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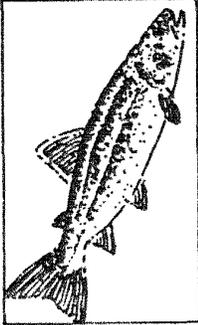
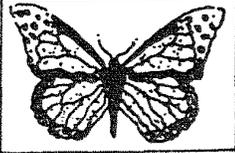
Northeastern Forest
Experiment Station

General Technical
Report NE-185



PROCEEDINGS of the 1993 NORTHEASTERN RECREATION RESEARCH SYMPOSIUM

April 18-20, 1993
Saratoga Springs, New York

Environmental Awareness
 CAMPING sailing
 fishing  HIKING
 bicycling
 observing Nature  FORESTS
 ECONOMICS HISTORIC Places Lakes  NATIONAL PARKS
 TOURISM
 Wildlife Management
 BOATING
 MODELING
 swimming
 Travel
 Tourism
 HUNTING
 Picnicking

NORTHEASTERN RECREATION RESEARCH MEETING POLICY STATEMENT

The Northeastern Recreation Research meeting seeks to foster quality information exchange between recreation and travel resource managers and researchers throughout the Northeast. The forum provides opportunities for managers from different agencies and states, and from different governmental levels, to discuss current issues and problems in the field. Students and all those interested in continuing education in recreation and travel resource management are particularly welcome.

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PROCEEDINGS of the 1993 NORTHEASTERN RECREATION RESEARCH SYMPOSIUM

**April 18-20, 1993
State Parks Management and Research Institute
Saratoga Spa State Park
Saratoga Springs, New York**

Compiled and Edited by:

Gail A. Vander Stoep
Michigan State University
Park and Recreation Resources Department

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PRESENTED PAPERS NOT INCLUDED

NOTE: If you are interested in getting additional information about any of the papers that were presented but were not submitted for publication, please contact the authors directly. A list of those papers is included here to assist you in identifying authors.

MANAGEMENT ROUNDTABLE SESSION

The Role of Social Science Research: A) Should recreation researchers adopt a more explicit role of advocacy? B) Pandering to the public: do visitor surveys undermine recreation management? Tom More, USDA Forest Service.

GREENWAYS

Scenic Roads: Access to an Educational Opportunity. Steven Brower, Burlington, IA.

Seaway Trail: A Scenic Byway Teresa Mitchell, Seaway Trail, Inc.

LANDSCAPE / VISUAL PERCEPTIONS

Landscape Perceptions: Understanding Viewer Needs and Desires. Steven Brower, Burlington, IA.

OUTDOOR RECREATION MANAGEMENT AND PLANNING

Testing an Evolutionary Model of Recreation Partnerships. Steve Selin, West Virginia University; Debbie Chavez, USDA Forest Service.

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Boating Identity and Behavioral Change: Self-referent Behavior or Discursive Outcome? Walter Kuentzel, University of Vermont.

Recreational Fishermen and Their Preferred Fish Species: An Exploratory Analysis of Angler Characteristics. David Loomis and Robert Muth, University of Massachusetts.

The Conscious Experience of Recreation. Tom More, USDA Forest Service; James Averill, University of Massachusetts.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT ASPECTS OF TRAVEL AND TOURISM

Whitewater Rafting as a Tool for Economic Development. Sharon Hurt, West Virginia University.

*TRAVEL AND TOURISM
BEHAVIOR*

INVESTIGATING SPATIAL STRUCTURE
INFLUENCES ON RECREATION
ACTIVITY PACKAGES

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The purpose of this paper is to explore the link between the resources where outdoor recreation may take place and the origin of travel. A recent study in Massachusetts suggests individuals that concentrate travel to park resources may intrinsically be identifying activity packages. It is hypothesized that proximity to resource may explain some of these activity packages. Highlighted will be the supply characteristics of recreation opportunities and the demand of activities as identified by the use of a Geographic Information System (GIS) with data from the 1988 Massachusetts State Comprehensive Outdoor Recreation Plan.

Introduction

Travel behavior in recreation is correlated with sociodemographic information about the traveler, purpose of the trip and proximity to destinations. Studies suggest that destination diversification may be a surrogate for activity compatibility (Bristow, Klar and Warnick 1992; Bristow 1989; Fesenmaier and Lieber 1988). It has been shown that activity participation may provide the best explanation to travel diversification and hence activity packages.

The purpose of this paper is to identify the spatial link of the resource to activity packages. It is hypothesized that proximity to resource may explain activity packages. Further it is hypothesized that the destination chosen for some activities may be inherently linked to a particular activity. For example, campers may elect to "get away from it all" and seek distant camping sites, while boaters desiring to "escape" may wish a closer opportunity. The relationships between these activities and available opportunities will be explored using a geographic information system.

Following this introduction, is a review of the relevant literature. Then the data and methods used in this study will be described. The results will then be summarized next along with implications to managers and planners.

We gratefully acknowledge the support of Professors Klar and Warnick (UMASS) for the SCORP data and MassGIS for digital data layers.

Literature

A primary goal of travel research is to understand what factors might influence the decision making process (Burnett 1981). In this manner, recreation planners and managers can identify determinants of patronage patterns to estimate the returns on investments. In particular, recreation and tourism travel is assumed to be a function of the travelers socio-economic and demographic characteristics, the activity or purpose of the trip and the relative availability of alternative destinations.

Travel behavior can viewed in one of two ways; either individuals visit the same park repeatedly or they visit a variety of destinations. Repetitious travel is best exemplified by a recreator visiting a "favorite fishing hole". Diversified behavior is a form of variety seeking, where the angler seeks a new and different opportunity.

Certain demand of the activity may preclude diversified travel, however. For example, the angler who fishes from a large vessel may moor the boat close to home. Large boats are unwieldy to transport great distances by car. A review study (Graefe 1986) in The President's Commission on Americans Outdoors (1986) found that boaters tend to stay close to home. Average travel distance to boating opportunities averaged 25-40 miles and the vast majority traveled less than 50 miles. Peterson (1991) supports this by reporting the boater markets in the Great Lakes Region were found close to the resource.

Another example of concentrated travel may be best exemplified by the trend to time-share campsites. This will lock a camping family into staying at the same park resort.

Recreationists who seek variety in their activity may tend to diversify their travel. Boaters, especially those constrained by the large vessels may not exhibit diversified behavior because of the aforementioned reasons. Campers, on the other hand, are not so clearly delineated. Urban recreationists tend to visit the country for their camping experience. However, KOA type campgrounds are often located near urban centers to provide inexpensive housing for tourists. In Massachusetts, for example, KOA campgrounds are found in close proximity to Boston, Springfield and the Cape Cod region (KOA 1993). Park resources that cater to boaters and campers are plentiful in the region. But as some research has found (e.g., Warnick and Vander Stoep 1990) participation rates for boaters have been dropping because of an aging population. Demand, however, continues to escalate as people seek an outdoor experience. Since visitation may be increasing and it is unlikely that supply will increase much substantially, it is important to learn about the discrepancies between each.

A recent study of recreation patterns in Massachusetts (Bristow, Klar and Warnick 1992) found travel concentration occurred when recreationists boated and visited parks or camped and visited parks. Interestingly enough, these travel strategies changed when patterns of participation in boating and camping were investigated. Under these circumstances, the households who participated both in boating and camping tended to diversify travel and thereby were unlikely participating in the two activities together. Incompatible activity packages become apparent.

The Data

The analysis identified in this research is based on the Massachusetts Department of Environmental Management (DEM) data gathered for the 1988 State Comprehensive Outdoor Recreation Plan (SCORP). A full description of the SCORP data is found in Smith et al. (1988). The SCORP project incorporated a statewide stratified random digit-dialing telephone survey. Completed interviews yielded a sample size of 3,500. Collected were standard socio-economic and demographic information about the respondent, levels of participation in warm and cold weather outdoor recreation activities and places where each activity took place most frequently.

Supply data collected by the State's DEM included an inventory of 11,000 sites throughout the Commonwealth, both private and public. Information about the site's facilities, such as number of campsites, length of trails and handicapped accessibility is identified. Boating supply was measured by available boat slips and boat ramps, while camping supply was collected by noting the number of tent sites or trailer sites available on each site. Each were tallied by town to provide a measure of facilities.

Spatial data were linked to MassGIS data sets obtained from the Massachusetts Executive Office of Environmental Affairs. A digital data base of Massachusetts provided the political boundaries on which the resources and demand information were mapped.

Methods

To explore the spatial factors of the study, a Geographic Information System (GIS) was employed. A GIS is the complete sequence of components for acquiring, processing, storing and managing spatial data (Star & Estes 1990). It permits the recreation manager to explore the interrelationships between the human and physical environments.

The GIS incorporated in this study was Idrisi (Clark University) version 4.0. The software was installed on 386-40mhz IBM compatible PC with VGA graphics. The base map of Massachusetts was imported in the GIS stored as both a raster and vector file. The former is important for geographic analysis in Idrisi, while the latter data form is necessary for presentation reasons.

In order to investigate the interrelationships between the supply of opportunities and the demand, it is important to delineate the market as specifically as possible. This distinction allows recreation planners to identify the policy sensitive factors important to groups of people (Kutter 1981).

On our base map of Massachusetts, supply characteristics, as measured by the availability of boating slips and ramps, and camp sites and trailer sites were encoded for each of the 351 towns in the Commonwealth.

Demand measures were standardized because not all communities were sampled in the SCORP survey. Therefore, this information was mapped at the county level.

To investigate the surplus or deficit of opportunities and demand, the state mean value for each category was calculated. State supply and demand surpluses in excess of the mean were then encoded in the GIS. The mean value was used, rather than median value, was used because of the outlier regions that far exceed the rest of the state in opportunities or demand. Surplus supply therefore represents a true (and conservative) measure of surplus of recreation opportunities.

Results

The available market of recreation opportunities is clearly regional. For example, boating excess supply tends to be located along the coast and adjacent to inland lakes. Ocean frontage provides ample opportunities for boaters. Camping follows the boating example by being present in the Cape Cod region as well as the Berkshire Mountains. Pockets of camping opportunities are found between.

To identify the relationship of supply and demand, a series of GIS overlays were created. Figure 1 illustrates some of the results for boating. Areas identified as the local surplus supply exceeding the local surplus demand have the darkest tone. These regions tend to have a greater, and perhaps overabundance of resources for the activity. On the other hand, areas with a lighter tone, are those where the excessive local demand exceed the local supply. Here, the lack of available resources nearby may force recreators to travel

greater distances to participate in boating. Where the local demand and supply are in equilibrium, no shading is displayed on the maps.

As expected, boating demand was found to exist near the existing resources. Boat slips provide mooring for large vessels that are difficult to transport. Generally, demand for boat slips, was found to be located along the coast and on the Connecticut River. Excess local supply is found in Westport, the Boston Proper and in Pittsfield. The neighboring communities utilize these resources by traveling by auto to a moored boat.

A similar relationship is found with boat ramps. Boat ramps are typically used by smaller horsepower boats that the owner transports from resource to resource. A greater abundance of boat ramps is apparent from Figure 1.

Camping opportunities are highlighted in Figure 2. Here the Berkshires and Cape provide more resources than the local demand, especially for tent camping. Trailer opportunities exceed local demand in the Berkshires and much of Worcester County. The populated eastern region and northern Connecticut River Valley exhibit surplus demand. In the rest of the Commonwealth demand equals supply.

Implications

The use of a GIS to explore surplus as well as deficit measures of recreational opportunities is relatively new. Traditional SCORP documents have attempted to spatially map distributions of opportunities and match with real or projected demand for forecasting purposes.

The purpose here, however, was to explore the links of resource dependency to existing behavior. Boaters, for example require not only a body of water to recreate in, but also need a variety of support infrastructure to moor the boat and to provide access to the resource.

The small scale analysis identified here is useful for agencies planning for regions as well as individual site planning. For example, surplus boat ramps may not actually be a waste of taxpayers money since upkeep is minimal. And vacancy rates can be used to measure the appropriateness of boat slips.

Camping opportunities may be more flexible because despite some resource dependence, the ancillary activities found at parks may stimulate participation more than the camping pad. Nevertheless, recreation opportunities can be investigated on a regional basis to evaluate the overall distribution of participation.

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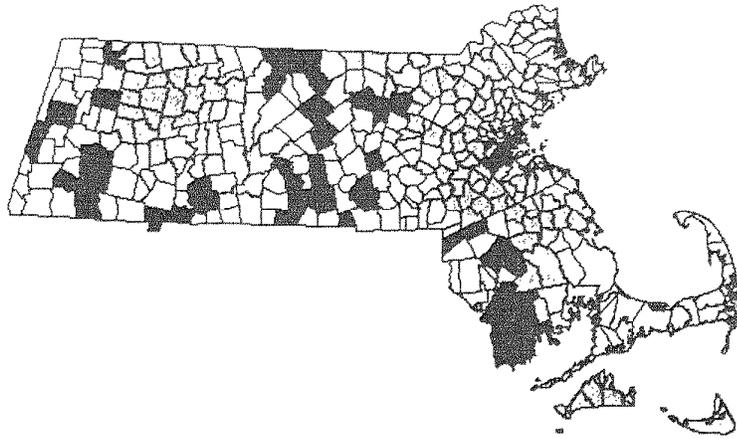
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Surplus/Deficit of Boat Ramps

- Sup. = Dem. 
- Sup. < Dem. 
- Sup. > Dem. 



Idrisi

Surplus/Deficit of Boating Slips

- Sup. = Dem. 
- Sup. < Dem. 
- Sup. > Dem. 

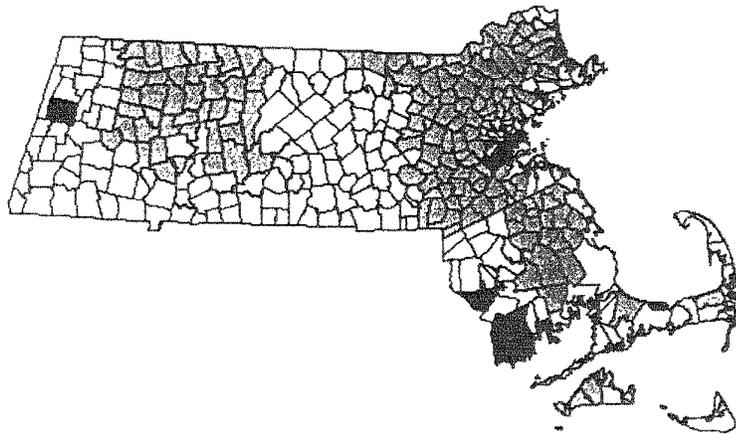
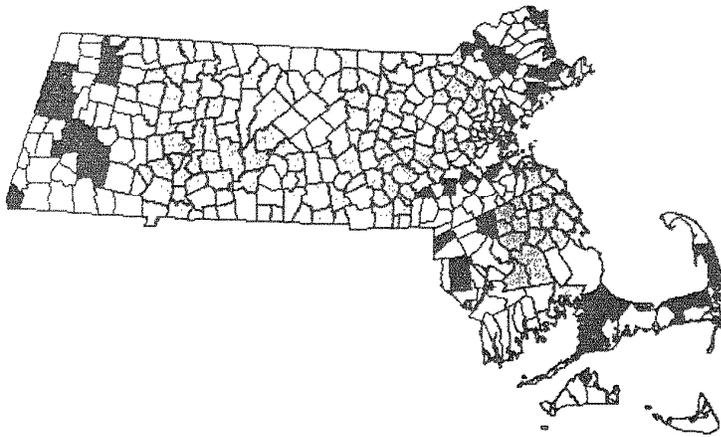


Figure 1. Measures of surplus and deficit for boating ramps and slips in Massachusetts.

Idrisi

Surplus/Deficit of Tent Camping

- Sup. = Dem. 
- Sup. < Dem. 
- Sup. > Dem. 



Idrisi

Surplus/Deficit of Trailer Camping

- Sup. = Dem. 
- Sup. < Dem. 
- Sup. > Dem. 

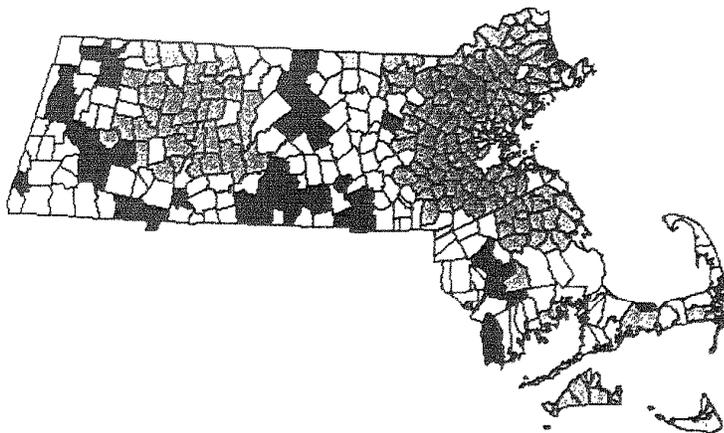


Figure 2. Measures of surplus and deficit for tent and trailer camping in Massachusetts.

Idrisi

PATTERNS OF SITE VISITATION AT AMERICA'S INDUSTRIAL HERITAGE

PROJECT SITES

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Findings are presented on site visitation patterns of heritage tourists at 14 of America's Industrial Heritage Project (AIHP) sites. Of interest are responses to questions on visitation to AIHP sites prior to their trip, during their trip, and future visitation plans. Marketing implications for the future of AIHP are discussed.

Heritage Tourism

The culture and heritage of an area have long appealed to American tourists. In fact, "... heritage [is] increasingly becoming [a] major catalyst for the whole travel experience" (Hall and Zeppel 1990, p.1). Americans are "...increasingly becoming interested ... in the intricacies of the American landscape where the natural and cultural ... fuse in distinctive regional patterns, and where layers accumulating over generations eventually impart a rich patina to the scene" (Bradley 1992, p. 1).

Heritage tourism is perceived by many to be a subset of cultural tourism which is defined by the World Tourism Organization (1985, p. 1) as:

"... movements of persons for essentially cultural motivations such as study tours, performing arts and cultural tours, travel to festivals and other cultural events, visits to sites and monuments, travel to study nature, folklore or art, and pilgrimages."

Heritage tourism is "... about the cultural traditions, places and values that ... groups throughout the world are proud to conserve" (Millar 1989, p.13). Tangible remains of the past in the form of historic buildings or districts, archaeological sites, monuments, or cultural artifacts are also thought to be components of heritage tourism (Konrad 1982; McNulty 1991). Heritage tourism also includes the natural heritage such as

gardens, wild and wilderness areas of scenic beauty, and valued cultural landscapes (Oldman 1992; Tassell and Tassell 1990).

Heritage Tourists

Overall, tourists who travel to heritage areas tend to be older, more wealthy, and interested in extended family and education-oriented experiences. Fun is secondary to learning because they travel to increase their knowledge of people, places and things—to experience a sense of nostalgia for the past (Hawley 1990; Solomon and George 1977; Weiler and Hall 1992). These individuals are motivated "more by a search for heritage 'experiences' than by a detailed interest in factual history" (Weiler and Hall 1992, p. 54). In fact, for the vast majority of heritage tourists, the experiential component is most important (Peterson 1990). They are attracted to a destination primarily for the "atmosphere" and ambiance associated with a site (Mawson 1984), for a "bundle" of benefits, rather than just the factual history.

The majority of the market for heritage areas is local or regional. Locals tend to bring visiting friends and relatives to historic sites and are "more likely to visit 'their' historic site... if they perceive [it] to be a stimulating, dynamic, and fun place..." (Scale 1989, p. 18). In addition, the greatest percentage of visits are part of multi-purpose trips (Wall 1989).

America's Industrial Heritage Project

In 1989, the Southwestern Pennsylvania Heritage Preservation Commission, created by Congressional authorization in 1987, was officially formed and charged with recognizing, preserving, protecting, interpreting, and making available for the benefit of the public the cultural heritage of the region. The 21-member Commission, appointed by the Secretary of the Interior, included representatives from the National Park Service (NPS), state government and regional tourism and economic development agencies, along with individuals from the private sector representing 9 counties in southwestern Pennsylvania. This predominantly rural region has been designated as America's Industrial Heritage Project (AIHP). AIHP was developed as a broad-based partnership effort to identify, preserve and interpret the region's cultural and industrial heritage.

The Resources

Three industries in southwestern Pennsylvania were the foundation for industrial growth in America. The iron and, later, steel industries brought about the creation of heavy industry that was critical to the rise of the United States as the leading industrial power in the world. The iron and steel companies depended on coal production and the railroad network—coal was the critical fuel for both the steel and railroad industries, and the railroads created a transportation network that established national markets. The economic value of coal increased as it became an integral part of the steel and rail industries. Like iron and steel, coal was also a major factor in establishing the United States as a world power. The railroads were dependent upon and essential to the expansion of the steel and coal industries. They also brought about greater organization and regulation of the American society through product standardization, the creation of railroad time and development of a new managerial class. The railroad industry fostered a closer relationship between business and government, united the nation's geographic regions and provided greater mobility for Americans.

These three industries of southwestern Pennsylvania were not only dependent on each other—they also made other industries possible. Iron and steel provided the basic material for manufacturing a myriad of products, and numerous related industries sprang up, such as coal, glass-making and aluminum, all of which trace their roots to southwestern Pennsylvania.

The common denominator for the stories of America's industrial heritage in southwestern Pennsylvania is the people, whose tasks, working conditions, struggles and efforts to better themselves were similar throughout the region's era of industrial growth.

The AIHP Visitor Experience

AIHP commemorates and celebrates the legacy of our industrial past. The project is identifying significant resources, sites and stories related to the iron and steel, coal and transportation industries and their workers. At the core of the visitor experience in the region will be the stories of the people, told through first-person accounts. The stories will be recounted in visits to steel mills, coal mines, railroad yards, canal and coal company towns, shops, festivals, fairs, demonstrations, drama and musical presentations and special events. Many of the tours will be given by community residents whose heritage and culture are being shared. Visitors will see first-hand the diversity of human experiences within the developing industries of the 19th and early 20th centuries, with emphasis on the interdependency of the region's natural, cultural and human resources, and the resulting industries.

Visitors will find varied opportunities and activities, ranging from heritage centers to quick-stop single facility visits to multi-day, multi-site tours. To date, heritage centers based on a major single topic have been proposed for Johnstown (the iron and steel story), Windber (the coal story), Altoona (the railroad story) and Bedford (the transportation story). As planning continues, other centers, such as coke, glass and aluminum, may be identified and developed.

Studies have identified 17 major historic sites, including 4 NPS units, and nearly 200 related sites and amenities. Several of the major sites have undergone rehabilitation and are now open to the public. Others are proceeding on schedule, according to the project plan, and will be phased in over a decade. When complete, the entire project will be linked by a 500-mile tour route and hundreds of miles of subloop tours.

While visitors can now experience individual sites and their linkages, when complete the AIHP will direct visitors to one of the heritage centers for an overview of the particular story and associated resources. At the centers, visitors will also learn about other places they can visit across the region to find out more about other aspects of that particular story. At heritage centers, NPS units and developed facilities, full visitor services will be offered, including audiovisual media, conducted and self-guiding activities, exhibits, information, orientation, publications for sale, trails and visitor services. Rail tours, trolley tours and other methods of transportation between and within sites will also be part of the experience.

The Southwestern Pennsylvania Heritage Route, an automobile tour route along existing public roads marked by signage and interpretive publications, is a key link to the historical, cultural, natural, scenic and recreational sites in the region. The first leg of the tour route opened in 1992, connecting AIHP sites in the Johnstown area with those in the Altoona area; the final leg of the main route will be opened in 1994. The Heritage Route provides visitors with many choices to fully explore the region and its cultural and natural landscape.

Through all of the AIHP visitor experiences, visitors gain an appreciation of a) the regional and national significance of the iron/steel, coal/coke and transportation industries of the nine-county region, b) the social factors affecting the people whose work in those industries catapulted the United States to a position of world leadership, and c) the effect of these industries on the region's current economy and social structure.

The AIHP Study

The America's Industrial Heritage Project (AIHP) is a rather ambitious and groundbreaking attempt to promote our nation's industrial heritage. In response to a request for baseline information from the Southwestern Pennsylvania Heritage Preservation Commission and the Economic Development Advisory Group of the National Park Service, Penn State's Center for Hospitality, Tourism and Recreation Research initiated a five-year study in order to establish the economic impact of selected AIHP sites and to provide a user profile that

includes both behavioral and socio-demographic characteristics of visitors to these sites. Beginning in 1991, a long-term research project was initiated to develop a profile of the AIHP visitor. A primary objective of the study is to answer the following questions;

- 1) Who is visiting these AIHP sites?
- 2) Why are they coming to these sites (and for nonlocals, why are they coming to the region)?
- 3) What are they doing while in the region?
- 4) When do they make the decision to visit these sites and what information is used in this planning process?
- 5) How aware are these individuals of the AIHP and the Heritage Route (which is a designated route containing and connecting AIHP sites)?
- 6) What is the economic impact of nonlocal visitors on the region?

The overall benefit of this information will be two-fold. First, by understanding the different types of groups visiting the AIHP sites, AIHP managers can continue to fine tune their interpretive efforts and provide the services that visitors desire. Second, the information will help in the various stages of marketing the AIHP, which is crucial to the future growth of the AIHP.

Now, after two seasons of data collection, this paper presents preliminary, descriptive findings related to patterns of site visitation at 14 AIHP sites of interest for both residents of the region and non-residents from outside the region. Of particular interest are visitor responses to questions designed to find out about a) visitation to AIHP sites prior to their trip, b) visitation to AIHP sites during their trip, and c) future visitation plans.

Methodology

In 1991 and 1992 a random sample of individuals at selected AIHP sites in the Johnstown area of Cambria County and the Altoona area of Blair County were asked to take part in the study. During 1991, three of these sites were in the Johnstown area (Johnstown Flood Memorial, Johnstown Flood Museum, and the Inclined Plane) and two sites were in the Altoona area (Allegheny Portage Railroad and the Railroader's Museum). During 1992, the Horseshoe Curve was substituted for the Railroader's Museum.

Sampling took place each year from Memorial Day/early June through mid-October. Sampling times at the five sites included in the study were randomly selected using a stratified design based on time of the week (i.e. weekday or weekend) and time of day (i.e. morning, midday or afternoon). Each site was sampled during one weekday and one weekend day from June through August, and on one day during each weekend in September and the first two weekends in October. Data were collected through a combination of on-site interviews and follow-up mail questionnaires administered to visitors at the five selected AIHP sites.

Selected individuals were asked to complete a brief on-site interview (their responses were recorded on a short one-page questionnaire which took three to five minutes to complete). The individual was then handed a more extensive follow-up questionnaire, along with a pre-addressed stamped return envelope, that was to be completed after the trip was over. During the interview, individuals were asked to provide information about themselves and about their group (only about 6% visited alone) with whom they visited the site. The refusal rate to take part in the study was less than two percent. Study participants were also asked to provide their names and addresses for the purpose of additional follow-up efforts if their survey had not been returned after 10 days. In 1991, of the 2,075 individuals who completed the on-site survey, 1,718 returned the follow-up questionnaire for a response rate of 83%. Of the 2,114 individuals who completed the on-site survey in 1992, 1,754 completed the follow-up questionnaire for another response rate of 83%. Attendance at the five sites during the study period is presented in Table 1 for the first two years of the study.

Table 1. Attendance figures from June through October at study sites.^a

	Allegheny Portage	Horseshoe Curve	Flood Memorial	Flood Museum	Inclined Plane
1991	18,460	*	40,705	25,253	117,090
1992	25,267	133,523	41,352	22,529	110,598
% of total 1992 attendance	67%	77%	68%	62%	65%

^a The study was conducted during these months.

* The Horseshoe Curve was closed during 1991.

Presentation of the Data

Nearly half of all those interviewed (46%) visited more than one AIHP site. Although roughly 10% of those sampled visited sites in both Johnstown and Altoona, the vast majority stuck to one theme (flood-related in Johnstown or railroading in Altoona). This corresponds with a primary intent of the AIHP to create heritage centers around a major theme such as railroading or steel, or a significant event, such as the Great Johnstown Flood of 1889. Thus, the information for the three Johnstown sites was combined, as was the information from the two Altoona sites, for the purposes of reporting the results. Additionally, the data were weighted based on the attendance figures at each of the sites.

Based on the sample sizes for the two area locations, the figures presented here are within ± 3 percent of the actual figures at a confidence level of 95%. These figures apply to those individuals who visited the selected AIHP sites during the study period (from June through October).

Findings and Results

Where AIHP Visitors Live

As would be expected, a significant percentage of visitation at the five sites can be accounted for by residents of the two respective counties in which the sites are located. Blair county, where Altoona is located, accounted for 12% of visitors at the two railroad sites, while Cambria county, which includes Johnstown, accounted for 23% of attendees at the three flood-related sites (Table 2).

The nine counties in the AIHP region accounted for 26% of the visitation at the Altoona sites and 39% of visitation at the Johnstown sites. Visitors residing in the rest of Pennsylvania accounted for 35% of the visitation at the Altoona sites and 23% of visitation at the Johnstown sites. The only county in Pennsylvania, outside of the AIHP region, which contributed at least 5% of the visitors in Altoona and Johnstown was Allegheny County, which includes the Pittsburgh metropolitan area.

Ohio, Maryland, New York, and New Jersey each accounted for 4 to 5% of the visitors at the Altoona sites. Ohio and Maryland each accounted for about 6% of the visitation at the Johnstown sites. Visitors residing in other states and countries accounted for 21% of the visitors at the Altoona sites and 22% of the visitation at the Johnstown sites. Overall, 74% of the visitors to the Altoona area sites and 61% of the visitors to the Johnstown area sites reside outside of the nine-county AIHP region.

With regard to the distance traveled to AIHP sites, 85% of those visiting the Altoona area and 81% of those visiting the Johnstown area live within 350 miles of the sites (Table 3).

Table 2. Residence of site visitors (expressed as percentages).

Residence	Altoona sample (percent)	Johnstown sample (percent)	Combined sample (percent)
Cambria County	6	23	7
Blair County	12	3	16
Other 7 counties in region	8	13	11
Rest of Pennsylvania	35	23	29
Ohio	4	6	5
Maryland	4	6	5
New York	5	2	3
New Jersey	5	2	3
Other States	19	21	20
International	2	1	1

Table 3. Distance visitors live from sites (expressed as percentages).

Distance from site	Altoona sample (percent)	Johnstown sample (percent)	Combined sample (percent)
30 miles or less	17	30	25
Between 30 and 90 miles	16	18	17
91 to 150 miles	16	8	12
151 to 350 miles	36	25	29
Over 350 miles	15	19	17

Site Visitation Patterns

As expected, site visitation patterns to the 14 AIHP sites of interest varied a great deal with respect to a) visitation to AIHP sites prior to the visitor's trip, b) visitation to AIHP sites during their trip, and c) future visitation plans.

Visitation to AIHP sites prior to this trip. Nearly two-thirds (64%) of the Altoona sample had visited the site before this visit. Approximately two out of five (43%) visitors to Johnstown had been to the site before this visit (Table 4). Over half (56%) of the visitors to the Altoona sites had visited Horseshoe Curve before this trip. At least one-fourth of the Altoona visitors had been to Allegheny Portage Railroad, East Broad Top, the Altoona Railroader's Museum, the Johnstown Inclined Plane, and Old Bedford Village. Over 40% of the visitors to Johnstown had previously visited the Inclined Plane and the Horseshoe Curve. Approximately one-third of these individuals had also been to the Flood Museum, the Flood Memorial, Old Bedford Village, and Fort Ligonier. Approximately 70% of all visitors to AIHP sites (regardless of

location) had visited at least 1 AIHP site prior to this trip. Forty to fifty percent of all visitors had been to at least three AIHP sites before this visit (Table 5).

Table 4. Sites visited before this trip (expressed as percentages).

Sites visited	Altoona sample (percent)	Johnstown sample (percent)	Weighted sample (percent)
Had been to the site visited during this trip before this visit	64	43	51
Had not visited any sites before this trip	27	31	29
Altoona Railroader's Memorial	31	16	22
Allegheny Portage Railroad NHS	26	18	21
East Broad Top Railroad	27	11	17
Johnstown Inclined Plane	26	45	37
Johnstown Flood Museum	17	32	26
Johnstown Flood National Memorial	19	35	28
Old Bedford Village	26	33	30
Horseshoe Curve	56	42	47
Somerset Historical Center	4	11	8
Fort Ligonier	19	36	28
Fort Necessity National Battlefield	12	16	15
Bushy Run Battlefield	6	7	6
Friendship Hill National Historic Landmark	<1	2	1
Guided Train Ride (Johnstown-Altoona)	6	7	7

Table 5. Number of sites visited before this trip (expressed as percentages).

Number of sites	Altoona sample (percent)	Johnstown sample (percent)	Weighted sample (percent)
Had not visited any site before this trip	27	31	29
One site	14	10	12
Two sites	16	9	12
Three or more sites	43	50	47

Visitation to AIHP sites during this trip. The largest percentage of respondents (54%) visited one site only during their trip, which may reflect a preponderance of single site visits by region residents (Table 6). Of special interest are the patterns of multiple visitation to sites in close proximity to each other and with a common heritage theme.

Approximately 50% of the visitors went to more than one site and most of this multiple visitation occurred in either the Altoona or Johnstown area. Of these visitors, approximately 26% visited two or three of the AIHP sites in the Johnstown area associated with the historic Johnstown Flood of 1889, while 29% visited two or three of the AIHP sites in the Altoona area associated with historic canal and train transportation. Ten percent of the respondents "crossed-over" and visited sites in both areas during their trip and may well have been traveling the Heritage Route which connects the AIHP sites.

Nine percent of the respondents exhibited other patterns by visiting any of the eight other AIHP sites of interest located throughout the nine-county region, in addition to the site where they were interviewed. Fourteen percent of those visiting Altoona went to both the Horseshoe Curve and the Railroader's Museum and eleven percent visited both the Horseshoe Curve and Allegheny Portage Railroad (Table 6). Nearly one-quarter of all visitors were going to two sites, while a little over one-fifth of all visitors were visiting three or more sites (Table 7).

Table 6. Sites visited during this trip (expressed as percentages).

Sites visited	Altoona sample (percent)	Johnstown sample (percent)	Combined sample (percent)
One site only	52	55	54
Flood Memorial and Flood Museum	*	3	2
Flood Museum and Inclined Plane	*	7	4
Flood Memorial and Inclined Plane	*	6	4
All 3 Johnstown sites	*	10	6
Horseshoe Curve and ALPO	11	*	5
Horseshoe Curve and Railroader's Museum	14	*	6
Horseshoe Curve, ALPO, & Railroader's Museum	4	*	2
Altoona sites and Johnstown sites	10	10	10
Other patterns	9	9	9

* Does not apply to that sample

Table 7. Number of sites visited before this trip (expressed as percentages).

Number of sites	Altoona sample (percent)	Johnstown sample (percent)	Weighted sample (percent)
One site	52	55	54
Two sites	30	20	24
Three sites	11	16	14
Four or more sites	7	9	8

Future visitation plans. One-half of the Altoona area visitors and forty percent of the Johnstown area visitors do plan to visit AIHP sites in the next 12 months following their visit, which indicates that future visitor interest and intended visitation to be substantial for both areas (Table 8).

Table 8. Sites plan to visit in next 12 months (expressed as percentages).

Sites plan to visit	Altoona sample (percent)	Johnstown sample (percent)	Weighted sample (percent)
Does not plan to visit any sites	50	60	56
Altoona Railroader's Memorial	32	15	18
Allegheny Portage Railroad NIS	18	12	14
East Broad Top Railroad	18	6	11
Johnstown Inclined Plane	15	16	15
Johnstown Flood Museum	18	13	15
Johnstown Flood National Memorial	14	10	12
Old Bedford Village	10	10	10
Horseshoe Curve	26	15	19
Somerset Historical Center	4	6	5
Fort Ligonier	4	7	6
Fort Necessity National Battlefield	5	6	6
Bushy Run Battlefield	5	5	5
Friendship Hill National Historic Landmark	4	4	4
Guided Train Ride (Johnstown-Altoona)	16	15	15

Implications for the Future of AIHP

Findings from this study, which identify site visitation patterns, should be of great interest to the managers of the individual AIHP sites, to the 21 members of the Southwestern Pennsylvania Heritage Preservation Commission, and to National Park Service personnel. In addition to helping managers fine tune their interpretative efforts, this particular information will be helpful in future marketing campaigns. An AIHP objective is to increase both site visitation and use for residents of the nine-county region and for non-residents, and longer stays for visitors from outside the region. Knowledge of present patterns of site visitation, as baseline data, will be useful in future planning and implementation efforts related to AIHP site and heritage route development, operation, and marketing.

It becomes evident from this data that it's important to not forget the impact of local visitation on the AIHP sites. Residents of the nine-county AIHP region account for approximately 34% of the visitation to the combined Altoona-Johnstown sites. Additionally, over 50% of the visitors reside within 150 miles of the sites. Currently, there appears to be very little promotion and advertising of the AIHP sites within the region. This could certainly be expanded, and is important because many of the residents visiting the sites bring relatives and friends from outside the region with them. Greater awareness and visitation by regional residents can also create good feelings of pride in the natural, cultural and historic heritage of the region.

The data also show the importance of on-site quality performance, because two thirds of the Altoona area visitors and two out of five Johnstown area visitors had been to the site visited during their trip before this visit. It's important for these visitors to have satisfying heritage experiences at the AIHP sites in order to improve and keep return visitation high. Word-of-mouth promotion is one of the best ways to increase visitation.

With slightly over one half of the visitors (54%) visiting one site only during their trip, the opportunity exists for AIHP managers to increase their promotion of adjacent sites having related heritage themes. This could be done by increasing visibility of AIHP information for visitors at each site, for example, through increased use of effective signage and interpretation, making brochures more visible and available, and increasing verbal information from on-site staff. Additionally, limited displays could be developed and set up which highlight opportunities for visiting adjacent AIHP sites, along with the potential benefits of an expanded heritage experience.

A substantial number of visitors (46%) are visiting two or more sites and "accumulating" attractions during their experience. Of those visitors touring more than one site, most of this multiple visitation occurred in *either* the Altoona area *or* the Johnstown area. Only ten percent of the study respondents "crossed over" and visited sites in both of these areas during their trip. The data definitely illustrate these two distinct patterns of multiple site visitation in each heritage area. The first leg of the Southwest Pennsylvania Heritage Route has been created, linking the historic flood sites in the Johnstown area with the canal and train transportation sites in the Altoona area, and illustrating a fascinating and complex story of people, the land and industrialization. There is obviously a need to make visitors more aware of this Heritage Route and of the different "theme-related" sites within a single area and adjacent areas. Hopefully, further promotion will increase the use of the entire Heritage Route in the future.

The development and marketing of "clusters" of heritage sites can enhance the visitors' appreciation of the regional and national significance of southwestern Pennsylvania's historical and industrial heritage, and make for interesting and satisfying heritage experiences in the region. Additionally, with knowledge of more to do and see, visitors from outside the region may be willing to extend their stay. Joint marketing of all the AIHP sites and associated attractions in the region together makes a lot of sense in terms of efficiency and effectiveness in increasing site visitation and use. Data generated from this study, over the past two years and in the future, will be helpful in the various stages of development and marketing crucial to AIHP's future growth and success, and contribution to the region's economy.

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THE NEW ENGLAND TRAVEL MARKET: CHANGING DEMOGRAPHICS AND GEOGRAPHIC MARKETS, 1980 TO 1990

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The purpose of this study was to examine and explore the New England domestic travel market trends, from 1980 through 1990 within the context of changing demographics and geographic markets. The existing travel markets, who travel to New England, are changing. Implications and discussion points were provided. Keywords: Domestic travel, trends, New England, demographics, geographic markets, and market implications.

Introduction

Changing demographic shifts in the population age structure will directly affect recreation participation and travel related behavior. Likewise, the geographic markets, where people come from, to travel to distinct regional destinations (i.e., New England or the Pacific Northwest for example) will likely also change over time. These distinct differences in travel-specific behavior and participation rates exhibited by changes in an aging society and evolving geographic markets will likely shape future demand. Recent studies (Warnick, 1992A and 1992B) indicated domestic travel in the Northeast has become a mature market. Recent economic trends and recessionary times have indicated that travel patterns to different geographic destinations may, in fact, change, also. With the exception of Florida, Hawaii and perhaps Colorado, (all of which are state tourist draws), New England exhibits the characteristics of one of the United States' most definable and perhaps most marketable geographic travel destination regions. Travelers usually know what states comprise New England and each of the individual New England states has substantial tourism based business segments and attraction power. Indeed, New England has a rich and long history as a geographic tourism destination -- rich in historic, recreational, natural and educational resources. However, previous studies seem to indicate that the region has suffered some setbacks. Therefore, there is a need to study how the region's markets have changed over time.

Purpose of the Study

The purposes of this study are two-fold: 1) to examine domestic travel to New England during the 80s; and 2) to identify changing patterns in these travel trends by examining such variables as demographic and geographic markets of travelers who visited New England during this period.

Method

For the analysis of domestic travel, data were drawn from *Study of Media and Markets* (Simmons Market Research Bureau, Inc. 1980-1990). These annual market studies were stratified national random probability samples for each year from 1980 through 1990. The methods included the distribution of self-administered questionnaires, personal interviews and follow-up telephone interviews. Sample sizes ranged from approximately 19,000 to over 23,500 adults over the period. The sample statistics were then extrapolated to the U.S. adult population of 18 years of age and older. The data were made available through Simmons Market Research Bureau¹ of New York and the University of Massachusetts Library. Within this study only travelers who indicated that they traveled to

New England were included. Excluded from this analysis were travelers who visited the New England from other countries.

The nature of domestic travel and participation requires the description of three major components of travel demand. First, the term "domestic travel" must be defined. "Domestic travel" is defined as "any trip(s) of over 100 miles (one way) within the continental 48 coterminous U.S. states taken in the previous 12 month period" (Simmons Market Research Bureau, Inc. 1990). This definition of domestic travel includes all types of travel taken which fits the mileage and regional description; but excludes all types of travel taken of distances shorter than 100 miles. Second, "market size" is the "number of people who participate in domestic travel." This statistic in and of itself it is somewhat less meaningful than a statistic which more specifically quantifies demand or travel volume. However, the nature of this data set does not easily allow a projection of the number of travel days to New England. Third, "participation rate" is the percentage of total adults by descriptor (total U.S. population or age -- such as 18 to 24 year olds or geographic home -- the South) who elected to travel to New England for any reason as a primary destination during the previous 12 months. In this study the geographic region definition of "New England" includes the states of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut. The "Northeast Travel Market" includes travelers from the states of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey.

Age cohorts in terms of the demographic patterns of travel include the following categories: 18 to 24; 25 to 34; 35 to 44; 45 to 54; 55 to 64 and 65 and older. Other groupings of age cohorts include young adults -- 18 to 34; middle aged adults -- 35 to 50; and mature adults -- 50 and older. Target regions, or the place where travelers come from, are defined by Simmons (1990) in four broad areas of the U.S.: Northeast, South, Midwest and West.

The data were analyzed using an average annual growth rate which is defined as the percent change in terms of the size of the market or travel volume. It is derived by taking the current year number (market size or market volume) subtracting the previous year number and dividing by the previous year number; percent change from year to year was then averaged over the study period of 1980 through 1990. Travel market composition is defined as the percentage of the market from each area -- such as from each region.

Selected Findings

Overall Market Conditions for 1980 through 1990

The participation rate of all adults selecting New England as a primary destination averaged 3.7% over the decade. An adjusted annual change rate indicated 2.2% decline per year for the U.S. adult market choosing New England as a primary destination. This translates into losing about 140,000 primary destination travelers per year to the region. The peak year during this period was 1985 when 6.9 million destination travelers selected New England as a primary destination. The bottom year was 1989 when 4.9 million destination travelers selected New England. The region, as a primary destination rebounded in 1990. The statistics for this section may be found in Table 1. Graphic tables also have been included to view the data after each section below.

^{1/} Permission to use the travel data base was granted by Simmons Market Research Bureau, Inc., of New York for the purposes of this study. The interpretation of the data is the author's and Simmons is the source.

New England Primary Destination -- U.S. Adult Participation Rates: 1980-1990

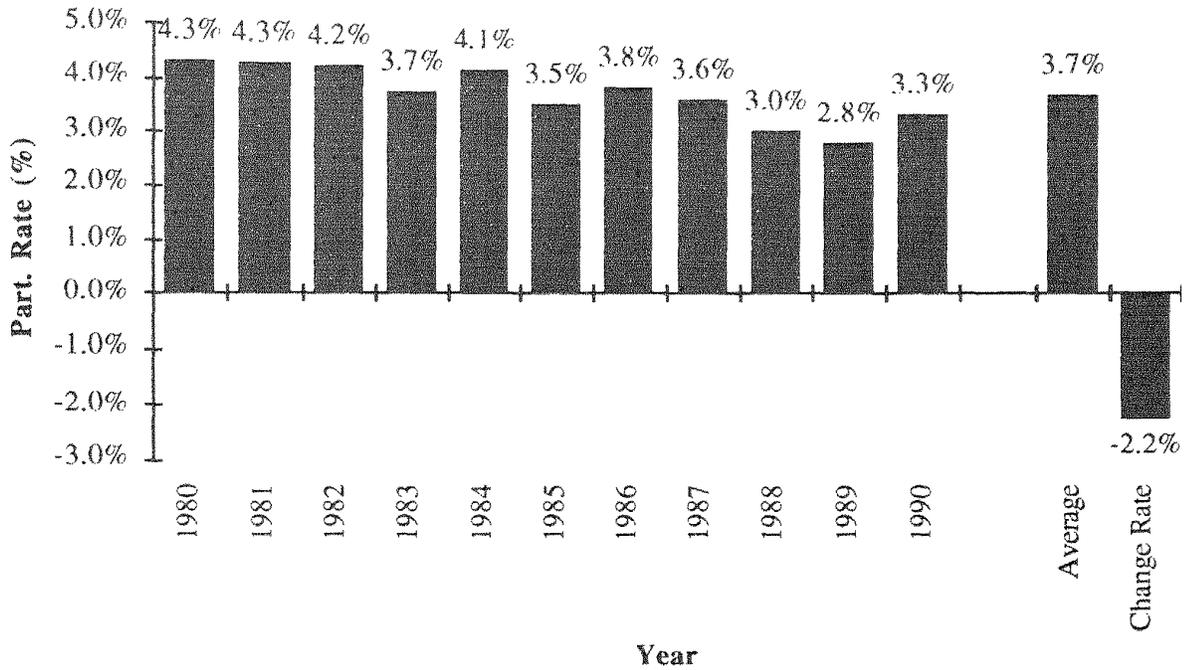


Figure 1. Adult participation rates for New England travel destination, 1980 through 1990.

New England's Demographic Markets

Are the travelers to New England young or old and are there are prevalent trends noted here? New England declined as a destination choice for four of the six age cohorts:

- 18 to 24 year olds -- declined by 5.1% per year
- 25 to 34 year olds -- declined by 2.5% per year
- 45 to 54 year olds -- declined by 1.0% per year
- 55 to 64 year olds -- declined by ".1%" per year

However, New England grew as a destination choice for two the six age cohorts:

- 35 to 44 year olds -- increased by 1.7% per year
- 65 and older -- increased by 4.0% per year

New England Destination Markets by Age Cohorts: 1980 to 1990

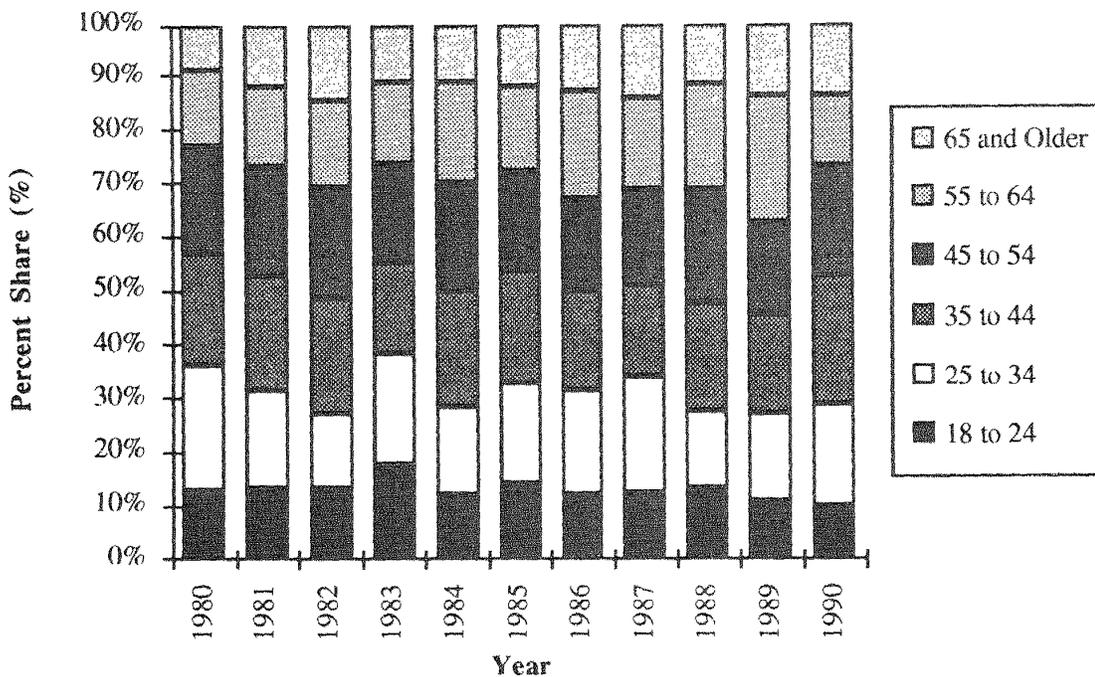


Figure 2. Age cohort composition for New England travel destination, 1980 through 1990.

The age cohorts also were grouped into three broad segments: young adults (age 18 to 34); middle aged adults (age 35 to 50) and mature adults (age 50 and older). The young adult market declined by 3.6% per year, the middle age market grew by 1.6% per year, and the mature market declined slightly by .6% per year.

New England Destination Markets by Broad Age Cohorts: 1980 to 1990

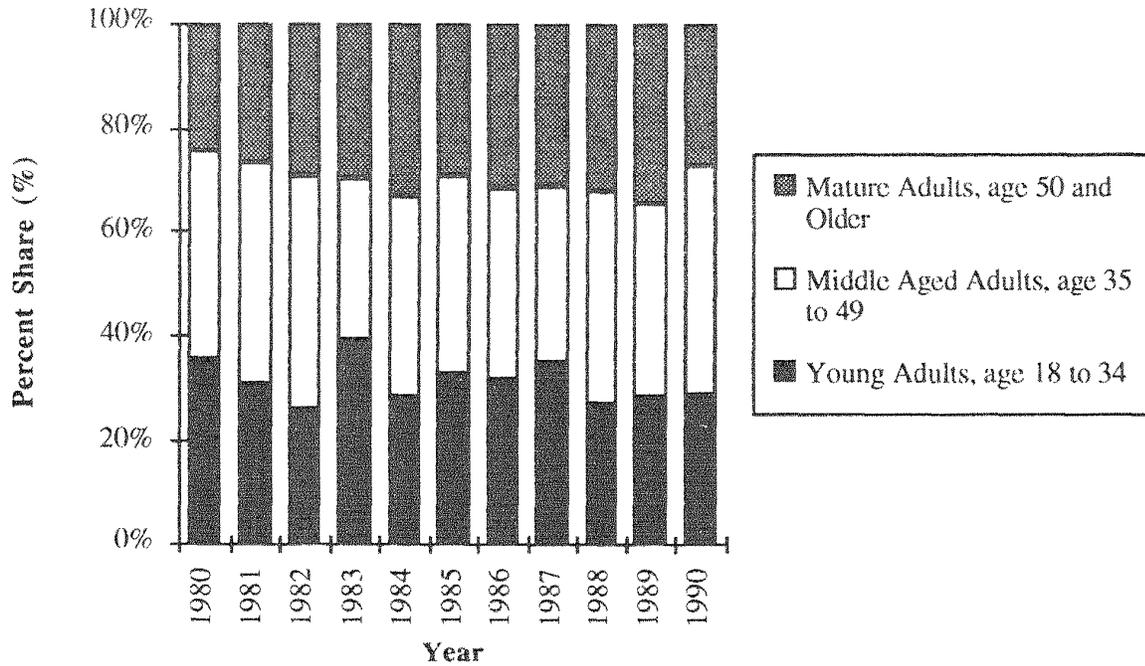


Figure 3. Broad age cohort composition of New England destination market, 1980 through 1990.

New England's Geographic Markets

Where do people come from who visit New England as a primary destination? New England declined as a destination choice for three of the four geographic markets examined here over the period of 1980 through 1990.

- Northeast -- declined by 1.2% per year
- South -- declined by 1.1% per year
- West -- declined by 1.4% per year

New England grew as a destination choice for only one geographic market: the Midwest -- this geographic market grew by 3.6% per year.

New England Destination Markets by Regional Shares: 1980 to 1990

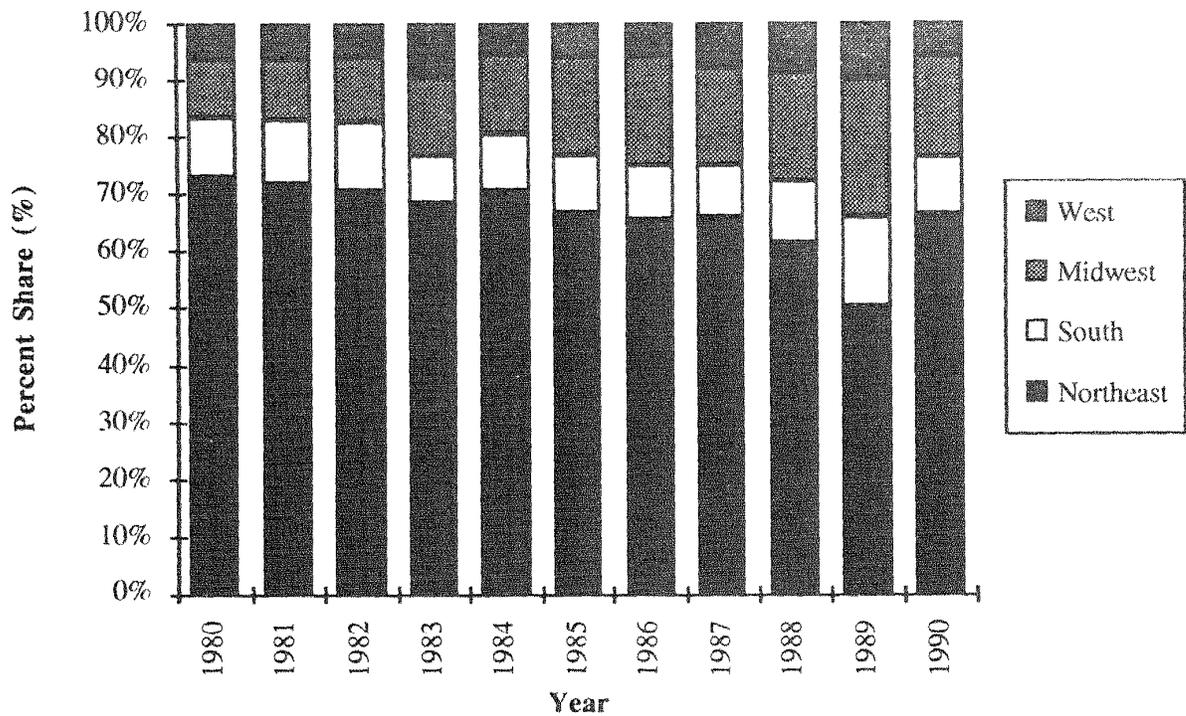


Figure 4. Source of New England destination market by U.S. geographic shares, 1980 through 1990.

The Composition of New England's Geographic Markets

Which geographic market is New England's primary market? The total traveling market indicated that the Northeast comprises 66% of New England's market and is its primary geographic market. The evolving composition of the New England travel market appears to be one comprised mostly of Northeastern travelers with a relatively growing share of Midwesterners.

Specifically within the Northeast travel market, New England as a destination has not suffered overwhelmingly losses. The total U.S. destination market grew only slightly during this time -- by .1%. While the Northeast market overall declined by 1.0%, more of the decline was experienced by the Mid-Atlantic Region rather than New England. New England's

Northeast market declined only slightly by .1%; however, the Mid-Atlantic's Northeast market declined by 2.0%. All other regions visited by travelers from the Northeast appear to be growing in numbers -- up almost 1%. Nevertheless, the overall trend statistic does not appear to show a large loss of the Northeast market travel to and within the New England region. But, the loss could be considered to be fairly substantial and hidden here by the up and down patterns of change. The number of Northeast travelers visiting New England was at its highest point in 1980 when it was 4.9 million. The market declined to 4.3 million in 1984, rebounded to 4.8 million in 1985 and then declined steadily through 1989 when it reached a decade low of 2.4 million -- a drop of over 50% in its market size. The 1990 statistics indicated an increase to 3.9 million. Whether or not this is a spike in an overall downward trend is probably too early to know. More data will be needed.

Destination Choices by Northeast Travel Market: 1980 to 1990

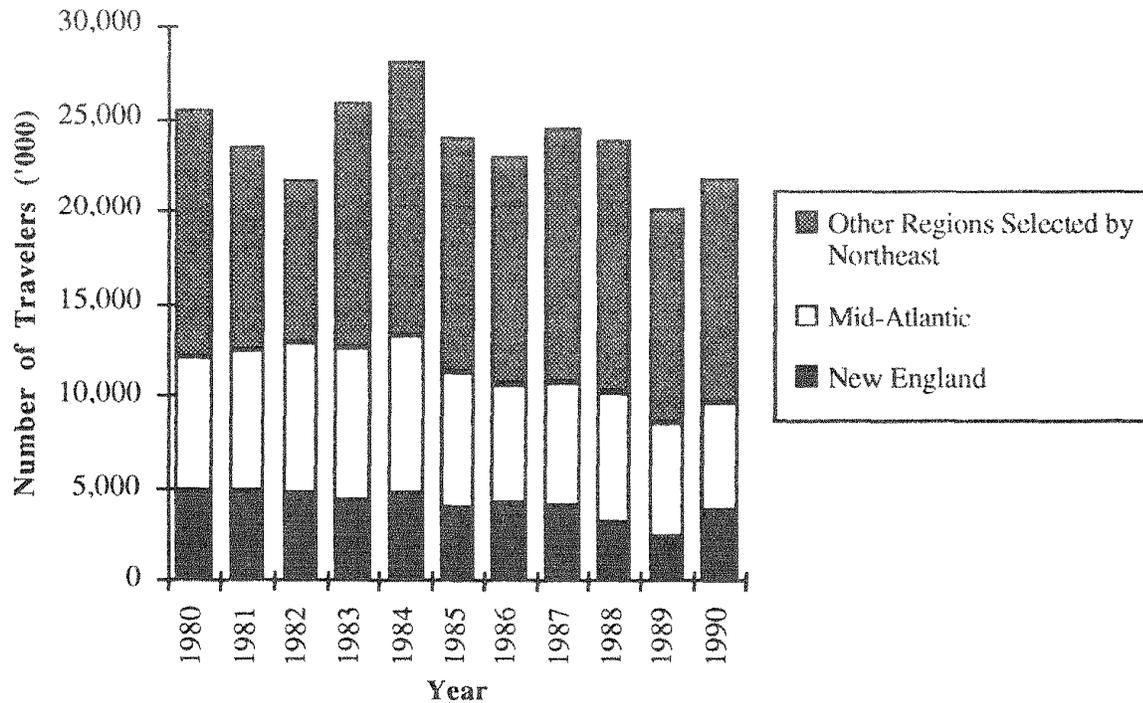


Figure 5. Destination choices of Northeast travel market by number of travelers, 1980 through 1990.

Conclusions and Implications for Recreation and Tourism Resource Managers

Trends were evident in the New England Travel Destination Market from 1980 through 1990. New England has become a mature destination market over the last decade. It is not in a high growth mode. The actual adult participation rate has declined and the actual number of travelers is down slightly. Although New England is without a doubt one of the United States' most definable or marketable travel destination regions, the decline can be partially attributed to changing demographics and, to some degree, changing geographic markets.

While it is interesting to uncover new trends within regions and at the national level, the overall limitations to defining domestic travel as all trips of over 100 miles one-way continue to be problematic. Missed in this analysis are the many "day trips" or even overnight trips taken to see friends and family or simple "mini-vacations" to get-away that are shorter than 100 miles one-way. The regional geography of the New England may account for larger portions of this type of travel. This type of travel does not fit the "domestic" travel description used here. For example, travel trips to Maine and New Hampshire from Boston and Worcester are within the 100-mile limit for large portions of the population of these cities, and even for large portions of Cape Cod destinations. Furthermore, it must be acknowledged that these data do not include foreign travelers to the New England. These limitations are important to note and a problem in the form of how the data are obtained and presented through Simmons Market Research Bureau's techniques (Simmons Market

Research Bureau 1990). Nevertheless, the New England destination is a large and important economic market force within the region's overall economic vitality. Monitoring trends within the region are necessary even though there are limitations in these studies.

Trend analysis on an on-going basis is necessary. An analysis of these data for the period 1980 through 1989 would indicated much concern over a continued overall declining market for domestic travel in the New England. However, the addition of one more year of data indicated that the overall market experienced a sharp decline in 1989 and it recovered in 1990. Was this a reflection of real market conditions or a spike in the data for 1990? Probably, it is a combination of both conditions. Furthermore, an examination of only year to year change can be misleading. For example, domestic travel to New England by the Northeast market indicated a 2.3% increase in travelers selecting New England as a primary destination during the period of 1986 through 1990 (Warnick 1992B).

Market change over time is another important travel trend issue that was examined here. People who participate in travel pursuits may change their rates of travel based on their individual household conditions. It is very possible that people who travel frequently one year might not travel as frequently the following year. Travel related behavior, as recreational related behavior, may reveal changing patterns over the lifespan or through age cohorts. In a previous study, Warnick (1992B) noted that the Northeast experienced the economic downturn of the late 80s early 90s sooner than other parts of the country and signs of this impact upon domestic

Table 1. New England Travel Market

New England Primary Destination Choice													
	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	Decade Average	Adj. Annual Change Rate
Adult Part. Rate	4.3%	4.3%	4.2%	3.7%	4.1%	3.5%	3.8%	3.6%	3.0%	2.8%	3.3%	3.7%	-2.2%
#New Eng. Trav. ('000)	6,814	6,793	6,772	6,122	6,889	5,960	6,581	6,302	5,324	4,915	5,903	6,216	-0.9%
Age Cohorts													
	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	Decade Average	Adj. Annual Change Rate
Adult Overall Rate	4.3%	4.3%	4.2%	3.7%	4.1%	3.5%	3.8%	3.6%	3.0%	2.8%	3.3%	3.7%	-2.2%
18 to 24	3.3%	3.4%	3.4%	3.9%	3.0%	3.0%	2.8%	2.7%	2.5%	1.8%	1.9%	2.9%	-5.1%
25 to 34	5.8%	4.7%	3.5%	4.5%	4.0%	3.8%	4.4%	4.5%	2.6%	2.7%	3.5%	4.0%	-2.5%
35 to 44	5.2%	5.4%	5.5%	3.6%	5.3%	4.3%	4.3%	3.6%	3.7%	3.1%	4.5%	4.4%	1.7%
45 to 54	5.1%	5.2%	5.3%	4.0%	5.0%	4.0%	3.9%	3.8%	3.9%	2.9%	3.9%	4.3%	-1.0%
55 to 64	3.5%	3.9%	4.2%	3.4%	4.7%	3.3%	4.6%	3.7%	3.7%	4.0%	2.5%	3.8%	-0.1%
65 and Older	2.3%	3.0%	3.7%	2.4%	2.7%	2.5%	3.0%	3.0%	2.1%	2.3%	2.6%	2.7%	4.0%
Other Age Cohorts													
	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	Decade Average	Adj. Annual Change Rate
Adult Overall Rate	4.3%	4.3%	4.2%	3.7%	4.1%	3.5%	3.8%	3.6%	3.0%	2.8%	3.3%	3.7%	-2.2%
18 to 34	4.7%	4.1%	3.5%	4.3%	3.6%	3.5%	3.7%	3.8%	2.5%	2.4%	2.9%	3.5%	-3.6%
35 to 49	5.3%	5.6%	5.9%	3.4%	4.9%	4.1%	4.3%	3.6%	3.8%	3.1%	4.4%	4.4%	1.6%
50 and Older	3.2%	3.6%	3.9%	3.3%	4.2%	3.2%	3.7%	3.4%	3.0%	2.9%	2.7%	3.4%	-0.6%
Target Region													
	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	Decade Average	Adj. Annual Change Rate
Northeast	14.3%	13.9%	13.4%	11.5%	13.1%	10.8%	11.5%	11.1%	8.8%	6.5%	10.2%	11.4%	-1.2%
South	1.8%	1.9%	1.9%	1.2%	1.6%	1.4%	1.5%	1.4%	1.3%	1.8%	1.4%	1.6%	-0.1%
Midwest	1.3%	1.4%	1.5%	1.5%	1.7%	1.8%	2.1%	1.8%	1.7%	1.9%	1.7%	1.7%	3.6%
West	1.3%	1.3%	1.3%	1.9%	1.2%	1.0%	1.2%	1.5%	1.3%	1.4%	0.9%	1.3%	-0.4%
Target Region Composition													
	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	Decade Average	Adj. Annual Change Rate
Northeast	72.9%	71.8%	70.7%	68.5%	70.5%	66.7%	65.6%	65.9%	61.5%	50.1%	66.3%	66.4%	-0.3%
South	10.6%	11.3%	12.0%	8.4%	9.9%	10.1%	9.7%	9.4%	10.7%	15.7%	10.2%	10.7%	2.3%
Midwest	10.3%	11.0%	11.6%	13.6%	14.2%	17.6%	18.9%	16.8%	19.3%	24.2%	17.8%	15.9%	7.5%
West	6.3%	6.0%	5.7%	9.5%	5.3%	5.6%	5.8%	7.9%	8.5%	10.0%	5.8%	6.9%	4.6%
Total Travel Destinations of Northeast Market ('000)													
	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	Decade Average	Adj. Annual Change Rate
Total	130,431	131,425	132,419	129,781	126,112	119,659	121,750	125,319	122,738	122,913	130,839	126,671	0.1%
Northeast	25,426	23,534	21,642	25,862	28,141	24,064	22,931	24,620	23,877	20,069	21,780	23,813	-1.0%
New England	4,965	4,877	4,788	4,335	4,860	3,975	4,318	4,151	3,276	2,460	3,913	4,174	-0.1%
Mid-Atlantic	7,135	7,600	8,064	8,205	8,307	7,276	6,268	6,632	6,978	6,094	5,772	7,121	-2.0%
Other Regions	13,326	11,058	8,790	13,322	14,974	12,813	12,345	13,837	13,623	11,515	12,095	12,518	0.9%

travel are evident in these data even though the period covered ends in 1990. The finances of planned travel behavior are also important here although thoroughly reviewed within the context of this study. For example, the decline in the "light" travel market was most adversely reflected in the travel trends for the Northeast (Warnick 1992B). This market declined the most and nearly 50% of all light travelers have household incomes of under \$30,000 per year (Simmons Market Research Bureau 1989). In contrast, 65% of all the "heavy" travelers, which did not decline as much, are from households of yearly incomes in excess of \$30,000 per year (Simmons Market Research Bureau 1989). Over 73% of all travelers to New England are from households with incomes in excess of \$30,000 per year. The travel patterns and behavior of the larger Northeast market do directly affect the New England destination market.

This study revealed further changes in the overall market traveling to New England. First, New England appears to be falling out of favor with young adults. This was most evident in the 18 to 24 year old segment where the rates declined by over 5% per year. The 25 to 34 year market also declined in participation of traveling to New England by over 2% per year. Finally, the 45 to 64 year old segments also declined, but not as dramatically as the others. Two age markets did grow during the decade though. This included the 35 to 44 year old market, which is largely a family market, and the over 65 market or mature senior market or retirement market.

New England is not the "hot market" it was a decade ago for domestic travel. Other regions appear to have aggressively marketed their regions more successfully. More of the Northeast travel market, New England's primary source of travelers, has revealed increasing tendencies to travel to other parts of the United States over the decade. The choice of New England as a prime destination choice has declined and the choice of New England even within the Northeast has declined overall. The decline was not as drastic as what was indicated in the earlier study (Warnick 1992). The aggressive nature of other regions, the revitalization of market areas, and overall changing domestic travel patterns may explain the repositioning of the New England Region. However, the Midwest appears to offer some promise as the New England seeks to maintain or grow its markets. This region now comprises over one-sixth of New England's market.

What are the choices for the tourism and travel industry and businesses within the New England? First, it must be noted that there is not high growth in the domestic travel market as defined within the context of this study. It is a mature market. Long term, there are signs that market conditions may improve. More retirees and an aging population with more free time should help to increase domestic travel demand to this region. Short term, the growing family market and the more mature or senior market groups must not be overlooked as important niches. Agencies positioning statements and plans and market place promotions must consider if they are able to attract these markets. The aging population and the increase of older markets are particularly promising for New England. The longer stay behavior patterns of the family and older age markets does traditionally match well with the typical New England vacation. Those agencies which depend on a younger market (i.e., young adults 18 to 30 for example) must carefully review the future market potential and understand that this market's behavior is different from that of the older adults. This group of young adults belongs to the "Thirteenth or X Generation" and is very different in its travel behavior than was the older Baby Boom Generation. While they like to travel, destination choices must offer high quality and exciting experiences at relatively low cost. Value is key to them due to income constraints. It is likely that this market will be one of shorter stays. The message to them should reflect their culture of being blunt, flashy, kinetic, "MTV-ish" and survivalistic (Warnick 1993, Strauss and Howe 1991).

With no strong growth patterns in the domestic market, recreation and tourism businesses must try to balance market demand by seeking new markets or encouraging current markets to travel or return to their destination more frequently or to stay longer. New markets to examine would include foreign travelers such as the Canadians and travelers from other countries (i.e., England, Germany, France, and Japan) and or other regions. Furthermore, the Midwest geographic market appears to be a very responsive market. Agencies and businesses may want to carefully consider penetrating this market more aggressively. Also, travel related businesses should seek out travel markets within local areas. More travelers are taking shorter more frequent day trips. The New England Region does appear to have strong local market potential. Domestic travel patterns are complex, dynamic and not always easily understood. The review of domestic travel within the context of the New England destination market area provides new insights in agency responses and how the market conditions for the 1990s may be evolving. National trends can be misleading within a regional context. However, closer monitoring of travel trends, both domestic and localized, is still needed. Much is still not known about the inner travel patterns within New England or about the travel volume of each of these segments examined here. Economic and business cycle changes also appear to negatively impact the travel market.

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RECREATION DEMOGRAPHICS

ATTITUDES ABOUT RETIREMENT, WORK AND LEISURE AMONG SENIORS

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Retirement, and specifically retirement among university professors, poses interesting changes and challenges in how people perceive the roles of leisure and the relationships between leisure and work. This paper discusses some of those issues.

Introduction

There are presently 45 million people between the ages of 45 and 65, but this number will swell to 65 million within the next ten years. These demographic changes pose a number of challenges, not the least of which is the relationship between work and leisure in the lives of older citizens. Among the interesting questions: how long can people be "productive" members of society, and how should job responsibilities change with aging? Are phased retirement programs beneficial both to the individuals involved, and to the companies or agencies which employ them? Should the average age of retirement continue to drop, or, given increases in life expectancy, should it begin to rise? Will retirement simply lead to other forms of employment? As these questions all require answers based on policy and changes in public policy, research should be conducted to investigate these issues, and this research must be both quantitative and qualitative.

Studies of retirement issues usually begin with an examination of the reasons for retirement, and analysis of satisfaction with the life-style changes effected by departure from the work force. The retirement literature indicates four principle reasons why people consider retirement: (1) health-related problems that make work difficult; (2) fatigue or boredom with work; (3) desire to explore new opportunities; (4) desire to engage in more leisure behavior.

Companies and agencies express a variety of concerns with regard to the issue of retirement, but these concerns usually fit into four categories: (1) expectation of replacing an older worker with a younger, more energetic, better trained worker; (2) financial advantage of replacing older, more expensive workers with young workers employed at a lower salary; (3) the hope of employing an older, experienced and talented worker on a part-time basis; (4) reluctance to let an older, wiser, and more experienced worker depart from the company. Oddly enough, a company may experience all four of these sentiments, with respect to the retirement of any given worker. As recent early retirement offerings from such companies as IBM and Westinghouse indicate, however, the financial advantages of bidding good-bye to older workers seems to be the major motivation larger corporations have for encouraging retirement.

Statement of the Problem

Universities are special situations. While some people may think that university professors are really retired, at whatever stage or age they may be, most university professors not only work hard at what they do, but have a high level of dedication, and a great deal of job satisfaction. For many professors, what they are doing has deep and abiding personal interest, and involves them with concerns they believe are intrinsically worthwhile. To stop doing this, may be to stop doing the things they are most interested in. For other university

professors, what they are doing is just a way of earning a living, or they feel they have made their contribution, and may be working only out of economic necessity.

Retirement is eagerly anticipated by some, but dreaded by others. Some faculty members wish to continue some aspect of what they have been doing much of their life, while others wish to withdraw completely, and separate themselves as much as possible from the University. West Virginia University has had over 200 professors retire in the last ten years, and more than half of them have retained some direct ties to the University. Some serve on important faculty committees, some are involved in research projects, and some have contractual arrangements to teach one or more courses per year. Retired professors have been surveyed, to determine the nature and purpose of their continued connection to the University, or their separation from it, and a number of retired professors have volunteered for interview and discussion sessions.

In a qualitative research study of retired professors from West Virginia University's College of Agriculture and Forestry, it was found that (1) the research and publication aspect of work was intrinsically rewarding for many, and independent of financial remuneration; (2) for some, continued involvement with students was rejuvenating, and opportunities to participate in lectures, classroom discussions, supervision of graduate students, curriculum or program development, were regarded as intrinsically rewarding; (3) mentoring younger faculty, especially helping them develop research projects, seemed to be very satisfying; (4) opportunity to emphasize some aspect of previous work that had not been developed, was of great importance; (5) freedom from committee work and other administrative duties was much appreciated. Some of the retired professors who returned to work indicated some degree of contempt for those who retired to a life of recreational pursuits, affirming that such an existence would seem relatively empty and devoid of meaning or purpose.

Discussion and Implications

Professors differ from most members of corporate workforces, in that the field of study and the area of expertise are usually self-chosen, and the economic incentive for academic work is normally not as great as the financial opportunities offered by businesses. Professors and government workers have more in common, as both are providing services, and have careers that are somehow oriented to the "common good." Professors have also benefited from such academic arrangements as tenure, which facilitate pursuing one's own interests, independent of most political considerations. Not infrequently, professors have some reluctance to retire, because their employment pays them for doing what they find most interesting. In line with the observations of Csikszentmihalyi, for professors, much more "flow" experience may be produced at work, than in recreation or leisure, simply because of the interest in what is being done or produced. A retired history professor who returned to his office for two years to complete a book on his pet concern was perhaps our clearest illustration of this. While this individual played both golf and bridge, these were clearly diversions or amusements, and did not produce the same glow of excitement, as talking about his pet project.

This study should lead to greater discussion of the place of retirement in the academic community, and in other forms of public service, such as the employment of dedicated professionals in various recreation management agencies. Should there be more arrangements for phased retirement? Are older workers able to make unique and distinctive contributions, while increasing the time they have available for other pursuits? As we eliminated mandatory retirement, should more be done to prepare people to examine "life after and apart from work," both so that they may benefit from realizing that work is not the whole of life, and so that society may benefit from the initiation of younger workers into positions of influence and power? And should leisure professionals be doing more to

preach the attractiveness of leisure to those whose lives have been dominated by a work ethic?

As 65 million people reach the edge of retirement over the next decade, more research needs to be done into what makes work and leisure meaningful, what balance of work and leisure there should be in the lives of older citizens, and what public policy and public program decisions need to be made, to accommodate the needs of older workers and younger retirees. The recreation profession has long maintained that leisure is the realm of activities that are intrinsically worthwhile--activities ranging from art, contemplation, sports, to engagement in public services--and it is time the recreation profession exercised some leadership in educating the public as to what leisure should be. If successful in this, more workers will make smoother transitions from work to retirement, and more workers of mature years will find a happy balance of work and leisure in their lives. The work of recreation is to promote meaning in human life; just as little league was a major promotion in the post World War II years, so too education about work and leisure for the adult population should be a major effort on the part of the recreation profession at the present time.

This study indicated that retired workers return to work for a large variety of reasons, not the least of which was the absence of meaningful leisure opportunities in their lives. As we go about reinventing government, re-engineering corporations, and revitalizing academia, we must also go about rethinking the customers we have for recreation services. What can we do (1) to make work more pleasant for people who wish to continue working, and (2) make leisure opportunities more attractive to the people of mature years? Creating meaningful leisure for mature adults is one of the major challenges of the recreation profession.

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PORTRAYAL OF WOMEN IN CLIMBING

MAGAZINE, 1970-1990:

A CONTENT ANALYSIS

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A content analysis was conducted to examine the representation and portrayal of women in Climbing magazine over a twenty year period. This study was approached both quantitatively and qualitatively. During the first decade, women were portrayed primarily in the role of "spectator," or as the wife (or companion) of a male climber. In the latter part of the second decade, there was a considerable increase in the number of articles recognizing women climbers as independent and capable. The prevalence of linguistic sexism, however, was noted throughout the study period.

Introduction

The spirit of climbing, over the years, has captured the interest of both men and women of all ages and lifestyles. The world has many fine women climbers, vastly outnumbered by their male counterparts (Birkett and Peasod 1989). This may be due, in part, to social attitudes regarding the "role" of women. For example, appropriateness of adventure activities for women has been questioned; testing physical capabilities through outdoor pursuits was once contemptuous, and gaining freedom from gender imposed roles was (and for some still is) a challenge in itself.

Regarding women's experiences in physical recreation and outdoor adventures, the literature tells us that many women who are involved, or wish to be involved, continue to encounter long-standing ideologies of femininity which consider women's involvement in physical recreation inconsistent with the image of women as passive, cooperative, responsible, dependent, frail, sweet, fragile, and first and foremost, mothers and wives (Yerkes and Miranda 1985). In particular, Hollenhorst (1988) has concluded that the main barrier to women's participation in rock climbing is not skill and ability, but rather cultural stereotypes and misconceptions regarding the appropriateness of climbing as a leisure activity for women. Birkett (1989) admits that "blind prejudice and years of social conditioning have developed ridiculous attitudes born of ignorance." Prominent researchers tell us that sex-role stereotyping is so ingrained that it has inhibited women from enjoying physical recreation, being outdoors, and spending time on the rocks and in the mountains.

In terms of media presentation regarding differences in the portrayal of men and women, the literature strongly suggests that women continue to be 1) under-represented in general and 2) portrayed in stereotyped social, sexual, and vocational roles. Examples of "stereotypical" portrayals include men in positions of leadership, taking risks, adventurous and powerful, while women are associated with domestic responsibilities, victims of violence, passive, weak, and "unable." For women, stereotyping can mean being portrayed as inferior, restricting the dignity and opportunity for women to pursue goals in relation to themselves. Investigating media

messages about female athletes. Kane and Parks (1990) emphasize the importance of analyzing the extent and nature of media coverage because "how they [women] are viewed in this culture is reflected in and created by media images." Studies reveal that women are primarily portrayed in the media with a focus on appearance and gender role, rather than ability and accomplishments. There has undoubtedly been some progress in terms of the changing image of women in sport and physical recreation. While the mass media may not tell the public what to think, the public is told what to think about.

Method

Climbing magazine was selected for analysis because of its large numerical and geographical circulation, outstanding reputation and world-wide recognition. Through a systematic random sampling of 123 issues over the 20 span (1970-1990), 60 issues containing 266 feature articles were analyzed. Although this analysis was quantitative as well as qualitative, this paper highlights the qualitative component.

Feature articles written about females or which included mention of females were examined, and articles which discussed males only were coded solely for descriptive information. Those articles focusing on women and men, yet which made reference to women in any social, physical, or psychological capacity were also included. Subsequently, women were mentioned in only 84 of the 266 articles reviewed for this study, an average ratio of one female mentioned for every eight males.

Quantitative data categories analyzed consisted of the total number of feature stories, the amount (number of pages), number of female and male authors, the type of climbing reported in the article, whether the article is primarily related to recreation or competition, and the gender focus (number of female and male climbers, and percentage of articles per issue mentioning women). In this study, gender characteristics, sex roles, stereotypes, language use and perspectives of leisure time as related to climbing (that is, rock, mountaineering, and ice) were qualitatively examined. In order to examine feature articles, key statements and descriptions were recorded. Due to the nature of content analysis and media studies, interpretation of these statements is inextricably tied to use of language. Thematic categories which were synthesized from the data guided the qualitative analysis.

Findings

Females represented 11% of the total authors of feature articles while males accounted for 89% of the total authors (refer to Table 1, next page, for quantitative summary). This paper will provide the analysis of general comments about portrayal, without differentiating comments on the basis of author gender, because there was a certain degree of overlap in article content.

As magazines are a form of printed media, the choice of words and degree of language used is critical in the communication of messages. The categories formed in this analysis reflect the style and appropriateness of language used by the various authors. The language used in these articles was a means by which the authors internalized their experiences, and conceptualized how best to share their "statements" with magazine readers. Inevitably, it is these words, verbal exchange of the mass media and popular literature, that produce images and mold experiences.

Exclusion of females as participants characterized the tone set during the first couple of years of publication. For example, during the first year Climbing was established (1970), as found in issue 4: "We planned to attempt the unclimbed 3,000-foot South Face of Lone Peak in February -- without the girls, of course." Another example can be raised in question as to why Barbara watched the men climb instead of participating herself -- she might have been fully capable of actively climbing. In

1971. Barbara may not have been permitted to do more than just watch: "Leaving our friend Barbara Allen to hassle with a camp fee, Fritz and I hiked up the ridge keeping our eyes on the monster, black peak...Barbara was able to later watch our climb through the eyes of binoculars." Although women slowly began to be acknowledged as climbers, there were still instances 13 years later where women were portrayed as observers and not climbers: "My girlfriend came along to take

pictures and provide moral support, so conditions were as ideal as one could hope for." Twenty years after the magazine was established and even after evidence was clear that women had become more active climbers, many were still categorized as spectators, one author writes: "I remember looking down the wall to the desert floor where my wife, dog, and rusting van awaited my return."

YEAR	CLIMBERS MENTIONED (N=2482)		RELATED PHOTOGRAPHS (N=962)			AUTHORSHIP (N=327)	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Unidentified	Female	Male
1970-1975	12% (36)	88% (264)	6% (7)	92% (103)	2% (2)	5% (2)	95% (42)
1976-1980	3% (12)	97% (388)	4% (11)	94% (259)	2% (7)	3% (3)	97% (83)
1981-1985	7% (49)	93% (611)	5% (12)	93% (205)	1% (3)	3% (2)	97% (69)
1986-1990	16% (179)	84% (943)	19% (67)	79% (279)	2% (7)	23% (29)	77% (97)
TOTALS	11% (n=276)	89% (n=2206)	10% (n=97)	88% (n=846)	2% (n=19)	11% (n=36)	89% (n=291)

Table 1. Summary of key article attributes by years of publication (includes "Women's Issue," no. 103).

A perception of rock climbing is not just that one must be strong, but that a great deal of muscular strength is necessary if an individual is to be successful. For this reason, many women are discouraged from participating. It has been learned that climbing and mountaineering (at many levels) can be enjoyed if one possesses general good health and moderate fitness. Climbing, in particular, is like dancing on rocks, and takes a lot of finesse and agility -- characteristics stereotypically associated with women. The prevailing myth of sheer strength as a requirement to climb exacerbates a stigma with which many women do not want to be associated.

The sport of climbing began in Europe even before it became a craze in the United States. Although women had therefore been climbing much sooner than people realize, there were still prevailing stereotypes. As stated in 1972, "women's accomplishments often amaze the visitor more than do those of the men. And they don't have that Russian shotputter look. They're more like members of the ballet. The contest ends with team climbing - for men only." In 1976 another author writes "while many or perhaps most women lack the muscular strength to climb, there is a definite disproportion between the number who can and the number who do..."

It has been the contention of many researchers that females involvement in "masculine" sports and adventure recreation directly challenges traditional definitions of femininity. In the introduction of his book, *Women Climbing*, Birkett (referring to a French woman climber) admits once stating "how can a woman, a mere girl, so obviously feminine, climb that hard?" As the history of climbing illustrates, such activity has been (and is still) dominated by men. For many years females who excelled and were successful in their own right were told that their skill was "damn good for a woman." In 1988, an article profiled Kitty Calhoun: "The leader of a large German expedition...wondered about the young looking American. She was petite, alluring, and none of the hardness which most alpinists wear like a badge on their sleeves...the German approached

one of the American men gesturing is that your basecamp manager? No, he replied, she's the leader of our climb."

Portrayal in the early 70s of women in *Climbing* trivialized females not as potential (or even active) climbers, but as unequal contenders with their male counterparts. The traditional message regarding females who climbed was that they were seen as unfeminine and were not compatible with society's image of how females were supposed to behave. In an interview Mimi Stone shares the following: "A while back, I was practicing at the climbing rock and this little girl came running over to the rock and started to climb it. I was climbing right near her. Her mother came over and towed her away, telling her that girls didn't do that. And I was right there! Sure, I'd like to get to the top of Everest because I'd like to do it, but I'm also out there climbing so that little girls like that one know that we DO do that."

In 1974-1977, several articles by women were linked with the concept of feeling safe with a male partner. As women were viewed as the girlfriend or wife, they in turn viewed themselves in a passive, support role, rather than as a solid climber (or one having the potential to be a solid climber). Male authors usually conveyed the desire for male camaraderie. Their involvement during this first decade rarely included women with the exception of "moral support" or conducting risky feats to "impress" a female companion.

During the six year period 1978-1984 there were no female authors in the issues which were randomly selected for the study. It was, however, during this time that several studies about participation of women in the outdoors began to emerge. Those women who were portrayed as active climbers were depicted as part of a husband and wife team or climbing primarily with a male partner. A trend began to develop in the mid to late 80s where women desired the company of other women climbers for companionship, as well as to gain a new and different perspective on varying styles and strategies of climbing.

Miller and Swift (1980) report that emphasis on the physical characteristics and appearance of women is offensive when in the same context where men are described in terms of their achievements. The following statement was written in 1988 about a female climber in the first U.S. International competition: "...with her short, bleached-blond hair, dangling earrings, and flashy white print lycra, she climbed steadily upwards combining grace and power to crank through the first two cruxes." Another piece about the same competition was titled "A View from the Gallery" -- the author states "I must admit I enjoy the women's competition a lot more. It's pretty sexy to see a well-honed woman in turquoise lycra flowing up a difficult climb. (Note: A sexist reference which provides another example of what is meant by style and use of language). If you weren't a climber, I doubt the men's competition would hold your interest for very long. I mean who bothers to watch the men's figure skating in the Olympics? It's the women who are art."

Several analogies (re: climbing and women's roles) were made by authors therefore creating sexist depictions with no relevant connection. "Personal challenge...gives a sense of self-reliance...If on the other hand, the risk is taken as a substitute for something lacking in your life, then its not healthy, we thought. For instance, the classic case of the guy who can't make it with women so he has to go fanatically at mountains" (Issue 24, 1974). In 1981, after a marriage and quick divorce, one author writes, "Hell, I know most of these routes like old lovers; if I don't dare to free-solo them. I just don't do them." In 1984, another author draws an analogy comparing this view of beauty and vast greatness with sights in a girls' lockerroom. Such linguistic sexism only serves to detract and limit women, not encourage them.

During the 70s and early 80s, the continued efforts of society as a whole to improve equity among women and men, and support of media recognition of the women's movement are indicative of the celebration of women's achievements. Several profiles of female climbers acknowledged their skills as capable and proficient; giving them credit and recognition for their talents and extraordinary skills. Written in 1974: "Boulder climbers have seen another pioneer in Diana Hunter. She has been places and achieved things that no women - and most men - never have...It seems incredible to watch a girl lead 5.10 with perfect composure and flawless footwork... constantly improving her technique, increasing strength, endurance, and agility and developing the finesse necessary to lead..." In 1982, a few authors acknowledged women in other parts of the world, stating that they are becoming more committed to rock climbing...and that "they are going far beyond their predecessors frequently doing hard climbs and even first ascents in some places."

Leisure behavior is based on a social context as it relates to gender. Based not only on biological sex, it is important to understand that gender is a basis by which to culturally define behavior. Furthermore, this may be contingent upon what is appropriate for the sexes in society at any given time. For instance, in 1976 one author writes, "It's not that climbers have chosen a sport which could naturally select women out, but that - as their life would lead us to expect - American middle class men are more under the direct pressures of the values of work than are women in this society." Ten years later Rosie Andrews writes: "Women as a rule struggle far more to make the breakthrough to that state where an inner voice rings with confidence...The fact that barriers exist isn't a valid reason for not trying. I don't think physically there's anything holding a woman back from being as good a climber as she wants."

The recognition of women as independent and capable through feature articles in *Climbing* increased throughout the study period. For instance many first ascents were noted, role models were recognized, a history of female climbers was acknowledged (that is from the 1920s to 1950s), and the physical skills and abilities of female climbers began to precede

descriptions of their appearance. The changing emphasis of coverage given to females from passive observers to active climbers and expedition leaders, is indicative of greater recognition of female climbers and the changing image of women's involvement in adventure recreation.

Discussion and Implications

It is imperative that practitioners encourage women to seek challenges, in part by presenting them with all available options. In certain activities, teachers, instructors and administrators may in fact constrain and inhibit participation of women based on their portrayal of women. Fifty-one percent of individuals in the U.S. are female, therefore how women climbers are depicted will inevitably affect the majority of individuals served by the profession.

Media have tremendous power in setting cultural guidelines for the treatment of women and in shaping political discourse. It is essential that news media -- along with other institutions -- be pressured to be fair and accurate. The first step in challenging sexism in the media is monitoring and documenting bias. Several questions could be asked: 1) From whose point of view is news being reported?, 2) Are too few women reporting on substantive issues?, 3) Is there a lack of female sources?, 4) Are women participants and authors subject to a double standard?, 5) What stereotypes exist in the media?, and 6) Are there sexist underlying assumptions in the material being reviewed?

Active professionals are aware of the need to hold their board members and elected officials accountable, yet rarely is the media held to the same standards - a powerful tool that shapes the political debate. Once bias is identified, media personnel must be apprised of objections. Most importantly, perhaps, individuals should promote media that accurately reflects women's lives and issues, and that allow women to speak for themselves. A good first step in taking action is a letter or phone call to the reporter. If the reporter is not receptive, the editor should be contacted. Another valuable effort would be to organize "letter to the editor" and phone/fax campaigns about media bias or exclusion. Additionally, a community or campus forum, or workshop on sexism in the media should be convened.

As the media are a key force in influencing and documenting participation in adventure recreation, a critical analysis of gender portrayal can only enhance equitable presentation and subsequent encouragement of participation by all.

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**USE AND NON-USE OF PUBLIC PARKS
IN NORTHEAST OHIO: DIFFERENCES
BETWEEN AFRICAN-AMERICANS
AND WHITES**

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Data from an in-park survey and a telephone survey were used to examine differences between African-Americans and Whites in their use of public parks in Northeast Ohio. Analysis of the surveys revealed a number of similarities between the groups, but some important differences.

Introduction and Purpose of the Study

Administrators and scholars from the Academy of Leisure Sciences were recently questioned as to what key issues they felt faced local park and recreation agencies in the 1990s (Whyte, 1992). One issue cited as having great impact was the growing cultural and ethnic diversity of the American population. Another issue was the growing difficulty in providing equal opportunity and services to all people. Providing services to a growing minority population is no easy task because park and recreation officials often lack information about the recreation preferences and needs of these groups, and are, thus, unsure how to proceed (Dwyer and Gobster, 1992; Dwyer and Hutchison, 1990).

There is a growing body of research that suggests that minorities and non-minorities differ in their rate of participation in different activities (e.g., Warnick, 1991; Kate, 1993), their use of park and recreation services (e.g., West, 1989), and their preferences for particular environments and landscapes (e.g., Kaplan and Talbot, 1988). Differences between African-Americans and Whites have been typically explained in terms of economic factors (marginality) and/or cultural factors (ethnicity). These studies and explanations provided a basis for exploring whether African-Americans and Whites differ in their use of public parks in Northeast Ohio. Because of insufficient numbers, Hispanic and other minority groups were not included in these analyses.

Study Area and Methodology

Data for this paper come from two sources: (a) an in-park survey conducted at 12 Cleveland Metroparks reservations, and (b) a telephone survey conducted of residents of seven Northeast Ohio counties. African-Americans comprised about 10 percent of respondents in each sample.

The in-park survey was conducted within Cleveland Metroparks, a regional park district in Northeast Ohio. Cleveland Metroparks consists of over 19,000 acres of land in 12 different reservations (parks). Facilities and features operated by the Park District include hiking, bridle, all-purpose and fitness trails, golf courses, swimming beaches, nature centers, interpretive programs, picnic areas, play fields, wildlife sanctuaries, and boating and fishing areas.

Approximately 5,000 people were interviewed during the spring, summer, and fall of 1991 by trained interviewers. Interviews were conducted on random weekdays and weekends. Visitors were interviewed using a random selection process. Respondents were asked about the kinds of activities they pursued during their visit, how often they visited, how long they planned to visit, their mode of travel, how long it took

them to travel to the reservation, the number of people and children in their party, their use of the Park District reservations, their attitudes toward recreational development, and their ratings of Park District facilities and services. Demographic characteristics of respondents were also acquired.

Data for the second study were drawn in October, 1991. Using random digit dialing, 1,054 people in Northeast Ohio were interviewed about their use of public parks in the greater Cleveland Metropolitan area. Only people 18 years and older were interviewed. Respondents were asked how frequently they used public parks in Northeast Ohio. Non-users and infrequent users (individuals who used parks less than once a month) were asked questions about why they did not use public parks more often, and questions about whether different changes in park operations might result in their using parks more.

Chi-square tests were used to test whether African-Americans and Whites differed significantly in terms of their use of Cleveland Metroparks and parks in general. Logistic regression was also used to determine whether some of these differences are confounded by the effects of income and other variables.

Results - In-park Survey

Demographic Characteristics of Visitors

African-Americans comprise roughly one-tenth of all Cleveland Metroparks visitors. In contrast, African-Americans comprise about one-quarter of people living in Cleveland Metroparks tax district. Hence, African-Americans use Park District facilities at a level far below their numbers in the population.

Not only do African-Americans comprise only a fraction of all Cleveland Metroparks visitors, there is tremendous variation in visitation by day of the week and season of the year (Figure 1). During the spring, 9% of weekday visitors and 11% of weekend visitors were African-American. During the summer, almost 15% of weekend visitors and 11% of weekday visitors were African-American. During the fall, less than 6% of both weekday and weekend visitors were African-American. In general, African-Americans' use of Cleveland Metroparks peaks during the summer months (especially on weekends) and drops precipitously during the fall months.

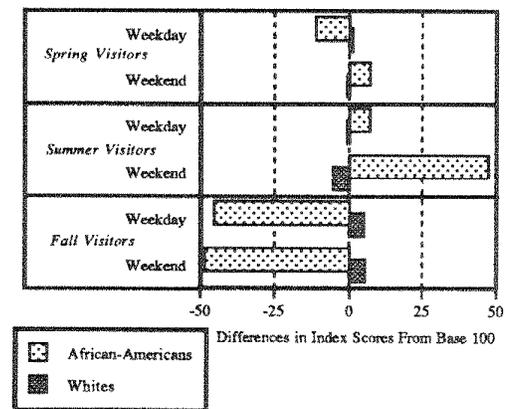


Figure 1. Temporal patterns of visitation in Cleveland Metroparks - by race.

Table 1 compares African-American and White visitors in terms of their demographic characteristics. Notice that African-American visitors are more apt to be female and

younger, and have lower levels of education and income. Particularly striking is the fact that only 4% of African-American visitors are over 65 years of age, compared to 15% of White visitors.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of Cleveland Metroparks visitors - by race.

	African-Americans %	Whites %	Chi-Square
Gender			
Female	58.1	44.4	
Male	41.9	55.6	32.33***
Age			
16-24	12.7	11.6	
25-44	55.1	48.1	
45-54	13.8	13.8	
55-64	13.6	12.5	
65-74	3.2	11.7	
75+	1.6	2.3	31.16***
Level of education			
Didn't graduate from H.S.	11.0	8.4	
High school graduate	54.0	50.9	
Tech. School/some college	8.6	7.1	
College graduate	25.2	33.7	12.82**
Yearly household income			
Less than \$15,000	16.3	13.2	
\$15-24,999	25.1	19.4	
\$25-34,999	18.7	20.6	
\$35-49,999	21.3	22.3	
\$50,000 or more	18.7	24.5	13.56***

* p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001

General Patterns of Visitation

African-American and White visitors were also found to differ markedly in terms of general patterns of visitation. These differences are summarized in Table 2.

African-Americans traveled slightly further than Whites: 55% of African-American visitors said they live within 15 minutes of the reservation visited, compared to 60% of White visitors. While this difference is small, it was significant at the .01 level. While African-American and White visitors differed in terms of travel time, there was virtually no difference between these groups in terms of mode of transportation to Cleveland Metroparks.

African-Americans and Whites differed significantly in how often they said they visit Cleveland Metroparks. Here, African-American visitors reported visiting more infrequently than White visitors. In fact, almost twice as many African-Americans (17%) said they were first-time visitors compared to Whites (10%).

African-Americans reported a significantly longer length of visit than Whites. Thirty-seven percent of African-Americans said they planned to stay for two hours or more, compared to 26% of Whites.

African-Americans were significantly more likely than Whites to visit in the company of small children. About 37% of African-American visitors said they visited with at least one small child, compared to 28% of White visitors.

African-Americans visit significantly fewer Cleveland Metroparks reservations than Whites. Nearly 30% of White visitors said they had visited three or more Park District

reservations during the last year, compared to only 17% of African-American visitors.

African-American visitors were significantly less likely than White visitors to receive a free Park District newsletter through the mail. Only 11% of African-American visitors said they received the newsletter, compared to 23% of White visitors.

Table 2. General patterns of visitation at Cleveland Metroparks - by race.

	African-Americans %	Whites %	Chi-Square
Travel time to reservation			
Less than 15 minutes	54.8	60.0	
15-30 minutes	33.3	31.4	
More than 30 minutes	12.0	8.6	7.28*
Frequency of visitation			
First-time visitor	17.3	9.8	
Less than once a month	34.6	27.3	
Once a month	11.4	13.7	
Once a week	15.8	23.0	
Almost daily	20.9	26.3	47.64***
Duration of visit			
Less than 1 hour	31.5	35.2	
1-2 hours	31.5	38.4	
2 hours or more	37.0	26.5	23.97***
Mode of transportation			
Foot or bicycle	5.7	6.9	
Car or van	92.1	91.4	
Other	2.3	1.6	1.93
Number of children in group under 14 years of age			
Zero	62.9	71.9	
1-2	17.4	18.8	
3 or more	19.7	9.3	50.91***
Other Park District areas visited during the last 12 months			
Zero	43.4	28.6	
1-2	39.6	41.8	
3 or more	17.0	29.6	56.24***
Receive Park District newsletter			
No	88.7	76.6	
Yes	11.3	23.4	34.16***

* p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001

Attitudes Toward Recreational Development

Visitors were asked to choose among three statements which best reflected their attitude about the reservation they were visiting: (a) favor more recreational development, (b) favor more natural areas, or (c) currently a good balance between recreational development and natural areas. A majority of both African-American and White visitors said there is currently a good balance between recreational development and natural areas. However, as evident from Figure 2, African-American visitors were more likely than White visitors to favor more recreational development. Twenty-two percent of African-American visitors favored more recreational development, compared to only 13% of White visitors. This relationship was significant (p ≤ .001) even after the effects of gender, age, income and travel time were controlled.

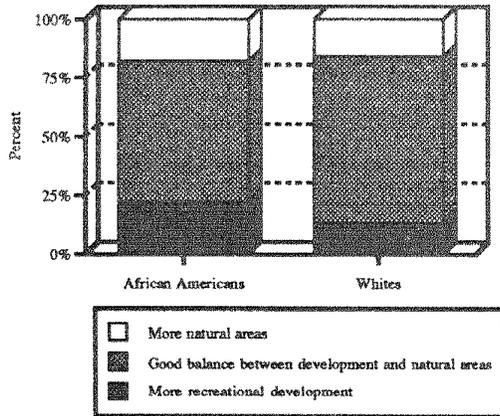


Figure 2. Attitude toward recreational development in Cleveland Metroparks - by race.

Kinds of Activities Pursued

Respondents were asked to indicate whether they participated or planned to participate in a number of different activities during their visit. A comparison of participation rates for selected activities is provided in Figure 3. Notice that African-Americans and Whites differed only slightly in terms of the kinds of activities pursued. For example, while a greater fraction of Whites said they walked or hiked than African-Americans, this difference was not statistically significant. Nevertheless, there were some significant differences. African-American visitors were significantly more likely to participate in league sports, fitness activities, running or jogging, playing with children, picnicking, and relaxation. In contrast, White visitors were significantly more likely to walk a dog. When controlling for the effects of gender, age, income and travel time to the parks, all but two of these differences remained significant at the .05 level (relaxation and walking a dog.).

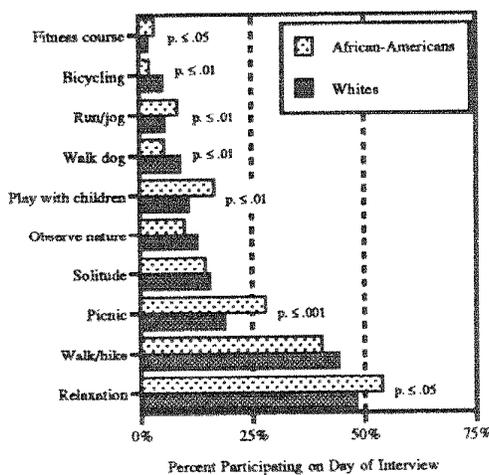


Figure 3. Activity rates in Cleveland Metroparks - by race.

Results - Telephone Survey

The telephone survey revealed that African Americans are far more likely than Whites to be non-users or infrequent users of parks in Northeast Ohio (Table 3). Whites were more than twice as likely to be regular users of public parks (individuals who use parks at least once a month).

Table 3. Frequency of park visitation in Northeast Ohio - by race.

	African-Americans %	Whites %	Chi-Square
Never	38.5	26.2	
1-2 times per year	30.8	21.8	
Less than once a month	12.1	10.3	
Once a month	9.9	26.9	
Once a week or more	8.8	14.8	19.23***

*** p < .001

Non-users and infrequent users were asked to indicate whether different factors were very important, somewhat important, or not at all important in limiting their use of public parks in Northeast Ohio. For purposes of display, two of the response categories for these items were combined (somewhat important and not at all important). A summary of responses to twelve of these items is presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Factors that limit people's use of public parks in Northeast Ohio - by race.^a

	African-Americans %	Whites %	Chi-Square
Lack of time	43.9	45.6	0.63
Lack of information	29.2	20.6	2.73
Fear of crime	47.3	32.3	6.53*
No one with whom to go	13.5	15.3	0.15
Parks are too far away	16.4	12.7	0.77
No way to get to parks	18.9	10.1	5.13*
Cost too much	16.4	4.7	15.28***
Pursue recreation elsewhere	31.9	25.5	1.36
Don't like outdoor recreation	18.1	12.1	2.00
Busy with other activities	37.0	42.0	0.66
Lack public transportation to parks	23.3	8.88	14.23***

^a Percentages include individuals who said factor was very important in limiting their use of public parks.
* p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001

In most cases, African-Americans and Whites differed very little in kinds of factors that limited their use of public parks. There were, however, a few significant differences. African-Americans were significantly more likely than whites to say that costs, fear or crime, having no way to get to parks, and a lack of public transportation were very important in limiting their use of parks. However, when the effects of income were controlled, only two of these differences remained significant at the .015 level: costs and lack of public transportation.

Non-users and infrequent users were also asked to indicate whether they might use public parks more given a number of changes. A summary of responses is provided in Table 5. Notice that for seven of the eight change items, African-Americans were significantly more likely than whites to say they might use parks more. However, after controlling for the effects of income, only four of these differences remained significant at the .05 level: reduce travel time to parks, provide public transportation to parks, make parks safer, and provide more activities in parks.

Table 5. Changes in park operations that might lead to park visitation - by race.^a

	African-Americans %	Whites %	Chi-Square %
Develop parks closer to home	63.0	50.3	4.18*
Provide more information about parks and park programs	79.5	69.3	3.18
Reduce travel time to parks	63.0	38.1	16.42***
Provide public transportation to parks	55.6	30.5	17.92
Make parks safer	86.3	70.0	8.49**
Provide more activities	75.7	53.0	13.56***
Reduce costs associated with going to parks	54.8	35.5	10.12**
Provide assistance with care of children and family	58.9	41.1	13.69***

^a Percentages refer to individuals who said that a change might result in their using public parks more.

* p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001

Discussion and Implications

These data indicate that African-Americans and Whites differ in terms of their use of Cleveland Metroparks. They also differ in terms of frequency of park visitation in general and the kinds of factors that limit their use of parks. These data raise a number of issues and questions for Cleveland metroparks and other individuals involved in the delivery of park services in Northeast Ohio.

- African-Americans currently do not use Cleveland Metroparks and other regional parks at rates equal to their numbers in the population. This should be a concern given that African-Americans and other minorities are expected to increase their share of the region's population in the future. In simple fact, the tax base for Cleveland Metroparks and other regional park districts will increasingly fall on people who have not traditionally used these areas.
- African-Americans travel further to Cleveland Metroparks than Whites. Further, African-Americans said they lacked easy access (e.g., public transportation) to public parks in general. Hence, accessibility to public parks appears to be a key factor that limits African-Americans' use of park services. To better serve African-Americans, Cleveland Metroparks and other park districts may have to locate new parks or become more involved in park initiatives in residential areas with high concentrations of African-Americans.
- While there are a number of commonalities in the kinds of activities that African-Americans and Whites participate in while visiting Cleveland Metroparks, there are some significant differences. Specifically, African-Americans participated at higher rates in activities such as league sports, fitness activities, jogging and running, and children's activities. These differences were evident even when the effects of income, gender, age, and travel time to the park were controlled. These results suggest that park officials may need to be sensitive to basic cultural differences that accompany African-American and Whites' use of Park District facilities.
- African-Americans were more likely than Whites to favor greater recreational development in the reservations they visited. African-Americans were also more likely to favor more activities in public parks. For Cleveland Metroparks and other park districts, these results are problematic since their principle mandate is to conserve area natural resources. Strategies to make park services and programs

more relevant to African-Americans and other groups must be done in ways that are consistent with the underlying mission of the Park District.

- African-Americans were far less likely than Whites to subscribe to a free Cleveland Metroparks newsletter. Also, African-Americans visited fewer Park District areas than Whites. These data suggest that current efforts to inform African-Americans about park services and facilities are inadequate. Cleveland Metroparks officials may need to evaluate their marketing efforts as a means of determining how best to inform African-Americans about Park District services.
- These data suggest that park districts in Northeast Ohio may need to evaluate whether their employees have the skills to relate to a minority population. Further, park districts may lack adequate citizen input from minorities. Efforts may need to be developed (e.g., training of current employees and/or hiring of new employees) that facilitate a better dialogue with minority group members. Again, this may be problematic given the fact that many park officials are recruited primarily because of their ability to relate to park resources rather than park visitors.
- Both economic and cultural factors are working simultaneously in explaining differences in African-Americans' and Whites' use of public parks in Northeast Ohio. These results should not overlook the fact that there are many commonalities in the way African-Americans and Whites used public parks. Future research must be directed at exploring the variability among African-Americans and other minority groups in their use of park services and facilities (Edwards, 1991).

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