

Chapter 1

Introduction and Overview

This introductory chapter includes the following: an overview of the Wilderness Ability Adventure program; a brief literature review; statement of the research problem and related questions; a presentation of the methodological framework being applied; an explanation of key terms; and a list of possible limitations to the study.

Introduction

Adventure education has been defined by Miles and Priest (1990) as process a whereby “a conscious and overt goal of the adventure is to expand the self, to learn and grow and progress toward the realization of human potential” (pg. 1). Researchers have found that adventure education influences self-esteem, self-efficacy, team building, risk taking propensity, as well as many other variables. The applications of this powerful teaching tool have been far reaching. Today adventure programming includes populations such as older adults (Sugarman, 1990), people with disabilities (Schleien, McAvoy, Lais & Rynders, 1993), judicated youth (Laurence & Stuart, 1990), corporate groups (Priest, Attarian, & Schubert, 1993), school children (Moore, 1990), and women (Galland, 1980).

One population recently introduced to adventure education is life insurance claimants. In an article dedicated to the Wilderness Ability Adventure program, The New York Times (Weds. 3/26, 1997) reported that the number of people with long term disability coverage has dramatically increased over the last five years. These increases are partially attributed to liberal policies designed to attract more customers (article is

included in Appendix A). Facing a growing population of long term disability claimants, life insurance organizations have been motivated to experiment with alternative rehabilitation and retraining methods.

Recently, The Hartford Life Insurance Company, the third largest long-term disability insurer in the United States, has begun to experiment with wilderness based adventure trips as an alternative rehabilitation method. The Hartford has sponsored four wilderness adventures with a Minneapolis based organization named Wilderness Inquiry (WI). Wilderness Inquiry is an adventure travel organization that specializes in providing outdoor trips for people with different levels of abilities. In the last two years four wilderness trips have been conducted; one each at Attean Pond in Maine, the BWCA in Minnesota, Yellowstone Park, and the Florida Everglades. The population for these trips has included disability claimants, The Hartford employees, and brokers associated with The Hartford.

These wilderness trips, which are one segment of the Wilderness Ability Adventure Program, are designed in part to provide claimants the opportunity to increase self-esteem, overcome physical and mental barriers, and become more independent. It is ultimately the hope that these experiences will influence the claimants career development and positively influence the attitudes toward people with disabilities for the employees and brokers. Anecdotal feedback from these trips has been overwhelmingly positive with participants commenting that the adventure greatly influenced their lives; however, a more rigorous assessment of the Wilderness Ability Adventure program is in order to better understand how the adventures are influencing trip participants.

Purpose of Research Project

This exploratory project should be conceptualized as an initial attempt to study the effects of the Wilderness Ability Adventure program. Thus, this study will explore various methodological approaches and techniques, conduct a comprehensive literature review, identify salient variables, and begin the process of establishing an informative database. This database will serve as an informative tool for making judgments about the Wilderness Ability Adventure program as well as providing a methodological and theoretical foundation for future studies.

Brief Literature Review

The factors that influence career development for people with disabilities range from being intensely personal to frustratingly global. Individual factors such as personal interests, needs and values are fused with cultural and societal beliefs to form an intricate web of career possibilities and constraints. The combination of the diversity of individuals with disabilities and the complexity of social environments makes it difficult to predict how the presence of a disability will shape an individual's career development.

However, researchers have found that specific individual characteristics and traits are strong predictors of career development. For example, researchers in vocational rehabilitation have identified feelings of self-efficacy as strong career maintenance and job placement indicators for people with disabilities. Roessler and Rumrill (1994) demonstrate that employment retention rates among people with severe disabilities are typically lower than would be expected based solely on physical symptoms related to the disability. They argue that high unemployment rates among people with severe disabilities can partially be explained by the way that the disability negatively effects

one's sense of self-efficacy. The authors assert that decreased feelings of efficacy result in less frequent proactive behaviors required to maintain one's career. Thus, we might expect that psychosocial training interventions, such as Wilderness Inquiry trips, that are designed to enhance feelings of self-efficacy, should increase the likelihood that participants will initiate career maintenance and job acquisition actions.

Two key issues related to efficacy within the adventure education context are the interrelated notions of transference and maintenance. Transference relates to the degree that a person is able to transfer the skills and attitudes learned on a wilderness trip back into their everyday life. Maintenance relates to the ability of the participant to maintain the skills and attitudes over time. These two areas have been important issues for outdoor educators for several years and have consequently received a large amount of attention in the outdoor education literature. Some of this literature has been applied to corporate adventure training programs that seek to understand how various intervention strategies influence the work attitudes and skills of employees. The primary researcher in this area is Simon Priest, who has conducted numerous studies on corporate adventure training. In a recent summary of these studies, Priest (1996) asserts that corporate adventure training programs can be an effective training tool used to increase risk taking propensity, enhance team building, encourage cooperation, and increase trust. However, he argues that more studies need to consider how these variables transfer back to the workplace and are maintained over time. One study that did assess the transference and maintenance of risk taking from an adventure training program to the workplace was conducted by Goldman and Priest (1991). The results of this study demonstrated that the program did positively affect employees' risk taking behaviors and levels of trust at the

workplace; however, these behaviors slowly tapered off over time.

Even though individual traits and characteristics are important components of understanding the career development of people with disabilities, other sociologically based factors also come into play. Workplace stereotypes, rigid organizational structures, and limited access to necessary resources all influence an individual's ability to secure and maintain meaningful employment. Not only are these ideological barriers difficult to surmount, they are equally difficult to change. Working on the global level, the American with Disabilities Act represents an attempt to legally impose an ideological change into the American landscape. However, these ideological changes can also be encouraged on the individual level as people with different levels of abilities interact with each other in meaningful engagements. To encourage these interactions, the Wilderness Ability Adventure program is structured to include participants with and without disabilities. These interactions are designed to encourage understanding and empathy, increasing the perceived scope of possibilities open to all people. These program initiatives are closely aligned with the organizational mission of Wilderness Inquiry. As stated in the 1995-96 WI catalogue the organization's mission is,

To use outdoor experiences as a means to bring people together. WI provides experiences that combine people with and without disabilities from diverse backgrounds. Our trips are shared cooperative adventures that combine the strength and positive energy of all the members in the group.

Thus, one of the important components of this study is to assess how participation in the Wilderness Ability Adventure program influences attitudes toward people with disabilities.

Research Questions and Objectives

There are five research questions driving this project.

RQ1: How does participation in the Wilderness Ability Adventure program affect self-efficacy? (self-efficacy)

RQ2: How does the passing of time influence the skills and attitudes learned on a Wilderness Ability Adventure trip? (maintenance)

RQ3: How do the skills and attitudes learned on a Wilderness Ability Adventure trip influence other areas of participant's lives? (transference)

RQ4: How does participation in a Wilderness Ability Adventure trip influence attitudes toward people with disabilities? (attitudinal change)

RQ5: How can the Wilderness Ability Adventure program be improved to better meet its objectives? (programmatic suggestions)

The overall objectives of this study are three-fold. The first objective is to better understand how participation in a specific outdoor adventure program influences individuals self-efficacy strength, maintenance, transference and attitudes toward people with disabilities. A second objective is to provide feedback concerning how effectively the Wilderness Ability Adventure program is meeting its stated goals and to provide suggestions on how the program can be improved. The final objective is related to the exploratory nature of this research project and a desire to use this study as a foundation for future studies.

Methodology

In order to answer the research questions and actualize the objectives, a multifaceted methodology was employed. The study was conducted in three phases. The first phase was designed to provide the researcher with background information about employment issues surrounding people with disabilities. The data for this phase is qualitative in nature and was collected from relatively unstructured interviews conducted

with occupational therapists, rehabilitation therapists and other professionals who might provide insights into this area of inquiry. These interviews provided a foundation and a structure for the more quantitative data. Data from this first phase was also used to construct a question list for the telephone interviews. The second phase was designed to assess how participation in the Wilderness Ability Adventure program influences participant's feelings of self-efficacy and attitudes toward people with disabilities. The efficacy variable was assessed using a self-efficacy instrument developed by Sherer, Maddux, Mercandante, Prentice-Dunn, Jacobs, and Rogers (1986) and attitudes toward people with disabilities will be assessed using a modified version of Yuker, Block, & Young's (1966) Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons Scale (ATDP). Finally, telephone interviews with the participants were conducted. These interviews allowed the researcher to probe about issues surrounding maintenance and transference of skills and attitudes acquired from the program. This qualitative---quantitative--qualitative research design allowed the researcher to explore the topic, design a questionnaire that systematically evaluated the generality of the initial observations, and then deepen these findings through interviews.

Definitions of Key Terms

Self-efficacy: A social learning theory that postulates that human behavior is based on personal mastery expectations that are shaped by past experiences, vicarious learning, emotional arousal and verbal persuasion (Bandura, 1977).

Career Development: A lifelong process of getting ready to choose, choosing, and typically continuing to make choices from among the many occupations available in our society (Brown & Brooks, 1984). This process is determined by the dynamic

interaction between individuals and the contexts where they are embedded.

Career Self-efficacy: A general term meant to summarize the possibility that low expectations of efficacy with respect to some aspect of career behavior (choice, salience, decision making, assertiveness) may serve as a detriment to career development (Betz & Hackett, 1986).

Transference. The process of applying past knowledge and skills to novel situations. In this study, transference is related directly to the degree that a person is able to transfer the skills and attitudes acquired on a wilderness trip back into their everyday life.

Maintenance: The ability of the participant to maintain the skills and attitudes acquired on a wilderness trip over time.

Limitations of the study

Perhaps the most pressing limitation of the study is related to the small sample size. Although this study was designed to sample the entire population that has participated in the Wilderness Ability Adventure trips, this group is a very limited sample population. The most obvious reasons for this small size is directly related to the financial and temporal expenses of the trips. The financial expenses of the trips put The Hartford in situation where the organization is forced to devote a significant amount of resources to the program before they have enough information to make informed decisions regarding the effectiveness of that program. The temporal expenses of the trip are related to the large amount of logistics planning and coordination that occurs prior to any trip. Tasks such as contacting potential participants, scheduling possible dates, hiring staff, and actually conducting the trip taking several weeks of planning. Even though the

sample size is small, the study is not without its merits. Having a limited sample size requires the use of a diverse methodological approach that incorporates quantitative and qualitative data. If conceptualized as a pilot study, this data can be used as a valuable resource to aid in the formulation of future assessment projects that include larger sample sizes.

A second limitation of the study is related to it being partially funded by The Hartford, the insurance provider of the disabled participants. Stories of insurance companies using information about their claimants to adjust their claims may have restricted the types of responses that participants wanted to share with a researcher associated with The Hartford. This concern is especially applicable given the highly charged environment surrounding issues of employability and compensation. To partially offset these concerns, the researcher strove to clearly communicate what the data gained from the study will be used for and to guarantee that the participant responses would be kept confidential. Even with these security measures in place, subjects sometimes appeared to be somewhat guarded in their responses.

A third possible limitation is related to having the assessment done by a researcher that is closely connected to WI. Having worked at WI as a trail staff, the researcher is intimately involved with the organization. This connection might influence the types of conclusions that are drawn from the data. Commenting on situations like these where the researcher is closely connected to the project, Hattie, Marsh, Neill, and Richards (1997) assert that a number of research articles on wilderness adventure programs read more like program advertisements than research. Playing the dual role of advocate and researcher can restrict the types of criticism that are offered by academics

and implicitly serves to undermine the authority of research results. Having articulated this problem, the connection between the researcher and the providing agency still stands and should be taken into consideration when evaluating the results of this assessment.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Following the same format of the chapters to follow, the literature review is organized according to the four research questions outlined in chapter one. First, the concept of self-efficacy is reviewed and placed within a career development model advanced by Szymanski and Hanley-Maxwell (1996). The relationship between efficacy and employment is not explicitly addressed by the data in this project. Therefore, it is critical to establish and review this relationship in this chapter. Next, maintenance and transference are positioned as similar constructs and are jointly reviewed. Finally, studies concentrating on attitudes towards people with disabilities will be reviewed and related to the study at hand.

Self-Efficacy Theory

Working within the social learning perspective, Bandura's (1977, 1986) theory of self-efficacy is based on the notion that people learn from experiences and apply that knowledge to novel situations. The theory postulates that behavioral change is based on the expectations that an individual holds concerning her or his level of personal mastery or self-efficacy. These expectations form the basis of an individual's self-efficacy, setting the bounds for possible and probable behaviors.

Self-efficacy is defined by Bandura as the strength of an individual's belief that he or she can successfully accomplish a specific. Bandura differentiates between efficacy expectations which are directed to a persons belief that she or he is capable of

successfully completing a specific task and outcome expectations which are related to the belief that behavior will or will not lead to a given outcome. In other words, if a person asks “Can I successfully complete this task” his or her answer is based on efficacy expectations. The question, “Once I complete this task, will the consequences be rewarding” can be answered based on outcome expectations.

Bandura asserts that information about self-efficacy expectancies comes from four different sources: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. Performance accomplishments are thought to be the most powerful of these sources because they are based on personal mastery experiences. After repeated success in a variety of situations, an individual tends to approach novel situations with feelings of strong efficacy expectations. Likewise, repeated failures or perceived failures lower expectations. However, the timing of the success or failure directly influences the outcome. For instance, initial failures that are overcome can strengthen persistence and expectations if the individual attributes the ability to overcome the hardship to personal mastery and sustained effort. Also, Bandura, Jeffrey, and Gajdas (1975) found that a history of success in one area can be generalized to other areas in the individual’s life. Thus, the confidence gained from one experience can positively influence the expectations that the individual holds for novel situations.

Vicarious experience is another antecedent of efficacy expectations. Bandura asserts that seeing others successfully perform specific activities can influence an individual’s expectation that they too will improve if they persist in their efforts. Vicarious experiences also influence expectations that people place on each other. Expectations based on limited exposure or stereotypes can be altered when the person in

question successfully completes a specific task. Thus, vicarious learning directly influences the social mediating variable's articulated in the career development model that will be reviewed in the next section. Notions of what people with disabilities can and can't do are influenced through vicarious learning. Verbal persuasion and emotional arousal are the last two sources of information that form efficacy expectations. Basically, research has found that these variables are most influential when they are accompanied by either performance accomplishments or vicarious learning. Thus, suggesting to a person that they can accomplish a specific task is not as influential as the suggestion coupled with successful completion of the task. A model developed by Betz (1994) that visually depicts self-efficacy theory is included in Table 1.

Career Development Theories

There are numerous theories of career development found in the academic and professional literature. The bulk of these theories have been developed in vocational rehabilitation and occupational therapy; however, theorists in psychology, sociology, and counseling have also contributed significantly to this body of knowledge. Basically these theories can be categorized according to the unit of analysis that they seek to understand. For instance, the psychologically based theories typically isolate individual variables such as self-esteem, risk taking propensity, or personality characteristics as salient variables that influence career development. Accordingly, sociological theories are more concerned with the macro level of analysis, focusing on factors such gender construction, class, or race. The wide range of theories that these different viewpoints advance have resulted in a field that is rich in diversity,

Table 1**Self Efficacy Theory**

but somewhat lacking in convergence.

Recently, Szymanski and Hanley-Maxwell (1996) developed a conceptual model that integrates these varying perspectives into a comprehensive framework. They advance a theoretical position that encompasses both the micro and the macro, arguing that career development is a process that is best understood by accounting for the way in which a specific individual with a variety of skills, experiences and traits interacts within a specific environment. Obviously, this model is far from parsimonious, sacrificing concrete predictions for in-depth explanations. The authors posit that “the combination of the heterogeneity of individuals with disabilities and the dynamic nature of career development mitigates against the direct applicability of career development theories” (p. 49). According to the Szymanski and Hanley-Maxwell model, career development entails interaction between the individual, context, mediating, environmental, and output factors. These five areas are conceptually distinct from each other, but they are intertwined and interdependent in everyday life. A visual representation of the model is presented in Table 2.

Individual factors are relatively enduring physical and psychological attributes that the person brings to a specific environment such as gender, race, ability level, and personality traits. Contextual factors relate to the macro socioeconomic factors that are external to the person. Class, familial structures, method of schooling, relevant legislation, and economic climate all can be placed within this category. Mediating factors are related to factors that effect the relationship between the person and a specific

environment. Work environment factors describe aspects of the organizational culture such as

Table 2-B**Ecological Model of Career Development**

reinforcement structures, peer support, access to work tasks, or job accommodation. Output factors are the results of interactions of groups of other factors. Persistence, satisfaction, productivity and competitiveness are a few examples of output factors.

This model is beneficial for several reasons. It highlights the need to take a variety of possible outcomes into consideration. Most models position employment as the only successful outcome of career development; however, given the relationship between the individual and the environment a host of possible outcomes can be considered. For instance, a positive outcome for an individual may entail quitting a negative job and seeking a better one. Or it might include taking an early retirement in order to focus more on self development and family. A second benefit of the model is that career development is depicted as a life-long process that includes a wide range of experiences. A third important aspect of the model is that it seeks to account for the fluid and complex interaction between individuals and their environments. Focusing both on individual factors such as self-concept or self-esteem and societal factors such as gender stereotyping, the model encourages researchers to consider the interaction between the environment and the individual. The model leaves room for individual agency without failing to account for structural influences.

This study will focus on the mediating factors that influence career development. These factors are relevant to the study given that the dependent variables all can be conceptualized as mediating factors. Szamanski and Hanley-Maxwell (1996) differentiate between individual, social, and environmental mediating factors. Individual mediating factors are behavior patterns and personal beliefs about abilities. Self-concept, work history, self-efficacy, and career maturity are all relevant to this area. The

difference between these individual mediating factors and the individual factors mentioned above is that these relate more directly to a specific environment. For instance, a person may have high self-concept in one area of their life (family or education) and low self-concept in another (work or friendships). Thus, these factors mediate between the environment and the individual. Social mediating factors include culture, religious beliefs, or stereotypes that effect interactions between individuals and environments. Environmental mediating factors include outcome expectations based on world-view generalizations. These factors directly relate to beliefs about what happens or what is expected to happen in the workplace.

Efficacy and Career Development

Klint (1990) demonstrates that self-efficacy has three dimensions: magnitude, generality, and strength. Each of these three dimensions are directly related to career development. Magnitude relates to the perceived difficulty of tasks that a person faces. A person may have high efficacy on simple tasks, but low self-efficacy on more difficult tasks. Generality refers to the degree to “which one limits or extends self-efficacy levels to different situations” (p. 165). This area is similar to the transference variable being studied in this assessment and is especially important given that the skills and attitudes learned in the Wilderness Ability Adventure program are not directly related to specific career development behaviors. Finally, strength relates to how long a person will maintain high efficacious feelings in the face of adverse situations. This variable is closely related to the maintenance variable in the current assessment project.

Betz and Hackett (1986) assert that Bandura’s theory of self efficacy is especially useful for career interventions because the theory is positioned within the social learning

framework. Thus, identifying the causes of a specific problem simultaneously identifies the “cure.” In other words, developing stronger self-efficacy expectations relies on interventions that enhance learning in the four sources of efficacy information (performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, emotional arousal) oriented toward the three dimensions of efficacy (strength, magnitude, generality). Applying this theory to women, Hackett & Betz (1981), demonstrated how information received through socialization encourages or discourages consideration of male-dominated careers. They assert that women who lack successful performance accomplishments or vicarious learning opportunities often underestimate their ability to succeed in male-dominated fields. Applying similar arguments to people with Multiple Sclerosis (MS), Roessler and Rumrill (1994) argue that negative performance accomplishments often experienced by people with MS tend to decrease their feelings of self-efficacy. The authors suggest that these negative performance accomplishments are spurred on by the lack of predictability of MS symptoms and the resulting uncertainty about one’s life and future. These decreased feelings of self efficacy result in less frequent proactive behaviors that are required to maintain one’s career.

One of the drawbacks to studying these complex issues from a psychological standpoint is that there might be a tendency to take a “blame the victim” approach (Becker & Schaller, 1995). People who are unemployed or under employed could be positioned as being solely responsible for their employment situation. One way that Bandura’s theory of self-efficacy addresses this problem is that it explicitly takes context and sociological environment into consideration (Lent & Hackett, 1987). These considerations are also given importance when self-efficacy theory is placed within the

career development model advanced by Szymanski and Hanley-Maxwell (1996). One way that the assessment of the Wilderness Ability Adventure program addresses this area is that it strives to assess how participation in the outdoor program influences perceptions of people with disabilities. These environmental and societal perceptions are important to understand given that they directly influence the work environment factors such as access to work tasks and organizational culture.

The picture that emerges from self-efficacy theory as it relates to the career development of people with disabilities is a complicated and somewhat sobering one. According to self-efficacy theory, expectations can be a strong influence on socialization that help shape conceptions of career limitations and possibilities. Due to physical, emotional and societal constraints, a person with a disability may receive biased information and be exposed to a limited range of experiences that influence career self-efficacy. These constraints may result in the internalization of weak self-efficacy expectations that in themselves may serve to limit the future experiences that a person is willing to undertake. The flip side to this process is that positive experiences can serve to enhance a person's self-efficacy, expanding the range of experiences conceptualized as possible. Hence, the cause is also the cure. The current study seeks to document how one positive experience can affect an individual's overall sense of self-efficacy.

Maintenance and Transference of Learning

According to Cormier & Hagman (1987), transfer of learning occurs whenever prior learned knowledge and skills influence the way in which new knowledge and skills are acquired and performed. Positive transfer occurs when learning or performance is enhanced due to the transfer and negative transfer occurs when learning or performance

is impeded.

All forms of learning involve some aspect of transference, even if a person is performing a task that they have successfully completed several times before. For instance, when I sit down at the computer I transfer to that experience the base of experiential knowledge related to using the keyboard. The success or failure from each of these past computer experiences influences the way in which I approach the task at hand and the way I will approach the task in the future. Thus, there is a close relationship between maintenance of skills and the ability to continually transfer those skills to new situations and experiences. In this fashion, maintenance can be conceptualized as a sub-category of transference and will be simultaneously discussed in this section.

Hunter (1971) asserts that there are two types of transference: specific and general. Specific transference occurs when the skill or task that is learned is directly applied to the completion of a closely related task. For instance, participants on the Wilderness Ability Adventure typically get the opportunity to paddle in the bow and the stern. If a participant starts in the bow and moves to the stern after a few hours, they will most likely transfer the skills learned in the bow to the stern. General or non-specific transference occurs when an experience influences a wide range of knowledge's and skills that are not directly related to the original experience. Bruner (1960) asserts that general transference is different than specific because general often relates to learning an idea or principle that influences behaviors in other arenas while specific transfer most often relates to learning a specific skill. Hunter (1971) asserts that general transfer is similar to associational learning that occurs when two things that are seemingly different are combined through a common experience. These associations form the backbone of

the advertisement industry where people are encouraged to form opinions about products based on the positive feelings that they have for the advertisement itself. For instance, the relationship between people in skimpy clothes and beer is not directly apparent, yet the associations that are formed by those skimpy clothes are thought to influence an individual's choice of beer. Advertisers are hoping that by encouraging consumers to form positive or negative associations in the presence of their products, the knowledge and beliefs about that product can be transferred into new situations.

Gass (1990) presents metaphoric transfer as a third transfer theory. He describes this type of transfer as taking place when “the principles being transferred in this theory are not common or the same in structure, but are similar, analogous or metaphorical” (p. 201). Metaphoric transfer is especially important for outdoor education because the environment where the learning takes place is often radically different from the retrieval environment. To best understand how metaphoric transfer functions in outdoor education, it is important to first understand how metaphors themselves function as linguistic and experiential tools.

Morgan (1986) argues that metaphors imply a “way of thinking” and “way of seeing” that pervades how we understand our world. Metaphors aid interpretation of events by allowing meanings from one context to be applied to the understanding of another (Smith & Turner, 1995). Thus, they function to draw attention to some likeness or difference between two or more things (Davidson, 1979). This juxtaposing quality not only enables social actors to perceive similarity and difference between two seemingly unrelated events, it also allows for the novel creation of meaning that elevates understanding above the level of literal interpretation.

The most common metaphor employed by scholars to describe how metaphors themselves function is that of a mental picture or frame. Sackmann (1989) asserts that these mental pictures function on the cognitive, behavioral, and emotional level. “The specific use of metaphor in new contexts may legitimize behaviors, and its attributed meanings may make certain behaviors more attractive or unattractive” (p. 465). Adding to this position, Deetz and Mumby (1985) assert that while metaphors function to structure experience and frame understanding, they don’t necessarily provide the actor with a prespecified image. Thus, the metaphor structures experience while still creating a space whereby the listener can actively construct their own interpretation of the situation. In this fashion, one metaphor may substitute for a thousand words as the metaphor draws upon the experience of an entire situation instead of being related to a single variable (Sackmann, 1989).

In sum, from the literature we can glean the following conclusions about transference of learning. Transference involves applying past knowledge and expertise to novel situations and experiences. There are three types of transference: specific, general and metaphoric. Typically outdoor education programs are concerned with the general and metaphoric transference given the emotional and physical distance between the learning environment and the retrieval environment. General transference functions primarily by process of association whereby an underlying principle or idea from one experience is generalized and applied to a novel experience. Metaphoric transference functions by juxtaposing two frames of reference with a perceived similarity or difference. The initial frame can be explicitly stated and reinforced throughout the outdoor education experience, but the individual learner completes the metaphor by

constructing his or her own interpretation of the novel situation based on the initial frame. Thus, metaphors are flexible, yet powerful linguistic tools that can serve to bridge the gap between the outdoor education experience and the everyday life of the participant.

Transference and outdoor education.

Gass argues that understanding and properly implementing transference in adventure education is critical to the success of the field. Dozens of researchers have sought to demonstrate how participation in an adventure education program influences the attitudes and knowledge of participants. An underlying assumption of many of these studies is that the wilderness experience will have some enduring influence on the participants. One of the areas of adventure education that has extensively studied the transference of skills and attitudes is corporate adventure training (Galagan, 1987; Long, 1984; Long, 1987; Petrini, 1990).

Much of the research on corporate adventure training programs is being done by Simon Priest and a collection of his colleagues at the corporate adventure training institute (CATI) located at Brock University in Canada. The research being produced by this collection of scholars can be differentiated according to the level of analysis that it seeks to explain: the individual, the team or small group, and the organization. Reflecting current organizational trends that stress team management and development, the scholars at CATI have focused primarily on the work team. Employing both quantitative and qualitative methods, researchers found that adventure training can be an effective means of developing teams when follow-up procedures and properly trained

instructors are employed. They have found that learning team building skills and conflict negotiation strategies in adventure education settings can transfer back to the workplace when explicit transfer techniques are employed (Gass, Goldman, Priest, 1992). In other studies, they also found that adventure training can help change organizational climate (organizational level) and increase risk taking propensity (individual level) (Priest, Attarian, & Schubert, 1993).

One study conducted by Priest and Lesperance (1994) specifically addressed the role of follow-up procedures in the longevity of teamwork skills learned during a 48 hour outdoor education training program. Three different work teams received varying follow-up procedures: no follow-up, self-chosen follow-up, and self-facilitating. The subjects were tested several times during the actual program, at 2 weeks, 4 weeks, 3 months and 6 months after the program. By running a repeated measures ANOVA, researchers found that all experimental groups experienced an immediate and slight drop in teamwork levels two-weeks after completion of the program. Six months after the program, the team that didn't receive any follow-up training reverted back to baseline control levels, while the other two teams increased levels of team work that were maintained throughout the six month period. This suggests that the improvements gained by participation in an outdoor education program may be lost without follow-up support.

Attitudes Toward People With Disabilities

The study of attitudes toward people with disabilities has a long history in social science with most of the data substantiating the assumption that people with disabilities are often viewed in a less favorable manner than people without disabilities. Even

though there have been numerous studies supporting this claim and attributing it to stereotypic attitudes held by specific populations, Donaldson (1980) argues that little research has been conducted on understanding how those attitudes can be changed. The author presents six techniques that have been used to produce attitudinal change: direct contact with people with disabilities, information about disabilities, persuasive messages, disability simulations, and group discussions. Interestingly, these techniques are very similar to the variables that lead to self-efficacy change reviewed earlier in this chapter. Of these techniques, direct contact and information concerning people with disabilities are the most common, and the techniques used in the Wilderness Ability Adventure program. These two techniques are reviewed in the following section.

Donaldson (1980) asserts that contact with people with disabilities does not necessarily guarantee positive attitudinal change. In fact, some types of contact can result in shifts toward more negative attitudes. One factor that seems to influence the success of the interaction is related to social status between the members of an integrated group or dyad. Equal status relationships whereby the persons with a disability is approximately equal in social, educational, or vocational status significantly influences the degree of positive attitudinal change. Relating this factor back to outdoor education, the need for all members of an adventure group to significantly contribute to the group is emphasized. Voeltz (1980, 1982) adds that structured interactions whereby persons with disabilities are introduced in short time periods to people without disabilities also results in at least short term attitudinal modification. Receiving information about specific disabilities can also encourage attitudinal change. In the case of the Wilderness Ability Adventure program, participants learn about what it is like to live with a disability

through intimate interactions with people with disabilities.

Yuker (1988) presents several factors that influence the degree to which these various techniques result in positive attitudinal change including characteristics of the person with a disability, characteristics of the person without a disability and interaction variables. For the person with a disability, attractiveness, competence, social skills, communication skills, and personality all are mediating factors that influence attitudinal change. Characteristics of the person without a disability include prior beliefs and attitudes, occupation, personality characteristics, and status relative to the person with a disability. Perhaps the most important factors to take into consideration for the Wilderness Ability Adventure program are the interaction variables because the structure of the program partially determines these factors. Yuker asserts that encouraging cooperation where group members are working together toward a common goal, creating personal and intimate interaction, establishing helping relationships where both members can help each other, and setting positive norms are all important interaction variables.

Much of the academic research in outdoor education that addresses people with disabilities focuses on segregated programs that are comprised solely of people with disabilities (Schleien, McAvoy, Lais, & Rynders, 1993). This research is difficult to apply to the Wilderness Ability Adventure program given that the groups in the program were integrated, containing persons with and without disabilities. Much of the academic research that addresses integrated groups has been conducted at Wilderness Inquiry, the sponsoring organization for the Wilderness Ability Adventure program. According to the WI Staff Manual, one of the objectives of the organization is to use the wilderness as a mechanism to encourage social and physical integration. This mission is implemented

and encouraged at every phase of the adventure from the time participants are contacted in pre-trip calls to the completion of the trip. In one of the most comprehensive studies conducted in conjunction with WI, McAvoy, Schatz, Stutz, Schleien, and Lais (1989) found that integrated outdoor education can encourage a wide range of attitudes and ideas. The researchers interviewed 40 participants of varying level of abilities directly after completion of a WI trip. They found that the trip encouraged positive changes in attitudes toward people of varying abilities, strengthened interpersonal relationships, encouraged risk taking propensity, increased goal setting abilities and tolerance to stress.

Building on the findings of this study, Schleien et al (1993) argue that integrated outdoor education and adventure programs are important for four reasons. First, the authors argue that individuals with disabilities learn social skills necessary for mainstreamed life. When learned in an integrated environment, these skills help people without disabilities overcome personal fears and apprehension that they might have concerning interacting with people with disabilities. Second, outdoor education programs provide individuals opportunities to make meaningful contributions and build self-esteem (see Schleien, Fahnestock, Green & Rynders, 1990). The programs often involve the completion of tasks that are different from everyday tasks, this difference allows people to find new ways of being productive members of a group. This situation also encourages people without disabilities to reconceptualize traditional notions of productivity, allowing for people with a wide range of abilities to successfully contribute to the group. Third, Schleien et al. (1993) assert that integrated programming is cost effective compared to the high cost of segregated programming. Finally, the authors argue that learning about and understanding the natural world are critical to an

individual's quality of life. Access to the wilderness is especially important for people with disabilities who are often limited in their leisure choices.

The research conducted on integrated programs, coupled with the rationale for the programming presented above, suggests that these outdoor adventure programs are beneficial in a number of areas. However, more research is needed to better understand the specific circumstances that influence attitudes toward people with disabilities.

Chapter 3

Methodology and Background

Miles and Huberman (1984) suggest that at the outset of a research project a researcher should have at least a rudimentary conceptual framework, a set of general research questions, some notions about sampling and a collection of initial data-gathering devices. The first two chapters outlined the conceptual framework and presented the set of general research questions and related dependent variables that will be addressed in this study. This chapter includes plans about sampling procedures, data collection, and data analysis. After presenting the sampling procedures employed for the study, this section will be organized according to the dependent variables that were positioned in the first chapter. These four variables are self-efficacy strength, transference, maintenance, and attitudes toward people with disabilities. Each dependent variable will be addressed, explaining how data related to that variable will be collected, analyzed and displayed. The chapter concludes with a section that presents background data that was collected on the first two trips. This data will provide a context and historical foundation for the current assessment project.

Methodology

In order to answer the research questions and actualize the objectives, a multifaceted methodology is employed. This methodology was implemented in three phases. The first phase was designed to provide the researcher with background information about employment issues surrounding people with disabilities. The data for this phase was qualitative in nature and was collected from semi-structured interviews with occupational therapists, rehabilitation therapists and other related professionals. These interviews provided a foundation and a structure for the more quantitative data. The second phase was designed to test how participation in the outdoor adventure program effected individual's feelings of self-efficacy and attitudes toward people with disabilities. Issuing appropriate surveys to all of the participants assessed these two variables. Finally, telephone interviews with the participants were conducted. These interviews allowed the researcher to probe with questions about the maintenance and generalizability of the skills and attitudes learned on the Wilderness Ability Adventure trip.

Providing support for methodologies that link qualitative and quantitative data, Miles and Huberman (1984) assert that the qualitative---quantitative--qualitative design is beneficial for several reasons. First, qualitative data can help the quantitative design of a study by aiding in conceptual development and instrumentation. Qualitative data also aids in the interpretations and clarification of quantitative findings. Perhaps the most obvious benefit of this design is that it allowed the researcher to explore the topic, design a questionnaire that systematically evaluates the generality of the initial observations, and then deepen these findings through interviews. An overview of the three-phase

methodology is presented in Table 3-A.

This three-step approach is especially beneficial given that this is an exploratory, quasi-experimental, study that is seeking to provide a foundation and baseline for future studies. This approach was also advantageous given that the assessment project is being designed and implemented midway through the Wilderness Ability Adventure program. This assessment project was initiated after the first two trips had already occurred, hindering the ability to implement the more common pretest-posttest design.

Before the study was actually conducted, the researcher gained approval for the program of research from the University of Minnesota's Human Subject Review Committee. The application for approval is included in Appendix 3-I.

Sampling Procedures

Several different sampling techniques were used to identify possible subjects for the study. Snowball or chain sampling (Patton, 1990) was used to identify the eight vocational therapists, occupational therapists, and recreation therapists to be interviewed for the study. The snowball technique functions by pre-identifying a small number of possible subjects (2 or 3), interviewing them, and then asking them to identify other professionals whom might contribute to the body of knowledge. In this manner, the sample grows and diversifies as different professional contacts are made and used in the study. The snowball technique is especially advantageous when conducting elite interviews that can be difficult to conduct without the endorsement of another professional (Patton, 1990).

TABLE 3-A: Overview of Methodology**PHASE ONE**

Information Sought	Population	Instrument or Method	Analysis
<i>Identification of the barriers to employment that people with disabilities face.</i>	Elite group of occupational therapists, recreation therapists, and career counselors.	Elite interview script (qualitatively designed)	Thematic Analysis
<i>Feedback on instrument for follow-up telephone interviews.</i>	Pilot group	Dialogue guided by the development of the qualitative self-efficacy instrument.	Direct feedback from interview participants.

PHASE TWO

Dependent Variable	Population	Instrument	Analysis
<i>Career Self-Efficacy (Strength)</i>	Trip Participants	Self-efficacy Scale developed by Sherer et al.	Descriptive Statistics
<i>Maintenance</i>	Trip participants divided up into four sub-groups depending on date of trip.	Self-efficacy Scale developed by Sherer et al.	Anova with four longitudinal categories
<i>Attitudes toward people with disabilities</i>	Trip Participants	ATDP Scale developed by Yuker, Block & Youngg.	Descriptive Statistics

PHASE THREE

Dependent Variable	Population	Instrument	Analysis
<i>Maintenance</i>	Trip Participants	Telephone follow-up question list	Qualitative coding scheme
<i>Transference</i>	Trip Participants	Telephone follow-up question list	Qualitative coding scheme
<i>Attitudes toward people with disabilities</i>	Trip Participants	Telephone follow-up question list	Qualitative coding scheme
<i>Feedback about program implementation and design</i>	Trip Participants	Telephone follow-up question list	Qualitative coding scheme

Research subjects were pre-selected based on their participation in the Wilderness Ability Adventure program. The Hartford was responsible for identifying qualified claimants, employees, brokers and agents. Claimants were selected based on nominations that are filed by one of the insurance agents working on their claim or the rehabilitation counselor working with the claimant. These field-based nominations allowed employees who work closely with claimants to identify people who might benefit from the program. The Hartford employees were selected by the public relations office based on a number of issues such as the number of disabled people the employee works with, the identification of possible underwriters of disabled claims, and the identification of employees who might directly benefit from this type of experience. Employees of The Hartford who conduct business with the organizations that the brokers represent selected the brokers who went on the trip.

The total number of subjects who participated in at least one of the three phases of the study was 46, this number includes the elite interviews conducted in phase one. Number of possible subjects in the participant group was 43, including all participants from the Maine canoe trip, the BWCA dogsledding trip, the Yellowstone canoe trip, and the Everglades canoe trip. This low sample size severely restricted the types of statistical conclusions that can be drawn from the data due to the low power associated with small sample sizes. However, this small size is directly related to the financial, temporal, and logistical costs associated with each trip. Not only do these trips cost quite a bit of money, they also require participants to leave their homes for an extended period of time. It is hoped that the intensive research design employed in this study partially offsets this restriction by enabling the researcher to concentrate on a small number of participants in

terms of a large number of individual properties. Murrow (1994) notes that within this type of intensive research design “the primary question becomes that of explicating the operations of causal processes and meaning structures in a single or limited number of cases” (p. 250). The flexibility that a smaller sample size allows is especially advantageous given that this was an exploratory study. The depth of knowledge gained from this intensive method will offset the inability to make broad generalizations and statistical conclusions that is sacrificed due to the small sample size.

Self-efficacy Instrument. All participants in the program were mailed a widely used and accepted instrument that is based on the self-efficacy scale developed by Sherer et al. (1986). The instrument is composed of 23 items that are broken down into two categories: general self-efficacy and social self-efficacy (Appendix 3-II). General self-efficacy relates to an individual’s tendency to relate past experiences of success and failure to novel situations. Thus, the authors posit that “individuals with histories of varied and numerous expectancies of success may be expected to have positive self-efficacy expectations in a greater variety of situations than individuals with experiences of limited success and failure” (p. 664). The general self-efficacy aspect is extremely important to the study being conducted because one of the assumptions under-girding the Wilderness Ability Adventure program is that increased efficacy on the trips results in higher levels of efficacy related specifically to job acquisition and career development actions. Social self-efficacy relates to an individual’s tendency to carry conceptions of success or failures of past social experiences into present social relationships. This aspect of the instrument aligns closely with the attitudes toward people with disabilities component of the study. The authors found that this dual conceptualization of self-

efficacy is strongly related to notions of ego strength, self-esteem, interpersonal competence, and locus of control.

Participants from the first three trips (Maine, BWCA and Yellowstone) were mailed a packet of information about the study that included a general description of the study, a consent form, a request that they participate in the follow-up interviews, and a copy of the instrument (Appendix 3-III). Participants from the Everglades trip were issued a similar packet of information and asked to complete it directly after their Wilderness experience. WI staff on the Everglades trip were given instructions on how to administer the questionnaire to the participants and collect the results. The written directions given to the WI staff for how the questionnaire should be administered is included in Appendix 3-IV. In order to ensure a higher response rate and to arrange times to conduct the follow-up interviews, the researcher promptly called each trip participant on the telephone within three weeks after the instruments were mailed. After several telephone calls, those participant who weren't contacted were mailed a postcard reinforcing the importance of their input and encouraging them to participate in the study.

The above stated research design was used for a host of pragmatic reasons. First, it was not possible to implement a pretest-post test design because the assessment project was introduced retroactively after three of the trips had already occurred. Next, a treatment-control design was proposed in order to provide a statistical baseline for the study, but due to coordination issues with The Hartford, the control group was never formed. The lack of a statistical baseline reinforced the need for a strong qualitative component for the study and the researcher responded by increasing the number of telephone interview participants and lengthening the follow-up interview script.

Validity of instrument. To assess the construct validity of the self-efficacy scale, Sherer et al correlated the instrument With measures of several other personality characteristics. Some of those other measures were the Internal-External Control Scale (Rotter, 1966), the Personal Control Subscale (Gurin, Gurin, Lao & Beattie, 1969), the Ego Strength Scale (Barron, 1953), and a Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965). The authors found that the self-efficacy scale was moderately positively correlated to all of the scales tested, providing evidence that the scale is measuring a concept that is related to the measures tested. In order to assess the criterion validity of the scale, Sherer et al sought to provide evidence that higher scores on the self-efficacy scale are positively related to past success in vocational, educational, and military areas. The researchers had 150 inpatients from a Veterans Administration Medical Center complete the self-efficacy scale and a demographic questionnaire. The demographic questionnaire sought to measure vocational, educational, and military success. Results from the demographic questionnaire were then correlated to scores on the self-efficacy scale. The researchers found that subjects who had high scores on the scale were more likely to be employed, to have quit fewer jobs, and to have been fired fewer times than subjects who had low scores were. Thus, the results provided evidence of criterion validity for the self-efficacy scale.

Maintenance of skills and attitudes. Data from the self-efficacy instrument reviewed above allowed the researcher to track the effects of the program over a two year time period. To enable this tracking, the treatment population was divided into four longitudinal groups: the August 1995 Maine canoe trip, the February 1996 BWCA dogsled trip, the September 1996 Yellowstone trip, and the March 1997 Everglades trip.

The results of the self-efficacy instrument were analyzed using an analysis of variance test structured with four temporal groupings using time as the fixed variable and the results of the self-efficacy and attitudes toward people with disabilities instruments as the dependent variables. This test allowed the researcher to determine statistical differences between the four groups.

Qualitative telephone interviews. Both maintenance and transference were assessed through qualitative telephone interviews. In the case of the maintenance variable, the telephone interviews allowed the researcher to probe how the trip effected and continues to effect participants. Throughout the interviews, the researcher sought to also identify a host of intervening variables that might have influenced the longitudinal effects of participation. The transference section of the interview focused on identifying areas of the participant's lives that were influenced by the program. One area specifically addressed in this section of the interview was the work-life variable. The researcher attempted to understand how participation in the program influenced how participants work or pursue work. The qualitative method used for these interviews is advantageous for the maintenance and transference variables given the wide range of possible intervening variables and areas of influence. The flexibility of the open-ended responses allowed the researcher to tailor the interview script to each interviewee.

Construction of question list. The construction of the question list for the qualitative telephone interviews was framed by data drawn from interviews with eight rehabilitation and occupational therapy professionals. The interviews ranged from 30-90 minutes in length. These elite interviews followed a semi-structured script designed to supply some regularity to the interviews without restricting the possible range of

responses (Appendix 3-V). Questions on this script were designed to aid in the identification of barriers to employment that people with disabilities face. Adding support to this semi-structured method, Mishler (1986) argues that the relevance and appropriateness of questions arise in the course of the interview. Thus, the elite interviews were much closer to a dialogues between two people striving to understand a situation or event than they were to a formulaic question and answer period designed to elicit a set number of responses. This discourse-oriented approach encouraged the development of shared meaning between the interviewer and interviewee, the fundamental objective of this source of data. The information from the elite interviews provided a strong foundation for the current study, but it also aided the identification of sailable variables that might be evaluated in future studies. The interviews were used to generate a list of barriers to employment that people with disabilities face and a list of corresponding intervention strategies that are being used to overcome these barriers. This list of barriers and strategies is included in Appendix 3-VI. The consent form for these interviews is included in Appendix 3-VII.

An effort was made to keep the follow-up question list structured enough to facilitate accurate and reliable coding, but unstructured enough to allow for novel ideas to arise throughout the discussion. In general, the interview script was designed to progress from a more structured format using easily answered questions about the trip and a set of Likert scale questions, to a more unstructured format using open ended questions and follow-up probes. Donaghy (1984) asserts that this progressively less structured design is advantageous because it allows the interviewee to slowly progress into the interview, gaining trust in the interviewer and becoming more comfortable with the format before

being asked to respond to in-depth open ended questions. This design is also beneficial because it insures that each interviewee responds to a set of questions using identical responses. These responses form a baseline for data interpretation. The interview script and question list is included in Appendix 3-VIII.

The interviews were piloted on seven people. Four of the people in the pilot group had extensive knowledge of outdoor education programs and three did not. Each pilot subject completed the telephone interview as if they were an actual participant and offered suggestions concerning the question script. The pilot subjects gave feedback both on the script and on the interview style used by the researcher. This feedback was invaluable to the construction of the final interview script and provided the researcher with an opportunity to practice his interviewing skills.

Telephone Interviews. Upon completion of the elite interviews and administration of the self-efficacy instrument, telephone interviews were conducted with 32 trip participants. All 43 trip participants were contacted and asked to participate in the study, but 11 of them chose not to because of a host of factors including scheduling conflicts, personal problems, or lack of desire to participate in the project. The interviews ranged from 15-45 minutes with the average interview lasting 23 minutes.

Analysis of telephone interviews. Each interview was recorded and transcribed, resulting in over 100 pages of single spaced transcriptions. In order to reduce the data and compile it in meaningful categories, the transcriptions were thematically coded. The codes were constructed using suggestions from Strauss and Corbin (1990), Lincoln and Guba (1985), and Miles and Huberman (1994) Before the interviews were conducted, the researcher compiled a list of possible themes that he thought might

emerge throughout the course of the interviews. These themes were drawn jointly from the literature on outdoor adventure programs and the data from the elite interviews. As the interviews progressed, the researcher continually reviewed the transcriptions seeking to update the list of themes and to generate new categories. Once the interviews were completed and the transcriptions done, the interviewer read over the scripts and began assigning labels to the various statements. Periodically throughout this process the coding list was reviewed and more abstract categories were attributed to several incidents or observations. In this fashion, the coding list grew and changed as the coding process progressed. When the coding list was somewhat complete, the transcriptions were thoroughly analyzed by the researcher. An independent coder was then asked to code 30% of the transcriptions. The coder and the researcher agreed on the same code 84% of the time.

Attitudes toward disabled people scale. In order to assess the attitudes toward people with disabilities of the participants, a modified version of the attitudes toward disabled persons (ATDP) scale developed by Yuker, Block, and Youngg (1966) was administered. The instrument was mailed out to all trip participants along with the self-efficacy instrument and the packet of information explaining the research project. According to Antonak and Livneh (1988) the ATDP is the best known and most widely used of the scales designed to measure attitudes toward people with disabilities in general. The scale is designed to measure both attitudes of people without disabilities toward physically disabled people as well as measuring attitudes of people with disabilities toward themselves. The authors report that the ATDP scale is largely reliable, but there have been some concerns presented in regards to its validity. Researchers have

argued that the scale is susceptible to faking in order that subjects can appear to be demonstrating socially desirable behaviors. Even though there are questions about its validity, the scale has stood the test of time and is still widely used and accepted by researchers.

For the purposes of this study, the original scale was slightly modified by the researcher to reflect current semantic preferences (e.g. changing handicapped people to persons with disabilities). For length issues the scale was also reduced from 30 items to 15 items. The original scale is included in Appendix 3-IX and the modified version is included in Appendix 3-X.

Attitudes toward people with disabilities follow-up. Questions related to how participation in the program might have affected attitudes toward people with disabilities were also included in the telephone interviews. The open-ended questions are well suited to eliciting responses from people about subjects that are possibly sensitive in nature. The open-ended questions allow participants to justify and contextualize their answers, resulting in the possible identification of subtle differences that may exist between participants. Responses to these questions were also analyzed using the thematically coding scheme outlined above.

Wilderness Program Descriptions

The past section outlined the methodology that will be applied in the study, the next section presents a brief contextualization for the assessment project. Each trip itinerary is presented, followed by a brief description of the group composition, the site where the trip occurred and the activities that the group undertook. An overview of location, dates, composition and activity of each trip is presented in table 3-B.

Trip Itineraries. The itinerary for each trip was basically the same regardless of the activity or the location. Typically a portion of the first day was devoted to skill training and development. Participants were introduced to the activity that was undertaken and basic skills (paddling strokes, skiing techniques, etc.) were reviewed and presented. Safety issues were also covered with waterbound trip participants passing the infamous tip test whereby canoeists are capsized in shallow water and taught how to safely right the canoe and paddle to shore. The first day typically concluded with an expectations talk that was designed to provide participants a forum to discuss what they hope to learn from the experience and voice any possible concerns. The second, third and possibly fourth days of the trip were spent going on the wilderness adventure. Typically throughout the trip, participants were encouraged to take an active role in the decision making process. Thus, the trail staff attempt to tailor the trip to the wants and needs of the unique blend of participants who were enrolled on a specific trip. The conclusion of each trip was marked by a closure talk when the WI staff encouraged participants to share what they learned on the trip and solicited feedback from them concerning how future trips could be changed to better meet the expectations of the participants.

Attean Pond Canoe Trip. Attean Pond, a land-locked lake in central northern Maine, was the location for the first Wilderness Ability Adventure trip. The trip lasted 3 1/2 days and occurred on July 21-23, 1995. The group consisted of three trip leaders employed with Wilderness Inquiry and eleven participants. The participants consisted of 5 Hartford employees, 4 disabled claimants, a consultant from the University of Maine, and a spouse of one of the claimants. The trip began on Attean Pond where the Moose

River

flows into the lake. The first day was spent learning how to set-up camp and reviewing paddling techniques. The morning of the second day was spent practicing canoeing skills in the 16 foot tandem canoes that the group was using and moving the camp to a different site. Throughout the second day several moose and osprey were sighted by the participants. The third day entailed paddling back to the put in sight, loading up the gear, and conducting the wrap-up.

BWCA Dogsled Trip. The February 7-11, 1996 BWCA ski and dogsled was the second joint The Hartford and WI trip. On this trip the group consisted of twelve participants and three trip guides. The twelve participants were comprised of 2 The Hartford employees, 5 disability claimants, and 5 brokers associated with The Hartford. The first day was devoted to traveling to the put-in site in northern Minnesota and transporting the gear across frozen Bearskin Lake to the lodge where the group base-camped. The temperatures were unseasonably warm with the daytime temperatures rising up into the mid 20's. The next two days were spent learning how to dogsled, cross- country ski, and snowshoe. A good portion of each day was also spent using these skills

**TABLE 3-B: Overview of Wilderness Ability
Adventure Trips**

Location	Dates	Group Composition	Type of Activity
Attean Pond, MA	July 21-23, 1995	14 Individuals total 3 trail staff 5 employees 4 claimants 1 consultant 1 spouse of claimant	Tandem Canoeing--2-3 people per canoe
Boundary Waters Canoe Wilderness Area, MN	February 7-11, 1996	12 Individuals total 3 trail staff 2 employees 5 claimants 5 brokers	Dogsledding, Snowshoeing, Cross-Country skiing
Yellowstone National Park, MO	September 6-9, 1996	11 Individuals total 2 trail staff 4 employees	Voyageur Canoeing--5-6 people per

		4 claimants (3 completed trip) 1 broker	canoe
Everglades National Park, FL	March 19-23, 1997	15 Individuals total 3 trail staff 5 employees 3 claimants 3 brokers 1 reporter	Tandem Canoeing--2-3 people per canoe

to explore the Northwoods. Participants were given the option of spending one night outside under the stars, sleeping either in a snow trench or in a covered snow shelter. The culmination of the trip was the ritual of the Finnish sauna with an optional dip in the ice hole.

Yellowstone Canoe Trip. Yellowstone National Park was the location of the third trip that occurred September 4-9, 1996. The group consisted of two staff members and 9 group participants. The group was comprised of 4 The Hartford employees, 4 disability claimants, and a broker associated with The Hartford. The group spent a good portion of the first and second days exploring the attractions of Yellowstone Park and saw Old Faithful, Norris Basin and the falls of Yellowstone River. Due to incremental weather conditions, the trip leaders decided to forego paddling on Yellowstone lake and chose instead to take the group to two Wilderness lakes that are connected by a small stream. The group spent the third day loading the two 26-foot voyageur canoes and negotiating the connecting stream to reach the base camp. The next day was spent paddling around the lake seeing the sights. On the fifth day the group paddled downstream to the take-out site.

Florida Everglades Canoe Trip. The most recent trip occurred March 18-22, 1997 and was a tandem canoe trip near the Florida Everglades. The 15 member group consisted of 3 WI staff members, 5 Hartford employees, 3 disability claimants, 3 brokers associated with The Hartford, and one reporter from the New York Times. A portion of the first day was a naturalist led tour through Everglades Park where the group was introduced to the eco-system of the park and the surrounding area. After spending a night at the Collier Seminole State Park, the group undertook a rigorous seven-hour paddle and

set up a base camp on an island just outside Everglades National Park. For the next two days the group took several day trips from the base camp, exploring neighboring islands and viewing the exotic wildlife found in the Everglades. One of the participants had a wealth of knowledge on aquatic animals and each morning presented the group with information about shells that he had collected along the beach. The final day entailed paddling back to the Collier Seminole campground, a paddle that took the group only three hours (compared to the seven hours paddling required to reach the island) due to more favorable wind and tide conditions.

Chapter 4

Presentation of Data

The findings are organized according to the five previously stated research areas: self-efficacy strength, maintenance, transference, attitudes toward people with disabilities, and programmatic suggestions. Each section includes at least one table that summarizes the data and numerous supporting statements drawn from the interview texts. The qualitative supporting statements are divided into three categories that are related to the role on the trip that each person played, either claimant, employee, or broker. Claimants include all of the long-term disability claimants; employees are The Hartford employees; and brokers are people who represent organizations that do business with The Hartford. This categorization will allow the reader to better contextualize and understand the qualitative statements.

Self-efficacy strength

Self-efficacy strength was measured using the Sherer et al. self-efficacy instrument and the likert response section of the follow-up interview. The Sherer instrument is divided into a General self-efficacy scale and a Social self-efficacy scale. General efficacy relates specifically to persistence and maintenance of efficacy in the face of adversity while social efficacy relates to a willingness to initiate and maintain positive social behaviors. Participants were asked to complete both sections of the instrument using a one to nine scale with one representing strongly disagree and nine representing strongly agree. Table 4-A presents the mean, median and standard deviation from the 27 participants who completed the survey.

The likert questions in the follow-up interviews provide a second source of data. Participants were asked to respond to a series of statements using a scale of one to five, with one representing strongly disagree and five representing strongly agree. Table 4-B presents the summary from the six follow-up questions related specifically to self-efficacy. The responses on the questions that were negatively stated were converted so they are all scored in the same direction.

The quantitative data presents some information concerning how the trip might have affected self-efficacy, but without a control group it is difficult to make definitive conclusions. A control group wasn't used due to liability and coordination issues with The Hartford. However, evidence of efficacy change was prevalent throughout the open-ended responses. Seventeen of the 32 participants interviewed noted that the trip increased their overall self-confidence, esteem, assertiveness, determination, or perseverance. This increased confidence was related specifically to social interaction, physical ability, and interpersonal skills. When asked what his most prominent memories were, one claimant noted:

Overall I just felt more confident to be with people. I was also surprised at how much I could do, even though I was away from my normal environment.
(claimant)

When asked what areas of your life were most affected by the trip, a broker commented:

I would say that it is the horizon that you have for yourself and formulating what is possible. I am a strong believer in the idea that if you meet a challenge in one

part of your life, meeting that challenge influences other areas of your life. I guess the experience transfers into most areas of my life. (broker)

Table 4-A
Descriptive Statistics

Variable: General Self-Efficacy

Scored on a 1-9 Likert scale with 1 representing strongly disagree

Question	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Plans	26	7.19	1.44
2. Keep Trying	26	7.69	.788
3. Difficulties	26	7.01	1.41
4. Complications	26	7.34	1.19
5. Unpleasant Tasks	26	6.50	1.46
6. Decisiveness	26	6.84	1.61
7. Response to Failure	26	7.26	1.34
8. Insecurity	26	6.61	1.41
9. Self-reliant	26	6.96	1.94
10. Problems	26	7.84	1.43
11. Give up	26	7.84	1.37
12. New things	26	7.84	1.82

13. Goal Setting	26	7.15	1.18
14. Get to Work	26	7.80	1.09
15. Give up	26	6.80	1.67
16. Handle Problems	26	7.42	1.13

Corresponding Questions

1. When I make plans, I am certain I can make them work.
2. If I can't do a job the first time, I keep trying until I can.
3. I avoid facing difficulties.
4. If something looks too complicated, I will not even bother to try it.
5. When I have something unpleasant to do, I stick to it until I finish it.
6. When I decide to do something, I go right to work on it.
7. Failure just makes me try harder.
8. I feel insecure about my abilities to do things.
9. I am a self-reliant person.
10. I do not seem capable of dealing with most problems that come up in life.
11. I give up easily.
12. When trying to learn something new, I soon give up if I am not initially successful.
13. When I set important goals for myself, I rarely achieve them.
14. One of my problems is that I cannot get down to work when I should.
15. I give up on things before completing them.

16. When unexpected problems occur, I don't handle them well.

Variable: Social Self-Efficacy

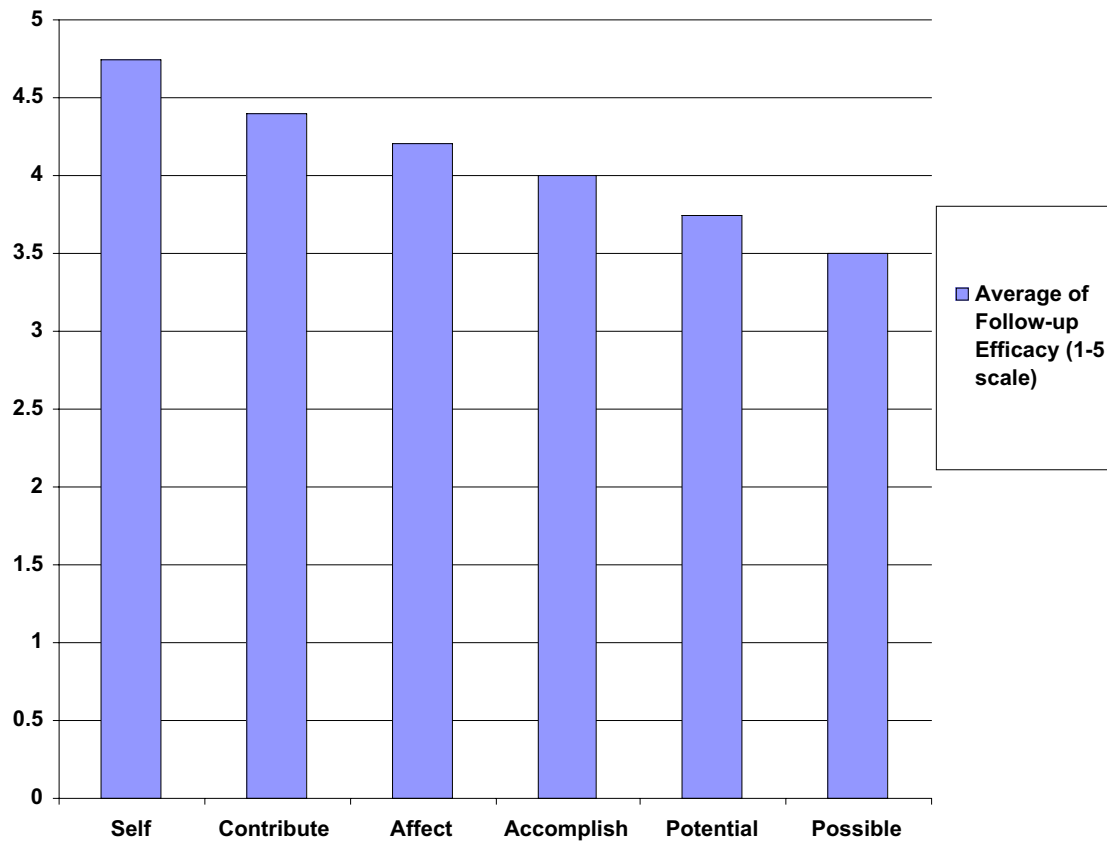
Scored on a 1-9 Likert Scale with 1 representing strongly disagree

Question	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Making Friends	26	7.80	1.09
2. Give Up	26	6.03	1.32
3. Meet People	26	7.00	1.37
4. Difficult meet friends	26	6.60	1.65
5. Persistence making friends	26	7.50	1.79
6. Social Gatherings	26	5.42	1.67

Corresponding Questions

1. I have acquired my friends through my personal abilities at making friends.

2. When I'm trying to become friends with someone who seems uninterested at first, I don't give up easily.
3. If I see someone I would like to meet, I go to that person instead of waiting for him or her to come to me.
4. It is difficult for me to make new friends.
5. If I meet someone who is hard to make friends with, I'll soon stop trying to make friends with that person.
6. I do not handle myself well in social gatherings.

Table 4-B**Follow-up Efficacy Questions****Specific Statements**

[Rated on a 1-5 Likert scale with 1 representing strongly disagree]

Self

The trip negatively influenced the way I feel about myself.

Contribute

I was happy with the way I contributed to making the trip a success.

Effect

The trip really didn't effect my life at all.

Accomplish

I accomplished more on the trip than I thought I would.

Potential

Throughout the trip, I discovered that I have more potential than I thought did.

Possible

The trip made me question what is possible.

Anecdotal evidence supports the notion that the Wilderness Ability Adventure program does affect General and Social Self-efficacy. Evidence of positive self-esteem change, risk taking propensity and increased self confidence was prevalent throughout the interviews; however, more data is needed to draw statistical conclusions.

Maintenance

Maintenance refers to the ability to maintain principles and attitudes learned on the trip over time. Quantitative data was drawn from responses on Sherer's Efficacy scale and Yunker's Attitudes Toward People with Disabilities Scale (ATDP). In order to analyze longitudinal differences the participants were organized into three groups: Everglades, Middle (BWCA and Yellowstone), and Attean Pond. The Yellowstone and BWCA groups were combined due to a low response rate from the Yellowstone trip participants. Everglade participants completed the instrument immediately after completing their trip, Yellowstone and BWCA completed the instrument six months and one year respectively after their trip, and the Attean Pond participants completed the survey 18 months after their trip. In order to identify possible differences between these groups, three ANOVA's were run using time as the fixed variable. The first ANOVA had general efficacy as the dependent variable, the second had social efficacy and the third had attitudes toward people with disabilities. To correct for differing number of responses and missing data, the means from each group were automatically weighted by the SPSS program. The results of these three tests are reported in table 4-C. The f scores for each of the Anova's were very low (all of them <1) resulting in no observable significant differences between

Table 4-C**Analysis of Variance****Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**Dependent Variable: General Self-Efficacy

Fixed Variable: Time

Source	Degree of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Means Squared	F	Significance	Power
Corrected Model	2	5.9E-02	3.0E-02	.073	.930	.060
Intercept	1	1204.335	1204.335	2990.060		
TIME	2	5.9E-02	3.0E-02	.073	.930	.060
Error	23	9.264	.403			
Total	26	1228.774				

Dependent Variable: Social Self-Efficacy

Fixed Variable: Time

Source	Degree of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Means Squared	F	Significance	Power
Corrected Model	2	.634	.317	.707	.504	.155
Intercept	1	938.185	938.185	2089.481		
TIME	2	.634	.317	.707	.504	.155
Error	23	10.327	.449			
Total	26	959.0				

Dependent Variable: Attitudes toward people with disabilities

Fixed Variable: Time

Source	Degree of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Means Squared	F	Significance	Power
Corrected Model	2	5.7E-02	2.8E-02	.092	.912	.062
Intercept	1	575.193	575.193	1872.290		
TIME	2	5.7E-02	2.8E-02	.092	.912	.062
Error	23	7.066	.307			
Total	26	589.868				

the three groups.

This similarity between longitudinal groups was also found in the likert responses of the follow-up interviews. Using this data with time as the fixed variable and the eight likert question responses as the dependent variable another ANOVA was run. Summaries from this ANOVA are presented in table 4-D. Again, the f scores were very low resulting in no observable significant differences between the groups.

The combination of the lack of variance measured by these Anovas leads to the quantitative conclusion that time does not influence a participant's ability to maintain desired attitudes and principles. In other words, it appears that the effects of the trip were not significantly influenced by the passing of time. However, this conclusion is tenuous at best and will be discussed further in the following chapter.

Even though it doesn't appear that there are differences between the longitudinal groups, several participants mentioned that it was difficult for them to implement their desired changed when they returned back home. People who said that they learned new things about themselves on the trip were asked if they were able to implement those attitudes or skills into their everyday life. In general, people commented on how difficult it was to maintain these attitudes and beliefs when they return back home. A broker commented:

I remember telling Tom [WI staff] that I was going to do all these things when I returned home, but when I got back into the daily grind I ended up right back where I'm at. It's mainly just the grind of the daily world and the balance of saying you know there is more to life than just a job and actually taking the time to go out and experience these things.

A claimant added:

Table 4-D

Analysis of Variance

Test of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Follow-up Likert Questions

Fixed Variable: Time

Source	Degree of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Means Squared	F	Significance	Power
Corrected Model	3	.178	5.9E-02	.193	.900	.082
Intercept	1	528.318	528.318	1715.357		
TIME	3	.178	5.9E-02	.193	.900	.082
Error	28	8.624	.308			
Total	32	550.556				

On the trip everything was going great and within 24 hours of returning home I found that I was right back to where I started.

Some of the factors identified by participants that influence their ability to maintain the desired attitudes included financial obligations, an inability to assume a different role, or a lack of a support system. One claimant commented:

It has been difficult to incorporate what I learned back into my life here. I just don't have all of the emotional support here and it is difficult to keep that feeling.

Participants who were able to maintain their attitudes mentioned that determination, keeping a positive mental attitude and using visualization techniques have helped them relate the experience back to their lives over time. One employee mentioned that he/she uses visualization techniques to remember what the experience was like and keep that memory fresh in his/her mind. He/she said,

I have tried to keep the positive attitude by thinking back to the activity. I will think back to the first night when we got there and we packed everything across the ice and just thinking about that and the people helps me keep positive.

Transference

Transference relates to how participation in the Wilderness Ability Adventure program influenced different areas of the participant's lives. This variable was addressed solely in the open-ended section of the telephone interviews. The questions related to this variable are:

1. What areas of your life were most affected by participation in the program?
2. Did you learn anything new about yourself on the trip?
3. Did the trip affect the way you work or pursue work? How so?

The first two questions were designed to document the wide range of possible affects that a wilderness trip can have on participants. The third question isolates worklife as a specific area that is especially salient to this study.

Areas affected by trip.

Areas of participant's lives that were affected by the trip are organized into five categories: self-confidence, physical effects, appreciation for life, social life and skills, and spiritual awareness. The number of responses related to each of these categories and the coding descriptions are presented in table 4-E.

For the purposes of the coding scheme, self-confidence included expressed feelings of independence, an increased scope of what is possible, or focus on ability instead of disability. As one claimant stated:

I think the trip taught me that I could accomplish more independently than I had thought possible. (claimant)

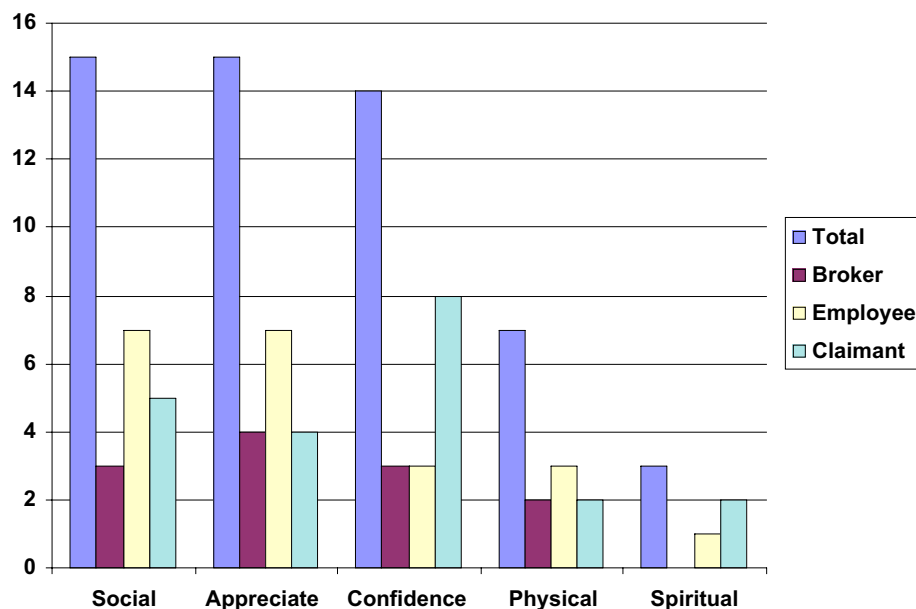
A broker added:

I like being in a situation where I don't know anything about it and I go through it and succeed and then I can apply that to other areas of my life. You know you go

through something like that and it is a challenge and you feel confident when you get back. (broker)

These feelings of independence and accomplishment were often related specifically to participant's social lives, interpersonal skills, outdoor skills, occupational goals, and self esteem. One broker commented:

I think you gain a lot of self respect for your accomplishments and what you do. Going out into nature and being on your own gives you a lot of self respect and self confidence. (broker)

Table 4-E**Areas of Influence****Code Descriptions****Social** (social life and skills)

- group interaction, teamwork, ability to interact with others, cooperation, interpersonal relationships,
- greater acceptance of diversity
- tolerance of others

Appreciate (appreciation)

- more appreciative of physical, emotional, or professional life
- fun, general enjoyment, relaxing experience
- respect for environment, question relationship to environment and how

we fit in

Confidence (self-confidence)

--related to social life, interpersonal skills, occupational goals, self esteem

--increased scope of what is possible

Physical

--related to outdoor skills

--feeling more independent, more physically able to complete tasks, focus on ability instead of disability

Spiritual (spiritual awareness)

--question sense of self, question one's place in the world and relationship to a higher power

An employee argued that the wilderness experience also increased her scope of what was possible in her life, commenting:

I would say that the trip influences the horizon that you have for yourself and formulating what is possible. I am a strong believer in the idea that if you meet a challenge in or part of your life, meeting that challenge influences other areas of your life. This trip influenced nearly every part of my life. (employee)

15 participants also stated that the trip made them more appreciative of their physical, emotional, or professional lives. This appreciation helped them put their own situations in perspective. One broker stated:

I left the trip feeling extremely fortunate both from a physical and professional perspective. I thought some people just have a tougher life than I do and they are dealt some cards that they probably didn't deserve. (broker)

A claimant added:

I always thought mine was a bad disability. You know I thought it was really bad. But I saw all those people who had a worse disability than mine. You know what I am saying? It made my situation seem better. (claimant)

Others mentioned that the trip encouraged them to question their sense of self and their relationship to a higher power or to the environment. These comments were most often related to feeling a sense of calm and serenity from being in a wilderness setting. One employee commented:

I feel closer to my inner self and the creative force...the contrast for me is to get away from my desk and my concrete business concerns that kind of crowd out awareness of the spiritual side of me. (employee)

New things learned on the trip

Participants commented that they learned new things about themselves related specifically to their ability to meet challenges, increased self-confidence, greater acceptance, outdoor skills, and their conception of their overall self. These comments are

summarized in table 4-F.

In the context of this study, challenge connotes the ability to overcome obstacles, difficulties or hardships related to living in a group setting, surviving without physical comforts, or completing physical activities. Meeting such challenges encouraged participants to think about their capabilities related to physical or social activities. One employee commented,

I learned that I like being around people in that type of setting. Going into the trip I was worried about spending that much time with a group of total strangers, but I really enjoyed myself and I was surprised at how well I interacted with everyone.
(employee)

Closely tied to the ability to meet challenges was a noticeable change in self confidence mentioned by several participants. One claimant mentioned,

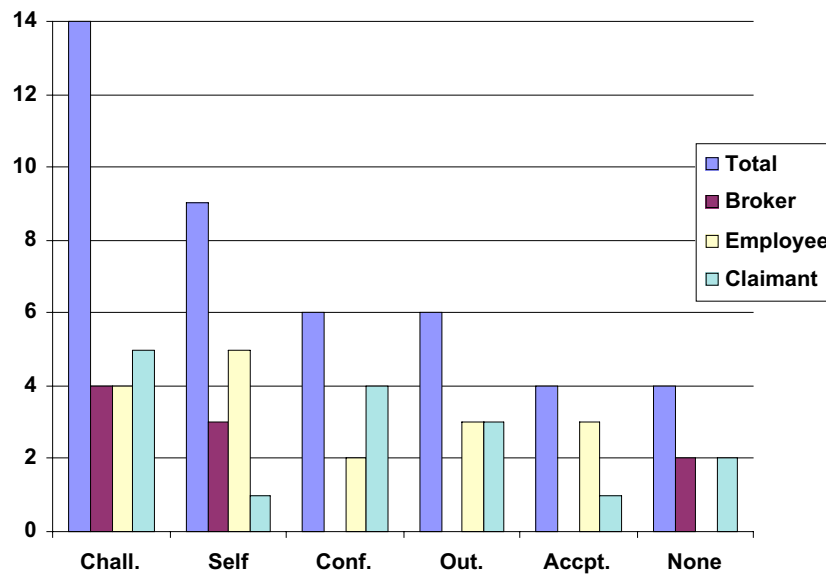
I went into the trip wanting to see how much I could do and I didn't want to ask for help until I knew that I absolutely needed it. I think that the trip strengthened my belief that I can successfully adapt to different situations. I can do a lot more than people may think because I am in a wheelchair. (claimant)

Other participants noted that they learned about being more accepting of others and themselves. This acceptance allowed them to be more tolerant of others, often questioning stereotypes or preconceived notions.

The trip reminds me to be more tolerant of other people and that I have that ability to be tolerant. (employee)

As far as myself, I learned to not be so much sympathetic or feel sorry for someone with a disability, but look at them more as if they are another human being. I no longer pity them and their situation. (employee)

The trip also gave people the opportunity to learn more about the environment and spending time in the outdoors. Several participants mentioned that they discovered that

Table 4-F**New Things Learned****Code Descriptions****Chall** (challenge)

--ability to meet a challenge related to living in group setting, surviving without comforts, or physically completing trip

--more persistent than they had thought, adaptable to physical activity

Self (esteem, awareness)

--greater self-awareness

--learned about self, self acceptance

--tested personal limits

--learned that they can enact or rediscover a different social role,

questioned role that they typically play

Conf. (self confidence)

--more confident in social situations, more independent than they thought

--more capabilities related to physical activity or social interaction

Out (outdoors)

--found that they either liked the outdoors and wanted to spend more time in it or they didn't like it

Accept (acceptance)

--more tolerant of other people, liked being exposed to diverse situations

--question stereotypes or preconceived notions, attempt to be less judgmental or to pity people

--acceptance/appreciation for their life, thankful for what they have

None (nothing)

they like being in the outdoors more than they thought they would. However, others readily admitted that they learned that they didn't like camping and had no desire to spend more time in the outdoors.

I learned that I really do like room service. The trip was wonderful, but I really do like room service and being close to that type of thing. That is my idea of a vacation. (claimant)

Finally, the trip encouraged people to think about their self in general. Several mentioned a different self-awareness or acceptance, or that they learned to accept their personal limits. Others mentioned that they were able to enact or rediscover a social role that they typically don't get the opportunity to play.

That type of experience gives you kind of a new outlook on life and it lets you evaluate the roles that you typically play everyday. I mean in the office I play pretty much the same role everyday, but the trip allowed me to explore other areas. (employee)

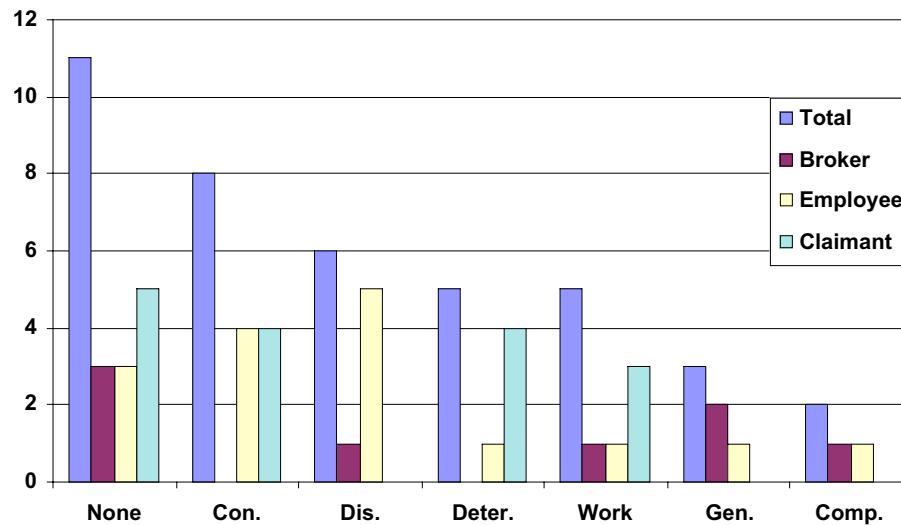
Work-life

The one area of people's lives that was isolated specifically for this study was work-life. Participants were asked if the trip influenced the way they work or seek work. In order to thoroughly address this area, this qualitative section is organized according to the responses of each group of participants: brokers, employees, and claimants. The summary for each of these groups and the corresponding code descriptions are included

in table 4-G.

Brokers. The most common response for brokers was that the trip didn't affect the way they work.

I would like to be able to say that they trip did have an effect, but in reality, probably not. (broker)

Table 4-G**Work Influences****Code Descriptions****None (no effect)**

--no effect at all

--no effect because the person is disabled and can't work

Con. (self-confidence)

--gained assertiveness, confidence, self-esteem, more comfortable

interacting with others

--encouraged person to push boundaries, take more risks, be more creative

or innovative, discovered new talents and skills

Dis. (working with people with disabilities)

--more aware of psychosocial dimension of disability, changed approach of

working with, writing about or selling insurance for people with disabilities

--more aware of needed adaptations

Deter. (determination)

--tried to work harder, stuck to a task or an idea, committed or motivated

to keep trying

Work (actively pursue work)

--has actively attempted to find work or look for different job since the trip

Gen. (not directly, but more in general)

--trip had some effect, but it is difficult to identify specific areas

--refreshed for work, more general positive approach when they returned
home

Comp. (compassion)

--enhanced compassion, empathy for others, nonjudgemental

--more global, different perspective on people and various workplace issues

The brokers whose work-lives were affected by the trip mentioned four areas of influence. The first area encompasses how the trip influenced working with people with disabilities.

When we set up insurance packages for people we always take into consideration how the insurance company deals with the physical, but we don't consider the mental aspect of the disability...now I will have the tendency to consider the mental aspect more carefully. (broker)

Two brokers mentioned that the trip influenced their overall perspective.

The trip definitely affected the way I work. When I came back I was a little bit more positive. I had more of a global perspective. Having that close interpersonal experience with people from all different walks of life was very good reality check for me. (broker)

Things happen on so much a broad scale that it is difficult to pin down to a specific area of influence. I'm sure the experience affects my work, my perspective, but it's not that straightforward, it more of a general influence. (broker)

Expressing dissatisfaction with his/her current work situation, one broker commented that the trip increased his/her confidence in relation to finding satisfying work.

For the first time in a while I thought you know you really are a good person and

you can be yourself and you have the ability to find a job that allows you to be yourself. Before I didn't know if I could find a good job, now I know that I can.
(broker)

Employees. Five of the The Hartford employees interviewed said that the trip influenced the way they approach working with people with disabilities.

I think the trip made me a more compassionate individual. When I sell insurance products I can now speak more from the heart about various products because I was deeply influenced by spending time with people with disabilities. (employee)

It gave me, based on some of the disabilities that I had reviewed previously, a better understanding. (employee)

Other employees said that the trip encouraged them to be more confident at the workplace. This added confidence resulted in more risk taking, creativity, innovation, and feelings of success. Commenting on this, one employee said,

The trip expanded my boundaries and encouraged me to be creative and try new things. It pushed the boundaries of what I thought was possible. (employee)

One employee also mentioned that the trip influenced his/her attitude toward The Hartford, commenting,

So it really made me proud to work for a company that really tries to affect people's lives. It really brought to life what I do and what the organization

believes in. (employee)

However, the trip didn't have the same effect on all employees. Three of those interviewed said that the trip didn't influence their work-life at all. One of them commented,

It was a life experience, but does it bring the bigger world, the premium, the internal administration of what the clients industry demands, of benefits, does it bring any of that into sharper focus? No. (employee)

Claimants. The most common response for claimants was that the trip didn't influence their work or pursuit of work. Most often, this lack of influence was related to an inability to work due to the nature of their disability. One claimant commented,

The trip really didn't change it because I can't work. I couldn't before and I can't now. Its not like going on a trip is going to change that. (claimant)

Another claimant commented that the pursuit of work has been frustrating due to the nature of his/her disability settlement claim. The participant commented that the trip motivated him/her to look for work, but it has been difficult.

I am stuck between wanting to contribute to society and being fearful. If I got a job I would be off workers comp. in 6 months and what if the job I was trying didn't work out? Overall, I'm not much of a gambler and I just don't want to take that risk.

Those who were influenced by the trip often commented that it improved their self confidence in relation to the workplace. Four participants made this connection.

One stated,

The trip gave me faith in my abilities...I thought to myself if I can go camping I can do just about anything and it helped me think that at work. (claimant)

Four other participants noted that the program reinforced the need for them to be determined while on the job or throughout the job hunting process.

I try to work as much as I can to the limits of my disability. After the trip I have tried harder and I continue to strive up to my ability. (claimant)

When this (the disability) first happened to me I was really upset. I did not like myself very well. When I was out there trying to find jobs people were looking at me as a disability instead of as a person. But now I realize that all I need is the opportunity. (claimant)

The trip motivated me to keep being persistent and to keep trying. I was getting really frustrated with everything, but now things seem to be working out. (claimant)

Three of the claimant participants commented that they had either found work since the trip or they were currently actively seeking work. One claimant who is in the process of finding a job stated,

I can do anything I want to do. I just have to put my mind to it and do it. I learned that I can do and see things that I didn't think possible. I am going to find work and that's for sure, with or without a disability. (claimant)

Another who is working part-time commented,

The trip sort of opened up a whole new area for me. I really feel more free now than I did before. I feel more free to work with people and get a long with them in different settings. It made me realize that I can succeed in those areas. (claimant)

Attitudes Toward People With Disabilities

This variable was assessed using both the survey instrument and the follow-up interviews. A modified version of Yuker's ATDP was used in the survey (refer to Appendix 3-X). Program participants were asked to respond to a series of 11 statements using a scale from one to nine, with one representing strongly disagree and nine representing strongly agree. The mean, median and standard deviation of these responses is included in table 4-H. Again, due to liability and logistical problems with The Hartford, it was not possible to sample a control group. This control group would have been advantageous to statistically analyze the possible attitudinal difference between people who went on a trip and people who didn't. Without this control group acting as a statistical baseline, it is difficult to make firm conclusions regarding possible attitudinal change.

Given the inability to make statistical conclusions, the qualitative analysis takes on added importance. In the follow-up interview participants were asked to respond to the following question:

How did this trip influence your perceptions of people with disabilities?

Responses to this question were grouped in six categories. The summary of these categories and the corresponding responses are included in Table 4-I.

The most common response from participants was related to becoming more aware of the range of abilities that people with disabilities possess. This sentiment was vocalized by brokers, employees, and claimants alike. One claimant stated:

Table 4-H
Descriptive Statistics

Variable: Attitudes Toward People With Disabilities

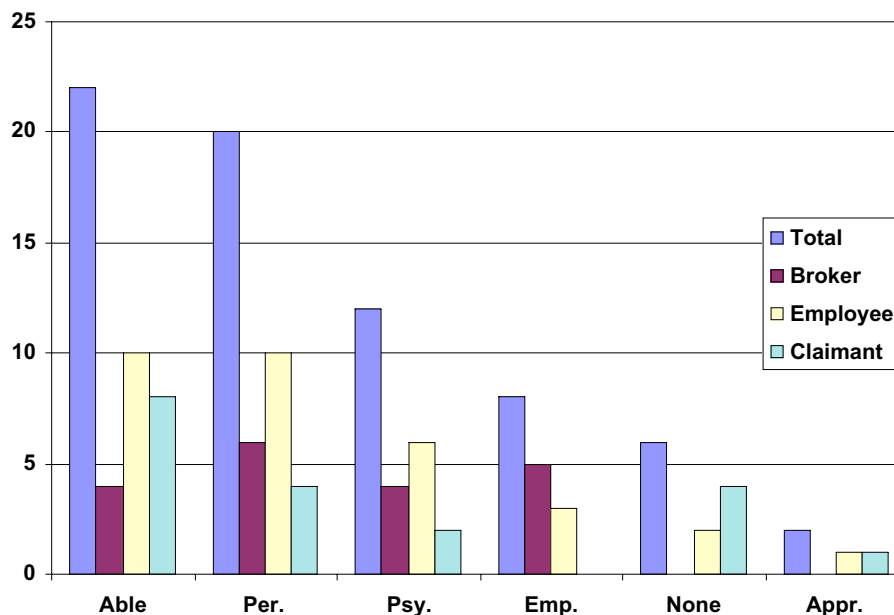
Scored on a 1-9 Likert Scale with 1 representing strongly disagree

Question	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Friendliness	26	7.65	1.93
2. Interactions	26	7.03	2.06
3. Friends	26	6.80	2.71
4. Hard workers	26	7.71	1.49
5. Try hard	26	7.03	2.18
6. Enjoy working with	26	7.03	1.84
7. Less intelligent	26	8.11	1.63
8. Have fun	26	6.65	2.36
9. More emotional	26	5.84	2.09
10. Use disable as excuse	26	5.50	1.83

11. Work closely	26	8.38	1.09
---------------------	----	------	------

Corresponding Questions

1. People with disabilities are often unfriendly.
2. I am comfortable interacting with people who are disabled.
3. I am currently friends with someone who has a physical or mental disability.
4. People with disabilities are hard workers
5. People with disabilities don't try as hard as other people.
6. I would enjoy working with someone who has a physical or mental disability.
7. People who are severely disabled are less intelligent than people with less severe disabilities.
8. People with disabilities have as much fun as other people.
9. People with disabilities are more emotional than other people.
10. People with disabilities sometimes use their disability as an excuse.
11. I wouldn't want to work closely with someone who had a disability.

Table 4-I**Attitudes Toward People With Disabilities****Code Descriptions****Able (abilities)**

_more awareness of everyone's abilities and capacity to contribute to

--broadened notions of what people with disabilities can do

--expressed admiration of people with disabilities

Per. (perceptions)

--changed perceptions of people with disabilities

--people with disabilities are similar to everyone else, all unique

--questioned stereotypes about people with disabilities in general or people
with specific disabilities

Psy. (psychological)

health --commented on relationship between physical disability and mental
your --importance of positive mental attitude, believing in yourself and
abilities, having a positive outlook on life

Emp. (empathy)

--see situation more from perspective of someone with a disability, better
understanding of what it is like to live with a disability

None

--already had an established attitude, trip didn't change attitude

Appr. (apprehension)

--overcame apprehension about traveling with or interacting with people
with disabilities

In that way the trip helped me focus more on my abilities and not on my disability. Seeing other people succeed at different things made me think that I can do that to. The trip taught me that people with disabilities don't need to be stuck inside.

An employee added:

I was really surprised at how the people with disabilities were able to adapt to a new situation.

This broadened notion of what people with disabilities can accomplish encouraged several people to question their preconceived notions about people with disabilities in general or about people who have a specific disability. These participants voiced that they learned that people with disabilities are similar to everyone else in that everyone is unique and faces a host of opportunities and barriers in everyday life. One broker said:

There were two people on the trip, one was wheelchair bound, and you always want to look at those people as being different. But they kept telling us not to feel sorry for them. I learned not to pity them and think of them as different.

An employee added:

I think it broadened my thoughts of what they can and can't do. I learned a lot

about their limitations, which I discovered there really aren't that many limitations.

The trip also encouraged people to speculate about how maintaining a positive mental attitude affects a person who is attempting to overcome a hardship. Participants from the BWCA and Everglade trips in particular commented on the close relationship between physical disabilities and mental health. An employee stated,

I didn't realize how closely connected a person's mental and physical health is. I usually deal a lot with the physical and don't think about the importance of having a good attitude.

Participation in the program also allowed several participants to better understand what it is like to live with a disability. For many, the experience made them more aware of the barriers that people with disabilities face and how those barriers can be overcome. It also increased their awareness of the importance of integration and integrative programming.

Six program participants stated that the trip didn't influence their attitudes toward people with disabilities because those attitudes were already established. This was most often voiced by claimants who have contact with people who have disabilities. One claimant stated:

When you have a disability a lot of your friends are also disabled, so it really didn't change my attitude much.

The last area mentioned by people was that the trip allowed them to overcome apprehension that they might have had about traveling with or intimately interacting with people with disabilities. One claimant commented:

Before I left I had a sort of attitude that it would be a big strike against me to travel with a group of people with disabilities. I really wasn't looking forward to it. But meeting those people and being with them, even in the worse situations, I count all of them as a blessing.

Programmatic Feedback

In general, participants had overwhelmingly positive things to say about the Wilderness Ability Adventure program. Perhaps the most telling response was that 30 of the 32 participants interviewed stated that they would like to do another trip with Wilderness Inquiry or an organization like Wilderness Inquiry. When asked what could have been improved to make the experience a better one from the time they were contacted as a possible participant to the time returned home, 12 people responded that nothing could have made the experience better. Sixteen people commented that pre-trip logistics and the arrival at the site logistics could have been handled differently. Eight made comments related to things that happened during the trip itself and four commented about the need for a clarification of roles. Each of these feedback areas will be briefly addressed below and suggestions for future programming will follow.

Trip Feedback. Twenty-five of the 32 people interviewed made positive comments about the experience in general. When asked to state their most prominent memories of the trip, over half of the participants mentioned the Wilderness Inquiry staff.

Participants specifically mentioned leadership, support, food preparation, and organization as notable attributes of the staff. A claimant commented:

The WI people were fabulous, they were a lesson in what human nature can do and what it should do. I was impressed with a lot of things about them. They were obviously very organized and focused, but they were able to handle all the people with all of their different needs without being patronizing or treating people in a demeaning fashion...they were truly fabulous. (claimant)

Even though the experience was largely a positive one, participants also had numerous suggestions about how the program could have been better. Several participants commented specifically about the pre-trip or arrival logistics as areas that could be improved. Most of this feedback was related specifically to transportation plans, gear for the trip, the process of choosing claimants, and receiving last minute information about the trip. The most common response related to pre-trip plans was directed to the lack of clear directions in regards to transportation plans by The Hartford.

In general , the most frequent comments were related to the time period between when the participants arrived at the site and when they actually began the trip with the Wilderness Inquiry staff. A number of participants indicated that this time period could have been used to help the group come together more quickly. Eight participants made comments about how the trip itself was conducted. Three of these comments were related to the lack of communication between the WI staff and the participants, specifically in relation to the lack of information given to the participants in regards to a lengthy canoe paddle that occurred on the first day of the Florida Everglades trip.

The last area of feedback was related to the clarification of trip objectives or specific roles on the trip that a person is encouraged to play. One claimant thought that it would have been a better experience if the objectives of the trip had been clarified, stating:

I think at the beginning it wasn't made clear what the purpose of the trip was.

You know, that this is part of your rehab to give you a positive experience to get back into your life.

Another related comment came from a broker who wasn't comfortable with the role of the

broker on the trip. The broker commented:

I wouldn't want to do the trip again as a freebie from one of the vendors that we do business with. We do business with them because given a specific situation they do the best job for our clients and I don't ever want to be accused or faced with a situation where I recommend one carrier over another because they give me a free trip. It made me somewhat uncomfortable.

An employee stated that the relationship between claimants and Hartford employees

needed to be better articulated. When asked if she had kept in contact with any of the trip

participants, the employee stated:

It's hard with the claimants. Its almost like we aren't supposed to get too chummy with them. It's not a specific policy, but I'm not sure how far we are supposed to go...when I was on the trip I got to know a couple of the participants on more of a personal level, but they don't know how far to trust us either.

Summary of Data

The data demonstrates the following support for the research questions:

RQ1: How does participation in the Wilderness Ability Adventure program affect self-efficacy?

Data drawn from the Self-efficacy scale demonstrates that the self-efficacy strength of the population surveyed is relatively high with an average score of 6.63 on a scale of one to 9. This high level of efficacy was supported qualitatively by analyzing the follow-up interviews.

RQ2: How does the passing of time influence the skills and attitudes learned on the Wilderness Ability Adventure trip?

By dividing the population into three longitudinal groups and analyzing the variance between these sub-populations it was found that there is no significant difference between the groups. The ANOVAs that were conducted statistically

established the similarity between the groups as was evident in the extremely low f scores. However, several participants commented on the difficulty of maintaining desired attitudes and beliefs stating that financial concerns, lack of support systems, and inability to adjust to new roles hindered this desire.

RQ3: How does participation in the Wilderness Ability Adventure program influence other areas of participant's lives?

The data demonstrates that the social aspect of participant's were significantly influenced by participation in the program. The trip also influenced appreciation for their life, self-confidence, ability to physically complete various tasks and spiritual awareness. Participants learned that they were able to successfully meet challenges, attained greater self-awareness, became more independent, and were more accepting of others. When asked how the trip influenced their work-life, subjects said that it influenced their self-confidence, determination, and their awareness of workplace disability issues. Five people also said that the trip encouraged them to start looking for work and they are currently either hunting for a job or have secured one.

RQ4: How does participation in the Wilderness Ability Adventure program influence attitudes toward people with disabilities?

A majority of respondents indicated that the trip increased their awareness of the abilities of people with disabilities. The trip also encouraged people to evaluate their perception of people with disabilities. Several participants commented on the relationship between a physical disability and mental health. Others overcame

apprehension of traveling with people with disabilities and began to have a better understanding of what it is like to live with a disability.

RQ5: How can the Wilderness Ability Adventure program be improved to better meet its objectives?

Overall, the feedback from participants was overwhelmingly positive. Participants commented specifically on the organization, leadership, support and professionalism of the WI and The Hartford staff. The recommended changes included better pre-trip communication, better use of the time between arrival and when the trip begins, and a clarification of roles and objectives.

Chapter 5

Interpretation and Recommendations

Before interpreting the results that were presented in chapter four, it is advantageous to revisit the objectives of this study to ensure that each is adequately addressed in this final chapter. The first objective was to understand how participation in the Wilderness Ability Adventure program influenced participant's self-efficacy strength, maintenance, transference, and attitudes toward people with disabilities. This objective was partially addressed in the presentation of findings in the previous chapter and will be thoroughly realized in the interpretation of that data in this chapter. The second objective was to provide feedback concerning how effectively the Wilderness Ability Adventure program is meeting its stated goals and to provide suggestions on how the program can be improved. Summarizing the programmatic feedback presented in the previous chapter and providing suggestions that address the identified areas of improvement actualizes this research objective. The final objective was related to the exploratory nature of this research project and a desire to use this study as a foundation for future studies. Thus, a methodological discussion will be included as well as recommendations for future research.

Summary of Findings

The purpose of this study was to better understand the effects of the Wilderness Ability Adventure program and to make suggestions as to how the program can better meet its objectives. The effects of the program were related to five research questions:

RQ1: How does participation in the Wilderness Ability Adventure program affect self-efficacy? (self-efficacy)

RQ2: How does the passing of time influence the skills and attitudes learned on a Wilderness Ability Adventure trip? (maintenance)

RQ3: How do the skills and attitudes learned on a Wilderness Ability Adventure trip influence other areas of that participant's lives? (transference)

RQ4: How does participation in a Wilderness Ability Adventure trip influence attitudes toward people with disabilities? (attitudinal change)

RQ5: How can the Wilderness Ability Adventure program be improved to better meet its objectives? (programmatic suggestions)

A multi-faceted methodology that incorporated both qualitative and quantitative data was employed to answer these questions. Data was first collected from open-ended interviews with eight rehabilitation professionals in an attempt to provide a foundation for the study. Next, participants in the Wilderness Ability Adventure program were sent

a survey to assess their feelings of self-efficacy and attitudes toward people with disabilities. Twenty-seven of the 43 participants completed and returned the instrument. Finally, 15 to 45 minute telephone interviews with 32 trip participants were conducted. These interviews were transcribed, coded and the findings presented.

Overall, the Wilderness Ability Adventure program appears to be successfully meeting most of its objectives. Both quantitative and qualitative data revealed that trip participants had relatively high levels of self-efficacy strength. Longitudinal analysis determined that both efficacy and attitudes toward people with disabilities were not statistically different when measured between temporal groupings of the participants. However, several participants commented on the difficulty of maintaining desired attitudes and beliefs stating that financial concerns, lack of support systems, and inability to adjust to new roles hindered this desire. Some of areas of participant's lives that were positively affected by the program included their social life, self-confidence, ability to complete various tasks, and determination. The work-lives of participant's were also influenced including their workplace confidence, empathy, and awareness of disability issues. The trip also encouraged people to evaluate their perceptions of people with disabilities. Several participants commented on the relationship between a physical disability and mental health stating the importance of keeping a positive mental attitude. Others overcame apprehension of traveling with people with disabilities and began to have a better understanding of what it is like to live with a disability.

Data Interpretation

Qualitative and quantitative data both support the assertion that participation the Wilderness Ability Adventure program positively affects feelings of self-efficacy.

Evidence of this assertion is found in the consistently high scores on the survey and the frequency of efficacy statements in the follow-up interviews. However, it should be noted that it was not possible to establish a statistical baseline due to the inability to implement either a pretest/ post-test design or a control/experimental design. Therefore, it is difficult to draw any firm conclusions.

Novelty of the experience seemed to play a direct role in the extent to which the trip effected the self-efficacy of participants. This was seen most clearly in the attitudes toward people with disabilities section of the interviews, in which participants regularly commented that the trip didn't affect them because of a previously established set of attitudes. This also held true in the outdoor skill section in which people who didn't have outdoor experience seemed to be more powerfully influenced by the trip.

Related to the novelty of the experience is the level of apprehension that was held by the participant before the trip. Several participants commented that their confidence increased after they were able to accomplish something that had seemed insurmountable. Interestingly, this apprehension was most often related to interacting with a group of strangers for numerous days instead of being directed at a fear of a specific task or physical obstacle. This finding directly relates back to Bandura's notion that efficacy is primarily shaped by past histories of success or failure. It stands to reason that people who have a history of interacting with people with disabilities or spending time in the outdoors will already have a high level of efficacy and will not experience the same degree of efficacy change as those who don't have that experience.

Another factor that mediated the participant's self-efficacy was the role on the trip that a specific participant played. There was an evident difference between the way

brokers and claimants expressed their perceptions of the trip. One of the reasons for this might be attributed to the ability of the brokers to emotionally and sometimes physically distance themselves from the group. This distance encouraged some of the brokers to conceptualize the trip as a great opportunity for people with disabilities, but not necessarily as an opportunity for the brokers themselves to experience personal growth. For instance, when asked how the trip effected their lives, three of the brokers from the BWCA trip mentioned that it was great to see other people grow and become more aware, but they failed to comment on how that same growth influenced their own lives. Thus, the role they were playing on the trip encouraged them to frame the experience as one designed to improve the emotional and physical state of the disabled participants, but not necessarily to improve themselves.

The maintenance variable resulted in some of the more interesting findings for the study. The data suggested that effects of the trip were not significantly influenced by the passing of time. The ANOVA's that were conducted using time as the fixed variable all showed very little variance between the different groups. This finding is questionable given that the power on the ANOVA's were very low, making it difficult to test for anything but the most pronounced differences. However, the similarities between the groups were also evident in the responses of the follow-up interviews. One of the possible reasons for this similarity could be attributed to the strong vicarious response that most participants seemed to have in relation to the trip and their fellow participants. It was interesting that 26 of the 32 people interviewed repeatedly mentioned the groups one of the most positive facets of the experience. They often asked about the well being of their companions and requested that messages be passed on. These strong feelings of

connectedness and community didn't seem to fade with time. The Attean Pond participants appeared to feel as strongly about their group as the Everglades participants. When asked to state his/her most prominent memories, one claimant from the BWCA trip stated:

I would have to say the unity and teamwork. Pulling together. We came together with different people who don't know each other, but if people come together and strive to work towards a common goal than they can get things accomplished.

The ability to maintain these feelings of cohesion over time might also be related to how different the experience is from the everyday lives of the majority of the participants. The experience is conceptualized as existing outside of the normal frame of reference and the feelings of community seem to be maintained in this somewhat independent frame. One claimant stated,

It was so nice to be away from my regular life for awhile. People seemed to really accept me for who I am and not who they wanted me to be.

Another broker mentioned that he/she has sought to establish a replicate community in his/her everyday life. The broker stated,

The trip taught me that I can find people who truly care for me as a person. When I returned home I felt for the first time in a long time that I have the ability to find a job that allows me to be myself. A place that lets me be me.

Given that the experience was most often conceptualized as existing outside of the everyday frame of reference for the participant's, it was interesting to study how that

experience was transferred back into their everyday lives. Perhaps the most striking finding was the similarities that existed between the areas of participant's lives that were influenced by the trip. These similarities were surprising given that the Wilderness Ability Adventure program has included participants from a wide variety of social classes, levels of abilities, and ethnic backgrounds. Even with this seemingly diverse population, almost half of the respondents mentioned that the trip increased their self-confidence in relation to social life and interpersonal skills. A majority also commented that the trip made them more appreciative of the occupational, physical or emotional components of their lives.

The one area where there was a marked difference between the responses of different participant's was the work-life variable. Several participants mentioned that the trip radically changed the way they work or pursue work, arguing that their confidence, risk taking and determination all increased due to the trip. These responses stood in sharp contrast to the majority of the participants who commented that the trip didn't affect the way they work or pursue work. One of the reasons for this discrepancy could be related to the controversial nature of the employment variable for some of the respondents. For many of the claimants, this subject is especially charged given that disability payments from The Hartford is one of their primary sources of income. Apprehension about how the information from the interview would be used may have hindered them from honestly answering some of the employment questions. This issue will be more thoroughly addressed in the program suggestion section.

One area where similarity of experience was more evident was in the attitude toward people with disabilities section. Evidence from the ATDP scale and the follow-up

interviews suggest that the trip seemed to have a positive effect on participant's attitudes. Interestingly, this effect was similar regardless of the level of ability of the respondent. Several of the people with disabilities mentioned that the trip forced them to reconceptualize their perceptions of people with specific disabilities. For instance, one person with a disability said,

The trip opened my eyes as to how people with disabilities see themselves and their situations. I mean I am in a wheelchair and I don't think my situation is all that different from someone who is walking. Some of these people were like traumatic brain injured and I had no idea what to expect from them.

A broker who doesn't have a disability commented,

I learned a lot about what it means to live in a wheel chair or have some of these other types of disability issues. I'm not around many people with disabilities most of my regular life.

One of the possible reasons for this positive attitudinal change is that the trips create opportunities for people to have intimate and personal interaction while working toward the accomplishment of a common goal. This personal interaction allows people to get past the usual stereotypic barriers that shape typical interactions as people build meaningful relationships. These relationships gave participants the confidence to enact different social roles than the ones they played in everyday life. Exploring new roles also allowed participants to find ways that they could contribute to the group. These

contributions often resulted in feelings of self-worth and perceptions of the value of all group members. One claimant commented,

I was basically totally helpless physically, but I was able to contribute emotionally and intellectually to the group and that is probably more important.

These experiences of attitudinal change directly relate back to the factors identified by Yuker (1988) that lead to positive change. Yuker argues that cooperation, close interaction, establishing helping relationships, and establishing positive norms all encourage positive change. The interesting thing about the Wilderness Ability Adventure program is that these factors are inherently structured into the experience. Participants quickly learn the importance of working together as a team as the group strives to accomplish common goals. This situation creates a co-dependence that encourages the group to make use of all of the strengths of all the members. This co-dependence encourages participants to build trusting and honest relationships. Perhaps one of the most important attitudinal changes that can come out of these relationships is for people without disabilities to stop feeling pity for people with disabilities. Feeling sorry for someone makes it difficult to conceptualize that person as being an individual in their own right with a variety of strengths and weaknesses. One employee stated,

Before the trip I generally felt sorry for people with disabilities and how hard their life must be. Now I try to think of them as individuals.

Suggestions for Future Research

There are several drawbacks to this study that if properly addressed would increase the validity and scope of the conclusions. Due to a handful of issues, the methodology employed in the study does not allow for statistical conclusions to be drawn for the data. This inability is related specifically to low sample sizes resulting in low

power, inability to use a pre-trip/post-trip design and an inability to make use of a control group. Low sample sizes can be attributed to the monetary and temporal expense of the trips for the sponsoring agencies and participants. One way to overcome these low sample sizes would be to locate populations that have similar characteristics as the Wilderness Ability Adventure participants who have also gone on wilderness adventures. This expanded population could easily include people who go on WI trips but aren't affiliated with The Hartford. The key to implementing a pre-trip/post-trip design is being proactive and having a research program in place before the trip is conducted. Obviously, the opportunity to implement this type of design is lost once the trip begins. In the absence of pre-trip data, a control group could be used to provide a statistical baseline for the findings. The control group should be as similar as possible to the trip participants to eliminate as many extraneous variables as possible.

Another drawback to the study that relates to both the methodology and the subject matter is the use of self-reported data to understand potentially controversial topics. This study addressed two variables that have the potential to elicit a wide range of highly charged emotions: attitudes toward people with disabilities and employment. The attitudes with disabilities variable is controversial due to the high degree of social desirability that accompanies questions related to underrepresented populations. This situation is exacerbated because the ATDP scale is designed to assess attitudes on a positive versus negative dimension. Thus, it is possible to view these questions as having a right and wrong answer. The desire to not give the wrong answer could partially account for the lack of variance on the ATDP scale. It seems that beliefs about controversial topics are often expressed in more subtle fashions than a Likert style

question could capture. One suggestion for future research would be to use role-plays to encourage respondents to talk about behaviors instead of attitudes. The responses to the role-plays could be categorized and coded in a similar manner as the interviews. These role-plays could also allow participants to better explain and justify their responses, allow them to express an attitudinal middle ground.

Another potentially controversial variable addressed in the study surrounds the complex issue of employment. This variable is especially charged for claimants who may be highly suspicious of attempts by their insurance provide to reduce their claims. Being approached by a researcher who is evenly loosely affiliated with The Hartford and WI, some respondents seemed hesitant to honestly communicate how the trip might have effected them. This hesitancy came out in several ways. One participant refused to take part in he study at all, commenting that she/he didn't want to discuss these topics with the researcher. Others who did participate in the study often asked throughout the course of he interviews what the information was being used for. One claimant asked,

C: Are you sending these results to The Hartford?

R: Yes I am, but people's names won't be attached to their statements.

C: Well it still wouldn't be too hard to figure out who said what.

Another claimant commented,

I'm a little bit apprehensive to discuss some of this stuff with you because I have had difficulties with the whole claim thing in the past.

Given the implicit controversial nature of the employment variable, and the apparent apprehension that accompanied the employment discussion, it would be advantageous for the researcher to incorporate trust-building components into the methodology. Donaghy

(1984) assets that trust can be built into open-ended formats where the researcher seeks to interact more as a peer, sharing information about him or herself throughout the course of the interview.

Another methodological suggestion relates to the relatively static research design that was implemented in this study. The design focused attention on individual difference between various groups, but it did nothing to explain how those difference evolved throughout the experience. For instance, it would be interesting to study how the process of efficacy change changes throughout the trip. This type of process design would possible allow the researcher to identify critical points in the trip where efficacy is significantly altered. Thus, the process of development would be the focus instead of analyzing the end results only. The need for more process studies in outdoor adventure education was reinforced in a recent meta-analysis conducted by Hattie, Marsh, Neill, and Richards (1997) who assert that is critical for researchers to investigate process variables that lead to attitudinal and behavioral change.

It would also be interesting to better understand how metaphors are constructed throughout the experience and how these metaphors are incorporated back into the everyday lives of the participants. Metaphor analysis has been used by an array of scholars to aid understanding about social life (Deetz & Mumby, 1985; Embler, 1951), interpersonal relationships (Cohen, 1979), and conflict resolution (Smith & Turner, 1987). This type of metaphor analysis could lead to a better understanding of how manipulation of different metaphorical frameworks aid in the transference of learning. A second area that would aid in this understanding would be to analyze the stories that are constructed throughout the trip. Bormann and Bormann (1992) assert that cohesion is

formed in groups when the members exchange group fantasies and stories. These shared linguistic experiences bring about what Bormann (1990) calls symbolic convergence as members relate their values and attitudes through the shared stories. It would be interesting to apply Symbolic Convergence Theory to understand how those stories aid in transference.

Programmatic Suggestions

These suggestions are closely related to the programmatic feedback presented in Chapter 4 and are organized in similar categories: pre-trip and arrival suggestions, suggestions for the trips themselves, and clarification of roles and purpose suggestions.

Most of the pre-trip feedback could be addressed with better communication between the sponsoring agencies and the participants. Sending a thorough trip itinerary to participants that accounts for the time period before the trip actually starts would be extremely helpful. This added information is especially important for people with disabilities who may not be accustomed to travel and may be apprehensive about the travel arrangements. This itinerary should also clearly indicate what trip expenses The Hartford will meet and what expenses are the responsibility of the participants. It would also be advantageous for The Hartford employees to be made aware of their possible responsibilities before the trip begins.

The trips themselves could be improved with better communication between trip participants and WI staff. Several people from the Everglades trip mentioned that they would have preferred being told about the long paddle on the first day. Incorporating participants in the decision making process from the outset can encourage them to take ownership of the experience and feel like they are an integral part of the team. Another

area where communication could be improved is in relation to conflict identification and resolution. Two participant mentioned that they didn't feel comfortable sharing negative feelings with the group. The trip leaders can establish an open communication environment by modeling strong communication behaviors for the participants.

Clarification of roles and purpose of the Wilderness Ability Adventure program is perhaps the most difficult area to adequately address due to the somewhat inherent conflicts of interest that exist between different participants on the trip. Claimants may be apprehensive about their disability claim, Hartford employees may be concerned about becoming overly intimate with the claimants, and brokers may feel that the trip somehow beholds them to The Hartford. However, clearly outlining the objectives of the Wilderness Ability Adventure program could help alleviate some of these possible conflicts. This clarification would allow participants to better understand what their role on the trip is and how that role fits into the overall objectives of the program. It may also be advantageous to revisit the stated objectives of the program, seeking to better align the objectives with the current program goals. One possible change would be to position the objectives as applying to all the participants instead of positioning specific populations as recipients of certain benefits. This framing would position the experience as beneficial to all participants, not just the claimants. The data showed that the perception of the trip is largely similar regardless of the role on the trip that the participant was enacting. This positioning would also reduce some of the emotional distance between the brokers and claimants.

Another addition to the program objectives would be to explicitly include the occupational rehabilitation component into both the stated objectives and in the way that

the trips are actually conducted. One way to implement this goal into the current program would entail making better use of the time period between when the participants arrive at the site before the WI portion or the trip actually begins. This time period at the outset of the trip could be spent helping participants get to know each other by clarifying their goals and objectives for the trip. The participants could be encouraged to relate these goals back to their everyday lives and specifically back to their occupational rehabilitation programs. This initial session would accomplish two objectives in that it would allow people to get to know each other and it would encourage them to focus on the getting back to work variable. Upon completion of the trip, participants could have a short debriefing where they are encouraged to revisit the goals and objectives that they outlined before the trip began. These goals would be operationalized and recorded with the participant retaining a copy and a copy being sent to The Hartford employee who works with the specific claimant. Upon returning home, The Hartford employee would be able to contact the person and see how they are progressing. The employee could also act as a source of information for the claimant concerning how The Hartford might aid in the actualization of the stated goals. This type of explicit goal setting would enhance the degree of metaphoric transfer that occurs due to participation in the program.

Conclusion

Adventure education has been defined by Miles and Priest (1991, pg. 1) as a “process whereby a conscious and overt goal of the adventure is to expand the self, to learn and grow, and progress toward the realization of human potential.” The Wilderness Ability Adventure program sponsored by The Hartford and coordinated by Wilderness Inquiry demonstrated the actualization of several of these goals. However, to reach its

fullest potential as an educational and training tool, the Wilderness Ability Adventure program, and adventure education in general, should continue to explore how skills and attitudes learned on adventure trips can successfully be transferred back into the everyday lives of participants.

References

Antonak, R. & Livneh, H. (1988). The measurement of attitudes toward people with disabilities. Springfield, IL: Charles Thomas.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. Psychology Review, 4, 191-215.

Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A., Jeffrey, R., & Gajdas, E. (1975). Generalizing change through participant modeling with self-directed mastery. Behavioral Research & Therapy, 13, 141-152.

Barron, F. (1953). An ego strength scale which predicts response to psychotherapy. Journal of Consulting Psychology, (17), 327-333.

Becker, H. & Schaller, J. (1995). Perceived health and self-efficacy among adults with cerebral palsy. Journal of Rehabilitation, April-June, 36-42.

Betz, N. & Hackett, G. (1986). Applications of self-efficacy theory to understanding career choice behavior. Journal of Clinical and Social Psychology, 4, 279-289.

Bormann, E. (1990). Small group communication: Theory and practice. New York: Harper Collins.

Bormann, E. & Bormann, N. (1992). Effective small group communication. Minneapolis, MN: Burgess Publishing.

Bruner, J. (1960). The process of education. New York: Vintage Books.

Cohen, T. (1979). Metaphor and the cultivation of intimacy. In S. Sacks (ed.) On metaphor. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Cormier, S. & Hagman, J. (1987). Transfer of learning: Contemporary research and applications. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Davidson, D. (1970). What metaphors mean. In S. Sacks (ed.) On metaphor. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Deetz, S. & Mumby, D. (1985). Metaphors, information, and power. In B. Ruben (ed.), Information and behavior (369-386). Brunswick, NY: Transaction Press

Donaghy, W. (1984). The interview: Skill and applications. Salem, WI: Sheffield Publishing.

Donaldson, J. (1980). Changing attitudes toward handicapped persons: A review and analysis of research. Exceptional Children, 46(7), 504-513.

Embler, W. (1951). Metaphor and social belief. ETC: A review or general semantics, 8(2), 83-93.

Galagan, P. (1987). Between two trapezes. Training and Development Journal, March, 40-50.

Galland, C. (1980). Women in the wilderness. New York: Harper & Row.

Gass, M. (1990). The longitudinal effects of an adventure orientation program on the retention of students. Journal of College Student Development, 31, 33-38.

Gass, M., Goldman, K., & Priest, S. (1992). Constructing effective corporate adventure training programs. Journal of Experiential Education, 15(1), 35-42.

Goldman, K. & Priest, S. (1991). Risk taking transfer in development training. Journal of Adventure Education and Outdoor Leadership, 7(4), 32-35.

Gurin, P., Gurin, G., Lao, R., & Beattie, M. (1969). Internal-external control in the motivational dynamics of Negro youth. Journal of Social Issues, 25, 29-53.

Hackett, G. & Betz, N. (1981). A self-efficacy approach to the career development of women. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 18, 326-339.

Hattie, J., Marsh, H., Neill, J., & Richards, G. (1997). Adventure education and Outward Bound: Out-of-class experiences that make a lasting difference. Review of Educational Research, 67(1), 43-87.

Hunter, M. (1979). Teach for transfer. El Segundo, CA: TIP Publications.

Laurence, M. & Stuart, T. (1990). The use of adventure in reducing and preventing socially deviant youth behavior. In J. Miles & S. Priest (eds.) Adventure Education (379-384). State College, PA: Venture Publishing

Lent, R. & Hackett, G. (1987). Career self-efficacy: Empirical status and future directions. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 30, 347-382.

Lincoln, Y. & Guba, E. (1985). Naturalistic inquiry. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Long, J. (1984). The wilderness lab. Training and Development Journal, 38(5), 58-69.

Long, J. (1987). The wilderness lab comes of age. Training and Development Journal, 41(3), 30-39.

Maddux, J. & Stanley, M. (1986). Self-efficacy theory in contemporary psychology: An overview. Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 4(3), 249-255.

McAvoy, L., Schatz, E., Stutz, M., Schleien, S., & Lais, G. (1989). Integrated wilderness adventure: Effects on personal and lifestyle traits of persons with and without disabilities. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 23(3), 51-64.

Miles, M. & Huberman, A. (1984). Qualitative data analysis. London: Sage.

Miles, J. & Priest, S. (1990). Introduction. In J. Miles & S. Priest (eds.) Adventure Education. State College, PA: Venture Publishing.

Mishler, E. (1986). Research interviewing: Context and narrative. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Moore, G. (1990). Adventure activities for school children. In J. Miles & S. Priest (eds.) Adventure Education (375-379). State College, PA: Venture Publishing

Morgan, G. (1989). Images of organizations. New York: Sage.

Murrow, R. (1994). Critical theory and empirical research. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Patton, M. (1990). Qualitative evaluation and research methods (2nd edition). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Petrini, C. (1990). Over the river and through the woods. Training and Development Journal, May, 25-36.

Priest, S., Attarian, A., & Schubert, S. (1993). Conducting research in experience-based training and development programs: Pass keys to locked doors. The Journal of Experiential Education, 16(2), 11-20.

Priest, S. & Lesperance, M. (1994). Time series trends in corporate team development. The Journal of Experiential Education, 17(1), 34-39.

Roessler, R. & Rumrill, P. (1994). Strategies for enhancing career maintenance self-efficacy of people with multiple sclerosis. Journal of Rehabilitation, Oct.-Dec., 55-59.

Rosenberg, M. (1965). Society and the adolescent self-image. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Rotter, J. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. Psychological Monographs, 80 (1), 252-273.

Sackmann, S. (1989). The role of metaphors in organization transformation. Human Relations, 42 (6), 463-485.

Schleien, S., Fahnestock, M., Green, B., & Rynders, J. (1990). Building positive social networks through environmental interventions in integrated recreation programs. Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 4, 42-51.

Schleien, S., McAvoy, L., Lais, G., & Rynders, J. (1993). Integrated outdoor education and adventure programs. Champaign, IL: Sagamore Publishing.

Sherer, M., Maddux, J., Mercandante, B., Prentice-Dunn, S., Jacobs, B., & Rogers, R. (1982). The self-efficacy scale: Construction and validation. Psychological Reports, *51*, 663-671.

Smith, R. & Turner, P. (1995). A social constructivist reconfiguration of metaphor analysis: An application of "SMCA" to organizational socialization theorizing. Communication Monographs, *62 (2)*, 152-181.

Strauss, A. (1987). Qualitative analysis for social scientists. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Strauss, A. & Corbin, J. (1990). Basics of qualitative research: Grounded procedures and techniques. New Park, CA: Sage.

Sugarman, D. (1990). Programming adventure education for older adults. In J. Miles & S. Priest (eds.) Adventure Education (403-411). State College, PA: Venture Publishing.

Szymanski, E. & Hanley-Maxwell, C. (1996). Career development of people with developmental disabilities: An ecological model. Journal of Rehabilitation, Jan-March, 48-55.

Voeltz, L. (1980). Childrens attitudes toward handicapped peers. American Journal of Mental Deficiency, 84(5), 455-464.

Voeltz, L. (1982). Effects of structured interactions with severely handicapped peers on children's attitudes. American Journal of Mental Deficiency, 86(4), 380-390.

Yuker, H. (1988). The effects of contact on attitudes toward disabled persons: Some empirical generalizations. In H. Yukers (ed.) Attitudes toward persons with disabilities (262-275). New York: Springer Publishing.

Yuker, H., Block, J., & Youngg, J. (1966). The measurement of attitudes toward disabled persons. Albertson, NY: Human Resource Center.