

Abstracts

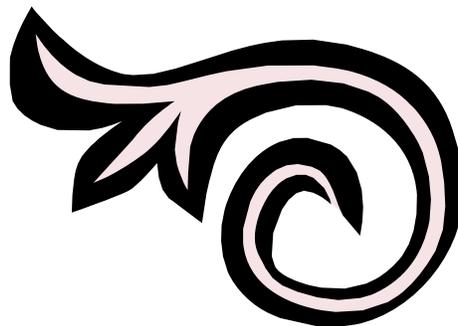
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Welcome to SEER

Welcome to the Fifth Annual Symposium on Experiential Education Research (SEER). The purpose of this Symposium is to provide you with a formal setting for the reporting of research findings germane to the fields of Experiential Education. Toward that end, all the research presentations were blind reviewed by a panel of referees. This year we had over 30 submissions for the 11 available presentation slots. Whether accepted or not, the authors who submitted material should be congratulated for their efforts. In many cases, their works were not selected because of the strict time constraints and not because of any deficiencies in the quality of their work.

Along with the researchers who submitted their work for review, a number of other entities and people deserve a note of thanks for their efforts in making this idea a reality. First, the AEE and its various staff members including Evan Narotsky and AEE Executive Director Pat Hammond and the 2006 conference host committee for their support and coordination of SEER.

Much appreciation goes to the many scholars and academicians who graciously served as reviewers of the submitted abstracts: Scott Bandoroff, Brent Bell, Joanne Bettman, Ken Gilbertson, Lee Gillis, Mike Gass, Marni Goldenberg, Tom Holman, Christian Itin, Sandra Newes, and Steve Simpson. We would also like to thank Deborah Bialeschki for providing our opening address and Bruce Martin and Jude Hirsch for providing summaries and reactions to the sessions.

And finally, a special thank you is given to the attendees of the Symposium, as it is on you and the other members of the experiential education community that this Symposium is focused. For without you and the various educational endeavors you provide within the experiential education rubric, all of our efforts would be for naught.

Thanks to all of you for being a part of SEER.

Jim Sibthorp
Keith Russell
SEER Coordinators, 2006

The Three Rs For Experiential Education Researchers

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“All genuine education comes through experience”
-John Dewey

Most of us doing research in areas related to experiential education are familiar with the words of John Dewey and believe that his philosophy offers a sound theoretical underpinning for our field. It has been almost 70 years since Dewey wrote these words, and during this time our research efforts have evolved as we tried to better understand the meaning and power of experiences to human development and learning. The purpose of this presentation is to suggest that for those of us interested in experiential education research, there are “three Rs” important for us to consider related to our work:

- Relevance
- Relationships
- “Real” (authentic)

Each of these three aspects are briefly described and framed around challenges facing today’s researchers.

Relevance

We seem to be undergoing radical cultural, environmental, and technical changes that make our world increasingly volatile. Every day we are confronted with crises around global warming, deforestation, drought, potential pandemics, natural disasters, poverty, genocide, and war. We seem to confront nay-sayers at every turn and find science has become politicized to serve whatever whim needs to be met. The challenge seems to revolve around the need to make information personal and meaningful to individuals as they struggle with their day-to-day lives. If we look again to Dewey, his ideas that genuine learning must involve the individual in a social learning context, be carried out in a range of learning environments, and be of perceived relevance to the learner seem to have nuggets of hope for ways to help people deal with these challenges.

So what does this need for relevance mean to us in our research efforts? I think three messages can be found around relevance and our research:

- Our research needs to continue to be meaningful to professionals in other fields so we do not run the risk of talking only to ourselves in isolation.
- We need to provide research that meets the needs of our practitioners so the link between research and practice is enhanced with practitioners recognizing the value of the findings and researchers understanding the information needed by practitioners to meet the challenges they face daily.
- Our research needs to be shared in multiple ways across varied audiences to help demonstrate the relevance of experiential education and the value it has to offer in many settings with diverse clientele.

Relationships

The second R is for relationships. In *The World is Flat*, Friedman(2005) makes the case for the importance of establishing all sorts of relationships if we are to flourish in a global society. I think for those of us interested in experiential education research, we have a solid base from which to point to our documented successes in providing supportive environments in which relationships are promoted and valued as integral to human development.

While we can not rest on our laurels, our research efforts will need to continue to demonstrate value in two areas:

- Internal relationships where we know that we make a difference in the supports and opportunities around building relationships with our clientele in ways that other groups (schools, youth organizations, etc) can't do through their traditional structures.
- External relationships where, through our research that is often interdisciplinary, we collaborate in our research efforts and share our findings broadly with colleagues in related areas.

“Real” (authentic)

The last R is for being “real” or offering ways to our participants to be authentic. For many of our participants, they seek opportunities where they can be themselves (or find out things about themselves) and be engaged in meaningful activities. In our current world where virtual has the potential to encroach on reality, people want experiences where they can be authentic and make a difference. These opportunities may be to engage with the environment, a particular group of people, or may be with the community through activities like service learning.

So what are the implications for our research in experiential education related to being “real”?

- Our research efforts need to continue to document the meaning behind experiences and the outcomes that can be attributed to these experiential opportunities for growth and development.
- We must continue to move beyond measuring satisfaction and look more critically at our efforts to better understand behaviors, attitudes, and values that occur through our experiences.

We have many challenges facing our field. I believe research is one tool we can use to tell our story in ways that highlight our relevance as we work to build positive relationships as well as offer opportunities for real self-discovery through experiential education. We need to build our research repertoire: longitudinal studies, more mixed methods, demographic analyses that reflect our changing society, studies to address technology issues, and projects that help articulate values important to our programs. I believe we have an obligation to produce knowledge and promote the acquisition of learning in ways that can find solutions to today's ills and challenges. We must step up and help create a path to the future that is built on solid empirical information. We need

to clearly articulate through our research the values, traditions, and contributions provided by experiential education. Our job as researchers is to set the course and take action to create the knowledge needed by the field. As said by von Goethe: “Knowing is not enough; we must apply. Willing is not enough; we must do.”

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**Project Venture:
Evaluation of an Experiential, Culturally-Based Approach to Substance
Abuse Prevention with American Indian Youth**

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Although it has been recognized that culturally grounded prevention programs may enhance program effectiveness when delivered to ethnically diverse youths, there are few programs that have been specifically grounded in American Indian culture. Furthermore, of available programs (culturally grounded or not), few have published data on program effectiveness for American Indian youth. Project Venture (PV), an outdoor/experiential education youth development program, developed by the National Indian Youth Leadership Project, has served over 4,000 high-risk American Indian (AI) and other youth over the last 15 years in New Mexico and was named a Model Program by the Center for Substance Abuse Prevention in 2004. Project Venture has been adopted by nearly 60 American Indian and other communities in 18 states. American Indian values provide the foundation for the program's philosophy of indirect teaching through holistic, positive youth development. Program content integrates traditional stories, spirituality, leadership, and learning through experiential in-school and out-of-school activities throughout the year. Key components include classroom-based problem-solving initiatives, skills-focused outdoor experiential activities, adventure camps and wilderness treks, and community-oriented service learning. The program aims to help youth develop a positive self-concept, effective social skills, a community service ethic, self-efficacy, and positive decision-making and problem-solving skills.

The present study reports findings on the effectiveness of Project Venture in reducing substance use with AI youth. Data were derived from program evaluation studies conducted between 1996 and 2000 by the National Indian Youth Leadership Project. Three hundred and ninety-seven sixth graders, 262 treatment and 135 control, completed the baseline assessment. The six month follow-up survey was completed by 222 treatment and 124 control youth. The eighteen month follow-up was completed by 162 treatment and 98 control youth. Approximately 76% of study youth were American Indian.

A Repeated Measures GLM design was used to examine the longitudinal effectiveness of Project Venture. This analysis produced a multivariate test for significant differences in treatment and control group trends on substance use indicators. The analysis was conducted across three time points- baseline, six-month follow-up, and 18 month follow-up. A propensity

score that adjusts for treatment and comparison group non-equivalence at baseline were entered as covariates.

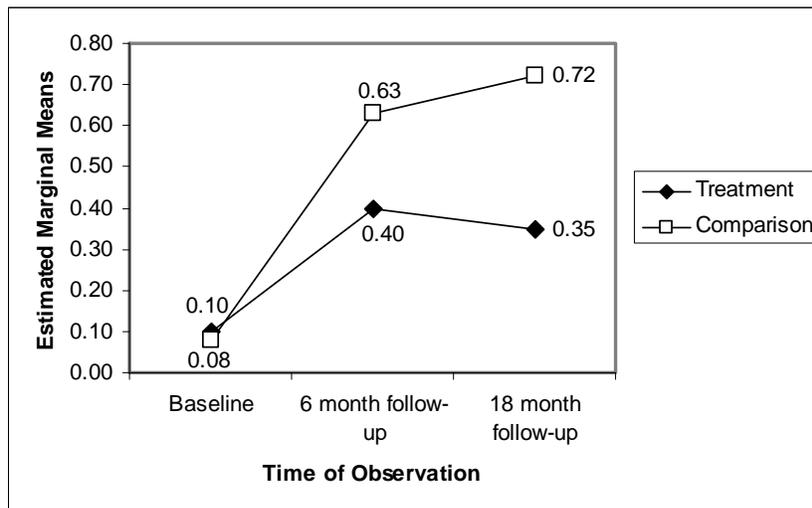
The multivariate analysis revealed a significant difference between the substance use patterns of treatment and control participants across time, with treatment youth demonstrating less growth in substance use as measured by the four outcomes measures taken together. The univariate results are presented in the following table.

Table 1. Univariate Tests, Effects of Past 30 Day Substance Use Over Time

Effect	F	Sig	Eta ²
Time	1.054	0.175	.008
Time * Propensity Score	3.355	0.018*	.026
Time * Group	2.572	0.039*	.020

*p < .05

The analysis indicates that Project Venture was most effective with respect to alcohol. Specifically, the alcohol use of the comparison group increased significantly across time, whereas the treatment group participants leveled off in their alcohol use from the six-month follow-up to the 18-month follow-up. The difference between the linear trends was statistically significant (p < .05) as illustrated in Figure 1.



Results provide evidence to support the effectiveness of a positive culturally-based experiential approach to youth development and prevention programming for AI youth. The overall trend of positive effects on substance use are especially noteworthy in light of the fact that Project Venture does not target substance use with mainstream direct prevention strategies such as drug resistance skills and drug education. This study provides an alternative prevention model for AI communities that is not based on mainstream models or majority populations. It suggests that an experientially-based youth development program integrating pan-Indian values and traditions is an effective base for prevention efforts in AI communities. Findings from this study have been supported by subsequent quasi-experimental studies conducted by NIYLP over the past decade. Finally, findings from this study support those who advocate for a change from

the deficit-based approach that still characterizes most prevention efforts. More studies are needed to provide evidence that positive, experiential approaches are effective, not only for American Indian youth, but all youth.

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Tuckman Revisited...Proposing a New Model of Group Development for Practitioners

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Background and Significance

Practitioners of experiential education programs often use variations of Bruce Tuckman's stage model of group development in facilitator training and as a basis for group program design and facilitation. Tuckman's model published in 1965 remains one of the most commonly cited models of group development today (Cissna, 1984; Smith, 2005; Worchel, 1994). Tuckman's model was formed from a meta-analysis of 50 research-based studies of group development and is identified by the titles Forming, Storming, Norming and Performing (Adjourning was added in 1977). Thirty seven of the fifty studies used in his meta-analysis came from research on psychoanalytic studies of therapy and laboratory training groups. Tuckman (1965) recognized that the transferability of his model must be limited by the fact that, "what has been presented is mainly research dealing with sequential development observed in therapy groups" (p.395).

Research Question

In this qualitative analytical study I considered the question of whether Tuckman's model adequately describes group development for use by practitioners wishing to develop groups outside of a therapy context. In so doing I wished to bring further clarity to group development for use by experiential practitioners in a variety of settings. The question to guide this study was: Can further clarity for practical use be brought to the concept of group development by means of a typology synthesized from practitioner-authored group-development models?

Methods

The methodological framework selected for this study was informed by Soltis (1978) who suggested that a search for conceptual clarity must begin with common and typical examples of a concept. These examples are then gathered together according to themes. By determining what distinguishes different themes from each other, a typology of the concept is determined. Soltis indicated that the typology should then be tested against new and different examples of the concept in question. I chose to use books as the basis for my data collection rather than people because books gave me access to the concept of group development as described by therapy, business, and educational practitioner-authors from across North America, as well as allowing me to select from a wide sample pool. I selected group-development literature from three disciplines where group development is facilitated: therapy, education, and management. I felt that selecting models from a broad range of settings would provide descriptive depth. The breadth of my sample would allow me to consider whether group development is understood in the same manner across the three disciplines and across groups formed for different purposes (interpersonal development and task completion).

I was methodical in selecting the books that would be used in my research study as sampling lays the groundwork from which conclusions and recommendations can be made in qualitative research (Miles & Huberman, 1994). I started with a number of library catalogue subject terms gathered from my literature search, and then went through a detailed process of elimination based on a documented procedure (see Cassidy, 2001) to find books written by practitioners and containing a group development model. A final set of 174 book titles from the Books in Print Database were determined. I ordered these books from the library according to a table of random numbers. As books arrived I verified that they contained a model of group development and included them in the study based on my need for equal numbers of books from business, education and therapy. My final sample was 36 books written between 1990 and 2001.

Data Analysis

Using Soltis's method of first determining a typology and then testing the typology against a different sample, I divided the 36 books into two separate samples – 24 to determine the meta-framework and 12 to test it against. To create the framework I drew upon established methods of coding and categorizing to identify themes (see Miles and Huberman, 1994). This involved taking every sentence in the 24 models and reducing them to the key descriptive paraphrases. These paraphrases resulted in 890 data slips. I found that a good portion of the data slips naturally clustered into three themes: beginning or forming the group, the group in a working stage, and the group in an ending stage. I was then left with all of the slips between beginning and working. I grouped these remaining data slips together and clustered them together according to similar descriptive paraphrases. I found two separate themes in these data slips: (a) determining interpersonal structure, and (b) determining goals and defining a sense of purpose. These 5 groupings of data slips described clear changes in the groups concerns (stages). Then *within* each stage, I grouped the data-slips together by similar descriptions. These two dimensions formed a meta-framework.

Soltis (1978) suggests that once a typology is determined it should be tested against new and different examples of the concept in question. In the second part of this study I compared the results of the meta-framework against four different samples to test the framework's range and adequacy as a representation of group development. These samples included: (a) the unused set of 12 practitioner models; (b) the 24 models used to develop the meta-framework; (c) the 24 models divided by discipline (the 8 models from business, education, and therapy used to develop the meta-framework); and (d) 8 popular research-based models outlined in the studies literature review (see Cassidy, 2001).

Findings

The meta-framework (or typology) defined in this study suggests that groups have individual, group, purpose, and work concerns present at every stage of their development. Each of these concerns shift to become the main emphasis of the group as it develops and determines stages: individual concerns (stage 1), group concerns (stage 2), purpose concerns (stage 3), and work concerns (stage 4). A fifth stage - concerns with termination (stage 5) was identified for groups who are separating.

As suggested by Soltis (1978), I tested the typology created in the study against four different samples. In the test of the 24 models divided by discipline I found that: (a)

the therapy models gave the most description for the Individual and Group stages, (b) the business models described the Purpose and Work stages in greatest detail, and (c) the education models provided the most descriptive information for the Group and Purpose stages. The therapy models were also most likely to describe the Termination stage. Therapy models tended to provide little description around goals while the business models often minimized interpersonal norms.

In the three tests with the 24 models used to develop the meta-framework, the 12 models reserved to test it against, and the 8 notable research-based models outlined in the studies literature review, I found that all models could be integrated into the framework. I noted that when an apparent variance between the models used in the study and the framework occurred it came from an author's interpretation of conflict or goal setting, which I elaborate on below.

I found that a majority of the models used in this study described conflict as a theme and label for a stage. However, the location of this stage and the reasons for the conflict varied. In the different models conflict arose from members (a) trying to establish independence from the group, (b) vying for control or leadership of the group, (c) disagreeing about values and the expression of individual ideas, and (d) disagreeing about the task and goals of the group. The variety of sources of conflict may explain why conflict as a stage label appeared in different places in the 24 group-development models. The meta-framework created in this study does not use conflict as a distinction between stages. I believe that a shift in focus away from conflict as a stage to the concerns that drive the conflict is unique to this framework and helps to integrate the seemingly diverse models found in practitioner literature. It also suggests that Tuckman's stage 'Storming', may not be a clearly defined stage for practitioners outside of therapeutic groups – thus limiting the applicability of Tuckman's model in experiential education.

Goal setting and the clarification of purpose was discussed in many of the models, but it was not as often identified as a separate stage. It was frequently grouped under the work stage, or found with the stage devoted to creating relationship norms and roles. Separating goal-setting from interpersonal norms and removing the category label of storming allowed the seemingly diverse models found in therapy, education and management to come together in one meta-framework.

Implications

This study presents a new perspective on group-development theory. The fact that this study looked at group development from the perspective of practitioners brought to light the notion of group development stages defined by concerns to be addressed (individual, group, purpose, work) rather than behavioural outcomes (forming, storming, norming, performing, adjourning). Certainly this concerns-based perspective is helpful for the practitioner who wishes to use group development theory to select activities and facilitate their group toward development. This shift in focus also helps to integrate variations in many group development models that currently exist. The study brings new information for the experiential practitioner and suggests that Bruce Tuckman's model may not be as clearly applicable to groups outside of a therapeutic context.

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The Life Significance of a Spiritually Oriented, Outward Bound-Type Wilderness Expedition

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Overview

This retrospective study, completed in 2002, examined the life significance of a Christian-based, Outward Bound-type, 20-day wilderness expedition offered by a private liberal arts college in Western North Carolina. The purpose was to discover what informants remembered, what they had learned, and whether the trip played a role in their lives subsequently. Two aspects of the expedition were studied – the significance of the entire experience and the significance of its individual components. Trip components included initiatives, backpacking, orienteering, camping, climbing, canoeing, a solo, a two-day expedition without instructors, a service project, and a 14-mile mini-marathon. The sample involved 227 informants who went on the Discovery Wilderness Program, or “Discovery,” at some point between the years 1976 and 2000. Informants from all 25 years were represented in the study.

The study utilized the theoretical framework of significant life experience (SLE) research, which seeks to understand the long-term value of earlier life experiences by sampling autobiographical memories. Bruner (1987), McAdams (1988), and others have noted that significant life experiences are events that play an enduring, central role in a person’s narrative or life story. Research into significant life experiences seeks to understand how past events that may have occurred 20 or 30 years ago continue to influence people’s feelings, attitudes, beliefs, behavior, or actions (Chawla, 1998). At the time of this study, there had been relatively little research into the life significance of wilderness experiences. Thus, Kellert (1998), Vogl and Vogl (1990), and others have called for more research to examine the presence of long-term effects of wilderness expeditions through retrospective and longitudinal studies.

Relatively few studies have looked at the wilderness experience through an interdisciplinary lens, leading Ewert (1987) and others to call for more interdisciplinary approaches that integrate psychology, sociology, education, and other disciplines to better understand the wilderness experience. The lens of life significance is interdisciplinary by its very nature. Therefore, this study considered theories drawn from experiential education, human development, environmental psychology, memory research, and Christian theology while using the SLE theoretical framework to guide the investigation throughout the study.

Methods

Retrospective studies sample informants’ autobiographical memories of past events. A retrospective approach was chosen because it “provides the researcher with a larger sample than one would ordinarily have in this type of research, a greater ability to examine effects over longer periods of time, and data from many kinds and ages of people” (Kellert, 1998, p. 14). The study employed multiple methods, which allowed for triangulation among the various data sources.

The study took place in several stages. First, two pilot studies were conducted with informants from the 1999 (n=32) and 2000 (n=9) expeditions. These studies

included pre-trip and post-trip questionnaires, journal entry analysis, naturalistic observation, field notes, reflection papers, and taped debriefing sessions. Then, the findings from the pilot studies aided in the design of the main study (2000-2002), which employed self-administered questionnaires (n=210, 72.2% response rate) and focus group interviews (n=18). Informants from 10 different years of the program were represented in the focus groups.

The survey answers and taped focus group interviews were coded and analyzed for content using the Constant Comparative Method (Corbin & Strauss, 1990) whereby emerging themes were constantly compared with new data being analyzed. Three additional researchers were used throughout the data analysis and theme identification process to check intercoder reliability (93%) and to confirm the findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1994). Quantifiable elements of the study were summarized in a series of data tables. Analysis of the data was completed in Fall 2002.

Findings

The findings revealed that 90% of the informants believed the experience had made a difference in their lives in some way. For one-third of all respondents, the significance had increased over time. Life significance was enhanced most often by the following three factors: 1) how new or unique the experience was to the informants, 2) the timing of the event in informants' lives, and 3) the extent to which expedition memories were connected later to other life experiences. Other factors that informants mentioned as contributing to the significance of the expedition were the influence of the instructors, challenges encountered on the trip, and the wilderness setting. Informants from all years represented (1976-2000) expressed similar attitudes and feelings regarding the trip's impact on their lives and identified those expedition components that had the greatest impact on their overall growth. In this regard, the Solo emerged clearly as the most significant trip component; 39% of the informants cited it as such.

The results showed that the 20-day Discovery expedition was viewed by most informants as a significant, formative life event that promoted personal growth in several definable ways. It refined the way in which informants viewed themselves and their circumstances. Subsequently, it served as a reference point, a reservoir of life lessons, or a life metaphor. The expedition encouraged spiritual growth by drawing parallels between the informants' wilderness experiences, their life journeys, and the wilderness experiences portrayed in the Bible.

With respect to life significance, one overarching theme was prevalent. The Discovery expedition encouraged a sense of something greater within the informants – a sense that ranged from a greater awareness of God to a greater awareness of the natural world to a greater awareness of self (actions, attitudes, behaviors, beliefs, and personal abilities). It was manifested in the mental, physical, emotional, social, and spiritual dimensions of personal growth and re-emerged frequently as informants shared stories of later life experiences. They described it in the following ways: 1) a broadened understanding of self and the world, 2) a greater awareness of personal strengths and limitations, 3) an enhanced ability to accomplish or at least to try new and difficult tasks, 4) a greater faith and trust in God, 5) a greater awareness of that which transcends ordinary physical reality – the supernatural or spiritual dimension, 6) a greater awareness of the interconnectedness of all things in the natural world, and 7) an increased openness

to future possibilities.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This study extends our understanding of the long-term influence and value of extended wilderness programs over one's lifetime and the course components that contribute to it. The study adds both to the literature regarding the connections between spirituality and wilderness expeditions and to the research on the use of wilderness experiences to promote personal growth.

There exists a need for more studies that look at the wilderness expedition experience within the larger framework of personal life history since two of the lingering research questions are 1) to what extent the lessons are transposed into other life contexts and 2) whether the resulting changes are long-lasting or short-lived. More research is needed on the life significance of wilderness experiences with different populations, trip lengths, environments, and programs. Additional research will aid in developing theories or models that can be applied to expedition design in order to maximize the long-term value and life significance of wilderness expeditions.

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“It’s in the Rulebook!”: How Rules Shape Children’s Use of Science as They Raise Market Animals in 4-H

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Objectives

Both formal and informal educational activities have rules that guide participants and influence their actions (Rahm, 2002; Rogoff, 1995). The rules under which participants operate significantly influence what they do and what they learn from an educational experience. Program organizers create rules to assist participants in effectively reaching the goals for that program, yet rules may affect participation in ways not intended by the organizers.

This study examines the learning experience of children involved in 4-H a club market animal project. Through this project, children get a young lamb, hog or steer and provide it with food, water, shelter, and medical care under the guidance of adult 4-H volunteers. The 4-H members monitor the growth and development of the animal and, after months of work, they show and sell the animal at the county fair. This study collected data on a group of 4-H children raising market animals in order to better understand their experiential learning process in this activity.

Modern agriculture in western cultures has a scientific legacy: agriculturalists understand the production of food and fiber as a technology of science. This study examines whether children involved in this agricultural education program used the tools and thought processes of science and, if so, how their use of science meets the expectations of science educators as described in the science education reform documents (AAAS, 1989; AAAS, 1993; NRC, 1996). This paper focuses on how organizational rules guided children raising 4-H market animals to think and act as scientists using scientific “habits of mind” that are the goal of science education programs (AAAS, 1989).

Perspective

This study views children’s involvement in raising a market animal through the lens of activity theory (Cole, 1996; Engestrom, 1993; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Leontiev, 1981; Rogoff, 1995; Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1985). Through activity – the goal oriented cultural practices in which people involve themselves – individuals develop ways of thinking about and viewing their world. I adhere to the perspective that through activity children learn (Rogoff, 1995). What they learn is shaped by the activity in which they are involved and how they participate in that activity.

Engestrom (1993) examines the multifaceted activity system as a unit of study. The activity system integrates into a unified whole the individual, the goal of her or his actions, the tools (both physical and psychological) she or he uses, the community of participants also engaged in the activity, and the social and historical contexts of the activity. One facet of this model is the rules that influence, or mediate, how the subject (in this study a 4-H member) attains the object of the activity (producing a market for

show and sale). The rules of an activity system are the regulations, both explicit and implicit, and the norms and conventions that guide and constrain actions and influence participation in the activity system. Rules are molded and reformulated over time to reinforce the legacy of an activity (Rogoff, 1995).

Methods

This study utilized an ethnographically informed case study design. I adopted the role of participant observer (Spradley, 1980), studying two rural 4-H clubs with a total of 23 members of different ages and levels of experience in raising livestock. Nine 4-H member subjects of different ages and with different levels of experience with livestock were selected for in-depth observations. These members were visited weekly, observed working with their animals, and formally interviewed three times. Artifacts were collected that pertained to their activity. Formal observations were made of all 4-H club meetings and 4-H community events in which the children were involved. All observations were recorded as field notes and interviews were transcribed for further analysis. Through iterative stages of data collection and domain, taxonomic, and componential analyses of that data, major themes of the children's scientific thought and action emerged (Spradley, 1980). Science education reform documents (AAAS, 1989; National Research Council, 1996) were used to compare the actions of the subjects to the goals of science education.

Findings

The Jackson County 4-H leadership community, composed of adult 4-H leaders and the County 4-H Agent, maintained twenty-three explicit rules - published in the county fair premium book - to which the children adhered as they raised their market animals for show and sale at the county fair. These rules were placed into four different categories based upon consequences the leaders intended the rules to have on the actions of the 4-H members as discerned through leader interviews and observations of leader meetings and 4-H club meetings. These categories, and one example of a rule for each category, is shown below:

1. Education: rules designed to insure the educational experience for the child. The record book rule, requiring that each member keep and complete a set of prescribed records for their animal projects, is an example.
2. Quality: rules that insured proper care was given to the animals so that they would be healthy and the quality of the animals would reflect positively on the 4-H organization within the broader community. Market animal weight restrictions exemplify this rule category. These rules provided minimum and maximum weight restrictions for all market animals that would be shown and sold at the fair.
3. Equity: rules to keep the competition that is a part of the program equitable for all members. An example of this category is the 'June 1st rule,' stating that all members must have in their possession by June 1st the market animals they intend to show and sell.
4. Public relations: rules to regulate who, when, and how businesses that support the market auction were contacted. Children were not allowed to solicit potential buyers of their animals before the county fair.

Each of these rule categories influenced the actions taken by the children as they raised and showed their animals, and each category guided children to use different types of actions. Some of the rules, particularly those in the education and quality categories, played key roles in motivating children to adopt scientific habits of mind such as regularly measuring and recording data on their animals' feed intake and growth.

The weight restriction rule serves as one example of the way rules influenced children's actions. This rule required that each child's animal "make weight," or fall within a specified range of weights to be shown and sold at the county fair. Any animal not within the weight range was excluded from the market sale, through which the members made money. The 4-H leaders' intent for this rule was to have quality market animals of a size that is generally considered ready for slaughter. To insure they met the weight restrictions, the children regularly weighed their animals to monitor their weight and growth rates. The children observed growth trends of each animal, predicted what the finished weight of their animals would be for the county fair, and formulated a feeding plan to modify or maintain the growth rate of their animals.

The weight restriction rule had the effect of focusing the children's observations and thoughts on their animals' weight as an initial indicator of whether their animal project was headed towards success. The growth and weight gain of their animals was a central focus for the children; it defined the experience for them and required that they manage their project in certain and specific ways to be successful. Children quantified their animal's growth on a regular basis by weighing them on electronic or balance scales. The weights of the animals were recorded as data and were used by the children to understand their animals' growth. The children developed mental growth curves through which they assessed their animals' rate of growth and predicted the weight of their animals at the time of the fair. Causal thinking was incorporated into their project as they related their animals' weight gains to variables such as the type and amount of feed given to their animals. They employed the use of logical reasoning as they developed plans, such as feeding animals in pairs or in isolation, to affect the weight gain of their animals.

Because of the rules such as the weight restrictions, children were motivated to incorporate habits of mind that are a goal of science education to effectively manage their project animal's growth. The rules were not designed to encourage the use of scientific habits of mind, but the children adopted these ways of thinking and acting to effectively meet the requirements of the rules and reach their goal, showing and selling their animals at the county fair.

Conclusions and Implications

This study revealed that an important component of the children's informal educational activity was the explicit organizational rules that influenced them to incorporate specific actions into their activity and utilize skills and processes of science – scientific habits of mind (AAAS, 1989). Each of the explicit organizational rules directly influenced the actions of the children in this study. Some of these influences were intended, such as the weight restrictions that resulted in 4-H animals at the county fair that were of appropriate size and weight to be sold as market animals. Yet some of the rules influenced the children's actions in ways that, although positive, were not expressly intended by the local 4-H leaders who designed and maintained the rules.

Educational activities involve complex systems through which individuals interact with others and with the social, historical, and cultural legacy of the activity. This study provides evidence for the power of examining the influence that each facet of an activity system has on member participation, and hence member learning. Viewing an educational program through a systemic lens of activity offers insights into the influences that affect what and how children learn. Researchers and program designers can gain insights into the learning process and what is being learned by examining the effect of different facets of an activity system on member participation.

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The Impact of Community Clients on Student Learning: The Case of a University Service Learning Course

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Introduction

In myriad settings across the K-16 landscape, many schools are turning to community service learning (SL) to complement traditional instruction (Campus Compact, 2000). With an emphasis on experiential learning, SL offers a logical alternative to traditional instruction while concurrently addressing concerns about declines in community life (Putnam, 2000). The purpose of this study is to add to the service-learning literature by illuminating the impact of community clients on student learning, particularly in project-based service learning courses at the post-secondary level – the setting for our research.

Literature and Purpose of Study

Much of the research in service learning has focused on defining the fundamental components of a service-learning course such as community participation and cooperation, academic study and discourse, and student reflection and consideration throughout the service-learning experience (Lopez & Lee, 2005; Papamarcos, 2005; Simmons & Cleary, 2005; Hoxmeier & Lenk, 2003; Konwerski & Nashman, 2002; Frederickson, 2000; Rehling, 2000). Service-learning research has also highlighted the numerous learning benefits that are afforded students who participate in service-learning courses (Papamarcos, 2005; Simmons & Cleary, 2005; Berger & Milem, 2002; Konwerski & Nashman, 2002). Extant in the literature is that involvement in a service-learning course fosters a social awareness and conscience in students, and exposes students to community and social justice issues such as equality, poverty, racism, mental health issues, and more.

Other service learning research has focused on the processes or the development of students' social responsibility and civic engagement (Papamarcos, 2005; Hoxmeier & Lenk, 2003) as well as the enrichment of related values such as commitment to helping others, greater empathy for the human condition, and other kinds of interpersonal development (Berger & Milem, 2002; Simmons & Cleary, 2005). Another aspect of service learning research focuses on "academic service learning" which highlights the experiential component that service learning lends to traditional academic pedagogy (Simmons & Cleary, 2005).

While the research literature is plentiful with respect to the curriculum, components, benefits, and outcomes of service learning, including the value added to traditional instruction, few studies have explored the impact of actual community clients on student learning. A study by Lopez and Lee (2005) did identify various qualities of a "good" client versus "bad" client. Similarly, Papamarcos (2005) constructed a list of client qualifications deemed necessary for successful partnerships in a service-learning course. Several studies also suggest that community client members are de facto teachers (Konwerski & Nashman, 2002; Rehling, 2000) and that it is the students' involvement with the community that encourages the learning and understanding of civic responsibility (Simmons & Cleary, 2005). Though these insights are important to understanding the requirements of clients in successful service-learning partnerships, a more

extensive theoretical connection explicating the relationship between student learning and client practices and attributes is missing. As such, the purpose of this study was to: 1) Examine the ways community clients enhanced student learning; and 2) Determine what student learning, attributable to clients, occurred.

Setting

e-Projects in Community Service (ePICS), an undergraduate project-based service learning course at the University of Wisconsin-Madison, served as the locus for this study because of its accessibility and appropriateness for the research questions. An example of a course using academic community service-learning pedagogy, ePICS “intentionally integrates learning with service...[where] service and learning goals are of equal weight, and each enhances the other for all participants” (Simons & Cleary, 2005, p. 165). Serving a range of majors – including business, art, journalism and engineering – ePICS places students on interdisciplinary work teams to design web sites, build web-based information systems, create logos, and develop marketing plans and materials for non-profit “client” organizations in a variety of sectors. Each team is paired with one non-profit organization and works closely with one to three staff representatives of the organization to complete their projects. For the purpose of our study, we chose to examine our research questions through the eyes of students who had completed the course in the fall of 2005.

Methodology

We utilized grounded theory research – a methodology “particularly suited to investigating problems for which little theory has been developed” (Merriam and Simpson, 1995, p. 112) – to construct a set of substantive theories concerning the community clients’ influence on student learning.

Data Collection

Data collection was guided by the concept of *theoretical sampling*, a successive analysis and conceptual development method which requires the investigator to begin first use with “insights gleaned from early analysis” to decide “where to go next for data” (Merriam and Simpson, 1995, p. 115). Thus, we began first by reviewing existing documents from the fall 2005 course – course evaluations – and then moved to written questionnaires/narratives and a focus group. In sum:

1. **Document reviews** were conducted by reviewing 84 course evaluations completed by students at the conclusion of the fall 2005 course. Few if any substantive comments on clients were found.
2. A **written questionnaire/narrative** was then developed to obtain more specific information on how clients might have impacted learning. Consisting of three open-ended questions, the instrument queried students about their relationship with the client, the role the client played in their learning, and what they believed they learned from their client. Students self-selected to participate in the questionnaire by responding to an invitation sent by email to the 85 students enrolled in the fall course. Ten students (N=10) completed the questionnaire (9 females, 1 male) and all of the responses were included in the data analysis.
3. Finally, a **focus group** was conducted with three of the questionnaire respondents (2 females, 1 male), all of whom self-selected to participate (all ten respondents were invited), with the

goal of elucidating students' conceptions of the client – in terms of how students 'located' their client contextually and what 'educational role' students believed clients played in student learning – a theme which emerged from the narratives. In an attempt to draw on a rich, comparative database, researchers collected and reviewed field notes (Glesne, 1999) in an attempt to elucidate and verify emerging hypotheses about the educational role clients played.

Analysis and Results

To inductively analyze the data found in the questionnaires/narratives and focus group, we utilized the four stages of constant comparative analysis, the common procedure in grounded theory research (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). In the initial coding stage, wherein we compared questionnaire transcripts with one another to yield tentative thematic categories (Merriam and Simpson, 1995), we determined that learning attributable to clients fell along one of three lines: a) personal learning; b) professional learning; or c) a combination of personal and professional learning. In the second stage of analysis, we generated themes from the focus group data and compared these with the first-stage themes to reveal that student learning typically represented the development of (sometimes in combination): a) general professional practice skills, knowledge, and beliefs (such as the formation of a professional ideology and the ability to make well-reasoned decisions); b) technical skills and knowledge (such as brainstorming or presentations skills); c) intrapersonal skills and knowledge (such as expanded self-awareness); and/or d) interpersonal skills and knowledge. In the third stage, we reduced first and second-stage categories to smaller conceptual categories and began generating hypotheses and more highly conceptual categories, returning always to previous analyses. From this, we determined that participants contextualized and viewed their organizational client(s) through one of three overlapping lenses: a) their client's representatives (the staff with whom the students interacted); b) the mission of the client organization; or c) those elements which characterized the client as an organizational entity (as in its bureaucratic framework, organizational culture, and business model).

We also concluded that students' views and conceptions of the client served as a primary locus for learning from the client – serving as 'gateways to learning' (to paraphrase one research participant) – and were influential in determining what students took away from their client in terms of skills, knowledge, and even beliefs. For instance, participants who saw their team's client through the client's organization-as-whole wrote or talked about learning macro concepts germane to managing an organization such as general business practices and the necessity of collaboration with other sectors of the community to meet organizational goals. Participants who equated their team's client more with an individual, on the other hand, often spoke of picking up inter- and intrapersonal skills and knowledge (often from client role modeling and coaching), such as learning how to communicate assertively, compromise, trust yourself, think critically, deal with interpersonal conflict, and lead others. And finally, for those who primarily glommed onto the mission of the client's organization, these individuals often shared reflections that demonstrated the development of a belief in linking one's work and volunteerism to social causes, a more sophisticated understanding of the niche filled by non-profits, and a greater appreciation for the issues and populations served by the client organizations.

Discussion

As this study found, it is clear to us that community clients in project-based service learning courses have great potential to effectuate student development and learning. In

addition, uncovering the ways in which students conceive of clients illuminates our understanding of what students report to learn, and reminds us that these conceptions are important to service learning outcome investigations as well as program development.

These results hold implications for infusing traditional curriculum and pedagogy in undergraduate education with more opportunities for service learning partnerships that result in genuine student-client interaction. They also highlight the need for an increased understanding of the community clients' roles and responsibilities and the student-client dynamic in project-based service learning programs, in addition to research into the client's view of student learning. Lastly, our work also corroborates previous findings which show that some clients assume informal educational roles with students (Konwerski & Nashman, 2002; Rehling, 2000) and underscores research into what makes effective clients (Papamarcos, 2005), including the need to select community clients that not only have strong potential to benefit the community and client organization, but students' personal and professional development as well.

This study is limited in its ability to generalize results to all participants of the ePICS course and other academic service learning programs and suggests the need for further research to substantiate and advance the findings presented here. In addition, claims about the long-term impact of clients on students, in addition to more information on which client behaviors impacted learning, would require additional research.

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Parental Reports of Adolescent and Family Well-Being Following a Wilderness Therapy Intervention: An Exploratory Look at Systemic Change

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While promising outcomes in adolescent wilderness therapy (WT) have been demonstrated (see Clark, Marmol, Cooley, & Gathercoal, 2004; Russell, 2003), WT is perceived as primarily working with adolescent clients alone, and not the family system (Wells, Widmer, & McCoy, 2004).

The family is a key component in child and adolescent social, emotional, and behavioral well-being. Increased efficacy has been suggested in family-focused approaches to child and adolescent mental health treatment over working with the identified client alone (Cottrell & Boston, 2002). Benefits of family involvement are reasoned, but not yet empirically understood. Further research is needed to understand meaningful change in day-to-day family functioning and suggest ways to optimize adolescent treatment interventions to these ends. This paper presents findings from an exploratory longitudinal study of adolescent and family outcomes from participation in WT. Specific objectives of the study were to (a) identify change in adolescent and family functioning over time, (b) explore how these changes manifest in family, school and social contexts, (c) understand the constancy of these changes following treatment, and (d) provide recommendations for further investigation of family involvement in WT.

The study sample consisted of 252 adolescent participants enrolled in 21-day wilderness therapy programs for treatment of emotional, behavioral, and substance use diagnoses between March 2001, and February 2002. Parents and guardians of adolescent clients are involved in one-day pre-treatment and one-day post-treatment multi-family programming, as well as ongoing contact with a program therapist throughout their child's three-week intervention. A customized 60-item questionnaire was developed and administered to parents of participants at pre-treatment, two-, and twelve-months post-treatment. Participants were between 13 and 18 years of age (M 15.5, SD 1.2) with two-thirds being male (62.3%), and primarily Caucasian American (92% with 8% Native American, Hispanic, African American and others). Pre-treatment and two-month post-treatment measures were completed by 124 parents resulting in a 57% response rate.

Questionnaire items were factor analyzed post-hoc and found to be representative of five constructs: (1) Family function, (2) adolescent behavior, (3) adolescent mental health, (4) school success, and (5) social relations. Within each construct, paired sample *t*-tests were used to identify change between pre-treatment and two-month post-treatment item scores. Twelve-month follow-up analysis with maximum likelihood estimates was utilized due to sample attrition and provided conservative results while maintaining statistical robustness (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Non-response bias and listwise comparison was checked to support analysis and the statistical remedy for the twelve-month follow-up.

Pre-treatment scores depicted impulsivity, following house rules, anger management and communicating with parents as the most common issues faced by parents. Significant gender differences existed. Females presented more serious issues with following house rules, communicating with parents, runaway, emotional problems, sexual activity, suicidal thoughts/ideation, self harm/mutilation, and eating disorders.

Males were found to have more serious issues with family evenings' home together, substance use, and school performance.

Significant improvements ($p < .001$) in adolescent behavior were found for seven of eight items for males, and six of eight items for females, with these items showing large effect sizes (e.g., communicating with parents, anger management, and following house rules). Two of six adolescent mental health items showed significant improvement ($p < .001$) for both males and females: emotional problems and substance use. In the family function construct, the only item showing significant improvement ($p < .001$) was child participation in chores while significant deterioration ($p < .001$) from pre-treatment scores occurred in family arguments for both genders. In the school success and social relations constructs, males showed significant improvements ($p < .001$) in school performance, school attendance, and choosing appropriate friends while females showed significant improvement ($p < .001$) in choosing appropriate friends. Most items showing improvement across constructs exhibited medium to very large effect sizes while scores indicate that parents still perceive problems as persisting; this suggests a practical treatment effect, but not an end to adolescent or family issues. Improvements shown in adolescent behavior and a few mental health items have been demonstrated but do not appear to translate into meaningful change in the family context. Twelve-month post-treatment scores showed significant deterioration ($p < .01$) in two family function constructs: family eats dinner together and family evening's home together. Suicide thoughts/ideation and school performance both showed significant improvements ($p < .01$) in scores. Overall, twelve-month follow-up scores did not follow previously reported patterns of regression seen in adventure-based therapeutic and educational programs (Hattie, Marsh, Neill, & Richards, , 1997). Conversely, most scores at twelve-months maintained a significant difference ($p < .05$) from pre-treatment scores.

These findings support current literature in WT effectiveness in adolescent mental health treatment, and demonstrate maintenance of systemic change. Concern is warranted though for limited effect reported in the family function construct. The critical role that families play in adolescent well-being calls for several considerations to be addressed as related to these findings: (a) Do WT programs acknowledge gender differences in assessment and treatment planning?; (b) How can family dynamics be further addressed in WT to produce meaningful change in family functioning?; and (c) How are families involved in WT and supported following WT treatment?

Treatment success in short-term residential interventions for adolescents with behavioral and emotional disturbances has been attributed to focusing on family issues and encouraging family and community involvement in treatment and aftercare processes (Leichtman, Leitchman, Barber, & Neese, , 2001). Further investigation is needed to understand how effectively these processes are being utilized in adolescent wilderness therapy.

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Study of Self-Efficacy in a Freshman Wilderness Experience Program: Measuring General versus Specific Gains

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Background and Purpose

The original study, on which this follow-up was based, investigated the global self-efficacy of 28 incoming freshmen in a wilderness orientation program. According to Bandura (1998), self-efficacy is defined as a belief in one's ability to organize and execute the course of action required to attain a given outcome. Previous studies have supported the notion that adventure based recreation increases self-efficacy (Sutherland, 2001; Davis-Berman & Berman, 1989; Ferguson and Jones, 2001; Kelly, Coursey, & Selby, 1997; Richardson, 2003; Propst & Koesler, 1998; Paxton & McAcroy, 1998).

The purpose of the original study was to further investigate the link(s) between wilderness programs and the development of self-efficacy in first-year college students and to identify if participants in the wilderness group varied on their self-efficacy based on personal characteristics. The purpose of this study was to further investigate the link(s) between this program and development of self-efficacy in first-year college students. Research questions included 1) Did the participants in the wilderness group continue to increase their [general] self-efficacy over time?, 2) Were any self-efficacy gains generalized to the university environment, or more specifically related to the students' outdoor skills?, and 3) Were there differences based on gender or previous experiences?

Methods

The original study had the consenting freshmen in the wilderness experience program complete the Perceived Competence of Functioning Inventory (PCFI) (Hays & Williams, 2000). The PCFI is a 16-question survey used to measure self competence, role competence, and relational competence. The survey was completed on-campus before leaving for the trip (T1) and again immediately following the trip before driving from the wilderness site back to campus (T2). Approximately two months after the completion of the trip, students who participated in the program completed a reflection paper. Students who consented to be in the treatment group all agreed to permit investigators to make use of information in these reflection papers for qualitative analysis. A third PCFI was administered (T3) in October, when they turned in the final reflection paper noted above.

Participants then completed further testing (T4) toward the end of their first year- almost nine months post-experience. This research was conceived following discussion regarding research that states it is a general misconception that general efficacy beliefs spawn specific efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1998). According to Bandura (1998) researchers need to draw on conceptual analysis and expert knowledge of what it takes to succeed in a given pursuit. Using a general self-efficacy scale in a study leaves out this conceptual analysis- instead assuming that self-efficacy gained in one area can be transferred to another. The intent of this secondary study was to allow the investigators to not only ascertain whether a specific outdoor self-efficacy survey correlates with general self-efficacy results, but also if the generalized (PCFI) self-efficacy scores continued to increase over time, as was reported in this original study.

The investigators also desired to measure the effect of the wilderness experience itself. The initial study that investigated self-efficacy gains in participants also yielded rich qualitative

information regarding 1) the effects the wilderness setting had on the participants, and 2) the most important knowledge that participants felt that they gained while on the trip (which included outdoor skill knowledge). The follow-up study, mainly completed in a focus group format, asked participants to respond to the following: As a group, you all reported in your essays that you felt the most important knowledge you gained included a number of outdoor skills including one-match fires, preservation, and canoeing and camping. A) Do you believe that the outdoor experience and knowledge that you gained on the New Adventures trip affected your behavior in and about the outdoors over the school year? B) Did you participate in outdoor activities over the school year? If so, describe the length and type of activities. If not, what stopped you from doing so? C) Did you have a chance to practice any of the skills that you learned or honed on the New Adventures trip?

Results

Results from the first phase of the initial study showed that PCFI scores increased both at the post-trip and 8-week post intervals, though the increases were not statistically significant except at the 8-week-post interval. Results from the second phase also produced no significant differences between T4 ($p = .731$) and the other testing periods. The researchers were unable to analyze data regarding the connection between general and specific self efficacy due to a low response rate. However upon analyzing the Outdoor Recreation Self Efficacy Scale (ORSE), Cronbach's Alpha and the Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items resulted in an alpha of .907 and .927 respectively providing positive feedback that the researchers may be in the beginning stages of developing a worthy instrument. Descriptions of the respondents' conversations with the investigators regarding their outdoor behaviors will be shared.

Discussion and Implications

Due to difficulty with garnering interest in the follow-up study (T4), seven of the original 21 participants were available to be included for statistical analysis therefore limiting validity and reliability; the investigators are unable to state specific implications of the study. It is hoped that by incorporating an outdoor specific self-efficacy survey, the researchers will be better able to determine the impact of a wilderness program on students' outdoor behaviors. In addition, further evidence from this initial investigation regarding the importance of friendship connections during the freshman wilderness experience has also spawned a new line of research with this program that will investigate the human connections the students make during this time period and throughout the first quarter of the school year. These results will be compared with students who have participated in other freshman experiences unrelated to the outdoors and students who did not participate in any experiences for incoming freshman.

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An Analysis of Outdoor Leaders' Ethics Guiding Decisions

By Denise Mitten

Background

Because of the independent and isolated nature of practitioners' work with people and the large number of people they influenced, it is important to see what values and ethical frameworks guide outdoor leaders in their decision making. Fox and Lutt, (1996) say that understanding ethical frameworks used by outdoor leaders helps practitioners move towards a congruency between values and behavior. Outdoor leaders have begun the important process of examining and helping to define ethical practices applied in their fields (Fox & Lutt, 1996; Fox & McAvoy, 1995a, 1995b; Fox, Parsons, Barnett & Reed, 1995; Fox & Reed, 1994; Hunt & Wurdinger, 1999; Lehmann, 1995; Mitten, 1995). Concurrently, there is a lack of baseline research about outdoor leaders as they seek to define ethical standards.

The purpose of this study was to provide information about the ethical frameworks used in decision making by outdoor leaders. This research also helps in understanding whether the ethical frameworks outdoor leaders use in decision making differs due to gender, class, or parental status. This research is very applicable to experiential education in that many experiential education programs occur in the outdoors and are lead by outdoor leaders.

Methods

This exploratory research used two instruments, the Defining Issues Test (DIT-2) (Rest & Narvaez, 1994) from the University of Minnesota Center for the Study of Ethical Development and the fable instrument developed by Dr. Rita Manning (1992). The Manning instrument was piloted by this researcher before using it for this study. The DIT-2, a quantitative instrument whose validity has been assessed in terms of seven criteria (Rest, Narvaez, Bebeau, & Thoma, 1999, citing over 400 published articles), is a device for understanding moral schemas and measures people's moral development. The DIT-2 was used to determine the level of moral reasoning used by outdoor leaders as compared to other groups and to what extent outdoor leaders use personal interests schema, maintaining norms schema and postconventional schema in decision making. This abstract addresses the research findings and implications of the results from the DIT-2. The Manning instrument is discussed in a support manner.

Participants were purposively chosen using the following selection criteria: Study participants were currently leading outdoor trips and either working or had worked in the past at least two months of the year leading clients on overnight trips. Potential participants were contacted through networking and through listservs, the directory of the Association of Experiential Education (AEE), and The Outdoor Network. The criteria were set to insure that respondents were most likely serious about outdoor leadership/education as a profession. After qualifying, participants were asked to fill out the two different questionnaires. Over 100 outdoor leaders meeting these criteria were given questionnaires.

Data from the DIT-2 were analyzed by staff at the Center for the Study of Ethical Development at the University of Minnesota. Variables including age, education level, and several information processing, consolidation/transition, and cultural ideology variables were analyzed and compared. A strength of this study is that data can be compared to data in other studies using the same instrument.

Data were further analyzed by this researcher using descriptive statistics, including frequencies and means. Independent t-tests and analysis of variance were used to determine

significance. Results were reported as statistically significant at alpha .05 or less. For One-Way ANOVA tests the Least-significant Difference post hoc comparison was used as a multiple comparison test that examined the statistical differences among group means at the .05 significance level. SPSS 11.1 was used for the analyses. Participants completed a series of demographic questions about class, age, number of years as an outdoor leader, ethnicity, gender, and parental status to see if and how these are associated with the results.

Results and Discussion

The demographics of age, education, and gender reported for this study are representative for outdoor leaders when compared to results from Medina (2001) and Loeffler (1994). In general this group of outdoor leaders is well educated. About 97% of these respondents have at least a college degree and 53% have Masters or Ph.D./Ed.D degrees. Medina (2001) found that over 90% of her outdoor leader respondents had or were finishing an academic degree.

There were no significant demographic differences between the genders. However, there were two trends 1) if someone was a parent, the person was likely to be a male ($P=.130$) and 2) if someone considered her or his class now to be either service or blue collar the person was likely to be female ($P=.058$).

The average adult selects postconventional moral arguments about 40% of the time. The results from this study show that 81% of these outdoor leaders are using postconventional arguments more than the average adult while 16% are not using the postconventional schema as often as the average adult uses it. Said another way, on the average, outdoor leaders in this study understand and basically accept society's rules. This acceptance is based on formulating and accepting the general moral principles or thinking that underlie these rules. However, when these underlying principles come into conflict with society's rules, these outdoor leaders will not go by convention, they will think in a postconventional manner and make decisions based on the moral thinking that underlies the convention. As a comparison, Tindall (2002) used the DIT-2 to determine the moral reasoning of expert witnesses ($N=53$) and found their mean $P\%$ to be 34.25, considerably lower than this group of outdoor leaders. This group of outdoor leaders selected postconventional moral arguments slightly more often than most graduate school students and slightly less than Liberal Protestant Seminarians did. Overall this may imply that outdoor leaders in this study use a high level of moral reasoning during their decision making.

Gender accounted for the largest variance in the population. Women in this study have a higher ability in postconventional moral thinking than the men and the women are less tempered in their use of postconventional moral arguments by their personal interests than are the men. Respondents who self-identify as service class in their birth families scored three points higher on the DIT-2 $P\%$ score than other subgroups and ten points higher than the lowest subgroup.

Implications

We know from Fox and Reed (1994) that students do not yet understand the importance of judgment in outdoor leadership. The data from this study show that this group of outdoor leaders has developed a rather complex, if not framework driven, process for making and justifying decisions. Therefore it may indicate that the training outdoor leaders receive at universities and colleges is helpful in developing an ethical framework congruent with postconventional thinking. At the same time additional training in service learning and service leadership should be encouraged. This study indicates that post graduate work may be useful in moral development. Managers may want to consider providing outdoor leaders with training that helps them develop ethical frameworks that allow for contextual decisions while avoiding situational ethics.

Self-identity is an important component in shaping people's moral character. The results show that a service class self-identity may be useful in treating others with compassion as well as creative problem solving in difficult dilemmas. Therefore helping new outdoor leaders see our profession as a service and teaching them strategies that keep their minds open and their brains looking for creative solutions will be useful. Results indicate that a professional self-identity may be an indicator of judgment and blame on the part of the leader towards some participants, making the training described above important.

The research question helps to inform the field about the moral development of and the ethical paradigms used by field staff and whether their gender, socioeconomic class, and/or parental status influenced the choices of ethical paradigms by field staff. The outdoor leaders in this study seem to have the ability to use critical thinking skills and analyze dilemmas using postconventional thinking. Most importantly, this study offers a baseline about the ethical frameworks used for decision making for this group of outdoor leaders.

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Of Course You Have Power BatwomanBut Don't Forget Your Purse!

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The relationship between power and gender has been a major focus of feminist research, with early feminist theorizing tending to take a structuralist approach. A more recent focus has been on power and gender in their relational aspects, with the analysis of gender and power relations giving more credence to agency (Meyer, 1991). Power is also being viewed as a more nuanced and complex component of gender relations, rather than merely a matter of male domination and control. Glick and Fiske (1999) suggested that power relations are not always characterized by hostility, and they spoke of benevolent relationships. They coined the terms benevolent and hostile sexism, and they recognized that power included aspects of love as well as domination. Women, as well as men, are complicit in sexually exploitative practices that support a power system based on hegemonic masculinity.

As an interpretive project, I began by positioning myself in a social constructivist theoretical framework, and I used a feminist perspective to guide my observations of gender relations in one specific outdoor adventure education program for adolescents. The purpose of this study was to examine the nature and operation of the gender system working within and through an outdoor adventure education program for adolescents, and to explore the implications of the gender system with reference to agency and empowerment for girls.

Method

The study was conducted at an outdoor education center in Australia. Programs emphasized personal and social development, curriculum support and skills related to lifelong learning, such as critical thinking and problem solving. Program elements included initiative tasks, high and low ropes courses, rock climbing, canoeing, and a two to four day backpacking trip. A total of 66 students in four groups (ages 14-16 years) and 8 teachers were recruited for the study. Group composition ranged from all girls, to similar numbers of girls and boys, to predominantly girls. The field research included: living on-site for five months at the outdoor education center and interacting on a daily basis with center staff and visiting-schools; recruitment trips to schools; participating with each group in the five-day program at the center; and follow-up visits to schools 4-5 weeks after the program. A multi-method approach to data collection was chosen in order to view the gender processes within the groups in some depth and to increase both reliability and internal validity through data triangulation. The methods used were: (i) direct observation; (ii) open-ended interviewing; (iii) document review.

The complete data analysis process included the simultaneous techniques of discovery, coding and displaying data, and interpreting data in its context (as outlined by Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). All data were reduced to text and the words were then reduced by coding them with conceptual descriptors (i.e., open coding). This was done by using a constant comparison technique where slices of data were open coded, then reread for clarification and adjustment of concepts, then reread again until a valid interpretation of the data was made (as outlined by Henderson & Bialeschki, 1995). Themes relating to gendered interactions and meanings within the groups were drawn out and developed. This technique was continued across different slices of data, and the concepts were further refined. Different data sets included the individual groups, center teachers and school teachers, researcher observations, participant interviews, student

journals, and school and center documents. Using the same technique as described above, an axial coding system was developed that grouped concepts into higher order categories and developed connections between categories. The final phase of data coding, selective coding, identified core categories under which the higher order categories could be placed. This stage of the analysis involved finding a core category and constructing a single storyline from the relationships found among the themes and sub-categories.

Results

Batwoman, a wealthy heiress and one time circus daredevil used her skills to battle criminals like her idol, Batman. To make sure that Batman fully understood this was a woman crime fighter Batwoman's weapons were all very ladylike. Her utility purse contained lipstick cases filled with tear gas, a compact filled with sneezing powder, charm bracelets that were actually handcuffs and an oversized hair net, used to snare criminals. Batman feels, rather than skill, it has been just "good luck" that she's been successful thus far. Later, a crook plans to slam her with an oversized fist. Batman pushed her out of the way and takes the blow, saving her from harm. Though Batman states throughout this story that he fears for Batwoman's safety and that she's taking too many risks, Robin makes a very telling remark when the police gain custody of yet another criminal she captures, "Batwoman's made us look like amateurs again!" The reader gets the impression it is perhaps competition from a woman that is unnerving the duo and her safety is not the prime concern. (Remembering Kathy Kane: The first Batwoman, <http://www.newsarama.com/dcnew/Batwoman/BatwomanHistory.htm>)

Just as in the subtext of comic book heroes and heroines, the story of the gender system seen in this study is an analysis of the gendered nature of power. "Doing gender" was embedded in a complex system of relationships between several major themes (gender process; voice; physicality; relationship to others; self; leadership and decision making; maintenance in the outdoors; school and center goals; and teacher intervention) and the sub-categories of these themes. These interactions related to agency and control and the central theme that emerged from the data was "power".

Physicality played a large role in structuring the gender system. Actions and beliefs relating to physical concepts were highly gendered, reinforced gender stereotypes and gendered roles, and led to different realms and levels of voice, agency and control for individuals based on the false dichotomy of gender categories. The ways in which physical roles were structured set up an obvious division between strong and weak – strong relating to boys, and weak relating to girls. Many girls "played" to this dependence on boys in physical tasks. It was a way to use the physicality of sex to assert some control over the boys. This lends support to the notion of benevolent sexism addressed by Glick and Fiske (1996). The physical help that was given by boys to girls was often given in a caring manner and girls were often spoken about in ways that idealized traditional gender roles. While idealizing girls, these boys simultaneously placed them in subservient positions within the group – just as Batman did to Batwoman when he "took the hit" for her. Caleb summed it up nicely when he differentiated between girls as "carers" and boys as "protectors". Protectors are perceived to hold greater power.

The girls who conformed to such gender stereotypes received some rewards in the form of greater attention from the boys. Some girls who were more vocal and confident and who knew how to "play" the system were also accorded greater status among the girls within the group. The consequences for girls who did not conform to the gender stereotypes were varied. They depended upon the type and visibility of the transgression, the degree of personal empowerment felt by individuals, the degree to which the transgressions disrupted the control of more powerful individuals and the degree to which the transgression was perceived as disrupting the gender order of the system.

Robyn, for example, rejected her traditional caring role in favor of one of physical competence, and she showed a willingness to challenge the boys physically. She also verbally challenged Allan, a powerful boy in the group, telling him she was not there to look after him and to cook and clean for him. She was subsequently sanctioned and silenced by Allan and several of his male friends through the use of sarcastic put downs that disparaged her and girls in general. This was recognized as hostile sexism. Glick and Fiske (1996) described hostile and benevolent sexism as part of an ambivalent attitude toward women centered on paternalistic power, gender differentiation and sexuality. Boys such as Allan displayed benevolent sexism (such as in offering physical help to girls) toward those girls who accepted traditional gendered roles. They displayed hostile sexism toward girls such as Robyn who rejected the traditional power relations based on gendered roles. For some girls there was also an “in between” realm. Ann, for example, was recognized mainly for her organizational abilities, for her caring nature, and for her concern for the welfare of individuals and the group. At the same time she quietly challenged gender ideologies by becoming more independent on physical tasks, by taking extra gear so that girls who were struggling would have a lighter load, and by always seeming to be comfortable with whatever pace was set by the leaders of the group. Ann was admired by both girls and boys. She was the perfect Batwoman: superhero of the group. The difference for Ann was that she transgressed some of the rules of gendered behavior but acceded to others by being caring and relational. Robyn could have been Batwoman, if only she had remembered to bring her utility purse that contained such feminine accouterments as her charm-bracelet handcuffs and expanding hairnet. Instead she chose to take on the persona of Batman and wore a utility belt that contained such masculine tools as a grappling hook and flash-bang grenades.

Within this study, gender ideologies provided structure and order and gave a sense of safety and familiarity to many of the participants. At the same time, behaviors were regulated, limits were placed on perceived abilities (both self-perceptions and perceptions of others), speech was restricted and manipulated, and different situational statuses were accorded to different individuals based on such gendered ideologies. In this system it was powerful boys (some boys; not all boys) who were accorded the highest status, based on their perceived physical strength and the ways in which they claimed leadership and power. Although some girls and boys resisted gendered roles and transgressed the boundaries of “appropriate” action and behavior, the pervasive gender ideologies within groups often led to silencing or to distorted visions about the roles that some of the transgressive participants were claiming. Such visions about how things “would have been” or “would be” were presented even in the absence of boys within the group, as in the case of the all girls group.

Discussion

Prelearned gender beliefs and behaviors were brought to the outdoor education program and these influenced actions and supported an hierarchical power structure based on hegemonic masculinity. The fact that behaviors were not consistent across sex, and the fact that girls and boys sometimes experimented with different roles and challenged stereotypical gendered behaviors, lends support to the concept of gender as a social construct that is produced and reproduced through the actions of individuals and social groups. Humberstone (1990) suggested that school based outdoor adventure education programs are an ideal place for students to practice transgressive gender behaviors and that these programs could provide for “a shift in the construction of gender identities and relations” (p. 17). In this study, students were given many opportunities to experiment with a wide range of gender behaviors and were encouraged to transgress gender boundaries. Although a wide range of gender behavior was observed, students’

actions were often governed by entrenched beliefs in gender stereotypes that they articulated and practiced without even recognizing that they were doing so. Their behaviors were also governed by strong social forces in the form of unwritten gender rules that were brought to bear against individuals who stepped too far out of line. How then can a field that holds so much *potential* as an agent of social change, in terms of deconstructing gender, actually *be* that social change agent? The answer may lie in tackling gender processes more directly. Teachers in this study used covert strategies to foster gender equity and to counter gender ideologies. Without addressing gender relations overtly through active processing and facilitation, there would seem to be little chance of disrupting highly ingrained gender action theories. Although Batman and Batwoman can both fight in the superhero realm, their costumes and powers are not the same!

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The Attributes of Effective Camp Counselors: Changing Youths' Perspectives of Being “Cool”

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Over the past six years, a number of researchers in the western United States have studied the effects of challenging outdoor recreation on youth and families using a mixed method approach. Although the quantitative research focused on specific psychological variables such as self-efficacy (Widmer, Taniguchi, Freeman, & Duerden, 2005) and identity development (Duerden, Widmer, Taniguchi, McCoy, 2006), the qualitative data from this particular study produced findings in an unexpected area.

Participants, in an adventure recreation program designed for at-risk youth, called Camp WILD, consistently made remarks regarding the important and influential role played by their counselors. Because few studies have focused on program counselors as an influential variable with at-risk youth (Freeman, Anderson, Kairey, & Hunt, 1982; Middleman, 1989), the purpose of this study was to explore the youth participants' perceptions of the role counselors play in promoting meaningful experiences in this adventure recreation program.

This study was conducted at a wilderness adventure camp called Camp WILD, a two-week program located near Salmon, ID. Camp WILD has operated for three years as a coordinated effort between a non-profit foundation, a major western university, and public educators. Camp WILD has been funded by private grants and donations. This allows the youth to participate at little or no cost.

College-aged counselors taught and mentored middle school boys ($n = 22$), who were identified through applications and intake interviews by researchers as being at-risk academically and/or socially. Youth participated in a variety of outdoor skills, including mountain biking, white water rafting, and outdoor group leadership.

The recreation program was designed to increase outdoor recreation efficacy among the youth participants, and systematically, generalize the increases to academic motivation, aspiration and performance (Widmer, Taniguchi, Duerden, & Freeman, 2005). During the camp, focus group discussions were conducted for each team of boys and selected boys were interviewed one-on-one with a researcher. These interviews and discussions were tape recorded and later transcribed for analysis. Following the qualitative data analysis, suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1998), the data was analyzed for emerging themes concerning the camp counselors.

The 22 boys involved with this study ranged in age from 11 to 16 years old, with a mean age of 13.2 years ($\sigma = 1.1$ years). Twenty of the boys were from Utah, one was from Arizona, and one was from Colorado. The boys had a variety of backgrounds, which included single-parent homes, step parents, original parents, foster parents, and living with relatives (e.g. grandparents). Approximately 50% of the boys came from an economically depressed family. Twenty-one of the boys were experiencing an outdoor adventure camp for the first time.

Eighty-three percent of the camp participants expressed, in various ways, that their relationship with their adult team leader was a major reason why they were enjoying their camp experiences. Participants also expressed that their camp experience was meaningful to them because they were learning about what they could accomplish when given the opportunity to explore. All, but one youth participant commented that the adult camp counselors were role models for them. These youth identified the following attributes as different characteristics they had not seen in many of their previous adult contacts: (a) ambition, (b) service oriented, (c) hard working, (d) possessed identified goals, (e) interest in others, (f) unselfish with their time, (g) fun loving, and (h) and a sense of perceived freedom to accomplish whatever they wanted to do.

The counselors from this program, who exhibited the attributes identified in this study, appear to have positively influenced youth participants. As the youth participated in the camp activities and interacted with their counselors, they began to reevaluate their own potentials. The counselors served as role models whose example provided a new direction for participants' newly realized capabilities.

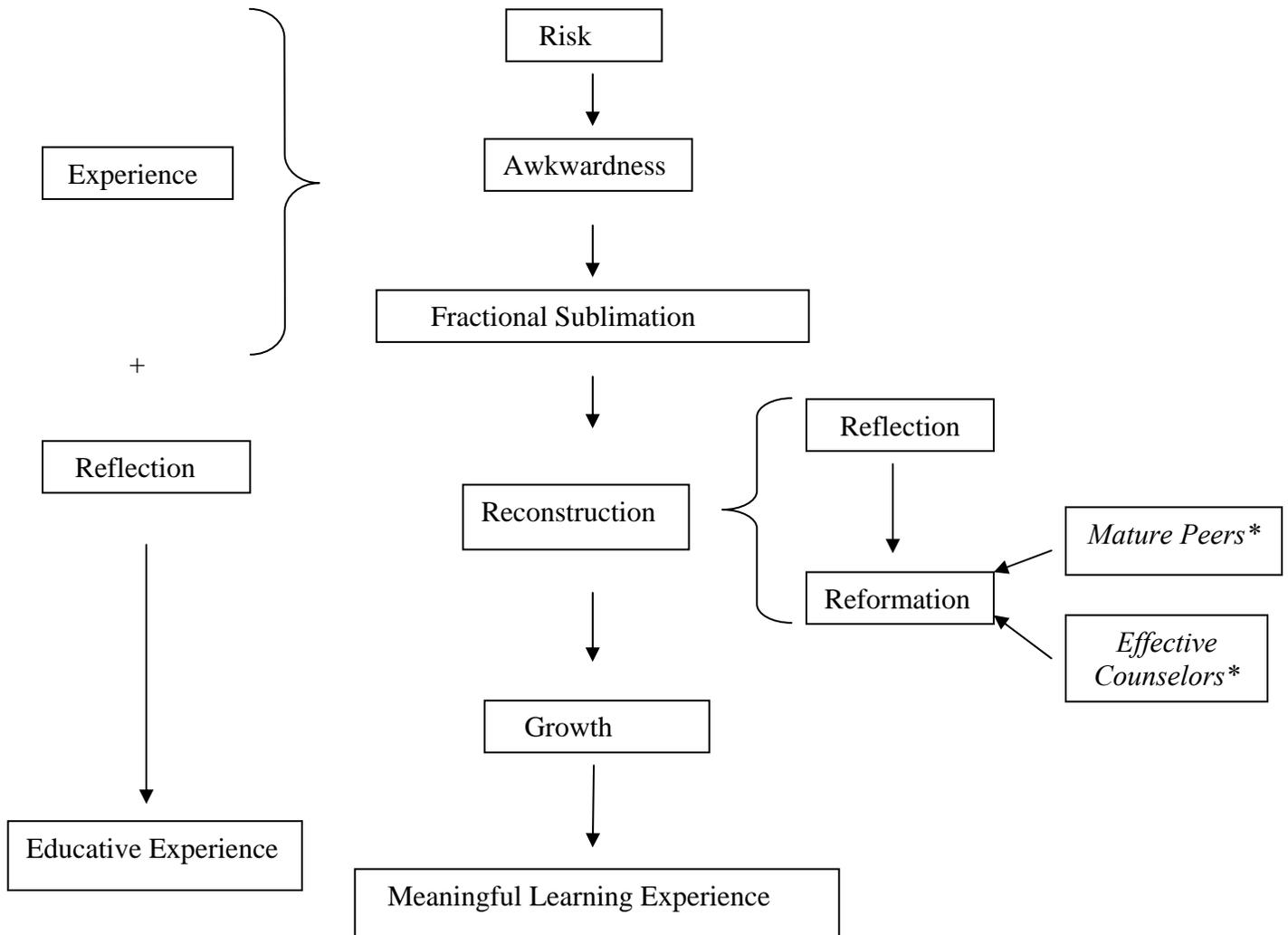
The study found that not all of the attributes found in Middleman's study (1989), such as being single, and exhibiting concrete thinking, were necessary for the counselors to be effective role models. For example, there were husband and wife counselors in this program. These counselors were found to be just as effective, if not more so, than the single counselors. Additionally, participants did not mention concrete thinking as an attribute of the counselors. This study agrees with Middleman that emotional stability and being fun loving were important attributes of effective counselors.

More than 75% of the participants made mention of a meaningful learning experience while in the program. Comments referring to these types of experiences were associated more due to the interactions with their counselors than with the camp activities. This has led the researchers to imply that the activities are more of a stage from which meaningful experiences for these at-risk youth are created by their interactions.

A recently developed model identifies specific attributes, occurring in a functional sequence, that are important in producing meaningful learning experiences in outdoor recreation (Taniguchi, Freeman, & Richards, 2005) (See Fig. 1). This model proposes that meaningful experiences can occur during outdoor recreation when individuals face risk that results in feelings of awkwardness. Taniguchi et al. claim these feelings of awkwardness lead to a period of fractional sublimation where a person is divested of social facades brought from their past. An important part of this sequence occurs as sublimation is followed by a reconstruction phase that allows for self-actualization (Maslow, 1971). One limitation of this model is that it was based solely on a study of college age students. The findings from this study appear to validate the model's applicability to a younger population.

The added insight of the importance of role models for youth is important to consider when looking at the meaningful experience model. During the reconstruction phase of the experience, the comments from others who have shared the experience are important in the reformation stage. These insights help the individual to reconstruct themselves with the assistance of other individuals' perspectives (Taniguchi, et al., 2005). An individual needs to reflect on the experience and with the help of others who have shared the same experience reconstruct their sublime nature. People who share these meaningful experiences with mature individuals can get constructive feedback that can lead to the growth phase. When youth do not have feedback from mature individuals they respect or they are receiving feedback from

individuals who prolong the previous phase of fractional sublimation, the growth phase cannot occur. This highlights the important role that effective counselors can play in this process.



** Added components derived from this study.*

Figure 1. Meaningful learning experience model

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Participant Meanings Associated with Short-Term Academic Outdoor Adventure Skills Courses

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Introduction

Each year hundreds of students enroll and take part in a short-term, academic outdoor adventure skills courses. These courses typically offer hands-on experiences with an “outdoor classroom” component and expose students to various outdoor pursuits such as backpacking, kayaking, or rock climbing. The philosophy and methodology of the use of direct experiences employed in these courses can vary (AEE, 2006). Nevertheless, due to their experiential nature, most courses have some experiential components that challenge students to learn and grow through direct experience and reflection.

Short-term, academic outdoor adventure skills courses are not immune to research methodology issues. As one of the lesser researched areas of outdoor experiential education - anecdotal examples, testimonial support, and passionate rhetoric are common forms of support in validating outcomes (Neill, 2002). For some this may be sufficient, however, little is known or understood beyond the anecdotal evidence about the outcomes that these courses have on the participants beyond learning a technical skill. The objective of this study was to improve the understanding of the outcomes that are associated with short-term, academic outdoor adventure skills courses beyond learning a particular outdoor skill. More specifically, it addressed the meanings students associated with their experience of participating in one of these outdoor adventure skills courses.

Methodology

Short-term academic outdoor adventure skills course at a large Midwestern University consist of one or two classroom sessions and a weekend field component. Following the field component, participants are required to write a two to three page reflective paper about their experience as a portion of their grade. The reflection encompasses what they learned about themselves and how they can relate participation in the course to their life. These papers represented a rich source of data, which was not being utilized. Therefore, 92 reflective papers, from 12 different outdoor adventure skills courses offered during the 2004 fall semester, were analyzed. Qualitative techniques were employed in the analysis of these papers during the spring of 2006. Data analysis included reading each paper multiple times. Then following established qualitative techniques, statements were categorized (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Categories were then coded into themes. Statements that expressed a single idea were used as the basic unit of analysis. Peer review was also utilized to ensure trustworthiness.

Results

The several various meanings students associated with their experience of participating in outdoor adventure skills courses included 16 categories such as accomplishment, teamwork, environmental stewardship, and self improvement. The three dominant themes that emerged from the categories were meanings that related to interpersonal, intrapersonal, and situational/environmental relationships. The intrapersonal relationships theme was the most prevalent. It was made up of ten

categories. Both the interpersonal and situational/environmental relationships themes were composed of four categories each.

Discussion

The categories that emerged from the data in this study were similar to Hlasny's (2000) findings, which reported the effects of three short-term academic outdoor experiential programs. Furthermore, the three themes of interpersonal, intrapersonal, and situational/environmental that emerged are supported by prior work (Ballard, Shellman, Hayashi, 2006; Goldenberg, 2002; Goldenberg, Klenosky, O'Leary, & Templin, 2000; Fredrickson & Anderson, 1999; Loeffler, 2004; McIntyre & Roggenbuck, 1998).

Hattie, Marsh, Neill, and Richard's (1997) meta-analysis showed that the length of a program was directly correlated to the outcomes. However, short-term programs are not without consequence as is shown in this study. The influence of short-term academic outdoor adventure skills courses on participants and their associated meanings are similar (at least in kind) to those programs of longer duration. Short-term academic outdoor adventure skills courses fill a necessary niche. These experiences may motivate the participant (many of whom this is one of their first experiences with outdoor experiential education) to seek out other courses and programs of longer duration. Research done in this area of outdoor experiential education has been limited, yet because of the lower commitment in terms and money and time by the participant this is an important aspect which includes college outdoor programs and outdoor programs everywhere. This study has shown the importance of short-term academic outdoor adventure skills courses beyond teaching technical skills.

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SOCIAL SKILL DEVELOPMENT IN RESIDENTIAL OUTDOOR EDUCATION PROGRAMMING

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PURPOSE

The social development of early adolescents is a key factor in the advancement of academic and social gains as well as the reduction in antisocial behavior of young children [e.g., aggression, bullying, violence (US Department of Education, 2004)]. Programs promoting social development can occur in a variety of settings. Schools often employ outdoor education (OE) programs to facilitate their students' social skill development. It is believed that by creating motivating and enriching experiences, outdoor education programs provide children with social and emotional competency building opportunities. While many students attend such programs each year, and many OE programs believe they positively benefit the social development of their participants, little research has previously evaluated the effectiveness of camps in this critical area.

The purpose of this study was to examine the effectiveness of the American Youth Foundation's (AYF) five day school outreach camp experience on the social skill development of adolescent youth. AYF's program is located at the Merrowvista Education Center in Center Tuftonboro, NH. The program is designed to inspire youth to "be their best, seek balanced living, maintain healthy friendships, and make a positive difference in their communities and the wider world" (American Youth Foundation, 2005, p.1). Based on their core values, philosophy, and program goals, Merrowvista intentionally designs learning experiences and associated facilitation to positively impact the development in these four areas. Each activity in Merrowvista's program (e.g., eating arrangements, activities, cabin assignments) is based on a strong belief that how the organization and staff intentionally act toward social skill development makes a difference in the way a child develops while attending camp (American Youth Foundation, 2005).

This study involved students from four New Hampshire middle schools. In total, 327 students (173 girls and 154 boys) were involved in this study. Their ages ranged from 10 to 13 with a mean of 11.3 years old. The data from all four schools was collected on the following timeline: baseline data (spring 2004), pre-program data (just prior to Merrowvista programming, fall 2004), post-program data (immediately following Merrowvista programming, fall 2004), and follow-up data (December 2004 or January 2005). At each of these four administrations, students completed both the Life Effectiveness Questionnaire (Neill, Marsh, & Richards, in press) and Social Skills Checklist (Gass, 2005). Data was analyzed using repeated measures ANOVA, followed by post-hoc comparison tests, to determine what effect the Merrowvista program had on the social skill development of the participants, as well as whether or not any reported effects were maintained over time.

RESULTS

LIFE EFFECTIVENESS QUESTIONNAIRE (LEQ)

Repeated measures ANOVA and appropriate post-hoc comparison tests were used to compare baseline cumulative LEQ scores with follow-up cumulative LEQ scores (i.e. earliest administration to most recent). This analysis indicated that the group as a whole showed statistically significant gains. There were no significant differences between scores at baseline and pre-program or between scores at post-program and follow-up. These results indicate that these changes occurred during the students' time at Merrowvista and that a significant amount of those improvements lasted for over 3 months. Statistically significant improvement was shown in eight out of nine subscales in the LEQ. There were, however, different effect sizes for each of the four schools, indicating that the AYF programming was more effective for some schools than others.

SOCIAL SKILLS CHECKLIST (SSC)

On the SSC, data analysis using the same methods described earlier showed statistically significant improvement comparing cumulative pre-program scores with post-program scores. These significant gains, however, were not maintained through to the follow-up administration. The SSC contains two subscales, intrapersonal skills and interpersonal skills. Results from the intrapersonal subscale showed a slight improvement at the post-program administration, but a significant decrease at the follow-up administration. Conversely, results from the interpersonal subscale showed statistically significant improvement from pre-program to post-program, as well as statistically significant improvement from post-program to follow-up. Similar to the LEQ, different effect sizes were observed for each of the four schools with respect to the effect of the AYF programming.

DISCUSSION

These results provide evidence that Merrowvista programming was effective at promoting social skill development in students, and that these pro-social behaviors persisted when students returned to the school environment. These results are encouraging for both schools and outdoor camps. It is important to note, however, that these positive gains likely occurred from the intentional form of programming. Therefore, outdoor camps interested in achieving similar results need to be intentional in their facilitation to realize such positive outcomes. Further research using experimental designs is needed to further validate these findings; however, the initial results are certainly beneficial for outdoor camps.

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