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**Public Park Visit Motivation, Constraint, and Constraint Management Process**

This research constitutes a first trial to examine the impact of public park visit motivations, constraints, and constraint management strategy use on park visitation in South Korea and Asia, and was conducted to compliment the lack of research on public parks. A self-administered questionnaire survey was administered in ten popular public parks in Seoul. Four hundred thirty one questionnaires were finally utilized for data analysis, for which a structural equation modeling technique was used. The results suggest that park visit constraints play a negative role, while park visit motivations and constraint management strategy use play a positive role in encouraging a park visit. The author recommends further investigation on the specific role of motivations, as motivations did not play a positive role in leisure activity participation in some other studies.

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Keywords: park visit motivations, constraints, constraint management, negotiation

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## **Introduction**

Leisure is defined as “time when one is not working or occupied; free time” (Oxford Dictionaries 2016a); and “time free from the demands of work or duty, when one can rest, enjoy hobbies or sports, etc” (dictionary.com 2016a). The concept of leisure as “free time” is commonly understood by the public, and frequently mentioned in academic studies (e.g. Park 2009; Yoon 2012), though some other scholars regard leisure as an activity or set of activities, a state of mind (Mannell & Kleiber 1997), or an experience (Rossman & Schlatter 2000).

It is assumed that South Koreans have had more leisure (free time) since the 5-day work system was introduced in 2003 (Korea Ministry of Government Legislation 2015). It is also assumed that Saturday and Sunday two-day weekends have provided more opportunities to participate in leisure activities such as park visits. There are around 21,005 parks in the Republic of Korea, and 2,110 parks in Seoul (Statistics Korea 2014). These parks include children’s parks, history parks, culture parks, sports parks, nature parks, neighbourhood parks, etc. Parks, including public and commercial parks, play an essential role as a rest, comfort, or amusement provider. Public parks, open to anyone and without an entrance fee, play a great role by reducing financial constraints. Neighbourhood public parks, reducing financial and time constraints, are popular among park area residents and also visitors from other areas. It is assumed that the role of neighbourhood public parks as a resting area for weekends has increased as two-day weekends are not enough for long distance travel. In public parks, visitors walk around, exercise, bike, take a rest, enjoy a picnic, play sports or games, and even have weddings. Public parks, therefore, are anticipated to be more popular thanks to the introduction of the 5-day work system. Thus, more systematic and active research on their use seems to be required. This research is designed to examine the relationships among public park visit motivations, constraints, constraint management strategy use, and park visitation.

## **Literature Review**

### ***The Role of Parks***

A park is “a large public garden or area of land used for recreation” (Oxford Dictionaries 2016b) and “an area of land, usually in a largely natural state, for the enjoyment of the public, having facilities for rest and recreation, often owned, set apart, and managed by a city, state, or nation” (dictionary.com 2016b). According to The National Recreation and

Park Association (NRPA 2011), “a public park [is] any area or portions of areas dedicated or designated by any federal, state or local agency primarily for public recreational use.”

Public parks with no entrance fee are popularly visited by residents in the neighbourhood or other areas, while theme parks with an entrance fee are usually visited for special occasions. A theme park is classified as “an amusement park with a unifying setting or idea” (Oxford Dictionaries 2016c); “an amusement park in which landscaping, buildings, and attractions are based on one or more specific themes, as jungle wildlife, fairy tales, or the Old West” (dictionary.com 2016c).

Parks provide positive impacts economically, environmentally, and socially. For example, “Parks ... generate money for the local economy. A 2012 study shows Mammoth Cave National Park generates \$62 million a year for the south-Central Kentucky area” (Eastern Kentucky University 2016a). Commercial theme/amusement parks contribute to the local economy directly, while public parks without an entrance fee contribute to the local economy indirectly as visitors eat, go shopping, or use accommodation facilities in the neighbourhood areas of the parks. Environmentally, “[p]arks ... are proven to improve water quality, protect groundwater, prevent flooding, improve the quality of the air we breathe, provide vegetative buffers to development, produce habitat for wildlife” (Eastern Kentucky University 2016b). Nature parks play a critical role in protecting the environment and the health of residents, while theme parks play a role in amusing people. Socially, “[p]arks ... provide places for health and well-being that are accessible by persons of all ages and abilities, especially to those with disabilities” (Eastern Kentucky University 2016c). Neighbourhood parks satisfy visitors’ various needs, such as resting, exercising, jogging, dating, socializing, playing games or leisure sports, etc.

According to Thede et al. (2014), “Canada’s national parks play an essential role in protecting and maintaining biodiversity and representative natural landscapes across the country, and they also provide highly valued opportunities for education, recreation and tourism” (p. 626). Wilson et al. argued (2012), “Urban public parks provide vital physical, psychological, social, and environmental benefits to the communities in which they are located” (p. 39).

### ***Park Visit Motivations***

As parks play an important role in people’s daily lives, and also cause diverse impacts, park visit motivation several studies have been conducted over time (e.g. Kim et al. 1989, Kim 2008, Shin et al. 2009, Oh 2011, Park 2012, Kim & Jung 2013). In the park visit

motivation research, various visit motivation measurement items have been utilized. Some examples are measures pertaining to socialization (Kim et al. 1989, Han et al. 2000, Kim 2008, Kim & Kim 2012, Park 2012), nature appreciation (Kim et al. 1989, Han et al. 2000), cultural experience (Han et al. 2000, Kim & Kim 2012), entertainment purpose (Kim 2008, Park 2012), health or physical activities (Kim et al. 1989, Han et al. 2000, Kim & Kim 2012), escape (Han et al. 2000, Kim 2008), accessibility or convenience (Han et al. 2000, Kim 2008), religious and scientific inquiry or learning (Kim et al. 1989, Park 2012), and facilities (Han et al. 2000). These motivation factors play a positive role in attracting people to parks, which leads to the following hypothesis.

H1. Park visit motivations have a direct positive influence on park visitation.

### ***Park Visit Constraints***

People visit parks with various motivations, however, diverse constraints prevent people from visiting parks. There have been studies on park visit constraints, e.g. Lee (2004), Mowen et al. (2005), Hung and Crompton (2006), Zanon et al. (2013). The constraint measurement items utilized for questionnaires have been diverse. For example, Lee (2004) used: lack of light facilities at night, poor park facilities, distance, time, too tired to visit parks after work, no partners to visit together, safety issue. While Mowen et al. (2005) used such constraint items as: lack of time, busy with other activities, busy with family responsibilities, fear of crime, pursue recreation elsewhere, lack of information, no one to go with to parks, poor health, parks are too far away, don't like outdoor recreation, no way to get to parks, lack of public transportation, parks are too crowded, costs too much. These constraint items are park visit barriers, which lead to the following hypothesis.

H2. Park visit constraints have a direct negative influence on park visitation.

### ***Leisure Activity Constraint Management***

As researchers became especially concerned about how individuals overcome leisure (free time) activity participation constraints in the 1990s (e.g. Crawford et al. 1991, Scott 1991, Jackson et al. 1993, Jackson & Rucks 1995), a number of studies on constraint management strategies/resources emerged. Some examples of constraint management strategies are *finance management* (Kay & Jackson 1991, Jackson & Rucks 1995, Hubbard & Mannell 2001, Little 2002, Son et al. 2008, Stanis et al. 2009, Hung & Petrick 2012), *time*

*management* (Kay & Jackson 1991, Samdahl & Jekubovich 1997, Jackson & Rucks 1995, Hubbard & Mannell 2001, Little 2002, Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell, 2007, Son et al. 2008, Stanis et al. 2009, Alexandris et al. 2013), *skill acquisition/development* (Scott 1991, Hubbard & Mannell 2001, Little 2002, Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell 2007, Son et al. 2008, Stanis et al. 2009), and *choosing alternative activities* (Kay & Jackson 1991, Samdahl & Jekubovich 1997, Henderson et al. 1995, Jackson & Rucks 1995, Little 2002).

There have also been empirical efforts to verify the effects of constraint management strategy/resource use, for which relationships among leisure activity motivations, constraints, constraint management/negotiation strategy use, and participation have been examined (e.g. Hubbard & Mannell 2001, Son et al. 2008, Stanis et al. 2009). Hubbard and Mannell (2001) developed four relationship models, tested in the physical recreation areas of four companies, and stated “only the constraint-effects-mitigation model received strong support” (p. 158), in which it is suggested that the non-significant path from motivation to participation be removed (see Figure 1).

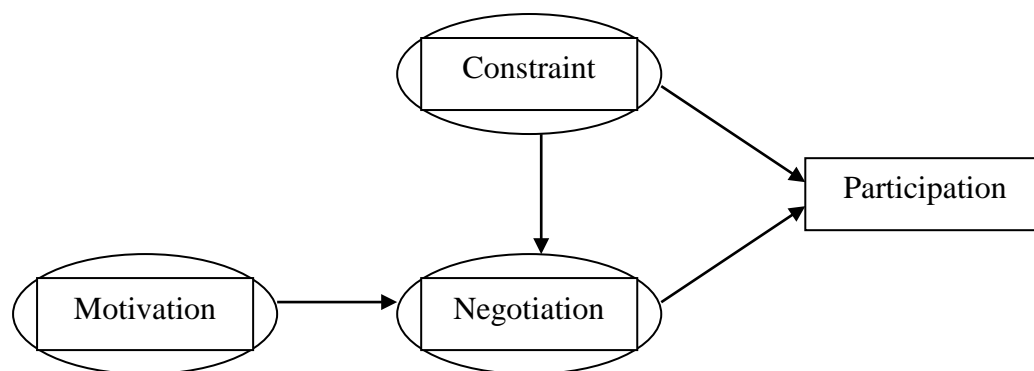


Figure 1. Modified Constraint-Effects-Mitigation Model (Hubbard and Mannell 2001, p. 156)

The modified model presents the paths from motivation to negotiation, from negotiation to participation, from constraint to negotiation, and from constraint to participation. These paths indicate that positive motivation influences negotiation, positive negotiation outcomes lead to participation, positive resource use helps overcome constraints, and negative constraints limit participation.

The relationship models developed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001) were also tested by Son et al. (2008) and Stanis et al. (2009), while White (2008) added “negotiation efficacy” items, and Hung and Petrick (2012) utilized “travel intention” items, instead of “participation”. These constraint negotiation process tests were applied to work site physical recreation activities (Hubbard & Mannell 2001), outdoor recreation (White 2008), physically active leisure activities (Son et al. 2008), park visitors’ physical activity (Stanis et al. 2009), and cruising (Hung & Petrick 2012).

The Hubbard and Mannell’s study result of the positive influence of motivation on negotiation (the path from motivation to negotiation) is consistent with the results by Son et al. (2008), Stanis et al. (2009), White (2008), Hung and Petrick (2012), which can lead to the following hypothesis.

H3. Park visit motivations have a direct positive influence on park visit constraint management strategy/resource use

The positive outcome of the resource use to overcome constraints (the path from constraint to negotiation) is proven through the research by Hubbard and Mannell (2001) and White (2008), while this result is not supported by Son et al. (2008), Stanis et al. (2009), Hung and Petrick (2012). In this study, based on the results by Hubbard and Mannell (2001) and White (2008), the following hypothesis is built.

H4. Park visit constraints can be overcome through constraint management strategy use

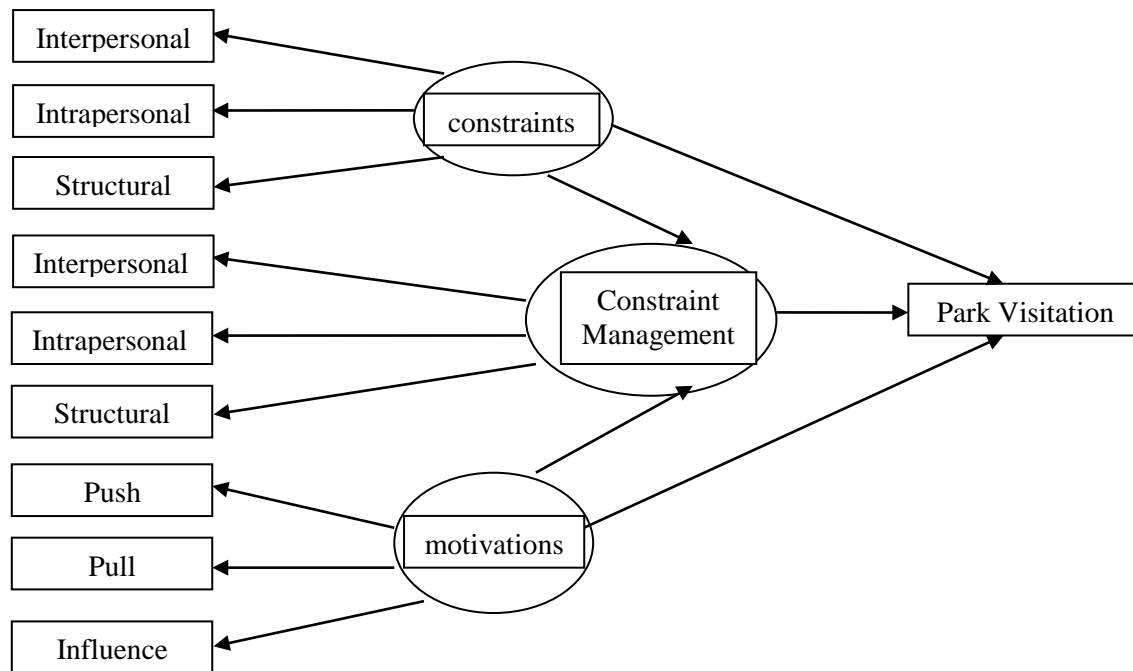
In the research by Hubbard and Mannell (2001), constraint negotiation (the path from negotiation to participation) influences participation positively. This finding is consistent with the outcomes by other studies, e.g. Son et al. (2008) and Stanis et al. (2009), while the result is not supported by White (2008). The following hypothesis for this research is constructed based on the study results by Hubbard and Mannell (2001), Son et al. (2008) and Stanis et al. (2009).

H5. Park visit constraint management has a direct positive influence on park visitation.

## Research Design and Method

The research model, *Park Visit Constraint Management Process*, is constructed based on five research hypotheses (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. Park Visit Constraint Management Process



In this model, the park visit motivation items were 1) motivations to enjoy the various attractive factors of the park (e.g. scenery, fresh air), 2) personal reasons (e.g. exercise, stress release, time with friends), and 3) recommendation by others, which were named as pull, push, and influence factors, respectively. The push and pull categorization was presented by Crompton in 1979 and frequently used in leisure, travel, park visit motivation studies (e.g. Han et al. 2000, Chan & Baum 2007, Kimmm 2009a, Pesonen et al. 2011, Suni & Komppula 2012, Kimmm 2012a, Kimmm 2012b). The influence category was suggested by Kimmm in 2009a.

Constraint items used were: time, money, weather, distance, accommodation, transportation, information, crowding, no attractive factor in the park, no interest in park visit, health, preparation (e.g. meal), lack of partners, partners' time, partners' economic situation, partners' different park preference. In the research model, park visit constraint items were categorized into structural, intrapersonal and interpersonal factors. These constraint

categorizations have also been utilized in other constraint negotiation studies (e.g. Hubbard & Mannell 2001, Son et al. 2008, White 2008, Stanis et al. 2009, Hung & Petrick 2012).

Constraint management items used in this research were: visiting a close park, visiting during weekends or vacations, visiting a park which does not cost much, utilizing saving, visiting a park on a fine day, visiting a park taking less than 6 hours on transportation, visiting a park when it is not crowded or during off-seasons, using a travel bus or a travel train, getting information through travel agencies or the internet, trying to be interested in park visitation, visiting a park in which exercise is possible, preparing for park visitation, visiting a park by others' request, visiting only with partners, visiting alone, choosing other leisure activities.

A self-administered questionnaire survey was frequently utilized in the research on the relations among motivation, constraint, constraint negotiation, and participation (e.g. Hubbard & Mannell 2001, Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell 2007, Son et al. 2008, White 2008), and also in the park visit studies conducted in South Korea (e.g. Seok et al. 2005, Kim 2008, Oh 2011, Jang et al. 2011, Kim & Kim 2012, Kim & Jung 2013, Han et al. 2013). In this research, a self-administered questionnaire survey was also utilized to examine the relationship of park visitors' motivation, constraints, constraint management, and park visitation. The questionnaire utilizing the 5-point likert scale was composed of 5 sections: park visitation, motivations, constraints, constraint management resources, and profile questions.

## **Data Collection**

Previous park visit motivation, constraint, or/and satisfaction studies in South Korea usually chose one park for data collection, e.g. Kaya Mountain National Park (Kim et al. 1989), Hanla Mountain National Park (Shin et al. 2009), Jeju April 3<sup>rd</sup> Peace Park (Oh 2011, Jang et al. 2011), Daejeon Expo Science Park (Park 2012), Gyeryong Mountain National Park (Kim and Kim 2012), Jeju Island's Kimnyong Maze Park (Kim et al. 2012), Bukhan Mountain National Park (Han et al. 2013), and Han River Citizen's Park (Kim & Jung 2013). Convenience sampling was utilized frequently for on-site park visitor questionnaire surveys in South Korea (e.g. Han et al. 2000, Kim 2008, Shin et al. 2009, Oh 2011, Jang et al. 2011, Kim et al. 2012, Kim & Kim 2012, Han et al. 2013, Kim & Jung 2013).



In this study, judgment sampling was used in choosing the survey area and survey participants. Seoul, the capital of the Republic of Korea, was decided upon for data collection as it is a park condensed area with 2,115 parks (Statistics Korea 2014). The list of the parks in Seoul was obtained from the website of the Seoul Metropolitan Government (2014). The chosen questionnaire survey areas are ten recognized parks: Olympic, Seoulsup, Naksan, Boramae, Yongsan, Yeouido Wordcup, Yangjaesiminsup, Hankangsimin, and Bukseoulkkumaesup. Several parks were chosen instead of one specific park because obtaining a general understanding about South Koreans' park visit constraint management process seemed to be a priority. Park visitors were approached by the surveyors when they were taking a rest, since visitors in activities often refused to participate in the experiment survey.

Data was collected in July and August 2012, during two week days and weekends, between 9 a.m. and 9 p.m. A total of 478 questionnaires were collected, and 431 were utilized for data analysis after omitting unuseable (no response) questionnaires.

## **Data Analysis and Results**

The survey data was analyzed by using SPSS version 18 for participants' characteristics, and by utilizing AMOS version 18 for confirmatory factor analysis and path analysis using structural equation modeling. SEM has been used frequently in studies to investigate the relations among motivations, constraints, and negotiation (e.g. Hubbard & Mannell 2001, Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell 2007, Son et al. 2008, White 2008, Stanis et al. 2009, Jun and Kyle 2011, Hung & Petrick 2012).

Cronbach's alpha was utilized to measure internal reliability and confirmatory factor analysis was used to measure validity. The final items utilized for data analysis were two motivation items (pull and push), ten constraints items, and ten constraint management items (see Table2). For internal consistency, inter-uncorrelated items were excluded for the final data analysis (Iacobucci & Duhachek 2003, Hair et al. 2010).

### ***Respondents' Profile***

The general characteristics of the participants of this survey can be summarized as young, moderately educated and average income people, as 56.6% were in their 20s and 30s, 82% were either high school or university graduates, and 55% had monthly incomes between 1,000,000 and 4,000,000 won (see Table 1 Respondent Profile).

Table 1. Respondent Profile

		Frequency	Percentage
gender	male	215	49.9
	female	216	50.1
age	18 or 19 years old	34	7.9
	20 - 29 years old	122	28.3
	30 - 39 years old	122	28.3
	40 - 49 years old	69	16.0
	50 - 59 years old	68	15.8
	60 - 69 years old	16	3.7
marriage	single	194	45.0
	married	237	55.0
job	student	110	26
	self-employed	46	11
	company employee	70	16
	public servant	15	3
	teacher	8	2
	free-lancer	17	4
	professional	36	8
	others	129	30
monthly Income (Korean won)	below 1,000,000	147	34
	below 2,000,000	72	17
	below 3,000,000	104	24
	below 4,000,000	59	14
	4,000,000 or over	49	11
education	elementary school graduate	12	3
	middle school graduate	40	9
	high school graduate	172	40
	university school graduate	181	42
	graduate school graduate	26	6

The survey participants were 431 park visitors including 215 (49.9%) males and 216 (50.1%) females. Thirty four (7.9%) participants were in their teens, 122 (28.3%) in their 20s, 122 (28.3%) in their 30s, 69 (16%) in their 40s, 68 (15.8%) in their 50s, 16 (3.7%) were in their 60s or older. A great number of young people participated in the survey as 56.6% were in their 20s and 30s, while 43.4% were in their 40s and over. Sixty years old and over seniors were only 3.7 percent of participants.

One hundred ninety four (45%) participants were single, and 237 (55%) participants were married. Slightly more married people than singles participated. The participants belonged to one of five educational categories from elementary to graduate school. Most participants (82%) were either high school or university graduates. The participants' jobs varied: students (26%, 110 respondents), company employees (16%, 70 respondents), self-

employed (11%, 46 respondents), professionals (8%, 36 respondents), freelancers (4%, 17 respondents), public servants (3%, 15 respondents), teachers (2%, 8 respondents), and others (30%, 129 respondents). The participants belonged to one of five income categories. The majority of participants' (75%) incomes were below 3,000,000 won.

### ***Reliability and Validity Test Results***

This research used Cronbach's alpha to measure questionnaire item consistency. The results were satisfactory as all coefficient alphas were over 0.8 (0.936 for motivation items, 0.907 for constraints items, and 0.898 for constraint management items), which was greater than 0.7 suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994).

This research conducted confirmatory factor analysis (see Table 2), which turned out to be satisfactory, as the model fit statistics were adequate ( $\chi^2/df = 1.863$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , GFI=0.903, AGFI=0.908, CFI=0.987, TLI=0.984, RMSEA=0.45).

Table 2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Result

variables	items	S Estimate	S Error	C.R.	P value	M (SD)	C.A.	C.R.	AVE
constraints	structural constraints	0.532				2.393(.63)	0.907	0.993	0.885
	intrapersonal constraints	0.770	0.194	7.363	***				
	interpersonal constraints	0.603	0.153	7.477	***				
constraint management	structural constraint management	0.525				3.235(.56)	0.898	0.992	0.876
	intrapersonal constraint management	0.573	0.215	5.969	***				
	interpersonal constraint management	0.556	0.241	5.374	***				
pull motivation	various attractive factors of the park (e.g. scenery, fresh air)	0.909				3.28(.79)			
push motivation	personal reasons (e.g. exercise, stress release, time with friends)	0.967	0.035	29.991	***	3.41(.78)	0.936	0.965	0.880
structural constraints	distance	0.952				2.48(.77)	0.961	0.981	0.928
	accommodation	0.926	0.25	38.521	***				
	transportation	0.963	0.22	45.942	***				
	information	0.891	0.33	28.786	***				
intrapersonal constraints	health	0.926				2.34(.86)	0.944	0.971	0.943
	preparation (e.g. meal)	0.967	0.046	24.121	***				
interpersonal constraints	lack of partners	0.944				2.36(.84)	0.969	0.984	0.942
	partners' time	0.968	0.022	46.787	***				
	partners' economic situation	0.965	0.023	45.595	***				
	partners' different preference on a park	0.905	0.032	34.927	***				
structural constraint management	visiting a close park	0.948							
	visiting during weekends or vacations	0.998	0.018	60.553	***				
	visiting a park which does not cost much	0.999	0.017	61.462	***				
	visiting a park on a fine day based on the weather information	0.955	0.022	45.242	***				

	visiting a park taking less than 3 hours on transportation	0.966	0.017	60.367	***	3.62(.63)	0.987	0.992	0.956
	visiting a park when it is not crowded or during off-seasons	0.882	0.027	32.931	***				
intrapersonal constraint management	trying to be interested in park visits	0.934				3.26(.80)	0.897	0.944	0.894
	visiting a park after being prepared	0.874	0.081	12.562	***				
interpersonal constraint management	visiting a park by others' request	0.930			***	2.82(.89)	0.891	0.940	0.887
	visiting alone	0.865	0.073	14.968	***				
Model Fits	Chi-square=389.289 Degrees of freedom=209 GFI=0.903 AGFI=0.908 CFI=0.987 TLI=0.984 RMSEA=0.45					P < 0.001			
S. Estimate.: Standarized Estimate / S. Error: Standarized Error / C.A.: Cronbach's Alpha / C.R.: Composite Reliability									

*Reliability* is confirmed as all composite reliability measures are over 0.7 (0.965 for motivation items, 0.993 for constraint items, 0.992 for constraint management items). *Convergent validity* is also confirmed as all composite reliability measures are greater than the average value extracted (0.88 for motivation items, 0.885 for constraint items, 0.876 for constraint management items), and the measures of the average value extracted are all greater than 0.5. *Discriminant validity* is proven since the square of construct correlation coefficients is smaller than the average variance extracted (Fornell & Larcker 1981), shown in Correlation and AVE (see Table 3).

Table 3. Correlation and AVE

	Constraints	Constraint Management	Motivation
Constraints	0.885		
Constraint Management	0.120*	0.876	
Motivations	0.210**	0.250**	0.880
	** p<0.01	*p<0.05	

### Hypotheses Test Results

The structural equation modelling technique using AMOS 18.0 was conducted to test the relations among park visitors' motivations, constraints, constraint management/negotiation, and park visitation. The model fit statistics were satisfactory:  $\chi^2=23.354$ ,  $df=20$ ,  $NFI=0.982$ ,  $RFI=0.968$ ,  $IFI=0.997$ ,  $TLI=0.995$ ,  $CFI=0.997$ ,  $RMSEA=0.020$ . The hypotheses test results are presented in the Park Visit Constraint Management Process (Figure 3) and in the hypotheses test results (Table 4).

Figure 3. Park Visit Constraint Management Process

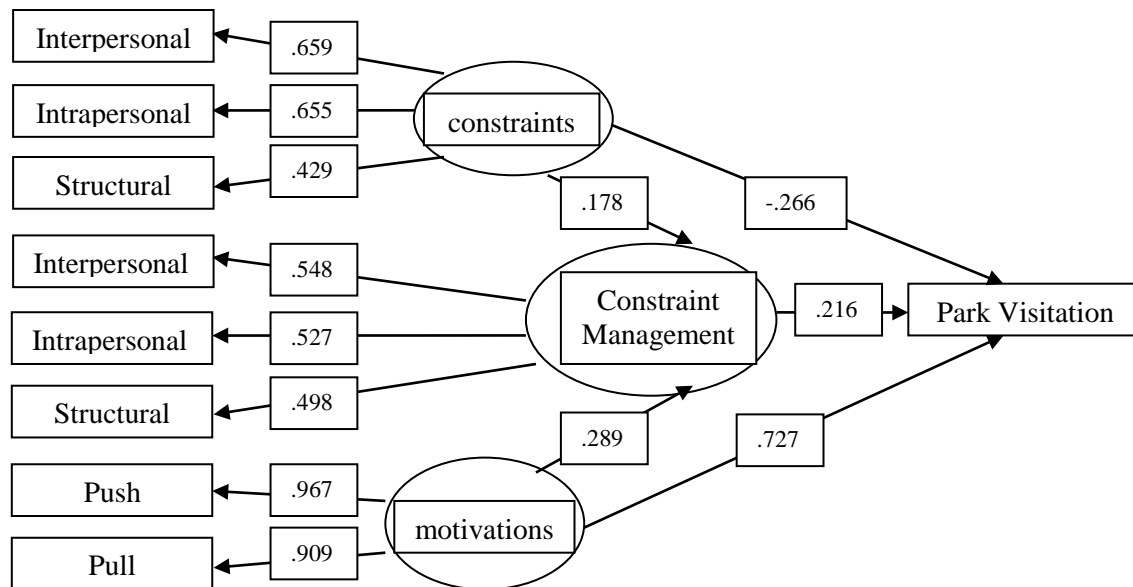


Table 4. Hypotheses Test Results

		s. estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P-value	Results
H1	motivations -> park visitation	0.727	0.052	16.823	***	accepted
H2	motivations -> constraint mgmt	0.289	0.034	3.722	***	accepted
H3	constraints -> park visitation	- 0.266	0.177	- 3.913	***	accepted
H4	constraints -> constraint mgmt	0.178	0.097	1.747	0.081	rejected
H5	constraint mgmt -> park visitation	0.216	0.179	3.309	***	accepted

$\chi^2=23.354$   $df=20$   $NFI=0.982$   $RFI=0.968$   $IFI=0.997$   $TLI=0.995$   $CFI=0.997$   $RMSEA=0.020$  \*\*\* $P<0.001$

Hypothesis 1, Park visit motivations have a direct positive influence on park visitation, is accepted as the path between motivations and park visitation is positive and significant ( $B = 0.727$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Hypothesis 2, Park visit constraints have a direct negative influence on park visitation, is accepted as the path between constraints and park visitation is negative and significant ( $B = - 0.266$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Hypothesis 3, Park visit motivations have a direct positive influence on park visit constraint management strategy use, is also accepted as the path between motivations and constraint management (strategy use) is positive and significant ( $B = 0.289$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Hypothesis 4, Park visit constraints can be overcome through constraint management strategy use, is rejected since the path between constraints and constraint management is positive, but is not significant ( $B = 0.178$ ,  $p 0.081 > 0.001$ ).

Hypothesis 5, Park visit constraint management strategy use has a direct positive influence on park visitation, is accepted since the path between constraint management (strategy use) and park visitation is positive and significant ( $B = .216, p\ 0.081 > 0.001$ ).

## Discussion

### *Motivations in the Constraint Management Process*

The general notion and also previous research results present that motivations play a positive role in leisure activity participation, and also in the constraint management process. Two hypotheses on the motivation role in the constraint management process were formed based on previous research results (H1. Park visit motivations have a direct positive influence on park visitation; H3. Park visit motivations have a direct positive influence on park visit constraint management strategy use), and both hypotheses were accepted.

The first hypothesis result, indicating the direct positive motivation role in participation, is consistent with the study results by White (2008), and Stanis *et al.* (2009), but is inconsistent with the study outcomes by Hubbard and Mannell (2001), and Son *et al.* (2008). The third hypothesis result, indicating the direct positive motivation role in constraint management strategy use, is consistent with the research findings by Hubbard and Mannell (2001), Son *et al.* (2008), White (2008), Stanis *et al.* (2009), and Hung and Petrick (2012).

The results indicate that the direct positive motivation role in participation has contradicting results, while the direct positive motivation role in constraint management strategy use is generally accepted. Regarding the rejected result of the direct positive motivation role in participation, Hubbard and Mannell commented that “. . . surprising given the general acceptance of the idea that motivation directly influences not only leisure but many other types of behavior . . . However, wanting or needing to do something does not mean that people, in fact, do it. . . Whether or not motivation is an immediate antecedent . . . is unclear and will have to be determined by future research” (2001 p. 159). Since clear reasons to explain different test results have not been suggested yet, further investigation is recommended as noticed by Stanis *et al.* who stated, “due to the inconsistency in findings, additional investigations to further explore these relationships are warranted” (2009 p. 299).

### *Constraints in the Constraint Management Process*

The common views and previous study findings indicate that constraints play a negative role in participation. Based on the previous study outcome, the second hypothesis, *Park visit constraints have a direct negative influence on park visitation*, was formed and

accepted as expected. This result, indicating the direct negative constraint role in participation, is supported by other studies (e.g. Hubbard & Mannell 2001, Son *et al.* 2008, White 2008, Jun & Kyle 2011).

The fourth hypothesis, *Park visit constraints can be overcome through constraint management strategy use*, was rejected. This result indicates that the park visitors were not active in using constraint management strategies or resources. The result is consistent with research outcomes by Son *et al.* (2008), Stanis *et al.* (2009), Jun and Kyle (2011), and Hung and Petrick (2012), but is inconsistent with research findings by Hubbard and Mannell (2001) and White (2008). Regarding the contradicting results, further research is recommended to clarify reasons.

Even though this research and Kimmm's research in 2009 were conducted in South Korea, the results are not consistent. It seems that the difference is caused by the characteristics of leisure activities. In other words, the constraint level can vary based on the types of leisure activities. It is possible that less structural constraints (e.g. distance, transportation, accommodation) exist in the case of park visitation than pleasure travel, for which distance or transportation can be a concern. It can be also assumed that structural constraints can be well managed in the case of park visitation as there are many other options/parks to visit. Further examination is suggested to verify clear reasons about the inconsistent study outcomes on the different types of constraints.

## Conclusion

This research examined the park visit motivations, constraints, constraint management strategies use, and the relationship among motivation, constraint, constraint management and park visitation. The results suggest that while constraints played a direct negative role in park visitation, motivations played a much stronger role in driving visits.

The findings of this research contribute to existing studies on the relationship among motivations, constraints, constraint management and visitation in some aspects. This research was conducted in Asia and investigated the role of park visit motivations, while most other studies were conducted in North America and examined the role of recreation motivations. This research also contributes to park visitation studies in South Korea since most study efforts have been exerted in verifying park visit motivations, and/or park visit constraints, while this research examined the relations of park visit motivations, constraints, constraint management strategy use, and visitation.



However, this research has some limitations. This study was conducted in the parks located in Seoul, targeting existing park visitors in order to have a better understanding about these visitors' visit motivations, constraints, and the use of the constraint management strategies. For future studies, it is recommended that research is conducted not only in Seoul but also in other areas, and research subjects include not only existing park visitors but also potential park visitors with serious park visit constraints.

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