

CHAPTER SIX

PASSIVE OUTDOOR PURSUITS

Activities discussed in this chapter chiefly are passive activities, requiring a low output of energy, even though they take place outdoors. Several of them depend upon a money income, and others need an urban environment for an opportunity to engage. Several of them might be called "road culture activities," for they typically require automobile travel.

Driving for pleasure, with a weight of 0.73 toward the total "passive" score presented in table 4, appendix A, and sightseeing (0.70) contribute most to the "passive score." Other activities receiving fairly high weights are walking for pleasure (0.53), picnicking (0.49), nature walks (0.46), and outdoor events (0.39). To these is added attending outdoor concerts and drama, which was not included in the factor analysis reported in appendix A because of the relatively low frequency of participation.

The total participation score developed from applying rates to the days participation in these activities is the third most predictable score so developed. From 8 percent to 28 percent of the variance in the score can be accounted for by regression on the various background characteristics presented in the appendix A, table 12. Age, urbanization, place of residence, and health, combined, are better predictors of this score than occupation, education, and income. Age is the most useful predictor in the Northeastern States.

As an example, let us examine picnicking. Participation is higher in large urban places than in smaller urban places, but also is higher in rural areas. It appeals to females more than males. Participation rates increase through the first three classes of income, but over most of the rest of the income range, the participation rate is fairly stable, although this varies somewhat by size of place of residence. Professional, white collar, and craftsmen occupations engage more than some other occupations, irrespective of place of residence. Among those aged 25 and above, participation increases with years of schooling. It declines with health, but impairments do not limit participation in picnicking.

As another example, walking for pleasure is an annual activity rather than a seasonal one. Females engage more than males, and the participation rates are age-related. Residents of large cities participate more than those who live in rural areas. Both the low income and the high income groups participate at rates somewhat higher than those in the middle income range. Education and occupation have very little association with walking for pleasure.

Such relationships as these serve not only to provide a basis for predicting the participation level in the activity but also suggest the clientele or "public" for the activity. They tell us, among

other things, who do not currently participate, should we be interested in stimulating them to greater participation in the activity. They also show who participate quite frequently, should we be interested in the characteristics of the market.

Several implications are suggested for meeting future demand for these activities, but only one or two of the passive activities present problems in meeting the demand. Picnic facilities, perhaps, are the greatest problem, for picnicking is an outdoor activity most compatible with a large number of more vigorous, outdoor sports. Providing picnic areas and facilities adjacent to the lakes and streams, at scenic points, along roadsides, and in city parks, particularly for family groups, will meet this demand. In addition, there are implications for city planning and sightseeing in the evidence on walking for pleasure, nature walks, and sightseeing.

PICKNICKING

Taking food together out of doors was enjoyed by 53 percent of the population during summer 1960. Thus picnicking is the single activity enjoyed by a larger percentage of people than any other, although it does not rank highest in total activity-days. Among the population 12 years of age and over, each person went on 2.14 picnics during the 3-month period. Slightly higher percentages went on picnics in the Northeast (57 percent) and the North Central region (58 percent), than in the South (43 percent). (See table 1.02.13.)

Although chiefly a summer outdoor activity, picnicking is engaged in to some extent in other seasons: 0.62 occasions per person in the fall and 0.56 occasions per person in the spring, but only 0.21 in the winter. Fall rates are somewhat greater in the West than other regions, and winter rates are greater in the South and West (tables 1.01, 2.01, 3.01, 4.01).

The popularity of picnicking may rest upon its simplicity and the universal appeal of food, its chief "raison d'être." Picnics take only brief periods of time—half day, or an entire day—never more. There may be a small expenditure in reaching the site of the picnic, although this may be quite inexpensive if the picnic area can be reached on foot or by bus, subway, etc. Other than this expenditure, no additional cash outlay is required for a picnic. The food one normally would consume at home is consumed in the open air. However, one's capital outlay for picnicking equipment may be fairly extensive: stoves, ice chests, picnic table and portable chairs, thermos jugs, outfitted baskets for food, etc. On the other hand one may picnic with only a paper sack and bottled or canned drinks. As with fishing,

one may spend little or much. Consequently, the cost factor may vary with the income level of the family participating. There is little or no physical activity involved in picnicking, per se. However, on picnics, people customarily play games, hike, swim, walk for pleasure, or indulge in other more or less strenuous activities. The picnic, itself, however, need only be as physically demanding as is necessary to transport food to picnic site. Consequently, little physical activity or skill is required. This gives picnicking an appeal among all age groups.

The skills needed to cook and serve at home are also needed on a picnic if food is prepared in the open. Additional skill may be required to cook in the open over a wood fire, as opposed to the household kitchen, and there may be skills associated with serving food at its best in the open. Once such skills are learned, however, practicing them may provide satisfactions to the cook (witness the institutionalized picnic that annually calls upon the same person to barbecue chicken). It is doubtful that participating in a picnic enables one to achieve status to any degree. Perhaps participating in some picnics among some groups contributes status, but it is doubtful that this is generally true for a family picnic.

The locale of the picnic may vary greatly. It may be a city park or zoo with picnic tables; it may be a roadside picnic table; it may be a meadow without facilities; it may be a commercial recreation area which may charge a small fee for use of the table. The variation in locale makes picnicking an activity which may be engaged in, potentially, by all population segments, irrespective of place of residence. By the same token, the quality of the experience may vary widely, depending upon the locale as well as the expectations of the participants.

Motivation to picnic must essentially be social. Eating is a social function. Eating in the open with friends, relatives, or office associates, becomes a convivial experience. Another possible motive is to enable a visit to the country. With food as the objective one may visit places where restaurants and sandwich shops are not located and engage in a variety of outdoor activities. Picnics, then, provide the sustenance function necessary for other outdoor activities. Being together for an outdoor swim or a day at the beach is made possible by a picnic. Driving for pleasure or a sightseeing trip is made possible by taking food along and having a picnic at a roadside spot. A visit to a mountain, lake, or nature trail, is possible when food is carried along for a picnic. Picnics, then, facilitate other outdoor activities. Almost every one who has ever gone on a picnic repeats the experience. The most frequent reason given for not doing so was that they did not like the outdoors environment.

Picnicking rates

The highest rate of picnicking (2.8 picnics per person during the summer months) is in the Northeastern region while the South had the lowest, (1.3 picnics per person during the summer). The West had a lower rate, 2.09, than the North Central States, 2.34. Except for the South, regional variation is not great (table 1.02.13).

Females engage at a slightly higher rate than males, for the United States as a whole in summer (2.28 compared with 1.98). In fact, in the Northeast and South the male and female participation rates are about the same, while in the North Central States and the West the female rate exceeds the male by a little more than one-half occasion per person during the summer.

For males, the picnicking rate declines slightly with age from the 12 to 17 year old group and is about constant at 2.3 occasions for the summer months for the male group aged 18 through 44. For older ages, thereafter, the rate declines. Among females, the rate is fairly constant to age 44 and then declines also. However, among the older ages, the female rate is greater than the male rate for each age group. These patterns generally are repeated within each region (table 1.02.13).

The rate of picnicking in rural areas is the same as for the Nation as a whole (2.14). However, among urban places the rate varies from 1.76 in small cities (2,500 to 50,000) to 2.4 in cities of over 1 million. The higher participation rate among males in large urban places (over 1 million) is especially pronounced among the 12 to 24 year age group. The low rate among males in small urban places is constant for each age group until age 45 and over. This pattern of unusually high rates among younger ages in the large cities is repeated among females. An exception is the female rate in small cities which is not as low as the male. However, this difference is not due to sampling, but to a significantly greater number of females engaging in picnics (table 1.03.13).

Picnicking rates present a curvilinear relationship with an urban-rural continuum. (This continuum: urban over 1 million, SMA under 1 million, urban outside SMA, rural in SMA, rural nonfarm, rural farm.) With such a rough ordering, the picnicking rate declines from 2.41 for the most urban group to 1.76 for small urban places, then increases to 2.41 for the rural nonfarm population. The rural farm population picnics less than any other group, 1.39 per person. This pattern is generally repeated for each region, with the South showing greater discrepancy from it, having less variation between size of place of residence classes (table 1.02.13).

Picnicking increases with increasing family income to the \$6,000 to \$7,999 income class and declines slightly thereafter. Actually, even though there is an increase in the rate and some other variation, participation is fairly constant beyond the \$4,500 annual income class. This suggests that income is of no consequence in conditioning participation beyond the first two or three lower income classes. The peak participation rate in the Northeast and North Central regions are reached with the \$10,000 to \$14,999 income class. However, the peak rate for the South is the \$6,000 to \$7,999 income class, while the peak rate for the West is the \$3,000 to \$4,499 income class. In the South and West picnicking is less popular with the higher income classes. In summary, the data suggests that income is a barrier to picnic participation only for the lower income classes. Given a minimum income level, a family

may participate in picnicking as freely as it wishes (table 1.02.13).

The pattern observed above of decreasing participation as one moves from the largest urban center to the smaller urban center, is repeated for each income class with fair consistency. For example, the successive rates from largest place of residence class to the small urban place is 1.47 to 0.77 to 0.88, for the lowest income class, and 3.5 to 2.2 to 2.0 for the income class \$10,000 to \$14,999. Variations in this pattern occur principally among the middle income classes. This suggests the stability of the effect of size of place of residence on picnicking. The higher rates among the higher income classes in large urban places suggest the attractiveness of picnicking as an alternative recreation for people living in large cities. Perhaps availability or accessibility to a picnicking spot affects this participation rate to some degree. On the other hand, the rural population (in and out of SMA) is generally quite close to the national mean for each income class. The rural population (in and out of SMA) more closely resembles picnicking rates of cities over 1 million than it does small urban places (2,500 to 50,000). (See table 1.03.13.)

Participation among whites is greater than among nonwhites (2.23 per person during the summer compared with 1.36 per person). This relative relationship holds for each region except the West where the nonwhite and white participation is about equal (2.13 for nonwhite to 2.09 for the white). The actual percentages participating are closer than these figures suggest. Nationally, 54 percent of the white went picnicking one or more times during the summer as compared with 45 percent of the nonwhite population. The nonwhite population participates at its lowest rate in the South as also does the white population, and participates more frequently in the North Central region and the West (table 1.02.13).

Nonwhite participation in cities over 1 million is greater than nonwhite participation for any other residence category. Next highest participation is among the small city population (1.57). The nonwhite rate in cities 50,000 to 1 million and in rural areas are equally low (0.96 and 0.91). These relative rates are repeated for both nonwhite males and females. In general, the female participation rate tends to exceed the male rate in both the white and nonwhite segments. (table 1.03.13).

Picnicking by occupation

Picnicking is more frequently engaged in by the professional, technical, white-collar and craftsmen-foremen occupational groups. Laborers, service workers, and others, engage considerably less. The higher participation levels among these occupational classes is evident in each region (table 1.02.13).

The high participating occupational groups also occupy the first ranking positions for each size of place of residence class. The effect, then, of occupation is fairly clear (table 1.03.13).

For the population aged 25 years or more, the rate of participation increases with years of schooling. This pattern is repeated with some consistency within each region. While the interaction of income and

education may have some effect in depressing participation rates among groups with little formal schooling, this does not explain the continued increase with years of schooling (table 1.02.13). Higher participation rates are associated with occupations requiring greater educational attainment. Picnicking frequently is an organizational affair, associated with the head of household's place of work, or a social event sponsored by an institution, such as a church or association. These observations reinforce the assumption, made earlier, that motivation to picnic is derived from these social factors.

The rate of picnicking declines with assessment of health from excellent to poor, for both male and female within each major age classification (youth, 12-17; the vigorous years, 18-44; middle age, 45-64; and the elder population, 65 and over). For some of the age classifications, there is little difference in rates between those reporting "excellent" and "good" health. Middle-aged persons reporting "good" health picnic more than those of "excellent" health (table 1.04.13).

However, having impairments does not limit picnicking. Those with impairments go picnicking as frequently as those without them. In particular, those whose impairments do not limit their activity picnic at somewhat higher rates than those whose impairments are limiting. However, for the 18-44 age group, those with impairments which are not limiting participate less (3.08) than those whose impairments are limiting (3.32). The fact that persons with impairments can and do participate frequently in picnicking indicates that this outdoor activity places a low physical demand upon the participants. It also emphasizes the importance of this type of outdoor recreation for physically handicapped persons (table 1.04.13).

Picnicking ranks second in the preference order, 33 percent of the population indicating a preference for it (either 1st, 2d, or 3d choice). The high popularity of this outdoor activity gives it precedence as a planning objective. In addition, the time people prefer to go picnicking is fairly clear. More than for vacations, weekend trips, or even for periods of 2 to 3 hours, people prefer to picnic on a day's outing, 31 percent of the population so indicating. Picnicking is the activity preferred above all others for a day's outing, the next most frequently mentioned being swimming with 14 percent of the population selecting it. The implication of this preference is quite clear. When planning for any given population, picnicking facilities should be so located that the outing may take place within a day, usually between breakfast and evening. Picnicking, also, was mentioned as a first preference by 3 to 4 percent of the population when considering vacation, weekend trips, or when only 2 or 3 hours are available (table 1.21).

Nationally, the general preference for picnicking (about 33 percent of the population) is approximately the same irrespective of size of place of residence. There are some variations in this pattern by region. For example, in the Northeast, there is a somewhat higher preference for picnicking in the small urban places (not in SMA), 40 percent of this population mentioning picnicking. In the North Central States,

the rural population close to large cities is the group which most frequently prefers to picnic. On the other hand, in the South the large city resident mentions picnicking more than people living in other size of place of residence groups (42 percent mentioning). (See table 1.17.)

As a general preference, picnicking is mentioned differently by male and female when considered by age. The younger males—under 24 years of age—mention picnicking less frequently than females of the same age. Older males (above 25) mention picnicking more than younger ones, but still not as frequently as females in corresponding ages. Those mentioning picnicking more often than any other group are the female 25 to 44 years of age, perhaps mothers with small children. Forty percent of females over 65 years of age mention picnicking as a preferred activity. For this age group, picnicking is the 2nd most frequently mentioned preference, about equal to driving for pleasure in popularity among the older population (table 1.17).

Picnicking on a day's outing

Since picnicking ranks high in order of preference for a day's outing, let us examine the characteristics of those who more frequently prefer picnicking for a day's outing (table 1.28).

For the United States as a whole, the percent mentioning picnicking for a day's outing varies little by size of place of residence, the percentages hovering around the United States average of 31 percent. In the Northeast, those living in standard metropolitan areas mention picnicking slightly more frequently than the remainder of the Northeast population. This is not true, however, in the North Central region, but it is true in the South. In the West, on the other hand, persons living in cities of over 1 million have the lowest preference of any size of place of residence class for picnicking, but those living in somewhat smaller cities (SMA under 1 million) mention picnicking more frequently. In general, it would appear that there is a greater concentration of demand in large city areas than elsewhere, although picnicking on a day's outing is generally popular among all groups.

As an activity for a day's outing, picnicking is chiefly preferred among those 25 to 44 years of age, both male and female. As was true for general preferences, picnicking preference for a day's outing, is more among females of each age group than males. Undoubtedly, the less strenuous physical demand of picnicking, plus the opportunity it offers for children to play, is essentially a feminine consideration. Thirty-seven percent of females prefer picnicking for a day's outing compared with 25 percent among males.

Activities associated with picnicking

Those who participate in picnicking express a preference for a variety of other activities. Examining some of these suggests the activities which persons who picnic also would enjoy engaging in simultaneously while picnicking. These data also suggest the set of activities which are appropriate for planners to

consider for the day's outing. Swimming leads the list for the summer period: as the rate of participation in picnicking increases from zero to four or more (for the 3-month period) the percentage preferring swimming increases from 32 to 57 percent. In like manner the percent who prefer boating increases from 9 percent for zero participants to 15 percent among participants going picnicking four or more times in the summer. A similar preference pattern is found for water skiing, camping, and horseback riding. On the other hand, days participation in picnicking is negatively associated with the percentage mentioning fishing and hunting as preferred activities. Picnickers frequently mention driving for pleasure (25 percent) and sightseeing (18 percent) but the percentages are not consistently related to days of picnicking participation (table 1.12).

Activities associated with picnicking also may be identified by examining correlation coefficients of days activity during the summer with other activities. Highly associated are swimming (0.38), driving for pleasure (0.27), playing outdoor games and sports (0.26), sightseeing (0.25), boating (0.24) and nature walks (0.23). (See appendix A, table 3C).

Within the labor force population, service workers and white-collar workers generally prefer picnicking more than other occupational classes. Note that professional-technical and craftsmen-foremen participate considerably more than their expressed preference for it suggests. On the other hand, service workers mention picnicking often (40 percent) and actually participate heavily (48 percent). (Compare tables 1.20 and 1.02.13.)

Forty-two percent of those who prefer picnicking find that they can participate as often as they like. On the other hand, the reason 32 percent of the population who prefer picnicking do not engage more often is lack of time. Financial reasons are mentioned by only 7 percent of those who prefer picnicking, while nonavailability of facilities is mentioned by only 5 percent. Thus, leisure time to engage in picnicking is the principal reason people do not engage as often as they would like. This strongly suggests that any increase in available leisure time will stimulate some increase in picnicking. This pattern is the same for both male and female. Males prefer picnicking somewhat less than females, and say in larger proportions (49 percent) that they picnic as often as they like (compared with 39 percent participating freely among females). This, of course, refers only to those who express a preference for picnicking (table 1.14B).

WALKING FOR PLEASURE

Walking for pleasure is second only to driving for pleasure in annual rate of participation. The population engages 17.9 occasions per person annually. These occasions are distributed fairly evenly throughout the year. In fact, the rate during the winter is slightly greater than other seasons (4.88 for winter, 4.34 for summer). Perhaps the higher rate in winter partly reflects the fact that alternative activities are less possible during this season. Annually, the Northeast has a higher rate of walking for pleasure than other regions, 24.6 occasions per

person. In each region the winter season is the peak season for walking except in the West, where the spring is the highest. The annual participation for regions other than the Northeast are about the same, the South being slightly lower (tables 1.01, 2.01, 3.01, and 4.01).

Walking for pleasure may be done without expense, at any time, for long or short periods. Facilities are always available and accessible, although some streets and byways undoubtedly are more desirable than others, and inclement weather may detract from one's pleasure. In days per person during the summer 1960, only swimming and driving for pleasure exceeded the rate of 4.34 occasions per person of walking for pleasure. Participation was the greatest in the Northeast (6.46) but the remaining regions were about equal (3.18 to 3.88). (See table 1.02.17.)

Females engage on the average about one occasion more than males during the summer. In each region females engage more than males; in the West, females engage considerably more than males (4.86 to 2.74 days per person). The relation between age and walking for pleasure varies with sex. Males engage more heavily at the extremes of the age distribution (that is, both young and old) and less in middle ages (25 to 44), while females engage more heavily in the younger ages and less as the female grows older (the rate changing from 9.6 for the 12-17 year female group to 2.7 for the 65 and over group). (See table 1.02.17.)

This difference in participation in walking for pleasure, by age-sex is fairly consistent for the four regions.

Perhaps the infirmities of age cause older females to reduce participation, while males increase the amount they walk as they enter the retirement period. There is no evidence available to support the inference that the heavier mortality among the nonwalkers leaves a greater concentration of walkers in the older ages among males, but the idea seems reasonable.

The heavier rate of walking for pleasure among the residents of the Northeast is reflected both in the rate for large urban places (over 1 million population) and among the rural population, both groups having higher participation rates than comparable groups in other regions.

For the United States as a whole, the urban population, particularly in cities of over 1 million, engage much more heavily in walking for pleasure than do those in other residence classes. The rural farm class, particularly, reflects a lower participation rate (table 1.02.17).

For almost every age-sex group, the large urban place (over 1 million) evidences the greater participation. Conversely, for almost each age-sex group, the rural population has the lowest rate of walking for pleasure. Such a distinct difference must reflect genuine variations in habit and preference for this form of outdoor recreation. Such, indeed, is the case: 17 percent of residents in cities over 1 million express a preference for walking for pleasure, compared with 6 percent for the rural, non-SMA population, with other population categories falling between. Rural people evidently walk enough during their daily occupations to fill this need (tables 1.03.17 and 1.17).

When examined in terms of occupation and size of place of residence, almost all occupational categories residing in large urban places register higher participation in walking for pleasure than do the same occupational groups living in smaller places. However, the rates for small urban places (50,000 or less) are as low or lower than the same occupational group living in rural territory (particularly professionals, craftsmen, white-collar workers, and managers and officials.)

Taken together, variations among occupational groups are not great. Farmworkers, reflecting the lower rural farm rate, are lowest (1.4 days per person), while professional, technical, and kindred workers are highest (4.4 days per person). The remaining occupations group themselves fairly compactly around the mean for all employed persons of 2.9 days per person (table 1.03.17).

Since size of place of residence appears to be most strongly associated with walking for pleasure, we conclude that in large urban places walking for pleasure provides a form of recreation most suitable to the circumstances of the large place and the style of life there, whereas such is not the case for the smaller urban place or rural areas.

Walking and income

Walking for pleasure is free. We would normally not expect an association with income. However, the relationship is U-shaped: high rates of participation among the low and high income groups, and lower rates among those in the middle income range. Each region approximately follows this pattern, although the low-point is not always clearly in the middle (table 1.02.17). Neither is it quite so clear cut when one looks at income by size of place of residence (table 1.03.17). However, the general conclusion remains: low and high income groups walk for pleasure more than the middle classes.

The middle and upper middle income groups, also, less frequently express a preference for walking for pleasure than the lower and top income groups (table 1.18). However, among those expressing a preference for walking for pleasure within the \$6,000 to \$9,999 income group, 50 percent say they walk as much as they would like—compared with 64 percent among all who prefer this activity. Seventeen percent of those who prefer walking but do not walk as much as they would like, give lack of time as the reason they do not walk as much as they would like. Those in the middle income group who prefer walking for pleasure, more frequently (than other income classes) are restricted because of lack of time (tables 1.13 and 1.14B).

Education shows very little association with walking for pleasure below the college-educated group. However, for the college-educated group, participation rates step up with years of education (table 1.02.17).

The nonwhite rate (4.93) is slightly higher than the white (4.27), a significant difference. However, in the Northeast the white population participates slightly more than the nonwhite, and the same is true in the West. Of course, the regional variation in composition of the nonwhite population, particularly in the West where the Oriental and other races are about as

numerous as the Negro, affects this participation pattern. The Western nonwhite and the southern white have the lowest participation rates (table 1.02.17).

Days per person for females is greater than for males in each size of place of residence class. However, among nonwhites in large cities and small cities (SMA's under 1 million), the male rate is superior (table 1.03.17).

Walking for pleasure requires no equipment, special or unusual facilities, nor payment of fees. One merely walks, observes the passing scene, perhaps greets acquaintances, and moves on. One may engage during daylight hours or at night. Dry weather and a dry terrain, perhaps, are preferred to wet, and excessive cold might detract from one's pleasure, but the level of physical activity required is low to moderate, depending upon one's speed or distance, and no special skills are needed beyond those available to all normally endowed persons. One might usually devote up to a few hours at a time to walking, but up to a day is possible, under our definition, without a pack. One judges that the level of status achievement resulting from walking for pleasure is low, compared with some other recreation activities. Except for the mental stimulation gained from observing the passing scene, the level of learning gained from walking is low, unless the activity is specifically for other purposes (such as to observe nature which we classify as nature walks). Motivations may range over a wide variety of purposes: to be in the company of a friend, to walk the dog, because the doctor ordered it, to observe the buildings or the street scene, to reach a spot for a special activity, to settle one's supper, or to stimulate one's circulation.

Walking and health

Everyone says walking is good for one's health. The evidence favors this belief. Particularly among females does the rate decline according to the persons' report of the state of his health (6 occasions per person for females reporting excellent health to 2.5 for females reporting poor health.) The percent participating declines steadily as health is assessed excellent to poor for both male and female. However, for males 65 years and over the rate of participation is fairly level across these health classes, suggesting that some people in poor health walk a great deal (table 1.04.17).

Persons who have impairments which are not limiting engage in walking for pleasure more than those with no impairments. This is especially true for the 45 to 64 year age group. Even those with limiting impairments walk at a rate only slightly less than the national average (table 1.04.17).

Considering occupation by region, walking for pleasure appears to vary more between regions than it does between occupations, thus adding additional weight to the environmental hypothesis suggested above (table 1.02.17).

Even though the population engages fairly heavily in walking for pleasure, it ranks approximately in fifth position in the preference order. Swimming, fishing, picnicking, sightseeing, and driving for pleasure, all are mentioned more frequently than

walking for pleasure. It is mentioned seldom as something one would prefer to do on a vacation, or during a weekend trip or even a day's outing. However, when only 2 or 3 hours are available, walking for pleasure, along with swimming, is the second ranking activity mentioned, being next in popularity to driving for pleasure (mentioned by 15 percent). (See table 1.21.)

As one would expect from the higher participation rates in large cities, preferences are more frequent among those residing in large cities over a million (17 percent expressing some preference for walking for pleasure) than other residence classes. Conversely, the percentage is lowest among those living in rural areas. This preference order is repeated for size of place of residence classes by region. However, in the Northeast and in the South, slightly higher frequencies express preference for walking for pleasure than in the other two regions. (Note that actual participation in the South is relatively less.) Similar to corresponding participation rates, the percent of males preferring walking for pleasure, increases with age. Among females, however, it will be recalled, participation rates decline with age. However, the female's preference order increases slightly with age, indicating that older females enjoy thinking of themselves as taking a stroll, even though they may not often do so (table 1.17).

The median age of males expressing a preference for walking for pleasure in almost 55 years—considerably higher than the median age for many other activities. The median age for females is 42.5 years (table 1.15).

Persons who are restricted in walking for pleasure because of time or money have a median family income of approximately \$5,200. Conversely, those who participate freely have a median family income of \$4,000. Evidently the former is restricted by time rather than money (table 1.15).

The percentage expressing preference for walking for pleasure does not vary greatly across occupational classes. This is generally true for occupations within each region (table 1.20).

Two-thirds of the population participate as freely in walking for pleasure as they would like. Time is the major restricting factor, 17 percent mentioning time as a reason for not engaging as often as they would like. The next most often mentioned restriction is inability because of physical condition, age, etc. Time is mentioned as a restricting factor slightly more among females than males (19 percent compared with 12 percent). (See table 1.14B.)

The preceding discussion concerns walking for pleasure during the summer 1960. The pattern of relationships previously discussed for the summer period is substantially repeated by the participation rates for other seasons (tables 2.02.17, 3.02.17, and 4.02.17).

The above leads to fairly specific inferences on providing facilities for walking for pleasure within cities, and, equally as pertinent, to planning facilities in parks and recreation areas wherever located. Walking for pleasure is engaged in actively by urbanites, older persons, and those with infirmities. In planning walkways to places of interest in any urban development or redevelopment, particular

attention should be devoted to the safety of the walkway and its freedom from noxious effluvia, such as smoke or fumes. The safety of the walkway will encourage participation by those who do not see or hear well (34.5 persons per thousand are affected by some type of hearing impairment while 18 persons per thousand are either blind or have some form of visual impairment.^{1/}

If the workday is shortened to add to the available leisure time during 24-hour periods, the incidence of walking for pleasure most certainly will increase, for it is suitably engaged in for short periods of time. Attention to the development of vistas within cities, to parapets and places with a view, and to the construction of points of interest which will draw people to them along walks or which may be viewed while walking past, most certainly will accommodate the needs of future urban populations.

NATURE WALKS

Annually the population 12 years of age and over goes on 2.7 nature walks per person. These are evenly distributed throughout the year, with slightly more participation in the summer. Like walking and driving for pleasure, nature walking is an annual rather than a seasonal activity.

The regions share equally in this activity, there being little difference in the annual days per person. However, there is a region by season relationship which appears to rest upon climate. The Northeast, for example, has heaviest participation in summer (1.14 occasions per person) and lowest in winter (0.3 occasions per person). The North Central region, with hot summers and severe winters, has heaviest participation fall and spring (0.77 and 0.72). In the South, with hot summers, the heaviest participation is during winter (0.55 for summer and 1.01 for winter). The West has slightly heavier participation in the fall, but generally, the rate is even throughout the year (tables 1.01, 2.01, 3.01, and 4.01).

Nature walks to observe nature, collect specimens, etc., were taken by 14 percent of the population 12 years of age and over during summer 1960. This was an average of 0.75 occasions per person, giving nature walks eleventh rank among outdoor activities (table 1.02.12).

The Northeastern region engages in nature walks at a rate (1.14B) about twice that of other regions. Otherwise the regions vary little during summer. Approximately the same proportion of the population in the Northeast engages in nature walks as in other regions, but those who engage in the Northeast do so more frequently than is the case in other regions. For example, the occasions per participant is 7.5 for the Northeastern region as compared with 5 occasions per participant in the South (table 1.02.12).

Across the Nation the youth go nature walking more often than other age groups. Boys and girls

aged 12 to 17 years accounted for about one-third of all nature walks during summer 1960. Also frequent participants are adults over 45 years of age. The male rate is similar to the female, and the highest participation is among Northeastern males. The rate in the West for older ages tends to increase. In the South and the North Central region, the rate declines with age. Under age 25 the male rate is greater than the female. However, females in the older ages engage at a higher rate than do males in corresponding age groups (table 1.02.12).

Differences are small between size of place of residence classes. In each residence class, both male and female in the younger ages participate more heavily than older age groups. Among males in urban places, the rate declines with age. However, the rural male over 45 years participates somewhat more frequently than his urban counterpart, as also does the rural female. Among females in large cities (over 1 million) and in rural areas, participation is somewhat greater among older ages. The male between 25 and 44 years of age, wherever he lives, goes nature walking less than any other age-sex group (table 1.03.12).

In general, participation rates increase with income, but the relationship is weak. In the West, for example, the highest participating group are families with income between \$3,000 to \$4,500, and the rate declines for higher income groups. There is another variation in the Northeast where heaviest participation is observed in the highest income class, but the other income classes hover more closely about the mean of 1.14 days per person for this region than others (table 1.02.12).

Participation is more general throughout all income classes who live in cities over 1 million than is the case in smaller urban places. In small cities (50,000 population or less), participation tends to increase with income. In rural areas participation increases to a peak with the \$4,500 to \$6,000 income class and then declines for the next higher income class but remains fairly constant thereafter (table 1.03.12).

The relationship between participation and income raises more questions than it resolves. Participation does not depend on income in the sense that more discretionary income provides more freedom to pay fees, etc. Apparently greater leisure for higher income groups and older, retired persons brings about the higher rate of participation observed for these groups. When asked the reason for not going on nature walks more often, one-third of those with a preference for nature walks mentioned a lack of time. In large urban places, on the other hand, apparently organizations and educational institutions stimulate the activity (table 1.14B).

Whites participate at a rate about twice that of nonwhites. This is not true, however, in the West where the white and nonwhite rates are equal. Perhaps this reflects the difference in the composition of the nonwhite group in the West as compared with the remainder of the Nation (table 1.02.12).

The nonwhite living in large metropolitan places of over 1 million participate more heavily than nonwhites living elsewhere. The nonwhite rate is about one-half that of the white in these cities, whereas

^{1/}Louise E. Bollo, "Impairments by Type, Sex, and Age, United States July 1957-June 1958," Health Statistics from the U.S. National Health Survey, Series B-9. Washington: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1959.

it is about one-fourth the white rate in rural territory. These relationships hold for both nonwhite male and female. For both color groups and each size of place of residence class, the male and female rates are similar (table 1.03.12).

In the West and Northeast the rural population participates somewhat more heavily, but in the North Central and South, the urban population participates more heavily. These variations generally are small (table 1.02.12).

Nature walks and education

Among the population 25 years and over, participation steps up with education, particularly with the group completing high school and those having some college education. This pattern is fairly uniform within each region. Thus, as one would expect, educational attainment increases with interest in observing nature, collecting specimens, etc. Even with education constant participation rates vary by region, indicating the significance of locale, organizational stimulation, and other cultural factors on participation (table 1.02.12).

Among employed persons 14 years of age and over, there is little variation between occupational classes. The highest rates are observed among craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers, particularly those living in the Northeast region and in both large cities over 1 million and in rural territory. Another high participation group are Western farmworkers. Because of the association with income and education, one would expect considerably higher rates among the occupations requiring greater length of schooling, but the occupational classes, as categorized, do not support this. As a matter of fact, there appears to be greater variation between size of place of residence within occupation than across occupations (table 1.03.12).

The rate of participation in nature walks among craftsmen varies more by region than by size of place of residence. This is due primarily to the higher participation in the Northeast. Farmworkers, also, vary across regions. Except for these two groups, participation by occupation varies more by size of community than by region.

Persons whose impairments are not limiting go on nature walks more often than those who have no impairments. This is true for each age group. However, those with limiting impairments participate less than the general population, although the differences are not great when age is held constant (table 1.04.12).

The state of one's health is associated with the frequency of going on nature walks. Both males and females who report their health as good or excellent go on nature walks appreciably more than those who report fair to poor health. This is true for each major age group (table 1.04.12).

Nature walking is a preferred activity by a very small percentage of the population (3 percent), and preference for nature walks in terms of occasion is the same (1 percent) whether one considers engaging while on vacation, on a weekend trip, on a day's outing, or when only 2 or 3 hours are available. This preference frequency is too small to establish any relation-

ship between participation in various activities and preference for nature walks (table 1.21).

Persons who participate in nature walks also enjoy hiking ($r = 0.19$) and walking for pleasure ($r = 0.25$), picnics ($r = 0.23$), sightseeing ($r = 0.25$), playing games and sports ($r = 0.20$), and swimming ($r = 0.23$). Thus, we have a joint picture of a person who enjoys walking in its varied forms, seeing things, and the various youthful outdoor activities (appendix A, table 3C).

About two-fifths of those preferring nature walks participate as often as they would like. However, about one-third of those who prefer nature walks do not do so as often as they would like because of a lack of time. The two restrictions mentioned next most frequently (by 10 percent each, of those preferring nature walks) was a lack of a location or facility and a feeling that somehow their physical condition, age, or other ability restricted their participation. Males mentioned time only slightly more often than females. But males mentioned reasons associated with facilities (inadequate, too distant or too crowded) considerably more than did females (table 1.14B).

Nature walking is an educational experience. The chief motivation must be associated with esthetic appreciation or scientific collections. Although the time required is not great, perhaps one half day sufficing for an occasion, the level of skill required is high compared with some other activities. The skill required, particularly, is observational sensitivity coupled with knowledge of nature. Perceptivity most certainly increases with training. One's income is unimportant, but time is required. Although a walk in the open air is invigorating, it need not be strenuous. Hence, it is ideal for older persons. Through collecting nature objects, one may both improve physical stamina and acquire learning experiences. Certainly, the variety of subject matter available, the low activity level required, and freedom from any income restriction makes nature walks potentially of great popularity. With increasing educational level, greater available leisure and increase in the retired population, higher participation may be expected. In addition, some youth currently engaging in the activity may be expected to continue its practice as they grow older.

DRIVING FOR PLEASURE

Driving or riding in the automobile for pleasure is the outdoor activity we do most. There are almost 21 occasions per person 12 years of age and over annually. We go automobile riding slightly more in the summer (6.68 times per person) than other seasons, but it truly is a year-round activity, and it is spread fairly evenly throughout the regions. Driving during summer is heavier in the North Central (8.02) and Northeast (7.23) regions, than in the South and West (tables 1.01, 2.01, 3.01, and 4.01).

Possession of an automobile is one important conditioning factor. Ownership varies with income: from 41 percent in the lowest income class to near 100 percent for the upper income classes. As a consequence, we may expect participation to increase with income. Ownership, also, is related to size of place of residence. Urban residents of SMA's of over 1 million population have lowest percentage ownership

(72 percent) while rural residents of SMA's have the highest percentage ownership (94 percent). More technically, these percentages are the proportion of the sample reporting an automobile in the household; no record was made of households with two motor vehicles; in some cases the same automobile might be reported by two respondents in the same household. As a consequence, the data are not intended for use in estimating the number of vehicles^{2/} (tables 5.47, 5.48).

Driving for pleasure is the most frequently engaged in summer outdoor activity: there were 6.68 occasions per person during the summer of 1960. Fifty-two percent of the population 12 years of age and over reported one or more occasions during the summer (table 1.02.07).

The percentage participating during the summer is approximately the same for all regions: a range of 45 percent in the South to 58 percent in the North Central States. Similarly, the days per person is lower for the South and West (5.5 and 5.2, respectively) and is highest in the North Central States (8 days per person). One reason for heavier participation in the North Central States, than other regions, appears to be more frequent participation there among females, age 18 to 24 years, and more frequent participation among residents of urban centers, when each age group is compared with its counterpart in other regions (table 1.02.07).

In general, males and females, 18-24 years, participate much more actively in each region than other age-sex groups. With a few exceptions, driving for pleasure is the most frequently engaged in activity for each age-sex group. Exceptions are playing outdoor games, bicycling and swimming which are more frequent activities among 12 to 17 year olds, and walking for pleasure which is more frequent among females 12-17 years and males 65 and over. Consequently, it is reasonable to conclude that automobile driving for pleasure consumes more time, in the aggregate, than any other outdoor activity and is more universal across age-sex groups than any other (table 1.02.07).

When considered by age, participation increases from 7.9 days per person for 12 to 17 year old males to 12.2 days for the 18-24 year old males, and declines thereafter with each older age group. This pattern is generally consistent across regions and for both sexes. Courtship may have an effect upon the peak among the 18 to 24 year olds (table 1.02.07).

When age and sex are considered by size of place of residence, this general pattern prevails with few variations. The highest rates are registered by the 18 to 24 year olds in small cities (urban places 2,500 to 50,000 population). In fact, 39 percent of outdoor activity reported by males of this age group within small cities was driving for pleasure; this compares with 20 percent for all ages in the population as a whole. Evidently, in addition to the courtship explanation (which motivation should be equally strong in other size of place of residence classes), fewer alternatives to driving for pleasure in these urban places attract active young people. As the accompanying table indicates, an even larger percentage of occasions of females in these ages is spent driving.

^{2/}The question was: "Do you (or anyone in your family living here) own an automobile?"

Table 16. Driving for pleasure as a percentage of all reported outdoor recreation activity for the total population, 12 years and older, and males and females 18-24 years by size of place of residence, June-August, 1961

	National Recreation Survey Data		
	All	18-24 years	
		Males	Females
SMA:			
Over 1 million	19	18	21
Under 1 million.....	23	26	37
Other urban.....	23	39	31
Rural (in and out of SMA)...	19	24	41

Ownership or availability of an automobile implies an income above some minimum, as has been mentioned. Some skill is required to operate a vehicle, but one may ride as a passenger without possessing this skill; consequently, invalids, older persons, and children who have not reached the legal age to possess a driver's license may be expected to engage. Participation requires little or no physical activity on the part of the passenger and little on the part of the driver (when compared, say, to swimming). Consequently, the resistance to some activities due to inertia or laziness, should not affect participation in driving for pleasure. Perhaps the positive incentives include its effortlessness as well as interest in seeing new and varied scenes as one drives along, the moderate excitement of placing one's self in a new situation, the interest in going to a place and doing something there, and the status achieved through being seen in the automobile and being able after the event to report to one's friends what one observed.

Driving and income

Participation rates increase with income. It is highest for the group making \$10,000 to \$15,000 per year, and the rate declines for the highest income class. All four regions generally share this pattern, with the North Central region having rates which are greater than comparable rates by income in other regions (table 1.02.07).

The general trend of increasing participation with income up to a peak in the second or third highest income class is repeated in each place of residence class, as well as each region. Participation is highest in the small urban place (8.55 days per person), and is lowest in the rural areas (5.7 per person). (See table 1.03.07.)

The rate for whites (6.9 days per person during summer 1960) exceeds the nonwhite rate (4.9 days per person). The difference between them is greatest in the Northeast, where the white rate exceeds the nonwhite by 3.3 occasions during the summer. In the North Central States and West the rates are quite similar (table 1.02.07).

However, participation differences between white and nonwhite are greater by size of place of residence. The largest difference is for urban places of 50,000 to 1,000,000; the next greatest difference is observed in rural areas, the white rate being greater in each

instance. Rates in urban places of less than 50,000 population are quite similar (table 1.03.07).

The nonwhite female rate is somewhat less than the nonwhite male rate (3.9 to 5.9), whereas within the white population, the female rate (7.1) exceeds the male rate (6.6) slightly.

Among those aged 25 years or more, the rate of participation increases with education, from 1.8 days per person for those with 4 years or less of schooling to 7.2 days per person for those who have completed college or more. This association most probably is linked to income. This national pattern is reproduced within each region. The North Central States deviate from it more than any other region. Here the highest level of participation is reached with the group completing 3 years of high school and thereafter the rate declines (table 1.02.07).

There are some differences among occupational classes. White-collar and professional groups tend to engage in driving for pleasure at rates higher than other occupations. Conversely, farmworkers engage at a much lower rate. The remaining occupational classes cluster very closely around the mean for all employed persons aged 14 years and over, 6.76. Looking at occupations by size of place of residence, higher participation rates are evident in the small cities (50,000 and under). There appears to be greater differences within size of place of residence, but both appear important in influencing participation in driving for pleasure (tables 1.02.07, and 1.03.07).

Persons reporting poor health engage much less in driving for pleasure than those with fair or better health. Otherwise, the relationship between health by age and sex and participation is not great (table 1.04.07).

As one would expect for a type of recreation requiring little physical activity, driving for pleasure is a favorite among those with impairments. The existence of an impairment only slightly alters the rate of participation (6.8 versus 6.1). In fact, for each age group, those whose impairments are not limiting engage more frequently in driving for pleasure than those with no impairments. However, those with impairments which limit activity have somewhat lower rates than others, although the relationship is not entirely consistent for each age group. For example, the age group 45-64 with no impairments participate at a rate (5.1) almost equal to those with limiting impairments (5.4). (See table 1.04.07.)

Restrictions on driving for pleasure

More than half of the persons who participate in driving for pleasure do so as often as they would like. Those who do not participate as often as they would like mention only time or money as preventing more frequent participation. The availability of facilities, the skill required, and other reasons, are quite minimal barriers to participation in driving for pleasure. Thirty-eight percent of the population indicated that time or money was the reason for not participating more often. This reason was cited by 52 percent of the population earning less than \$3,000 annually (family income) while about one-third of the remaining income classes cite this reason (table 1.13). Consequently,

one would judge that money was the more significant factor for the lower income class, while time is more significant for the higher income group. Table 1.14 shows that a slightly higher percentage (21 percent) mention time than financial restrictions (18 percent).

While driving for pleasure ranks first in participation, it ranks third highest in the preference order, 25 percent of the population indicating "some" preference for it as a general outdoor activity. But it ranks first as a preferred activity when only 2 or 3 hours are available. However, for outing periods of longer duration (day's outing, weekend trip, vacation), driving for pleasure does not hold as high a position as many other activities (table 1.21).

Participation in driving for pleasure is associated slightly with a preference for swimming, picnicking, attending outdoor games and sports, and attending concerts, etc. Actual participation in driving for pleasure, also, is correlated with sightseeing (0.36), attending outdoor sports events (0.27), picnicking (0.27), walking for pleasure (0.22), swimming (0.20).^{3/}

These factors may be logically translated into planning information. Assuming a shorter workday or more frequent periods of leisure time during the workweek, driving for pleasure most probably will increase, particularly during periods when 2-3 hours are available for leisure. Facilities which require that one drive from urban centers to engage in such activities as swimming, picnicking, attending outdoor games and sports, attending concerts and drama, and walking for pleasure, certainly will be used. The positive appeal of automobile driving adds reinforcement to the location of some recreation facilities at reasonable distances from large cities, rather than immediately in them.

Distance characteristics of vacations, trips, and outings, by socioeconomic characteristics, time and cost characteristics are discussed in chapter 7 and presented in tables 5.41-5.47.

SIGHTSEEING

We go sightseeing almost six times per person annually. Although summer is the heaviest sightseeing season (2.2 occasions per person), it has no monopoly. Rates for the other seasons range from 1.38 in the fall to 1.16 in the spring, thereby spreading the activity out over the year fairly evenly.

The West has a heavier annual rate (7.5 occasions per person) than the other regions, with the North Central following with 6.64 occasions per person. The South and the Northeast have 5.11 and 5.09 occasions per person annually. In each region the summer has a slightly higher participation than other seasons and there is a fairly even distribution throughout the year, except during the winter season in the Northeast where the participation is only 0.66 occasions per person—the lowest of any season region rate. Thus, in general, there is very little regional

^{3/}These coefficients of correlation are computed from data for the summer survey 1960. A coefficient of 0.04 or greater is significantly greater than zero at the 0.01 level of significance. See table 3C, appendix A.

variation and only slight seasonal variation in the rate of sightseeing (tables 1.01, 2.01, 3.01 and 4.01).

Sightseeing was enjoyed one or more times during summer 1960 by 42 percent of the population aged 12 and above. This population went sightseeing an average of 2.2 occasions during the summer, making sightseeing the fifth most frequent activity. It was a popular activity in all regions, with the population in the West and North Central regions participating more frequently than the others, and the South (1.6) participating less (table 1.02.15).

Females go sightseeing in summer slightly more than males, although the difference is not great (2.35 to 2.03). This holds true in each region except the West, where the male participates a little more.

There is a slight association of participation with age, but the relationship is not strong: the male rate drops from 2.58 for the 12-17 age group to 1.68 for the group 65 years of age and over, but the most of the decrement occurs beyond age 64. Hence, we may consider that sightseeing is engaged in fairly equally among all age groups to the retirement age.

There are a few interesting variations in the above relationship by region. In the South, for example, the rate fairly consistently decreases with each age group both for males and females. In the North Central States participation decreases fairly consistently for males, but there is an increase for females, becoming particularly high (3.7) for the females aged 45 to 64, who apparently have gained some freedom from household chores and child care. Finally, in the West, the peak participation rate occurs among males 65 years and over (4.5), evidently a reflection of the active retired group living in the West (table 1.02.15).

When age and sex are considered in relation to size of place of residence, the same pattern of fairly consistent participation rates through the active years with a decrease after age 65, is apparent. However, the rate for older males in urban places is superior to the rates for urban females in the same locations, indicating a more active interest in "seeing the world" among retired males. In rural areas, the rate declines with age fairly consistently for males but increases up to age 65 for females and then declines. In general, the participation is approximately equal between large urban places, medium size urban places and small urban places, but the rate for rural areas is somewhat lower. As we shall see subsequently, the rural rate is less than the urban, even for comparable income classes (table 1.03.15).

Sightseeing and income

The sightseeing rate increases consistently as income increases: from 0.7 occasions during the summer for the income group receiving less than \$1,500 to 3.7 for the group earning \$15,000 or more. This relationship is fairly consistent for each region. The participation rates also increase with income for each size of place of residence class. Generally, we conclude that sightseeing is closely associated with income (tables 1.02.15, and 1.03.15).

For the United States as a whole, the white rate (2.31) exceeds the nonwhite (1.25), the difference being significant. Across regions, the difference is greatest in the Northeast and West and least in the North

Central States, where the nonwhite rate exceeds the white by a small amount (0.3). When considered by size of place of residence, rural areas show the greatest discrepancy in participation between white and nonwhite (1.39 occasions difference during the season) (tables 1.02.15, 1.03.15).

White females participate more frequently than white males within each size of place of residence class. However, among nonwhites, the male rate is slightly larger in urban areas (table 1.03.15).

Generally, rates decline as one moves from large urban cities to rural areas. This relationship is not entirely consistent for each region.

Among those aged 25 years and over, the rate consistently increases from the lowest educational level to the highest (0.5 for those with 4 years or less schooling to 3.4 for those who have completed college or more). This relationship is repeated within each region. Thus, similar to other activities, when income is positively associated with participation, education is also. Even though sightseeing requires income, participation is evidence of an interest in the world about us. One would expect the more educated to participate more heavily, since their schooling should have stimulated their interests. And they do (table 1.02.15).

Among females, the reported state of health is associated with sightseeing participation: those with poor health show lower participation. However, among males the relationship holds only for those between ages 18 and 64. For the older male age group, health is unrelated to participation, and males 12 to 17 years report only good or better health (table 1.04.15).

Persons with limiting impairments engage slightly less in sightseeing than those who have impairments that are not limiting. Those with impairments which are not limiting engage with frequency equal to those with no impairments. Thus, the attractiveness of sightseeing appears to offset whatever limitations may exist to impede those with physical impairments. In general, the variation in rate according to the presence or absence of impairments, as well as according to the state of one's health, is not great (table 1.04.15).

Sightseeing by occupation reveals only slight differences, except for considerably lower rate among laborers and farmworkers. The highest rate, as is usual for most recreation activities, is among the professional, technical and kindred workers (3.35) (table 1.02.15).

Occupation, residence, and sightseeing

The variation among occupational groups within each place of residence class is greater than the variation across place of residence classes within occupational groups. We conclude, then, that occupation exerts a greater influence upon the participation level in sightseeing than does size of place of residence (table 1.03.15).

Sightseeing ranks fourth in the preference order for "some" activities during the summer period (18 percent). It is a highly desired activity for vacations and weekend trips (21 and 18 percent respectively), being among the highest for all activities. However, it has less appeal for a day's outing or only for a 2 to 3 hour leisure period. The percentage

choosing sightseeing as a general preference varies only slightly across regions and across size of place of residence classes. According to age and sex, sightseeing is preferred more by the older than the younger population, and is favored about twice as frequently among females than males (tables 1.17, 1.21).

In general, the same relationship holds when sightseeing is viewed as a vacation preference or a weekend preference (tables 1.22, 1.25).

More frequent participation in sightseeing is associated with preferences for swimming and camping. However, sightseeing participation is somewhat negatively related to a preference for fishing (table 1.12).

The median age for persons who prefer sightseeing (as a general preference) is 46.0 years for males and 45.5 years for females, both of these figures being considerably greater than the median age of all sample persons (38.0 and 39.0 respectively) (table 1.15).

Those with preference for sightseeing have the same median family income as the population as a whole (\$5,100). However, the median income for those who participate freely is slightly higher (\$5,600) than those who would like to participate more in sightseeing but do not for either reasons of time or money (\$5,000). The median years schooling for those who prefer sightseeing, also, is the same as the Nation as a whole (10.5) (table 1.15).

About a third of those who prefer sightseeing go as much as they like. However, 40 percent of the population who prefer sightseeing do not go as much as they would like for reasons of a lack of time, 15 percent say lack of money is the reason. Time, then, is the more significant restriction. Men mention the time restriction (47 percent) more than women (36 percent) (table 1.14B).

Sightseeing is an activity which requires a large block of time. One must travel to the location to view the buildings, the natural scenery, or the places of interest. Consequently, most likely a period of time longer than a day is needed for a sightseeing tour. One would expect, also, that while the actual participation for the most part is free, the cost of getting there in automobile or other conveyance and the need for free time, would influence its association with income, as is shown above. Most likely there is a minimum income requirement for participation. The physical activity involved in sightseeing is moderate, for one must stand and walk and move about.

However, the educational and esthetic benefits derived undoubtedly are associated with training in observation and are stimulated by interests. Although opportunities may not always be realized, the possibilities are great for continuous learning through sightseeing. The status achieved through sightseeing undoubtedly is high, for travel not only provides a basis for conversationally associating oneself with the strange and different but it also marks one as being cosmopolitan.

The above characteristics of the activity lead us to examine some of the motivational bases for sightseeing. Undoubtedly, the motivations to sightsee are similar to those behind other recreation travel, although the two are not necessarily the same. For example, one may wish to experience a new climate, to see friends, or to eat unusual foods without also seeing the sights. But it is quite likely that the

motivations to view the sights are intimately associated with other motivations which lead one to travel. Certainly, the desire for change, the desire to see new things and new places and, perhaps, the desire to learn about things outside one's normal and usual daily experience, provide a stimulus to those who like to sightsee.^{4/}

ATTENDING OUTDOOR SPORTS EVENTS

The population attends 3.75 outdoor sports events annually. These are mostly in summer and fall, the rate for winter being about one-third that of the peak summer rate. This seasonal pattern is fairly uniform in each region, except that the South and West have heavier participation in the fall than in the summer, reflecting their busy football season. The winter season is lowest in each region.

By region the South and West have heavier annual participation rates than the other two regions, the highest being the South (4.18) compared with the lowest, the Northeast (3.22). The principal variation, however, is across seasons (tables 1.01, 2.01, 3.01 and 4.01).

An outdoor sports event may last from an hour to 5 or 6 hours, but usually the time spent at the more frequently attended events (baseball, football, etc.) is 2 to 3 hours. Entrance fees usually are charged, though many outdoor sports events are free, but even if charges are made, minimum cost seats usually are within reach of lower income groups. In these spectator sports the physical exertion is little more than in driving for pleasure, even though some avid enthusiasts at times become quite exercised over the outcome of the game. Usually no more exertion is required than to stand up and sit. To appreciate the game, one must understand the rules. This, however, is an intellectual activity rather than an attainment of physical skill. Consequently, the spectator need not actually possess the skill. Whether status is achieved through observation of sports events depends upon several factors. For certain types of matches, for example polo, status may accrue because the game is associated with higher status levels. Conversely, an outdoor wrestling event may imply negative status in some groups. It has been observed that spectator sports appeal particularly to the middle and lower middle classes.^{5/}

It is fairly obvious, also, that attendance at some events, such as the Thanksgiving game of one's alma mater, or the world series in baseball, or the annual lawn tennis matches at Forest Hills, N.Y., or other such events, may have greater status value to an individual than more routine or commonplace events.

^{4/}For a discussion of motivations of travelers, see, Max Kaplan, "Leisure in America: A Social Inquiry," New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960, p. 221 ff.

^{5/}Alfred C. Clarke, The use of leisure and its relation to levels of occupational prestige, "American Sociological Review," 21 (1956): pp. 301-307.

Gregory Stone, "Some Meanings of American Sport," College Physical Education Association, 60th annual meeting, Columbus, Ohio, October 1957, as reported by Max Kaplan, "Leisure in America: A Social Inquiry," op. cit. p. 192.

In summary, it would appear that attendance at an outdoor sports event may have status meaning differentially, depending upon the type of event or sport, the composition of the competitors, or the social class membership of the spectators. Another factor may be the community, for a given type of game may have a greater or less status significance, depending upon the normative system of the community. One may add that status rewards are reaped primarily through relating the events of the game to others.

The degree to which one learns through observation of the players, perhaps, is indeterminate. Certainly, an amateur player as a spectator may observe skillful players and get information and motivation conducive to improving his own skill. Perhaps such situations are more characteristic of youthful amateur players than others. And, too, perhaps the extent to which continuous learning is possible rests partly upon the potential of the game for skill elaboration. In short, the potential for continuous learning through spectatorship rests both upon characteristics of the spectator and of the game. However, most spectators probably attend to witness the outcome of the competition or other reasons than to learn.

In addition, a wide variety of motives influences spectators to attend outdoor games and sports. One attends because of identification with one or the other of the contending teams. One gains vicarious pleasure from a victory by the team with which one identifies. One attends in order to be with others, to communicate with others, and to enjoy an experience with others irrespective of the sports event. An outdoor sports event is an event in the sense that action and results are made to occur. Thus, one attends to be present when something happens. In turn, the recapitulation of what one saw emphasizes to others that one was present when it happened. Those interested in personal development as an amateur in the game or sport have the motive of observing and later putting into effect improved techniques of play. Those who no longer actively engage in the sport as amateurs, may attend to satisfy an interest in the sport created when one actively participated. Other motives undoubtedly influence some to attend outdoor sports events. Whatever the original motive, once participation becomes enjoyable and the value established and reinforced, attendance becomes a goal in itself.

Summer attendance rates

About one-fourth of the population attended outdoor sports events during summer 1960. The summer attendance amounted to 1.32 events per person 12 years of age and over. The percentage gives attending sports events eighth rank, making spectator sports quite a significant outdoor activity. This is particularly true when one considers that many events are professional events at which an entrance fee is charged to support professional players. These are the summer sports: baseball, tennis, swimming, and boating events, as well as amateur baseball games, track meets, and various other competitive events.

The rate varies little by region. The West has a lower rate (1.03) and the North Central States the higher rate (1.61), but the regions are homogeneous in participation (table 1.02.03).

Men attend outdoor sports events slightly more often than women (1.61 events per person for men compared with 1.06 for women). This is true for each region, except the North Central States where the rate of attendance is the same for men and women (1.61).

For male and female, attendance declines with age. For example, U.S. males 12 to 17 years attended an average of 2.57 times during the summer, and the rate declines successively with each age group to 0.47 for males 65 years of age and over. Females follow this pattern, also. The same association of age with participation obtains in each region. There is somewhat greater variability in the West (table 1.02.03).

When viewed by size of place of residence, male and female participation decline with age. Small urban places show greater variability than other residence classes, the variation being in the direction of higher rates of participation among the middle aged and older males. In fact, when viewed by size of place of residence, the small urban place (2,500 to 50,000) presents the highest rate (1.77), while, as one would expect, rural areas attend outdoor sports events at lower rates (1.15). The heavier participation in the small urban place is due partly to the heavier attendance by females 12 to 17 years of age and by males 18 to 24 years of age (table 1.03.03).

The observation made previously that middle and lower classes participate more heavily is partly supported by this study. By income, participation rises from 0.66 to a peak with the \$6,000 to \$7,999 family income group (2.09), then declines somewhat thereafter. In general, the participation rate increases most over the first three income classes to the group having family incomes of \$6,000 to \$7,999 annually. Although the rate varies thereafter, the variation is slight and one may consider that attendance in outdoor sports events is fairly homogeneous throughout income classes above this income group. Although there is some variation, this pattern is sufficiently stable across regions to represent the national picture.

The relationship also holds by size of place of residence, with some variation among urban places of less than 1 million population. Rural persons have a more constant level of participation across income classes than other size of place of residence groups. Participation, also, is somewhat greater for those earning \$15,000 or more annually who live in standard metropolitan areas, suggesting that availability of a wider variety of games and outdoor sports events in such areas appeals to upper income groups (table 1.03.03). The variation by size of place of residence may be the result of differences in opportunity to engage in alternate forms of recreation. In rural areas there is a dearth of opportunity to attend such sports events, whereas in urban areas there are other competing opportunities which attract participants.

For all types of outdoor recreation the total rate of participation is lowest in rural areas (29.76 occasions per person for the summer period) and highest for the small urban place (37.2 events per person). The rural areas evidence lower participation rates for urban-type recreation, as one would expect.

Spectatorship by color

Nationally, nonwhites participate slightly more than whites (1.45 to 1.31), a fact due almost entirely to the greater participation among nonwhites, than whites, in the South (1.55 to 1.28) and in the West (3.42 to 0.91). In the Northeast and North Central regions, whites attend outdoor sports events more frequently than nonwhites. When looked at by sex, these differences may be attributed to the nonwhite male, rather than the nonwhite female. He attends more than twice as frequently as the nonwhite female. The nonwhite male participates at a rate which is equal or greater than that of the white male for each size of place of residence class for which a comparison is shown in the table. The nonwhite male rate is significantly greater than the white male rate in cities of 50,000 to 1 million (table 1.03.03).

Among the population 25 years and over, attendance at outdoor sports events increases with years of schooling through those completing high school and then declines somewhat. Rates decline less in the North Central region with the highest educational class, but otherwise, this pattern of increasing frequency of attending outdoor sports events through the high school group followed by a slight decline is typical of each region. These are data for the summer, when there are few college events. During the fall when football is the principal sport, the participation rate reaches its highest level with the group completing 4 years or more of college, the "old grads". The latter association holds for each of the regions (tables 1.02.03, and 2.02.03).

The percentage attending outdoor sports events varies little when classified by occupation. Thirty percent of craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers attended outdoor sports events during June-August 1960. The percentage of other occupations attending range down to 20 percent (service workers, including private service workers).

For the United States as a whole the number of occasions per person is highest for craftsmen and foremen (1.77) and next highest for white-collar workers and laborers (1.51 occasions per person). The group showing the lowest number of attendances during this 3-month period were farmworkers (0.91), followed closely by service workers (1.0). Thus, white collar, skilled labor, and laborers attend outdoor sports events more frequently than other occupational groups. This general pattern is repeated in each region. Exceptions are a somewhat higher rate for professional and technical people in the North Central region and managers in the South, but the farmworkers show a low rate of participation for all regions (table 1.02.03).

In urban places the above pattern is followed. One exception is a slightly high rate of participation among professional and technical workers in large cities over 1 million, and somewhat higher participation levels for managers and officials in small urban places (less than 50,000). Otherwise, the basic pattern of higher levels of participation for white-collar workers, skilled workers, and laborers, is repeated. However, in rural territory, there is low variation among occupations and, of course, a lower overall participation level (1.04) for the rural population as

a whole. As we have seen, the highest participation level for the rural population is in rural parts of standard metropolitan areas, as compared with other rural areas. In general, place of residence more significantly conditions attendance at outdoor sports events than occupation (table 1.03.03).

Both male and female rates are directly associated with health, as reported by the respondent. This is consistent for each major age group, although females 45 to 65 years of age who report "poor" health participate considerably more frequently (1.14 days per person) than those who report "fair" or "good" health (0.42 and 0.66). However, such small variations may be due to sampling. Since watching sports events makes a mild physical demand, it is somewhat surprising that health is as highly associated with attendance at outdoor sports events as is the case (table 1.04.03).

Another test between physical ability and attendance at outdoor sports events may be examined with information on impairments. Persons with no impairments participate more frequently than those who have impairments that are not limiting, and these, in turn, participate more than those with limiting impairments. The differences, particularly in the 18 to 44 age group—the active years—are not great, the rate for those with no impairments being 1.53 compared with 1.21 for those who have limiting impairments (table 1.04.03).

Preferences for spectator sports

Attending outdoor sports events shares fifth place in the preference order with walking for pleasure and boating (other than sailing and canoeing). Eleven percent of the population 12 years of age and over expresses "some" preference for attending outdoor sports. This is one-third of the percentage expressing a preference for such popular outdoor activities as fishing and picnicking (table 1.21).

In terms of time available the percentage expressing a preference for attending outdoor sports events is low (1 or 2 percent). The percentage is higher for weekend trip and for periods of 2 or 3 hours than for the other alternatives (vacation and day's outing).

For the United States as a whole, larger percentages of persons living in small urban places (2,500 to 50,000 population) express a preference for attending outdoor sports events (14 percent) than other classes. This is true, also for each of the regions except the North Central, the percentage ranging from 18 percent to 15 percent. In the North Central States, the rural population outside SMA areas more frequently prefer (18 percent) to attend sports events, than inhabitants of other North Central place of residence classes. Rural areas of the South and West register the lowest percentage preferences for attending sports events, perhaps because such events are less accessible (table 1.17).

Fifteen percent of males, but only 8 percent females, express a general preference for attending sports events. As they become older males and females develop different preferences. Among males the percentage expressing a preference for attending sports events increases with age to 65 years (from

5 percent for the group 12-13 years of age to 19 percent for 45 to 64 years). On the other hand, females' preferences decline from 10 percent for the 14 to 17 age group to 4 percent for those 65 and over (table 1.17).

The summer preference for attending outdoor sports events is negatively associated with participation in some of the more vigorous outdoor activities, such as boating, camping, fishing, and hunting. On the other hand, it is positively associated with participation in driving for pleasure in the summer and such fall activities as swimming, sightseeing, and picnicking. As a composite, this suggests that attending outdoor sports events is preferred among those who find pleasure in outdoor activities that are not field and stream oriented, and which may easily be engaged in by one living in the urban environment (tables 1.12 and 2.12).

The correlation coefficients between attending outdoor sports events and engaging in other summer activities are shown below:^{6/}

Playing outdoor games and sports	0.33
Driving for pleasure27
Swimming27
Picnicking23
Sightseeing18
Boating (other than sailing and canoeing) . .	.18
Bicycling16
Fishing15
Walking for pleasure14
Nature Walks13
Horseback riding12
Hiking10
Water skiing09
Camping08

These correlations between number of days participation in various activities and attending outdoor sports events show that those who actually play games and sports are interested in attending sports events, as is shown by a correlation coefficient of 0.33 between these two activities. The next three largest correlation coefficients suggest the urban orientation of persons who attend outdoor sports events (driving for pleasure, picnicking, swimming, and sightseeing). Attending sports events shows a much lower association with the more vigorous outdoor activities, swimming excepted.

Restrictions on attendance

Thirty-six percent of those expressing a preference for attending outdoor sports events say that they engage as often as they would like. Another one-third do not participate as often as they would like because of time restrictions. This group most likely will participate more often as more leisure time becomes available to them. Twelve percent do not participate as often as they would like for financial reasons, and

^{6/}The variate in the above computations was the square root of the number of days participation during summer. At 0.01 level of significance a value is significantly greater than zero if equal to or greater than 0.04. See appendix A, table 3c.

10 percent do not participate because of reasons which we have classified as facilities, evidently meaning the unavailability of events to attend. The somewhat higher percentage who do not attend for financial reasons indicates that entrance fees remain a restriction the reduction of which might increase participation. Increased income, given a constant entrance charge, might thereby improve attendance. These percentages suggest that a considerable amount of outdoor activity will be devoted to attending outdoor sports events should more time and increased income release individuals from these restrictions (table 1.14B).

Forty-two percent of the females who express a preference for attending outdoor sports events do so as often as they would like, compared with 33 percent for males. The most significant restriction expressed by males is available time, 41 percent of those who prefer the activity so stating. Among females, on the other hand, time was mentioned by only 24 percent and financial restrictions by 15 percent of females (table 1.14B).

ATTENDING OUTDOOR CONCERTS, DRAMA

We attend outdoor concerts and drama only 0.4 times per person throughout the year. About half of these are during summer with very little activity in other seasons. The Northeast and West have the heaviest annual rates (0.50 and 0.48, respectively). Participation in the South, even in summer, is quite low when compared with other regions. Fall and spring rates are slightly higher than winter (tables 1.01, 2.01, 3.01, and 4.01).

During summer 1960, 9 percent of the population 12 years of age and over attended outdoor concerts and drama one or more times. Ten activities in the survey had higher percentage participation than this. It was only 0.21 attendance occasions per person during the summer, which is quite a low rate (table 1.02.02).

In addition to a low percent participating, and a low number of days per person, the infrequency with which people attend outdoor concerts and drama is further illustrated by the number of days per participant, which is the lowest of all activities in the survey, even canoeing and sailing exceeding it in days per participant. Those who attend outdoor concerts and drama do so at a rate of about 2.4 occasions per participant during the 3-month period.

By region, summer participation is approximately equal among all regions except the South where the participation is quite low (0.07).

The small frequency participation makes analysis less certain than some other outdoor activities.

Males and females participate at approximately the same rate, females having slightly higher rates in the North Central and West.

Participation is highest among young males 12 to 17 years of age and among young females 12 to 24 years of age than other age groups. The rate declines thereafter with age. This pattern characterizes each region except the South where the rates are uniformly low (table 1.02.02).

The picture is much the same when age and sex are considered by size of place of residence. Rates decline somewhat less with age among inhabitants of cities of over 1 million, and the variation is insignificant among age groups who live in places 50,000 to 1 million, but otherwise, the pattern of participation is much the same (table 1.03.02).

There is a gradual increase in the rate with increasing family income. This is more obvious in the Northeast and North Central than in the South and West. In the South the rate is quite low for all income groups and in the West there is greater variation among income classes. However, the effect of ability to pay is obvious from the data (table 1.02.02).

Income considered in relation to size of place of residence, produces a more irregular pattern. There is an increase from the lowest income class to the highest, and this pattern is more consistent for large urban places than rural areas. In the latter, the participation rate reaches a peak of 0.45 for the family income class \$6,000 to \$7,999 per year and declines somewhat for income groups receiving more than this amount. Such variations, however, are small. The fact that such variation exists, however, suggests that availability as conditioned by residence and income has much to do with attending outdoor concerts, drama, etc. (table 1.03.02).

The white rate of participation (0.23) is about twice the nonwhite, except in the South where the rates are about equal, although quite low. This is fairly constant, also, when white-nonwhite rates are considered by size of place of residence. However, the participation rate for the nonwhite population living in rural areas is near zero, compared with the white rate of .19 (table 1.03.02).

Female rates are similar to male rates, for both white and nonwhite groups.

Attendance, residence, and region

When considered by size of place of residence, and region, the lower rural rate is not shared by the rural population living close to large cities (within standard metropolitan areas). Both the rural nonfarm and rural farm rates are low compared with other size of place of residence classes. The rural nonfarm rate for the industrial Northeast (0.52) is considerably higher than rural rates in other regions, suggesting the effect of proximity to centers that present outdoor concerts and dramas. The rates within each size of place of residence class are low for the South except in urban places of over 1 million; these rates, for the South, are approximately the same as other regions (table 1.03.02).

Among those aged 25 years or more, attendance at outdoor concerts and drama increases with years of schooling (from 0.05 for those with less than 4 years schooling to 0.37 for those who have completed college). This pattern is fairly consistent for each region, the South excepted (table 1.02.02).

By occupation, professional persons go to concerts and drama much more frequently than those in other occupational classes, and farmworkers go less. Another urban occupation, white-collar workers attend next most frequently. Other than these the remaining occupational groups hover quite closely about the

national mean for the labor force population (14 years of age and over) of 0.2 attendance occasions per person during the 3-month period (table 1.03.02). The labor force population participates at about the same level as the remainder of the population.

The pattern is repeated in each region, except the South where all groups except professional and technical workers and craftsmen and foremen are uniformly low (table 1.02.02).

Attending a concert or drama is associated with the respondent's report on his health, for males and females. For example, among female the rate rises from 0.06 for those who report their health to be poor to 0.34 among those who say their health is excellent. Thus, even though attendance at a concert is not physically demanding, persons with better health are more active participants (table 1.04.02).

This relationship is fairly consistent for each of the major age classifications, although there appears to be greater variation among persons 65 years and older, than for younger groups. Among retired persons there is slightly more frequent participation among those who report their health as fair or poor than among those who report their health excellent or good.

Persons with impairments participate slightly less than those who have no impairments (table 1.04.02).

Attending outdoor concerts, drama, etc., is selected as a preferred activity by a very small percent of the population, only 4 percent. This places the activity among the 3 lowest in preference rank. It was a more frequent preference for periods of 2 to 3 hours than other times (table 1.21).

Expressions of preference for outdoor concerts and drama are negatively associated with participation in fishing, camping, boating, and swimming—the vigorous outdoor activities. On the other hand, expressions of preference for attending outdoor concerts and drama are positively associated with sightseeing, hiking, and driving for pleasure. This suggests that those who attend are oriented toward urban recreation activities (table 1.12).

Among persons who prefer outdoor concerts and drama as an outdoor recreation activity, 19 percent say that they participate as often as they would like. The remainder do not participate as often as they would like because of various restrictions upon their activity. The most prominent factor mentioned was the unavailability of facilities, 31 percent of people who prefer attending outdoor concerts and drama mentioning this. The second most important restriction upon attendance was availability of time, 25 percent mentioning this factor. Financial reasons were mentioned by 11 percent. Thus, the suggestion made previously that unavailability of facilities limits participation among those who would like to attend, is confirmed by the data. Males mention unavailability of facilities somewhat more frequently than females (table 1.14B).

Event characteristics

Attendance at an outdoor concert or drama normally requires 2, 3, or 4 hours, hence it becomes an afternoon or evening activity. If no entrance charge is made, there would be little to restrict participation, merely

appropriate dress being required. More customarily, however, entrance fees are charged, making attendance at these events somewhat more restricted to income classes having some surplus for such expenditures, perhaps lower middle classes up. No physical activity, as with attending sports events, is required for participation, but attendance implies an intellectual interest in the story, in music, the dance, etc., an interest which may, in turn, indicate that the person has participated at one time in the activity and has some skill in it. The degree of status achieved through participation rests partially upon the status associated with the activity. The widespread popularity during summer of events at seashore or mountain resorts, particularly those where professional performers "star" in the casts, is likely to give the spectator a more widely recognized basis for accruing status than attendance, for example, at free municipal concerts. Similarly, the status value of attendance varies for events as a symphony orchestra concert, a high school band, professional jazz band, the St. Louis summer opera program, etc. Perhaps the degree of status achieved through participation rests in part upon the newsworthy nature of the outdoor program as well as the degree of popularity of the performers. Attendance at outdoor concerts and drama potentially provides an opportunity for learning and development in esthetic appreciation, which is likely to increase with more frequent participation. Undoubtedly there are numerous other motives in attending outdoor concerts and drama. Participation with family and friends makes the event a social affair, and hence has rewards other than purely esthetic appreciation. In relating the story or an account of the musical event to others one may gain a reward analogous to being present when an event occurs. In addition, there is an intellectual reward to those who appreciate the story, musical selection, or the rhythm and motion of a dance. Such experiences provide a stimulant which may later lead to creativity. Attendance at outdoor concerts and drama, then, is likely to motivate the individual to creativity in other fields. The latter rests upon some of the social functions of the audience-oriented arts. Such social functions may include the stimulation of creativity in political, economic and familial institutions, as well as contribute to the process of personality integration. As concerns the latter, identification and role-taking become products of

observing the drama and other art forms.^{7/} Attending concerts and drama, thus, becomes the most intellectual of the outdoor activities and one which would be expected to appeal to the more professional occupations, the better educated, and the more cosmopolitan and urban segments of the population.

MISCELLANEOUS ACTIVITIES

Activities which could not be classified in the 23 categories of outdoor recreation are accounted for in the first summary table for each survey (tables 1.01, 2.01, 3.01, and 4.01) where they are classified as miscellaneous. Only 0.57 occasions per person annually were classified as miscellaneous, thereby attesting to the comprehensiveness of the classification scheme. Almost all of these miscellaneous activities take place during the summer period. They include such things as sailing in gliders, target practice, dancing outdoors, parading, riding a buggy, jumping on a trampoline, twirling a baton, and sitting and playing cards. Undoubtedly, many such events were considered too unimportant to the respondent to report to us. Taken together they amount to six-tenths of 1 percent of all reported outdoor activity. This may well be an under representation of these miscellaneous activities, since the use of the "outdoor recreation activities flash card", which prompted the respondent to identify outdoor recreation occasions he had engaged in, would stimulate responses to these activities to the exclusion of unlisted activities.

Considering the dynamics of our technology and the rate with which new implements are adopted in our culture, the future will most likely see new forms of outdoor recreation come into being which may well alter the outdoor recreation resource requirements. Considering the rapid popularity that boating has attained, the future may see the air, the ice, underwater, or the interior of caves become the environment for greater participation of one kind or another. Consequently, one may anticipate dynamic changes in the forms of outdoor recreation along with a continuing need for resources for the traditional ones.

^{7/}This is more succinctly stated by Max Kaplan in his "Leisure in America: A Social Inquiry," as follows: "Social functions of art relate one to persons, ideas, cultural norms, or patterns of behavior that may be connected to esthetic content but are not central to it." New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960, p. 203.