways and means to implement agreed-upon goals; and collaborate effectively on required actions.

Community Development and Ecosystem-Based Management

In an interactionists' perspective, Kenneth Wilkinson (1979) describes the community development process as actions undertaken with positive regards to community structure. It is the attempts by people to strengthen not only the economic structure of a community, but also environmental, social, and power structures. Working landscapes, and more passive landscapes such as open space can help develop and reinforce community by increasing and stabilizing economic, social, and natural elements (Boughton et al., 1991; Eisner and Gallon, 1986; Harper and Mantell, 1990; McHarg, 1967). As a result, a progressive and sustainable community planning, design, and development philosophy is to design with nature, rather than to continually impose unattractive and unsustainable development in the development of communities (McHarg, 1967).

Little attention has been paid to the use of ecosystem management processes in guiding and understanding community development and growth. Ecosystem-based Management (USDA Forest Service, 1993 and USDA Forest Service, 1994) is a planning and decision making process that has been developed to facilitate the integration of natural and social systems into the community development process. The process is intended to be used for large scale planning efforts such as a watershed scale, but can be used for smaller scale projects such as the restoration of a riparian area. A number of themes revolve around Ecosystem-based Management including ecological boundaries, ecological integrity, data collection, monitoring, adaptive management, interagency cooperation, organizational change, humanity in nature, and social values. These themes are expanded into a number of concepts. Ecosystem-based Management strives to integrate economic, social, and ecological systems and takes a broad view of nature and people. It recognizes natural boundaries such as bio-regions and watersheds rather than jurisdictional boundaries. The processes strives to breach political, generational, and private ownership boundaries. It emphasizes community change agents, empowerment, and interaction and broad-based participation promoted through non-traditional partners working towards mutually agreed upon goals.

Furthermore, it stresses environmental justice which can be defined as the provision of a safe living environment for all people and provision of equal access of all people to nature and healthy natural systems. These concepts have been integrated into a number of guiding principles which have been divided into human and ecological elements—conservation, sustainability, diversity, and connectivity.

In Ecosystem-based Management, conservation is characterized ecologically by non-degradation of natural systems by use and in human terms by a continuation of involving people in environmental stewardship. Sustainability is characterized ecologically by protecting, restoring, commitment to, and management of natural systems as to be viable and healthy indefinitely. In human terms sustainability is the achievement of a clean, safe environment, guided growth, encouragement of connectivity with the past, a functional city form, an optimum level of public services, and a high degree of interaction and control in local decision making. Diversity is characterized by an increased variety of life and increased inclusiveness, interaction, and empowerment of people. Connectivity is networks of viable natural systems and inter-connecting habitats and cooperating partnerships between individuals and organizations. The ecosystem-based process surrounds a vision and includes such elements as establishing a vision through public involvement, formation of multidisciplinary teams and collection of ecological, economic, and social data including such aspects as congruence of attitudes.

There are some concerns with Ecosystem-based Management and many opinions have been expressed generally about different ecosystem management processes. There has been a barrage of scientific bantering on what ecosystems are, whether boundaries can be placed upon them and on data collection, monitoring, modeling, and other operationalizing aspects. In an anthropocentric view, ecosystem processes are criticized for placing the non-human biological and physical attributes of nature ahead of goals for human attributes. As a process that seeks to understand and monitor land use, Ecosystem-based Management is perceived as a threat to the unlimited use of private property. Furthermore, the ability of Ecosystem-based Management to function in landscapes associated with urban areas has been questioned. In Pennsylvania there are 2500 minor civil divisions and in terms of development and growth they have done what they want when they want. And, there is a greater question in uncoordinated local control over community development—how do we link local autonomy in decision making with larger horizons of planning and decision making such as bio-regions, or even watersheds? Because of perceived inequalities, efforts of data collection and monitoring, and other reasons, many attempts at regional planning and other multi-jurisdictional efforts have been unsuccessful in the past; although there are a number of important models for success. The creation of the Santa Monica Mountains Recreational Area near Los Angeles (Filmendorf, 1993) and Revitalizing Baltimore (Neville, 1996) are examples of citizens, government agencies, and non-profits working towards shared goals in ecological rather than jurisdictional boundaries.

Ecosystem-Based Management and Land Use Planning

Ecosystem-based Management can be contrasted with the land use planning process. Planners through the planning process have been guiding growth and intervening in community development since the 1893 Chicago's World Fair and the "Colombian Exposition" gave impetus to planning in America. Planners are change agents and can help integrate natural systems into community development through plan review and comment; public meetings and forums; zoning, subdivision and other ordinances; and comprehensive planning. In terms of the historical relationship between community development and nature a question can be posed—has the traditional planning process successfully integrated natural systems into community development, or have natural systems been ignored and disregarded? While other authors are more optimistic about the planning process, Warren (1977) is of the opinion that most change that takes place in communities is not the result of deliberate purposive planning, rather it is hard won by some group over hard opposition of another group. He maintains that planning has a number of flaws including: planning discourages major intervention and structural change; planning lulls people into thinking that change is being made; and many times planning constitutes a growth agency. According to McHarg (1967) a progressive and sustainable planning and design philosophy is to design with nature, rather to continually impose unattractive and unsustainable development in the creation of human settlements. Although conceptually acknowledged, McHarg and others conclude that this planning theory continues to be wrongly ignored in ongoing community development.

Ecosystem-based Management can be viewed as a process similar to the land use planning process. But, the ecosystem process mandates broad-based participation, working across jurisdictional boundaries, collecting and monitoring data on a large scale, and other elements not always considered in the traditional land use planning process. Chapin and Kaiser (1979) conclude that a more ecosystem approach to community planning can not yet be regarded as operational for most planning agencies because of stringent demands for data and scientific expertise. Today, it is difficult to assume that a process such as Ecosystem-based Management can be used to integrate natural systems into community development without acceptance and use by the already socialized American planning process.

Bringing People and Nature Together

So can people use Ecosystem-based Management to actually manage ecosystems associated with communities? Perhaps the question should be, can people take care of ecosystems? We have the ability to complete natural resource inventories and comprehensive plans that help understand, adjust, and monitor community development to support natural and social systems. Furthermore, we have Geographical Information Systems and other tools to help us make and monitor land use decisions that better both natural and social systems. But, a more holistic and inclusive process for planning and management is needed to preserve viable natural systems in association with current land use patterns. The importance of a contextual approach to planning and management of natural resources and considering ecological and social elements in development decisions impacting natural systems through sociocultural impact analysis

has been described by a number of authors (Gramling and Freudenburg, 1992; Greider, 1993; Freudenburg and Keating, 1985; Walsh and Warland, 1983). By providing a process for a contextual analysis, which considers both social and ecological systems, Ecosystem-based Management attempts to move beyond concentration on system outputs and rates of economic return and helps include and evaluate other considerations besides cost/benefit analysis in land use planning and management.

There are important messages in Ecosystem-based Management which can be used by competent communities to become more planned, pleasant, and progressive. Natural resource inventories can be completed which gather, organize, and monitor information on land use and its impacts. Comprehensive plans and planning can be completed to guide community development. Regional organizations and efforts such as joint-power agreements can be considered. Non-traditional and multi-disciplinary teams can be created. Good leadership that distinguishes between problems and symptoms and implements proper action can be promoted. Local people can be empowered through education and involvement and we can listen to the deep knowledge of local citizens. Education on the benefits of natural systems and the damage being done to them by indiscriminate development can be provided to citizens and leaders. But, will moral suasion be enough to impact the values, attitudes, and momentum behind current land development practices of today? Finally, all our efforts can be supported by regulation and enforcement.

Ecosystem-based Management can be looked at in a simpler light: think ahead, look at the big picture, use all available information, know the condition of the land, know the condition of the people, listen to the deep knowledge of local people, maintain the health of the land, communicate with and educate people, invite all those interested and important to the table, have common goals, fix what's wrong, be humble, and keep in touch with the needs of the land and people. Ultimately, the answer to better integrating natural systems into community development may be found in hearts, minds, signs, and fines (Blanchard, 1996). In the development of community, we should use inclusive processes such as Ecosystem-based Management that help bring people and nature together through the understanding of natural and social systems; planning that understands and guides development; youth, adult, and leader education; and regulation and enforcement.

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MANAGING PARKS FOR PEOPLE: AN ACTIVITY

PACKAGE APPROACH

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Abstract: This paper examines the compatibility of recreation activities in several regions in order to establish a framework for managing park resources. The quest to identify recreation activity compatibility has a lengthy history. Originating in the Outdoor Recreation Resource Review Commission report of 1962, activity packages were first defined in terms of activity substitution. Later it was argued that any definition must include a measure of resource dependency. In this study, activity compatibility focuses upon the number of different recreation areas that are visited in relation to choice of activities.

Introduction

Activity package research has been in ebb for several years. Problems with activity definition and intensity have compounded the issue. Early attempts in defining activity packages were based on substitution and complementarity (Proctor 1962; Burch 1969; Bishop 1970; Hendee and Burdge 1974; Baumgartner and Heberlein 1981). Yet, these initial studies were problematic in several ways.

First, a major problem in forecasting recreation demand has been the failure to link recreation participation at recreation resources (Ditton et al. 1975; McCool 1978). This is a fairly important issue for managers, since it is the resource that is managed for the provision of the recreation experience (Driver et al. 1987). And second, studies may have incorporated anticipated travel rather than the trends from actual behavior.

This paper aims to highlight three separate activity package studies and compare the results. The first part will review the theoretical framework. Next the basic model will be identified, followed by the results in the three regions. The summary concludes the paper by highlighting the management implications of activity package research.

Literature

Research in outdoor recreation planning and the definition of activity packages has a long history. Proctor (1962) first tried to identify groups of activities that maximized use on scarce lands so that the greatest number of benefits could be obtained and

optimal opportunities provided. Other studies followed Proctor's lead in attempting to identify packages of unique activities (Burch 1969; Bishop 1970; Hendee and Burdge 1974; Baumgartner and Heberlein 1981). However, several problems with this earlier research were not resolved.

First, there was a failure to recognize that the chosen activity is undertaken at a specific resource and is therefore intrinsically linked to the resource base. Ditton and others (1975) first considered water-based recreation by investigating the four unique environments in Michigan including Green Bay, Lake Michigan, inland waters and pools. They found the environmental variables were major determinants of travel behavior. For example, "Fishing in a stream is quite unlike trolling in Lake Michigan, and the activity at a beach is quite unlike that of a pool" (Ditton et al. 1975:292). Therefore, specific activities are found at specific resources which in turn, directs recreators to seek alternative destination for alternative activities.

McCool (1978) extends this idea by considering the attractiveness of water-based recreation sites. For example, a household may wish to boat at a reservoir and also fish, swim and picnic. All these activities are intrinsically tied to the particular resource. This further supports the resource dependency needs for certain outdoor recreation activities.

A second problem with activity package studies has been that the measures of the influence of alternative park destinations on travel behavior was typically under estimated and, as a result of this, different travel strategies must be accounted for. This necessitates use of actual behavior and not anticipated travel. Several earlier studies investigated travel and found repetitious visits (e.g., Marble and Bowlby 1968). Hanson and Huff (1988) argue that the repetitious travel behavior was a function of short sampling schemes.

Fesenmaier (1985) examined multidestination and diversified travel behavior for recreationists. He recognized that people may visit several parks and the failure to consider this travel strategy would underestimate participation rates. The participation rates varied depending on the household characteristics as well as park resource availability. The need to consider alternative travel strategies is then apparent.

A recent study by Kemperman and others (1995) found variety seeking travel behavior to be the norm for recreation choice. They reasoned that it was imperative to consider multidestinations in the choice set; otherwise demand would be under-represented.

Model

The basic model incorporates both of these factors (i.e., resource dependency and travel behavior). Fesenmaier and Lieber (1988) evaluated participation in various activities to explain recreation travel. Here, participation in certain pairs of activities significantly increased the number of destinations visited whereas other pairs of activities decreased the number of parks visited. Those pairs of recreation activities increasing the number of park destinations visited by recreators were classified as incompatible and those that decreased the number of destinations visited were

viewed as compatible. They reasoned that compatible activities could be part of an activity package when all pair wise interactions were examined.

Conceptually, one could illustrate this relationship between the number of park destinations visited and the number of recreation activities selected by an individual. Compatible activities should lead to a decrease in the number of alternative destinations chosen relative to the number of activities that are undertaken by the recreator.

When more destination are visited than the number of activities undertaken, one could speculate that the individual is either diversifying travel behavior because of conflicts at the initially chosen site or because of some variety seeking motivations.

Data

Data for this study come from three separate papers utilizing the model described above. The first ground breaking study was conducted in Oklahoma. Fesenmaier and Lieber (1988) explored participation in twelve different recreation activities using SCORP data (State Comprehensive Outdoor Recreation Plan) and found several activities that could be grouped into activity packages. When visitation at different sites was regressed on the number of activities undertaken, a negative coefficient would indicate a decrease in park visits thus implying compatible activities. Several boating and camping related activities were found to be compatible with visiting a state park, logically linking those recreation pursuits to the standard "cookie cutter" type park found in Oklahoma.

The model was next tested in Massachusetts for fourteen different activities (Bristow, Klar, and Warnick 1992). The data were obtained from the most recent SCORP. Again, it was found that visiting parks was compatible with boating and camping, indicating the type of activities managed at the park system level.

The most recent analysis of the activity package model took place in Illinois, where Bristow, Lieber and Fesenmaier (1995), again using SCORP data, queried the compatibility of 20 different activities. In this case however, visiting parks was not a choice, yet several different activities could be considered as reasonable surrogates.

Results

The purpose of this paper is to highlight the three separate activity package studies in Oklahoma, Massachusetts and Illinois and compare the results. A variety of different activities were studied in the three states. Table 1 lists these.

As one can see from Table 1, there are a variety of activities explored in the three states. Common to all three states are hiking/walking, backpacking, boating, and camping. Several other activities may be close in definition, but since subtle differences do occur, they are not considered exactly comparable. A larger group of activities are found when one looks for comparables across two states. Table 2 illustrates that list

Table 1. List of SCORP activities in three states.

MASSACHUSETTS	ILLINOIS	OKLAHOMA
Court Sports	Canoe Rivers	Backpacking
Biking	Canoe Lakes	Motor Boating
Hike/Walk	Boat < 10HP	Sail Boating
Field Sports	Boat > 10HP	Tent Camping
Swimming	Day Hiking	Veh. Camping
Boating	Overnight Hike	Canoeing
Fresh Fish	Group Camping	Day Hiking
Salt Fish	Camp en Route	Fishing
Camping	Primitive Camp	Hunting
Picnicking	Drive to Camp	Four Wheeling
Visit Parks	Bicycling	Water Skiing
Backpacking	Horse Ride	Visit Parks
Horse Ride	Snowmobiling	
Golf	Off-Road Cycle	
	Of-Road Drive	
	Swimming/Beach	
	Swimming/Pool	
	Lodge w/Kitchen	
	Lodge w/o Kitchen	
	Sailing	

Table 2. Recreation activities found in two of the three states.

ACTIVITY	STATES
Canoeing	Illinois, Oklahoma
Fishing	Massachusetts, Oklahoma
Visiting Parks	Massachusetts, Oklahoma
Off-road	Illinois, Oklahoma
Horseback	Massachusetts, Illinois
Biking	Massachusetts, Illinois
Swimming	Massachusetts, Illinois
Sailing	Illinois, Oklahoma

For the four activities found common to the three states in Table 1, several activity packages were found. These are based on the regression coefficients for participation in pairs of recreation activities that are correlated with concentrated travel and therefore indicate compatible activities for planning purposes. Table 3 summarizes the states' activity packages.

The next step in the comparison was to classify the activity packages into groups of similar rates of diversification or concentration. A hierarchical cluster analysis was run on the regression coefficients for each of the three state's models. The cluster analysis model incorporated the squared Euclidean measure with average linking between groups. In doing so, it was hoped to group activity packages further and find out which packages were similar across the states. For comparison purposes, each state's activity packages were grouped into four clusters. The results are found in Figure 1 below.

Since these cluster are based on the coefficients of travel diversification, one can interpret the results in the following manner. Each cluster signifies the similarity of the activities based on the related travel strategies. For example, in Oklahoma, the cluster including backpacking, canoe and visiting parks all have positive coefficients indicating the strong propensity to diversify travel. These activities therefore need to be provided

Activity Packages

Illinois Activity Packages	Massachusetts Activity Packages	Oklahoma Activity Packages
Compatible group camping, sailing, OR motorcycle, backpacking, lodge w/o kitchen, bike	Compatible court sports, bike, canoe, hike, fresh fish, picnic, visit park, golf	Strong Incompatible backpacking, canoe, visit parks
Incompatible hiking, river canoe, horseback riding, boating > 10hp	Slight Compatible field sports, boating, backpacking	On the fence boating, tent camping, fishing, hunting, vehicle camp, 4WD
Incompatible OR driving, prim. camp, drive to camp, pool swim camping en route	Incompatible salt water fishing	Compatible sail boating
Strong Incompatible lodge w/ kitchen, beach swim, boat < 10hp, snowmobile, lake canoe	On the fence horse back riding	Incompatible hike water ski

Activity package research should look into recreation choice behavior. The influence of the spatial distribution of park resources cannot be underestimated in travel studies. State park managers need to assess the distribution of resources to meet the diversified demand on future recreators.

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Ethnicity in Recreation

THE INFLUENCE OF RECREATIONISTS' CULTURAL OR ETHNIC BACKGROUND UPON THEIR RIVER RECREATION EXPERIENCES

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Abstract: The nature of culturally or ethnically diverse recreationists and the meanings they attach to their Delaware River recreation experiences were examined in this study. More specifically, the influence of recreationists' cultural or ethnic background upon their river recreation experiences was investigated. A phenomenological approach was designed which utilized Glaser and Strauss' (1967) Constant Comparative Method of Qualitative Analysis. Narrative themes were composed to describe the nature and convey the meanings associated with culturally/ethnically influenced river recreation experiences. Themes which illuminated the similarities, differences, and points of conflict among different cultural/ethnic user groups emerged from and were discovered within the data. Additionally, several themes reflecting other attributes of the river experience emerged and were developed. These included the following: culturally/ethnically related recreation behaviors; temporal relationships; and spatial use elements. These grounded themes expand our understanding of the culturally related attributes associated with river recreation experiences. Findings reinforce the notion that recreation experiences are multidimensional. Further research which explores the recreation cultural geography, as well as temporal and spatial recreation related factors associated with diverse cultures and ethnic groups, is suggested to assist in resource management. This research focus is suggested to enhance our understanding of diverse user groups and the dimensions of river and general recreation experiences.

Introduction

Recreation resource managers are not only concerned with the physical sites they are charged to manage, but also need to have an accurate understanding about the recreation user groups they serve. Over time, the recreational use of a particular recreation

site may change or evolve due to the introduction of different forms of recreation activities, new recreation technologies, or different cultural or ethnic groups. New or expanded varieties of recreation uses and users provide the potential for new interaction patterns, new conflicts among users, and new problem-solving approaches in recreation resource management. Developing a better understanding about culturally or ethnically diverse user groups may provide resource managers with information necessary to unravel potential conflicts among diverse users and to proactively initiate appropriate management strategies to reduce the occurrence of these conflicts.

While numerous studies have addressed cultural differences with respect to outdoor recreation engagements, many studies have focused on European-Americans and African-Americans. Still fewer studies have addressed Hispanic-Americans and other cultural or ethnic segments of the population. There is a need for a clearer understanding of the elements that contribute to satisfactory and appropriate river recreation experiences among diverse user groups. Additionally, there is a need for alternative research approaches (i.e., qualitative designs) to study the problem.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study included two main components. The first research problem addressed this question: "What is the nature of culturally or ethnically diverse recreationists and the meanings they attach to their Delaware River recreation experiences?" The second research problem focused on the following: "What is the influence of recreationists' cultural or ethnic background upon their river recreation experiences?"

Methods

Research Design

To shed new light on the character, multiple realities, and meanings an expanded recreation user clientele attach to their recreation experiences, a phenomenological based study was designed. This study was conducted in the Northeast at a nationally designated "Scenic and Recreational River" segment under the management of the National Park Service: the Delaware River. This river recreation site is notable since it is situated within a day's drive of the culturally and ethnically diverse New York--New Jersey metropolitan area and the eastern seaboard's "BosWash" megalopolis.

Population and Sampling

The population of this investigation included all river recreation users associated with the National Park's Mid-Atlantic region Delaware Water Gap National Recreation Area. The sample included thirty-one (31) river users drawn from the Smithfield Beach site on multiple sampling visits. A purposive and theoretical sampling plan was used to guide data collection. Data were collected at the river access site on eighteen (18) occasions through the use of observation and interviewing techniques. Thirty-one (31) interviews with recreationists and eighteen (18) observation sessions of recreationists were conducted. Multiple visits were made to the Smithfield Beach study site to account for different times of the day, week, weekend, season, or holidays for sampling purposes.

Instrumentation

A triangulation of observations, structured and open-ended interviews, and a reflexive journal were utilized as the research instruments in this study. The primary study investigator¹ conducted the iterative procedures associated with the ongoing qualitative processes of gathering, coding, and analyzing data. The qualitative standards of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability were adhered to in order to address internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity concerns in conducting research (Lincoln and Guba 1985:189, 219, 300-332). Triangulation, extended observation and exposure in the field, documentation of negative cases, and the cross-referencing of sources contributed to the credibility of the data, while thick, rich description assisted its transferability, and auditing techniques (e.g., transcript and reflexive journal paper trails) supported data dependability and confirmability.

Data Collection and Treatment

Interviews and observations were conducted in an emergent manner and generated insights and answers to the following grounded questions: What types (i.e., the range) of diverse river recreationists use this site?; Who are they (i.e., demographics)?; What are their specific recreational interests and activities?; Where are they recreating on or along the river?; With whom are they recreating?; How are they going about their recreational pursuits?; When do they tend to engage in their chosen recreational pursuits?; Why are they at this site?; What types of recreational styles and behaviors do they exhibit?; What displacement or conflicts are associated with diverse river users' presence and recreational engagements?; and What unique recreational behaviors or activities have diverse users introduced at this site?

Data collection, coding, and analysis phases were conducted in an inductive, iterative manner. Data transcripts were prepared, then subjected to Glaser and Strauss' (1967) Constant Comparative Method of Qualitative Analysis to code, process, and analyze the data. Open, axial, and selective coding techniques were performed on the data (Strauss and Corbin 1990). Grounded, narrative themes emerged from analysis of the concepts, categories, properties, and dimensions discovered within the data. Study themes generated in this manner represented an ideographic and holistic explanation of phenomena versus a nomothetic one. These themes provided a basis for comparability with phenomena occurring at this study site as well as at other river sites.

Findings

Narrative themes were composed to describe the nature and convey the meanings associated with culturally/ethnically influenced river recreation experiences. Themes which illuminated the similarities, differences, and points of conflict among different cultural/ethnic user groups emerged from and were discovered within the data.

Who? What? Where? When?

A large segment of weekend river recreation visitors at the Smithfield Beach site, located within the Delaware Water Gap National Recreation Area, were urbanites with an Hispanic cultural/ethnic background, who resided in the New York--New

Jersey metropolitan area. These were riverside recreation users who tended to turn out in large numbers to this site on weekends. They tended to arrive onsite early in the morning, in order to procure one of the limited picnic table spots in the tree shaded strip along the river, before the tables were occupied by other parties. These participants were noted to picnic and play onsite for most of the daylight hours, before making the return drive home in the evening.

Why Recreational Visitors Associated With This Cultural/Ethnic Background Came To This Site?

Hispanic visitors mentioned several factors which were key reasons for their attraction to and attendance at the Smithfield Beach riversite. First, the site was located within what was perceived to be a reasonable day's round-trip distance (i.e., a 1.5 to 2 hour one way drive) from the New York--New Jersey metropolitan area. Second, the scenic and recreational amenities of the Delaware Water Gap area, such as the verdant river valley and its wildlife, the Delaware River, and the local geological features (e.g., the Water Gap, the Poconos), were popular tourism and recreational attractions. Third, this cultural/ethnic group cited the spatial openness of the Smithfield Beach site as being a salient attribute considered in their destination selection. Hispanic river recreation users found the expansive Smithfield Beach site with the attributes of open field spaces, picnic tables, tree shaded areas, a slow river current, comfort facility, mowed lawn, and ranger supervised picnic and swim areas to be versatile resources for accommodating numerous large or small groups and different types of recreational pursuits at the same time. Fourth, Hispanic visitors enjoyed the varied mix of possible river related recreational pursuits available at one place (e.g., picnicking, swimming, tubing, rafting, canoeing, sports/games, fishing, motorboating). Fifth, these visitors perceived Smithfield Beach to have a relaxed, friendly, social atmosphere which was conducive to meeting and interacting with other people onsite.

What Recreational Style And Behaviors Were Exhibited Onsite?

Recreational engagements which involved extended families and friends were prominent onsite. Hispanic cultural attributes infused the site environment with a distinctive ambiance. Cultural elements which were evident included the following: an aural pervasion of Spanish music across the site; outbreaks of Spanish-style dancing in response to the widely broadcast music; the leisurely grilling of ethnic related cuisine items such as plantains; soccer games; and zestful displays of having or putting on a "fiesta" in the park.

Conflicts Among Recreational Users

Some recreational visitors enjoyed the socially enriching qualities of a culturally diverse atmosphere associated with the Smithfield Beach site. Other recreational users, such as local residents and historically longtime users of the site, bemoaned the aural, temporal, and spatial "invasion" of what they referred to as "their" site. Some visitors were discovered to be displaced (e.g., physically, socially, culturally) from this site which had been traditionally used for generations among local residents as a recreation site. For example, some local, longtime Smithfield Beach site users expressed feeling displaced by the newer wave of visitors, who came from a distant city and bumped the locals from their countryside haven, on weekends especially. Local

residents expressed their consternation about this new recreational user dynamic and its impact represented by this statement: "Why do they have to come all the way out here and take over the place and be so loud?...Where else are we supposed to go now?"

Other Hispanic Culture Related Recreational Behaviors

Traditional American recreation pursuits were popular and frequently engaged in onsite by Hispanic visitors: sunbathing; listening to music or the radio; swimming; sandcastle building; floating on a tube or raft; conversing; people watching; outdoor cookery; soccer; "Hackey-sack"; touch football; reading; and playing cards or board games. Hispanic recreational visitors introduced several culturally related pursuits that distinctly put their ethnic influence or imprint on the site atmosphere. These engagements included taking siestas, setting up and lounging in hammocks in the tree shaded areas, and using elaborately designed homemade ring toss games (e.g., "The Frog") transported from home. In particular, the homemade ring toss structures were not only extensive and unique in design, but served as observation and conversation pieces, which also acted to heighten social and cultural interaction onsite among users who were previously strangers to each other.

Temporal Elements

Another dimension of study findings yielded the notion that social scientists and resource managers need to recognize and focus on culturally diverse perceptions and uses of time or leisure (Table 1). For example, different cultures may exhibit different rhythms either during and/or between recreational engagements. Bohannon (1953) pointed out that different cultures vary in their notion of time. To clarify this point, Oriental cultures tend to venerate age and view humans as being closely linked with the cycles of nature. Occidental cultures, on the other hand, tend to value youth, human actions which subdue nature, and a focus on the here and now.

Differences between cultures regarding time perceptions may be explained by the following two premises (Linder 1970; Bammel and Burrus-Bammel 1996: 101). The first premise postulates that mechanical time is influenced by a culture's state of technological development. The second premise posits that with a rise in income, greater demands are placed on time usage. The degree of demand on time will determine whether a culture tends to have a time surplus, sufficiency, or scarcity status (Linder 1970; Bammel and Burrus-Bammel 1996: 101-105).

Table 1. Time use and culture, work, and leisure relationships (Bammel and Burrus-Bammel 1996: 102).

Variables	Time surplus	Time sufficiency	Time scarcity
Economic Status	Poor countries	Some wealth	Rich countries
Production	Low	Middle	High
Time	Time rich	Time adequate	Time poor
Work	Age is revered Low work output Not focused on mechanical time Non-work time plentiful & interspersed Low work-time related induced stress		Youth is revered High work output High focus on mechanical time Emphasis on time use and efficiency at work High incidence of time stress induced illness
Leisure	Many holidays Relatively more time spent on meals (e.g., preparing and eating) Mainstream recreation pursuits use large segments of time Participation in leisure pursuits tends to be spontaneous Less emphasis on use or consumption leisure equipment and related paraphernalia		Few holidays Less time spent on meals Mainstream recreation pursuits use small, convenient segments of time Participation in leisure pursuits tends to require advanced planning More emphasis on use or consumption of leisure equipment and related paraphernalia; some multiple use or consumption may even occur
Countries	Latin America	Western Europe	United States of America
Leisure Pursuits	Complex games, requiring large amounts of time		Less complex games, which fit into short periods of time

Hispanic-American visitors to Smithfield Beach tended to exhibit time adequate to time rich behaviors as influenced by cultural mores and attitudes. These visitors tended to do the following: spend long periods onsite; be leisurely in preparing several meals over the course of a day visit; engage in a day long ebb and flow of numerous physical and social leisure activities interspersed with restful siestas; and come prepared with complex board games to occupy themselves during the day. Recreation resource managers may find it useful to pay attention to visitors' diverse notions of time as they exist within and across cultural/ethnic backgrounds, and the urban or rural residential preferences of cultural/ethnic groups. This may aid in better understanding the elements of recreational users' needs, satisfaction, conflicts, and displacement. It would be interesting to longitudinally track the temporal related preferences and behaviors of recent immigrants from diverse cultures with subsequent generations of their offspring to detect changes in time use and perceptions of time, as they move through the acculturation and assimilation process.

Spatial Elements

Some spatial elements which emerged from the data warrant the further attention of recreation researchers and resource managers alike. These spatial use related themes included visitors' space availability needs, site space reconfiguration by users, and the evolving patterns of movement of recently introduced culturally diverse visitors' through the recreation area were also uncovered.

Observations revealed Hispanic-American spatial needs onsite included areas of sufficient size to host a multiple generation, extended families possibly accompanied by numerous friends or neighbors. This meant that some parties within this cultural/ethnic group had need for a ready supply of additional picnic tables. With only a dozen picnic tables available for the entire site, many groups went without a table, especially during peak use periods such as weekends and holidays. During high use periods, the amount of space availability decreased overall and visitors became creative in arranging or locating a spot to picnic on at an adjacent hillside.

Some visitors reconfigured the recreation site to meet or conform to their needs. For example, Hispanic-American visitors were noticed to enjoy bringing their own hammocks to hang from trees within the picnic table zone. While many of the visitors from this cultural/ethnic group did not initially realize that the Park Service frowned upon hanging items in or on the trees due to concerns of injury to the trees, numerous Park Service personnel may not have realized that the use of hammocks are an integral part of the Hispanic culture, and hence potentially important to their recreation satisfaction. The placement of onsite Park Service Rangers who were bilingual, versed both in English and Spanish, was helpful in cross-cultural exchanges to mediate any potential conflicts through education and information of management expectations, versus heavy-handed directives or miscommunications.

Evolving progressions and patterns of movement associated with the new wave of culturally/ethnically diverse visitors' through the recreation area were also discovered. By word-of-mouth within the New York--New Jersey urban Hispanic-American community, Smithfield Beach quickly gained a positive reputation as a beautiful recreation place in the countryside.

After being exposed to the river recreation resource and seeing other people engage in some of the recreational possibilities (e.g., commercially outfitted tubing, rafting, and canoeing trips), Hispanic-American visitors began to try these pursuits themselves. Many of them selected tubing or rafting as activity entry points, since these recreational forms required less skill, experience, and instruction, and were relatively user friendly modes for first-time users when it came to negotiating river rapids. By embarking on a river trip, participants within this cultural/ethnic group were gradually exposed to other sites either upriver or downriver. Knowledge of and experience at these new sites expanded these visitors' destination places on return trips. In this manner, Hispanic-American recreationists branched out and discovered other sites along the river reach. For example, Milford Beach was adopted by some Hispanic-Americans as a less crowded, upriver alternative to Smithfield Beach. Some local Milford Beach area residents and users of this site, subsequently felt somewhat displaced on weekends when large numbers of the "new" visitors showed up. Milford Beach was a smaller site than Smithfield Beach, but because there was a Park Service site manager who took great strides to educate and enforce his code of positive displays of recreational etiquette and a no littering policy, there was less evidence of conflicts among users in comparison.

Discussion and Implications

There was a diverse mix of recreationists, in terms of age, points of origin, type or size of group, different cultural/ethnic heritages, and activities, among those who sought experiences on the Middle Delaware River. While most visitors spatially distributed themselves near the river or at facilities provided onsite, a few recreational visitors preferred to occupy more socially isolated spots at a river site. At Smithfield Beach on weekends, loud music was evident and irritating to some recreationists because the music was pervasive, imposed upon, inescapable, and not necessarily a musical style pleasing to everyone. Recreationists could not get far enough away from the music nor tune it out, and as such it cast a disagreeable influence on some people's onsite experience. This conflict could be avoided if reasonable and respectful sound limits and other related recreational etiquette were introduced and enforced by rangers. Site supervisors or rangers who encouraged a spirit of the greatest range of freedom for all to enjoy within just restraints would help cultivate an environment which promoted satisfying recreational experiences for the broadest range of visitors on a consistent basis. As philosopher Mortimer Adler (1981: 144) pointed out, unlimited action is actually counterproductive to true freedom and enjoyment. That is, as Adler (1981: 144) contends, virtuous personal actions guided by "just restraints" (i.e., etiquette; just laws, rules of order, and policies) result in no loss of personal liberty, but rather have the opposite effect of extending the realm of freedoms one may count on and look forward to enjoying. Recreation satisfaction may be related to understanding how much freedom one has to enjoy something within the parameters of taking responsibility to abide by just and reasonable restraints, so as not to encroach upon someone else's experiences and satisfaction. Longtime, local visitors and the site supervisor at Milford Beach tended to establish and foster this notion of recreational freedom with a "be respectful of others ethic" onsite. People read, conversed, played games and music without causing undesired aural, physical, social interference (i.e., conflict) for

other recreational users. Perhaps aural, physical, and social space are culturally relative entities that need to be further explored with respect to culturally/ethnically diverse user group leisure patterns. Understanding the cultural antecedents of recreational user behavior may provide insight on how to develop bridges or connecting strategies between cultural/ethnic groups.

The large influx of culturally/ethnically diverse recreationists (i.e., Hispanic-Americans) from urban areas occurred mostly on weekends and holidays at Smithfield Beach. This phenomenon began to spread to other nearby river sites, such as Milford Beach, as diverse visitors learned more about the national recreation area and other river recreation opportunities. These culturally diverse river users began to desire experiences at other places along the river. The large representation of a different cultural/ethnic group onsite was viewed as being an educational opportunity by some local recreation users who had an appreciation for people from diverse cultural/ethnic backgrounds. Some people commented that they came from rather homogeneously populated hometowns and enjoyed the chance to experience people from other cultural/ethnic backgrounds firsthand. Some mentioned that they thought the Hispanic-American visitors really knew how to entertain themselves recreationally, and that other people could learn something from watching them. On the other hand, some people perceived differences existing among "newer" visitors which contributed to expressions of consternation, misunderstandings, or disagreements. This was the case with a longtime local user population who felt displaced by the influx of large numbers of non-local visitors at the same site. For the most part, most sources of conflict were determined to be mediated or modified by resource managers through traditional education and interpretive means, and additionally, through "Master" site manager modeling and instruction of other staff and recreation site visitors.

Researchers and recreation resource managers are encouraged to look beyond recreation activity patterns and cultural stereotypes, and to focus on developing a broader understanding and sense of the total dynamic occurring onsite: "What is going on at a recreational place?" Outdoor recreation places and experiences offer the promise of serving as valuable vehicles for interaction among people from diverse cultures/ethnicities in a non-threatening environment. Leisure experiences provide a potentially powerful medium to assist in the acculturation process of new immigrants and citizens at two levels: first, as they engage in the process of assimilation into their new culture; and second, as society is affected by the influences of diverse peoples and the new intercultural blendings that are outcomes of that interaction process. Unique homemade games brought onsite and shared by strangers, cookouts featuring different types of foods, coming to a recreation site early and playing enthusiastically all day, and vivacious dancing to ethnic featured music were a few examples of different recreational styles, ambiance, and fervor which a new cultural/ethnic visitor group interjected at a recreation site: Smithfield Beach. These behaviors provide stark focal points of interest for others to watch and begin to understand something about the "new" groups of recreational users. For example, after these "new" recreation users took part in familiar recreational pursuits such as picnicking, swimming, and playing games, they then gained some experience in easily mastered forms of river recreation, such as tubing and rafting. From there, they branched

out in both activity type and location for different experiences. At Smithfield Beach, this leisure assisted acculturation process took place in a hospitable and friendly environment. Furthermore, it should not be overlooked that leisure has the capacity to add meaningful and enriching dimensions of quality to one's life (Iso-Ahola and Weissinger 1984; Iso-Ahola 1980; Neulinger 1974). This point may be all the more critical in the lives of recent immigrants or tourist guests as they endeavor to make the uneven transition from one country and culture to another. Access and exposure to a wide variety of recreational opportunities in the host country, to satisfy individual preferences, can serve as important facilitator in assisting the cultural adjustment process and helping to establish a new cultural identity among recent immigrants.

Recommendations for Further Research

Study findings reinforce the notion that visitor recreation experiences are multidimensional in nature. These grounded, emergent themes expand our understanding of the culturally related attributes associated with river recreation experiences. Further research exploring temporal and spatial recreation related factors associated with diverse cultures and ethnic groups, to enhance our understanding of various user groups and the dimensions of river and general recreation experiences, is suggested to assist in resource management. Additionally, findings from this study suggest that attention should be devoted to the exploration and development of these themes: visitors' physical, aural, and psychological spatial use, interaction patterns of physical, aural, psychological spatial use among culturally diverse visitors; and the spatial distribution and arrangement of users' recreational equipment onsite.

Similar to archeologists who have pieced together our human past from sifting through artifact remnants accumulated over the course of various geological eras, perhaps recreation social scientists and resource managers need to trace and map out the social attributes and patterns associated with various cultures or ethnicities. Cultural mapping may be a useful tool for identifying recreational preference trends among diverse peoples. Over time, distinct cultural core regions could be identified along with cultural overlapping or diffusion areas per historical era (Cielinski, as referenced by Valenzuela 1996). Cultural values, traditions, contributions, literature, land settlement and ownership patterns, and the development of goods and services industries in various human societies could be plotted. From this, recreation resource researchers and managers may find it helpful to study the regional influence of diverse cultures or ethnicities on people's intertwined sense of place, self, and spirituality (Valenzuela 1996).

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THE ROLE OF MULTICULTURALISM IN TOURISM/RECREATION MARKETING AND PLANNING EFFORTS

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Abstract: This research report focuses on Blacks and Hispanics as the dominant minorities; reviews the historical/traditional research on minorities; and summarizes recommendations for marketers and policy planners on characteristics and behaviors, and the impact they have on minorities' travel, recreation, and tourism preferences.

The United States in Transition: Multiculturalism
The "melting pot" paradigm, long a dominant ideology in the United States (U.S.), has been replaced by an emphasis on "multiculturalism." Population demographics in the United States are changing dramatically. In particular, the minority population is increasing. This paper will focus on Blacks and Hispanics as the dominant minorities. As the population becomes more diversified, tourism preferences, attitudes, and perceptions need to be looked at to better assess the planning and direction of tourism (research and marketing) in a multicultural atmosphere.

Blacks and Hispanics, the two largest minority groups in the U.S., are characterized by specific socioeconomic and demographic changes. From 1970 to 1990, the number of Blacks increased from 23 million to 30 million, representing 12% of the total population in 1990 (Bureau of the Census, 1993a). During the same time period, the Hispanic population increased from 9 million to 22 million, representing almost 9% of the total population in 1990 (Bureau of the Census, 1993b). It is important, for marketing purposes, to identify geographic regions in which the majority of minorities are concentrated.

Regions of Black and Hispanic Concentrations
Blacks are concentrated in the U.S. South (South Atlantic, East South Central, West South Central). The counties with the highest portion of blacks remain in a southern region sociologists call the Black Belt. In the 1990s, the South is still home to 53% of America's blacks (Bodovitz, 1991a). Hispanics are concentrated in the U.S. West (Mountain and Pacific), where 45% of the total Hispanic population lived in 1990 (Bodovitz, 1991b). Additionally, Blacks and Hispanics tend to concentrate in urban centers within and outside these regions. It is important to know these areas because they are the core regions for multicultural marketing.

It is also important to identify regions with the highest increases in Blacks and Hispanics because they are growing minority markets. For both Blacks and Hispanics, there are four states (New York, Florida, Texas, and California) that represent not

only the largest populations, but also the largest increases in minority populations. Important subregions can be found outside and within the core regions of the South and West.

For example, Chicago, New York, Miami, San Antonio and Los Angeles are cities with large populations and large percentages of minorities. These cities (and the states they are in) should promote their multicultural environment to the core regions identified previously to attract Blacks and Hispanics. Conversely, the core regions should promote themselves specifically to these cities as "minority-friendly" destinations. New York, California, Texas, Florida, and Illinois state travel offices were among the top eight (projected) spenders in advertising in 1991 (Spotts, 1991). According to Wagner & Soberon-Ferrer (1990), these five states contain 73% of the Hispanic population. It is doubtful that the same percentage of the combined advertising budgets of the five states were spent on attracting Hispanics to these states.

Multiculturalism's Emphasis Away from Mass Marketing

Marketers to these regions and those who are trying to target or create a niche (tailored) market realized that advertisements directed at Blacks and Hispanics should be different from the mainstream. However, what marketers sometimes fail to do is research attitudes and perceptions minorities feel towards a destination. Identifying key travel and tourism characteristics is important in understanding travel patterns and future or potential markets within the tourism industry. As the demographics of the population change, so will demand for recreation and travel and the type of recreation and travel will also change.

Discretionary income and time are factors people consider in determining whether or not to participate in an activity or travel to a destination. Other influences include cultural and linguistic differences, perception of a destination as being minority-friendly, and discrimination. The reasons for particular travel or activity decisions are commonly grouped into the marginality theory, and the ethnicity theory. Current literature regarding these theories point to mixed results concerning the causality in tourism/recreation preferences in Blacks and Hispanics towards a destination (Chavez, 1993; Dwyer, 1994; Stamps & Stamps, 1985.).

The following sections discuss the theories briefly, and how they are used to describe, predict, or explain preferences. Particular attention will be placed on the role research can play in identifying characteristics of Blacks and Hispanic travelers/recreationists. The reader should be wary of overgeneralizing specific studies to the general minority public due to the type of study, area of study, and methodologies employed.

Traditional Research and Alternative Approaches

Traditional recreational/travel research on minorities focuses on the marginality and ethnicity theories (Hutchinson, 1987, 1988; Washburne, 1978). According to Washburne (1978, p.175) marginality theory states "that underparticipation results from preventive factors such as poverty and discrimination." Ethnicity [states] that recreational patterns are based on subcultural -

different from that of the majority - leisure norms and value systems" (Washburne, 1978, p.175, italics added).

The meaning of ethnicity and marginality have changed over the past 20 years. for example, West (1989) describes marginality as the differential incomes between whites and minorities. Furthermore, West noticed that Washburne's use of ethnicity needed clarification because of the change in the usage of the word "ethnicity."

[The] seminal study by Washburne (1978) used the term "ethnicity" to represent a theory of racial subcultural differences in outdoor recreation preferences, a usage that has now become widespread in the leisure research on racial differences...Because the term ethnicity has other prior meanings in the wider social sciences in general...we will adopt the term "subcultural" life-style preferences, which more closely reflects the theoretical assumptions of what Washburne had intended in his use of the term "ethnicity" (1989, p. 11).

The focus of this traditional research has been on minority-majority differences. In particular, the focus has been on black-white differences and comparisons. This is a limitation of the traditional research because it focuses on one minority group and typically generalizes to others. More recent research has broadened this approach to include comparisons within minority groups (Blacks, Hispanics, Asians, etc.), as well as comparisons between other minority groups that are not Black (Dwyer, 1994; Hutchinson, 1987; Stamps & Stamps, 1985).

The general paradigm shift from melting pot to multiculturalism contributed to a paradigm shift in tourism/recreation research from the theories of marginality and ethnicity to looking at interracial relations, prejudice and discrimination. West notes that "it is a strange irony that this body of research, [marginality and ethnicity], has almost entirely ignored another important potential explanation [to underrepresentation]: the problem of interracial relations, [tensions], and prejudice" (1989, p. 12). West also noted that the dominant paradigms kept researchers from looking at the discrimination factor.

The ethnicity model has been criticized for its assumption that ethnic groups "have a single value and normative order" (Woodard, 1988, p. 88). In his assessment of future directions for research, Woodard discusses the importance of regionality in marketing recreation (mentioned earlier) and the effect region has on attitudes and behaviors of blacks. Regions can also be expected to impact other minority groups. He hypothesized and showed that differences in travel/recreation preferences exist between Blacks from different regions. He termed this influence as intragroup regionality.

There are some aspect of their historical circumstance, such as racism and discrimination, that no single Black American can escape in the United States (Kronus, 1971). To the extent that racial codes were more rigidly enforced in the rural South than in the urban North, then Black Americans reared in the rural South exhibit somewhat different behavioral styles than Black

Americans reared in the urban North, independent of socioeconomic differences...Blacks reared in the rural South...socialized by more strict racial codes...leisure patterns vary from those of Blacks reared in the urban North. Thus regionality refers to the geographic region where the Black American respondent was socialized the first sixteen years of his/her life (Woodard, 1988, pp. 89-90).

Researchers who have looked at other subgroups (e.g., Hispanic, Greek, Asian) have arrived at the same conclusions, that is, that minorities' travel and recreation behavior is markedly different from that of the mainstream, and that marketing and planning efforts need to take these differences into account (Chavez, 1993; Morris, 1993; Wagner & Soberon-Ferrer, 1990).

Relevance of Research on Marketing

The recent literature (cited above) has identified the importance of regions and regionality in patterns of tourism/recreation. The relevance of this information to marketing is to unlock a region's potential as a multicultural environment. Wilbur Zilinsky, a cultural geographer, looks at how cultures manifest themselves spatially. He says that contrary to popular superstition, regional cultures are not dying (Edmonson, 1987). This is important to note because it reinforces the notion of multiculturalism and the push-pull factors a region may have on a particular segment of the population.

Advertising to minority markets can help to draw people in those markets to certain regions of the country. For example, Alabama has targeted northern Blacks since 1983 by publishing a brochure highlighting black heritage attractions (Ahmed, 1993). The region's pull to Blacks and the effect of demographic variables were described in the following way:

Black heritage attractions are already a mainstay of Montgomery's tourist package, and city officials plan to develop them further... [Montgomery is described] as the buckle of a black history tour belt that runs from Selma to Atlanta...Black heritage sites all over the nation are attracting tourists... As the number of middle-class and college educated blacks continues to grow, these sites could become the black equivalents of Gettysburg and Independence Hall. Says Walter Parrish, a member of the National Coalition of Black Meeting Planner, "The black tourist market is a sleeping giant" (Ahmed, 1993, p. 49).

The above quote illustrates the potential a region has for a minority group and how, through target marketing, it can unlock that potential. San Antonio and its 22 surrounding counties are another region which promotes its biculturalism as a key to its success. Tourism is San Antonio's second largest industry, and San Antonio is a top destination for business (convention) and leisure travelers (Satagaj, 1992). San Antonio's marketing efforts targeting Hispanics were described in the following manner.

Visiting Mexican nationals account for about 30% of mall sales, and leading malls have directly targeted Mexico through advertising and special promotions. The biggest local marketing factor.

however, is the market's Hispanic population...The city's Spanish-speaking population, cultural ties with Mexico and closeness to the border (about 150 miles) have San Antonio poised to capitalize on increased trade expected under a proposed North American free-trade agreement (Shaffer, 1992, p. 39).

Here, the planning and direction of (potential) tourism catered to the preferences of the large Hispanic population. Discrimination and cultural differences were other factors affecting tourism preferences. Minorities are often discriminated against, making them feel like second-class citizens in American society. A large part of discriminatory acts can be controlled by "sensitivity" training on the part of the employer. "Travel can be difficult for black Americans. They are sometimes asked to carry bags, park cars, and take restaurant orders by others who assume they are employees. Flight attendants sometimes assume that blacks don't belong in the first-class section of an airplane, so black travelers are sometimes confronted when trying to store items in first class closets and bins" (Morris, 1993, p. 49).

Multicultural advertising has to address the nuances of cultural diversity both within and between different cultures. For example, Hispanics are generally distinguished by the fact that they speak Spanish or are of Spanish ancestry. However, within the Hispanic populations, there are different ethnicities (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, etc.). This is important to note because different Hispanic groups may have different customs. As such, one cannot think of a Hispanic market as being homogenous. Moreover, Hispanics can be subdivided into three major categories with respect to language: (1) Spanish-only speakers, (2) bilingual speakers, and (3) English-only speakers.

Dominant (majority) cultural views do not necessarily correspond to Hispanic cultural views. When M. Isabel Veldes, president of Hispanic Market Connections in Los Altos, California came to America 17 years ago, she was appalled by American dog-food commercials that treated dogs as if they were part of the family. Why? In "Hispanic" America, dogs are usually kept outside. "Hispanic mothers lavish attention on their children, but they often don't have enough left over to pamper pets" (Oliver, 1992, p. 14). In much the same way, what might be viewed as a great family get-away by mainstream America, may be viewed differently by a minority.

What then are the tourism/recreation differences between the majority of the population and minorities? Are there similarities? What are the characteristics of the Hispanic and Black markets? The next section will attempt to answer these questions.

Characteristics of Hispanic and Black Markets

There are differences and similarities in the patterns of Black, Hispanic, and White recreation activities. Hutchinson (1987) found that Blacks and Whites tend to be very similar in their patterns of activity. They tended to participate in activities that emphasized individualism and small groups. This pattern was explained by the "greater influence of the dominant culture of individualism among both white and black populations" (Hutchinson, 1987, p. 220).

Hispanic participation in activities, however, tends to emphasize family and large groups made up of family and close friends of the family (e.g., cousins, brothers, god parents). The differences in activity patterns between Hispanics, Blacks, and Whites "appear to be the result of a distinctive ethnic subculture rooted in a more traditional family structure which stresses the importance of the group (rather than the individual) and reinforces specific roles between age and sex groups" (Hutchinson, 1987, p. 220, parentheses added). The implication of this to tourism marketing is that stress should be placed on group and family activities.

There will often be differences between groups, but one must be cautious because there will also be differences within groups. The above study focused on urban recreation in public parks and was specific to Chicago. However, the findings are consistent with the findings in the literature reviewed earlier.

Key characteristics of Hispanic consumers

Hispanics are brand loyal, concerned with quality and are family-oriented (Wagner & Soberon-Ferrer, 1990). Although Hispanics in general are brand loyal, it has been argued that the reason is that they are simply not aware of many mainstream products. "Many ethnic consumers are accustomed to shopping in small stores that offer a few familiar brands, when they go into a supermarket that carries up to 15 brands of certain products, they are overwhelmed" (Oliver, 1992, p. 15). Marketers in general can take advantage of this loyal tendency by marketing their products (travel or otherwise) and "familiarizing" ethnic consumers.

Younger populations, usually means larger households. "Hispanic Americans are a united market in some ways, but not in others. Those who share the same language, culture, religion, and television programs can be approached as a single market, but economic, political and other differences divide the market into several distinct segments" (Braus, 1993, p. 46). The distinct segment Braus refers to are segments along language lines (e.g., Spanish only, English only, Spanish/English). The key characteristic is that family-oriented expenditures are important to Hispanic households and marketers and planners should cater to this interest if marketing and promotion efforts are to be successful.

Some population projections cite immigration from Latin America as a significant factor in the increase of the Hispanic population which is expected to be the largest minority group in the twenty-first century. If this trend continues, we can assume that many Hispanics will be first generation and have strong ties to Latin America. As such, their preferences will be similar to those of Latin Americans. It was found that consumers in some Latin American countries are more likely than U.S. residents to take vacations (four or more days); 14% in Argentina, 8% in Brazil, 19% in Mexico, and 10% in Venezuela, compared to only 6% of U.S. residents (Galceron and Berry, 1995). Recreation and tourism professionals can capitalize on the similarities first generation Hispanic Americans and Latin Americans by offering family vacations of longer than four days.

Key characteristics of Black consumers

Most Black households are headed by females, prefer public transportation over a private car, and because of discrimination,

are less likely to dine-out (Wagner & Soberon-Ferrer, 1990). Respect and acceptance by businesses, for example speaking their language, is a key issue for Blacks. For example, Stove Top Stuffing found that Blacks referred to their stuffing as "dressing." They targeted blacks with a new commercial saying "dressing" and sales improved (Morris, 1993). The importance of this "language" barrier should not be overlooked. Language usage will affect Blacks' choices of destinations or activities. Morris also identifies characteristics specific to Black travelers:

Blacks are 50 percent less likely than whites to have taken a trip abroad in the last three years...When they do travel outside the U.S., blacks prefer destinations that are both "language comfortable" and "color comfortable," like the Caribbean, where blacks do not get hassled and feel unwanted because of their color. Language and skin color are strong bonds that outweigh cultural differences. As a result, blacks spend \$60 to \$70 million a year traveling to the Bahamas, according to City Sun.

Blacks heavily concentrate their vacations in the summer. They prefer to travel in groups, not as individuals, and they have a preference for tour packages. Blacks are far less likely than whites to go camping or hunting, however, and they are less likely to engage in adventurous or risky activities...[instead], they prefer to relax and see the sights, shop, or party with friends (p. 49)

Discussion and Implications for Marketing to Minorities

How can tourism companies market to minorities? There are no answers to this question because of the varying differences among and within minorities. However, based on the literature, research, and characteristics identified above, there are certain guidelines and recommendations which marketers and policy planners need to be aware of. They are as follows:

- identify which "cultural" region your tourism product is in (San Antonio - Hispanics, Alabama - Blacks) and market to its constituents;
- identify dominant minority populations and cater specifically to their needs (Miami - Cubans, New York City - Blacks and Puerto Ricans, Los Angeles - Mexicans);
- involve companies in community programs (schools for example) to establish credibility;
- tourist destinations must be both culturally and racially sensitive to promote minority-friendly areas;
- use existing advertising means which cater specifically to a minority population (Ebony, Jet Magazine, Univision, Telemundo);
- for Hispanics, advertise in Spanish when appropriate and promote family oriented events and packages;
- for Blacks, tourism concentrated in urban areas are of interest and should be specific to Black heritage, promote individual growth (e.g., Black Heritage Trail in Boston, and Museum of African-American History in Boston);

- remember that minority markets are not homogenous (urban/north Blacks vs. rural/south Blacks, Mexicans vs. Puerto Ricans);
- target higher income and higher educated minorities who tend to travel more as well as explore more "mainstream" avenues)

The above list is not exhaustive, however, it does identify some critical issues which tourism marketers and planners need to address given the growing minority population.

The trend is clear. If current conditions continue, the United States will become a nation with no racial or ethnic majority during the twenty-first century...[a] common need is information and entertainment that explains the world to multicultural consumers from their point of view...businesses are going to have to reposition both their content and their advertising to appeal to today's multicultural youth as they become tomorrow's multicultural adults (Riche, 1991, p. 29).

Multiculturalism will play a critical role in the tourism/recreation marketing and planning efforts. As a result, markets need to be understood in terms of their diversity. The largest markets are usually found in the largest population concentrations. "Of the 50 most diverse counties, 14 have populations of 1 million or more, and 33 are in metropolitan areas" (Edmonson, 1991, p. 20). Immigrants and minorities tend to settle in and around metropolitan areas. The largest markets in the U.S. are becoming the most diverse markets. Recognition by professionals in the tourism industry is needed in order to consider the potential impact minorities will have in the near future.

Research has indicated "that ethnicity, broadly defined, has a profound impact on the motives and behaviors of certain types of tourists" (Thanopoulos & Walle, 1988, p. 14). As such, more research is needed to understand the differences within and between minority groups in order to create a niche market. Determining minority preferences will planners/marketers satisfy the needs and wants of a growing minority. The ethnicity and race of tourists influence their behaviors and attitudes, and thus have an impact on their travel, recreation, and tourism preferences. Tourism marketers need to make a commitment to serving a diverse population and develop marketable destinations and products for a multicultural environment.

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ETHNICITY AND ITS IMPACT ON RECREATION

USE AND MANAGEMENT: ROUNDTABLE

DISCUSSION NOTES AND BIBLIOGRAPHY

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Abstract: The subject of "ethnicity and its impact on recreation use and management" is of growing concern today, and thus is the keynote topic of the 1996 Northeastern Recreation Research (NERR) Symposium. These notes were compiled based on the featured roundtable discussion, which was intended to facilitate open and informal dialogue on this sensitive and controversial subject. Three related sub-problem areas were introduced by session moderators/facilitators and discussed among roundtable participants: (1) the current status of ethnicity in recreation; (2) trends toward encouraging ethnic diversity in the work force; and (3) equity issues related to the provision of recreation services for ethnically diverse peoples. A synthesis of key discussion points that emerged during the roundtable forum and a topical bibliography are included herein as resources.

Introduction

This paper documents the proceedings of a roundtable discussion session that addressed the symposium theme: "Ethnicity and Its Impact On Recreation Use and Management" held at the Northeastern Recreation Research (NERR) Symposium Monday, April 1, 1996.

The roundtable session was structured into three sub-discussion groups: (1) the current status of ethnicity in recreation; (2) trends toward encouraging ethnic diversity in the work force; and (3) equity issues related to the provision of recreation services

for ethnically diverse peoples. Session attendees voluntarily selected a discussion sub-group to participate in. Specific sub-problem questions used to facilitate discussion are included below for review. Sub-groups discussed questions pertaining to their topical area posed by group facilitators. Sub-groups reconvened as a group of the whole and each sub-group served as a panel to share their key discussion outcomes. A synthesis of the range of discussion topics, comments, and other points raised are included below.

The Current Status of Ethnicity in Recreation

The Current Status of Ethnicity in Recreation was facilitated by Katharine A. Pawelko, Western Illinois University, and Jennifer A. Treadwell, University of Vermont. Discussion topics for this sub-group ranged from the following points:

a) Do ethnic minorities have different recreation preferences from the majority?

b) Should recreation practitioners manage for the recreation preferences of people from different ethnic origins?

c) How does ethnicity/cultural background (of majority/minority) influence recreation preferences and choices?

d) Do environmental ethics and values influence recreation choices?

e) Would you expect race and ethnicity to influence ethics and values?

f) What is the influence of race and ethnicity on environmental ethics?

g) Are differing environmental ethics therefore one explanation for variance in recreation choices between ethnic majority and ethnic minority recreation users?

h) What factors may serve as good predictors of different recreation preferences among different ethnic/cultural groups?

i) What constraints exist and serve as barriers to recreation engagement among ethnic minorities?

j) What factors account for the relatively low proportion of minorities in outdoor recreation areas and pursuits?

The question, "Do ethnic minorities have different recreation preferences from the majority?", provided the primary focus for discussion within this sub-group. Highlights of the salient points raised during this session included the following:

1) Much of our understanding about recreation preferences among users is based upon homogeneously styled survey questions. We need to develop survey content which is better able to extract the specific variations in preferences among ethnically/culturally diverse recreation users.

2) Social class, economic income, and type of job were mentioned as factors which were perhaps more relevant in

influencing recreational preferences than race, ethnicity, or cultural background. Additionally, whether minorities' place of residence is urban, suburban, or rural may have an influence on their recreation preferences

iii) The spectrum of activities at a recreation site may be rather limited based on historically established patterns of the majority versus more recent diverse minority cultural notions. To what degree are managers aware of the breadth of user needs and planning for the inclusion of a greater range of appropriate activities which reflect a more diverse user population at a site?

iv) Perhaps we need to look at what is the role of education and interpretive specialists in carrying out the mission of a recreation agency and its resource with regard to minority users? Is the focus on legal compliance?, education?, stewardship?, sensitivity training?

v) We need to carefully avoid stereotyping ethnic/cultural groups with reference to their recreation preferences. We need to ask ourselves just how much do we really know about various aspects of different ethnic/cultural groups, their needs, concerns, preferences, and idiosyncracies?

vi) Recreational pursuits may be utilized as a tool to assist people from diverse cultures for assimilation and integration purposes into society.

vii) Managers and researchers should consider these prospects: "When does a minority group become assimilated?", "When do ethnic/cultural differences matter?", "When does membership in an ethnic/cultural group provide a significant source of self-identity?", "How does a sense of community within a minority group influence recreational preferences?"

viii) We need to consider how recreation managers may provide opportunities to ethnic/cultural groups so they may break into new areas of recreational pursuits beyond what was typical in their native culture. Numerous avenues, such as Outward Bound programs and "Life Camps", have been traditionally used to expose urbanites to wilderness settings and experiences. What is the role and responsibility of managers in this process and to what extent? Do we provide summer camp experiences and then have minority group participation drop-off due to marginality factors or insufficient funds which serve as constraints to further involvement? One perspective offered at the session was that it was the responsibility of individuals in an ethnic/cultural group to provide salient feedback to recreation resource managers so they could get their needs met versus managers serving as an assumed outright panacea to the situation.

ix) Within a relatively short passage of time, White ethnic/cultural groups eventually become invisible in the greater fabric of society. How does being a member of a visible minority (i.e., people of color) affect recreational preferences? tensions between groups?

x) An interesting perspective was raised with the question, "What do we know about various ethnic/cultural group outdoor recreation preferences in their native or home country?" Alternatively stated, "What would we prefer or expect if we went

to another host country for an outdoor recreation experience?" (e.g., at Mt. Fuji, Japan there may typically be long lines that we would not tolerate in our home setting).

xi) Future demographic projections and their implications for outdoor recreation preferences should also be considered in our planning. For example, what will happen several generations from now, in the year 2050, when today's minorities comprise a major part of the population and become part of the establishment?

xii) It was generally agreed within the discussion sub-group that outdoor recreation resources often serve as central focus points we may hold in common as human beings across cultures. Outdoor recreation areas provide a common ground for humanity to enjoy the aesthetic qualities of outdoor environments, to cultivate an ethical kinship or "topophilia" relationship with a landscape, to develop a sense of place or assimilation in a community or culture, as well as provide the opportunity to participate in a myriad of enriching outdoor pursuits.

Trends Toward Encouraging Ethnic Diversity in the Work Force

This discussion breakout group was led by Varna M. Ramaswamy and Benjamin Wang from the University of Vermont

Discussion topics for this sub-group ranged along the following points.

a) Should the recreation workforce reflect the current population mix of the general population?

b) Why should establishments hire people of various ethnic and cultural backgrounds?

c) Do multiple perspectives provide insights into management practices?

d) Does (enlarging) increasing (the) ethnic diversity in the mix of researchers and managers lead to multiple perspectives? (& provide insights into management practices?)

This sub-group primarily directed its attention to the question, "Why should establishments hire people of various ethnic and cultural backgrounds?" Numerous reasons which supported an ethnically/ culturally diverse staff emerged during the course of group discussion. One reason reflected the idea that hiring practices should represent the diverse population at-large. A second reason was the existence of legal mandates which need to be implemented. A third reason involved the notion of carrying out this course of action from the position and spirit of moral obligation and justice. A fourth reason specified that the practice of hiring a diverse staff would be helpful in educating co-workers about people from other cultures, since we increasingly operate in a global network and economy. Diversity within the work force could contribute to a diverse team of recreation managers and researchers who would be exposed to multiple ethnic and cultural perspectives firsthand, which would in turn help them develop a

better understanding of the publics they serve. A fifth reason generated was based on the incentives of expanding the tourism industries and general economy, and relatedly, the overall quality of life for all people

Additional comments related to this topic included a clarification that it was not deemed necessary to place an emphasis on hiring for positions already held by people representing the majority of the population. Furthermore, discussion within the sub-group pointed out that it is not necessary to force minority recruitment on an establishment if minority applicants do not apply for positions of their own volition. Strategies which encourage diversity within hiring opportunities were identified. Some suggested approaches included the following: hire people from within an ethnically/culturally diverse community; seek out minority personnel recommendations from colleagues, community groups, and volunteers; and support the unique qualities which diverse peoples may offer an agency through appropriate training opportunities.

Equity Issues Related to the Provision of Recreation Services for Ethnically Diverse Peoples

The third breakout groups was chaired by Edwin Gomez, Michigan State University.

Discussion topics for this sub-group ranged among the following points:

- a) Why and how (How and why?) should recreation managers take into consideration various recreation preferences based on ethnic/cultural differences?
- b) Should recreation managers act on best social scientific judgment?
- c) Should national managers follow majority opinion, local or national?
- d) Should recreation managers try to be equitable by taking into consideration special interest recreation needs and preferences?
- e) How are recreation management practices changing in relation to the needs of people of differing ethnicities?
- f) The first main point addressed by this sub-group dealt with "Equity in the Provision of Recreation Services."

Discussion among participants yielded recognition that there should be sensitivity to differences among people, but there was a need for consistent enforcement of the rules within the domain of recreation areas and services provision. A question arose concerning whether the rules may be changed to enhance the recreation experience and whether this should take place at the national or local administrative level of recreation areas and services? The response within the sub-group was that it depends on two factors: first, it depends on the recreational user groups being served; and second, it requires taking a look at the mission or purpose statement of a park or similar recreational entity. A series of counterpoints and affirmations emerged concerning this topic. For example, some discussion participants remarked that

recreation resource managers need to have some flexibility in how they serve different user groups, but they also need to be aware of what should or can be provided. Furthermore, with respect to equity concerns, some sub-groups members pointed out that regional (cultural) differences needed to be taken into account, so a generic national solution did not seem to be a reasonable approach. Some possibilities for dealing with cultural and language differences and barriers included the following strategies: hire recreation and park personnel from within the local community since they have direct insight and understanding about a specific community, culture or people; recruit a mix of people from diverse backgrounds to serve as volunteers, consultants, or specialists; involve key community members as points of information or input resources; hire and use "magnet" employees (i.e., individuals who are bilingual and speak the language of a local culture) to facilitate effective cross-cultural communication.

An ethical issue came up concerning a question about diversity within the sphere of outdoor recreation areas/facilities and services. Specifically, "Do recreation professionals have an obligation to enforce or promote diversity among and within the outdoor recreation user clientele?" As is often the case in discussion groups, more questions surfaced in comparison to definitive answers generated. For example, another question arose concerning "Whether or not outdoor recreation resource managers are in the business of creating user demand? Others vocalized the question, "Do we have to be all things to all people?" One member of the sub-group agreed that would be the ideal situation. Another discussion participant voiced the comment, "Are we allowed to have a niche?"

Another main topic raised included, "Are things changing with regard to equity in outdoor recreation?", and How are they changing?" Within the discussion sub-group, it was agreed that things are changing with respect to equity in outdoor recreation services, but members disagreed as to the manner or extent of the change. For example, some individuals said that a backlash of sorts existed. Due to this perceived counterproductive situation, some recreation professionals would prefer to sidestep the diversity issue and would rather see things restored to the way it used to be. Other discussion members questioned the logic of this pattern of thinking since the demographic figures and projections indicate that the outdoor recreation "customer" base is becoming more culturally/ethnically diversified in profile. Another aspect of this discussion pointed out that at least cultural differences among users has been recognized as a noteworthy concern among managers. This occurrence in itself is a major stride, since it signifies that there is less emphasis on "homogenization" among people from different cultures into our society today and a growing awareness about this social phenomenon. With respect to advancing equity in outdoor recreation, someone asked, "Have recreation professionals tended to be reactive or proactive in this venture?" Most people in attendance agreed that recreation professionals have tended to be reactive. The next obvious step to be addressed was "So, how can we be more proactive with regard to equity concerns?" Some recommended strategies were generated by the sub-group. One suggestion was to identify the needs of diverse populations (e.g., perhaps through the use of focus groups to identify meaningful and relevant questions for inclusion on outdoor recreation

surveys). A second discussion outcome, related to outdoor recreation agency missions, was that any indicated changes should complement priorities. The first priority is preservation of the resource; opportunities for outdoor recreation should follow that priority. That is, the former should not be at the expense of the latter. A third suggested strategy included the identification of cultural and historical resources which need to be preserved, with an attendant focus on who decides what gets preserved, and who has access to the overall process.

A final discussion point concluded in agreement that there needs to be a rationale accompanying change for equity purposes as opposed to operating "for the sake of justice." As recreation and park managers, the final decision to implement change will be the complying with the needs and desires of outdoor recreation area users, while staying within the directives of the management agency's guiding mission. As is obvious to resource managers, these two charges are often paradoxical in nature as they are frequently at odds with each other. The present climate and spirit of expanding cultural diversity within the mix of outdoor recreation clientele, adds yet another dimension of challenge to the original mission statements which guide our use and management of our coveted outdoor recreation resources.

Overall, this roundtable discussion yielded a wide variety of contemporary concerns which centered on ethnicity and outdoor recreation use and management issues, as identified by leading recreation resource managers and social scientists. This synthesis of the roundtable session provides a record of potential topics for consideration as possible starting points for future research endeavors.

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**Contemporary
Outdoor
Recreation Issues**

NATIONAL PARKS: CAN THE OLD DOG LEARN

NEW TRICKS?

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Abstract. This paper considers two special aspects of De Hoge Veluwe, the largest national park in The Netherlands. These are the Kröller-Müller Museum and wit fiets (white bikes). How they might be incorporated into areas managed by the National Park Service is explored.

Introduction

I have sometimes felt the attitude in the United States is that nobody can teach us anything about national parks. After all, we invented them! As founders of the national park idea, America has much to be proud. But this old dog can still learn new tricks. For instance, part of the successful public and private partnership that occurs in mixed ownership parks such as Cape Cod National Seashore comes from a thoughtful consideration of national park management in Great Britain.

This paper suggests that we might benefit from a careful look at two special characteristics of De Hoge Veluwe: the synergy of art and nature, and the use of public bicycles as an alternative to motorized transportation.

De Hoge Veluwe

The Netherlands is one of the West's most densely populated and urbanized countries. Yet it is also one of the most environmentally progressive nations. One area in which this is evident is a national desire to preserve existing natural areas, and even to create 'new nature' where appropriate. Nowhere is far from anywhere else. The De Hoge Veluwe is a short bus ride from Ede, which is 45 minutes by train from Amsterdam. In 1993, 750,000 people visited the park (Jansen 1994:1). In addition to its natural landscape, the primary attractions in the park are the Kröller-Müller Art Museum, the Museonder, a visitor center interpreting nature's underground, and the St. Hubert Hunting Lodge.

The largest natural reserve in The Netherlands is De Hoge Veluwe (Alings 1994). It was established in 1935 by a wealthy merchant and his wife, Anton and Helene Kröller-Müller. Their vision was for a synthesis of culture and nature that would be a gift to "the common interest." In many respects this mirrors the early establishment of our National Park Service. It also benefited from the generosity of wealthy industrialists who valued the beauty of both culture and nature, such as John D. Rockefeller and Steven Mather (Foresta 1984).

Figure 1 shows the location of the park and its basic features. It is a pleasant mosaic of forest and heathlands. While natural appearing, this landscape is very much a creation of man. The area was heavily grazed and farmed during the explosive population growth of the Middle Ages. The forest cover was removed; even the turf was harvested as a fertilizer and building material. This history of over use and exploitation is still

apparent to the knowledgeable eye. However, today's values have created a refuge from industrial Europe for both wildlife and people.

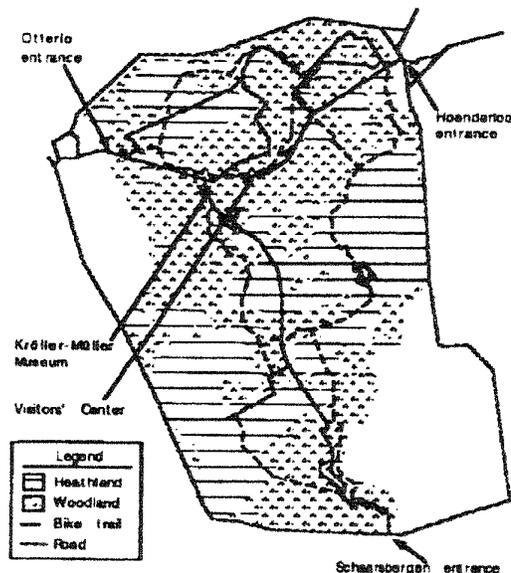


Figure 1. Map of De Hoge Veluwe.

Kröller-Müller Museum

Art is a means to refresh and recreate the soul – but many Americans' blood pressure rises just thinking about cities like New York or Washington where our greatest art museums are located. It seems reasonable to expect the rejuvenating qualities of art to be enhanced if they could be visited in more restful surroundings. The Kröller-Müller Museum houses a world famous collection of fine art in a sculpture garden and indoor galleries that are closely integrated with the natural environs of the park. While many galleries have only stark white walls, the Kröller-Müller galleries also have walls of glass that let in natural light filtered through trees and provide a refreshing wooded background for viewing art. Walking through the woods and meadows also puts one in the proper frame of mind to appreciate the creative expression of sculpture.

In his study of park visitors, Jansen (1994:70) found that 56 percent went to the Kröller-Müller Museum. Of those not visiting the museum, most indicated that they had been there before or were too engaged with the natural outdoors. Less than 3 percent of these respondents thought a national park was an inappropriate place for an art museum.

How the museum was evaluated by those who visited it is shown in table 2. Half thought that the natural surroundings enhanced their appreciation of art. A few thought it was a little crowded and not of much interest to children. Most expected to return again.

The Smithsonian and the National Gallery have much of their art collection in storage because there is simply no place to display it

Table 1. Reason for not visiting the Kröller-Müller Museum.

Reason for not visiting	Percent
Been there often before	55
Weather too beautiful	26
No time	25
Not interested	10
Museum doesn't fit with a visit to a park	3
Other	18
Total not visiting	44

Source: Jansen 1994:70

Table 2. Evaluation of the Kröller-Müller Museum.

Aspect of the museum	Percent agreeing
The staff is hospitable	73
So much that I'll return often	61
Atmosphere created by the natural surroundings	49
It is not interesting for children	36
It is too busy	22
Didn't meet my expectations	7

Source: Jansen 1994:70

in Washington DC. Think how much better it would be to transfer some of this collection to the green line parks, such as Cayuhoga, or national parks near large metropolitan areas, such as Rocky Mountain or Olympic.

Wit fiets or White Bikes

In the 1960's the Amsterdam White Bicycle Plan was proposed as a solution to the increasingly serious traffic congestion within the city. The idea was to take a large number of basic bikes, paint them white and make them available for free use throughout the city. It failed of course, since Amsterdam has possibly the highest rate of bicycle theft in the world.

However, white bikes are a marvelous success in De Hoge Veluwe where 800 white bikes are made available at 4 dispersed locations throughout the park. Visitors are asked to follow the common sense rules in figure 2.

It would be difficult for someone on foot to appreciate the diversity of the park's 5,500 hectare (13,000 acres) of woodland, heath, sand dunes and fens. And the special character of this fragile area would be destroyed by extensive motorized access. Bicycles provide the perfect solution. Park visitors can enjoy the landscape's diverse and subtle qualities while leisurely riding along the extensive path system, or stop anywhere along the route for a relaxing rest or picnic.

Jansen (1994:75) found that 38 percent of the visitors used the white bicycles. Table 3 shows their evaluation of the white bikes. These visitors overwhelmingly endorsed the use of white bikes. They see it as one of the special features of the park, and positively evaluate the rules about their use.

Table 4 gives the reasons that 62 percent of the visitors chose not to use white bikes. The most common reason was that they had been used before. Some of these respondents may also have indicated they did not use the white bikes because they brought their own bike.

This sort of intimate interaction of a bicyclist with the landscape is impossible for a public wedded to automobiles, which require wide roads, large parking areas, and disrupt the sanctity of the

White bicycles are available for visitors to the Park.

They are stored in five shelters:

- o at the entrances to the Park at Hoenderloo, Otterlo and Schaarsbergen
- o at the visitors' centre
- o at the National Gallery Kröller-Müller

The conditions for use:

- o the use is free
- o the bicycles are available as far as the supply lasts
- o the bicycles must not be taken out of the Park
- o take bicycles only from the shelters and not from elsewhere in the Park
- o return the bicycles to one of the five shelters
- o the user is responsible for the consequences of improper use
- o the use is for user's own risk
- o the white bicycles are not to be locked by the users with their own locks or chains

Child's saddles and child's bicycles are for loan in the workshop at the visitors' centre.

For disabled people, tandems and wheelchair cycles are available here

Figure 2. The posted condition of use for 'white bikes'.

Table 3. Evaluation of the white bicycles.

Aspect of the white bicycles	Percent agreeing
Free bikes are one of the nice things about the Park	99
Good thing to have in the Park	99
It is especially nice for children	89
You can use any bike in the shelters	87
There are enough bikes in the Park	67
The quality of the bikes is good	67
You can use the bike for the whole day	50
It's ok to wait sometimes for a bike after visiting the museum	43
It's important to be able to reserve and pay for a blue bike	40
Rules are strictly observed by visitors	17
Use of the bikes do not appeal to me	7

Source: Jansen 1994:75

experience with noise, exhaust, and inappropriate roadside parking. The secret to the success is that the bike and pedestrian paths are separate from the automobile roads. In addition, these

paths are all internal to the park and do not allow any external access by which thieves might try to remove the bikes.

Table 4. Reason for not using the white bicycles.

Reason for not visiting	Percent
Used them before	43
No time	11
Not interested	3
Didn't know about them	3
Weather too bad	1
Other	37
Total not visiting	62

Source: Jansen 1994:75

The history of the National Park Service is closely tied to the American love affair with automobiles. The first director, Steven Mather, recruited automobile clubs and local tourist industries in his drive to build a system of national parks. While it may have been a stroke of genius at the time, we are paying the price today. The problems of traffic congestion have been recognized for some time. For instance, Foresta (1984: 107) indicates that by the mid-1960's it was clear "that parks and highways mixed poorly." He goes on to quote Director as saying "The automobile as a recreational experience is obsolete, we cannot accommodate automobiles in such numbers and still provide a quality environment for a recreational experience." However old patterns are hard to break. In their most recent study visitor transportation systems, the NPS limited themselves to mechanized alternatives, such as buses, trams, light railways, and monorails (BRW, Inc. 1994). All of these systems require large capitol investments that have significant environmental impacts. In addition, they all provide a tourist experience where the visitor is sealed away from nature rather than personally interacting with it.

White bicycles are a particularly appropriate solution for Acadia National Park, where there is a system of dirt roads that were developed for the recreational use of horse carriages. Think how pleasant Yosemite Valley would be if white bikes were made available and cars were further restricted. One could also imagine bicycles being used to advantage in national parks such as the Everglades, San Pedro Island or possibly even Fire Island.

Acknowledgment

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**AN ASSESSMENT OF CUSTOMER SATISFACTION
AT A U.S. ARMY CORPS OF ENGINEERS WATER-
BASED RECREATION AREA: THE CASE OF LAKE
SAKAKAWEA, NORTH DAKOTA**

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Abstract: Customer satisfaction efforts are underway among virtually all federal outdoor recreation agencies, including the US Army Corps of Engineers. This pilot study was conducted in an effort to understand three market niches -- ramp users, campers, and day-users. Customer satisfaction of the three niches was evaluated at five separate locations through the use of importance-performance scales. Findings highlight the importance of site-specific analysis and the use of satisfaction analysis to provide managers with visitors' perceptions of facilities and services provided.

Introduction

Across the United States, government agencies are increasingly interested in assessing customer satisfaction. President Clinton's September 11, 1993 Executive Order (No. 128620) "required all federal agencies to have a customer service plan in place by September 8, 1994." This paper attempts to explain how US Army Corps of Engineers recreation managers are using customer satisfaction efforts to improve the quality of service to their customers.

Study Methods

Data were collected through a combination of in-depth focus group interviews and short-answer surveys at five recreation sites at Lake Sakakawea, North Dakota (also known as the Garrison Project). Initially, in-depth interviews were recorded with 70

groups of visitors over a thirty day period in June, 1995. These interview responses were used to develop the second phase of the survey, a short survey consisting of open-ended and closed-ended questions.

Data were collected equally through sampling on weekdays and weekends at the same locations. Sampling was conducted between the major summer season holiday weekends of Memorial Day, the Fourth of July, and Labor Day, in the months of June through August, 1995. Data were not collected on these holidays in order to eliminate the bias associated with peak use. The goal of the initial sampling design was to complete a total of 300 on-site interviews in the period of July 5 to August 8, 1995. The actual number of surveys completed (n=203) was less than the original sampling goal due to the low number of visitors, particularly during the weekday period (Monday through Friday). However, the number of surveys completed was sufficient to allow for the site-specific reporting that was called for in the study objectives.

The interviewer conducted surveys on weekend and weekday periods. The weekday period consisted of Monday through Friday, and the weekend period was Saturday and Sunday. The primary method of conducting this survey involved the surveyor walking through campsites and day-use areas, conducting interviews. Although this method was appropriate for four of the five areas, an alternate method was instituted at one site, the Government Bay Boat Ramp Area, because the boaters at this location often did not want to take the time to answer an interviewer's questions while down loading or uploading their boats. A short survey was placed under the wiper blades of the trucks parked at the ramp lot, with a request to place the surveys in the fee box at the ramp exit.

Visitor Satisfaction Indicators

Visitor satisfaction with trips to the Garrison Project was assessed through several sections of the survey. Basic customer service questions were asked about issues of interest to most people, such as condition of the facilities (Table 1), condition of the natural resources (Table 2), cleanliness (Table 3), and safety (Table 4). The scale was based on a five point Likert scale, with "1" being highest, and "5" lowest.

Table 1 shows that just under 50 percent of the visitors surveyed indicated that the condition of the facilities at Garrison Project was excellent. One-third of the visitors felt that the condition of the facilities overall was more than adequate, and 14% percent indicated that the condition of the facilities was adequate. Only three percent rated the overall condition of facilities at the five sites as less than adequate.

Table 1. Condition of facilities.

	Lake Sakakawea State Park	Spillway Pond	Douglas Creek	Wolf Creek	Government Bay
Excellent	40%	70%	54%	34%	64%
More than adequate	35%	23%	31%	46%	24%
Adequate	18%	0%	8%	19%	12%
Less than adequate	7%	7%	7%	1%	0%

Table 2 shows results from a question asking visitors to evaluate the condition of the land, beach, water, foliage, erosion, etc. Over 52 percent of the visitors rated the condition of the natural resources as excellent. One-third of the recreationists rated the conditions of the natural resources as more than adequate. About thirteen percent of the visitors indicated that the area was merely adequate. Less than one percent of the visitors rated the condition of the natural resources as less than adequate.

The question regarding cleanliness pertained to the sanitation of comfort stations, campsites, boat docks, swimming areas, picnic sites, etc. (Table 3). Just under 52 percent of visitors answered excellent in relation to cleanliness. Over 34 percent indicated that the cleanliness was more than adequate. Thirteen percent rated the cleanliness as adequate. Only one percent of the visitors indicated less than adequate or poor.

The question shown in Table 4 asked visitors to indicate their satisfaction level with the safety and security at the recreation site. This included ranger presence, enforcement of leash laws and other rules, safety at the swimming area, etc. About 49 percent of the visitors indicated that they felt the safety/security was excellent, and 30 percent rated the area as more than adequate. Just under 20 percent of recreationists rated the area as adequate, and only three percent felt that the safety/security was less than adequate or poor.

The questionnaire also queried visitors on their satisfaction with the money they had spent on recreating at Garrison Project (Table 5). This question was asked only in the three areas at which fees were charged: Wolf Creek, Government Bay, and Lake Sakakawea State Park. The results indicated that the vast majority of recreationists were satisfied with their value for their dollar. Sixty-six percent of the visitors reported that they felt the

value was excellent. The value was rated as more than adequate by 28% of the visitors. Only six percent of the recreationists rated the area as less than adequate or poor.

The questionnaire asked respondents to rate the condition of the campsites at the sites that had camping facilities (Table 6). Areas considered under this heading were foliage, privacy, level sites, access to water, electricity or comfort stations, etc. Only three areas maintained campgrounds: Wolf Creek, Douglas Creek, and the State Park. The majority of campers indicated that the condition of the campsites was excellent (38%) or more than adequate (42%). Eighteen percent of the visitors rated the area as merely adequate, and only a small number of the recreationists listed the area as less than adequate (3%) or poor (1%).

Satisfaction with Ramps and Courtesy Docks

Satisfaction with ramps and docks was measured only at Government Bay, where the ramps and courtesy docks are the primary facilities in that area. Over 61% of the visitors indicated that the ramps and courtesy docks were excellent, and 22% rated the docks/ramps as more than adequate. Only 17% indicated that the docks/ramps were merely adequate, and no visitors rated them as less than adequate.

Site-Specific Implications for Managers

Spillway Pond

The primary users of the Spillway Pond Day Use area are swimmers, who have indicated a high degree of satisfaction with the area. Almost 30% of Spillway visitors who were surveyed were first time visitors, most indicating that they had just recently heard about the positive changes at the site. Many of these visitors were local residents or were camping at other sites along the shores of Lake Sakakawea, and were attracted by a relatively safe, no-cost recreation activity for their children.

Table 2. Condition of natural resources

	Lake Sakakawea State Park	Spillway Pond	Douglas Creek	Wolf Creek	Government Bay
Excellent	51%	70%	69%	36%	67%
More than adequate	36%	25%	23%	45%	22%
Adequate	11%	5%	19%	19%	11%
Less than adequate	1%	0%	0%	0%	0%

Table 3. Cleanliness of the facilities.

	Lake Sakakawea State Park	Spillway Pond	Douglas Creek	Wolf Creek	Government Bay
Excellent	50%	62%	69%	42%	63%
More than adequate	37%	29%	31%	38%	18%
Adequate	10%	9%	0%	20%	19%
Less than adequate	3%	0%	0%	0%	0%

Table 4. Satisfaction with safety/security at the recreation site.

	Lake Sakakawea State Park	Spillway Pond	Douglas Creek	Wolf Creek	Government Bay
Excellent	54%	57%	64%	34%	59%
More than adequate	33%	31%	18%	33%	23%
Adequate	11%	12%	9%	31%	12%
Less than adequate	0%	0%	9%	2%	6%

Table 5. Value for Money Spent

	Lake Sakakawea State Park	Wolf Creek	Government Bay
Excellent	66%	65%	66%
More than adequate	29%	30%	23%
Adequate	5%	5%	11%

Table 6. Safety and security.

	Lake Sakakawea State Park	Wolf Creek	Government Bay
Excellent	42%	39%	33%
More than adequate	36%	46%	47%
Adequate	17%	16%	18%
Less than adequate	3%	0%	1%
Poor	2%	0%	0%

Lake Sakakawea State Park, with a comparable swimming area and beach, is located just a few miles from the Spillway Pond Day Use area, yet the Spillway area rates as high or higher in all areas. A minority of visitors desired major changes, such as the addition of a food stand, but overall, project managers seem to have created the right mix of facilities and recreation opportunities for the market segment that uses the area.

Regarding the correlation between the importance and satisfaction of selected attributes, it again appears that managers and visitors feel that the same issues are important. There is a concern among visitors about the possibility of managers implementing a usage fee for the Spillway Pond area in the coming years, reflected in the relatively low degree of satisfaction with the cost of a no-fee area. Managers need to be sensitive to this concern, as these visitors felt strongly about this issue. Additionally, managers may need to reevaluate their position on water safety, as there was a request for life guards and depth markers at the swimming area.

Staff friendliness and helpfulness was also rated somewhat lower in importance and performance at the Spillway Pond Day Use area, probably because of the expectations of visitors at a day use area. Visitors to the other areas surveyed expect and want to see visible ranger patrols in areas where they are camping. In day use areas, however, there is often the perception that rangers are just there to bother visitors, and make sure that all of the minor (but perhaps important) rules are followed. These rangers are frequently the only staff that many day users meet. Thus, visitors to the Spillway Pond Day Use area seemed to indicate a lowered importance and satisfaction with staff friendliness, which may be noted as an area of concern to managers.

Overall, the Spillway Pond Day Use area seems to be meeting the needs of the visitors that use the area. This seems to validate managers' concerns that the appropriate developments and changes were made to the area to meet the needs of that particular market segment, the family-oriented swimmer, sunbather, and picnicker.

Douglas Creek

Visitors to the Douglas Creek area are difficult to categorize because of the diversity of activities that they participate in and

the low number of visitors. The most frequent response when asked the activities they planned on pursuing was a combination of several activities, such as camping and boating, fishing and camping, sunbathing and boating, or any combination of the above.

These visitors seemed to think that the Douglas Creek area compared about the same or better than other similar areas, but never once indicated that the area was best, worse, or worst. This almost neutral response, combined with these visitors using other Garrison Project recreation areas exclusively (100%), and the high number of repeat visitors (77%), leads one to conclude that these visitors are satisfied with the area. Although there was some dissatisfaction noted, these visitors were not at all passionate or extremely concerned about the changes they had seen or changes they desired at the site.

When examining the comparison between the importance of selected attributes and the satisfaction or performance of those attributes, the Douglas Creek area fared somewhat worse. Visitors to this site placed a great deal of importance on the availability of places to enjoy their chosen activity, but their responses to their satisfaction concerning this variable were much less enthusiastic. These responses, combined with the insight gained by conducting focus group interviews, indicate that the Douglas Creek visitors just want to be left alone, without seeing or being at all impacted by other visitors or staff. The only other visitor response that really stood out among the Douglas Creek satisfaction surveys was a concern about the possibility of having to pay a fee to use the area in future years, similar to the concerns noted by Spillway Pond visitors.

In looking at the overall implications of this study to the Douglas Creek recreation area, it appears that managers are meeting the needs of the majority of visitors. The area is becoming more popular, resulting in more and more visitors, which is demonstrated in less than superb ratings when a survey such as this is conducted. The popularity of the area seems to be related to management actions in recent years, such as more consistent mowing and trash removal, and the addition of things such as horse corrals and even a bulletin board to communicate with visitors. All of this has had a positive impact on the recreation area, and should not be construed as inappropriate management actions.

Wolf Creek

At the Wolf Creek recreation area, similar to the Douglas Creek area, there is a very heterogeneous population of recreationists using the site. There are few first time visitors; over 32% visited more than five times in the past year, and the majority of these visitors recreate at many other recreation areas within the region. When trying to pinpoint the changes desired by Wolf Creek visitors, the heterogeneity of the population once again causes a problem because of the many different desires of visitors. Since the area has undergone recent management actions, such as the implementation of a camping fee, the addition of more vault toilets, and a playground, many campers have indicated that they desire more development, such as a fish cleaning station, a dump station, and showers.

The satisfaction level of Wolf Creek recreationists was somewhat less than at the other sites surveyed, and was evident in the visitors' rating of the condition of facilities, natural resources, and other factors. Managers may need to focus attention on the aesthetics of the natural resources and facilities to ensure that the customers' first impression is a positive one, perhaps through the planting of trees and shrubbery between campsites and throughout the area.

The safety and security of recreationists at the area must be a management priority. Visitors were only somewhat satisfied with this, and indicated a desire for more frequent ranger patrols and some method of communicating with emergency authorities in the event of some problem, such as an accident. Ranger patrols have been increased at the Wolf Creek area, but managers may need to look into the possibility of obtaining some sort of public telephone, or even an emergency phone, at the Wolf Creek area.

Wolf Creek recreationists were relatively satisfied with the minimal fee required to camp at the area, and the overall value. Although this is an important factor to these recreationists, the majority seemed willing to spend the money in return for the recent developments at the area. The contingent of recreationists who desired no further changes at the area, and who felt that the recent changes were negative, were unhappy with paying the camping fee, as expected. Camping fees are becoming a reality at Corps recreation sites across the nation, and managers should not be dissuaded from providing more and better services in response to the very vocal minority of visitors who desire no staff interaction, no facility development, and no-fee camping.

The analysis of the importance/performance indicators at the Wolf Creek area indicated much of the same types of results. The area has been modernized in some ways, but is still primitive in others, resulting in dissatisfaction by many. Managers will continue to feel the effects of the disparity between visitors who desire modern camping and those who desire primitive camping until a true identity is established for the area. Managers may want to invest in modernizing some portions of the Wolf Creek area to meet those needs, while leaving a segment of the area primitive, similar to the method used by the Lake Sakakawea State Park.

Wolf Creek visitors suggested that privacy was not very important as a satisfaction attribute when compared to the other sites surveyed, indicating a desire for social interaction. Many campers at Wolf Creek desire to park several campers together on one large site and recreate together. Managers have accommodated this desire by creating group camp sites in addition to the individual camping sites, further meeting visitors' needs.

Other importance/performance indicators at the Wolf Creek area seemed to correlate surprisingly well, given the dissatisfaction with some of the above issues. Managers will need to continue to monitor the Wolf Creek area to ascertain additional reactions to the developments at the recreation area.

Government Bay

The majority of Government Bay visitors, similar to Spillway Pond visitors, are a homogenous group, differing only in the form

of recreation most often pursued. Over 95% of Government Bay visitors surveyed were involved in fishing from a boat, and seemed very satisfied with the recreation opportunities provided by local managers. These visitors are more concerned with the lake water level than any other attribute, an issue that is not within the locus of control of local managers.

Government Bay visitors had the highest percentage of repeat visitors, and the highest number of repeat visits in the past year. The area is known by anglers to have excellent facilities, and managers seem to strive to maintain the area as such. The recent addition of a daily or annual fee to use the boat ramps caused a great deal of vocal opposition. There seemed to be consensus that only minor changes were needed at the recreation area, and that the fluctuating water level was the issue of greatest concern.

Overall, managers seem to be meeting the needs and desires at Government Bay very well. The area is known among anglers to have excellent, clean facilities, and is regarded as worth paying a fee to use.

Lake Sakakawea State Park

The majority of visitors to the Lake Sakakawea State Park tend to seek out general rest and recreation and a combination of fishing, boating, camping, and swimming. Like the visitors from the other areas that were surveyed, the majority of visitors are repeat visitors, with a high percentage of visitors who had used the area numerous times in the past year.

When asked to indicate what changes these visitors had seen and desired, the largest majority of visitors wanted to see major changes, such as renovated comfort stations, upgraded electricity and water service, and shore development (cottages, fishing docks, etc.). This is indicative of aging facilities and a population that has been coming to the area for many years who want to see something new at the park. Many of these issues are beyond the local manager's control, and are noted only as information to the manager. Changes noted in recent years were not significant or important to Lake Sakakawea State Park visitors.

The conditions of the natural resources at the park were rated somewhat low, mainly because of a desire for the lake to remain at a lower water level and a desire to see more trees at the park. Many trees have been planted in recent years, so one would assume that the visitors will reap the benefits in a few years. Safety and security, cleanliness, the condition of ramps/docks, and other satisfaction issues were typical, with no real problem areas, with the exception of the availability of water safety information. The primary cause of this seems to be the lack of a life guard at the swimming area, and the high degree of family boating.

The managers of the Lake Sakakawea State Park seem to be meeting the needs and desires of the visitors, and have no extreme issues to address. Overall the campers and other recreationists indicate a moderately high degree of satisfaction with very few specific problems.

Discussion/Conclusion

This study examined numerous variables in an effort to measure customer satisfaction. The results of this study indicate that the

majority of Garrison Project visitors are satisfied with their visits to the lake. When looking at the Garrison Project as a whole, visitors to the project appear to be a homogenous group, predominately from the local area or one of the two cities within 60 miles of the lake: Bismarck and Minot. However, when site-specific analyses are done, distinct, heterogeneous populations emerge, which is an important management consideration.

The majority of recreation use is on weekends, and many visitors come in groups of two, although visits by larger groups are not uncommon. Adults make up about 60% of visitors, children 40%. The typical customer visits the lake six times or less per year, and almost 80% were repeat visitors. When asked to compare the specific Garrison Project area that they were currently visiting with the other areas they visit, the majority indicated that the site rated best or better than the others.

Upon examining basic customer satisfaction issues, the vast majority of Garrison Project visitors indicated that they were

extremely satisfied or more than satisfied with areas such as staff friendliness, boat ramps, paying a fair price, the privacy of campsites, the availability of human and natural history about the area, the availability of places to enjoy themselves without bother from other incompatible recreation activities, the availability of water safety information, and swimming areas.

Garrison Project visitors were also asked to rate specific areas regarding importance to the visitor and his/her level of satisfaction with that area. The correlations between the importance and the satisfaction with individual items are important management indicators. These provide the manager with a *visitor's* perspective of how important certain issues are, such as the availability of history information about the area, the condition of facilities, natural resources, campsites, boat ramps, the level of cleanliness, and value for their dollar spent. With the exception of the availability of human and natural history issues, visitors indicated for the most part that the areas managed are important, and that they are satisfied with those areas.