OUTDOOR RECREATION
ENRICHMENT FOR A LIFETIME

4TH EDITION

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To the Brownies: Ann, Irene, Jennifer, Kit, Patty, Stefani, Stevie, and Sue
K.C.

To my parents: Darryl Hutson and Carol Siano
G.H.
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As interim executive director for the American Association for Leisure/Recreation (AALR), Cordes represented AAHPERD on the White House Green Ribbon Panel and authored America’s Millennium Trails Pathways for the 21st Century, an official project of the White House Millennium Council. AALR recognized her with its Outstanding Achievement Award and the Merit Service Award for Distinguished Service to Recreation. Cordes, also author of America’s National Historic Trails and America’s National Scenic Trails (University of Oklahoma Press), is author of other college textbooks including Applications in Recreation and Leisure (Sagamore Publishing) and Parks, Recreation, and Leisure Service Management with Hilmi Ibrahim (Eddie Bowers).

The President’s Council on Fitness, Sports, and Nutrition selected Cordes as a 2014 Lifetime Achievement Award winner. The American Alliance of Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance (AAHPERD) recognized her with its national, district, and state honor awards. She was inducted into SHAPE America’s North American Society for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, Sport, and Dance Professionals (2015); elected American Leisure Academy Senior Fellow; honored with Indiana University’s 2014 Anita Aldrich Distinguished Alumni Award; and honored with the California Legislative Assembly Recognition Award (2014) for dedication to the promotion of innovative teaching and learning in physical education across the country. The past president of California’s AHPERD, Cordes is the recipient of its highest recognition, the Verne Landreth Award. Cordes serves on the board of directors for California’s Santa Rosa Plateau Nature Education Foundation, is news editor for SHAPE America’s southwest district, and is listed in Who’s Who in America and Who’s Who in the World.
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Prior to academic life, Hutson worked full time as a ski patroller helping to launch one of the first ski areas ever to operate on U.S. Bureau of Land Management lands in Southwest Colorado. Additionally, he worked as a NOLS instructor in Wyoming, Alaska, and the Yukon Territory and as a climbing guide for organizations accredited by the American Mountain Guides Association in both Oregon and Colorado. He currently facilitates collaborative research and management efforts between the Ontario Rock Climbing Access Coalition, the Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources and Forestry, and the Niagara Parks Commission. Hutson most often experiences leisure through time spent with loved ones, rock climbing, trail biking, writing, and exploring the city of Toronto, which he now calls home.
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This book was written with a number of objectives in mind. Most important, it tries to avoid duplicating other books on outdoor recreation. This book attempts to look at outdoor pursuits first as a sub-phenomenon of the larger recreation and leisure phenomenon, but with an added touch, that of the natural element, with its psychological influence and social significance. These two points will be elaborated on in Part One.

Part One provides two views of nature. The first is based on the experiences and values of the original inhabitants of the New World. The second is based on the values of Western society transplanted into the New World after discovery and colonization. These two views are not necessarily incompatible. For despite the exploitation of nature that began with the early European settlers, there were, and still are, those whose love of nature is evident in their writing, advocacy, and leadership. The early transcendentalists, naturalists, and practitioners were ahead of their time. Today, the field of psychology shows us why nature is so appealing and soothing to human beings. Because we need nature for our well-being, effective management of our natural resources is a must. Psychology aside, effective managers should be equipped with managerial skills and also a thorough understanding of the socioeconomic factors that have a direct bearing on outdoor recreation-al pursuits.

Part Two provides the reader with a description of the resources available to the outdoor adventurer. There are four categories of resources: federal, state, local, and private. These categories prevail in the United States, and Canada has a similar arrangement. In part, this edition highlights, the Canadian outdoor recreation identity, which has been shaped by Canada’s landscapes, weather patterns, rich cultural history, the emergence of federal and provincial parks, and the mystique and wild nature of “the North.”

Part Three is devoted to examining the management of outdoor resources as well as outdoor education and activities. Future managers and recreation participants would definitely benefit from knowing the policies, procedures, and even the problems of outdoor recreation management and the environment.

An epilogue is provided that expresses our hopes for a bright and prosperous future for outdoor recreation. The appendices provide pertinent information such as a list of federal and state agencies dealing with outdoor recreation, as well as professional and voluntary associations concerned with outdoor pursuits. Finally, an index is provided for the reader.
The first part of this book is devoted to examining the foundations of outdoor recreation, which include the historical, spiritual, social, psychological, and economic factors that led to its rise in the Western world, particularly in the United States and Canada. In Chapter 1, we give an overview of these foundations. Chapter 2 is focused on the spiritual attitudes of Americans toward the outdoors. In Chapter 3, we examine the influence of some of the outdoor recreation movement’s most important leaders and teachers. Chapter 4 includes a discussion of the psychology of the natural environment, and in Chapter 5, we discuss the social aspects of outdoor experiences. In Chapter 6, we discuss the economics of outdoor recreation.
In this book, we use the term outdoor recreation to encompass the organized free-time activities participated in for their own sake and where there is an interaction between the participant and an element of nature. Surfing is an outdoor recreational activity where there is interaction between the participant and water, an element of nature. Football is not an outdoor recreational activity under our definition, for although it is an organized recreational activity, nature plays a minimal role in it. Nature plays a more important role in mountain climbing or cross-country skiing than it does in football.

Although predicated on play and part of the growing sphere of leisure activities, recreation is different from both play and leisure in that it is basically organized and takes place mainly in groups. At the core of recreation is play, and at the core of outdoor recreation is involvement with the natural environment. On the other hand, leisure is defined as the state of mind that allows an individual to participate in certain activities, and availability of free time is an important contributor to both recreation and outdoor recreation.

Recent studies have shown that ritual among humans played, and still plays, an important role, not only in establishing social order but also as a vehicle of creativity and expression. Ritual seems to have added to the importance and significance of both leisure and recreation. Elaboration on play, ritual, and outdoor recreation follows.

**HUMANS, PLAY, AND RITUAL**

Hardly anyone disagrees that humans tend to play. Some may argue that play is witnessed among the young of the human race only, but empirical evidence negates such a claim: Some adult activities that may not be considered as play by everyone are in fact play activity, albeit somewhat sophisticated play. Such sophistication results from both the maturation of the individual and the complexity of modern societies. Studies show that many of the original activities of adults in some primal societies were very similar to children’s play (Blanchard & Cheska, 1985; Roth 1902; Wood, 1871). Complexity in many activities provides people with much of today’s recreation (Turner, 1982).

Outdoor recreation—the activities that are the main focus of this volume—is practiced by most members of complex, modern urbanized and industrial societies. Most Americans and Canadians camp, ski, and go on organized picnics. In previous societies, only the well-to-do could afford to do so. Their value system not only allowed but also
encouraged enjoyment of picnics, camping, and skiing. The reasons for the shift that allows everyone to recreate are societal, be they economic or political, but the reason for participation, by wealthy and nonwealthy alike, is based on the tendency of humans to play and, to a great extent, to ritualize.

**Play**

Some researchers have claimed that the tendency to play may have a deeper niche in human behavior than was once believed. Humans share this propensity with the upper mammals (deVore, 1965; Lancaster 1975; Marano, 1999), and there may be a genetic imprint, or a chemical code, that propels people in this direction (Eisen, 1988). To understand this tendency, an explanation of the structure of the human brain and its evolution is a must.

The simple elementary brain, which is labeled the reptilian brain, is surrounded by a more complicated brain known as the limbic system, or the old mammalian brain. The elementary brain handles basic functions of self-preservation and preservation of the species through hunting, homing, mating, fighting, and territoriality, and the old mammalian brain is identified with mothering, audiovocal communication, and play. Experiments have shown that when the limbic system was severed in some small animals, they reverted to reptilian behavior, which is void of play (Ibrahim, 1991).

The third brain, called the new mammalian brain or the neocortex, surrounds the old mammalian brain and is divided into two hemispheres, each responsible for the opposite side of the body. According to Ornestein and Thompson (1984), hemispheric specialization occurred when humans were becoming bipedal and beginning to use their front limbs in tool making. With the enlarged brain, more complicated processes occurred, including the construction and storage of symbols. Mental processes using the two hemispheres can be roughly divided into two groups: processes that help in maintaining order in everyday activities such as language and others that pertain to insight, imagination, and artistic expression. Sagan (1977) asserted that the left hemisphere is responsible for the first group and the right hemisphere is responsible for the second.

In the early 1940s, brain research led to the assumption that a drive for arousal in both humans and animals helps to avoid boredom (Berlyne, 1960). Others today are advocating that a “hormonal code” or “genetic programming” initiates, propels, and, to a lesser degree, regulates play (Eisen, 1988). The evidence comes from observation of animals and humans. In the case of animals, it is evident that the higher the animal on the evolutionary scale, the greater the time devoted to play, at least among the young. Among humans, Sutton-Smith suggested that neuroimaging studies of the brain may reveal a ludic center located somewhere in the frontal lobe (Marano, 1999).

Although play varies among primate species, Lancaster (1975) indicated that field observers were impressed with the amount of time and energy spent in play by their juveniles. For instance, young chimpanzees spend over 50% of their waking hours in play. Play behavior is first seen in the early morning and last seen before young baboons retire. The same has been observed among young howlers and bonnet macaques (de Vore, 1965).

Evidence of a biological base for play among young humans comes from the forms and sequence of children's play, regardless of social or cultural background. The sequence of manipulative, repetitive, relational, make-believe, and rule-governed play is remarkably stable across diverse populations, which points toward a possible universal blueprint for play (Wolf, 1984). Others have found similar regularities (Edwards, 2000).

But play is not the only element in the rise of organized recreational activities among the members of a given society. Ritual plays an important role as well. The first scholar to bring to attention the link between play and ritual is historian Johan Huizinga. He believed that play is the basis of culture and that ritual assisted in the process of bringing about civilized life.

Now in myth and ritual the great instinctive forces of civilized life have their origin:
law and order, commerce and profit, craft and art, poetry, wisdom, and science. All are rooted in the primeval soil of play (Huizinga, 1950).

At the time of Huizinga’s (1950) writing, the concept of instinctive play was not palatable to many scholars of play. The idea that ritual might also be instinctive was equally unacceptable. In the last few decades, however, research on the brain has lent some credence to Huizinga’s advocation that some biological basis seems to exist for both play and ritual (Marano, 1999). For a recent discussion on the topic of play, see Stuart Brown’s (2008) TED Talk about the important links between play, human intelligence and development, and creativity at http://www.ted.com/talks/stuart_brown_says_play_is_more_than_fun_it_s_vital.html. In his talk, Brown highlighted scientific findings, which strongly suggest that human play is integral to human health and survival.

In between these two extremes—biological nature versus cultural orientation—are theories in which play is explained in terms of psychology and sociology. These theories underscore the multifaceted nature of play.

Ritual

Scholars are just now beginning to understand the role of ritual in human life. Ritual is a set or series of acts, with a sequence established by tradition and stemming from the life of a people. Thanksgiving dinner in America, for example, is a tradition with an original purpose that some may have forgotten, yet it is celebrated year after year (with a new element added, a televised football game). Although the original meaning of the activity may be forgotten, humans ritualistically repeat the activity with great passion. Some scholars believe that it is the repetitiveness that matters and not the activity itself, on the assumption that ritualization has a biological basis in humans and animals.

Ritualization is the stylized, repeated gestures and posturing of humans or animals. Ritualization is based on rhythmicity and formation, biological principles that are essential for survival. Rhythmicity is observed in

the alteration of systole and diastole (higher reading and lower reading of blood pressure, respectively) and in the cycle of wakefulness and sleep. Formalization is the tendency to stabilize inner compulsions as well as output by putting things in order—a tendency that paves the way for the act called ritualization. Rhythmic, formalized, and ritualistic activity give life stability not only for the young, but also for the adult.

Simple ritualization evolved into complex rituals, which in turn expanded to five modes as proposed by Grimmes (1982). Although decorum, magic, and liturgy are not usually connected with outdoor activities, ceremony and celebration can be. A ceremony is a ritual that requires that one surrender to the demands of authority. Examples of nature ceremonies in many societies will be provided in Chapter 2. Celebration is the ritual most related to play. Here one participates for the sake of participation and not for an external end. Celebration has permeated human life since early times, including the celebration of nature, as will be seen in the examples given in Chapter 2.

Deegan (1989) stated that participatory ritual is deeply rooted in social interaction in America. Participatory rituals exhibit three common characteristics:

1. Require participation and face-to-face contact.
2. Have a matrix of roles, statuses, and culture.
3. Are organized by a set of rules for ritual action.

For our purposes, we want to know, for instance, what propels a person to go fishing or hunting year after year during the long weekend designed to celebrate the birth of a president? Is it the tendency to play? Or is it the tendency to ritualize? If the tendencies to play and to ritualize are biologically based, why is it that not all Americans of the same age and sex go fishing on that occasion? Another person may spend the long weekend alone watching nature programs on television, and a third may spend it hiking in the woods. A presentation of two more concepts
that affect the outdoor experience is important at this point: leisure and recreation.

**LEISURE OR RECREATION**

When it comes to adult behavior during free time, analyzing the situation becomes complicated. For instance, when camping, is the individual playing, recreating, or at leisure? One does not hear or see terms such as *outdoor leisure* or *therapeutic play*, yet the American and Canadian lifestyle is full of outdoor recreation, community recreation, and therapeutic recreation. What is the difference? Conceptual differentiation among the definitions for play, recreation, and leisure is necessary at this point. In this work, play is activities of the young partaken by choice. On the other hand, recreation is an organized activity in which an adult participates during free time. The emphasis in leisure is on the state of mind that allows the adult to participate in an activity of his or her choice during the time free from work or civil or familial obligations.

This state of mind, by itself and in itself, is not easily discernible to the casual observer, but engagement in a recreational activity is. Recreation gained greater attention at the start of the 20th century in the United States and Canada because it revolved around the most easily observed feature of the leisure phenomenon, the activity. The other two elements—the state of mind and free time—were not essential in recreational programs. The activity became central to the thinking of social reformers such as Jane Addams, who advocated that the lack of these activities led to social ills such as delinquency and truancy. In fact, there are still attempts in that direction, recreation as rehabilitation, not only where adolescents are concerned (Mahoney & Stattin, 2000) but also for people with disabilities (Pati et al., 1997).

The philosopher Aristotle, who paid serious attention to the leisure phenomenon “qua,” a phenomenon and not as a method to combat social ills, may help people understand the nature of leisure. Aristotle believed that leisure encompasses contemplative, recreative, and amusive activities. Leisure can be seen as a pyramid, the bottom third of which encompasses amusive activities, on top of which are recreative activities, which is topped by contemplative activities (see Figure 1.1).

In outdoor settings, all three levels can be achieved. On the first level, people would

![Figure 1.1. Hierarchy of leisure.](image-url)
enjoy watching animals as they go about their lives. On the second level, backpacking and hiking are pursued. On the third level, the study of nature is an important aspect of contemplation. One of the elements in pushing for the building of America’s first city park, Central Park of New York City, was the concept of contemplation (Taylor, 1999).

THE EMERGENCE OF OUTDOOR RECREATION

Contemplation is only one form of leisure that Americans came to enjoy, the other forms being recreation and amusement. Although the new settlers of North America had more free time, that free time did not transform into leisure easily. Leisure, as a state of being, was protested vigorously by the strict Calvinists of colonial America. Puritan requirements led the colonists to live without the “mispence of time,” adhering strictly to the observance of the Sabbath. They tolerated no pagan festivities, no licentious plays and spectacles, and no violations of the Sabbath.

Available open space was used as commons, pastureland, or training grounds in hunting. The term commons describes a piece of land to be shared and enjoyed by all members of the community. By the mid-1700s, open space was being used for recreational pursuits and other amusements. Some Dutch settlers in New York, who were less restrained in their religious beliefs, organized a few recreational activities after the Sunday service over the objection of church leaders. Also, wealthy Southerners began to socialize and to recreate on the Lord’s Day. By the middle of the 1700s, the American lifestyle included many recreational activities, among which were pursuits in natural settings such as hunting, fishing, skating, sleighing, and tobogganing. Resorts became fashionable among the wealthy of that era.

Despite the proposal to the Continental Congress of 1774 to prohibit extravagance and dissipation such as horse racing, gaming, and cockfighting, outdoor recreation increased steadily after the Revolutionary War, particularly on the frontiers. With America’s westward expansion, the frontier people found in hunting, horse racing, rail tossing, and tomahawk hurling a needed release from a life of hard work and isolation. These were also occasions for get-togethers where ritualistic activities, such as husking and quilting bees, took place.

In the meantime, American cities were growing, and the need for open space was obvious. A site in Chicago was preserved for outdoor recreation near Fort Dearborn in 1839, but it was in New York that the first city park was built in 1853. Central Park was designed by Frederick Law Olmsted and Calvert Vaux. According to Taylor (1999), Central Park was a source of conflict between the elite, the middle class, and the working class. The first group sought the park as a tool of social control; the second group looked at it as a place for art, nature, and beauty; and the third group wanted active leisure. Olmsted later planned San Francisco’s Golden Gate Park, Philadelphia’s Fairmount Park, Boston’s Franklin Park, and the District of Columbia’s Rock Creek Park. Olmsted will be discussed in more detail later in the book.
The second half of the 19th century witnessed a surge in organized sports such as baseball, basketball, and football and in outdoor recreational pursuits such as hunting and fishing. Wildlife depletion became a concern, and in 1887, two prominent sportsmen, Theodore Roosevelt and George Bird Grinnell, editor of *Forest and Stream Magazine*, formed the Boone and Crockett Club to deal with conservation issues on the national level.

Conquering the wilderness during the western expansion meant the destruction of many of America’s forests, to which Franklin B. Hough, head of the 1870 census, sounded the alarm. In 1876, the U.S. Congress authorized him to study the issue, and his reports led to the creation of the Division of Forestry in the U.S. Department of Agriculture in 1881—the forerunner of today’s U.S. Forest Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture.

Meanwhile, many of the states on the eastern seaboard began to establish game preserves. Deer parks were established to preserve this popular game animal. The concept of preservation reached its pinnacle in 1872 with the establishment of America’s first national park.

Although there were two earlier precedents for national preserves, at Hot Springs, Arkansas, in 1832 and Yosemite Valley, California, in 1864, the concept of a national park was born with Yellowstone in 1872. The significance of this event was in the change in public policy from allowing private exploitation of America’s natural resources to the setting aside of public land for protection and public enjoyment. In 1890, a bill was passed in the U.S. Congress creating Yosemite National Park. Two years later, naturalist John Muir formed the Sierra Club to explore, preserve, and enjoy the mountains of the west coast of the United States.

The concept of preservation spilled over into America’s forests when President Harrison created a 13 million-acre forest preserve in 1891 to which President Cleveland added 20 million acres in 1897. Gifford Pinchot enhanced human knowledge of forests as the first American to study forest management in Europe. In 1896, the Division of Biological Survey was created in the U.S. Department of Agriculture to administer wildlife refuges. It became the forerunner of the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Department of the Interior, when it was combined with the Bureau of Fisheries, U.S. Department of Commerce, in 1940.

President Theodore Roosevelt appointed a National Conservation Commission in 1908, which put together an inventory of America’s natural resources. He also took executive actions to preserve vast federal lands as forest preserves, wildlife refuges, and national monuments. Eight years later, in 1916, the National Park Service was established, and in 1924, the first wilderness area was designated in the Gila National Forest. The same year witnessed the first national conference on outdoor recreation. Three years earlier, Appalachian Trail opened, ushering in a new concept in outdoor recreation. Illinois became the first state to establish a state park system in 1909, followed by Indiana in 1919. The first national conference on state parks occurred in 1921, and 5 years later the Federal Recreation Act made some public domain lands available to states for parks.

During the Depression years, and despite the economic conditions, Americans saw the opening of their first scenic parkway, the Blue Ridge Parkway. The Tennessee Valley Authority was created to provide the needed energy to vitalize the region and to control floods, but it also created many opportunities for outdoor recreational pursuits.

In the 1940s, the Bureau of Land Management was formed to control most federal real estate. The Flood Control Act of 1944 charged the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers with providing recreation on many of the reservoirs it built. A 1948 amendment to the 1944 Surplus Property Act provided for the transfer of surplus federal lands at 50% of fair market value for use as state and local parks and recreational areas.

The Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission and the resultant Bureau of Outdoor Recreation were created in the 1950s. Motivated by the ORRRC report, many state and local governments passed laws for bond issues to acquire more open space. In
1962, the National Park Service began a 10-year renovation program. The U.S. Forest Service began Operation Outdoors for the purpose of revitalizing its offerings.

The 1960s witnessed the passage of many federal acts, the impact of which is felt today on outdoor recreation. Among these is the Multiple-Use Sustained-Yield Act, which formalized multiple use in national forests and added outdoor recreation to the statutory list of activities provided on these lands. Other federal legislation passed in the 1960s included the Land and Water Conservation Act, the National Wilderness Preservation System Act, and the Federal Water Project Recreation Act, all of which provided significant funds for federal grants to be matched by equal state and local funds for outdoor recreational areas. The National Trails System Act and the National Wild and Scenic Rivers Act embodied new and significant concepts for outdoor recreation in America.

Significant acts for outdoor recreation were passed in the 1970s, too. The Volunteers in the Park Act authorized the National Park Service to use volunteers in its system. Also of significance was the Youth Conservation Corps Act, which employed youth in the National Park Service and the U.S. Forest Service. A new approach was tested at that time, which was the addition of urban recreational areas to the National Park Service, for example, the Gateway National Recreation Area in New York City and the Golden Gate National Recreation Area in San Francisco. Revenue-sharing programs of the 1970s helped with the establishment of many state and local parks.

According to Clawson (1985), a major development at that time was the expansion of privately owned, privately financed, and privately operated outdoor facilities. These included ski areas, water sport areas, amusement parks, campgrounds, and resorts in outdoor settings. Another important development was the application of new technologies to outdoor settings, the results of which were the modern activities of scuba diving, snowmobiling, and recreational vehicle camping. Today, thanks to the insight of a few persons and to the foresight of America’s legislators, Americans are enjoying a lifestyle that includes many opportunities for active and contemplative recreation in outdoor settings.

A parallel movement for the provision of outdoor recreational areas occurred in Canada (see Chapter 11 for the history of outdoor recreation in Canada). Canada and the United States and, to some extent, Australia led the world in this movement. It took the rest of the world almost another 100 years to try to catch up with these three countries. Leisure and recreation (including outdoor pursuits) are becoming an important part in the lifestyles of many countries today. The following factors have led to this development.

**Leisure and Recreation: A Human Right**

In 1948, the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The member nations at that time agreed to the following principle:

> Every citizen has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours, and periodic holidays with pay . . . and . . . the right to freely participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts. . . . (United Nations, 1978)

This statement by the United Nations represents the culmination of many human endeavors to achieve such a right. It may have begun with the Sixth Right, which evolved among the Ancient Israelites. The first five rights were the Right to Live, the Right of Possession, the Right to Work, the Right to Clothing, and the Right to Shelter. The Sixth Right included a provision for a Sabbath. Although the Sabbath was originally for rest and worship, it provided the opportunity for recreational activities that took place at later dates among the Israelites (Ibrahim & Shivers, 1979).

The ancient Greeks were also interested in the idea of leisure. The free men among them took it seriously and sent their offspring to schole, the institution where the young would learn the arts of graceful living,
music, philosophy, art, and gymnastics. As mentioned earlier, it was their philosopher, Aristotle, who underscored leisure as an important ingredient of the good life.

Ibn Khaldun, the Arab philosopher of the 14th century, went as far as claiming the desire for leisure as the fifth layer of a five-layer schema of human desires, the first of which is bodily appetites, followed by the desire for safety and calm, the desire for companionship, and the desire for superiority (Ibrahim, 1988). The fifth and last of these desires would be satisfied with the United Nations resolution. Many nations are working to provide the same right. But the resolution alone did not contribute to the rise of leisure pursuits in today's world.

Increased Free Time

Although time free from civic and familial obligations began with the rise of the leisure class, as suggested by Veblen (1953), leisure in its "pure" form, as a state of being, did not materialize until recently. The Sabbath was observed as a day of rest from labor among the Israelites and early Christians, albeit as a day devoted to worship. Labor time was measured by the day that started at sunrise and ended at sundown, leaving little or no free time. Conditions became worse with the coming of the Industrial Revolution, which initially emphasized production over human happiness.

The movement to reduce work hours among labor began in the United States when, in the early 1800s, Boston machinist Ira Stewart formed the Grand Eight-Hour League of Massachusetts (Viau, 1939). Much later, the World Labor Organization passed a bill for 40-hour workweeks and a 12-day annual vacation in 1966. Both France and Great Britain adopted a 40-hour workweek in 1919, which became the standard for many industrialized nations.

The standard for paid annual vacation adopted in most of the industrialized nations was 2 weeks initially, and it has reached 4 weeks in some of these nations today (Samuel, 1986). Recently, France decreed a 5-week vacation for its citizens. Adding to free time is the sometimes compulsory retirement from work. Paid retirees are now a fact of life in most countries, not only among those who served in industry but also in services and trade. Productivity in industry, services, and trade continues at a high level, thanks to the increased use of machines in the 20th century, which has made even more free time available to people. Assisting in the increase of free time are industrialization and automation. Although some scholars have decried the decline of leisure (Schor, 1991), the demand for more free time continues (Boggs, 2001).

Industrialization and Automation

Initially, the Industrial Revolution created unsafe, unpleasant working conditions for many workers. Emigration to industrial centers led to crowded conditions in the cities of western Europe and North America. These slum dwellers included many children who worked long hours. Even when the conditions improved, industrialization revolved around tedious and repetitive tasks for the individual worker, and the need for outlets became apparent. A need for outlets that "would exercise the workers' creative energy and provide a sense of achievement and accomplishment became pressing for people" (MacLean, Peterson, & Martin, 1985, p. 44).

Recreation, including outdoor pursuits, provided the required outlets. Many social reformers worked on providing facilities and programs of recreation. The Playground Association of America was organized in 1906. It was renamed the Playground and Recreation Association of America in 1911, became the National Recreation Association in 1930, and merged with other associations in 1965 to become the National Recreation and Park Association. The association published Playground Magazine, now Parks and Recreation. The need for such an organization grew as the world's population shifted from the countryside to urban cities.

Urbanization

In the mid-1800s, there were 85 cities in the United States. Most people lived in the country. By 1910, the number of Ameri-
can cities with populations over 100,000 increased to 50. In Canada there were 20 communities with populations over 5,000 by the mid-1800s; by the turn of the century, there were 62. The trend is not limited to North America or Europe. Today, there are 83 cities in the world with populations over 1 million. Only 18 are in Europe, and nine are in North America. There are 39 in Asia, seven in what used to be the Soviet Union, seven in South America, and three in Africa.

Urban life itself may have increased the need for recreational outlets, including outdoor ones. More important is the role that urbanization plays in modernizing, meaning not only economic growth, but also cultural and social changes. Services such as education, both formal and informal, are easier to provide in urban centers. Improved literacy rates lead to more sophisticated demands, one of which is the demand for recreational outlets. As will be shown in Chapter 5, the higher the education acquired, the more the demand for recreation, for outdoor pursuits in particular. There are calls today for the provision of recreational activities, particularly in the outdoors, for the urban centers of the world (Griffiths, 2001). But because most outdoor facilities are located away from urban centers, those who are interested in partaking of an outdoor pursuit must find not only the time but also the means to get there.

Transportation

The railroad and steamboat had tremendous impact on recreation in North America and abroad. The railroad encouraged outdoor recreation on a large scale. The Train Excursion of 1844 provides a good example of the role of mass transportation in outdoor pursuits. The excursion, from London to the seaside resort of Brighton, created popular excitement in Great Britain (Lowerson & Myerscough, 1977). In the United States, the steamboat carried people and horses to racing centers along the Mississippi River in the antebellum era. After the Civil War ended, the railroad helped transport people to the growing athletic events, on both the intercollegiate level and the professional level. The same was occurring in Canada.

But it was the invention of the internal combustion engine that contributed to the expansion of outdoor recreation. In the last decade of the 19th century, the automobile was introduced, and Henry Ford converted it into a means of popular transportation. Outdoor facilities require space and were often built outside urban centers, and the masses finally had transportation to get to golf courses, ski resorts, campgrounds, fishing spots, and hunting lodges.

Not until World War I did the air become commercialized. Today, it has become means of transportation for millions of people seeking rest and recreation in remote spots that in times past were frequented only by the privileged few. Tourism has become an important international business. Within the United States and Canada, another important means of recreational travel has evolved: the RV (recreational vehicle). Its sales peaked in 1972, at 540,000 a year in the United States and then leveled off and saw a drastic drop until 1985 when sales began to pick up again (Barker, 1986). Also, pleasure boats have seen a surge in popularity. They may represent a status in life that indicates prestige. This is a function of social mobility.

Mobility

The purchase of a vehicle such as an RV or a boat does not automatically mean that its owner will visit a park or engage in an outdoor pursuit. Mobility has a psychological dimension as well as a social dimension. The social dimension is the movement of an individual from one status to another. Upward mobility leads to improvement in status, downward mobility moves a person to a lower status, and horizontal mobility leads to a new and different status that is similar to the old one. Mobility is a phenomenon that is seen in open societies, the ones that allow for changes in one’s status. This creates a psychological dimension that not only allows but also prompts the individual to go after the benefits to be accrued from the new, upward status, such as the type of recreation and the lifestyle enjoyed by the members of the desired “class.” People seek higher pay, longer vacations, and the abil-
ity to afford an RV and/or a pleasure boat for psychological and social reasons. Perhaps the article in Transportation Quarterly is the testimony that travel associated with leisure activities has become increasingly important (Lawson, 2001).

**RECENT TRENDS IN OUTDOOR RECREATION**

Two publications were authored under the same principal investigator (Cordell, 1999, 2004). The author concluded that both supply and demand for outdoor recreation, in both the public and private sectors, kept pace with population growth in the 20th century. In the public sector, the increase in resources was seen basically in land-based facilities at federal, state, and local governmental levels. Trail resources grew substantially and acreage of lakes and reservoirs increased only slightly. In the private sector, downhill ski areas increased their capacities in all regions of the country. The studies show that recreational activities that took place on land, rather than water, snow, or ice, constituted the largest single category in outdoor recreation. The investigators suggested that trail, street, and road activities; viewing and learning activities; camping; hunting; hiking; and some forms of social activities dominate land-based outdoor recreation.

Among land-based activities, camping seemed to be the one that grew substantially during the 20th century. Also, bird-watching increased 155% compared with 93% in hiking and 73% in backpacking. Downhill skiing and cross-country skiing increased about 50% and 176%, respectively. Developed camping grew by 42%, and most surprisingly “primitive” camping grew at 72%. Although bicycling saw a dramatic rise during the 1980s and the 1990s, the investigators described that increase as faddish rather than a trend in long-term growth. Nonetheless mountain biking has seen an increase. On the other hand, hunting began to decline as an outdoor recreational activity, perhaps due to the increasing difficulty of gaining access to land or water areas suitable for that activity (The Elusive Hunter, 2006).

During the last few years of the 20th century, water-based activities were dominated by motor boating followed by wind-powered boating and muscle-powered boating. Fishing, which used to be a popular outdoor recreational activity in the United States, declined and so did sailing. The data revealed that snorkeling and scuba diving, along with viewing water areas and learning about them, became important aspects of water-based outdoor recreational activities in this country. Participation in the vigorous activities of swimming, canoeing, and kayaking increased as did white-water recreational activities.

Furthermore, the data revealed that about 94% of the U.S. population participated in some form of outdoor recreation over 1 year. The investigators used the term ***enthusiasts*** to describe the men and women who constituted the bulk of participants, accounting for 70% to 89% of participation. It is estimated that 21.4% of enthusiasts were keen on walking, followed by 19.7% who were beachgoers, 17.4% sightseeing fans,

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Rock climbing is an excellent form of outdoor recreation that people choose to participate in during free time. Courtesy of Garrett Hutson.
and 11.8% visitors to historic sites. Kayaking fans account for only .02% of outdoor participants, and windsurfers account for mere .03% and migratory bird-watchers for .06%.

Among the participants in outdoor recreation in the United States, demographic changes took place. For instance the percentage of women participating in walking dropped from 60% to 53%, and the percentage of male participants increased from 40% to 47%. When it comes to ethnicity, 28% of Native Americans participated in camping compared to 21% of Hispanic Americans and 18% of Asian Americans. Native Americans participated more in hunting than did the other ethnic groups. Participation in outdoor recreational activities increased among persons with disabilities, with sightseeing being their most favored activity, followed by developed camping and visiting nature centers.

The longitudinal comparisons among the different generations of Americans were included in the data. The investigators used such terms as the G.I. generation for those born between 1901 and 1924, the silent generation (1925–1942), the boom generation (1943–1960), the 13th generation (1961–1981) and the millennial generation (1982–2004). Participation in outdoor recreation has increased among most of the members of these five generations thanks to industrialization and automation, urbanization, transportation, and mobility. Cordell (2008) continues to suggest that this increase is likely to continue and “between 2000 and 2007, the total number of people who participated in one or more outdoor recreational activities increased by 4.4 percent, from an estimated 208 million to 217 million.” The continued increase in participation in outdoor recreation may be attributed to all of the mentioned reasons, but perhaps most important, the increase will be sustained by the global principle that leisure and recreation (including outdoor recreation) are human rights.

**SUMMARY**

In this work, outdoor recreation is defined as organized, free-time activities participated in for their own sake and where there is an interaction between the participant and an element of nature. Such activities are predicated on the tendencies to play and to ritualize. Both of these tendencies have biological roots as well as evolutionary dimensions. Observation of play among animals, particularly the higher forms, along with the studies of the human brain show how profound the tendency to play is. Meanwhile, the tendency to ritualize is seen in ceremonies and celebration of many human societies. Also, outdoor recreational pursuits are affected by a recent phenomenon, leisure, which describes the state of mind that allows a person to participate in an activity solely for the sake of that activity during a time free from civic and familial obligations.

The need for recreational outlets overcome the objection of those who considered such pursuits as wasteful, if not sinful, among the early European settlers of the New World. Open spaces that were allocated for meeting, grazing, and training of hunters evolved into parks. Fear of wanton destruction of the vast yet limited natural resources on this continent led to the rise of a preservation movement, which led to the establishment, for the first time in human history, of natural areas allocated for the enjoyment of present and future generations. The concept of federally designated national parks, born in the United States with the establishment of Yellowstone National Park, is adopted by many nations today.

Expansion of outdoor recreational opportunities required the establishment of many agencies at the federal, state, and local levels. This was in response to demands that were accelerated by (a) the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1948, which includes the right to leisure and recreation; (b) an increase in free time for almost every citizen in many countries regardless of social class and lifestyle; (c) the advent of industrialization and automation, which allowed for more free time; (d) an increase in urbanization with the resultant increase in the need for outdoor recreational outlets; (e) the provision of adequate means of transportation that takes the desiring per-
son to the spot of his or her choice; and 6) mobility with its social as well as psychological dimensions that, in the case of upward mobility, drives one to seek recreational pursuits that correspond to the newly acquired status.

The 20th century saw changes in outdoor pursuits such as increases in hiking, backpacking, and both cross-country and downhill skiing versus a decreases in hunting and road bicycling. Also, the number of minority group members participating in outdoor recreational activities increased.

REFERENCES


