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WORLD LEISURE JOURNAL is published four times per year and issued to members of the World Leisure Organization. For libraries, contact World Leisure’s Secretariat for current subscription rates at the address above. Articles published reflect the views of the authors and not necessarily those of the World Leisure Organization. All published articles are peer reviewed. Information for contributors can be found on the back cover.
This is the last issue of the World Leisure Journal that I shall edit. From 2010 the joint editors will be Grant Cushman and Robert Gidlow of Lincoln University, New Zealand. The editorship is migrating to the very opposite side of the world, testament to the genuinely international character of this journal. As from the end of 2009 the editorial boards will be reconstituted.

During my five years as editor we have published a total of 116 papers. Of these, 32% have been by European authors, 31% by authors from North America, 22% from Asia, 10% from Australasia, 3% from Latin-America and just 1% from Africa. We rarely receive submissions from Africa. This is the world region where, as yet, leisure studies has made few inroads. The situation in Latin-America is rather different. The region is a Portuguese/Spanish language community with its own outlets for publications on leisure. The substantial and steadily increasing flow of submissions from Asia is most likely a result, in part, of the World Leisure Congresses that have been held in India, Malaysia and China, with one to be held in South Korea in 2010.

We are far and away the most international of all the journals in our field. Our editorial boards are international. We are aware that leisure is studied and written about in rather different ways in different parts of the world, and this journal does not try to impose a single template on its authors.

Slowly, gradually, the World Leisure Journal is growing in size. We published 21 papers in 2005 and 26 in 2009 (including this issue). Our intention is to continue to grow, but no faster than the growth-rate in high quality submissions.

We are the oldest and most global journal, and we have an extraordinarily large hard copy circulation to individuals and institutions in all parts of the world. This is among our strengths – our attractions to authors.

Many thanks to everyone who had assisted in any way during the last five years – editorially, in production and distribution, and especially our authors. Be assured that as of 2010 I am leaving the journal in very capable hands.

Ken Roberts
Editor-in-chief
Preschool Children’s Emerging Participation in Leisure and Recreation Activities*

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Orelena Hawks Puckett Institute, North Carolina, USA

Abstract

Parents (n = 1509) of young children birth to 6 years of age were surveyed about their children’s participation in 30 leisure and recreation community activities. Analyses focused on similarities and differences according to type of activity (leisure vs. recreation), child age, and child developmental condition (children with vs. children without disabilities or delays). Results showed that there were age-related increases in the patterns of participation in both recreation and leisure activities, but that there was considerable heterogeneity in patterns of participation in terms of the particular activities constituting the focus of investigation. Findings also showed greater participation in leisure compared to recreation activities, and greater participation in both types of activities among children without disabilities or delays.

Keywords: Leisure activities, recreation activities, preschool children, child participation, age-related patterns

The potential value of leisure and recreation activities for children birth to 6 years of age has been noted by both researchers and practitioners (e.g., DeVault, 2000; Parnicka, 1995). The National Association for Sport and Physical Education (2002) recently issued guidelines for promoting infant, toddler, and preschooler participation in everyday activities that provide opportunities for physical exercise and development. Bender and Baglin (2003) also proposed guidelines for both parents and professionals to encourage the participation of young children in leisure and recreation activities.

The kinds of recreation and leisure activities that have been described as appropriate for infants, toddlers, and preschoolers include, but are not limited to, aquatics (Langendorfer, 1990), outdoor activities (Bennett & Bennett, 1993; Rivkin, 1995), gardening (Herd, 1995), art and music activities (Andress, 1991; Zimmerman & Zimmerman, 2000), visiting farms, museums, and zoos (Tunnicliffe, 1995;
Turlay, 2001), fishing (Circle, 2003), running and jumping (Eastman, 1997), T-ball and other sports activities (Mead et al., 2007), nature activities (Cohen & Tunick, 1993), gymnastics (Poudevigne et al., 2003), library story hours (Flatow, 1997; Kuchner, 2001), children’s festivals and fairs (Amato, 1989), neighborhood and community walks (Gobster, 2005), and exercise and movement classes (Gervais, 2003), among many other kinds of activities (e.g., Evaldsson & Corsaro, 1998; Gunner, Atkinson, Nichols, & Elsa, 2005; Kimball, 1981; Meeks & Mauldin, 1990).

The study described in this paper examined infant, toddler, and preschooler emerging participation in community activities generally considered either leisure or recreational activities. We used Kraus’ (2006) descriptions of leisure and recreation activities to propose working definitions of the two types of activities applicable to infants, toddlers, and preschoolers. Our distinction between the two types of activities is based on Kraus’ (2006) contentions that “leisure implies...reflection, self-enrichment, relaxation, or pleasure” (p. 38) whereas “recreation consists of human activity or experiences” (p. 45). Neulinger (1981) made a similar distinction between leisure and recreation based on a survey of the “meaning of leisure.” “When asked to describe the distinction between leisure and recreation, the most frequent reply was that leisure implies passivity and nonactivity, whereas recreation implies activity” (Neulinger, 1981, p. 25). Accordingly, we postulated that leisure and recreation activities for infants, toddlers, and preschoolers would vary from passive to active child involvement.

The common denominator of both leisure and recreation activities is participation, whether as a bystander (passive) or as an operantive (active). Young children’s participation in any activity, including recreation and leisure activities, is often selected and guided by adult family members (Gönçü, 1999; Rogoff, Mistry, Gönçü, & Mosier, 1993). In addition, participation is shaped and influenced by the demands of an activity (e.g., listening to an outdoor concert vs. taking swimming lessons) which affects how participation is manifested. Participation therefore would be expected to vary according to type of activity (Brustad, 1993; de Winter, Baerveldt, & Kooistra, 1999).

While it is generally recognized that leisure and recreation activities are not mutually exclusive but rather serve similar functions (Veal, 1992), the distinctions we made allowed us to determine if patterns and levels of involvement differed along a continuum from active to passive participation (Havitz & Mannell, 2005; Hull, Stewart, & Yi, 1992; Meeks & Mauldin, 1990). Moreover, inasmuch as definitions of recreation and leisure applicable to older children and adults (see e.g., Veal, 1992; for a compilation of definitions) often include elements that are not developmentally appropriate for younger children, and especially infants and toddlers (e.g., choosing how to spend free time), our working definitions were considered a first step in determining if such a categorization of community activities would be useful for discerning patterns of differential participation in leisure and recreation activities.

The particular activities constituting the focus of analysis were ones that young children birth to 6 years of age often experience as part of everyday life. Activity theory (Chaiklin, Hedegaard, & Jensen, 1999; Gönçü, 1999; Rogoff et al., 1993) was used to guide the identification and selection of the activities constituting the focus of analysis. Activity theory posits that the everyday activity settings making up the fabric of daily life are the contexts for encouraging participation in different kinds of activities, including but not limited to, leisure and recreation (Farver, 1999). Accordingly, the activities examined in our study were ones that were potentially available to infants, toddlers, and preschoolers as a part of everyday life. These included, but were not limited to, nature walks, outdoor concerts, fishing, water sports, and bicycling. Interestingly, the activities are the same ones adults and older children participate in for leisure and recreation (Neulinger, 1981).

The extent to which participation in leisure and recreational activities was associated with child-related characteristics was examined in the study reported in this paper. The two child factors that were the focus of analysis were children’s ages and developmental condition (Larson & Verma, 1999). Surprisingly, little is known empirically about the influence of child age on patterns of infant, toddler, and preschooler participation in different leisure and recreation activities. Much of the evidence con-
cerning young children’s participation in both recreation and leisure activities is descriptive or anecdotal. The exceptions are studies by Beckman et al. (1998) and Dunst et al. (2000) who investigated the different kinds of family and/or community activities that infants, toddlers, and preschoolers typically participate in as part of everyday life. Some but not all of the activities described by Beckman et al. and Dunst et al. included leisure and recreation activities.

There is some evidence, for a limited number of community activities, that children with disabilities participate in such activities less often than children without disabilities (e.g., Ehrmann, Aeschleman, & Svanum, 1995).

The need for information about the influences of child characteristics on participation in community activities was recently noted by King et al. (2007) who have been investigating older community activities was references of child characteristics on participation in community activities. The main goal of the analyses described in this paper was a more complete portrayal of which kinds of activities infants, toddlers, and preschoolers participate in at different ages.

Method

Participants

The participants were 1,509 parents and other primary caregivers of young children born to 6 years of age from 48 United States and Puerto Rico. They were recruited through early-childhood programs that were serving the participants’ children at the time the survey was administered. Mailing lists of early childhood programs were obtained from state-level and territory early childhood intervention program coordinators and from federal Early Head Start, Head Start, and Bureau of Indian Affairs program officers. Letters explaining the studies were sent to the programs on the mailing lists asking them to complete a program profile which was subsequently used to select programs.

Four hundred and fifty program profiles were returned. Profile information was used to stratify programs according to type of program (preschool special education, Head Start, etc.), child age (birth to 3, 3 to 5, birth to 5), child condition (children with and without disabilities), parent education (less than high school, high school, etc.) family socioeconomic backgrounds (low, middle, high), family ethnicity (Asian, Latino, Caucasian, etc.), and parent marital status (married, divorced, etc.). Programs in different strata were selected to insure broad-based child and family representation. Programs serving typically underrepresented families were oversampled to ensure that large enough samples of those families were included in the study.

Two hundred and twenty-two (222) out of 450 programs were invited to participate in the study, 180 (80%) of which accepted our invitation.

The parents’ and caregivers’ ages ranged from 16 to 62 years. They had completed from zero (0) to 20 years of formal schooling. About three-quarters of the respondents were married or living with a partner (72%); 13% were separated, divorced, or widowed; and 15% were single, never married, and not living with a partner. The participants were equally divided into terms of those working (49%) and not working (51%) outside the home. The majority of participants’ families’ socioeconomic backgrounds (Hollingshead, 1975) were low/middle (26%), middle (31%), and middle/upper (19%) classes, whereas 15% had low socioeconomic status (SES) backgrounds, and 9% had high SES backgrounds.

Just under 60% of the participants identified themselves as Caucasian (58%), while the others identified themselves as Latino (16%), African American or African Descent (10%), Native American or Native Alaskan (5%), Asian American or Asian (2%), Pacific Islander or Native Hawaiian (1%), and Middle Eastern (0.5%). A small percentage of participants indicated they were biracial or multicultural. The distribution of participants according to ethnicity was diverse as expected from the stratification process.

The children’s ages varied from 1 to 71 months. The mean child age was just over three years (M = 40.59 months, SD = 17.94). The children included those with (56%) and without (44%) identified disabilities or developmental delays. The children’s disabilities included chromosomal abnormalities (e.g., Down syndrome), physical disabilities (e.g., cerebral palsy), sensory impairments (e.g., low vision), and other conditions associated with developmental de-
lays. The distribution was as expected based on how programs were stratified and selected.

Survey

Both English and Spanish versions of the survey were prepared for the study. The survey was subsequently translated into four other languages to permit non-English and non-Spanish speaking parents to complete the survey. The children’s parents or caregivers were asked to indicate the types of community activities that served as the context of their children’s participation and learning. The activities in the survey were selected based on an extensive review of the literature on infants’, toddlers’, and preschoolers’ participation in everyday activities. Respondents indicated, on a 5-point scale (0 = not at all, 1 = very little, 2 = some, 3 = a lot, 4 = always), the extent to which an activity was a community experience or opportunity in which his or her child was involved as a participant and learned or displayed behavior that was appropriate to the activities.

The survey included 15 items identified as leisure activities and 15 items identified as recreation activities. The items in each category were organized into subscales of five different kinds of activities with three items per subscale (Table 1). Both the selection of the items and the assignment of the indicators to the subscales were guided by existing classifications and categorizations of leisure and recreation activities (e.g., Glausier, Whorton, & Morgan, 1996; Snepenger & Crompton, 1985; Stebbins, 2005).

Principal components factor analyses with varimax rotation of the 10 sets of activities each produced a single factor solution. The internal consistency estimates (coefficient alpha) for the 10 analyses ranged between .56 and .79 (Median = .62), which were considered acceptable for scales including only a few items (Nunnally, 1978).

Methods of analysis

The primary analysis was a 12 Between-Child Age (0-6, 6-12...21-66, 66-72 Months) X 2 Between-Child Condition (Delayed vs. Nondelayed) X 2 Within the Type of Activity (Leisure vs. Recreation) ANOVA with subscales nested within the type of activity factor. The sum of the ratings for the three items per subscale was used as the measure of participation in each of the leisure and recreational activity categories. Inasmuch as our main interest was children’s emerging participation in leisure and recreation activities, all between-age analyses included tests for linear and curvilinear trends in the dependent measures for purposes of ascertaining similarities and differ-

Table 1. Categorization of the Leisure and Recreation Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leisure Activities</th>
<th>Recreation Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment (α = .60)</td>
<td>Seasonal Sports (α = .59)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening to Storytellers</td>
<td>Swimming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library/Bookmobile</td>
<td>Ice Skating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music Activities/Concerts</td>
<td>Fishing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animal Habitats (α = .79)</td>
<td>Nature Activities (α = .64)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animal Farm/Petting Zoo</td>
<td>Nature Trail Walks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zoo/Animal Reserve</td>
<td>Hiking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pet Store/Animal Shelter</td>
<td>Horseback Riding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play Activities (α = .56)</td>
<td>Outdoor Activities (α = .66)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indoor/Outdoor Playgrounds</td>
<td>Boating/Canoeing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Centers</td>
<td>Rafting/Tubing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arcade Games/Centers</td>
<td>Camping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Events (α = .74)</td>
<td>Sports (α = .60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parades</td>
<td>Baseball/Basketball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children’s Festivals/Fairs</td>
<td>Soccer/Football</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Fairs/Celebrations</td>
<td>Karate/Martial Arts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractions (α = .67)</td>
<td>Organizations (α = .56)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Museum/Science Center</td>
<td>Scouting (Movement Classes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parks/Nature Center or Reserve</td>
<td>Scouting (Club/Brownies)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Garden</td>
<td>Children’s Clubs (4H, Indian Guides)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ences in patterns of emerging participation in the 10 categories of activities. Cohen’s \( d \) was used as the size of effect for between-group comparisons and for both the linear and curvilinear trends (Rosenthal, 1994).

The extent to which degree of participation varied along an active to inactive continuum was ascertained by calculating for each leisure and recreation subscale the percentage of children who received a score of either a 3 (a lot) or 4 (always) for one or more activities within each subcategory. An activity in a subcategory rated either a 3 or 4 was used as the measure of frequent participation in an activity. This was considered an appropriate coding procedure since any one child would not necessarily be expected to be involved in all three activities in a subcategory. Percentages were calculated separately for the children with and without disabilities or delays. Chi-square analyses and Cohen’s \( d \) effect sizes for 2 x 2 tables (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001) were used to ascertain similarities and differences in frequency of participation in the 10 subcategories of activities for children with or without disabilities or delays.

\section*{Results}

\textbf{Primary analysis}

The ANOVA produced main effects for child condition, \( F(1, 1484) = 23.02, p < .0001 \); type of activity, \( F(1, 1484) = 1845.04, p < .0001 \); and child age, \( F(11, 1484) = 13.74, p < .0001 \). Findings showed that children without disabilities or delays participated in more activities (\( M = 3.74, SD = 2.97 \)) compared to children with disabilities or delays (\( M = 2.86, SD = 2.81 \)), \( d = .30 \). Findings also showed that the children participated in more leisure activities (\( M = 4.44, SD = 2.81 \)) compared to recreation activities (\( M = 2.05, SD = 2.50 \)), \( d = .90 \).

Figure 1. Patterns of young children’s participations in 10 types of leisure and recreation activities

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{leisure_recreation_activities.png}
\caption{Patterns of young children’s participations in 10 types of leisure and recreation activities}
\end{figure}
The main effects for age and type of activity were qualified by a child age x type of activity interaction, $F(11, 1484) = 5.16, p < .001$. The subscale nested within type of activity components of the ANOVA produced child age x activity interactions for both the recreation, $F(44, 5936) = 3.09, p < .001$, and the leisure, $F(44, 5936) = 1.63, p < .01$, subscales, indicating that there was heterogeneity in patterns of participation in the different categories of activities at the different child ages. The patterns of participation are shown in Figure 1.

Follow-up tests of the age-related differences in patterns of participation in the five types of leisure activities and five types of recreation activities are shown in Table 2. There were between age differences in 9 of the 10 analyses, significant linear trends in all 10 analyses, and significant curvilinear trends in the five leisure activity analyses. The effect sizes for the linear trends all indicate, except for organized group activities, that the magnitude of increases in participation in both the leisure and recreation activities were moderately large. The effect sizes for the curvilinear trends for the leisure activities indicate that there were increases in participation followed by a leveling off. The leveling off was most pronounced for involvement in the animal habitats, play activities, and community events.

Leisure activities. Patterns of participation in the leisure activities showed ascending increases in all five types of activities birth to 42 months of age, followed by a leveling off in the levels of participation (Figure 1). The leveling off was evidenced by the significant curvilinear trends for each leisure activity category, indicating a threshold effect for the degree or amount of participation between 4 and 6 years of age.

Recreation activities. Inspection of Figure 1 shows small, but incremental, increases in participation in all five types of recreation activities, with the greatest increases in seasonal sports and nature activities, and the smallest increases in organized group activities. Despite a significant linear increase in participation in organized group activities, overall levels of participation remained low at all age-levels.

Secondary analysis

Figure 2 shows the percentage of children with and without disabilities or delays who frequently participated in one or more activities in each of the 10 subcategories. A larger percentage of children without disabilities or delays participated in most of the activities compared to children with disabilities or delays, $\chi^2 = 5.45$ to 30.86, $df = 1$, $p < .02$ to .0001, $d_s = .12$ to .29, except for the organized group and outdoor activities, $\chi^2 = 0.62$ and 2.20, $df = 1$, $p > .10$, $d_s = .04$ and .08, where participation was much alike for both groups of children. Notwithstanding the statistically significant differences, patterns of participation were more alike.

---

Table 2. Age-Related ANOVA Results and Cohen’s $d$ Effect Sizes for the Different Types of Recreation and Leisure Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Activity</th>
<th>Between Ages F-tests$^{a}$</th>
<th>Linear Trends F-tests$^{b}$</th>
<th>$d^c$</th>
<th>Curvilinear Trends F-tests$^{a}$</th>
<th>$d^c$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>6.13****</td>
<td>46.41****</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>6.77**</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animal Habitats</td>
<td>6.56****</td>
<td>43.50****</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>6.28****</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play Activities</td>
<td>11.58****</td>
<td>64.14****</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>30.11****</td>
<td>.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Events</td>
<td>12.18****</td>
<td>77.45****</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>17.60****</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Attraction</td>
<td>5.38****</td>
<td>35.52****</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>6.90**</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation Activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seasonal Sports</td>
<td>13.64****</td>
<td>98.98****</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature Activities</td>
<td>5.65****</td>
<td>36.02****</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor Activities</td>
<td>5.26****</td>
<td>31.26****</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports</td>
<td>9.69****</td>
<td>60.15****</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizations</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>6.32**</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^{a}$df = 11,1484.

$^{b}$df = 1,1484.

$^{c}$Cohen’s $d$ effect size for the trends.

$^{*} p < .05. \ ** p < .01 \ *** p < .001 \ **** p < .0001.$
Figure 2. Percentage of children participating in the different leisure (L) and recreation (R) activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF RECREATION AND LEISURE ACTIVITY</th>
<th>PERCENT OF CHILDREN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organizations (R)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoor Activities (R)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports (R)</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Events (L)</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractions (L)</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature Activities (R)</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seasonal Sports (R)</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animal Habitats (L)</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play Activities (L)</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment (L)</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

than different in all 10 subcategories of activities for both groups of children as evidenced by the small sizes of effect for the majority of the 10 between-group comparisons.

Further inspection of Figure 2 shows that the three types of activities in which the children participated the least were categorized as recreation activities, and the three types of activities in which the children participated the most were categorized as leisure activities. Children’s participation in community events and attractions (both considered leisure activities) occurred less frequently than participation in nature and seasonal sports activities (both considered recreation activities).

Discussion

Findings indicated that there were both age-related and child condition-related differences in patterns of infant, toddler, and preschooler emerging participation in recreation and leisure activities. Results also showed that patterns of participation varied both between and within the two types of activities constituting the focus of analyses (leisure vs. recreation). Patterns of participation generally fell along an active to passive continuum, although the expected pattern was not nearly as strong as predicted.

The age-related patterns of participation described in this paper, to the best of our knowledge, constitute the first set of data showing the manner in which young children birth to 6 years of age become increasingly involved in different kinds of leisure and recreation activities. The findings showed for most activities predictable and expected increases in child participation, where increases were greatest in activities that involved more passive participation. The findings as a whole add to the knowledge base in terms of the everyday activities that provide contexts for child participation and learning (e.g., Göncü, 1999; Rogoff et al., 1993).

Findings showed that children without disabilities or delays participated in both leisure and
recreation activities more often compared to children with disabilities or delays. This is consistent with findings from other studies (e.g., Ehrmann et al., 1995; Howard, 1996; Schleien, Mustonen, & Rynders, 1995). Despite the differences, however, patterns of participation of children with and without disabilities or delays were more alike than different (Figure 2). Findings similar to these were reported by Law et al. (2006) and Mactavish et al. (1997) for older children with disabilities (see also Post, 1986).

The fact that the patterns of participation in leisure and recreation activities did not conform strictly to the predicted continuum (Figure 2) deserves comment to make clear the nature of child participation in the different kinds of activities. At the extremes of the active to passive continuum, patterns of participation make both empirical and intuitive sense. For example, child participation in the entertainment activities constituting the focus of investigation occurred most often presumably because a child is a more passive participant in the activities (e.g., visiting a library). In contrast, child participation in outdoor activities (e.g., boating or camping) occur considerably less often because an infant or toddler, for example, would not be expected to have the skills to engage in these activities. Rather, a child would typically be involved in these activities as a bystander where the child’s parents or caregivers, for example, were the persons rowing a boat or pitching a tent.

Why then was child participation in nature activities (walks, hiking, etc.) considerably more frequent? This would appear to be the case because infants and toddlers, and sometimes older preschoolers, are involved in those activities by riding in walkers or jogging strollers or by being carried by their parents in back packs (e.g., Currie & Develin, 2002). Children are involved in these kinds of activities to the extent that their parents or caregivers themselves choose to engage in the activities, which appeared to be the case for many parents in this study. According to Freeman, Hill, and Huff (2002), family recreation is a way of drawing children into leisure and recreation activities that provide opportunities for increased child participation and for strengthening parenting confidence and competence (see also Barnett & Chick, 1986; Zabriskie & McCormick, 2003).

At the outset we stated that the purpose of this study was to discern if patterns of emerging participation in leisure and recreation activities differed as a function of child age and developmental condition. Results showed that variations in patterns of participation were highly age-related. The next step in this line of research is to identify which contextual, family, and cultural factors account for variations in individual child participation in leisure and recreation activities to isolate “what matters most” in explaining different degrees of participation in those kinds of activities.

We conclude with a word of caution. Sports and recreation activities are the leading cause of young children’s hospital emergency department visits (Simon, Bublitz, & Hambidge, 2004) when the type of participation is beyond children’s developmental capabilities. Care therefore is warranted in terms of how infants, toddlers, and preschoolers are involved in recreation and leisure activities that include different degrees of risks. Notwithstanding the risks, there are many benefits of participation in the kinds of activities constituting the focus of analysis in this paper (e.g., Frost, Brown, Sutterby, & Thornton, 2004; Mactavish & Schleien, 1998; Rogers & Zaragoza-Lao, 2003; Stern, Bradley, Prince, & Stroh, 1990). To the extent that benefits outweigh any risks, infant, toddler and preschoolers’ developmentally-appropriate participation in leisure and recreation activities is warranted.

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Leisure and Tourism in the Changing China

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Abstract

Recognizing the need of more research on the meanings of leisure and tourism in diverse social and cultural contexts, this paper aims to situate the concepts of leisure and tourism in the specific social, cultural, and historical conditions of mainland China. Drawing insights from existing literature, the paper first discusses the impacts of two indigenous philosophies, Confucianism and Taoism, on Chinese approaches to leisure and travel. It appears that under the influence of Confucianism, leisure is undervalued due to the general orientation toward work, learning, and family in society. Another indigenous philosophy, Taoism, considers leisure as a state of mind and encourages individuals to cultivate a love for nature and a longing for a peaceful leisure life. As a consequence of the tremendous social and economic transformations the country has undergone in recent years, a new leisure culture appears to be burgeoning in contemporary Chinese society. The leisure culture is grounded in people’s everyday life with mixed and complex realities. It involves a dynamic exchanging process between the global and the local, and promises exciting new life experiences with much wider assortments of leisure and recreation opportunities. At the same time, however, the society experiences new pressures of the global market economy and global popular culture, and leisure is used to mitigate the negatives effects of lingering anxiety and uncertainty about the radical social transformations. It can be argued that cultural patterns and social structures have greatly influenced the development of Chinese leisure and tourism – how they have been lived, felt, and made sense of by Chinese people.

Keywords: leisure, tourism, China, cultural roots, social transformations

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“‘We do not know a nation until we know its pleasures of life just like we do not know a man until we know how he spends his leisure.’”
—Lin, 1962, p.304

Meanings of leisure and tourism as situated in complex social and cultural contexts have been extensively discussed by social scientists. However, far less attention has been paid to adopting a more comprehensive international perspective in the fields of leisure and tourism research. It is important to note that leisure and tourism are not immune to changes in social worlds including society’s structural and cultural patterns, such as population dynamics, technology, values, and beliefs. At the same time, social and economic policies, which vary tremendously in different countries and in different historical periods, are likely to influence the ways in which the meanings of leisure and tourism are understood among individuals and communities. In this sense, it can be argued that leisure and tourism research should be more sensitive to the fact that leisure practices in diverse social contexts can have different meanings and, therefore, need to be interpreted differently. Rather than imposing or testing Western assumptions about leisure and tourism and their relationship to their antecedents and out-
comes, it is important to discover their meanings from groups outside of the North American and Western European countries.

In the case of mainland China, the tremendous political and economic changes in recent decades have provided, in part, the conditions for the current social and cultural transformations. As one manifestation of such changes, there exists among Chinese citizens an increasing awareness of new leisure lifestyles. Due to exposure to a wider collection of cultural experiences brought in by globalization, the interest of Chinese people has turned toward the growing mass culture and entertainment. A significant proportion of the Chinese urban population has increasingly expressed interest through rising expenditure on leisure, recreation and tourism. Endowed with more discretionary income and free time, Chinese people have been eager to travel and see the outside world.

Nonetheless, the social and cultural meanings of leisure are largely left unrecognized and research on the concept of leisure is still limited in China. It is only fairly recently that leisure, as a discipline falling mainly under the research agenda of tourism, has begun to attract attention from Chinese scholars. Some Western research works on leisure, such as “The Evolution of Leisure” (Goodale & Godbey, 1998) and “Freedom To Be: A New Sociology of Leisure” (Kelly, 1987), have been translated and introduced into China. A rising number of researchers have put effort into investigating the leisure of Chinese people (e.g., Ap, 2002; Wang & Stringer, 2000; Gong, 1998; Xiao & Huyton, 1996). But on the whole, research on Chinese leisure is still at its outset. The Chinese conceptualization of leisure, the philosophical, social, and cultural backgrounds of the Chinese notion of leisure, and its impact on the leisure life are largely left unexplored. Scholarly attention given to research on leisure in China does not match the significance of the increasing demand for leisure life by the Chinese people.

In this light, the goal of this paper is to situate and construe the concepts of leisure and tourism in the specific social, cultural, and historical contexts of mainland China. Drawing insights from existing literature both within and outside of the field of leisure and tourism research, this paper aims to discuss and advance our understanding on how China’s cultural patterns and social structures have influenced the ways in which the meanings of leisure and tourism are produced, challenged, and transformed by Chinese people.

**Cultural roots of leisure and tourism in traditional Chinese philosophy**

Leisure, among the contemporary Chinese population, is referred to as “xián,” “kángxián,” “xiǎnxìa,” or “xiùxián” in Mandarin, and is greatly influenced by the traditional philosophies and religions, by Confucianism and Taoism in particular. Some researchers have argued that Confucianism has by far the most important effect on Chinese society and should serve as a starting point in the understanding of Chinese culture (e.g., Chan, 1963; Lin, 1959; Schutte & Ciarlante, 1998). In brief, Confucian doctrines place strong importance on discipline, obedience, devotion, and dutifulness (Chan, 1963). As a consequence, in contrast to the emphasis on achieving independence, autonomy, and freedom in Western culture, socially directed needs such as being accepted by others, cultivating a harmonious relationship with other people, and maintaining proper behavior according to one’s social status are considered of the highest importance in traditional Chinese society. The sense of happiness comes from fulfilling the expectations of one’s family, meeting one’s social responsibilities, self-discipline, cooperation and friendliness. Such customs, passed on for several thousand years, form a major cultural frame of mind and ideology of the Chinese people. They imply that people are not necessarily free to pursue leisure activities as they please, but should consider family or social obligations first (Ap, 2002). For instance, on the eve of the Chinese lunar New Year, celebrations often start with the family reunion dinner where every member of the family is expected to be present. Additionally, over the two-week period usually set aside for this celebration, one is expected to visit all the senior relatives in the extended family. Priority given to interpersonal relationships and social orientations, and this is believed to be one of the reasons for the fact that Chinese overseas tourists often spend a considerable amount of time shopping for gifts for their family, relatives, and colleagues (Mok & DeFranco, 1999).

Moreover, Confucianism’s emphasis on hard work and respect for learning partly explains why,
as some believe, the Chinese generally hold a negative attitude toward leisure (Schutte & Ciarlante, 1998). According to Confucianism, life is divided between work and other responsibilities, as opposed to work and leisure. For instance, in Analects, the teaching of moral cultivation through learning and education is a major theme (Chan, 1963, pp. 18–48).

1:6 Confucius said, “...When people they have any energy to spare after the performance of moral duties, they should use it to study literature and the arts.”

4:11 Confucius said, “The superior man thinks of sanctions; the inferior man thinks of personal favors.”

7:6 Confucius said, “Set your will on the Way. Have a firm grasp on virtue. Rely on humanity. Find recreation in the arts.”

8:8 Confucius said, “Let man be stimulated by poetry, established by the rules of propriety, and perfected by music.”

It is implied in these teachings that spare time should not be spent leisurely, but devoted to self-improvement through education and learning. As a result, it has been argued that Chinese people do not feel entitled to leisure, but have an underlying sense of guilt when using leisure time to satisfy their personal needs. Given this, in the view of Ap (2002), Chinese people often use learning as a justification to engage in leisure activities. For example, Ap reported that a majority of Chinese parents select toys for their children on the basis of their educational value. Wong (1996) also found that one of the most important elements that attracted people to a local theme park in Hong Kong was its educational component (cf. Ap, 2002).

Another traditional philosophy guiding the lives of Chinese people is Taoism. As Gong (1998) argued, leisure as a state of mind or as a subjective experience is more readily identifiable in the daily lives of common Chinese people due to the influence of Taoism. Compared to the teachings of Confucius that stress the cultivation of people’s moral nature, Taoism encourages people to retreat to nature, remain in harmony with nature, and live a tranquil and peaceful life. The doctrines of Taoism influence the traditional way of nourishing life, including leisure, in China (Wang & Stringer, 2000). For instance, a famous Chinese Taoist philosopher, Hsi K’ang (223–262), wrote “An essay on nourishing life” in which he stated,

Open and unrestrained is he, free from worry and care, silent and still, devoid of thought and concern. Furthermore, he maintains this state with the one and nourishes it with harmony... After this he steams himself with magic fungus, and soaks himself in sweet water from spring; dries himself off in the morning sun and soothes himself with the five strings. Without action and self-attained, his body ethereal and mine profound, he forgets happiness, and as a result his joy is complete; he leaves life behind, and as a result his person is preserved.

In the view of Gong (1998), the Taoist’s primary focus on nature establishes a strong link between Taoism and leisure. This link can be seen in Chinese people's close connection to the natural world and their peaceful and solitary lifestyles. In Taoism, nature is regarded neither as a physical manifestation of its creator, nor as a hostile opposite of the mankind (Liu, 1962). According to Taoism (Wang & Stringer, p. 38),

The mountains, formed over thousands of years, are like the kind person who is tranquil, solemn, and sober; the lively rivers are like the highly gifted sage who is quick witted, alert, resourceful; the flowers and trees on the hills and by the rivers exemplify a living, breathing, and vigorous landscape.

Based on this perception of nature, contemplation of nature can lead to individual peace, tranquility, and an understanding of the meaning of life. Taoism, therefore, encourages people to work on the improvement of their bodies, minds, and spirits by visiting the mountains, standing by the sea, walking among the trees in a park, hearing the sounds of birds, or merely smelling the flowers. As a consequence, it is a tradition for Chinese people to engage in quiet and solitary appreciation of natural beauty through which they can experience true rest and relaxation, and comprehend the harmony between their spirit and the outside world (Gong, 1998). For instance, as Yu and Berryman (1996) suggested, Chinese people show a preference for quiet, more passive activities rather than the strenuous physical exertion which seems to be popular in American mainstream. While traveling, the Chinese love to enjoy spending tranquil moments outdoors and appreciating the surrounding

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Leisure, tourism and social transformation in contemporary China

Although, as discussed above, cultural traditions have in many ways influenced Chinese leisure and tourism, the contemporary leisure and tourism experience among Chinese citizens cannot be fully understood without a reference to the changes taking place in modern Chinese society. In recent decades, China has been undergoing tremendous political, economic, social, and cultural transformations. Against this backdrop, the growing leisure and tourism phenomena in the country are closely connected with the changing particularities of people’s economic situations, education, knowledge and abilities, and also inclinations, attitudes, interests, and behaviors. Leisure and tourism, in this sense, constitute a special mode of culture as well as an important realm of everyday life in China.

Emerging leisure culture and identity considerations

As a consequence of the country’s improved economic and political situation since the introduction of the “open door” policy and economic reforms in the late 1970s, there has been a gradual shift in Chinese society toward more awareness of leisure. This quest for leisure has been reflected in increasing participation in tourism and other leisure activities.

Schell (1984), a reporter for the New Yorker who visited China in the early 1980s, observed that the notion of having “sort of fun” had attained a measure of acceptance among the Chinese. As he reported, compared to the perception of pleasure-seeking as not only frivolous, but also as a dangerous waste of time under Mao, the Chinese in the early 1980s started to dedicate themselves to “fun.” This change of attitude was related to the growing acceptance of leisure activities, such as hanging out in restaurants and coffeehouses, reading love stories and science fiction, playing pool, watching foreign films, dressing up, and indulging in courtship.

The accelerated market reforms fueled by the flow of transnational capital in the 1990s further transformed China into a significant player on the global stage. Growth in light industry, the service sector, and the private sector have fundamentally changed China’s economic and social infrastructure and transformed the country into a market-orientated economy. Globalization and the supremacy of the market economy have furthered the social changes in China. Various forms of ownership and entrepreneurship, such as foreign investment, transnational capital, joint enterprises between Chinese and foreign businesses, township enterprises, and individual entrepreneurs, have created an extremely diversified economic and social reality (Lu, 2001). As a consequence, Chinese modern culture has been described as “uneven modernity,” or a hybridization of different cultural traditions. It includes “the legacy of traditional Chinese culture (e.g., Taoism, Buddhism, and Confucianism), modern Western thought (centered on science, democracy, and humanism), Chinese Marxism, and newly introduced postmodernism” (Lu, 2001, p. 35). As Davis (2002) observed, the socialist lifestyles of the Chinese have been replaced by a transnational and global reference group. Contemporary Chinese people are facing different challenges, embracing different dreams, and pursuing different opportunities than the earlier generations (Weber, 2002).

The manifestation of social transformations can be seen in the realm of mass popular culture, including the burgeoning leisure culture in China (Wang, 2001). This leisure culture is not only an emerging phenomenon, but also one with mixed and complex realities (Chen, Clark, Gottschang, & Jeffery, 2001; Link, Madsen, & Pickowicz, 2002; Lu, 2001; Wang; Weber, 2002; Zhang, 2001).

Leisure culture in contemporary China promises a good life and fulfills the hedonistic needs of Chinese people. For many, leisure associated with ‘pleasure’ and ‘fun’ means liberation. The statistics reflect the increasing desire for leisure among Chinese citizens. In a survey conducted in 2000, 54% of the urban population indicated
that they would like to increase their expenditure on leisure, recreation, and tourism in the future (Du, Li, Qin, & Li, 2002). Such need is promoted and facilitated by a more leisure-oriented national social policy which has not only transformed the work-week to allow more time for leisure, but more importantly has supported the creation of a leisure industry including infrastructure and social structures and systems. For instance, starting in 2001 the State Physical Culture Administration has set aside the proceeds of the sports lottery as pilot funds to build nationwide recreation and physical fitness centers in large and medium-sized cities throughout the country. Outdoor fitness centers, gymnasiums and stadiums have been installed in urban communities in public parks, squares, schoolyards, and other convenient locations. City centers are renewed with a strong leisure orientation with leisure shopping developments, multi-screen cinemas and an ever expanding range of restaurants, bars and café houses.

Community leisure, which reflects and accommodates new and different play and work patterns, is mushrooming. Community resources are utilized to provide amenities that enable individuals to enjoy life and pursue happiness, and at the same time, to promote leisure-oriented social and physical environments that promote sociability among people. An increasing number of commercial recreation clubs have opened in the major cities to meet the growing demand of people with greater income and more time for leisure. Clubs for some new recreation and sport activities, such as rock climbing, bungee jumping, bowling, skateboard, golf, and social dance have become trendy among the young urban populations. Some traditional forms of recreation, for instance Yangge, a kind of folk dance accompanied by music with strongly accented rhythms, remains a popular leisure activity among the middle-aged and elderly populations in many areas of north China.

Leisure and tourism in contemporary China have also been described as a dynamic exchanging process between the global and the local (Lu, 2001). As Lu noted, Chinese people live in a new world-space of cultural production and national representation, which simultaneously becomes more globalized and more localized in everyday life. Transnational flows of capital, images, and people between China and the world open up new avenues for creating self-understanding. In this sense, the emerging new sphere of life facilitates an optimal environment for gaining of new experiences, knowledge, skills, attitudes and values, and at the same time, represents a challenge in balancing the need to change and the need to maintain stability.

For instance, leisure and tourism widen the spectrum of lifestyle alternatives and serve as a space in which people search for alternative identities. Embedded in China’s complex and rapidly changing social structure, Chinese people are involved in an on-going negotiation of self-identity, and the relationship between the individual and the social surroundings. People are exposed to a wider assortment of cultural experiences facilitated by technology, capital, people, images, and ideas from all across the world. The Internet, fax machine, telephone, and television instantly link Chinese citizens to the rest of the world and turn them into active players in the practice of “globalization.” Within a span of just three or four years, urban residents, and young adults in particular, have been exposed to a lengthy and ever-changing set of topics and leisure activities to experience and discuss. Forms of media-oriented entertainment such as Hollywood blockbusters and NBA basketball games have been directly exported to and screened in China since the mid-1990s. In everyday life, the Chinese people are exposed to a great variety of visual images – TV, video, film, billboards, and magazines (Lu, 2001). Whether it is a picture of a Western fashion model on the front cover of a magazine sold by a peddler on a street, or the representation of R Kelly’ song, “I believe I can fly”, from the Michael Jordan-Warner Brothers film Space Jam, Chinese people fashion images of themselves and the other on their map of global cultural geography. As Morris (2002) has argued, the post-socialist moment in China promises the unprecedented freedom to define one’s own individual identity, to explore the West of Michael Jordan and Nike, to see how this world could exist in their China, and to make their contributions to a strong China on their own unique terms.

On the other hand, the nature of the new avenues for self-understanding in the transition setting is contradictory. What is looming large in Chinese society are the exciting new opportunities and, at the same time, terrifying new pressures of a global market economy and the mod-
els of aspiration conveyed by a global popular culture (Link et al., 2002). The blur of global and local, old and new, as well as socialist and capitalist, makes things less clear, and the causes of happiness and unhappiness become deeper and more complex. People may be eager to enjoy the changes brought about by globalization, yet suffer from the pressures and anxieties accompanying the changes; they may be willing to embrace functional individualistic values that provide survival skills, yet still be affected by the underlying collectivist values that define how they should act. This type of duality affects Chinese people and makes them struggle to live “somewhere in between” (Weber, 2002). As a result, Chinese society is marked by an increase in anxiety and uncertainty about the outcome of the radical changes resulting from participation in the global economy and culture (Wang, 2001; Chen et al., 2001), or as Sun (2001) put it, “lost in transition” (p. 90). It has been argued that, since leisure has the sedative effect of providing “dreamers with vicarious escape,” Chinese people use it to forget about the anxiety and uncertainty in everyday life (Wang, p. 13). In addition, some leisure forms, such as popular music, have become vehicles for the common people to express a wide range of complex feelings and sentiments—lingering nostalgia for the past, discontent with the present, and disillusion with the self.

**Development of Chinese tourism and its social significance**

One of the most intriguing phenomena in the context of the fast-changing China in recent decades is the development of tourism. For many people in the country, the last decade of the 20th century was a time of increase not only in access to a variety of commercial goods and cultural products, but also in mobility. Due to the overall sound economic environment, Chinese people now have more discretionary income to travel within and out of the country for leisure purposes. Leisure travel has become a fashion of life particularly in urban areas, where income levels and standards of living are higher than in other regions of the country. It has been reported that with more discretionary money at hand, housing and traveling are the two most desired commodities among the Chinese people (Du et al., 2002).

Policies, especially at the national level, have facilitated the development of tourism infrastructure, resources, programs, and services. Tourism became an independent industry in China after the reforms and the introduction of the “open door” policy in the late-1970s. It is commonly agreed that the development of Chinese tourism in the past two decades can be divided into three distinct periods (Zhang, 1997; Zhang, Chong, & Ap, 1999). The first period was between 1978 and 1985, when the economic significance of tourism first became a major concern of the Chinese government. In the second period between 1986 and 1991, thanks to the fast growth of the national economy and the steady increase in standards of living, affluent Chinese found themselves able to afford travel and recreation expenses. Domestic tourism began to be recognized and encouraged because of its potential economic contribution and employment opportunities. During the third period from 1992 until today, the tourism industry in China has continued to develop at a dramatic rate. As reported by the China National Tourism Administration (CNTA), the number of domestic tourist arrivals reached 1.6 billion in 2007 with an overall expenditure of 770.06 billion RMB Yuan (CNTA, 2008).

More recently, motivated by critical stimuli such as joining the World Trade Organization in 2001 and hosting the Summer Olympic Games in 2008, China is expected to exceed its goal of doubling the size of the economy to $US 2 trillion in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) by 2010 (Velocci, 2001). Against this backdrop, the growth of Chinese tourism has been manifested in the fast development of the outbound travel market. Rapid economic reforms have produced a solid middle class in the major metropolitan areas and along the economically advanced coastal regions in China. With increased disposable income, Chinese citizens are eager to see the outside world and to learn about the ways of life of other people. In addition, institutional changes made by the Chinese government, such as implementing the Approved Destination Status (ADS) for organized outbound package tours in 1993, provided impetus for the rapid increase of Chinese outbound tourism. Since then, demand for outbound tourism has gradually spread from Asia to other destinations overseas. The World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) estimates the number of Chinese outbound tourists to increase from 10.47 million in 2000 to 50 million by 2010, and 100 million by 2020 (MacLeod, 2001). In recent years, the Chinese government
at various levels has been active in sponsoring overseas trips for economic, diplomatic, cultural, and educational purposes as a way to establish exchange and communication, and to participate in the globalized economy and culture.

Despite the growing scale and importance of tourism in the life of Chinese people, the social significance of Chinese tourism is yet to be documented in the academic literature. The existing studies have focused mainly on categorizing tourist motivations and profiling the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of Chinese outbound travelers (e.g., Cai, Boger, & O’Leary, 1999; Jang et al., 2003; Mok & DeFranco, 1999; Zhang & Lam, 1999). For example, Cai et al. reported that Chinese travelers to Southeast Asian countries were middle-aged, married, male, highly educated, and held managerial positions in state enterprises or foreign and joint venture businesses. Similarly, the study by Jang et al. (2003) on business travelers to the U.S. found that shopping, dining in restaurants, and sightseeing were the most popular leisure activities among Chinese business travelers. Zhang and Lam’s (1999) study of mainland Chinese visitors to Hong Kong found that the motivations of the travelers included both push (knowledge, prestige, enhancement of human relationships, relaxation, and novelty) and pull (hi-tech image, expenditure, and accessibility) factors. In Mok and DeFranco’s (1999) study, Chinese overseas travelers were found to prefer to travel in groups and to be more influenced by opinion leaders than their Western counterparts.

It can be seen from the existing literature that the view of tourism as a profitable industry and as an important service sector in the economy is still prevalent in Chinese academic circles (e.g., Cai et al., 1999; Jang et al., 2003; Xu & Kruse, 2003). As a result, Chinese travelers and tourists frequently emerge as statistics but remain curiously absent as subjects in themselves. An important issue that has not been tackled by previous discussions is how, in the era of globalization, tourism contributes to the transformation of Chinese society. Studies on such a topic could serve as a useful point of departure in gaining a critical understanding of the social significance of Chinese tourism. Tourism provides an opportunity for experiencing dual or multiple destinations and, consequently, may affect the construction, negotiation, and reproduction of people’s identities. Outbound tourism, particularly, makes possible a flow of people and information from the local to the global and provides a new social context in which tourists encounter intersecting ideas and relationships. From this perspective, tourism as a social practice has great potential to facilitate searching for alternative realities, different experiences, and new identities. Such practice might be particularly important and desirable for Chinese travelers who have been isolated from the outside world for several decades. With increased disposable income and leisure time, the Chinese are eager to see the world with their own eyes and to test, to prove, or to challenge their perceptions of the West, their home country, and themselves. Given this, the analysis of Chinese tourism should start to, and should continuously, explore how travel experiences can contribute to the way Chinese people connect to the outside world and reflect on their identity and development in the age of globalization.

**Conclusion**

Recognizing the fact that leisure and tourism in different cultural contexts can have different meanings and should be interpreted differently, this paper has discussed the meaning of leisure and tourism in China with its deep roots in traditional Chinese culture and under the impacts of dramatic social and economic transformations in recent years. In fact, China’s social structures and cultural patterns have tremendously influenced the development of Chinese leisure and tourism and the way in which the meanings of leisure and tourism are embraced, interpreted, or developed among Chinese people.

In the same light, this paper serves as a reminder that leisure and tourism are social and cultural practices that cannot be isolated from the contexts in which they are generated. As previously noted, in order to obtain a more comprehensive understanding of contemporary leisure and tourism, it is important to discover perspectives from groups outside of the mainstream North American and Western European contexts. While leisure and tourism in developing countries has begun to receive some academic interest in recent years, such studies remain isolated and limited in scope. This paper will hopefully raise the level of awareness and understanding of leisure and tourism in China and contribute to the broad objective of examining tourism and leisure from a truly international perspective.
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Generic Skills Promotion and the Influence of Participation of the Life-Wide Learning Model: 2008 Camp Adventure Youth Services Program in Hong Kong

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Abstract

Life-wide learning can be viewed as the conjunction between formal and informal education. The Camp Adventure Youth Services (CAYS) program was first launched in the 2006 summer in Hong Kong. It represents an integrated life-wide learning model of recreation and leisure services, physical activity, and language learning to accomplish the goal of improving participants’ learning. This study aimed to determine the impact of CAYS on four generic skills, namely, collaboration, communication, creativity, and problem solving. The Camp Adventure Scale (CAS) was designed to measure changes in the four generic skill areas before and after completing the CAYS program. In summer 2008 160 children (99 males and 61 females) between 9 years and 14 years from grades 3 to 8 of one secondary school (59 participants) and one primary school (101 participants) in Hong Kong participated in the study. Among the participants, 93 joined CAYS for the first time and the remaining 67 had prior experience. Participants responded to a self-administered questionnaire under the supervision of the researchers and teachers. The pairwise t-tests show that there were significant gains in participants’ collaboration, communication, creativity and problem solving competencies after the CAYS program. These findings suggest that there is potential for the promotion of generic skills in operating a recreation and leisure services program emphasizing program elements that are aligned and consistent with the educational framework found in formal school settings.

Keywords: generic skills, creativity, communication, problem-solving, life-wide learning, recreation, leisure, camp, education, Hong Kong
Introduction

Education reform had become a global phenomenon by the turn of the twenty-first century (Yu & Lau, 2006). In these reforms, the global trend is a shift from knowledge acquisition and high stake examinations to a focus on whole person development for effective participation in societies of growing complexity (Cheng & Townsend, 2000; Dale, 2000; Tsuneyoshi, 2004). Guskey and Marzano (2004) believe that education should prepare individuals not just “for a life of test” or “for the test of life”, but for both. The Hong Kong government began a systematic review of its education in 1999. In 2002, a new curriculum guide was published. The Hong Kong education reform is student-focused, and aims to enable every person to attain all-round development with the capacity of learning to learn (Education Commission, 2006). Nine generic skills have been identified as facilitating this ultimate goal (Curriculum Development Council [CDC]; 2002a).

In the reform, an all-round curriculum, which embraces both formal and informal learning, is encouraged for developing individuals into self-directed learners (Chee, 2000). The basic tenet of an all-round curriculum is that regular classroom teaching is not the only way for children’s learning (Conney, 2004; Elliot, 2007). Life-Wide Learning refers to “student learning in real contexts and authentic settings” (CDC, 2002b, p.1). Children undergo experiential learning which enables them to achieve set learning goals through integrating their learning experiences with the book knowledge they learn in classrooms (CDC, 2002b).

What is the relationship between formal and informal education? Edginton, Kowalski and Randall (2005, p 107) suggest that “... what may be more striking than the differences are the similarities between formal and informal education” (p 108). They note that ‘... formal educators are concerned with assisting youth and acquiring knowledge, skills and attitude for effective living in a democratic society and informal educators are involved in promoting life skills that encourage an awareness of self and an understanding of community life, as well as promoting democratic learning’ (p 108).

Camp Adventure is focused on providing high quality, high impact services for children and youth worldwide. The program can be viewed as one that offers developmentally appropriate leisure experiences for children and youth in an informal educational setting. In recent years, leisure has shifted its focus from an activity-oriented perspective to one in which there has been a great emphasis placed on trans-disciplinary collaboration and partnership in promoting well-being and active living through leisure (Henderson & Bialeschki, 2005). It is interesting to note that in previous studies camp activities have been found to have positive impact on social and cognitive skills of participants (Garst, 2005; Garst & Bruce, 2003; Thomas, 1996). Thurber, Scanlin, Scheuler, and Henderson (2007) undertook the first study with a national USA sample and found that there was significant improvement in positive identity, social skills, physical and thinking skills, and positive values of children at the age of 8 to 14. In addition, an early study by Dimock and Hendry (1929) identified a positive impact of camp activities upon boys’ behaviour and the effect was more pronounced for younger than for older boys.

Researchers have highlighted the importance of building confidence in generic type skills from a young age (Henderson & Bialeschki, 2005). Further, an individual’s capacity for choosing leisure may hinge on experiences during youth (Green 2002). In fact, Roberts (1999, p. 115) observed that choices of leisure habits in adult life have already been formed by young people by the age of 16. Further, Roberts and Brodie (1992, p. 39) found that although many young people have experimented with a wide range of leisure activities, most could not sustain their interest over time. Maker, Jo and Muarmmar (2008) suggest that if generic skills can be demonstrated in informal educational environments, implications for inclusion in a daily praxis of schools may be very significant.

Recreation and leisure services, including camps with educational meaning, have gained growing recognitions for influencing
child and adolescent development (Aurty & Anderson, 2007; Brannan, Arick, Fullerton & Harris, 2000; Caldwell, 2008; Sylvia & Baldwin, 2003). According to Henderson (2003), recreation and leisure have been linked with enjoyment and physical activity. Leisure-time physical activity (LTPA) has been seen as one of the most important dimensions of overall physical activity (PA) by Sallis and his co-workers (Sallis, Prochaska, & Taylor, 2000). Besides LTPA, leisure-time activities such as music, sports, drama, arts and dance have played a very important part in living and learning, emphasizing the importance of leisure in adolescents’ lives (Clemmens & Haymann, 2004).

Edginton, Wong, Chin, Chow, and Tong (2007) have previously reported that the children who participated in a camp program focusing on English language acquisition, comprehension and use, complemented with leisure-time activities in Hong Kong, perceived improvement in generic skills.

The 2008 Camp Adventure Youth Services Program in Hong Kong

Camp Adventure Youth Services is a worldwide model that integrates recreation and leisure, physical activity, sport, and generic skills in a recreational and educational program. It is headquartered at the University of Northern Iowa, USA, and is a national award-winning model, demonstrating curriculum which incorporates the principles of service learning into the experiences of individuals (Edginton, Edginton, & Lau, 2003). In summer 2008, Camp Adventure established a partnership with one primary school and the secondary section of a primary and secondary school in Hong Kong and designed a 5-day camp program specifically to assist children to experience recreation and leisure and sport activities as well as gaining communicative competency in English language.

Program theme of the Camp

The program theme focused on the topic of “Olympics” and was implemented in successive weeks from July to August 2008. Both schools used their own school sites for the camp. Three-hundred and fifty individuals participated in this residential camp program. These individuals were served by a Camp Adventure Youth Services staff of 18 counselors (1 male and 7 females), aged 19-32, including 1 director and 7 general counselors from 8 different universities in the USA.

Basic design of the Camp program

The basic program was organized as a residential camp and designed to operate five days from Monday to Friday. A wide range of activities was necessary to cater for individual diversity in needs, interests, abilities and teaching (Curriculum Development Council & Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority [CDC & HKEAA], 2007; Perez & Judson, 2007; Sturz & Kleiner, 2005). The program planned, organized, and conducted a well rounded program that engaged participants in conversational English while participating in a variety of age-appropriate sport activities, similar to a previous program offered in Guangzhou, PRC (Edginton, Yang, Edginton & Ebert, 2006).

Throughout the camp program, English language acquisition, comprehension and use were emphasized, and was the only communication medium. Wightling, Nisbet, and Tindall (2005) indicated that English language camps in China have a great potential. Education reforms require a more motivating learning environment for foreign language education (i.e. English) (Cheng, 2004; Education Commission, 2006). A learner-centered approach (Tudor, 1996; Cornelius-White, 2007; Ouzts, Taylor, & Taylor, 2003) is conducive to communicative language teaching which leads to successful language learning outcomes in both Eastern and Western countries (Garant, 1997; Caldwell, 2007). In the camp program format, the freely chosen English club activities included reading, writing, and different games led by American counselors.

The impact of Camp Adventure on generic skills

In 2000, the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (HKSAR) endorsed the recommendations of the education reform program submitted by the Education Commission. The
guiding principle of the education reform program aims to “enable our students to have all-round development as well as attitude and ability for life-long learning” (Curriculum Development Council [CDC], 2001, p.1). In this study, a modified linkage of Camp Adventure Youth Services program with the four subscales of generic skills (collaboration skills, communication skills, creativity skills, and problem-solving skills) was used.

Collaboration skills and the Camp program

Collaboration can be thought of as people working jointly on tasks in order to solve a problem or achieve a common goal (Friend & Cook, 2007; Helle, Tynjälä, & Oikinuoora, 2006). Bennet (2004) has demonstrated that authentic experience helps learners to develop skills in real-world collaboration. According to Jeffs and Banister (2006), teachers believe that collaboration is a significant and important aspect of the educational process as individuals will eventually need to interact with people in society. Children learn to work together cooperatively through purposeful and direct teaching of collaboration as an academic skill (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). Collaboration skills can be developed through interaction with others by either sharing one’s personal lifestyle or designing an end product or goal (Panitz, 1997). Very often, collaborative teaching is carried out in small groups (Lou, Abrami, & Apollonia, 2001). In a study by Gillies and Ashman (1996), individuals who attended specific collaborative training engaged in more cooperative behavior and less non-cooperative behavior than individuals who did not attend.

Different purposive group games at Camp Adventure (i.e. large and small group games) provided a platform for participants to interact with others. During the “weekly trip visit” program format, participants shared their daily life experience with others; especially their cultural views with the American counselors. Tasks were designed to incorporate components of cooperation, and students were encouraged to lead, share, and listen to one another (Ballantine & Larres, 2007). Most importantly, trained counselors provided guidance to students to cooperate and to challenge the task provided. Cooperation requires members to be self-regulated. Group games advance self-regulation in providing practice in calming oneself when excited, waiting, and keeping a secret (Torbert, 2005).

Communication skills and the Camp program

Communication is a dynamic and ongoing process among two or more people to convey messages, discuss issues, exchange ideas, share information, or engage in social conversation. Effective communication is not achieved until and unless people have shared their information and others see the information the same way (Barker, 2006). The development of such skills is particularly important during adolescence (Parker, Rubin, Erath, Woslawowics, & Buskirk, 2006; Spence, Donovan, & Brechman-Toussaint, 1999). Researchers believe that communication skills are best taught through realistic practice and such skills take time to develop (Kelly, 2007).

Group games foster listening skills. Listening involves differentiating the relevant and irrelevant sounds; besides, during conversations individuals have to avoid auditory distractions (Torbert, 2005). Play helps children to express ideas and negotiate with peers, learn what is acceptable language and behavior in the culture, learn to share, compromise, respond to others, and make friends (Davis, Larkin, & Graves, 2002).

Communication skills, both receiving and expressing feelings and ideas, were required for successful participation in many camp activities. Children were provided with numerous opportunities to develop their communication skills through the purposive learning environment.

Creativity skills and the Camp program

Creativity is sought and needed by individuals, communities and nations as well as in business and commercial enterprises, non-governmental organizations and government agencies to adjust and survive to a rapidly changing and increasingly competitive world (Langrehr, 2007; Yu, 2004). Sternberg (2006) believes that creativity is an attitude-decision
This means that creativity can be developed if people are willing to contribute up-front time to think in new ways creatively or simply think in novel ways.

Csikszentmihalyi and Wolfe (2000) have suggested that creativity is hard to teach in a classroom, but may be developed through the creation of other learning environments either in school or out of school (Sak & Maker, 2006). Ireland (2006) offers a similar idea suggesting that one of the best outlets for student creativity is to be found outside the classroom. The Camp Adventure Youth Services program provided many activities outside the classroom, such as swimming, field games, etc.

Recreation and leisure activities can enhance, enrich, and sustain people’s lives in meaningful, creative, and positive ways (Edginton, 1994; World Leisure Commission on Education, 2001). Participating in recreation and leisure services may contribute to developing a life-long creative thinking style. Very young children have a natural, untaught ability to create and invent flexibly through their play, because they are not afraid to take risks or respond in ways that adults may consider wrong (Langrehr, 2007). The camp is designed to develop a unique learning environment for children. During the camp, counselors set up imagines of sculpture, graphics, or any visible objects. Children can touch and feel the real environment of the designed themes. If participants help to plan, pack, and ready the things that need to be decorated, they will also create a sense of ownership while enjoying the hands-on activities (Roberts, 2004).

**Problem-solving skills and the Camp program**

Problem-solving involves using thinking skills to solve a challenge (CDC, 2002c). Summarizing the ideas of Adair (2007) and Hicks (2004), problem-solving is assembled by five levels of competence: 1) awareness of recognizing problems; 2) understanding of self-strengths and weaknesses; 3) skill in asking for assistance; 4) generating ideas and solutions; and 5) selecting the best choice and implementing it. When viewing English language acquisition, comprehension and use through-out the camp as an example, the counselors’ feedback helped to develop participants’ awareness of their communication needs (i.e. second language) and their understanding of their strengths and weaknesses in English usage. Games are actually sets of problems and humans enjoy solving problems. However, problems as obstacles or difficulties are only the result of actions taken during participation in a game type situation (Adair, 2007). In the camp, the participants had freedom to choose their activities, as one of the primary philosophical tenets of Camp Adventure is that of providing opportunities for participants to choose freely within the structure of the community.

Did the Camp Adventure Youth Services program have any impact on the generic competencies of students? Were there gender differences in the generic competencies? Were there level (primary vs. secondary) differences in the generic competencies? Were there differences between students with/without previous Camp Adventure Youth Services program experience in the generic competencies?

**Methods**

**Study Design**

The present study had a quasi-experimental pre-test/post-test research design using questionnaires and focus group interviews to examine potential influences of the 2008 Camp Adventure on participants’ learning in terms of four generic skills – collaboration skills, communication skills, creativity, and problem-solving skills. Among the four week-long programs, three out of four weeks were selected for this study. One week was excluded because of an incomplete program due to bad weather. Participants took part voluntarily with informed parental consent. Researchers followed the ethics protocols of the Hong Kong Institute of Education. All data were collected on the 4th day at each camp.

**Participants**

The sample in this study consisted of 160 participants (99 males and 61 females) between 9 and 14 from grades 3 to 8. Among
the participants, 93 joined the Camp Adventure program for the first time and the remaining 67 already had prior experience.

**Data collection instrument: Camp Adventure Scale (CAS)**

The Camp Adventure Scale (CAS) is a self-administered questionnaire designed to measure change in generic competencies before and after the Camp Adventure program. The CAS was constructed to measure the four constructs of collaboration, communication, creativity, and problem-solving in relation to activities in Camp Adventure. For each of these constructs, initially effort was spent reviewing existing measurement tools, with a focus on instruments which had been used on camp events for late primary students (primary 4 to primary 6) and early secondary students (secondary 1 to secondary 3) in Hong Kong or the Asia Pacific Region. The search did not locate any valid or reliable tools that met this study’s specifications. Consequently, a new questionnaire was developed by the researchers. In the development of the new questionnaire, a number of questions were asked: (1) How are collaboration, communication, creativity, and problem-solving defined in the literature? (2) Are these definitions relevant to the current study? (3) What are the observable behaviors that reflect strong collaboration skills and what are the observable behaviors that reflect weak collaboration skills? The same question was asked of communication, creativity and problem-solving skills. (4) How representative are these observable behaviors for the underlying construct? After deriving a list of observable behaviors for each of the underlying constructs, the team translated these into items for the scales. In this process, the research team continued to ask the following questions: (5) Does each item cover only one concept or more than one concept? Under such circumstances, the item was split into two. (6) What are the priorities of the items in measuring the constructs? (7) Will young children understand the meaning conveyed in the items? (8) Will young children be able to complete the questionnaire in 30-40 minutes? This process was repeated in several iterations until a next-to-final version resulted. Following this, the questionnaire was offered to several teacher-educators for comments on its suitability. Also, the version was shared with counselors of Camp Adventure before actual administration to the participants. The final version of CAS included a section requesting background information (name, class, class identity number, gender) of the student.

The CAS is made up of 32 Likert-type 5-point items. Each construct was measured by eight items. The response scale was a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from High (coded 5), Mid (coded 3) to Low (coded 1). The measurement instrument was offered as a self-administered questionnaire. The validity and reliability of the CAS have been reported in an earlier study (Chin, Mok, Chow, Edginton, Wong & Tang, 2008). The results of confirmatory factor analyses on the data show that the factor solution conforms to the proposed structure of the CAS scale. The fit indices of the factor solution are acceptable (GFI = 0.877, AGFI = 0.855, NFI = 0.857, and NNFI = 0.917). All four scales had Cronbach’s Alpha of values 0.80 or above, suggesting that the four scales are internally consistent (Chin, Mok, Chow, Edginton, Wong & Tang, 2008).

**Procedures**

On the relevant days at each camp, all participants were divided into groups in a common room. Researchers briefed participants on the purpose of the study and distributed the CAS questionnaire with an explanation on methods of completion. Each group was supervised by counselors of Camp Adventure and school teachers. All participants completed the questionnaires in 30 minutes.

**Data analysis**

The following analyses were used to address the research questions:

Pair-wise t-tests on scale scores before and after the Camp Adventure were used to determine if there were changes in the generic competencies of participants.

Independent t-tests on male and female students’ generic competencies were used to examine if there were gender differences in the generic competencies.
Independent t-tests on primary and secondary students’ generic competencies were used to examine if there were education level (primary or secondary) differences in the generic competencies.

Independent t-tests on students with/without previous Camp Adventure experience in their generic competencies were used to examine if there were differences.

### Results

**The Effect of Camp Adventure Youth Services Program on Generic Skills**

All four pairwise t-tests were statistically significant ($p < .001$; Table 1). The pair-wise t-tests show that there were significant gains in participants’ collaboration, communication, creativity, and problem solving competencies.

### Table 1. Pair-wise t-test on Scale Scores Before and After the Camp Adventure™ Youth Services Program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale (Generic Competencies)</th>
<th>Mean Before CAYS</th>
<th>SD Before CAYS</th>
<th>Mean After CAYS</th>
<th>SD After CAYS</th>
<th>Correl. b/w Before &amp; After CAYS</th>
<th>Pairwise t-value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Eta-Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>16.19</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>16.21</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>14.83</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem-solving</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>16.04</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Scatter Plots on All Four Generic Competencies Before and After Camp Adventure
after Camp Adventure. Following recommended methods for correlated designs by Dunlop, Cortina, Vaslow, and Burke (1996), the effect size for the change from pre-test to post-test was 1.24, and effect sizes for communication, creativity and problem-solving were, respectively, 1.08, 0.86 and 1.01 (Table 1). According to Cohen (1988, pp. 21-23), effect size can be interpreted in terms of percentage of non-overlap between the two groups under comparison. Using Cohen’s standard, the effect sizes of differences between students’ generic skills before and after the camp are very large, suggesting significant impacts of Camp Adventure on the generic skills.

In order to provide a graphical indication of the impact of Camp Adventure on the generic skills of participants, ordered pairs of scale values of each generic skill were plotted on scatter plots with the horizontal axis and vertical axis representing generic skills before and after the camp respectively (Figure 1). A 45-degree line was drawn on the same scatter plot. Dots above the 45-degree line represent enhancement in the generic skill. Dots below the line represent regression and those on the line represent no change. The scatter plots in Figure 1 show that the majority of dots are above the 45-degree lines, suggesting that there was progress for most participants in all four generic skills after Camp Adventure.

**Differences between groups before and after the camp**

a. Gender

Independent t-tests of male and female participants’ generic skills before Camp Adventure found no significant gender difference (Table 2). Post-camp t-tests did not identify

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale (Generic Competencies)</th>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>Within gender group</td>
<td>262.93</td>
<td>1, 170</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.607</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Between gender group</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>1, 170</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>0.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time x gender group</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>1, 170</td>
<td>0.180</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Within gender group</td>
<td>270.87</td>
<td>1, 171</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Between gender group</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>1, 171</td>
<td>0.786</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time x gender group</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>1, 171</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>0.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>Within gender group</td>
<td>223.15</td>
<td>1, 172</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Between gender group</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>1, 172</td>
<td>0.827</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time x gender group</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>1, 172</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>0.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Solving</td>
<td>Within gender group</td>
<td>257.19</td>
<td>1, 165</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.609</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Between gender group</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>1, 165</td>
<td>0.874</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time x gender group</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>1, 165</td>
<td>0.196</td>
<td>0.010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
any significant gender difference with only one exception. The exception was female students reported higher collaboration competence after Camp Adventure (Table 2), which had a moderate effect size of 0.43.

Repeated measures of analysis of variance using occasion (pre-test/post-test) as a source of within-subject effect and gender (male/female) as a source of between-subject effect found no significant interaction effect between occasion and gender, nor any significant gender main effect, for any of the generic skills. There was, however, a significant occasion effect for all of the generic skills (Table 3). Effect sizes of change in generic skills from before to after Camp Adventure after controlling for gender effect ranged from 0.565 in creativity to 0.613 in communication (Table 3), which indicates about 33% to 38% of non-overlap between the distribution of generic skills before and after the camp, after controlling for gender differences. These results show that there was significant gain in all generic competencies for both males and females from before to after Camp Adventure.

b. School level

Independent t-tests of primary and secondary students’ generic skills before the program found no difference between primary and secondary students. Nevertheless, independent t-tests on post-test data found that there was a significant difference between primary and secondary students’ generic skills after Camp Adventure. Primary students had on average better generic skills than secondary students (Table 4). In fact, effect sizes of differences between primary and secondary students be-

### Table 4. Differences in Generic Competencies Between Primary and Secondary Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale (Generic Competencies)</th>
<th>Occasion</th>
<th>Primary Students</th>
<th>Secondary Students</th>
<th>Independent t-value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Eta- Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>Before CAYS</td>
<td>3.19 (0.79)</td>
<td>3.33 (0.51)</td>
<td>-1.34</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After CAYS</td>
<td>4.19 (0.58)</td>
<td>3.81 (0.48)</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Before CAYS</td>
<td>3.33 (0.76)</td>
<td>3.23 (0.52)</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After CAYS</td>
<td>4.19 (0.60)</td>
<td>3.66 (0.50)</td>
<td>6.03</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>Before CAYS</td>
<td>3.19 (0.86)</td>
<td>3.01 (0.62)</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After CAYS</td>
<td>4.02 (0.74)</td>
<td>3.43 (0.68)</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem-solving</td>
<td>Before CAYS</td>
<td>3.28 (0.86)</td>
<td>3.12 (0.53)</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After CAYS</td>
<td>4.14 (0.70)</td>
<td>3.64 (0.52)</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 5. Results of Within and Between School-Level Group Effects for Repeated Measures, ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale (Generic Competencies)</th>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>Within School-level group</td>
<td>248.76</td>
<td>1, 170</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between School-level group</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>1, 170</td>
<td>0.147</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time x School-level group</td>
<td>30.75</td>
<td>1, 170</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.153</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Within School-level group</td>
<td>244.24</td>
<td>1, 171</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.588</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between School-level group</td>
<td>12.32</td>
<td>1, 171</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time x School-level group</td>
<td>25.08</td>
<td>1, 171</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.128</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>Within School-level group</td>
<td>196.26</td>
<td>1, 172</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.533</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between School-level group</td>
<td>12.85</td>
<td>1, 172</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time x School-level group</td>
<td>22.04</td>
<td>1, 172</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.114</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Solving</td>
<td>Within School-level group</td>
<td>234.33</td>
<td>1, 165</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.587</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between School-level group</td>
<td>11.16</td>
<td>1, 165</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time x School-level group</td>
<td>12.76</td>
<td>1, 165</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results of the within-subject effect and school-level effect found a significant interaction effect between occasion and school-level. This suggests that although younger and older students gained differentially from the camp, the main source of the difference between primary and secondary students at post-test was because of the 2008 camp program.

c. Camp Adventure past experience

There was no significant difference between students with or without previous Camp Adventure experience in generic competencies either before or after the program (Table 6).

Table 6. Differences in Generic Competencies Between Participants With and Without CAYS Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale (Generic Competencies)</th>
<th>Occasion</th>
<th>With CAYS Experience</th>
<th>Without CAYS Experience</th>
<th>Independent t-value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Eta-Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>Before CAYS</td>
<td>3.29 0.63</td>
<td>3.21 0.75</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After CAYS</td>
<td>4.13 0.56</td>
<td>4.00 0.59</td>
<td>-0.81</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Before CAYS</td>
<td>3.24 0.60</td>
<td>3.32 0.73</td>
<td>-0.51</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After CAYS</td>
<td>3.96 0.60</td>
<td>4.01 0.63</td>
<td>-0.81</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>Before CAYS</td>
<td>3.13 0.70</td>
<td>3.12 0.84</td>
<td>-0.81</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After CAYS</td>
<td>3.77 0.71</td>
<td>3.82 0.82</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem-solving</td>
<td>Before CAYS</td>
<td>3.29 0.67</td>
<td>3.17 0.81</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After CAYS</td>
<td>4.00 0.62</td>
<td>3.91 0.72</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7. Results of Within and Between With and Without-CAYS-Experience Group Effects for Repeated Measures ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale (Generic Competencies)</th>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>Within Experience group</td>
<td>254.41</td>
<td>1, 170</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Between Experience group</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>1, 170</td>
<td>0.213</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time x Experience group</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>1, 170</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Within Experience group</td>
<td>252.99</td>
<td>1, 171</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Between Experience group</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>1, 171</td>
<td>0.397</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time x Experience group</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>1, 171</td>
<td>0.846</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>Within Experience group</td>
<td>206.86</td>
<td>1, 172</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Between Experience group</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>1, 172</td>
<td>0.919</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time x Experience group</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>1, 172</td>
<td>0.465</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Solving</td>
<td>Within Experience group</td>
<td>242.36</td>
<td>1, 165</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Between Experience group</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1, 165</td>
<td>0.250</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time x Experience group</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>1, 165</td>
<td>0.712</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Repeated measures of analysis of variance using occasion (pre-test/post-test) as a source of within-subject effect and with or without previous experience in Camp Adventure as a source of between-subject effect did not find any significant interaction effect between occasion and experience, nor any significant experience main effect (Table 7). There were, however, significant within-subject effects in all generic skills (Table 7). These results suggest that previous experience in Camp Adventure did not affect students’ generic skills. Previous experience did not interact with the camp to have different effects on students’ learning of generic skills either. Nevertheless, even after controlling for previous Camp Adventure experience, the camp had impacted positively on students’ generic skills.

Discussion

According to the results, the Camp Adventure is a well-designed set of education-oriented recreation and leisure activities to prepare children facing a challenging society. It helps children to develop life skills, as we call generic competencies, namely collaboration skills, communication skills, creativity skills, and problem-solving skills. A very clear finding is that the four generic competencies are developed (i.e. collaboration skills: Panitz, 1997; Torbert, 2005, communication skills: Torbert, 2005; Kelly, 2007, creativity skills: Csikszentmihalyi & Wolfe, 2000, and problem-solving skills: Sarama & Clements, 2007). This following discussion summarizes the main possible reasons that enabled this program to succeed. In addition, this section further explains why schools, and recreation and leisure sectors, need to cooperate in terms of life-wide learning.

Individual appropriateness

The key finding of this investigation is that the school-based recreation and leisure service program had a positive influence on the selected generic skills for all participants regardless of gender, school level, and specific camp experience. Most of the participants had gained in their generic competencies from before to after the camp.

Age-appropriateness

The basic requirement of any program design is age-appropriateness (Koch, 2007). Programs have to be designed by identifying differences in needs and skills between various age groups on social, emotional, intellectual, and physical needs, therefore providing appropriate activities. Camp Adventure applies standards established by the National After School Association (NAA). These standards provide basic guidelines in the areas of human relations, indoor/outdoor environment, activities, safety, health and nutrition, and administration (Edginton, Edginton, & Lau, 2003). The participants in different weeks attended camps with the same theme, but the program team decided specific adjustments for each group of participants. Therefore, the children would have different particular experiences according to their development stages.

Gender appropriateness

Generally, gender is a strong predictor of participation in “active” pursuits (Barnett, 2006). Males and females have different patterns of activity (Schmalz & Kerstetter, 2006), so young men and young women might learn different social skills (Meece & Daniels, 2008). However, in this study, there was no significant difference between males and females before or after the camp. Male and female participants were similar comparing their generic competencies before and after the camp and there was significant gain in all generic competencies for both genders.

Group activities stimulate child development

The Camp Adventure“ Youth Services program is constructed to include numerous group activities. These group activities are not just games, but also a present sets of challenges and problems. Problems are similar to games, because games are actually sets of difficulties, and humans enjoy solving problems (Adair, 2007). Different types of games, such as large/small group games and high/low activity (intensity) games create different levels and varieties of challenges to the participants. Participants with different intentions had the right to select the most appropriate activities in the program format known as “clubs”. Ac-
According to the literature, group games can promote children’s learning in collaboration and creativity skills (Jeffs & Banister, 2006), self-regulation and listening skills (Torbert, 2005), communication skills (Kelly, 2007) and problem-solving skills (Robinson, 2002; Sullivan, 2006; Wilson, 2000).

Conclusion
The 2008 Camp Adventure program in Hong Kong demonstrates an integrated model of recreation and leisure services, and education, with partnerships with one primary school and the secondary section of a primary and secondary school. The program cross-links the formal and informal curriculum to develop four generic skills; collaboration skills, communication skills, creativity skills, and problem-solving skills. The results of this study have established significant learning during the program on the selected generic competencies. Further study is encouraged to measure what specific types or designs of activities influence the related generic competencies, such as the number of group members and game intensity.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
The research team would like to express their sincere gratitude toward the Principals, teachers and students from STW Baptist Lui Ming Choi Primary School and from Hong Kong Baptist University Affiliated School Wong Kam Fai Secondary and Primary School for their support to this investigation. We also thank Dr. Roger Coles for his editorial assistance.

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Leisure and tourism in Sweden: A Challenge for All Actors

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Abstract
This paper describes and analyses decisions and goals of Swedish government policy with respect to leisure and free time from 1962 to 2005. This paper clarifies the areas and needs that have been considered important priorities, which principles for the organisation of the leisure field the authorities have followed, and the actors who have been made responsible. The method used is an analysis of papers issued by the government relating to sports, culture, exercise, tourism, and also health care. This paper highlights still ongoing changes that have been occurring in the Swedish leisure sector since the 1960s. Based on current trends, it is likely that there will be less traditional political influence over the leisure and tourism sector in the future. A political aim for Sweden in the future is that it should be a highly attractive tourist destination. It is argued that to achieve this aim it will be necessary to aggregate official resources with those of different levels of government, and with the capabilities of the commercial and voluntary sectors.

Keywords: leisure, tourism, Sweden, governance, officials

Introduction
Tourism has become more important in Sweden as well as in other Scandinavian countries (NUTEK, 2007; 2008). In marketing tourism, travellers are encouraged to come and see the amazing Northern Lights, experience traditional Sami Culture, go for a snowmobile trip in the dark Lapland nights or meet King Winter. Tourism is a cross-cutting sector involving diverse services and professions linked to many other economic activities and policy areas. In the European Union (EU) there is cooperation between countries that has resulted in common guidelines for tourism. The contribution of this paper is to add to knowledge about the intentions of the Swedish authorities regarding the fields of leisure and tourism. The evidence is from papers issued by the government (propositions and reports from government investigations). This paper will clarify the areas and needs that have been considered priorities, which principles for the organisation of the leisure field the authorities have laid out, and which actors have been made responsible for their implementation.

Apart from tourism, two other concepts in this article are central – leisure and free time. There are a lot of definitions of leisure and free time (Torkildsen 2003; Kelly, 1982; Horna, 1994; Gratton & Taylor, 2000). In this study, leisure is a social construction that varies historically (Bjurström, 1998; Lindström, 2006). The relationship between leisure and tourism needs a further discussion. The United Nations definition of tourism is, “Tourism encompasses people’s activities when they travel to and stay at a place outside of their daily environments for a shorter time than one year,
whether for leisure, business or other purposes... The main purpose of the visit can, for example, be leisure, recreation and holidays” (www.NUTEK.se).

Sweden’s tourism industry is more important than ever. The turnover from Swedish tourism has increased and in 2005 amounted to nearly 10 percent of GDP, almost 191 billion Swedish crowns. Leisure travellers accounted for 46 percent, Swedish business travellers 21 percent, and travellers from abroad 32 percent (NUTEK, 2007; Nordin, 2005). A government proposal (2004/05:56) identifies areas of tourism that are labelled as dynamic. These are tourism in big cities, eco-tourism, sustainable tourism, cultural tourism, and culture heritage tourism. Tourism in the countryside is mentioned as including gastronomy, fishing, hunting and horse riding. The proposal mentions finding new markets for tourism. The wider leisure sector, for example sports and games, has also witnessed tremendous expansion between 1960 and the present. People’s possibilities to have free time have made it possible to develop tourism as an industry. In 1930 the first vacation law was legislated by the Swedish parliament and we became entitled to two weeks holiday. In 1970 there was a new working hours code whereby 40 hours per week became the normal schedule. The next law regulating holidays came in 1977 and we became entitled to five weeks holiday. We had more leisure time and there were more leisure activities, and so it was possible to see the beginnings of the leisure and tourism industry (Mattsson, 1986; Hall, 1976; Eskilsson, 2000). The 1930s became in many ways a benchmark for trends in leisure time and activities. In 1933 the Swedish tourism organisation was established (Mattsson, 1986; Eskilsson, 2000; 2000:1; Åberg, 2002). Four years after that, in 1937 the folk movement’s travellers organisation (RESO) was created. Now there were possibilities for workers to rest from work and to revive in other surroundings (Eskilsson, 2000; Aléx & Hjelm, 2000; Berggren, 2000; Olson, 1997; Olson, 1999; SOU, 1996:3).

Investigations carried out by the Swedish Environmental Protection Agency show that walks in nature and forests, swimming in lakes, picking berries and mushrooms, and also skiing are among the most popular leisure activities. Interest in walking, canoe trips and fishing, all relatively affordable activities which do not require a lot of time or special equipment, have also increased during the last few years and make attractive destinations for tourists. Recreational experiences of various kinds such as events, concerts, festivals and travelling, all play an important part in Swedish people’s lives today, and for travellers also. Public and private sector investments in the tourism, recreation and adventure industries are expected to contribute to economic growth (Svenska Kommunförbundet, 2004, 2001; Proposition, 2002/03:35, Proposition, 2004/05:56).

In all areas in the fields of leisure and tourism, the private sector which is led by companies, economic associations, foundations and many small businesses has expanded its involvement during the last 10 years. Whereas earlier the state controlled almost all parts of the value chain, it is now possible to distinguish between different producers, arrangers and financiers of leisure services and tourism. There are political debates in Sweden about the ideal way of steering, official or private, and about forms of steering, democratic/bureaucratic and market/civic society. In Sweden local councils nowadays are developing destinations for tourists. They have adopted strategic plans for growth and they have offices that service both tourists and locals, and their ambitions include helping tourism entrepreneurs to become established. There are differences of opinion between, on the one hand, those who recommend the high value of almost equal access to services and welfare, often through collective solutions. On the other hand, there is the opposite ideal that prizes variety and argues that having different providers will be the best way to increase the levels of leisure services and tourism (Premfors, Ehn, Haldén & Sundström, 2003; Molander & Stigmark, 2005, Lindström, 2006; Visit Sweden, 2008).

To sum up, we can say that tourists use and visit facilities that sometimes are owned or
managed by the state or local authorities. These facilities are sometimes used for leisure by locals and also tourists. That means that a leisure facility, at the same time, can be a tourist attraction and a facility for locals. For example, either may visit a national park, a theatre or a world heritage site. In this paper the two guiding ideals for leisure and tourism set a framework for the analysis.

**Purpose**

The main purpose of this paper is to describe and analyse decisions and goals of Swedish government policy with respect to leisure and free time during the period 1962 to 2005. In doing this, the paper contributes to knowledge about the intentions that the authorities have expressed regarding the tourism and leisure fields. It is about how access to these fields is expressed in documents. The documents are state propositions, governmental investigations, and other papers issued by the government. The material refers to the broad leisure sector from 1962 until 2005. The fields are sports, culture, exercise, tourism and also recreation and health care. The following documents were studied: Leisure Commission Investigation, SOU (1964:47; 1965:19; 1966:33), Sports for Everyone, SOU (1969:29), Governmental Culture Policies, Proposition (1974:28), Leisure in Change, SOU (1996:3), Culture Policies, Proposition (1996/97:3), Sports and Exercise for Your Life, SOU (1998:76), Sports Policies for the Year 2000, Proposition (1998:99:107), Government Support for Outdoor Life, Written Paper, Ds (1999:78), Goals for People’s Health, Proposition (2002/03:35), and finally, Long Range Planning for a Competitive Swedish Tourism Industry, Proposition (2004/05:56).

Three principle questions are addressed:

- What are the goals, values and intentions of the government as highlighted in official documents?
- What models and ideas of governance are used by the government?
- What issues, actors, demographic aspects, forms of organisations and institutions are highlighted in official documents?

There is an apprehension in Sweden, as elsewhere, that politicians should not govern individuals’ choices of leisure activities, meaning that the state should support only what is free and voluntary in people’s free time. The Instrument of Government, Chapter 1 (www.regeringen.se), states that leisure activities can be considered as a human democratic right which should include all citizens, and Henry (2001) would agree. The authorities invest public funds in organisations, buildings and other arrangements (www.regeringen.se). An interesting question is whether leisure should be a responsibility of the official sector or if it should be basically a private matter, and on what grounds can one argue for the first or second position? An ambition here is to shed light on these questions through a critical study of the official documents.

In the investigation textual analysis is used as a method to scrutinise structures and formulations of the texts. A focus has been to ask who is expressing himself/herself in the text, who the author is addressing, in which situation is the author is directing the text and how is the text adapted to the situation? In the analysis of the documents we shall try to find out what reason a text gives for a particular opinion and how the reasons strengthen or weaken one another. Changes in attitude as regards which things are valued and represented are identified, along with what the text expresses and the intentions that are mediated. An intention has been to find models, concepts, words and arguments showing different opinions. Different groups have been studied, different main areas and actors who have been given priority by the state. To sum up, the method and the research questions place this study in the qualitative sphere. The ontological and theoretical basis of the study is constructivism. The main theoretical concepts are derived from and developed in interaction between the empirical data and the theories (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 1994; Betti, 1980; Ricoeur, 1988; Gadamer, 1997; Gilje & Grimen, 1992; Bergström & Boréus, 2000; Hellspong, 2001; Holmberg & Lindholm, 1995).
goals, values and intentions of the Swedish government

Research indicates that up to the late-1970s Swedish political culture was pervaded by a strong belief in planning and central government. These views were challenged ideologically and changed during 1980s. Thereafter, the private sector, led by economic associations, foundations and many businesses has expanded its involvement in leisure. Local influence, decentralisation and freedom of choice have replaced centralism and big scale solutions (Lindström, 2006).

This study has found that Swedish governments from the 1960s onwards placed a heavy moral responsibility most of all on organisations in athletics and other sports. However, the present research indicates a change in definition of the sector. Initially in the 1970s, the primary focus of the government was in the area of sports. In this study the focus is seen to have expanded to also include culture, outdoor education, health and recreation, and tourism. Our local authorities are requested to undertake leisure investigations so that the government can pave the way for meeting not only citizens’ needs, but also the expectations of tourism and leisure businesses. In the documents, it is clearly seen that athletics, sports and games used to have a mission as fostering citizens. That was very clear until the 1980s, but it has not been stressed subsequently. We can see additional values being placed on organisations in the fields of games, sports and athletics: for example, clean games, activities free from doping, and ideas about organisations in sports working to promote integration throughout society.

Management by objectives in dialogue with citizens and their representatives is developed, and new framework laws were introduced during 1980s. Equality appeared on the agenda. This research also shows that environmental and social issues are now being considered as important influences in the leisure sector. For example, in the years between 1996 and 2005, one sees concepts such as sustainable development, sustainable growth, green work and green rehabilitation appearing in official documents. However, throughout the documentation there is still a high priority on the government ensuring the well-being of its citizens. A consequence for tourism is an awareness that attractions for travellers can be more or less accessible depending on how well-developed they are for people with functional limitations (Lindström, 2006, Proposition, 2002/03:35; Proposition, 2004/05:56).

If we look upon leisure and tourism in a historical perspective, we see that the stance of policy has been increasingly to promote innovations. Tourism has changed its character. Travel and tourism at the beginning of the 1900s had folk movements as instigating actors. After the 1930s social aspects were taken into consideration and state efforts focused on the balance between leisure and work. During the 1960s a high rate of expansion was seen in communications, and areas for building country homes were designated and boat harbours were built. Then, during the last 20 years, consumers have come centre stage in ideas about travelling and leisure. Leisure travellers have become the focus for tourism as an industry, both national and international. The marketing of Sweden as a tourist destination is now seen at all levels of our society – national, regional and local.

Government Proposition 2004/05:56 sees it as a problem that the field of tourism is now lacking a clear Swedish terminology. Different terms are used synonymously: for example, tourism industry and visitor industry. “A standard set of concepts is important when information and knowledge about an industry are to be analysed, broadcast and interpreted” (Proposition, 2004/05:56, p. 19). “The most typical example is the terms tourist and leisure traveller, which in modern terminology can mean a broader group of travellers including business travellers” (Proposition, 2004/05:56, p.19).

The Swedish state is the owner and administrator of museums, theatres, national parks, and facilities for sports and culture. Cooperation in strong networks, and collaboration in
development and planning are important for developing the leisure and tourism sectors. This means that the role of the state has to become stronger though with unclear responsibilities between regional and local authorities. It also means that the state has to have a mission as a united force in a disunited industry. An example is the increasingly commercial use of nature for wildlife being at risk in conflicts between tourism entrepreneurs and the use of land for reindeer herding, fishing and hunting.

A political aim is for Sweden in the future to be a highly attractive destination as a country that is interesting for tourists and leisure recreation. To achieve that aim it will be necessary to mobilise aggregated official resources at different levels and in different sectors. So far more than 200 million Swedish crowns have been assigned in extra subventions for the sector between 1996 and 2002 (NUTEK, 2007; Qvist, 2005; Nordin, 2005). Government proposition 2004/05:56 states that “…for the society to be able to promote industries that have interests in tourism, cooperation and collaboration between the state, and also between states, local councils and other actors will be necessary” (p. 49). In this proposition (2004/05:56) new possibilities are envisaged with services on the internet for tourism. There is a need to have correct information at the right time for customers, and for marketing and distribution, and even during the creation of the product itself. The government expresses its interest in supporting fixed as well as mobile connections for covering different needs within leisure and tourism.

This highlights the ongoing changes that have been occurring in the Swedish leisure field since the 1960s. Several trends can be identified, but the most important are the decentralisation and commercialisation of the leisure and tourism sectors. Based on current trends, it is likely that there will be less traditional political influence over the leisure and tourism sectors in the future.

Models and ideas of governance

From the research it seems as if the government wants to centralise activities while, at the same time, using a model of management by objectives and results, and a decentralised organisation. The parliament sometimes enacts new laws, and creates new authorities to supervise and creates new organisations with special goals and aims. An example of this is when applying to become a World Heritage site, or establishing new nature reserves and national parks. The government steers by its aims and creates statistics and key codes for the activities. It is also responsible for following-up and evaluating the activities. The state is the owner of the infrastructure in buildings and communication. As an owner, the government is responsible for roads, airports, official buildings and establishments for tourism and leisure activities, so it can ensure that sports, events, festivals and culture are services of good quality and have a high level of service. A critical factor for tourism development in the future will be how well this is coordinated in the fulfillment of aims in strategic plans for tourism.

In all documents it is obvious that what the government has been most interested in during the whole period is citizens’ welfare (Lindström, 2006; SOU, 1998:33). For example, in the Leisure Commission investigations (SOU 1964:47; 1965:19; 1966:33) one reads much about citizens’ physical and mental well-being. Health maintenance is seen as a relatively new segment of the tourist market. One government proposition (2002/03:35) states that it is important to leave a society to our next generation with environmental problems solved. For leisure and tourism it is “… to protect possibilities to have an outdoor life” (Proposition 2002/03:35, p. 80).

In 1974 and 1998/99, people with handicaps, people living in different institutions, immigrants and other ethnic groups were pointed out as special priorities. The tourism proposition expresses confidence in citizens’ possibilities to have meaningful leisure connected to the Right of Public Access, which is highlighted as important because sedentary work is more common today (Proposition, 1974:28; Proposition, 1998:99:107; Proposition, 2004/05:56).
To sum up the idea of management, we can state that during the 1960s, mainly for sports, games and athletics, there were expectations that there would be collective solutions for some groups and in some areas. It was important to neutralise commercial forces. In one government proposition (2004/05:56) there was an ambition to make travel services available for all citizens and there was talk about “tourism for all”. From the middle of the 1970s, there was more thinking about decentralising and clearer instructions regarding support for special groups and areas. One can also make a note of the fact that decisions regarding decentralisation are sometimes reversed in favour of returning to a central level because there is a need for “wholeness” in decision-making and at the time of execution. The documents express a belief that a centrally placed authority can collect materials and provide for a decentralised form of activity.

Organisations and institutions

Sweden’s demographic development implies that the proportion of elderly women and men in the population will increase, and from these groups we can expect increased demand for quality, comfort and security. In Proposition 2004/05:56 the government talks about making it possible for persons with disabilities or/and functional limitations because of age to be able to travel and to be active in society. This means making attractions and other leisure sites accessible for citizens with functional limitations. “Accessible tourism is both about a perspective from the consumer and from the entrepreneurs, because both users and providers can be found in both groups. Accessibility shall therefore be created from both perspectives” (Proposition, 2004/05:56, p. 15).

Boundaries between areas such as outdoor activities, tourism and entrepreneurship, and areas for rest and recreation, are discussed in government documents in terms of accessibility and sustainability. Responsibilities in terms of different political arenas are discussed. Policies and political borders for leisure and tourism, access to national parks, World Heritage sites, and areas for recreation are blurred in all documents. Questions about responsibility are raised at the same time that these areas are becoming more interesting to more actors. The boundaries between what has been arranged and produced publicly and privately have changed to become a mixture of providers – public, commercial and voluntary. In the documents there are several suggestions for new ways of networking and organising. But it is obvious that this new way of producing leisure services means that all concerned will face new barriers.

In order to make it easier to co-ordinate and meet citizens’ needs and expectations, new authorities are established or existing ones are transformed and reorganised. Sometimes organisations and officials have been given broader commissions. An example is the Swedish Environmental Protection Agency which is responsible for 28 national parks, 2,600 nature reserves and 13 World Heritage areas, out of which three have high natural values (www.naturvardsverket.se). The Swedish Tourist Authority, as of January 2006 a part of the Swedish Agency for Economic and Regional Growth (NUTEK), is another example (www.nutek.se). In certain parts of the documents the investigators talk about the need to steer the sector with rules and laws to ensure citizens’ civil rights. The border between what is public and official, private or voluntary raises new questions about what is possible in relation to the Right of Public Access and other laws. It is possible to talk about the blurred lines between policy and politics.

One interpretation of the documents is that they were expressing a vision of the historical welfare state; one which had a mission as a collective and united force for the broad leisure sector. The government would enact laws, and authorities would enact decrees, which resulted in directions that were adopted by the entire leisure sector; for example, environmental laws, laws about hunting, laws about riding a snowmobile, legislation about seashores etc (www.regeringen.se). The government also had an ambition, in some way,
to be responsible for the overall production and funding of leisure services. The documents still point to institutions which have good practices and give these institutions special support so that they can spread information. Examples are the Falu Folk Music Centre, the Museum of Work in Norrköping, four centres for the production of film, the Centre for Experience Sciences, and a Centre for Art in Malmö. The government has also created authorities connected to the leisure field such as the Swedish Travel and Tourist Bureau, the Swedish National Institute of Public Health, and the National Heritage Board. The Swedish Travel and Tourist Bureau is trying to sell Sweden as a tourist destination. The Swedish National Institute of Public Health is working to promote people’s health; for example, to avert the social and economic consequences of gambling (on “dark leisure” see Stebbins, 2004; Horna, 1994; Kelly, 1982, Spelinsättet, 2005). The National Heritage Board is the agency of the Swedish government that is responsible for heritage and historic environmental issues. Its mission is to play a pro-active, coordinating role in heritage promotion efforts, and to ensure that the historic environment is preserved in the most effective manner possible (Ds 1999:78). The documents say that this should be done in a sustainable way even when Sweden’s culture is being developed by leisure and tourism entrepreneurship. It seems like the mission is to balance on a tight line between protecting and exposing services to the market.

The government documents display a certain reserve in their attitude towards Swedish membership of the European Union and its regulatory framework. At the beginning of the 2000s, there was emphasis on the necessity and ambition that Swedish authorities and politicians should be part of EU discussions and thereby influence the content of EU policy documents. In its own policies, Sweden has tried to align with EU statements and policies. This can be noticed in the tourism sector, as well in sports. For example, the case of Bosman became a new word in football when the transfer rules were declared illegal and to be against EU rules regarding free movement across borders for work in another EU country. Common measures are also discussed to prevent violence among supporters, and measures are taken to stop doping. Money from EU structural funds is becoming more common in different sectors; for example, the culture sector. A resolution accepted in 2002 talks about promoting the ethical dimension and dialogue between officials, the tourism industry and other parties.

During the last decade, the leisure field has become increasingly complex with Sweden joining the European Union, and with the introduction of multi-level government systems where decisions are filtered through a series of different agencies (Lindström, 2006; Pierre, 2001; Nilsson, 2002: Lundqvist, 1992).

Conclusions

Through examining policies expressed in documents, we can see that Sweden’s political playground has changed: new actors have been added, and they have access to the leisure field. The tourism industries are among the actors that take more of the space. The production of leisure services takes place in a new context where official administrators are only one of many actors. In addition, this research indicates that if we want a leisure sector where everybody is treated equally, then state instruments for following-up and evaluating goals and results must work effectively. The state needs to know the expectations and needs of its citizens, and there must also be reliable data from all actors in the leisure sector - private, voluntary and official. In order for the state to fulfil its goals, it needs accurate information concerning funds and resources.

According to Lipsky (1980) and Schierenbeck (2003), civil servants, teachers and others who work in the field of leisure are the real executors of leisure policies. This must be borne in mind when we talk about official tourism, entrepreneurship in tourism, and leisure services and their values and orientations towards visitors and other users. This research indicates that, in some cases,
the state is the best party to take collective national and societal responsibility for the sector. The state can have a general view and can guarantee a certain supply of leisure services regarding demography, geographical position and the structure of society. In tourism it can be responsible for infrastructures, research and education, for laws and legislation, some administration in respect of marketing, presenting statistics, and overseeing the accessibility and sustainability of the sector.

There are powerful arguments for treating leisure as a democratic right, and only the state can meet the demand for equal access to welfare and services through collective solutions. This paper has indicated that this may be possible while seeking sustainability alongside equality and accessibility in leisure and tourism. As stated in Sweden’s Planning and Building Law, communities need to have green areas and parks for recreation (SFS, 1987:10). The Law of Service and Support for People with Handicaps states that they are entitled to leisure activities (LSS, Chapter 15, SFS, 1993:87). Across a 40 year time span, the field of leisure shows the intention of the state always, in some way, to include distribution of government money as a complement to the market. However, this paper has also shown that the government’s ideas on how to do this in tourism and leisure have changed over time.

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Active Living, Recreation and Youth Culture in a Demographic Ageing Context in Algarve, Portugal

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Abstract

Active living and recreation in the youth population of Algarve (Portugal) were investigated in the context of demographic ageing. It was hypothesized that a conflicting relation exists between youth’s developmental needs and goals and the impoverished socio-cultural context of an ageing population. Data obtained from 1503 boys and girls aged 13 to 18 years indicate that constraints to meaningful leisure activities increase as we move from the less aged coastal urban areas, where tourism and a cosmopolitan lifestyle predominate, to the inland rural zones. On the basis of a population ageing index, it appears that a “not too old, not too young” population is the best setting for the acquisition of active and healthy habits through a sound recreational experience. Although rural youngsters may be more exposed to leisure boredom, the rates of declared risk behaviours are greater among their urban peers. A shorter age distance between parents and offspring, and the characteristics of coastal urban areas, raise the issue of mature and responsible parenthood, and the case for better leisure education to prevent the adoption of unhealthy habits.

Keywords: population ageing, youth development, leisure, active living, healthy habits, leisure boredom, risk behaviour

A global problem

According to recent data, in the so-called Western civilized countries adolescents spend in average 40% to 50% of their time in leisure activities. The concept of leisure is interpreted in different ways in the scientific literature. In the USA, Mobily (1989) found that high school students view leisure as a set of pleasant and passive activities, while recreation was synonymous with more active and specific activities such as sports. In Europe, Joffre Dumazedier, a French sociologist, distinguished between leisure and recreation on the basis of time and content. Accordingly, leisure is a given category of time (he proposed the “rule of triple 8” to describe the quotidian of ordinary people: 8 hours of work, 8 hours of sleep and 8 hours of leisure), while recreation is any kind of specific activity with which we fill leisure, the free time that, in Western societies, represents half of adolescents’ active living.

If, in the context of our contemporary societies, recreation is so conspicuous and significant a time consuming element of youth culture, it must play an important role in the development of individuals and society as well. As Iso-Ahola and Crowley (1991) have pointed out, the developmental role of leisure
activities (or, in an equivalent sense, recreation) is paramount, providing a wide range of opportunities to build and explore autonomy and identity throughout adolescence.

The classic theory of psychologist Erik Eriksson states that the building of a subject’s identity is the main task of adolescence. Thus, recreation has to be recognized as a most influential agent of human development in all its various components, namely cognitive, perceptual-motor, and socio-cultural. This implies a question, which is how and to what extent recreational practices may contribute to the above mentioned tasks.

Whenever we refer to human “practices” we bring to mind the concept of culture. Every society, at every stage of its historical evolution, creates specific forms of recreation, which pass through complex processes of transformation before being extinguished and replaced by other forms, engraved in the spirit and in the material and social conditions of each age. Because recreation involves a repertoire of activities, transmission and learning are implicit. Taking into account the immense variety of motor practices and skills included in adolescents’ leisure cultures, recreation becomes relevant in the study of human motor development.

Kleiber, Larson and Csikszentmihályi (1986) proposed two basic varieties of recreation: relaxed leisure, consisting of social activities, computer games, listening to music, eating and rest; and transitional leisure, including sports, games and hobbies in a context of demanding effort. Both varieties are very conspicuous in contemporary youth culture.

One acquires and develops his/her cultural repertoire in a particular social, physical, and emotional context. His or her choices are made under the influence of an intricate set of stimuli. Stokowski and Lee (1991) noticed that inter-personal relations may either facilitate or restrain leisure behaviours and options as regards recreational activities. A larger and more varied relational experience in the community – as a consequence of individual and group affiliations to culture, sport, lifestyle and other aspects pertinent to recreation – is likely to enhance the provision of activities and the spectrum of options for children and youth as well.

The current demographic trend in Europe, however, generates a critical situation, whose economic consequences are well known with respect to employment and social security systems. Its implications in other domains of European societies are no less worrying but, quite surprisingly, they do not seem to raise similar attention. I refer to population ageing, the effect of a combined influence of two demographic factors: the increase in longevity and the simultaneous decrease in the birth rate. Amazingly, this demographic trend and the rise of leisure in the second half of the 20th century can be both explained by the same causal agent: the progress of economy and welfare in the Western European societies that followed the end of World War II. Without it, the advent of free time, its specific cultural forms and its huge industry, would have not occurred. Nowadays, a time has come in which the two conditions are conflicting.

This illustrates the well known “theory of demographic transition”, stated by Notestein in 1945. According to this theory, the process of economic transformation from a pre-industrial stage to a modern industrialized system is followed by a fast and significant decrease in fertility and mortality rates. The consequence of this phenomenon – population ageing – is confirmed by the current demographic data. Between 1960 and 1996, in several European countries, the percentages of children and adolescents (age group 0-15 years) show a noticeable decrease, while the elderly (age group >65) follows an almost symmetrical trend. In Spain, for example, in 1960 the age group 0-15 years represented 27.3% of the total population and by 1996 only 16.2% (a decrease of 11.1%). Figures are similar for Finland (30.4% and 18.9%, a decrease of 11.5%) and the Netherlands (30.0% and 18.4%, a decrease of 11.6%). These are, in the European Union, the countries most affected by population ageing, while Austria, Luxembourg and Germany present the smallest decreases: 2.4%, 2.9% and 5.4%, respectively.
For a deeper understanding of this demographic trend and its impact on the living conditions of current and future generations, another point has to be considered. Actually, the ageing of European populations is not only due to the increasing number of the elderly but of the very elderly (80 years and above). Dividing the number of individuals aged 65 years and above by the number of individuals aged 0-15 years, and multiplying by 100, we obtain the index of population ageing (IPA), the number of elderly per every 100 children and adolescents. This index is crucial to foresee some consequences that may result from an unbalanced development of the next generations. Portugal and Spain present similar demographic statistics. In Portugal the index of population ageing amounts to 98%, indicating a ratio 100:102. This index, however, shows considerable discrepancies when comparisons are made between northern and southern regions, and between the coastal and the inland regions. Owing to the impact of a stronger and more industrialized economy, the northern and coastal populations are younger and outnumber the southern and inland populations. The Algarve, a well known international tourism destination, despite its apparent cosmopolitanism, has an aged population. Its index of population ageing (IPA) averages 128%. In its inland areas, however, the index rises to 208% in Castro Marim and to 468% in Alcoutim – thus, people above 65 years are approximately five times the number of children and adolescents in the community! Only two cities of the Algarve (Lagoa, 96%; Albufeira, 77%), have an index of population ageing showing an opposite trend.

Is population ageing a restraint on youth development?

This investigation proceeds from the following hypotheses:

(i) Population ageing combined with inland dwelling brings about a poor environment for child and youth motor development, and for the acquisition of social and recreational competencies as well.

(ii) The effects ascribable to the simultaneous presence of these conditions (age structure and spatial distribution of the population) can be empirically observed and interpreted from various scientific perspectives.

To test these hypotheses, data from two investigations carried out in the region of Algarve between 2004 and 2006 were re-explored.

I – Active living, recreation and youth culture in a demographically ageing context

A sample of 1503 boys and girls (age range 13 to 18 years) attending public schools of the Algarve, completed a version of the self-reported questionnaire by Renson and Vanreusel (1990), adapted for the Portuguese population (Sobral, 1992). The questionnaire addressed four main aspects of the children’s and adolescents’ life-styles:

(i) Participation in intense and moderate exercise (self-reported frequency in the previous two weeks: (a) non-exercisers; (b) most frequent exercisers – MFE – 6 days or more; and (c) less frequent exercisers – LFE – 1-5 days.

(ii) Participation in competitive sport (in and out of school).

(iii) Drinking habits (alcoholic and stimulating substances).

(iv) Consumption of psychotropic substances.

Additional information was collected focusing on some characteristics of the environment at the place of residence, such as (a) material and space incentives for exercise and active recreation; (b) distance between home and school and type of home-school transportation; and (c) regular participation in activities provided by cultural or religious associations. For the purpose of the present paper, only data referring to the four above-mentioned aspects were retained.

Data analysis was on the basis of gender and age, respondents being assigned to two age groups, 13-15 and 16-18. In order to ascertain whether lifestyle was influenced by
– or at least associated with – population ageing, two categories were used according to the magnitudes of the respective indexes: young populations (IPA up to 150%), and aged populations (IPA > 150%).

The age groups 0-14 and 15-24 of the population of Algarve represent 14.6% and 13.1% of the total population (57,670 and 51,745 respectively). Hence, our sample size (n=1503) guarantees a precision level of ± 3% at a confidence level of 95% (the sample size required for a population of 50,000 being 1,087).

Results

Participation in intense and moderate exercise

Analysis by gender and age. As could be expected, differences between boys and girls were found to be statistically significant for participation in either intense or moderate exercise. This is particularly noted among the most frequent exercisers (MFE), as 40.4% of the boys and 24.6% of the girls said that they had exercised at an intense level. The z-test indicated a highly significant difference between the two proportions (p ≤ 0.01). The z-test applied to the proportions for moderate exercise (boys: 32.2%; girls: 28.0%) did not reject the null hypothesis at the 95% confidence level. Thus, among the exercisers, it is the intensity of exertion that distinguishes boys and girls of 13-18 years.

Analysis by IPA. A different picture emerged when data were analysed according to the population age groups. Residing among an aged population apparently hinders orientation towards exercise, and in both gender groups. However, girls (χ² = 9.8; p ≤ 0.01, df: 1) appeared to be slightly more affected than boys (χ² = 4.8; p ≤ 0.05, df: 1) by a “grey community” in terms of regular exercising at an intense level.

Participation in school sport

Analysis by gender and age. In general, participation rates in school sport were far from satisfactory, despite the strong emphasis on the programmes by the educational authorities. School sport is an optional, extra-curricular activity, and less than one third of the boys (30.9%) and only 16.5% of the girls participated on a regular basis. These figures represent significantly different gender behaviour (χ² = 41.8; p ≤ 0.001, df: 1), and also poor involvement in physical activities beyond the compulsory time of physical education classes. Again, age groups 13-15 and 16-18 did not present distinct participation rates in school sport.

Analysis by IPA. No differences were found in school sport enrolment between adolescents residing in the two distinct contexts of population ageing. Same-sex comparisons showed a slightly greater percentage of boys from aged populations (31.6% against 30.6% from young populations), while girls from young populations outnumbered their counterparts (17.5% against 14.8%). In both cases, the differences were not significant at the 95% confidence level.

However, the application of a chi-square test for independency on four classes of IPA, instead of two, yielded a totally different picture. The new IPA classes were set as follows: young (IPA < 100%); intermediate (IPA 100 – 150%); old (IPA 151 – 250%); and very old (IPA > 250%). Results showed a very strong relationship between population ageing and participation in school sport among both boys and girls: χ² = 29.05 and χ² = 59.58, respectively (significant at the 99.9% confidence level, with df=3).

Risk behaviours

Investigated risk behaviours included consumption of alcoholic and/or stimulating beverages, and illicit psychotropic substances as well. Further on, we shall discuss how these behaviours can be related to the quantity and the quality of recreational provision in adolescents’ free time.

Boys declared higher weekly consumption rates of stimulating beverages (such as coffee, Red Bull and the like) than girls, and the results turned out to be statistically significant (χ² = 19.66; p ≤ 0.01; df = 3). Age (13-15 versus 16-18) appears directly associated with increasing consumption of these substances
among adolescents of both sexes ($\chi^2 = 17.20; p < 0.01; df = 3$).

Consumption of coffee among boys living amidst very old and old populations exceeded by far the rates reported by their age peers resident in “intermediate” and “young” populations ($\chi^2 = 31.19; p < 0.01; df = 9$). Conversely, the adolescents from “young” populations declared higher consumption rates of alcohol in comparison with their age-peers in the other categories of population age ing ($\chi^2 = 12.5; p < 0.01; df = 3$). This may be explained by the fact these youngsters live in urban settlements where family and law control may be less effective, and attitudes more permissive towards risky life-styles. As a consequence, adolescents living among “intermediate” and “young” populations are more likely to have experienced various types of illicit substances ($\chi^2 = 29.9; p < 0.01; df = 3$).

II – Physical fitness: geo-demographic variation

Preliminary research on health-related physical fitness in the basic and secondary-schools of Algarve provided the raw material for applying the norms of the EUROFIT battery in the region (Sobral et al., 2005).

The total sample was split into three age groups (6-9, 10-13, and 14-18), before scores in the motor tests were submitted to an analysis of covariance with one factor (“region”, with two levels: inland, where the highest values of IPA were found; and the coast, with the youngest segments of the population), and one covariate (“gender”). ANOVA results indicated a slight decreasing effect of the “region” factor throughout the age groups, while gender became a more influential overall explanation for differences in the motor performance tests (Table I).

Nevertheless, at 14-18 years, a gradient in-land-coast was present on five of the nine items of the battery, with boys and girls from the inland populations performing significantly lower than their counterparts living in coastal settlements. The fact that, besides static balance (one-foot stand), the most significant differences refer to upper-limb strength (chins), running speed (25 meters) and endurance (pacer test) is relevant for understanding the detrimental effect of an ageing demographic context on the gross motor performance of children and adolescents.

Discussion

As Iso-Ahola (1980) and Willits & Willits (1986) pointed out in earlier research, properly structured recreation may provide adolescents with a broad range of knowledge about the socio-cultural environment, and promote the acquisition of cooperation skills, and intellectual and physical fulfilment as well. Strengthening family, community and peer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motor Tests</th>
<th>Age Groups</th>
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<td>6 – 9 Years</td>
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<td>14 – 18 Years</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bal</td>
<td></td>
<td>31.959 a</td>
<td>1.032</td>
<td>28.581 c</td>
<td>0.237</td>
<td>18.714 c</td>
<td>14.031 c</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tap</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.050 a</td>
<td>0.645</td>
<td>0.331</td>
<td>2.465</td>
<td>3.684</td>
<td>8.797 b</td>
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<tr>
<td>Flex</td>
<td></td>
<td>26.361 c</td>
<td>6.751 b</td>
<td>1.561</td>
<td>25.319</td>
<td>4.200 c</td>
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<td>Grip</td>
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<td>1.320</td>
<td>8.978 b</td>
<td>2.333</td>
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<td>SBjump</td>
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<td>2.160</td>
<td>12.819</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>59.968 c</td>
<td>2.399</td>
<td>230.015 c</td>
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<td>Situp’s</td>
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<td>38.464 c</td>
<td>8.781 b</td>
<td>2.008</td>
<td>20.121 c</td>
<td>6.60</td>
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<td>Chins</td>
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<td>0.294</td>
<td>19.342 c</td>
<td>22.463 c</td>
<td>3.004</td>
<td>17.390 c</td>
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<tr>
<td>Speed</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.965 a</td>
<td>15.263 c</td>
<td>21.182 c</td>
<td>33.014 c</td>
<td>79.931 c</td>
<td>63.388 c</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pacer</td>
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<td>52.797 a</td>
<td>4.581 a</td>
<td>104.450 c</td>
<td>17.644 c</td>
<td>239.947 c</td>
<td>130.857 c</td>
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Table I. Inland-coastal areas gradient in motor ability assessed by EUROFIT battery. Results of ANOVA:

$^a$: $\alpha=0.001$; $^b$: $\alpha=0.01$; $^c$: $\alpha=0.05$
links are also recognized as fostering sound recreational involvement among children and youth. In the absence of effective provision of rewarding recreational programs and facilities, this is the “good rhetoric” of lay people and popular media. However, some investigators agree that leisure time may also be a source of boredom and frustration, leading to severe emotional and social distress; for example aggressiveness, substance abuse, delinquency and suicide (Iso-Ahola & Crowley, 1991; Yang, 2002).

In a demographically ageing context, at-risk youth are a greater concern because of augmented leisure constraints. In general, ageing communities offer an impoverished socio-cultural life, and models and incentives to participation in recreational activities, if any, do not meet the needs and goals of adolescents.

Seeking new experiences is one of the main motives for joining recreational programs and activities. Teenagers withdrawing from sports involvement is a worldwide trend, often replaced by a search for new interests and sensations. Where leisure constraints predominate and the elderly outnumber by far youth’s age-peers, the young sensation-seekers may not find opportunities to challenge their abilities or to develop new competences.

Regarding active leisure and sports participation in particular, “proximal” and “distal” factors play important roles in the process of cultural diffusion that may entice people of all ages to active and healthy lifestyles. According to McElroy (2002), proximal factors include all the social environments and institutions we are able to identify as “ours” and in which we participate on a daily basis: family, workplace and organization, schools, neighbours and the community in general. McElroy also emphasizes social connectedness as a fundamental thrust in people’s commitment to the cultural life of their communities.

The cultural pattern and structure of a particular population, as well as its persistence or permeability to new influences, are not independent from physical and social living conditions. Populations are aggregates of individuals representing various generations and, therefore, distinct dispositions and abilities. Inter-generational transactions can be “functional” in several domains of culture (like music, oral literature, profane and religious festivals) but have limited impact on active leisure owing to the continuing introduction of new practices demanding more-and-more physical and motor abilities.

A first hypothesis underlying our research – an inverse association between population ageing and the participation of adolescents in physical activities whatever their intensity level – was fairly substantiated on the basis of empirical evidence. The fact that boys in inland Algarve (where the highest figures for the ageing of population index occur) perform better than their urban coastal counterparts on a good number of physical fitness markers, may be misleading. Rusticity rather than programs, facilities or education accounts for the observed edge and one has only to regret that such a potential is not channelled to further improvements, and that other domains of adolescent development are restrained too – and perhaps in a more irreparable way. One of the main pillars of the ecological systems theory proposed by Bronfenbrenner (1989) should be recalled at this point: human development depends upon both the individual’s development and his or her living context.

A second hypothesis – a “not too old, not to young” population is a best setting for enhancing active and healthy habits among children and youth – was also corroborated by the available data, as adolescents living in communities classified as intermediate for population ageing appeared to be more active and less prone to alcohol and substance abuse. A shorter age distance between parents and offspring does not always foster early exposure to enriching movement experiences or prevent the acquisition of unhealthy habits. On the contrary, children born to young parents, living according to urban cultural patterns, are more likely to become prematurely acquainted with some undesirable adult behaviours, such as smoking, alcohol consumption and low engagement in exercise and active leisure. This raises the issue of mature and responsible parenthood, and permissive education as well, which were beyond the scope of our research.
Conclusion

The Algarve is an adequate environment to investigate the consequences of population ageing and urban-rural (or coastal-inland) differences in adolescent development because the region covers contrasting areas of demographic, economic and social characteristics. In both areas, several constraints on leisure could be identified in the course of our research. Although population ageing, and its detrimental effects on child and youth development, represent a great concern in Portugal and in most European countries, we should also be aware that in urban areas youth are exposed to deviant behaviours that could be prevented by rewarding and personally significant leisure provision, under the supervision of competent educators and recreation leaders.

Population ageing and most of its behavioural correlates are not single factors that can be tackled by means of wilful policies. The consequences are long-lasting and likely to affect an unforeseeable number of generations before the phenomenon may be eventually reversed. As Fukuyama (1995) pointed out in Trust: The Social Virtues and the Creation of Prosperity, strong family structures and enduring social institutions are not like a bank or an army force that can be implemented by legislation. Nevertheless, on the basis of extensive and accurate information, purposeful initiatives need to be implemented urgently; and community life has to be re-shaped so that out-of-school time is no longer nothing-to-do time but, instead, an effective opportunity for personal development and fulfilment.

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Multiplication and integration of leisure functions: recreation, continuous education and cross-ethnic relations

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Abstract
Leisure includes more-and-more components as modern societies develop. The functional aspects of leisure activity change as well, and the multiplicative functions of leisure become of greater importance. The concept “multiplication” is interpreted as multiplication of the effective functional characteristics of leisure. The purpose of this paper is to present evidence from a project that investigated the social efficiency of national cultural centres in Russia’s Saratov region. The research was conducted at the German Cultural Centre, where leisure activity is characterised by combinations of social-cultural, educative and other functions. The concept of continuous education is currently a major thrust in Russian social policy, and its realisation in the activity of leisure establishments is of great topicality. This policy involves the development of new methods of spreading cultural values. It includes creating mechanisms which regulate cross-ethnic relations and pre-supposes the integration of two areas – education and culture. It is of vital importance for the Saratov region, which is the home of more than 120 nationalities. The paper is based on a case study, and highlights the multiplicative character of the German Cultural Centre’s activities.

Introduction
Leisure has huge potential as a vehicle for creating the optimum environment for the successful moral, psychological and physical development of an individual. The first publications of Russian scientists and experts in free time studies noted common features of leisure, and appeared in Ancient Russia. The word прогул meant possibility, ability (according to Domostrov XVI b. 13). Originally it meant “something that was reached”, but in V Dal’s dictionary there is another way of looking at it. According to his point of view, “Dosug (leisure) is free unoccupied time, for parties, time for walking, open space devoid of business” (Dal, 1863-66). The use of the word has preceded the present-day activity aspects of leisure.

Leisure is not a phenomenon that can be clearly defined and separated from other spheres. Different approaches to its definition are inter-connected, pointing to the universality and many-sided nature of this concept. But the kernel of the economics of desire in our modern civilisation of leisure stimulates a creative potential for innovative uses and an over-abundant supply of opportunities.
**Functional aspects of leisure**

In Dumazedier’s studies leisure was endowed with auxiliary functions in relation to work – functions which do not assume that leisure offers any serious information or rich intellectual content (Dumazedier, 1974). The main functions of leisure are said to be compensatory and entertaining. However, with our present-day understanding of leisure, it seems desirable to agree with the following: “The term leisure will embody the perspective that the engagement is enjoyable, interesting, personally meaningful, self-expressive, self-endorsed, and mostly intrinsically motivated” (Caldwell 2008, p.4).

Russian scholars have counted over 600 kinds of leisure activity. The majority of the population has a much narrower range of leisure activities, but the functions of leisure have multiplied and become more diverse. Lamprecht and Stamm (1994) say that the functions of leisure can be divided into two main groups: individual functions and socio-economic functions. They can be classified as follows:

- **Individual leisure functions:**
  - Rest
  - Change, distraction
  - Communication, sociability
  - Information, education
  - Movement
  - Expression
  - Identity, self-fulfilment
  - Freedom from compulsion

- **Social and economic leisure functions:**
  - Socialisation
  - Regeneration
  - Compensation
  - Integration
  - Consumption
  - Basis of the service economy
  - System stabilisation
  - Innovation
  - Lifestyle creation

The social functions of leisure include dialogue and reproduction of the social structure through behaviour peculiar to various social groups. However, the educational, cultural-creative and socio-integration functions are becoming more and more important along with recreational, health-improving and entertaining ones. Visiting cultural leisure establishments, engagement in leisure interests which improve professional skills, and self-education, all concern the qualitative characteristics of leisure.

**Multiplication in the leisure sphere**

The spheres of leisure blend smoothly with each other like a colour spectrum, and the result is comparable with the boundary properties and transitive forms of the so-called alloys (that is, a mix which results from fusion of several metals). In this case we can speak about the multiplication of leisure functions. It is a process that involves the multiplication of the efficiency of leisure. Multiplication is a spontaneous process that enhances the effectiveness of the system, particularly the system of leisure organisation.

The relevant characteristics are found in different leisure spheres such as culture (for example, theatre, opera, attending concerts, museums) or consumption (for example, shopping, cinema, and restaurant), where a number of educative functions trigger a peculiar kind of “symbiosis”. We need to emphasise the value of understanding the processes, communications and mutual relations in small groups of improving activities within a leisure arrangement. These are the central links in the “person-society” chain, because the harmonic balance of socio-personal interests and the interests of the micro-environment surrounding the person depends mostly on their interactions and fusions.

**Educational potential of leisure**

The current system of education in Russia is unable to satisfy the continuously growing educational requirements of the population (no less than 36.5 million Russian citizens aged 18-45 have not reached the minimum educational standard, and about half of them require additional training) (Soldatkin, 2001, p. 14). We will ask a logical question: could the leisure sphere, in that case, take on a number of educational functions? International sociological research has already con-
firmed that about 70% of all training and education occurs outside educational institutions.

Jones and Saymon (2001) list the advantages of considering education throughout the lifespan as serious leisure:

1. Lifelong learning as serious leisure can provide a focus for the unemployed, retired, or those in unsatisfying jobs, especially 'time structure' and new forms of social integration.
2. Lifelong learning can produce "enforced activity", shared experience with others, social contact, common interests.
3. Serious leisure involves a career, which can be marked in lifelong education with certificates and so on.
4. Lifelong learning can provide status and a stable identity.

So there is a scientific basis for a leisure-based pedagogy. Leisure education and therapeutic recreation are tools to enable the individual to: 1) gain a broader understanding of where, why, how, and with whom he or she can pursue leisure interests and experiences, and 2) unlearn non-adaptive and learn more functional responses, such as developing different modes of leisure behaviour which will enable the individual to adapt to the environment to meet free time needs (Witt and Witt, 1981).

At the same time, the speed of obsolescence of knowledge in modern conditions of scientific and technical transformation is high. Therefore the creation of new didactic concepts and alternative educational spaces is necessary.

**Leisure and inter-ethnic relations**

Different nationalities reside close together in many parts of the world today. Ideas of tolerance, especially national tolerance, and international cooperation are becoming more and more urgent in multi-national areas, cities, and mega-cities. In contemporary Russia the activities of cultural establishments which tackle the problem-solving process of international dialogue as one of their main leisure functions, provide a socio-psychological climate for performing social functions for all the participants and for revealing ways of promoting international dialogue. Here it can be both effective and expedient to connect two systems: the system of education and the system of culture.

Historically the Saratov region in Russia was formed as a region with a multi-national population. This was brought about by spontaneous migratory streams, and purposeful settlement initiatives of the Russian state which invited people from Germany, Poland and Ukraine to settle in the territories of the Volga region. According to the population census of 2002, there are representatives of 135 ethnic groups living in the region. The largest ethnic group is Russian (over 85% of the population). The larger minorities are Ukrainians, Kazakhs and Tatars.

However, recently the national structure of the region has changed. Saratov region with its developed industrial and agricultural infrastructure, and stable conditions, has proved attractive to migrants. As a result, the density of minority ethnic groups from Central Asia and the Caucasus is gradually increasing in eastern areas of the province.

These migratory movements, along with the rise of certain extremist political forces which sharpen nationalist sentiments, claim rapt attention from the authorities, both at federal and regional levels. In this connection the policy of the government of the Saratov region is directed at supporting a variety of cultural events and innovations. These policies contribute to creating equal opportunities for access to cultural facilities and activities for all the inhabitants of the region including representatives of different ethnic groups. Under conditions of radical social and economic transformation, the primary objective of state cultural policy has been preservation of the cultural heritage of the Russian people. However, the accent has now switched from preserving culture to its further development, supporting and developing amateur national creativity, exhibiting the national cultures of all the people of the region, promoting inter-ethnic and international cultural contacts and exchanges, reviving and popularising national crafts, arts and creativ-
ity, and creating and introducing new forms and methods of leisure-cultural activity.

According to the data given by active volunteers, there are about 50 local communities of Russian-Germans in the Volga region.

**The German Cultural Centre**

The basic methods used in this research were qualitative case study methods. The research was based on the principle of triangulation as a way of enhancing the reliability of the data in a qualitative investigation. Methodological triangulation involves using various methods in studying a given situation or problem. These methods were: free, unstructured interviews; participant observation (between 2002 and 2004 the author was an employee in the above-mentioned establishment); and analysis of documents (archives of the Centre, reports of management sessions, annual reports, regulations, and press reports). Time triangulation was also carried out due to the fact that the Centre’s activity was traced over an extended time period (between 1992 and 2006).

The German Cultural Centre in Engels was established on March 5, 1989 as a German club named *Neues Leben* (New Life), but started properly in 1991. In the 1990s, centres and clubs of German culture also opened at rural recreation centres and schools in places of concentrations of Russian-Germans. Engels Centre became the head office carrying out overall management and giving financial support through the Engels Society of Soviet Germans. All centres and clubs take on cultural and educational work such as restoration of the historical heritage, studying the German language, revival of traditions of folklore including traditional forms of club work such as thematic events, holidays, meetings, concert activity, and circles. At the time of opening the Centre the number of persons employed was 20. There were seven permanent staff and 13 employees under temporary labour contract. There were 15 activity circles altogether.

The leisure activities which are carried out in the Centre combine an entertainment element on the one hand, and, on the other, cultural-educational and straight forward educational activities. Investigation of the work of the Centre, focusing on leisure activities and using the case study method, was by:

2. Interviewing the first and present heads of the Centre, heads of the activity circles and teachers at the language school of the Centre (eight persons), and parents of pupils who were attending the language school (three persons).
3. Analysis of archives, reports of management sessions, annual reports, regulations of the Centre, and press reports (all from 1992 to 2006).
4. A questionnaire was administered to a total of 200 visitors at the Centre.

The research was based on the principles of time and methodological triangulation as a way of increasing reliability.

The primary goals of the German Cultural Centre are as follows:

- Restoration and preservation of national cultures in their traditional and modern forms.
- Preservation, creation, distribution and development of cultural values, providing the population with cultural benefits of various forms and kinds.
- Formation of civil consciousness, diligence, respect for human rights, freedom and family values, respect for the native land, universal values, and a solicitous attitude to the historical and cultural heritage of all the people of Russia in the young generation.
- Steps towards establishing a complete education system in German have also been taken.

The Centre’s activities cover all age categories of the population. Special attention is given to the leisure of children and youth. Children of school age have opportunities to visit various sites, and for teenagers and students there are youth clubs free of charge. In the circles the children learn to appreciate the national culture, receive knowledge of the traditions of the people at labour and in cultural activity, learn skills in national dancing, singing, and hand-making articles in the national style. There is a computer class and several
semesters. These offer vocational guidance, advice on using computers, information about the Centre’s work, and there are musical sessions led by animateurs. Since October 1999 the newspaper Unser Wort (Our Word), renamed later Nachrichten (News) has been published by the Centre. The articles are published both in the German and Russian languages.

The library contains 1,500 books in German on many branches of knowledge. The library’s readers are people of different ages and professions, urban residents and villagers. The total number of readers is about 600 persons. There is a library video collection with recordings of traditional German holidays and ceremonies celebrated in Germany, and performances of vocal and choreographic collectives. This video data is often used by all the German Centre employees in Engels district. The library stock is constantly supplemented. The archive of the Centre has existed since 1989.

The Centre has its own traditions and celebrations. The festival competition, ‘Spring Wind’, is held annually. Every year the Centre leaders offer new scripts for celebrating Christmas, Easter, Mother’s Day, the First School Day Holiday, Victory Day, Harvest Day etc. The holidays are often celebrated in the form of dramatic performances. The Centre arranges trips of participant groups and teachers to various regions and cities. Career guidance and other seminars are held for pupils of Engels district schools, using methods promoted by consultants from the German Otto Benekke Fund.

**Actors and activities**

A questionnaire among 200 visitors to the German Cultural Centre in Engels was completed in May-June 2006. This instrument focused on subjective categorisations of the leisure concept, forms of leisure activity and preferences. It explored the basic value orientations and social attitudes of visitors as likely factors influencing their choices and motivations towards leisure activities, and examined the educational content from the point of view of the Centre’s users.

The respondents were invited to fill-in answers to the questionnaire’s 23 questions. They could express their agreement or disagreement with various types of leisure concept. Thus definitions of leisure could be related to gender, age, life-cycle stage, and also to goals in undertaking leisure activities. On the basis of the data, leisure was considered by the visitors to the Centre mainly as time for rest (63%) (a positive aspect of leisure according to M Stengel 1991, p.3), 29% thought of leisure as time for entertainment (another positive aspect), 28% as time for self-perfection (also a positive definition), and 13% as time off (a negative view) (see Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Leisure</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time for rest</td>
<td>63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time for entertainment</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time for self-perfection</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time off</td>
<td>13%</td>
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The choice of leisure activity depends on numerous factors such as the offers of the leisure establishments which are available, and the time and financial resources of a person. In more detail it depends on people’s various tastes and inclinations which, according to Pierre Bourdieu, correlate with both internal dispositions and with the unequal distribution of resources and, connected with this, unequal positions in social space. On this basis, cultural consumption represents a social rather than an individual act (Bourdieu 1979).

The most common frequency of leisure activities among the visitors was once a week, whether it took place at home or outside. Analyzing the answers of respondents, it is important to pay attention to some contradictions, namely that in spite of the fact that the majority defined leisure as time for rest, and the dominating desire was to relax at leisure, more than 58% of the respondents believed that the educational activities at leisure establishments should be prominent. A similar proportion, 56%, thought that entertainment should be provided, and 41% wanted to communicate more. Furthermore, 48% of the re-

**Table 1. Leisure evaluations by the visitors to the Engels Centre of German Culture**
respondents said that they would like to devote their free time to self-education, and another 28% would not be against such a pastime, while only 8% of those who were polled objected and just 2% completely rejected such an opportunity for themselves.

What is the contradiction here? Answering the question on what factors were associated with the limitation to full realisation of their abilities, 62% of the respondents mentioned lack of time and 42% referred to financial problems, 12% named problems with health, 9% identified the remoteness of leisure establishments, and 5% linked this to the absence of company. These answers reinforce the impression that the respondents were more satisfied with their activities rather than with the time they had. The analysis of the data showed that negative evaluations of time available for leisure tend to diminish satisfaction gained from the leisure activities which take place in this time. However, it is necessary to point out that lack of time may be due to an inability to manage and plan time.

It can be assumed that there is a correlation between lack of time and means. To solve a money problem people may spend their free time on additional earning and jobs, which leads to a decrease in free time. However, the logic of spending time in conditions of a constant lack of time is common in highly developed societies. It means that as people commit themselves to doing more and more, thereby aggravating feelings of time trouble. H Mueller-Wichmann found that people today objectively have more free time than before. However, this time is subjectively experienced as insufficient (Müller-Wichmann, 1984). On the basis of an analysis of sociological research on the cultural activities of Frenchmen and Frenchwomen (four surveys between 1973 and 1997), O Donnat emphasizes that the available means is a far lesser factor in the choice of leisure practices than the influence of cultural capital, indicated by social origin, education and age (Donnat 1998).

More than a half of the respondents (58%) expressed a desire to study a foreign language in their free time, 19% of those polled would rather not, but only 13% said that they would not like to do so, and just 3% said that probably they would not enjoy it. As many as 39% believed that every decent person should know foreign languages. We can connect these ideas of respondents to Veblen’s theory of status symbols and conspicuous consumption. In respondents’ answers, competence in foreign languages was associated with a good education, a strong financial position and high social status, and evaluated “as a means that supports a person’s reputation” (Veblen 1984: 108). Forty-four percent of the respondents hoped that knowledge of foreign languages would be useful to them in the future. This assessment was in a long-term perspective, a kind of guarantee for the future. Thirty-four percent of those questioned expressed a wish to study foreign languages to go abroad, 22% wanted to expand a circle of contacts, 13% considered it necessary to study the language as it was the language of their ancestors, 14% wished to learn more about the traditions of other people, and 12% wanted to read foreign literature in the original language. The latter two answers obviously characterised respondents with high educational attainments or ambitions. Having explored motives we can confirm the typology of Sorokina as the basis for identifying the dominating vital strategy corresponding to educational functions: pragmatic, socially-differentiating, socio-cultural and professional (Sorokina 2002).

The major factors influencing choice of leisure activity were individual taste and financial resources. This empirical research shows that the demand for educational kinds of leisure activity has not declined over the years as it might seem logical to assume, but on the contrary it has increased. However, it is higher in middle-aged, mature and elderly groups than in groups of a young age.

Interviewing the instructors of some circles showed that all employees of the German Cultural Centre set out with the purpose of arousing interest among Centre visitors of different ages in German culture, language, and also creating a friendly atmosphere, stimulating creativity, providing education and international dialogue. One of the questions was about opportunities for Centre visitors to meet
the educational desires of the Centre. The answers to the above-mentioned questions confirm that the structure, the organization charter, and activities of the Centre from the moment of its birth, demonstrate that its basic functions are cultural and educational.

Young people, if they come, have an opportunity to learn, but it is important that they are not just contemplators but participants. They do not merely learn something, get something new, they join the Centre’s life, and then knowledge becomes their lifestyle. Elderly members of the creative teams said that the Centre not only helped them learn more about their “roots” but also enabled them to recollect age-old traditions and to feel family-like. They spoke German there because there was no other place to do so outside the Centre.

Conclusions

The multiplicative effect is distinctly represented in the activity of the German Cultural Centre which provides an institutional basis for integrating a number of leisure functions. The structure of leisure spaces at the Centre as a place for organised activity includes semi-formal (for example, the language and computer courses, and the children’s language school) and informal (such as library visits, realisation of cultural projects and actions, inter-cultural dialogue, thematic events, and celebrating holidays) educational activities.

The integration processes are developed by means of social support, working-out educational leisure strategies and innovations. Educational leisure enables the Centre to have a “levelling effect” on the distribution of educational opportunities. The insertion of leisure into a variety of educative activities contributes to the social integration of classes and strata, the formation of national tolerance, and promotes the practical realisation of the concept of continuous education.

A dedicated free space for educational activities should always be provided in the structure of leisure facilities. It can enable people to express freedom of choice, personal initiative and responsibility. As a result, multiplication will intensify the functional role of leisure activities. By this means, leisure can contribute to the realisation of educational, cultural, scientific and charitable national programmes that promote the preservation and augmentation of the intellectual wealth of a society.

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Leisure in the Turkish Context: A Preliminary Account

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Abstract

The literature on leisure has been dominated by Western examples until recently. Some recent accounts of non-Western cases provide a different and richer context for understanding leisure. This study is an attempt to reveal the nature and development of leisure in the Turkish context. The historical background of leisure in Turkish society is briefly presented as an aid to understanding the current situation better. The findings of recent research on time use by Turkish people are also presented with a particular focus on leisure patterns. The data were collected through a field survey in Ankara, the capital city. The results indicate that leisure patterns vary along with settlement type and socio-demographic characteristics.

Introduction

Although the meaning of leisure has varied along with the relationship between work and leisure in different cultures, the dominant focus of research has been on white, able-bodied Westerners (Hilbrecht, 2007, p. 382). The few studies that provide a non-Western perspective on leisure as an alternative to Western dominance in leisure research inspired this attempt to explore the meaning(s) of leisure for Turkish people. Recent accounts of Chinese (Liu, Yeh, Chick and Zinn, 2008) and Japanese (Horne, 1998) leisure are examples of such studies. Walker and Wang (2009) analyze the meaning of leisure for Chinese Canadians, while Arab-Moghaddam, Henderson and Sheikholeslami (2007) offer a case from the Middle-East documenting women’s leisure constraints in Iran. The subjectivity of leisure definitions and practices has been acknowledged in the Western literature revealing differences alongside socio-demographic variables such as age, gender, income and race. Feminist literature has long been providing evidence of gendered leisure practices and sites (Henderson 1996, 1990). Scraton and Watson (1998) recognize the gendered character of public spaces in the postmodern city, while Warner-Smith and Brown (2002) provide similar evidence from a small country town. McDowell, Ward, Fagan, Perrons and Ray (2006) discuss the situation of working women in a large city in which the organization of daily life affects their time spent on and experience of child care. Spatial factors could be organized better to help working women to benefit from leisure opportunities (Hilbrecht, 2007). Scraton and Watson (1998) further suggest that women are not a homogeneous group and their leisure choices are not exempt from power relations.

Research indicates that subjective and plural meanings of time use can best be explored by treating leisure as shaped around cultural practices other than just work in an increasingly globalized world. Many developing countries including Turkey have become connected to global work practices and time-use patterns in the daily organization of life, especially in
big cities. However, traditional life patterns can still be observed in rural areas and traditional suburbs of big cities such as squatter settlements which are inhabited by people of rural origin. Research on time use patterns in work and leisure which compares developed and developing countries indicates some different time perceptions of individuals living in different cultural contexts (Manrai and Manrai, 1995). As rightly put by Horne (1998, p. 48) “to understand fully the meaning of leisure time and space in Japan, one needs to locate leisure within wider notions of culture”. This is also valid for other cultures, especially those which are outside the extensively researched Western cultures. In any case, Hilbrecht (2007, p. 382) claims that issues of diversity such as race and disability have not been adequately included in work-leisure research even in the Western context.

Locating leisure in its cultural contexts is also imperative for exploring how the subjective experience of time varies with occupational differences. Zemke (2004) stresses that time and space work together in forming this experience. “Place influences the type, frequency, duration, and style of behaviour, and through occupational behaviour, influences lifestyle and well-being” (Hamilton cited by Zemke, 2004:614). Technological advances of our era provide the basis for different perceptions of time in different cultures, varying according to levels of access to these advances. Increasingly global connections, long distance travel, internet use and web-based communication make multitasking possible in a limited time without even requiring the physical presence of individuals. Naturally, these changes influence some cultures more than others and change the nature and balance of work and leisure. These changes are always shaped by the historical and cultural context of a particular country. This is why the USA and Japan are so different in their time use patterns despite the fact that both are developed and technologically advanced countries.

Turkey is an excellent case – influenced by Western attitudes towards work and education in urban areas, yet traditional in rural areas and small towns as well as in some squatter settlements in large cities. Leisure patterns seem to be less influenced by globalization even though the commercial sites – mostly in the form of shopping malls – have been attracting Turkish citizens during the last two decades (Erkip, 2005). My claim is that the very nature of leisure in Turkish society, which involves every aspect of daily life including work, has not changed significantly. In this study, I investigate the meaning of leisure for Turkish citizens living in Ankara – the capital city of Turkey – through a survey about time-use.

The origin of the concept of leisure

Before introducing observations on contemporary leisure patterns of Turkish people in a large – and capital – city, a brief historical account will provide a basis for understanding leisure in the context of Turkish culture. Some limited literature on leisure as a part of daily life can be found in accounts of foreign visitors to old Istanbul, the largest and the most global city of Turkey in all of history. De Amicis (1993) documented the “flaneur” in Istanbul in the late-1800s, stating that passing time without a concern and without doing anything at all was a common practice of Turkish people. Passing time at ease was a favourite leisure pursuit during which there was no need to hurry. Spending half the day drinking Turkish coffee is one of the examples used by de Amicis (1993) to reflect this pattern. His observation reflects a European view of Turkish culture, which was (maybe still is) perceived as lacking in widely acclaimed Western values about a work ethic, such as being hard-working, efficient and productive.

Although this approach seems to portray a generically Eastern type of leisure, it involves activities and spaces specific to Turkish culture as well. At this point, the extensively gendered character of leisure in Turkey should be mentioned (see Meric, 2007, on various aspects of daily life in the Ottoman period that provide extensive clues to gendered practices). Participation by women – mostly of high class – in public leisure was limited to taking part in entertainment in open public spaces such as parks and seaside promenades. Their leisure was usually of a private nature, within the bounds of home and neighbourhood. There
were periods in Ottoman history during which women were banned from the streets and any public appearance (Sevgil, 1927). Although one should mention the role of social class in leisure patterns, it seems to involve space rather than the activities. After the conquest of Istanbul by Fatih Sultan Mehmet, the city witnessed a construction and population boom, followed by leisurely uses of spectacular sites such as the Golden Horn and Kayıthane. Consuming wine in spaces that were built for this purpose (meyhane) until this was banned by the Magnificent Suleyman was a leisure pattern for males of all social classes. Beginning from the 1550s, the coffeehouse (kahvehane) has been the main male space of leisure, originally designed for intellectual activities such as telling stories, reading, and discussing public affairs along with drinking coffee – a special type of coffee named Turkish coffee – and smoking nargile. The original Arabic word “keyf” ("keyif" is the Turkish version) means leisure and is also used to mean being content or leisurely (keyifli olmak), and even being high as it is also used in relation to drug use, consuming alcohol or smoking (keyif verici madde kullanmak) (Nisanyan, 2008).

Some public events such as concerts, competitions and dances also took place in coffeehouses (Deleon, 1996). Even today coffeehouses are male spaces, in which card games and watching TV are the most common activities. Passing time still seems the dominant pursuit. Despite the changing nature of activities, these spaces still exist in Turkey, side by side with modern and Western versions in large cities and developed urban areas. After the foundation of the modern Turkish Republic in 1923, Ottoman values were abandoned in the official organization of daily life. Although this changed social structures radically with a new lifestyle that was oriented towards the West, certain aspects of daily life including leisure habits remained much the same. Recent versions of coffeehouses are part of the modern urban lifestyle and, depending on the locality and level of integration with the global and modern world, they are frequented by females as well as males. Here, it should be noted that gender discrimination persists although it is less visible due to the requirements of a modern lifestyle. Findings from recent research on the leisure activities of university students support this claim (Demir and Demir, 2006). Shopping and browsing are other favourite pastimes for both genders and are an emerging leisure pursuit for Turkish families. Erkip (2003, 2005) has documented the reasons and patterns of increasing mall patronage in Turkey. However, Turkish people seem to adopt mainly passive types of leisure. Sport activities are very limited in many segments of society where watching TV is the most common leisure pursuit. Recreation is defined by Henderson and Bioleschki (2005) in relation to the arts, music, culturally creative pursuits, fitness and sports, but in Turkey physical activity is specific to people of high-income and education. Even academic staff working at a university in Ankara report that they do not have sufficient time for such leisure activities although they spend two-thirds of their free time watching TV (Colakoglu, 2005). Organized leisure is highly correlated with income, especially for adults and older people, as organized sport activities are available only for young people attending schools at various levels. There are also private sport clubs training selected youngsters for amateur or professional teams, but this is a limited service for a certain group with appropriate qualities. It seems that sport activities are not common among university students (Balci and Ilhan, 2006). This may be an indication of the non-obligatory character of active sport for Turkish people.

Leisure in contemporary Turkey: the case of Ankara

This study is a part of, and presents some preliminary findings from, the first time-use survey in Turkey. The field survey that constitutes the basis of this account aimed at investigating the relationship between time and space use, based on the belief that space had been the missing link in much previous time-use research. As Henderson and Bioleschki (2005) state, “perception and reality of time in people’s lives directly influence individual physical activity”. This study also proposes space as a causal component in time-use and activity patterns.
Methods of data collection

The research was carried out in Ankara, the capital city of Turkey, during three months in 2007, using mixed methods including a time-diary and interviews. Instead of a full diary, a predefined activity list was developed with the help from various sources on time-use such as the activity codes of the MTUS (international time-use study), the main activity list of the 1997 Australian time-use survey, the activity list used in the 2004 study by SCP (Social and Cultural Planning Office of the Netherlands) and some traditional activities in the Turkish cultural context.

Another important feature of this study is the sampling through location, which we believe represents different segments of the Ankara citizenry more accurately than other sampling methods as the city is spatially segmented. The settlements selected were recently formed gated communities, traditional apartment blocks, suburban communities, squatter settlements, and rural settlements on the outskirts of the city. In this way, we expected to encounter different space experiences for individuals living in different types of settlements. A household questionnaire and individual questionnaires were filled in by interviewers in selected dwellings at each site. So as to grasp the differences between time-use patterns on weekdays and weekends, activity lists were completed for weekdays and weekends alternately in each settlement.

As the main aim was to collect qualitative data, quota and snowball sampling methods were used. In total, 58 people from five different settlements participated in the survey. In addition, focus groups were held in two settlements: a squatter settlement and a block of suburban apartments. Household members aged 15 and over were selected. The variables that structured the sample were: living in urban and suburban areas (residents could be of urban or rural origin), gender, working versus not working, and being well-educated versus relatively uneducated. The latter two statuses were assigned on the basis of self-claims by the respondents.

Although the sample was small it provided rich data for the analysis of time use in different settlements, and among different income and gender groups. In this study, leisure is considered as a subjective experience and is investigated primarily by qualitative methods, namely, individual and focus group interviews. Since this approach required qualitative analysis of activities and spaces we relied mostly on the individual interviews. Face-to-face interviews were complemented by site observation and photographs of the physical characteristics of the households and neighbourhoods. How specific spaces influenced uses of time in terms of duration and quality was the major concern. The methods and some of the findings from this research have been presented earlier (IATUR, 2007). Here we seek clues about uses of leisure that locate it in the Turkish context.

Procedure of data evaluation

Simple statistical analyses were applied only to show correlations between variables. The household and individual questionnaire forms and activity lists were evaluated by two different researchers separately to note prominent patterns of time-use. An additional reviewer repeated the procedure independently to check the validity of the evaluations (see Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003, on the evaluation of qualitative data). Although our evaluation covers all kinds of activities, this study presents only the leisure activities – measured by duration as well as variety – and investigates if and how these activities varied according to income, education and settlement.

We had a strong belief that space would be influential in time-use both in terms of the physical qualities of the space in which the activities took place and in terms of the location of and facilities provided by the settlement in which the respondents lived. The five settlements in the survey were chosen to reflect this variety. However, we noticed that the responses did not provide sufficient clues about the location of activities other than a few specially mentioned public spaces. For example, people differentiated one mall from the other by stating their names, but interior household private spaces remained undefined in most cases. We only know about the appearances of the houses and facilities nearby through ob-
servation. The household survey indicated that some appliances were common to all – TVs, refrigerators and washing machines – while only a few had internet connections, cable TV, DVD, camera recorders, and motor cars. House ownership also varied.

**Findings**

The statistical analyses have been presented in detail in IATUR (2007). Here, the focus is on the findings that indicate overall patterns of leisure activities. Statistical analyses show that settlement type and individual income level, and education and household income level, were weakly correlated, as expected. Home ownership was correlated with settlement type, yet the findings indicate a different pattern from what might be expected. Home ownership was most common in rural and squatter settlements, followed by gated communities.

For analyzing differences in patterns of leisure activities, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the five types of settlements. The results indicated that there were significant differences in leisure activities but not in watching TV, duration of watching TV, number of outdoor leisure activities or number of indoor leisure activities. Time estimates, number of outdoor leisure activities and overall duration of leisure did not appear to be different between the settlements. However, within a comparable leisure period people tended to be involved in different leisure activities in the different settlements. Indoor leisure seemed to play a large role in these differences. Thus, house facilities such as a balcony and garden might have an influence on this pattern. This supports the view that that housing facilities somehow shape leisure styles, even if not the duration.

Socio-demographic factors were also compared within settlement types. Income seemed to influence the types of leisure but not the duration or the number of activities. High-income groups reported a more active and outdoor leisure pattern. Education seemed to influence the number and duration of leisure activities other than watching TV. Gender had an influence only on time estimates but seemed to be the most powerful determining factor in time estimates, which could be partly because women appeared to be more accurate estimators than men. However, it is interesting to note that the number and duration of leisure activities were not statistically different between women and men.

Statistical analyses provided some valuable information on the explanatory factors for the leisure patterns of different groups even though the sample was quite small. Settlement characteristics seemed to play a more powerful role in shaping leisure patterns than income level, education and gender, a finding which requires further research. Education was the second most important factor which appeared more influential over leisure patterns than income or gender. Gender did not appear to be an important factor in this respect, though its influence on time estimates invites further attention.

**General observations based on qualitative data**

The most salient findings that are based on individual and focus group interviews and observations of settlement characteristics are the following:

- There are differences in time perception between different groups of people, including gender differences in time estimates. Distortions in reported uses of time appeared most common by unemployed males, which can possibly be explained as an effort to reduce reported amounts of idle time, which is perceived negatively in Turkish society.

- Idleness seems to disturb low-income people because of social norms that devalue it. Unemployed males experience anxiety when describing their leisure time and activities.

- Watching television is the dominant leisure activity for all groups. Only among low-income groups does listening to the radio, which used to be the most common pastime before TV, still remain common.

- Volunteer work is limited everywhere but tends to be informal and communal in rural and squatter areas, and more organized among high-income urban groups. It is probably grossly over-estimated in terms of duration as it is highly approved by social norms.
Sport activities are limited for all groups where there are different perceptions of the same activity. A daily leisurely walk would be reported as a sport activity by low-income, less educated people in an effort to report an active lifestyle. Organized sport activities are accessible only for high-income people.

A gender difference was observed in reporting feelings. Females talked more easily about their disliked activities, mainly domestic chores, whereas males talked about obligations and routines when they disliked an activity. Domestic chores are disliked by all groups, except child-care, which is praised by Turkish society.

Religious rituals differ among settlements. Residents in rural and squatter settlements practice religion more; daily prayers are more common there compared to other parts of the city. Males go to mosque for prayer and to socialize with their peers, whereas females pray only at home.

There appears to be a positive relationship between community ties and spatial characteristics, such as better maintenance and cleaning. People with strong community ties also have a stronger place attachment regardless of income level.

Discussion and conclusion

The research findings presented above are part of the time-use survey that was carried out in Ankara, the capital city of Turkey. In this paper, the evidence has been used to explore different leisure patterns and activities so as to offer a contemporary account of leisure in Turkey. Being perceived by the Western world as a part of Eastern culture despite her efforts to adopt Western values during the modernization period is one crucial problem for Turkey. The Ottoman lifestyle, which left little trace after the foundation of the Republic in 1923, has been a salient part of the West's oriental view of Turkey. "Leisure as passing time" is deeply rooted in Turkish history, and is now mixed with "leisure as escaping pressure" under the more stressful conditions of contemporary urban life (see, Watkins and Bond, 2007 for definitions). Recreation involving the arts, music and sport appears to be an under-developed aspect of leisure in present-day Turkey. The organization of daily life for many people does not provide time and space for such activities due to economic and cultural constraints.

Some characteristics of the Turkish people such as organizing daily life around work still persist. The first and utmost important quality is mixing the two distinct areas of work and leisure successfully. Many people enrich their work with social engagements with colleagues and meet friends during their daily routines. Business meals are common for people in management and professional jobs, particularly those who are close to global links. However, almost all Turkish citizens experience leisure as mixed with other daily practices. Hence, distinctions between leisure and other activities are not clear, a characteristics which provides support for perceiving leisure as a state of mind and as an end in itself rather than an activity that leads to other results such as productivity and health. This may be partly because of the development level of the country in which the organization of leisure is still weak, yet definitely bears the imprint of Turkey's historical and cultural background. This aspect requires further research and analysis.

There is an increasing tendency to see leisure as a state of mind and a source of experiences such as relaxation. The "slow city" movement that originated in Europe is a good example of searching for a new way of life in the pursuit of happiness (www.slowcity.com). This development may be seen as an alternative to work and productivity-oriented leisure (Hilbrecht, 2007; Kleiber, 2000). Distinct leisure patterns in different cultures seem to persist despite global influences. The Turkish case provides a fresh view of leisure and supports this claim. Further research on various aspects of leisure is obviously required to build on these conclusions.

Acknowledgments

The empirical research in this study was partly funded by the Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TUBITAK). The author would like to thank Guliz Mugan for assistance in the statistical analyses and interviews, and Yonca Yildirim and Esin Arsan for their help in data gathering.
REFERENCES


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News and notices

World Leisure Organization’s Board of Directors Elections

Annually the membership of the World Leisure Organization’s Board of Directors is renewed through the organization’s appointment procedures. This past year 20 nominations were received from throughout the world seeking membership on the Board of Directors. Following a review and evaluation by the World Leisure Executive Committee a ballot was advanced to the Board of Directors which included the appointment of 2 members based on the recommendation of the Executive Committee and 12 individuals for 8 available positions. One additional appointment was reserved by the Executive Committee for a later date. The number of positions available occurred as a result of postponing the 2008 election in order to ensure that all specific procedures for elections were utilized.

Members of the World Leisure Organization’s Board of Directors are involved in establishing policy for the Organization and setting the directions for its programs and services in order to accomplish its mission (2006, p. 5). Members may be elected for a three-year term and reappointment is possible following a review by the Executive Committee and approval by the Board of Directors (p. 6). In creating a slate of individuals to be reviewed by the Board of Directors, the Executive Committee is charged with the responsibility of ensuring that there is effective balance, breadth and depth to the group.

Members of the Board of Directors continuing include Dr Karen Barak (USA), Dr Derek Casey (UK), Dr Roger Coles (Canada), Dr Christopher Edginton (USA), Dr Lawal Marafa (Nigeria/Hong Kong), Dr Andre Thibault (Canada), Dr Ricardo Uvinha (Brazil), Dr Larry Neal (USA), and Andrew Williams (UK). They will be joined by several individuals who have been reappointed for a second term and/or will be appointed for an initial three-year term of appointment. Individuals receiving a second three-year term include Peter Chen (New Zealand), Dr Jeong Myung Gim (Republic of Korea), Dr Susan Koch (USA), Dr Francis Lobo (Australia), and Dr Ling Ping (PRC). Following is a brief introduction of each of the newly elected first term members of the World Leisure Organization’s Board of Directors.

Amal Al-Dossari (Kingdom of Bahrain) is advisor to the President for Youth Affairs, General Organization for Youth and Sports, Director of the National Youth Strategy, and Vice President of the International Council for National Youth Policies (ICNYP) for the Kingdom of Bahrain. She is the founder of the Bahrain Youth Parliament Project and has served as the Director of Childhood and Girls’ Activities. She was responsible for overseeing a national survey of childhood in cooperation with UNICEF whose results were brought forward to the United Nations special session on childhood. Al-Dossari is currently heading the team to develop a National Strategy for Childhood. She served as the Kingdom of Bahrain’s liaison to UNICEF and worked with UNESCO. Al-Dossari holds a bachelor degree from the University of Kuwait, a masters from the University of Sheffield in the United Kingdom, and has engaged in advanced study in the areas of...
innovation and governance and the role of civil society at the John F Kennedy School of Government at Harvard University.

Dr Miklos Banhidi (Hungary) is professor at Apáczai Csere János Faculty at Western-Hungarian University in Győr, Hungary. Fluent in English, German, Russian and Hungarian, Bánhidi’s work has involved international youth exchange projects for peace and understanding in Europe, Asia and South America including major programs of service in India. As Vice-President of United Games International, he has worked to link youth in a positive fashion throughout the world. Bánhidi brings great knowledge of sport geography, sport tourism, and games and sport pedagogy to the World Leisure Organization. He is the founding member of the prestigious Coimbra Network of Physical Education and Sport Science, an organization of academic institutions in Europe, North America, South America, Asia and Africa. Bánhidi holds a bachelors degree from the University of Pécs (Hungary), a diploma and masters degree from Semmelweis University and a doctorate from the University of Pécs. He has served as the head of the Department of Physical Education at the University of Pécs and served as a professor, researcher and lecturer in Austria and the United States.

Amos Balongo (Kenya/USA) has experience working with programs to advance services related to leisure, play and camping for children and youth. He is associated with the Camp Ohana Foundation (Nairobi, Kenya) and is the founder and president of Leader Compass. This profit-oriented organization provides leadership and development opportunities through volunteer, internship, and field experience at numerous companies throughout the world. He formerly served as Associate Director for the International YMCA in New York City, New York. In this role, he provided oversight for international counselors participating in the YMCA resident and day camp programs in 29 states and has consulted with over 300 resident camps to internationalize their programs. Further he was the liaison between the international YMCA and the African Alliance YMCAs as well as serving to support the International YMCA’s United Nations consultative activities. Balongo holds a bachelors degree in business administration from Newport University in Kenya.

Dr Gerald Fain (USA) is a long-standing member of the World Leisure Organization dating back to 1997. He currently serves as the World Leisure Organization’s representative to the United Nations. Dr. Fain is one of the world’s outstanding academic leaders in the area of recreation and leisure with expertise in the area of ethics. He has served as a professor at the University of Maryland, Boston University, and Springfield College. His bachelor degree was earned at Springfield College (USA), masters degree at the University of North Carolina (USA), and doctorate at the University of Maryland. He has served as the president of the National Therapeutic Recreation Society, the American Leisure Academy, and the Massachusetts School Health Association. He has worked with emotionally disturbed and adjudicated youth and has published more than 40 papers, nine book chapters, and delivered more than 100 lectures nationally and internationally.

Dr Ana Faro (Portugal) is professor, Faculty of Physical Education and Sport Science, Universidade de Coimbra. Dr. Faro is the first female to earn a doctoral degree in physical education in Portugal. Her doctoral dissertation was supervised and conducted at Universite Libre de Bruxelles. Dr. Faro’s scholarly work has been published in Australia, Brazil, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Macau, Mozambique, United Kingdom and the United States of America. She has had numerous visiting professorship positions in the United Kingdom, Brazil and Macau. The focus of her work has been in the area of sport. She served as the founder and president of the prestigious Coimbra Network of Sport Sciences and Physical Education.

CHRISTOPHER R. EDGINTON, Ph.D.
Secretary General
The 2011 World Leisure EXPO and Beyond

The World Leisure EXPO will continue in Hangzhou, The People’s Republic of China in 2011 and beyond. A collaborative relationship between the World Leisure Organization and the Hangzhou People’s Municipal Government (HMG) concluded with the signing of an agreement in June 2009. The 2011 World Leisure EXPO will be held from September to November and focus on the theme of “Leisure ~ Enhancing Quality of Life.” The event will be organized into commercial and trading activities focused on tourism, culture and sports activities, and exhibitions and a conference forum. The main venue for the World Leisure EXPO will be in the Xiaoshan District of Hangzhou.

The agreement for the 2011 World Leisure EXPO calls for the event “...as a grand gathering” to publicize advance leisure concepts, display diversified leisure culture, provide rich leisure experience and develop modern leisure industry “...as well as]...construct Hangzhou into an international leisure center” (2009). The agreement has three basic objectives as follows:

1) to promote the exchanges and publicity of the leisure concepts, services and products between nations in the world, the developing nations in particular;

2) to promote the healthy development of the leisure economy and culture and to increase its contributions for enhancing the quality of life for all the people; and

3) to promote the sustainable development of China’s leisure cause and to give impetus to Zhejiang, Hangzhou in particular, to become a famous leisure convention and exhibition hub and leisure tourist destination (2009).

In order to stage the various events of the 2011 World Leisure EXPO, several venues are being constructed. These include the Hangzhou Olympic Sport Center and Congress Center and the development of the Xianghu Lake region into a leisure holiday resort. This latter facility will provide the main garden for leisure exhibition and festival events. The Sport Center will ultimately provide an 80,000 seat stadium and will be multipurpose in nature enabling for a variety of events. Across from the Olympic Sport Center will be a new development that will feature a 5-star hotel, a 1,600 seat Opera House/Theatre and a host of other leisure venues such as cafes, bars and other social outlets. The offices for HMG will be relocated into a new building at this site. Essentially, the area will provide a new leisure-focused city center, drawing into it many venues for tourist, sport and cultural activities.

The agreement emphasizes the joint ownership of the World Leisure EXPO brand and names as principle sponsors the Hangzhou People’s Municipal Government and the World Leisure Organization (WLO). WLO, along with HMG, jointly own the property rights of the World Leisure EXPO including the name brand and logo. WLO’s responsibilities include inviting international guests from governmental and nongovernmental organizations and promoting the event through media and the organizational network of WLO. Further, WLO will jointly sponsor with HMG an annual “International Forum on Leisure Development.” The Organizing Committee of the World Leisure EXPO will provide oversight for the events including development of venues, staffing and raising funds.

In addition to the 2011 World Leisure EXPO Agreement, WLO and HMG signed a long term agreement to support the staging
of the event in perpetuity in Hangzhou starting in 2016. The agreement calls for the staging of the World Leisure EXPO on a 5-year basis in Hangzhou. Following the 2011 or Second World Leisure EXPO, future events will be named in ordinal fashion such as the Third World Leisure EXPO, etc. The future themes of the EXPO will be subject to mutual agreement between WLO and HMG. Objectives of this agreement are similar to those established in the 2011 World Leisure EXPO contract.

The management of the World Leisure EXPO’s after 2012 will be under the direction of a “World Leisure EXPO Committee.” This committee will consist of seven individuals; three drawn from WLO and three from HMG. The seventh person, the chair of the committee, will be appointed on 5-year basis and rotated between WLO and HMG with the first chairperson coming from HMG. Within this agreement, an annual payment will be made to WLO by HMG. Funds will be used for marketing, publicity, communications, international liaison, transportation and day-to-day office work performed at the World Leisure Secretariat.

Derek Casey, Chairman of the WLO Board of Directors, and Jack Agrios, member of the WLO Board of Directors, were responsible for negotiating the final agreements on behalf of WLO. Their meetings followed a series of meetings in Hangzhou conducted by Casey and Christopher Edginton, Secretary General in both 2007 and 2009. Casey noted in his report to the World Leisure Organization’s Board of Directors that “... the objective of Hangzhou is to reposition the city toward the river and .... [the World Leisure EXPO] ... is one of several installations being built” (2009, p. 3). Also, he noted “in the two years since the EXPO, there have been astonishing developments within the city” (ibid).

Dr. Ling Ping, Professor and Dean of the School of Physical Education and Health at Hangzhou Normal University and a member of WLO’s Board of Directors, played a key role in assisting Casey and Agrios. He was instrumental in helping to build harmonious relationships between WLO and HMG. As Casey noted in his report, relationships between HMG and WLO were positive and welcoming. "Much of this was helped by the support provided by Ling Ping who worked tirelessly before and during the week in supporting the initiative” (ibid).

The signing of the 2011 World Leisure EXPO Agreement between HMG and WLO, and the establishment of an agreement for future World Leisure EXPO’s provides a significant milestone in the history of the organization. The World Leisure EXPO will provide a way of focusing and supporting the work of the organization over an extended period of time. The value of this initiative will allow for the extension of the World Leisure brand, trademarks and logo. It will heighten the value and importance of the work of WLO as the event gains prominence on a worldwide basis.

CHRISTOPHER R. EDGINTON, Ph.D.
Secretary General

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Kudos to Ken Roberts ~
Welcome to Grant Cushman and Bob Gidlow
The World Leisure Journal Changes Editors

With this issue of the World Leisure Journal, Ken Roberts concludes his term as Editor. Currently, Ken serves as Professor of Sociology in the School of Sociology and Social Policy at the University of Liverpool. He has served as editor of the World Leisure Journal from 2004-2008 (volumes 47-51). Building on the work of previous editor Frances Lobo, Ken did an outstanding job of continuing to enhance the quality and reputation of the publication. During his tenure, the journal was reformatted, a new cover was adopted and the number of pages increased. With great precision, the review process was effectively managed to ensure that articles were drawn from throughout the world and each volume and issue of the journal was produced in a timely fashion.

Over the years, Ken has had a distinguished career as a professor and scholar. He has contributed numerous articles in the areas of youth and leisure to the literature and published nearly 40 books. Most recently, his book title include The Leisure Industries: Leisure in Contemporary Society; Youth in Transition: In Eastern Europe and the West; and Key Concepts in Sociology. Ken has also served as a member of the editorial advisory board for both Leisure Sciences (1986 1992) and Society and Leisure (1984 1996). He currently serves as a member of the editorial board of the Journal of Education and Work. Also, he has served as the Chair of the World Leisure and Recreation Association Research Commission (1991-1996).

I first met Ken on an informal basis in Brisbane, Australia 2004 World Leisure Congress. I was immediately drawn to him as a result of his keen intellectual vigor, dry wit and his willingness to engage others in conversation. In December 2004, we were both invited to speak at the 1st International Leisure Symposium organized by the Korean Society of Leisure and Culture Studies and ChunCheon City, Korea. The event was held in the Kangchon Resort located in a pristine environment some 30 minutes from ChunCheon City. I followed Ken in his presentation which was mainly focused on deconstructing the notion that leisure enhanced quality of life. It was a powerful presentation and quite rational, logical and supported by scientific evidence.

Of course, I was mortified because my presentation was directly focused on the World Leisure Organization’s mantra of leisure improving the quality of life and wellbeing of individuals. Quite frankly, I quickly rewrote my speech to suggest that “managers” as contrasted with the analysis that may provided by one using sociological framework of inquiry and critique are engaged in “... the crafting of environments, enabling the uplifting of leisure experiences that have changed the lives of countless individuals – we deal with the promise of what could be – our visions.” I’m not sure I won the day but Ken did propel me to think very deeply about the claims that we make regarding the relationship between leisure and quality of life. After my presentation, he rightfully claimed that I was a “true believer” and was fashioned in the North American perspective of leisure which, again, caused me to rethink and broaden my views.

The World Leisure Organization greatly appreciates the efforts of Ken Roberts and wish to thank him for his significant contributions serving as the editor of the World Leisure Journal. Ken’s understanding of the need for a broad framework to view the work of scholars throughout the world and assist them in bringing their ideas forward will be his lasting legacy as the editor of the World Leisure Journal. He was particularly adept at coaching authors, mitigating reviews (sometimes harsh ones that were biased by one’s geographic location and discipline perspective) and ensuring that the journal reflected a balance of ideas, concepts and perspectives as a worldwide focused publication should. Ken was a delightful person to work with, easy with which to communicate, forthcoming and immediately accessible and responsive via internet. Again, we deeply appreciate Ken Roberts’ contributions to the enhancement of the World Leisure Journal during his term as editor.

Grant Cushman, Professor of Parks, Recreation and Tourism, and Bob Gidlow, Senior Lecturer at Lincoln University in Christchurch, New Zealand have been named the new Coeditors-in-Chief of the World Leisure Journal. Both of these individuals have had distinguished academic careers and will offer great expertise as leisure scholars and administrators to our efforts. The World Leisure Journal Editor-in-Chief Search Committee was chaired by Prof. Atara Sivan and included Ken Roberts, Francis Lobo, Jeong Myung Gim and Karla Henderson. We thank them for their effort and recommendation in advancing both of these two fine individuals to serve in the important role as Coeditors-in-Chief of the World Leisure Journal. We look forward to receiving a positive response from our membership and our colleagues worldwide to the scholarly contributions made by the World Leisure Journal in advancing basic theoretical as well as applied leisure concepts and papers that reveal best practice in the field.

CHRISTOPHER R. EDGINTON, Ph.D.
Secretary General
Upcoming events

9th ANZALS Biennial Conference
Exploring new ideas and new directions
2-4 February 2010
Brisbane, Australia.
Anzals2010@uq.edu.au

International Conference on Sport and Society
8-10 March 2010
University of British Columbia,
Vancouver, Canada.
www.SportConference.com

XVII World Congress of Sociology
11 – 17 July 2010,
Goteborg, Sweden
www.congrex.com/isa2010

11th World Leisure Congress and 1st World Leisure Games
August 28-September 2, 2010 (Congress) / August 28-September 5, 2009 (Games)
Chuncheon, Korea
For more information about the events (including a forthcoming call for papers)
please visit: www.worldleisure2010.org or email: events@worldleisure.org
The World Leisure Journal would like to thank the following for their reviews, advice and other forms of assistance during 2009.

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INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

The World Leisure Journal invites papers on all aspects of leisure, recreation, and related issues from authors throughout the world. The Journal aims to publish studies of theoretical, applied and professional interest. Contributions may be in the form of original articles reporting the author’s research, reviews of a topic or issue, or case studies. Proposals for sets of papers addressing a common theme or issue are also encouraged. Instructions for presentation are provided below. Manuscripts and other proposals, and books for review should be sent to the Editors-in-Chief, Professor Grant Cushman and Bob Gidlow, at the address below.

Material will be considered for publication on the understanding that such material is original and unpublished work, not currently under review by any other journal or publisher, or already accepted for publication elsewhere. The author warrants that the material submitted does not infringe copyright of any other work. The author shall be responsible for all statements made in the material submitted.

Authors are encouraged to submit by email. Hard copies will also be accepted in which case authors should forward three copies of their manuscript (plus a disk copy if possible), word processed in double-line spacing, justified and in Times 12 font, preferably in Microsoft Word, conforming to the general style described in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (5th ed., 2001). Manuscripts should normally be of 3500-6000 words.

Articles should include the following components, each to begin on a new page, in this sequence: title page; abstract and key words; text; acknowledgments; references; tables – each table, complete with title and footnotes, on a separate page; legend for illustrations. The page number should appear in the upper right-hand corner of each page, following the title page.

The title page should contain the title, which should be brief but informative; name(s) of author(s): first name, middle name or initial, and last name, with the highest academic degree(s) and principal position, title, and/or affiliation; name of department(s) and/or institution(s), if any, to which the work should be attributed; name, postal and email address of author responsible for correspondence about the material; the source(s) of support in the form of grants or equipment.

Abstract and keywords. The second page should carry an abstract of not more than 200 words indicating the purpose of the study or investigation, the basic procedures used, the main findings and the principal conclusions, emphasising new and important aspects. Below the abstract authors should state 3 to 10 keywords or short phrases that will assist indexers in cross-indexing the article.

The text should usually be divided into sections with headings (e.g., Introduction, Method, Results, Discussion, and Conclusion).

References: note especially the proper style (APA) for references, both in the text and reference lists. Tables should be numbered consecutively, each given a brief title, and presented in the APA style. Each table should be cited in the text in consecutive order. Tables should be used only when necessary to clarify important points in the text.

Figures and illustrations should be provided as black and white prints or drawn in solid black ink on good quality white paper. Indicate approximate location in the text.

Review of manuscripts. The anonymous review process will be assisted if authors submit initial copies of their manuscripts with all author-identifiable passages and references removed. Please inform the editor-in-chief if such material has been edited-out of the copy submitted.

Upon acceptance of the article for publication, authors should submit by email or on disk the final copy of the work with any revisions, plus short (100 word max) author bios.

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EDITORIAL POLICY

The World Leisure Journal is the official refereed journal of World Leisure. It has a large, worldwide and otherwise diverse readership composed of researchers, scholars, educators, policy-makers and managers in the commercial, public and voluntary sectors, who work in the arts, the media, sport, tourism, community recreation, therapeutic recreation and other specific fields, and in leisure in general.

The journal’s policy is to publish papers that will be of interest to this readership. Authors are necessarily from particular countries and particular academic disciplines, and often have special interests and expertise in the arts, sport, tourism etc, but can still have important things to say that are relevant to the entire readership. We publish papers arising from narrowly-focused research projects where the findings and conclusions are of much wider interest alongside theoretical contributions where the arguments are relevant to people working in any of the various fields of leisure and whatever the country. The journal also publishes state of the art reviews dealing with specific forms of leisure, the leisure of particular socio-demographic groups, or leisure in particular countries or world regions. The journal also welcomes reviews of the state of leisure research and teaching in particular countries or groups of countries. Contributions are welcome from authors in cognate (to leisure) fields such as health, migration, family and youth studies, and criminology. Offers of sets of papers addressing a common issue or topic, possibly arising from workshops or conferences, are also welcome.

The papers selected for publication are typically 3500-6000 words in length but the journal will also consider shorter research notes, contributions to debates and responses to papers in previous issues, plus occasional longer contributions where the content and relevance to the readership justify the length.