

Sink or Swim:
Understanding Mexican American
Constraints and Facilitators for
Swim Lesson Participation
by
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ABSTRACT

The problem of the study was to investigate constraints and facilitators of Mexican American parents when deciding whether or not to enroll their children in formal swim lessons as a means of drowning prevention. The information obtained by this study (1) helps create awareness about youth drowning incidents and (2) provides insight about Mexican American perspectives and behaviors toward drowning prevention through, or not through as the case may be, youth formal swim lesson participation. This study's sample was purposively selected using typical case and snowball sampling techniques. Individual interviews were conducted with Mexican American parent participants and focus group interviews were conducted with aquatic personnel. From April to August, individual and focus group interviews were conducted in the border towns Sierra Vista, Bisbee, and Douglas in the state of Arizona. There were a total of 25 Mexican American parent participants: 10 had never enrolled their children in swim lessons and 15 had experience enrolling and observing their children in swim lessons. There were 3 focus groups interviews of aquatic personnel experts: Sierra Vista had 6, Bisbee had 7 and Douglas had 9 participants. The theory used to identify and classify the types of constraints and facilitators described in the findings of this study was the Leisure Constraints Theory proposed by Crawford, Jackson and Godbey, 1991. Finding from this study suggest that despite the uncommon perception, Mexican Americans youth are actually participating more in formal swim lessons than they have in past generations. Mexican American families in this sample reported major constraints for formal swim lessons as a reliance on learning from family and friends, swimming at private pools, money, time, and transportation as barriers to participation. Facilitators for Mexican

American youth to participate in formal swim lessons are youth drowning awareness, education, lack of parental swimming ability, generational social norm behavior changes, financial assistance and an attitude shift in favor of formal swim lessons.

DEDICATION

To Nancy and Kevin Murphy, thank you for your patience and support.

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In the United States, youth drowning incidents continue to prevail as one of the most common causes of unintentional injury death among children. Trailing behind motor vehicle crashes, fatal drowning is the second-leading cause of unintentional injury death for children under the age of fifteen (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2012). Drowning is the leading cause of unintentional injury for children one through four years old (Laosee & Gilchrist, 2012). Male children and adolescents have a greater risk of drowning death than females (Weiss, 2012). Male overconfidence in their swimming ability, greater exposure to aquatic environments, as well as tendency towards risk-taking behavior, is likely the cause for this disproportion (Howland, Hingson, Mangione, Bell, & Bak, 1996). Most fatal and nonfatal incidents in the U.S. occur on weekends during the summer months, June through August (Laosee & Gilchrist, 2012). In the summer, families often spend time together at the pool and vacation at beach locations because it is a relatively inexpensive way to spend time bonding and provides relief from summer heat.

Arizona's warm climate and abundance of public and private pools, ponds, lakes, and canals contribute to the increased year-round opportunity for unsafe water-related practices. Those practices can, and often do, lead to life-threatening and fatal water-related incidents. There are more than 300,000 residential swimming pools in Arizona (Arizona Department of Health Services [AZDHS], 2010). Three-quarters of all reported water-related incidents in Arizona over the past 18 years were in-ground and above-ground pool related as opposed to natural water, spa, bathroom, bucket, or any other type of alternative setting. According to the 2010 Water-Related Incidents Maricopa County Report, in the mid-1980s, Arizona ranked first in the nation's preschool drowning death

rate. To address this pertinent issue, the Drowning Prevention Coalition of Arizona (DPCA) was formed in the late 1980s (Laosee & Gilchrist, 2012).

In Maricopa County, the Arizona Department of Health Services (AZDHS) reported 2,413 (child and adult) water-related incidents from 1992 through 2010. “Dunkings,” or close-call, nonlife-threatening incidents, accounted for 576 of the 2,413 incidents reported. Thus, the remaining 1,837 incidents were categorized as life-threatening water-related incidents. Figure 1 from the 2010 Maricopa County water-related incidents report categorizes water-related incidents from 1992-2010 by severity, location, and age (AZDHS, 2010).

Figure 1. Categorization of water-related incidents during 1992-2010 in Maricopa County

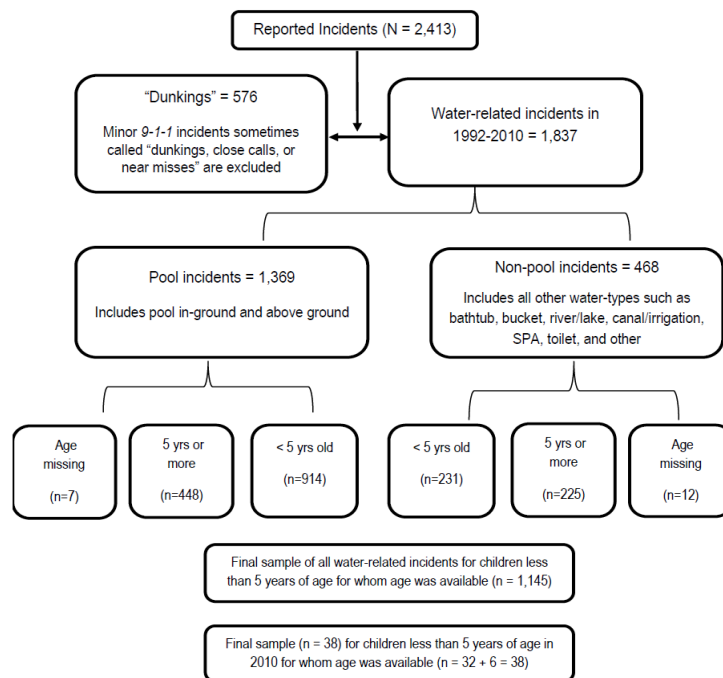


Figure 1. Categorization of water-related incidents during 1992-2010 in Maricopa County is from Arizona Department of Health Services (2010).

Out of the major cities in Maricopa County from 1992 through 2010, Phoenix was the standout city of critical concern. Phoenix is Arizona’s capital and largest city. As represented in Table 1 below, Phoenix recorded 924 water-related incidents, 63% of which were children under five years of age (AZDHS, 2010).

Table 1.

Percentage of water-related incidents in pools, by city and major age-group

Table 1. Percentage of water-related incidents in pools, by city and by major age-group

City name	Percentage of incidents during 1992-2010	
	5 years or older	< 5 years
Apache Junction (n=7)	29%	71%
Avondale (n=24)	33%	67%
Buckeye (n=6)	0%	100%
Cave Creek (n=2)	50%	50%
Chandler (n=66)	24%	76%
El Mirage (n=4)	25%	75%
Gilbert (n=80)	28%	73%
Glendale (n=110)	26%	74%
Goodyear (n=6)	60%	40%
Litchfield Park (n=2)	100%	0%
Mesa (n=295)	33%	67%
New River (n=1)	100%	0%
Other & Unknown Maricopa Co (n=21)	90%	10%
Paradise Valley (n=11)	18%	82%
Peoria (n=62)	53%	47%
Phoenix (n=924)	37%	63%
Queen Creek (n=4)	50%	50%
Rural Area Maricopa Co (n=48)	60%	40%
Salt River (n=6)	33%	67%
Scottsdale (n=78)	39%	61%
Sun City (n=1)	0%	100%
Sun Lakes (n=2)	100%	0%
Surprise (n=15)	40%	60%
Tempe (n=62)	50%	50%
Total (n=1837)	37%	63%

Note. Percentage of water-related incidents in pools, by city and major age-group is from Arizona Department of Health Services (2010).

Young children need constant, attentive adult supervision around water. Infants and toddlers can drown in as little as two inches of water (Szabo, 2011). Household hazards that are often overlooked by parents, older siblings, and legal guardians include the following threats: buckets, toilets, pets' water bowls, and bathtubs. All can be water safety threats. A drowning incident can happen in a matter of seconds and is usually silent (Elkins, 2009). When a child slips beneath the water, he or she will quickly sink (Weiss, 2010).

As previously mentioned, most drowning victims tend to be children under the age of five and male. However, there are other demographic variables besides age to take into consideration. Water does not discriminate, but according to demographic data certain ethnic groups tend to have a larger representation in the records of drowning incidents, while other ethnic groups are more likely to drown. Table 4, from the Maricopa 2010 Water-Safety Report shows demographic variables age, gender, and ethnicity data for water-related pool victims less than five years old. From 1992 through 2010, Hispanics were the second leading ethnicity group for water-related incidents in children under the age of five with a 26.6% representation. In 2010 alone, 17 Hispanic children accounted for 44.7% of all water-related pool incidents for children in Maricopa County under the age of five.

Table 2.

Distribution of water-related incidents in pools

Table 4. Distribution of water-related incidents in pools by age, gender, and race/ethnicity in children less than 5 years of age.

Demographic variables	2010 (N =38)		1992-2010 (N =1,145)	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
Age Less than one year	2	5.3%	97	8.5%
Age One year	5	13.2%	373	32.6%
Age Two years	17	44.7%	324	28.3%
Age Three years	7	18.4%	242	21.1%
Age Four years	7	18.4%	109	9.5%
Females	14	36.8%	464	40.5%
Males	24	63.2%	679	59.3%
Gender unknown	2	0.0%	2	0.2%
Hispanic	17	44.7%	304	26.6%
Non-Hispanic African American	1	2.6%	48	4.2%
Non-Hispanic Asian or Pacific Islander	1	2.6%	14	1.2%
Non-Hispanic Native American	0	0.0%	15	1.3%
Non-Hispanic Other Race	0	0.0%	14	1.2%
Non-Hispanic White	16	42.1%	603	52.7%
Unknown race and ethnicity	3	7.9%	147	12.8%

Note. Distribution of water-related incidents in pools is from Arizona Department of Health Services (2010).

In 2010, there was a significant increase in water related incidents for Latino children under the age of five. This could reasonably be the result of Arizona’s growing Mexican American population. Mexican Americans characteristically have a higher than average birth rate (Arciniega et al., 2002). Arizona’s geographical proximity to Mexico is conducive to immigration; therefore, Arizona has one of the highest Mexican American populations in the nation. Over the past 20 years, higher Hispanic birthrates resulted in a substantial increase of the Hispanic population less than 18 years of age (Arciniega et al., 2002). In Arizona, there are more Hispanic children, 17 and younger, than Caucasian (non-Hispanic) (Hansen & Dempsey, 2011). *The New York Times*

reported on March 11, 2011 that from 2000 to 2010 there was a 48% increase in the Hispanic population in Maricopa County.

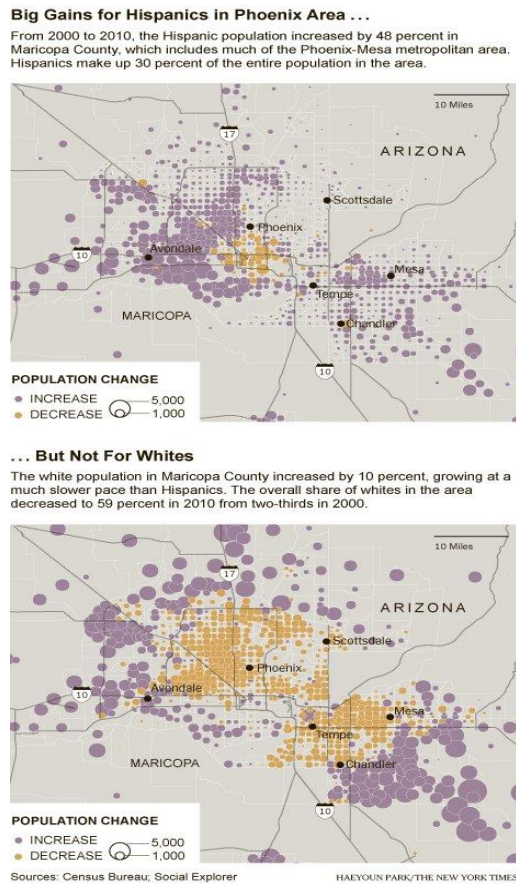


Figure 1. Big gains for Hispanics in Phoenix area is from the New York Times (2011).

A better understanding of the Latino culture in an aquatic recreation context is vital to reducing youth drowning deaths in Arizona. It is also an opportunity to learn about, and more appropriately reach out to the growing Latino consumer market. The significance of this study will be useful to the aquatic recreation field and more importantly it can potentially benefit the Mexican Americans community, who represent the largest subset of those identified as Latinos or Hispanics throughout the U.S. (Pew Hispanic Center, 2005).

The prominent causes which affect drowning risk are lack of swimming ability, lack of barriers to prevent unsupervised water access, lack of close supervision while swimming, unsafe swimming location choice, failure to wear life jackets, alcohol use, and seizure disorders (CDC, 2012). Studies have shown that participating in formal swim lessons reduced the risk of drowning among children ages one through four in the U.S. and China (Laosee & Gilchrist, 2012). Moreover, formal swimming lesson participation for children one through four could account for as much as 88% of the reduction in drowning risk (Brenner et al., 2009). It is reasonable to presume formal swim lesson education would also reduce the risk of drowning among older children and teens. Empirical evidence supports an inverse relationship between higher minority drowning rates and fewer opportunities to participate in swimming lessons (Martin & Witman, 2010). Many studies have reported higher minority drowning rates compared to the general population (Irwin, 2009; Koven, 2008; Martin, 2010; Sulja, 2006). Most studies related to race and ethnic swim lesson and drowning disparity focus on the African American population (Hastings, 2006; Irwin, 2011; Mael, 1995). Given the surging Latino population growth across the nation and especially in Arizona, it is surprising to find no specific Mexican American disparity in swim lesson involvement studies. It is a deficiency in aquatic safety recreation literature that Mexican American swim lesson participation or lack thereof, has yet to be examined.

By engaging in swim lessons, learning water-safety guidelines, and mastering advanced swimming level standards, children are safer and better prepared for aquatic experiences. Furthermore, if children and teens are competent and enjoy swimming it enables them to participate in a plethora of aquatic opportunities. Children and adults

who can swim are able to engage in the following aquatic recreation opportunities: swim teams, water polo clubs, water aerobics, triathlons, swimming laps, or leisurely swimming at the beach. Swimming is a lifelong, individual sport. It does not require a partner or team to participate; however, if competition is desired, one can swim against or with others for the social experience. Swimming is a unique sport because it takes place in a water environment. Buoyancy is water's greatest advantage (Katz & Bruning, 1981). The physical pressure relief of being in water as opposed to exercising on land makes swimming physically conducive, especially for injured, overweight, and elderly participants (Katz & Bruning, 1981).

Aquatic proficiency education classes provide children with the opportunity for motor skill development, sense of achievement, social skill development, and exercise. There are hundreds of thousands of pools in Arizona, and more than one million Mexican Americans. Given that there are hundreds of swim lesson classes available, why is it that Mexican American parents are unlikely to regularly enroll their young children in formal swim lessons?

The theory used to guide this study in attempting to understand constraints and facilitators inhibiting Mexican American youth swim lesson participation is the Leisure Constraint Theory. A hierarchical model of leisure constraints adapted from Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) suggests leisure constraints are a linear and sequential process (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). The three types of constraints, or barriers to participation, are intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). The Leisure Constraints Theory has been scrutinized through academic expert critique and criticism for being too general (Henderson, 1997; Jackson, 1997; Samdahl, 1997).

The absence of constraints does not guarantee participation. Thus it is necessary to also develop an understanding of what facilitates leisure participation. Facilitators are a term proposed to be separate from, but interact with, constraints to produce leisure participation (Raymore, 2002).

The potential for facilitating leisure participation and enhancing leisure experience lies in both the nature of the constraints and affordances that are present or can be created in the immediate environment and the psychological factors within the individuals that influence perceptions of these constraints and affordances (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997).

The problem of the study was to investigate constraints and facilitators of Mexican American parents when deciding whether or not to enroll their children in formal swim lessons as a means of drowning prevention.

Purpose of the Study

The information obtained by this study (1) helps create awareness about youth drowning incidents and (2) provides insight about Mexican American perspectives and behaviors toward drowning. prevention through youth formal swim lesson participation. The information provided from the interviews and focus groups in this study were used to uncover patterns and shed light on constraints and facilitators of Mexican American parents when deciding whether or not to enroll their children in formal swim lessons. Individual interviews and focus group discussion information were then utilized to better understand Mexican American behaviors in an aquatic context.

With a better understanding, aquatic recreation providers will be able to more effectively accommodate, promote, and provide water safety services for the Mexican

American population in Southeast Arizona. Furthermore, information obtained by this is transferable to communities that are similar in size, setting and population composition. Once Mexican Americans constraints and facilitators for swim lesson participation are identified and defined, aquatic recreation providers can more efficiently help this population participate in formal swim lessons. It is important the Mexican American community and the aquatic recreation community are aware of what is inhibiting Mexican American youth from participating in formal swim lessons. Together the two communities can learn how to effectively negotiate with the Mexican American constraints. Negotiation of constraints is a concept used to describe how leisure constraints may be navigated or overcome (D. White, 2008). Aquatic recreation providers can also aid in the constraint negation process by creating leisure affordance. Affordances provide new opportunities that can manage, reduce, or eliminate constraints (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). For the purpose of this study affordances are facilitators.

Justification for the Study

There is little scientific research on Latino American youth and their leisure and recreational behaviors in an aquatic recreation context. Much of what has been published about Latinos involvement in aquatics are unfortunately minority drowning disparity related reports (CDC, 2008; Irwin, 2009). Death certificates provide researchers with exact age, location, race and ethnicity data for drowning incident reports. However, reporting and recording accurate race, and/or ethnicity involvement in youth swim lessons is not common practice by aquatic service providers.

According to a 2010 study done by U.S.A. Swimming and the University of Memphis, 60% of Hispanic children have low or no swimming ability. In the U.S.,

Hispanics are the largest and fastest-growing minority group (Mellander, 2011).

Mexican origin continues to be the largest group within the Latino/Hispanic ethnicity.

Mexican Americans represented 58% in 2000 (U.S. Census, 2010) and 65% in 2011 (Pew Hispanic Center, 2013) of the total U.S. Hispanic population. As mentioned above, there are more Latino children under age 18 than Caucasian in Arizona. Despite their representation dominance and population growth, leisure and recreational behavior studies specifically addressing Mexican Americans are rare.

Since 2004, this researcher worked in the aquatic recreation field as a Red Cross and StarGuard certified lifeguard and water safety instructor, taught swim lessons for 6 years and coached swim teams. Living in Southeastern Arizona, one notices a growing Mexican American population, and yet most children involved in swim lessons and on swim teams were Caucasian, non-Hispanic. The lack of Mexican American youth involvement was and still is especially prominent in advanced swim class levels. Moreover, there was and continues to be a lack of Mexican American youth participation in competitive swim teams.

From 2004 through 2010 this researcher observed that many Mexican American males would wear underwear and casual clothing, such as t-shirts, basketball shorts, and cut jeans, instead of swimsuits in the pool. Women frequently wore sports bras, t-shirts and shorts in the pool. Both male and female Mexican Americans commonly wore jewelry in the water. Mexican American families normally stayed the shallow end. Many parents did not know how to swim. These Mexican American parents would stay in the shade and watch their children and yell at his or her child if he or she did not stay in a designated area. Teen and adults who desired to go into the deeper end of the pool would

regularly inch along the gutter, rarely letting go of the wall. Lastly, once Mexican American families came to the pool, they often seemed to stay longer than the average family. Normally they stayed at the pool until closing, as opposed to leaving after only an hour or two. When this researcher asked Mexican American teens and adults at the pool if they could swim the response was typically, “I can swim, but I can’t ‘swim swim’.” By this response Mexican Americans meant they could “doggy paddle” and make it to the wall, but they were not proficient in technical skills or competitive swimming strokes.

For youth swim lessons, it seemed as if on average most Mexican American parents wanted to know how long it would take for their child (5, 6, and 7 year olds) to learn how to swim. More often than not, once a Mexican American child was able to navigate from one side of the pool’s shallow side to the other, parents no longer enrolled them in lessons. In other words, once a Mexican American child could survival swim, he or she stopped participating in swim lessons and did not learn more advanced techniques, skills or build endurance. Furthermore, Mexican American parents requested their children, nieces and nephews all be enrolled in the same class, despite age differences and skill levels. Although, Mexican American parents sometimes spoke broken English, his or her children was usually fluent and just as able to learn to swim as any other child.

The following quotes are from Arizona aquatic safety recreation personnel (lifeguards and water safety instructors). The quote subject matter is about what they have witnessed and experienced in regards to swim lesson diversity, specifically addressing the Mexican American population’s participation or lack thereof, in formal youth swim lessons:

The City of Phoenix recognizes and has been working to address the issue of diversity in our swim lesson participation with our minority populations. Out of our 28 pools, 7 are located and attended by communities that are predominately Hispanic. However, the trend is that while the majority of people using these pools for recreational open swim are Hispanic, the majority of people taking swim lessons at these same pools are Caucasian. We contribute this to the cultural barriers that hinder the Hispanic communities from viewing swimming lessons as a necessity. Statistics show that if a parent does not know how to swim, there is only a 13 percent chance that a child in that household will learn how to swim. (Source: National research study by the USA Swimming Foundation and the University of Memphis). We are seeing that this is also true at our pools. If the parent doesn't know how to swim, they rarely put their children in swim lessons.

In the spring of 2012, we put together this Public Service Announcement to target our minority communities and to stress the importance of Swim Lessons.

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WRLTx3G1DA4>

In 2012, our lifeguards rescued 152 people from drowning from Memorial Day to Labor Day. The highest majority of victims were Hispanic (60 Hispanic, 43 African American, 41 Caucasian, 4 Asian, 3 American Indian and 1 Native American.

Name: Kelly Martinez

Aquatics Title: Aquatic Coordinator III

Aquatic organization and location: City of Phoenix

Years involved in aquatic recreation: 26 years (since 1986)

From my many years teaching Mexican American kids and growing up in a Mexican American community I have witnessed very low percentages of children and adults that learn to swim. If they do know how to swim it is usually from their Tio (uncle) or dad who threw them in the lake and said "sink or swim mija." It has been in the last 10 years that I have seen the numbers start to increase in our lessons with more and more Mexican American participants.

Joni Giacomino

Aquatics Title: Pool Manager

Aquatic organization and location: Bisbee City Pool Bisbee, Arizona

Years involved in aquatics: 1973-present (29 1/2 years)

In my experience during my time in Aquatics the biggest obstacle I saw in Mexican-American children learning to swim was the language barrier. I also noticed that they tended to start taking lessons at an older age, not sure if this is related to economics or not. Being able to speak in

a language they were comfortable with (English) helped me out a lot. However, because of the advanced age the tended to have classes located in the deeper water. (The younger children tended to have classes located in the shallow end.) The older children just learning to swim for the first time were often very fearful of starting in the deeper water.

Name: Joseph Schaaf

Aquatics Title: Lifeguard/Water Safety Instructor/Water Safety Instructor
Trainer/ Lifeguard Instructor Trainer

Aquatic organization and location: Sierra Vista Aquatic Center (The
Cove)

Years involved in Aquatic Recreation: 10 years (1997-2007)

In my experience, Mexican American children have had a harder time learning to swim. Other races seem to have different buoyancy that really affects how they swim. Many of them aren't good swimmers and during our rec hours you can see more of them struggling.

Name: Anya Mesch

Aquatics Title: Lifeguard /Water Safety Instructor

Aquatics Organization and location: Sierra Vista Aquatics Center (The
Cove)

Years involved in aquatics: 7 years (2005-2012)

I once taught a Mexican American boy in a Seals level 1 swim lessons class, and he spoke and understood very little English. This made teaching him challenging, but he was well behaved and followed instructions well. His swimming proficiency was about the same as the rest of the class. Often times hand gestures and demonstrations allowed me to communicate with him adequately. I did have to spend more time trying to effectively communicate lessons to him, and this caused the class to move at a slower pace than it could have had there not been a language barrier. Although he showed improvement by the end of the class, I think he could have progressed even further if he had spoken or understood English.

I have also encountered multiple situations while lifeguarding where pool patrons have not been able to speak English. In these situations if the patron breaks a rule, it is difficult to convey to them how they broke the rule and what the rules are. Thus, these patrons are more likely to break the rule again because they do not understand what they did wrong the first time. This happened most often while I was lifeguarding out on the diving well and non-English speaking patrons would jump off before the diving boards before I called them.

Name: Ricky Shear
Aquatics Title: Lifeguard I/Water Safety Instructor
Aquatics Organization and location: Sierra Vista Aquatics Center (The Cove)
Years involved in aquatics: 4 years (2007-2011)

Well what I noticed from “my people” at the pool was that most kids are reluctant at first to swim but once they get it down, they do not like to leave. Most important I figured was that the parents were not very good swimmers so that is why they put their kids into classes and why the kids are scared when they first start.

Name: Valentine Munoz-Sanchez
Title: Lifeguard/Water Safety Instructor
Aquatics Organization and location: South Mountain YMCA Phoenix, AZ
Years in Aquatics: 2 years (2010-2012)

It would be beneficial to not only the Mexican Americans audience, but also to the aquatic recreation and leisure field for researches to observe, better understand, recorded and report aquatic recreation and leisure studies about Mexican American youth. It is vital to obtain feedback from Mexican Americans about their interpretation of current water safety messages and their feelings towards formal swim lesson services. Reaching out to the Arizona Mexican American community and examining their past and current behavior practices and opinions will aid recreation departments on how to appropriately create leisure constraint affordances.

Definition of Terms

Active drowning victim The person struggles to keep the face above water in an effort to breathe. The arms are extended to the side, pressing down for support. The body position is vertical with no supporting kick. The person might continue to struggle underwater.

Affordance Conditions that foster satisfying and rewarding leisure (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997).

Buoyancy The upward force a fluid exerts on bodies floating on or submerged in it (American Red Cross, 2004).

Cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR)- a procedure designed to restore normal breathing after cardiac arrest that includes the clearance of air passages to the lungs, the mouth-to-mouth method of artificial respiration, and heart massage by the exertion of pressure on the chest (American Red Cross, 2004).

Constraints Barriers, limitations or restrictions that can be intrapersonal, interpersonal or structural in a leisure context.

Distressed swimmer The person can breathe, mouth and nose are above water and they are conscious (J. White, 2006).

Drowning “Drowning is the process of experiencing respiratory impairment from submersion/immersion in liquid.” According to the clarification that accompanied the definition, “The victim may live or die after the process, but regardless of the outcome, s/he has been a part of a drowning incident” (J. White, 2006).

Facilitators Factors that are assumed by researchers and perceived or experienced by individuals to enable or promote the formation of leisure preferences and encourage or enhance participation (Jackson, 1997).

Focus Groups A qualitative research technique in which a group of 8 to 10 participants of common demographics, attitudes, or purchase patterns are led through a (usually) 2 hour discussion of a particular topic by a trained moderator (Greenbaum, 2000).

Formal Swim Lessons The process of which a trained instructor teaches enrolled participants swimming techniques and helps them develop swimming skills.

Immersion Only the face and airway are covered with water (J. White, 2006).

Key Informants Knowledgeable insiders that can help (Padgett, 1998).

Mexican American American citizens of Mexican origin or ancestral decent (U.S. Census, 2010).

Preschool Children Children under the age of five years old (see also young children).

Small Children Infants and toddlers, under four years of age.

Submersion The entire body is underwater (J. White, 2006).

Swimmer In most cases the person's arms and legs work in a coordinated and effective way. The body position is nearly horizontal, and there is some breath control. The person is able to make recognizable progress through the water (Red Cross, 2004).

Unsafe water-related practices. Behaviors around and in water that put oneself or others in danger such as the following: swimming alone, not supervising children around and in water, leaving water in containers in which children could fall in and drown in, not installing proper barriers around water (fences), playing in water without swim lesson training experience, swimming in areas that are not designated for swimming, swimming while intoxicated (this applies more to teens), going on a boat in natural body of water and not wearing a U.S. Coast Guard approved lifejacket and swimming with others where no one is trained in proper rescue techniques and CPR (CDC).

Water-related incident An incident in which a fire department (FD) responded to a 9-1-1 emergency call. We include in the analysis any incident in which the victim was given CPR, was not breathing, and was submerged or not struggling when retrieved from the water. (Some of these cases die the same day or at a later time; some fully recover.) We exclude from analysis any incident that did not appear to be life-threatening; for example,

we exclude from analysis incidents in which a victim was struggling and did not require CPR (ADHS, 2010).

Young Children Children under the age of five (see also preschool children).

Youth Children under the age of thirteen.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The problem of the study was to investigate constraints and facilitators of Mexican American parents when deciding whether or not to enroll their children in informal swim lessons as a means of drowning prevention. The literature related to Mexican American constraints and facilitators for youth swim lesson participation as a means of drowning prevention is reported in this chapter. For organizational purposes, the literature is presented under the following topics: (1) Drowning incidents (2) swimming in the U.S. (3) minority disparity in swimming ability (4) formal swim lessons (5) Mexican American/Hispanic identity and (6) theory of leisure constraints and facilitators.

Drowning Incidents

Drowning description. Drowning victims do not look like the exaggerated, dramatic portrayal of someone frantically thrashing in the water and shouting, “Help!,” as it is depicted in movies and television. A distressed swimmer typically shows much more subtle signs and is thereby challenging to detect, especially in a crowded pool (J. White, 2006). The main difference between a distressed swimmer and a drowning victim is the location of his or her mouth and nose relative to the level of water. A child struggling in water is classified as a distressed swimmer if his or her mouth and nose are above water. When actually drowning, a victim can be conscious or unconscious and his or her mouth and nose are covered by water (J. White, 2006). Additionally, drowning has been defined as the process of not being able to breathe due to submersion or immersion in liquid (World Health Organization, 2013). Regardless of the outcome, death, morbidity or no morbidity, by being involved in the drowning process, the victim is considered part of a water-related incident.

Health damages from drowning. When the human body is drowning, it is being deprived of oxygen. The heart stops and brain damage occurs as organs simultaneously stop functioning. The two organs at greatest risk of permanent damage during a drowning incident are the heart and brain (J. White, 2006). Although it varies from person to person, adult or child, brain damage and death generally occur after three to five minutes after submersion. Consequently, nonfatal incidents resulting from prolonged submersion often lead to severe brain damage and paralysis. Drowning can happen in seconds. The earlier that process is interrupted by a rescue, the better a victim's chance for survival (J. White, 2006).

Drowning disparity. Saluja et al. (2006) examined death certificates from 1995-1998 for swimming pool drowning incidents among U.S. residents ages five through twenty-four, and found, of the 678 drowning victims, 47% were Black, 33% were White, and 12% were Hispanic. For all fatalities, the highest proportion occurred between 3:00P.M and 5:59P.M. The leading characteristics of U.S. swimming pool drowning victims from 1995-1998 were males (75%), youth, ages five through nine (39%), Black, non-Hispanic (33%), and having a low income status (49%). Hispanic drowning rates for males ages 15-24 were two to five times greater than White, non-Hispanic males of the same age group. Hispanic fatality drowning incidents occurred mainly (35%) in neighborhood and residential pools (35%). Sulja et al. (2006) found the following error between death certificates and injury and potential injury incident files and gap in ethnicity group examination:

Although the race of the victim was included as a specific pre-coded field on death certificates, we observed that the manner in which it was coded masked some demographic verification. For example, those

who were of Mexican or Latino origin were usually coded as White (p.729).

Because most individuals of Hispanic origin are coded as White on their death certificates, previous studies have not examined drowning rates by Hispanic ethnicity (p. 732).

Thus, for this study, researchers used demographic data from the death certificates. They examined place of birth, nationality, and origin information on the death certificates to determine ethnicity. Sulja et al., 2006 coded cases as Hispanic, regardless of their race, if the victim originated from a Spanish-speaking country. Prior to this 2006 drowning ethnicity study, Hispanic ethnicity had never been examined as its own group for drowning rate analysis. As part of their discussion Sulja et al. (2006) theorize that the persistence of racial differences, after adjusted for income, suggest cultural factors may be important and influential when examining drowning risk.

Avramidis, Butterly and Llewellyn (2009) performed a qualitative study analyzing drowning incident videos from 1970 through 2002 and conducted interviews that were semi-structured on those individuals involved in drowning incidents. Consistent with existing literature, this study found males outnumber females as drowning victims, and young people were more likely to drown than adults. Regardless of the casualty's type, gender, age, ethnicity, and area of residence, human activity in, on, and around an aquatic environment can lead to a drowning.

There were 27,514 unintentional drowning death fatalities in the United States (Nasrullah & Muazzam, 2011). Males, children under 5, and Caucasians were the most represented in gender, age group, and race. Since Nasrullah and Muazzam (2011) decided to study race and not ethnicity for drowning representation across the U.S., there was no mention or analysis of Latino Americans. Arizona recorded a total of 709

unintentional drowning fatalities. Arizona is the 11th ranked state for unintentional drowning deaths in the U.S. (Nasrullah & Muazzam, 2011).

Despite the trend towards decreasing drowning rates, minorities continue to drown at higher rates than the general population (Martin & Witman, 2010; Nasrullah & Muazzam, 2011). Martin and Witman (2010) examined the literature on factors affecting minority drowning. One factor that influenced the relationship between minorities and the drowning rate more than any other was swimming lessons. Martin and Witman (2010) cite Brenner et al. (2001), Saluja et al. (2006), and Sanford et al. (2001) as all providing evidence between the disparity in drowning rates and the lack of swimming instruction among minorities. “Evidence supported an inverse relationship between fewer opportunities to take swimming lessons and higher minority drowning rates” (Martin & Witman, 2010).

Minority fear of drowning. Irwin et al. (2011) addressed the impact of fear on fatal and nonfatal drowning by surveying youth and parent/caregivers at urban Young Men’s Christian Associations [YMCAs] across America. Although this was published in the *Journal of Black Studies* and targeted to study the fear impacting fatal and non-fatal drowning of African American children, Hispanic/Latino was among four racial identities employed in their analysis. Furthermore, approximately 2,000 surveys were distributed in both Spanish and English across the nation (Irwin et al., 2011). The results of the surveyed youth confirmed children of color responded with more fear of drowning/injury than White youths. The parents and caregivers’ response to the statement, “My child is afraid of drowning/being injured while swimming,” confirmed significant race differences with African American, Hispanic/Latino, and others compared to White

parents/caregivers by responding their child was significantly more afraid. To the affirmative statement, “I am afraid my child will drown/become injured while swimming,” *post hoc* analysis found that Hispanic/Latino and African American parent/caregivers were significantly more fearful of their child’s drowning/injury while swimming than White parents/caregivers. In Irwin’s et al. (2011) conclusion they mention:

The American Academy of Pediatrics, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, the National Institutes of Health, and the International Life Saving Federation (ILSF) all concur that quality swimming lessons from a certified water safety instructor for every child are highly recommended as a protective step toward drowning prevention (AAP, 2010; Brenner ;., 2009; CDC, 2010; ILSF, 2007).

Evans (2012) reports African American and Hispanic children between 5 and 14 drown at higher rates than their White children counterparts. According to the CDC and CPSC, some of the reasons for racial disparity drowning incidents are limited access to community pools and a lack of swimming experience in minority family generations.

Swimming in the United States

In the 1700s, founding father Benjamin Franklin researched buoyancy and used his kite for propulsion (American Red Cross [ARC], 2004). He even invented early forms of paddles and fins. The first known municipal pool in the United States was in Philadelphia in 1883 (Wiltse, 2007). It was during the 1920’s to the 1950’s that going to municipal pools and swimming became popular in the U.S (Wiltse, 2007). In 1909, YMCA’s in New Jersey began to teach males how to swim in a group setting as part of its “teach every man and boy to swim in North America” campaign (Young Man’s

Christian Association [YMCA], 2013). There is no record of when swim lessons became common practice or a social norm for Americans, which means there are also no early participant demographic records.

Water safety enthusiast, Wilbert E. Longfellow, also known as the “amiable whale,” worked tirelessly with the Red Cross to promote nationwide water safety (ARC, 2004). Longfellow was concerned with the nation’s drowning rate at the turn of the century, so he reviewed aquatic literature, activity trends and safety procedures. He then wrote articles about water safety, and demonstrated waterfront rescues to the general public as a preventive effort. In 1912, Longfellow was in need of funding so he presented his ambitious and noble program plan “The Waterproofing of America” to the American Red Cross. By February 1914, the Red Cross Life Saving Corps offered water safety courses. Longfellow began creating public interest in water safety survival skills by promoting it through public demonstrations and publications. He also utilized radio for advertising his water rescue demonstrations. In his words, he wanted to “entertain the public hugely while educating them gently.” As a result of the Red Cross’ and other water safety programs, the U.S. drowning rate per 100,000 people was 8.8 in 1914 and dropped to 1.3 in the 2000s (ARC, 2004).

Segregation at swimming pool facilities. Private and public swimming pools facilities in the U.S. have a history of not welcoming all genders, races and ethnicities (Wilste, 2007). Nguyen and Kleiner (2000) stated that Mexican Americans have confronted prejudice and were discriminated against at swimming pool facilities. Sheridan (2003) confirms that in the 1920s, Mexican Americans were discriminated against and were “placed in segregated schools with inferior educational resources,

barred from restaurants, movie theaters, bathrooms, and public swimming pools.”

Krzemienski (2007) and Wolcott (2008) both reviewed Jeff Wiltse’s *Contested Waters: A Social History of Swimming Pools in America* and critiqued that Wiltse only focused on municipal pools in the Northeastern part of the U.S. Krzemienski (2007) mentioned how in *Contested Waters*, swimming pools, unlike Coney Island and dance halls, allowed racial mixing, but kept a strict division of gender and social class prior to the 1920s. Then in the 1920s, municipal pools conformed to other amusements facilities by enforcing segregation. During the New Deal programs, New York City’s “learn-to-swim” effort showed posters of segregated White and Black children. In Wolcott’s 2008 review of Wiltse’s work, he also mentions municipal pools having a history of being “gender-segregated spaces” and then changing into “racially-segregated pools”. Lastly, Wolcott (2008) noted that Wiltse wrote about how reformers promoted municipal pools as a means of Americanizing immigrants.

Discrimination against Mexican Americans. In the 1920s YMCA’s in the Southwest and Midwestern U.S. started working with government agencies on a program called Americanization (Vargas, 2011). According to Vargas (2011), YMCAs endorsed the Americanization project for Mexican Americans by promoting literacy through English language instruction and lessons about American culture and job skill training. However, the reality of racism made Mexican Americans resistant to the Americanization process (Vargas, 2011). Mexican Americans faced outright racial discrimination through limited, separate days in churches; inferior “Mexican schools;” separate entrances and Mexican sections of movie theaters; and designated “colored” days at public swimming pools (Vargas, 2011). In the 1940s, discrimination against the Mexican American

population in Texas was especially rampant. Parks, entertainment centers, and other public areas excluded Mexican Americans, if not by law, then by social etiquette. There were even posted signs in Texas that read, “Mexicans and dogs not allowed” (Vargas, 2011).

Minority Disparity in Swimming Ability

Whitten (2006) described one of the reasons why many African Americans do not swim is because they have not always been welcome at public pools. The same can logically be said for Mexican Americans given that they too faced discrimination and segregation at private and public pools. Hispanics only make up 2.5% of registered United States of America Swimming athletes (Whitten, 2006). Access and cost are other major issues for inner city youth (Whitten, 2006).

Hasting, et al., (2006) studied and concluded in his research study about drowning because of inequalities by stating that age, sex and racial differentials in swimming participation are conditioned by instructional and competitive programs and also that the principle of social exclusivity limits access even when a swimming facility is physically available. A limitation in this article is that when it claimed to investigate racial differences in swimming participation, however, it only had examined the Black and White races.

Myths impacting minority youth swimming ability. Irwin, et al., (2009) focused on the mythology of swimming, questioning if myths impact minority youth participation. The article cite a Gilchrist, Sacks and Branche (2000) report that 44% of Hispanics reported limited swimming ability compared to 32% reported by D. White participants as a self-report about limited ability to swim (C. C. Irwin, Irwin, Ryan, &

Drayer, 2009b). The article revealed that according to a 2008 U.S.A. swimming nationwide study, approximately 56% of Hispanic/Latino children are “at-risk”, swimmers comfortable only in the shallow end. The study’s purpose was to determine if four reported swimming participation myths or barriers for minority children were authentic. The four main myths were the following: income/financial limitations, swimming facility quality/ access and safety limitations, interest/motivation-cultural limitations and personal appearance limitations.

In the discussion, Irwin, et al., (2009) states that drowning rates clearly indicate minority children are in need of assistance. The results from this study were complex because each myth can be multifaceted. Parts of each myth hold authentic elements while still being inaccurate at their core. Furthermore, in the conclusion of this study it provides evidence that the preconceived notions/myths associated with minority youth swim participation are based upon weak rational. During analysis, Irwin, et al., (2009) found that a previously undetected category of barriers was associated family environment (C. C. Irwin et al., 2009b). Mexican Americans are family-oriented (Nguyen & Kliner, 2000).

Minority youth swimming ability disparity. Irwin, et al., (2009) reviewed the inability of urban minority youth swimming in the U.S. associated with demographic characteristics as an effort toward developing a drowning prevention plan. For swimming ability, 56.2% of Hispanic/Latino children reported “at risk.” “At risk” for this survey meant unable to swim or uncomfortable in the deep end of the pool. Hispanic/Latino adults reported 44% “limited swimming ability” or unable to swim the length of pool. Minority youth drowning fatality rates in the U.S. are notably high

compared to their White peers. Minority adults report low swimming rates, which may be a result of historical segregation from municipal pool facilities. There is a deficiency in minority youth swimming ability literature (C. C. Irwin, Irwin, Ryan, & Drayer, 2009a).

Formal Swim Lessons

Formal swim lessons description. Formal swim lesson classes are an educational, recreational, social opportunity for children to develop life-saving skills. Dr. Ruth Brenner of the National Institute of Children’s Health and Development, led a study which found swimming lessons decreased drowning risk for younger children (Nagourney, 2009). Swim lessons are characteristically considered formal when participants have to register and pay to enroll in a class where a trained water safety instructor teaches a structured small class on swimming techniques and mechanics. Most swim lesson classes routinely meet multiple times a week for approximately thirty minutes. To achieve swimming proficiency, class participants must learn, practice and master the water safety exit skills for each level.

Red Cross swim lessons. The American Red Cross offers parent and child aquatic classes which aim to familiarize young children, from six months to three years, with the water (American Red Cross, 2009). Parent and child classes are not designed to teach infants and toddlers how to swim on their own. They serve as an informational safety class for parents and guardians to better orient their children to the water (American Red Cross, 2009). Preschool swim lessons are recommended for children ages four and five by the Red Cross. An estimated 5 to 10 million infants and preschoolers in the U.S. participate in formal aquatic swim instruction programs (Siano,

2010). The American Red Cross Learn-to-Swim program is a process that progresses from Level 1, becoming oriented to an aquatic environment and gaining basic skills, to level 6, where different strokes are refined and endurance is required. Each level requires exit skill assessments that combine many of the skills taught within each level's curriculum requirement standards (American Red Cross, 2009).

Age considerations for swim lessons. In a 2009, collective scientific review investigating available practical evidence on the minimum age for children's swim lessons conducted by select aquatic recreation expert members of the Aquatic Sub-Council and American Red Cross Advisory Council of First Aid, Aquatics, Safety and Prevention (ACFASP) determined there is no minimum or optimal age to start swim lessons. Furthermore, the literature did not contain definitive findings which would lead to recommendations to either restrict early swim lesson experiences before the age of four, ([as previously suggested by the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP)], or to make early swim lesson education necessary for future proficiency (S. J. Langendorfer et al., 2009). Conversely, in 2010 the AAP revisited and reversed their earlier stance on being against swim lessons for toddlers (Clarke & Parise, 2010).

On ABCNews.com (2010), it was reported young children may benefit from formal swim lessons. This is a reversal of their earlier stance against swim lessons for children under the age of four. Early swim training may actually lower drowning rates in children under four years old. Furthermore, there is no evidence that early swim training can do harm. Dr. Jeffrey Weiss, the lead author of the Academy of Pediatrics' Policy Statement on Drowning Prevention and pediatric hospitalist at Phoenix Children's

Hospital in Arizona stated on “Good Morning America” (2010) that “children need to learn to swim.” Moreover, aquatic safety experts have stressed that:

Even advanced swimming skills cannot ‘drown-proof’ a child of any age. Parents must also closely supervise their children around water and know how to perform CPR. A four-sided fence around the pool is essential” (Clarke & Parise, 2010). Throughout the nation there are several infant self-rescue skill classes available at select aquatic centers. Yet, there is no scientific evidence proving these infant water-survival programs are effective, so the AAP still does not recommend water-safety classes for babies younger than twelve months (Clarke & Parise, 2010).

Learning to swim as an adult. Learning to swim as a child is easier than learning a new, daunting skill as an adult. An estimated 37% of U.S. Adults cannot swim the length of the pool (CDC, 2012). According to the CDC, adults account for more than 70% of drowning deaths each year in the United States. Adults differ from children not only in their physical characteristics, but also in their attitudes, values, aspirations, anxieties, self-regard and responsibilities (American Red Cross, 2009). Phobias, tragic memories, anxiety, embarrassment, being self-conscious about their bodies in a swimsuit, and social barriers, such as none of their family and/or friends engaging in swimming deter adults from swim lesson participation (Tanska, 2012).

In the 2012, *Wall Street Journal* article by Sanette Tanska titled Adults learn to swim, culture as a constraint is mentioned specifically,

Adults may miss out on learning to swim if they come from a culture where swimming isn't widely popular, or they grow up in metropolitan areas without easy pool access.

Also, as with most leisure and recreation activities, structural constraints, such as work responsibilities, time commitments and a lack of money deter adults from partaking in swim lesson classes (Tanska, 2012). Although it can be more challenging and

complex to participate in swim lessons as an adult, anyone can learn to swim at any age. There is no exact optimal age to enroll a child in swim lessons to ensure that they will learn how to swim, but the earlier children feel comfortable in the water and start learning and developing water survival and swimming skills, the sooner he or she can practice, be prepared for and prevent a water-related incident situation (Langendorfer et al., 2009).

Learning to swim reduces drowning risk. Langendorfer (2008) wrote an editorial about the belief that learning to swim prevents drowning. In the editorial, he cites the CDC as supporting historical evidence given the drowning rate went 11.4/100,000 in 1929 to 1.2/100,000 in 2003. During that same time period, the nation grew from approximately 78 million people to 280 million and national agencies such as the American Red Cross, YMCA, and Boy and Girl Scouts of America all instituted and expanded learn-to-swim programs. However, Langendorfer (2008) contends that there is a difference between correlation and causation. At the end of the article there is mention of a study with a positive finding between lessons, swimming skill, and the reduction of drowning among preschool children.

Formal swim lessons reduce drowning risk for youth. According to U.S.A. Swimming and Brenner et al (2009), participating in formal swim lessons can reduce the risk of a child drowning by 88%. Martin and Witman (2010) reviewed factors which affect minority drowning and stated that evidence supported an inverse relationship between fewer opportunities to participate in swim lesson and higher minority drowning rates. In an effort to reduce drowning rates and “kick racial disparity” in swim lessons, the U.S. Consumer Product Safety Commission’s Pool Safety campaign hosts a yearly world’s largest swimming lesson (Evans, 2012). In 2007, U.S.A. Swimming launched

their *Make a Splash* foundation. The foundation's goal is to teach children how to swim and be safer around water.

Mexican Americans

Mexican Americans encompass two-thirds of the United States' Hispanic population. In the 20th Century, Latinos became the fastest growing minority in the U.S. There are now about twenty-six million Mexican Americans in the nation, and their numbers are increasing faster than any other group in the Latino ethnicity category (Vargas, 2011). Furthermore, driven by high birth rates and immigration, in 2000, Hispanics/Latinos became and still are the nation's largest minority group. (Arciniega et al., 2002).

Congress authorized President Lyndon B. Johnson in 1968 to proclaim the week of September 15th and 16th as National Hispanic Heritage Week (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). Later in 1988, Congress decided to expand the cultural appreciation observance from a week to 30 days, September 15th through October 15th, which became effective in 1989 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). Cinco de Mayo (May 5th), is commonly mistaken by many U.S. citizens as Mexico's Day of Independence, but in actuality Mexico's Independence Day is celebrated on September 16th (Beezley & Lorey, 2001).

Mexican American culture. Much of the Latino culture is influenced by the Catholic religion. Common characteristics of Mexican Americans are strong attachment to family, the Spanish language, and cultural traditions (Arciniega et al., 2002). A sense of country pride among Latino groups is also common (Arciniega et al., 2002). The median Hispanic income per household in 2010 was \$37,759 (U.S. Census, 2012). In 2011, the United States Census Bureau reported more than 16% of the United States' and

30% of Arizona’s population are of Hispanic or Latino origin. In Arizona, Latinos are projected to become the largest population group by 2045. Arizona’s Hispanic growth is fueled by high birth rates (Pew Hispanic Center., 2011). The data in Table 5 illustrates the statistical characteristics of the Mexican American population (Pew Hispanic Center, 2011.)

Table 5

Mexican American Statistical Characteristics

Population	33,539,000
Foreign Born	35%
Median Age in years	25
High School Diploma Only	27%
Bachelor’s Degree or More	10%
English Proficient	66%
U.S. Citizens	74%
Median Household Income	\$38,000
Living in Poverty	28%
Without Health Insurance	33%
Homeowners	49%

Note. Table data if from the Pew Hispanic Center (2013).

Predicting youth participation. Barnett (2008) studied the relationships of individual, parent and family characteristics for predicting youth participation in extracurricular activities. In Barnett (2008) the enrollment of children in lessons,

organized clubs, and sports teams was found to be more likely by college educated mothers than by less educated mothers (Barnett, 2011). Gándara (2010) reported the following:

More than 40% of Latina mothers lack even a high school diploma, compared with only 6% of White mothers; and only about 10% of Latina mothers have a college degree or higher, compared with almost one-third of White mothers (Table 4).

Table 4.

Mother's Education Level by Ethnicity

Ethnicity	Less than High School	High School	Bachelor's Degree or Higher
Latino	41.3%	28.6%	9.9%
White	5.9%	29.0%	31.7%
Black	18.2%	34.4%	15.3%
Asian	16%	22.2%	44.7%
Asian percentages were based on a small sample, it is not representative.			

Note. Mother's Education Level by Ethnicity from the U.S. Census (2005)

High school Hispanic swimming performance. Berukoff and Hill (2010) studied factors that can influence swimming performance of Hispanic high school students. Their study results showed swimming self-efficacy and swimming performance had the strongest positive correlation. This study is unique in the literature of aquatic recreation, because it focuses solely on the Latino youth population. Fear associated with swimming was negatively related to both swimming performance and swimming efficacy

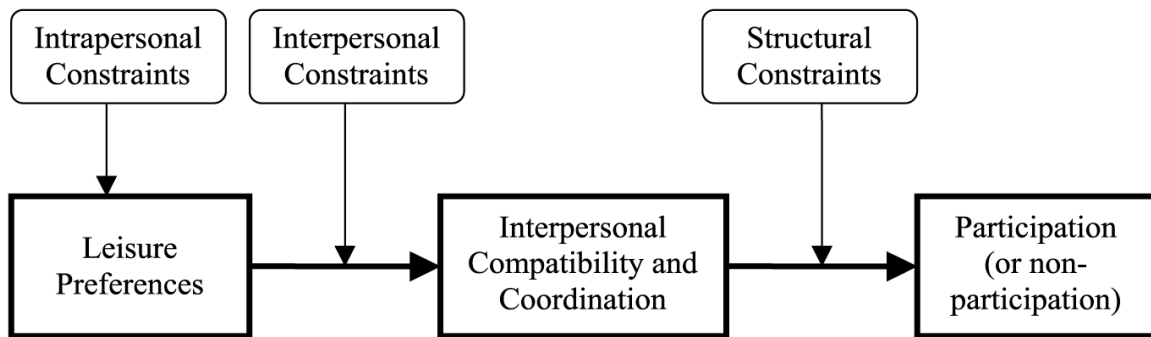
(Berukoff & Hill, 2010). Males in the study had a significantly lower mean than females on fear of drowning and perceived swimming risks. Not too surprisingly, females had a lower positive body image score than males. However, there were no significant correlations found between body image and swimming performance or swimming efficacy. Swimming performance was significantly related to level of previous swimming experience (Berukoff & Hill, 2010).

Theory of Leisure Constraints and Facilitators

History of the leisure constraints theory. The theory of leisure constraints is contrived from a 1960 study of outdoor recreation done in the U.S.(Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). The Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission (ORRRC) were concerned with factors which influenced the demand for recreational activities and the questions used on their instrument primarily focused on external barriers to participation. One of the first models which targeted and emphasized leisure constraints was proposed by Jackson and Searle (1985) (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991). In the 1970s and 1980s, social scientists recognized social psychological influences as factors which inhibit or alter the likelihood of participation in a given leisure activity. Thus, the model of Participation, Nonparticipation and Demand adapted from Jackson and Dun in 1988 provided a distinction between nonparticipants: having no interest, deferred demand, barriers such a knowledge or lack of facilities, and potential demand, barriers such as economic and social reasons (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). After that, Crawford and Godbey (1987) formed three distinct models focusing on intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints to encompass leisure constraints.

The Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints was published by Crawford, Jackson and Godbey in 1991 (Figure 3). In the conclusion of this study Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991) explain three propositions from their leisure constraints model. Leisure participation is heavily dependent on the negotiation process through factors, arranged sequentially. The sequence of constraints represents a hierarchy order of importance, and social class may have an influence on participation and nonparticipation given the experience of constraints related to the hierarchy of social privilege (Crawford et al., 1991).

Figure 3. Theory of Leisure Constraints from Crawford et al. (1991).



Source: Crawford *et al.* (1991)

Facilitators. Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997) argued that the constraints paradigm influenced leisure research in a way that made it more difficult to adopt alternative explanations for leisure participation. Because the absence of constraints does not guarantee participation, Raymore (2002) proposed a new approach to understanding the nature of participation by focusing on facilitators. Facilitator is a theoretical term which is separate from, but interacts with constraints to produce leisure participation (Raymore, 2002). According to Raymore (2002) facilitators and constraints are not

alternatives to participation, but rather are complimentary approaches to understanding leisure involvement. Facilitators enable individuals to participate.

Race and leisure constraints. Shinen, Floyd and Parry (2004) studied the relationship between race and leisure activities and constraints. The study goes on to mention the parallelism between constraints faced by women to race related constraints. A limitation to this research is that it only examined constraints and leisure preferences for African Americans and Caucasians. “It is difficult to study the leisure of minorities effectively without understanding the constraints that they face” (Stodolska, 1998).

Qualitative studies and constraint identification. Hinch et al., (2005) studied leisure constraint theory in relation to sport tourism. The study emphasizes the need for more constraint theory and constraint negation studies in the realm of sports tourism. There is the some acknowledgement in Hudson and Gilbert’s (1999) study on how qualitative research can be used as a tool to uncover “hidden” constraints which were not previously known through quantitative research efforts. Hinch et al., (2005) advised scholars to capitalize on an existing body of leisure constraint research knowledge and apply it to a certain area of interest phenomena and behaviors

Constraint Negotiation. D. White (2008) studied the interaction of motivation, constraints, negotiation, and negotiation-efficacy in an outdoor recreation context. The study found higher motivation to participate encourages using strategies of negation. Constraint negation research provides insight into why people chose certain leisure activities and can explain their behavior (D. White, 2008). He chronologically describes the evolution of leisure constraint research from Jackson (1988) identifying constraints as factors which can inhibit leisure activity or diminish satisfaction to Loucks-Atkinson and

Mannell's (2007) introduction of the negotiation-efficacy idea. *Negotiation-efficacy* is defined as an individual's confidence in her or his ability to successfully use negotiation strategies to overcome constraints was measured and examined (Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007). In the limitations section of D. White's 2008 study, he admits to the under-representation of Hispanic residents.

Conflict/Facilitation. Jun and Kyle (2011) studied the effect of identity conflict/facilitation on the experience of constraints to leisure and constraint negation. In their study they found identity conflict/facilitation influenced participation through constraints and negation. There is mention in their literature review of how there is a need for understanding the experience of constraints that are rooted in the broader socio-structural context.

Summary

The majority of publications reviewed in aquatic recreation research are focused on drowning diversity. There is a lack of information on youth diversity in formal swim lesson education participation, especially research specifically addressing the Mexican American population. In recreation and leisure research the Latino population is under-represented. Hispanic/Latino is not a race and as such has been excluded from race related water safety and water recreation participation studies. Hinch et al, (2005) recommend for scholars to capitalize on the existing body of conceptual leisure constraint theory knowledge and apply it to interest phenomena.

METHODS

The problem of the study was to investigate constraints and facilitators of Mexican American parents when deciding whether or not to enroll their children in formal swim lessons as a means of drowning prevention. The information obtained by this study (1) creates awareness about youth drowning incidents and (2) provides insight about Mexican American perspectives and behaviors toward drowning prevention through youth formal swim lesson participation.

Study Design

This qualitative study used a phenomenological design. Research design refers to the procedures that accomplish a study's goals (Padgett, 1998). Qualitative research is recursive and flexible compared to quantitative research designs (Padgett, 1998).

According to Van Maanen (1988) the purpose of phenomenology is to reduce experiences of people involved with a phenomenon to a description of the universal essence. The philosophy of phenomenology is that there exists an essential, perceived reality with common features (Starks & Trinidad, 2007). According to Creswell (2009), it is essential that a phenomenological study design contains "essence questions."

Questions about what is at the essence that all persons experience about a phenomenon are the type of research questions that need to be in the design of a phenomenological study (Creswell 2009). One characteristic of a phenomenological study design is that a researcher seeks to understand a group of people's experience of a phenomenon from their point of view (Creswell et al., 2007).

The researcher's lens for this study was that of a social constructivist. Creswell (2009) explains *social constructivists* assume that individuals seek understanding of the

world around them and that individuals develop subjective meanings of their experiences through interactions with others. It is crucial to understand subject point of view and listen to their perspective, because reality is socially constructed. Thus, the experiences of the Mexican American parents, lifeguards, and water safety instructors inform their socially constructed reality.

This social constructivist world view led the researcher to embracing a qualitative research method. Individual and focus groups were used for this study. The research strategies were individual interviews for the Mexican American parent participants and focus group discussions for lifeguards and water safety instructors. Both strategies were utilized to better understand the experiences that influence why Mexican American parents do or do not enroll their children in formal lessons as a means of drowning prevention. Individual interviews helped explore the reasons for the lack of Mexican American youth involved in formal swim lessons and the low proficiency swimming ability phenomena from the perspective of Mexican American parents. Focus group discussions with aquatic personnel helped explore the phenomena from the perspectives of key informants.

Interviews were conducted to collect data from Mexican American parents. Individual, in-depth interviews aim to understand the experiences of the participant and the meanings that the interviewee attaches to that experience (Seidman, 2012). One advantage of individual interviewing compared to focus groups interviewing are that individual interviews can be conducted at each participant's leisure.

Focus groups were employed for aquatic personnel. Focus group research is unique because it draws on a form of synergy between group members (Padgett, 1998).

Another advantage of focus group interviewing is that it saves resources, time and promotes rich qualitative data from individuals stimulated by a group setting. Focus groups are also useful because they involve group discussions on a topic of interest, and this study's topic of interest was not one of a sensitive nature. This study conveyed rich information from a cross-section of key informants and Mexican American parent participants. Aquatic key informants were lifeguards and water safety instructors. The information discussed at focus groups about Mexican American swim lesson constraints, facilitators and aquatic recreation experiences revealed shared themes. Themes in participant responses helped explain the lack of Mexican American youth participation in swim lessons phenomenon.

Sampling

This study used the *purposive sampling* strategy to recruit participants. Purposive sampling is selecting respondents based on their ability to provide needed information (Padgett, 1998). Unlike probability sampling, which aims to obtain large samples in a random manner, purposive sampling is ideal for sampling information-rich participants about a problem of interest. The logic and power of purposive sampling is contingent on selecting information-rich cases (Patton, 1990). This means that in qualitative research, which involves small samples, it is important to recruit people who can knowledgeably speak about the problem of investigation. It is beneficial to the integrity of the study when knowledgeable respondents know other knowledgeable individuals who also can and will speak about the problem. Patton (1990) discusses 16 types of purposive sampling strategies. Of these, typical case and snowball sampling were employed as it was the most appropriate purposive sampling strategy for collecting data from Mexican

American parents in this study. Typical case sampling is when the researcher selects cases that are typical, normal, or average (Patton, 1990). Snowball sampling is identifying information-rich respondents who know other information rich-individuals who would be willing to participate in the study (Padgett, 1998).

In this study, a *typical case* was defined for each category of Mexican of Mexican American parent, non-swim lesson and swim lesson. A typical non-swim lesson Mexican American parent has never enrolled his or her child in formal swim lessons, but occasionally goes with his or her family to the pool is a typical case non-swim lesson Mexican American parent. Non-swim lesson Mexican Americans parents with children who have never been to a swimming pool would not qualify as typical, but rather as an example of a non-swim lesson parent extreme. Extreme cases were excluded from the study. Typical swim lesson Mexican American parents have enrolled and observed their child in at least one summer swim lesson class. Swim lesson Mexican American parents that have a child enrolled in year-round swim lessons or coach his or her child on competitive swim teams are a swim lesson Mexican American parent extreme. As previously mentioned, extreme cases were excluded from this study. The snowball sampling approach was employed after the first interviews with Mexican Americans from both the swim lesson and non-swim lesson category. Once parent participants were made aware of the purposive, typical case sampling criteria, they referred the researcher to knowledgeable individuals who met the set typical case criteria.

For this study, Mexican American participants are defined as American citizens of Mexican origin or ancestral decent and qualify as a parent if they have a minimum of one child. Also, all parents had to be at least eighteen years old to participate. To participate

in an interview and qualify as a Mexican American parent that has enrolled their child in swim lessons, parents had to have enrolled and watched their child participate in a minimum of one formal swim lesson. To participate in an interview as a Mexican American parent that has not enrolled their child in formal swim lessons, parents needed to have participated in some form of aquatic recreation in the past, while not having enrolled their child in formal swim lessons.

Key informants are knowledgeable insiders that can help (Padgett, 1998). Key informants were also recruited. In this study, key informants will be lifeguards and water safety instructors. Patton (1990) recommends using key informants, such as program staff, to identify typical behavior. Using key informants in a phenomenological study is recommended because they are close to and familiar with the phenomenon of interest and provide insight from viewpoint of the providing service agency or program. Though a key informant does not share the same experience as the population of the study's focus, they are knowledgeable or familiar with the population who experiences the phenomena. For this study, the main criteria for lifeguard and water safety instructor participation were (a) all subjects had minimum of one year experience working in aquatic recreation in Arizona; (b) subjects needed to have observed and interacted with Mexican American youth and adults in an aquatics swim lesson context and; (c) lifeguards and water safety instructors had to be a minimum of eighteen.

All participants, Mexican American parents and aquatic personnel determined if they met the criteria through self-report. The latter criterion excluded minor individuals, undocumented immigrants, pregnant women and the mentally incompetent.

Recruitment

This study involved Mexican American parents, lifeguards and water safety instructors in the border towns Sierra Vista, Bisbee and Douglas, Arizona. An initial attempt to recruit Mexican Americans parents to non-swim lesson and swim lesson focus groups by sending flyers home with Mexican American elementary students yielded no takers. Therefore, Mexican American parents who worked at elementary schools or were at public swimming pools in Sierra Vista, Bisbee and Douglas, AZ were purposively selected and recruited. The researcher selected and approached typical case Mexican American parent subjects, explained the study and gave the parent his or her own copy of the information and consent form (Appendix A). This was done so Mexican American parents could read about the purpose of the study and determine if they were eligible and qualified. After each interview, participants were asked if they knew of any family members or friends who are also Mexican American parents and fit the typical case criteria and would be willing to participate. The snowball approach was employed as an effort to reach knowledgeable non-swim lesson and swim lesson Mexican American parents. A total of 25 Mexican American parents were recruited and participated; 10 were parents of children who had never taken lessons and 15 were parents of children who had enrolled and taken formal swimming lessons. It was more difficult to find, recruit and interview non-swim Mexican American lesson parents than swim lesson parents.

Key informant aquatic personnel were recruited by calling the Sierra Vista, Bisbee and Douglas, Arizona aquatics coordinators. A request was made to do a focus group with six to eight experienced lifeguards and water safety instructors who were eighteen and older (Appendix B). The total number of key informants that were recruited

in this study was twenty-two (n=22): six from Sierra Vista, seven from Bisbee, and nine from Douglas Aquatic Center. Altogether there were forty-seven (n=47) participants involved in this study.

Data Collection

Data Collection was conducted over a five month period. A sample of 25 Mexican American parents took part in the study. Ten were non-swim lessons parents and 15 were swim lesson parents. Therefore, all Mexican American parental interviews were individual. The sampling methods employed were purposeful, typical case, and the snowball approach: 8 were selected typical case by the researcher and 17 were interviewed as a result of the snowball approach. After Mexican American parents who worked at elementary schools or were at public swimming pools in Sierra Vista, Bisbee and Douglas, AZ were purposively selected and recruited, they were individually interviewed. The location of the data collection was elementary schools, indoor and outdoor public swimming pools, restaurants, shopping malls, public parks, baseball fields, hair salons and participant homes in Sierra Vista, Bisbee, and Douglas, Arizona.

A sample of three aquatic personnel focus groups took part in the study. All studies included experienced water safety instructors and lifeguards and took place at the community public pool. The first study was done at the Sierra Vista (n=6), the second in Bisbee (n=7), and the third was conducted in Douglas (n=9), Arizona. There were a total of 22 key informant aquatic personnel focus group participants, 16 were water safety instructors and six lifeguards. Focus group interviews lasted 60 to 90 minutes.

All participant data were collected from April through August 2013. There was a total of 47 participants involved in this study. The length of the Mexican American

parental individual interviews varied from thirty to ninety minutes. After being briefed about the purpose of the study and informed about their purpose as a participant, all participants signed the informational and consent form (Appendix A) twice. The first signature was his or her participation consent and the second granted permission for the researcher to audio record the interview. Participants then filled out the exit survey (Appendix C) before they began the recorded interview. Aquatic personnel in focus groups were also informed about the purpose of the study and consented to participating in a group discussion and being audio recorded. Questions for all individual interviews and focus group discussions encouraged participants to talk about their experience with aquatic recreation. Participants talked about their customs, beliefs and lifestyle factors that influence their participation in aquatic recreation. In the case of aquatic personnel, lifeguards and water safety instructors talked about their observations and interactions with Mexican Americans in an aquatic recreational setting. The general focus of the individual interviews and focus group interviews was to better understand constraints and facilitators that affect the Mexican American participation in aquatic recreation. The specific aim of this study's individual interviews and focus group discussions was to investigate constraints and facilitators that influence Mexican American youth swim lessons participation.

For data collection, a semi-structured moderator's guide was used at all individual interviews (Appendix D) and focus group discussions (Appendix E). The moderator's guide served as an instrument to facilitate open-ended discussions. Semi-structured interviews contain an orderly sequential set of open-ended questions that lead to discussions (Creswell, 2007). The order of the questions is the structured part. The semi

part is the open-endedness of the questions. The questions were designed in a story-like plot sequence that encouraged elaboration, conversation and discussion on a designated topic. The role of the moderator during focus group interviews and interviewer during individual interviews was to ask all questions in the same order and give participants the opportunity respond with in-depth answers. Both Mexican American parents and aquatic personnel participants were asked questions about his or her perceptions of: Mexican American youth water safety, Mexican American youth swimming proficiency, Mexican American swimming history, Mexican American values and attitude towards formal swim lessons, Mexican American social norms, Mexican American constraints and facilitators for aquatic recreation and formal swim lesson participation, and lastly a “catch all,” grounded theory question was asked (Appendix F).

Because focus group discussions and individual interviews can lose focus and deviate from set questions, the moderator made every attempt to keep participants focused on the study’s topic and assigned questions. The moderator received moderator training from a qualitative research methods expert at Arizona State University. The moderator also received training in probing, which was occasionally done throughout the course of an interview and focus group discussion to obtain clarity and more information. *Probing* occurs when participants are asked to explain or elaborate on their responses. Some examples of probing questions are the following: “What do you mean by that?” “Please tell me more about that.” and “Can you give an example?” Probing is important to encourage depth in participant responses.

As mentioned earlier, all individual interviews and focus group discussions in this study were audio recorded to capture the discussion without missing any information

(Crabtree, 2006). Crabtree recommends that researchers transcribe interviews and focus group discussions from audio recording for data analysis. At the beginning of each individual interview and focus group discussion, participants were notified that they were going to be recorded and had to sign an agreement permission form which acknowledged that they understood the terms of the study (Appendix A). All participants agreed to be audio recorded; had they not, they would have been excluded from the study. Before the interview or group discussion began, an exit questionnaire was administered, so the researcher could collect uninfluenced, descriptive data (Appendix C). After all interviews and focus group discussions were completed, the data were transcribed for data analysis.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is the process of taking collected information and organizing it to give it order, structure and interpretation (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). Since this was a phenomenological study, an analytical approach followed a phenomenological analysis. A phenomenological analysis involved making sense of the data and interpreting the data by understanding the symbolic meaning of the information provided. Participant narratives were examined. Marshall and Rossman mention the analytic procedure as (a) organizing data, (b) generating categories, themes, and patterns, (c) coding data, (d) testing emergent understandings, (e) searching for alternative explanations, and (f) writing the report. These steps were used as a guide for this study's data analysis.

After the interview, the recordings were transcribed and the researcher read and reviewed the data thoroughly. A thematic content analysis was employed. In response to the interview questions, general themes and patterns emerged from participant answers in

correspondence to each interview question. Once the final research report was written, the recorded interviews were destroyed. For this study, the analyst conducted a thematic analysis. Interview transcripts were typed, reviewed, and organized into codes and themes to make sense of the data. Table 5 explains the six phases of the thematic analysis process (Braun & Clark, 2006).

Table 5.

Phases of the thematic analysis process

Phase	Process	Result	Reflexivity Journal Entries ^[5]
Phase 1	Read and re-read data in order to become familiar with what the data entails, paying specific attention to patterns that occur.	Preliminary "start" codes and detailed notes.	List start codes in journal, along with a description of what each code means and the source of the code.
Phase 2	Generate the initial codes by documenting where and how patterns occur. This happens through data reduction where the researcher collapses data into labels in order to create categories for more efficient analysis. Data complication is also completed here. This involves the researcher making inferences about what the codes mean.	Comprehensive codes of how data answers research question.	Provide detailed information as to how and why codes were combined, what questions the researcher is asking of the data, and how codes are related.
Phase 3	Combine codes into over-arching themes that accurately depict the data. It is important in developing themes that the researcher describes exactly what the themes mean, even if the theme does not seem to "fit." The researcher should also describe what is missing from	List of candidate themes for further analysis.	Reflexivity journals need to note how the codes were interpreted and combined to form themes.

	the analysis.		
Phase 4	In this stage, the researcher looks at how the themes support the data and the overarching theoretical perspective. If the analysis seems incomplete, the researcher needs to go back and find what is missing.	Coherent recognition of how themes are patterned to tell an accurate story about the data.	Notes need to include the process of understanding themes and how they fit together with the given codes. Answers to the research questions and data-driven questions need to be abundantly complex and well-supported by the data.
Phase 5	The researcher needs to define what each theme is, which aspects of data are being captured, and what is interesting about the themes.	A comprehensive analysis of what the themes contribute to understanding the data.	The researcher should describe each theme within a few sentences.
Phase 6	When the researchers write the report, they must decide which themes make meaningful contributions to understanding what is going on within the data. Researchers should also conduct " member checking ." This is where the researchers go back to the sample at hand to see if their description is an accurate representation.	A thick description of the results.	Note why particular themes are more useful at making contributions and understanding what is going on within the data set. Describe the process of choosing the way in which the results would be reported.

Note. Phases of thematic analysis from Braun & Clark (2006).

Since thematic analysis was used in this study, the analyst reviewed each participant transcript and separated parent participant responses into two category groups: non-swim lesson parents and swim lesson parents. A third group category was created for the key informants. Responses were then compiled by each corresponding question. The analyst highlighted and underlined meaningful and important units of information. Units of data varied from a sentence or phrase, to a few sentences. The analyst then assigned thematic labels to the units for each question response. This was the beginning process of

organizing the raw data. Similar themes from each group's participants emerged from the answers matched up to each question that was asked by the researcher. The analyst manually analyzed the data. Then the analyst highlighted and underlined transcript text from each group's question responses, all the while scrutinizing the data in search of constraints and facilitators for youth swim lesson participation. In the end, participant answers from each group (non-swim lesson parent, swim lessons parent and key informant) revealed themes. Transcripts from non-swim lesson Mexican American parents were analyzed separately from Mexican American parent participants that did sign their children up for lessons. Lastly, the three aquatic personnel focus group transcripts were analyzed separately from the parent transcripts. After the analyst identified meaningful themes a codebook (Appendix G) was created from each group's responses that answered the constraint, facilitator Mexican American youth participation questions of this study, those meaningful themes were reviewed and then summarized. This was done so that the researcher could report the findings.

Rigor. *Rigor* is the quality of being accurate, extremely thorough and exhaustive (Creswell, 2009). In this study, *rigor* refers to the researcher systematically conducting research by recruiting good informants and properly managing and analyzing the data. The researcher for this study recruited twenty-five information-rich Mexican American parent interviews and three in-depth group discussions with key informants about constraints and facilitators on Mexican American youth formal swim lesson participation. Once participants qualified as typical case for his or her set parental category, they authentically shared their beliefs, attitudes and stories in individual interviews and focus group discussions. In the contained semi-structured individual and focus group

interviews, participants talked about what they had seen and experienced, as well as how they felt.

Ethics

Since this study's design required interacting with human subjects, the Institutional Review Board had to approve and grant exemption (Appendix H). After this study was granted exemption approval, individual and focus group interviews were conducted. Participant consent was part of the necessary data collection process (Appendix A). On the information and consent form, Mexican American parents and aquatic personnel were provided with a brief description of the study and its survey procedure. Furthermore, the full identification and sponsoring organization (Arizona State University) contact information was provided for future contacts. The assurance of confidentiality and voluntary participation along with the right to withdraw at any time without penalty was explained to participants at the beginning of every individual interview and focus group discussion.

There were no incentives to encourage study participation. There were also no threats towards participants in an individual interview or a focus group discussion. Confidentiality was not as much of an issue with the individual interviews because Mexican American parents chose when and where they wanted to be interviewed. Thus the interview was as private and confidential as the parent wanted it to be. For the focus group discussions the moderator did his best to ensure confidentiality, but could not account for what subjects said when they left a focus group. At the beginning of all focus groups the moderator asked all participants to have respect for one another and to keep the discussed information confidential. All consent forms, surveys and recorded

interview audio were kept safe with the interviewer, then destroyed after the completion of the study.

Participation motivation was contributing information to help the greater good of youth water safety. Beyond identifying common aquatic recreation behaviors, swim lesson constraints and facilitators for Mexican Americans youth, the results from this study have the potential better inform aquatic safety recreation personnel and reduce child unintentional drowning incidents.

FINDINGS

The problem of the study was to investigate constraints and facilitators of Mexican American parents when deciding whether or not to enroll their children in formal swim lessons as a means of drowning prevention. The information obtained by this study (1) creates awareness about youth drowning incidents and (2) provides insight about Mexican American perspectives and behaviors toward drowning prevention through enrollment in youth formal swim lessons.

Sample Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics are from the responses to the exit survey (Appendix F). This survey was actually given to all Mexican American parents before their recorded interview. This was done to reduce participant bias.

Eighty percent of the Mexican American parental participants were mothers. The youngest participant was twenty-five and the oldest was sixty-five. The average age of participants was thirty-nine. All twenty-five participants have lived in the United States for more than twenty years. The minimum reported number of adults living in a household was one and the maximum was five. The average number of children living in each participant's home was 2.8. Twenty participants had at least one child under eighteen living at home. Fifteen participants had at least two children in the home. Seven had at least three children in the home and only four participants had four children living in the home. Out of the twenty-five Mexican American parents interviewed, not one parent had more than four children in their home. The level of schooling completed by most participants was some college. The highest level of schooling by most participants was some college, one of whom completed a postgraduate degree. The least educated

participant completed some high school. The range of reported yearly household income varied from \$10,000-\$14,999 to over \$40,000. The average participant for this study reported his yearly income to being \$30,000 to \$39,000. One hundred percent of participants answered that they use their own vehicle as a means of transportation. Seventy five percent of parents had less than three years of swimming lessons. The most common answer for how many years of formal swim lessons each adult experience in your household was zero. Obviously non-swim lesson parents put zero for the number of years his or her children have experienced formal swim lessons. The swim lessons parents had children ranging from one to ten, but the most common answer was two years. Sixty four percent of children used public pools, eight percent used neighborhood pools, 13 percent used friends' pool, 14 percent used a relative's pool and only 1 percent used his own pool. The vast majority of participants claimed that their children swam three to four times a month in the summer and typically zero or one to two times a month in the non-summer months. Participants were split 60/40 towards indoor vs. outdoor pool facilities. Many cited indoor as preferable because it is cooler, open year round and less of a risk for sun burn and skin cancer. Participants that argued in favor of outdoor pools for their children explained that they like being in the sun and dislike loud, stuffy, chlorine-smelling indoor pool facilities. The average distance in miles from a participant's home was 9-12 miles.

Mexican American Non-Swim Lesson Parents

Intrapersonal constraint perceptions for youth formal swim lesson participation. The main major intrapersonal constraint mentioned by non-swim lesson, Mexican American parents was a “sink or swim” mentality. The sink or swim mentality

was described by one parent as “hit or miss,” it can either help a child instantly learn how to survival swim or traumatize a child and do more harm than good. Male family members more commonly throw male children into the water. A small amount of female parents said they were thrown in or forced to swim in deep water where they were not comfortable and they reported that they were traumatized by the experience.

Furthermore, when parents believe their child’s low swimming ability is “good enough,” it can lead to a false confidence and an inaccurate belief that inhibits proper formal swim lesson instruction. Also reported by a few participants was a lack of interest on the parent’s part, which is fueled by the belief that if their family does not go swimming frequently, then a child does not need to know how to swim well. When asked how well his or her child swims, many non-swim lesson parents responded “My child swims good, good enough, we don’t have a pool and we don’t go that much.”

Some parents also mentioned that they put their child(ren) in the water with arm “floaties” and think that it worked as a means to teaching his or her child(ren) how to swim. Participants mentioned that this approach let his or her child(ren) figure out how to swim for his or her self. One mother said “My son started with the floaties, got better and now he doesn’t need them anymore. That’s how he learned.”

Interpersonal constraint perceptions for youth formal swim lesson participation. The Mexican American community tends to out of necessity, be self-sufficient and often relies on support from family and friends. Although this communal approach to problems can be beneficial, it is a constraint in regards to formal swim lessons. Many participants mentioned that they allowed male family members to throw their child in deep water to “teach” him or her how to swim. Many participants

mentioned that they had an older sibling teach their younger children how to swim. Some non-swim lesson parents said that their child had friends who taught his or her child how to swim. Although this method might seem like a good way to involve family and friends members and save money, the truth is that it does not allow the child to learn from a certified instructor all of the fundamental skills in a progressive, structured, and safe environment. One parent said “My daughter is not a very good swimmer, she is afraid of the water, but she can learn from friends.” Also mentioned from non-swim lesson parents was a lack of interest on the child(ren)’s part. One father participant said about his daughter “If she doesn’t come to me and say, I want lessons, then I’m not gonna waste my money.”

Structural constraint perceptions for youth formal swim lesson participation.

The main structural constraint perception themes faced by Mexican American non-swim lesson parents were transportation, time and money. That being said, most parents assured the researcher that if their child needed swimming lessons they would pay. Time is always a constraint for anyone, but it was emphasized as a major constraint by single or separated Mexican American parents. One single mother said “It was hard always having to work. I couldn’t exactly take off in the middle of the day to take my kid to swimming lessons.” Transportation is an issue in Sierra Vista, Bisbee, and Douglas because many Mexican American families live in rural areas and public transportation may not stop close to their homes, so parents are forced to commute to lessons using the family car. One mother participant said “We may have ten cars in our driveway, but only one of them really works.” Another structural constraint is the types of pools most non-swim lesson Mexican American families swim at are private. Though most non-swim

lesson Mexican American parents admitted to living near a facility that offered swimming lessons, they said their children most often swim at hotel, apartment, family member or a friend's pool.

Intrapersonal facilitator perceptions for youth formal swim lesson participation. Only a few non-swim lesson parents mentioned intrapersonal facilitators for youth formal swim lessons participation. Motivation is an intrapersonal facilitator. One participant talked about how parents need to be motivated to take his or her child(ren) to swim lessons. One father participant said "Looking back, I should have put my kids in lessons. I think parents need to be more aware of how dangerous kids playing in the water can be. Maybe if more parents watched the news about all of the local drowning reports, they would be more motivated to sign up their kids to learn how to swim right."

Interpersonal facilitator perceptions for youth formal swim lesson participation. A positive relationship between staff and customers is important for promoting business. A small number of Mexican Americans complained that when they go to the pool, lifeguards are too strict and always yelling at children to follow the rules. "They (her children) are just kids trying to have fun." one mom participant said. She went on to say "Maybe if they explained the rules nicer and were more positive and fun, going to the pool would be better."

Structural facilitator perceptions for youth formal swim lesson participation. Most Mexican American parent respondents said it would be easier for Mexican American youth to participate in formal swim lessons if the price was free or reduced. One parent mentioned that she went to the Sierra Vista Aquatic Center an hour before

they opened ever Wednesday with her four children, because that facility offered free admission to the first 150 people in line every Wednesday in the summer. Non-swim lessons parents also suggested that facilities that offer swim lessons should have special deals, promotions and discounts for enrolling more than one child in swim lessons. Although Spanish speaking secretaries and water safety instructors are not necessary for Mexican American parents to enroll their children, some parents said that it “might help.” A number of parents recommended that pools offer a free one day trial lesson for each child, so that parents and children can get a feel for the formal swim lesson experience without having to commit. Additionally, parents proposed that swim lessons be offered in the morning and late evening on weekdays and weekends year-round. As one parent said “If pool facilities provide more swim lessons at different days and times, more parents might be able to enroll their child and watch them participate.” Lastly, a big, kick-off to the summer, community party at the pool was recommended by a few participants, to help generate excitement and interest in formal swim lessons.

NON-SWIM LESSON MEXICAN AMERICAN PARENTS

-Constraints-

<u>Intrapersonal:</u> - Sink or swim mentality - Good enough attitude - Belief in “floaties” as teachers	<u>Interpersonal:</u> - Self Sufficiency - Family and Friends -Lack of interest from child	<u>Structural:</u> - Transportation - Time - Money - Location
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+Facilitators+

<u>Intrapersonal:</u> +Motivation	<u>Interpersonal:</u> +Positive relationship with aquatic staff	<u>Structural:</u> + Deals/Specials +More Swim Lessons (Time) +Parties
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Figure 4. Non-swim lesson Mexican American constraints and facilitators for Mexican American youth formal swim lesson participation.

Bold= Major themes

Mexican American Swim Lesson Parents

Intrapersonal constraint perceptions for youth formal swim lesson

participation. The most common constraints mentioned were lack of education about the importance of water safety for youth and lack of advertising by pool facilities. “Kids should have learn in school about water safety and parents should learn about it too.” said one participant. Lazy parents or lack of parent involvement was one of the first constraints mentioned by parents in attempt to explain why more Mexican American youth do not participate in swim lessons. Priorities was another major theme shared that was thought to be a constraining reason. One parent said “I’ll tell you the real reason why

there aren't more Mexican kids in the water, it's cause their parent are lazy and have the wrong priorities.”

Interpersonal constraint perceptions for youth formal swim lesson participation. Many pointed out that within the Mexican American family unit there is a reliance on extended family members or older siblings to help care for younger children and often the oldest child will teach younger family members how to swim. Also, a few participants said they remember growing up and if one of their family members had a negative experience in swim lessons, the family no longer went. One of the negative experiences mentioned was that one mother participant said she was just beginning to learn the basics when one day her instructor decided that she needed to learn how to dive. As a safety measure diving is taught in the deep-end and she was not ready for that step. She said after that she and her family never went back. Another complaint by one parent was “My daughter’s instructor spent too much time talking or playing with the children instead of being professional and focusing on instruction.”

Structural constraint perceptions for youth formal swim lesson participation. Structurally many Mexican American parents expressed that they prefer shallow water, because they can stand in it and it makes them more comfortable in the water. Deep water can be intimidating to low or no skill swimmers. One parent said “The deepest any pool should ever be is 5 feet. I want to be able to stand.” In addition, class size was mentioned as a constraint of the past. “My children used to be in class and there were about eight kids in one half hour class. That doesn't allow each child very much individual time with the instructor.”

Intrapersonal facilitator perceptions for youth formal swim lesson

participation. Although it may sound counterintuitive parental fear can be a facilitator or enrolling children in formal swim lesson. Many parent admitted to being afraid of the water or being a low ability swimmer. As one mom put it, “Growing up, I never learned how to swim. I missed out on a lot of parties and fun times. I don’t want that for my daughters. If my girls fell in, I couldn’t save them.”

Interpersonal facilitator perceptions for youth formal swim lesson

participation. Good teachers help foster a positive relationship between the aquatic facility and Mexican American parents. They also help instill confidence in the parents decision to enroll their child in formal swim lessons. As one mom said “I know my son really likes his teacher. I think he’s (the teacher) good. Plus this way I don’t have to get in.” Word of mouth was also emphasized as one of the best ways Mexican Americans can encourage one other Mexican Americans to enroll their children in swim lessons. Social media was mentioned by a few parents as an easy way to show off their child’s participation in swim lessons. One mom said, “I’m always putting up videos and pictures of my babies swimming at their swim lesson on Facebook.” “My son really learned a lot this summer.” A lot of parents said that they liked not having to get in and thought the certified instructors did a good job. A few participants mentioned that local high school swim teams should be promoted more and that there is potential for skilled Mexican American high school athletes to influence the Mexican American parents and youth in the community. Lastly, the need for greater water safety education was expressed. “Children need to learn about water safety in P.E at school and their parents should have

read a book about water safety with their children too.” this was also suggested by many swim lesson parents.

Structural facilitator perceptions for youth formal swim lesson participation.

Structurally, many Mexican Americans expressed that they liked zero-depth entry pools. Zero-depth entry pools are pool that increase in water depth. Furthermore, they stated that they find water parks with attractions more fun than boring, old lap pools. Additionally, parents expressed that if the need to be present during swim lessons, they prefer there to be ample shade and seating. One structural facilitator is the weather. As one parent said “It’s hot and swimming is what kids need to learn how to do to cool off and stay busy in the summer.” When parents were asked the probing question by the moderator, “Why didn’t you just throw your child in the water or wait for their child to learn on their own?” Most parents said that although that was the way they learned, they felt that they weren’t good swimmers, and wanted their children to learn how to swim the “right way.” Almost all parents said that swim lessons are affordable compared to other recreation activities. A handful of participants even went on to suggest that they would like snacks sold at lessons so they could eat and their other children during s swim lessons. To counter the common structural constraint money or affordability one participant said “It’s (the price) not that bad. Parents need to realize paying for swim lessons is an investment in that child’s future.”

SWIM LESSON MEXICAN AMERICAN PARENTS

-Constraints-

<u>Intrapersonal:</u> -Lack of education -Lack of parent involvement -Priorities	<u>Interpersonal:</u> -Friends and Family -Negative experience in swim lessons	<u>Structural:</u> -Deep water - Large Class size
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+Facilitators+

<u>Intrapersonal:</u> +Parental fear/Low swimming ability of parent	<u>Interpersonal:</u> +Good relationship with swim teachers +Word of mouth +Social Media +High school role models +Water safety education	<u>Structural:</u> +Zero-depth entry pools +Waterpark>lap pool +Comfortable for spectators + “ Right-way ” levels + Investment
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Figure 5. Swim lesson Mexican American constraints and facilitators for Mexican American youth formal swim lesson participation.

Bold= Major themes

Key Informants

Intrapersonal Constraint perceptions for youth formal swim lesson participation.

High expectations of what their child’s swimming proficiency will be after a session is a constraint. Mexican American parents are often asking their swim instructor, “How long will it be till my child learns how to swim?” Also discussed by aquatic personnel was retention as a constraint. Guards mentioned that retention in swim lessons proved to be difficult with Mexican American youth. If a child is not progressing

or forgets what they learned about swimming over the summer, parents often get discouraged and stop enrolling and paying for swim lessons. The belief that one swim lessons session should be enough to teach a child how properly swim is unrealistic. As one guard said “A lot of Mexican Americans think their child should hurry up and learn, but the fact is there are six levels and most kids have to repeat each level to become proficient.” Lack of interest and the priorities of parents can also act as constraints. One lifeguards said, “A lot of (Mexican American) parents drop their kids off at the pool and don’t want to be involved. You can’t make Mexican American parents sign up their children for lessons.”

Also discussed at the focus groups was the belief that arm “floaties” can teach children how to swim. One water safety instructor “ Those inflatable arm “floaties” aren’t allowed in the pool. Mexican American parents are always putting them on their kids and thinking that their kids

Interpersonal constraint perceptions for youth formal swim lesson participation. Many Mexican American families come to the pool and stay in the shallow-end where they can “socially swim.” “A lot of Mexican American families come to the pool on Sundays and just hang out and talk in the shallow-end.” said one guard. As with any family, time money, access to a pool facility can hinder youth formal swim lesson participation. Lifeguards in Douglas Arizona mentioned that there has been an increase in the amount of Spanish speaking Mexican citizen parents, enrolling their children in swim lessons. They cross into the United States for formal swim lessons, so that illustrates that the Spanish language, access to a nearby pool and culture are not constraints. At all three focus groups water safety instructors mentioned that parents

need to trust and have confidence in the instructors. On guard mentioned, “We are all certified water safety instructors, and parents need to trust us that we know that we have experience teaching kids how to swim. Sure anyone can try to teach their own kids, but it won’t be as good as learning from an American Red Cross water safety instructor. There are levels for a reason.”

Structural constraint perceptions for youth formal swim lesson participation.

As mentioned in the Mexican American parental interviews; time, money, access and transportation were all structural constraints discussed as youth Mexican American constraints to formal swim lesson participation at aquatic personnel focus groups. Also a few guards theorized that having a swimsuit might be a structural constraint as well. “We have seen Mexican Americans come in pajamas, jeans and a belt, athletic shorts and big shirts or even sports bras.” That being said, guards went on to discuss that the alternative apparel was mostly seen in the teenage and adult population, whereas most Mexican American youth tends to have swimsuits with their favorite TV character on them.

Intrapersonal facilitator perceptions for youth formal swim lesson participation. Parents willing to ask for help to teach their child how to swim was one of the main intrapersonal facilitator themes discussed at focus groups. At focus groups it was often mentioned that although more Mexican American children are participating in lessons, they frequently see Mexican American parents trying to teach their own child(ren). One Mexican American water safety instructor said “I know for my family, we don’t like to pay to learn how to do things. I’m always trying to tell my family that we are not professionals and that we need to just pay to learn how to do something the

right way.” This is an example of formal versus informal culture presence. It can also be thought of as structured versus unstructured.

Inter facilitator perceptions for youth formal swim lesson participation.

Aquatic personnel discussed in their focus group about how partnerships between childcare organizations, such as the Boys and Girls club, have and should continue to partner with the local municipal pool. Once that business partnership is created childcare organizations benefit, because they can provide a large group of children with a positive aquatic recreation experience at the pool and the pool organization benefits by getting more opportunities to promote water safety and receives more business. Beyond that, some child care organizations can even coordinate the time children visit the pool with swim lessons.

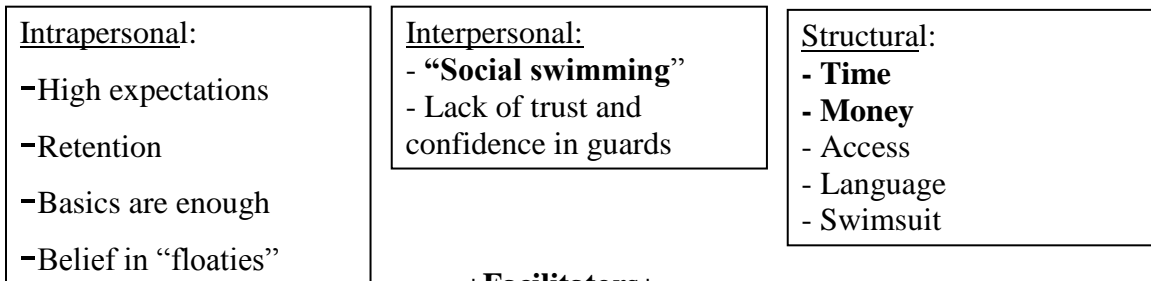
Structural facilitator perceptions for youth formal swim lesson participation.

An idea for accommodating more Mexican American children and teaching them how to swim is for pool facility to offer walk-in or swimming lessons. The idea was based off of the way that hair salons offer their services. One lifeguard mentioned that she used to work at a YMCA where they offered semi-private lessons. “The semi-private lessons allowed people to create their own lesson schedule and to divide up the cost with family members or friends that they choose.” he said. Maybe if Mexican American parents could go to the pool and sign their child for an instant half hour private lesson or schedule a semi-private lesson, they might take advantage of it. As mentioned above, class size used to be a constraint, because there used to be a maximum of eight children enrolled in each class. About four years ago the American Red Cross told aquatic recommended for aquatic recreation facilities to have a maximum of four students in one formal swim

lesson class. Now most classes maintain that small instructor to student ration. Parents then feel like their child is getting a better quality lessons and “more bang for their buck.” Lastly, at the Bisbee and Douglas pool said lessons were only offered in the summer. They went on to propose that maybe if lessons were offered year-round, more Mexican Americans might take advantage of it.

AQUATIC PERSONNEL

-Constraints-



+Facilitators+

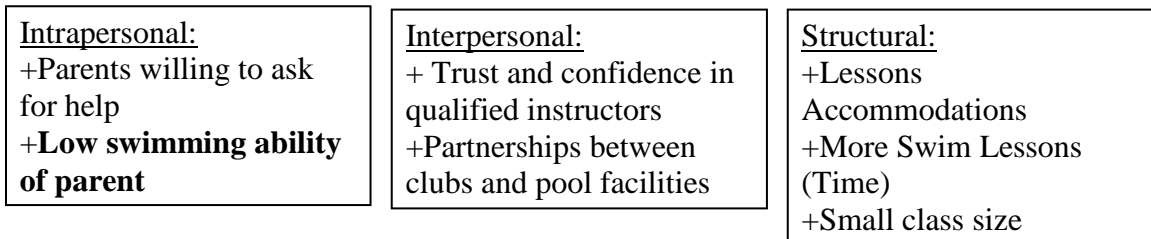


Figure 6. Aquatic personnel constraints and facilitators for Mexican American youth formal swim lesson participation.

Bold= Major themes

DISCUSSION

The problem of the study was to investigate constraints and facilitators of Mexican American parents when deciding whether or not to enroll children in formal swim lessons as a means of drowning prevention. The information obtained by this study (1) helps create awareness about youth drowning incidents and (2) provides insight about Mexican American perspectives and behaviors toward drowning prevention through, or not through as the case may be, youth formal swim lesson participation.

Proficiency Perceptions

The definition variation of proficient is fueled by a lack of education on what makes a proficient swimmer. Both non-swim lesson parents and swim lessons described how well their child swims by simply saying “good” or “pretty good.” A proficient swimmer is an efficient swimmer and to become an efficient swimmer typically a child needs to have had swim lessons where he or she learned proper technique. There is a difference between “social swimming” – which is more or less standing in the water; “survival swimming”- the ability to float, tread water, “doggie-paddle” and fall in and climb out of a pool and “real swimming”- which means a swimmer has endurance, technique, knows swim strokes and can navigate themselves confidently throughout the pool. Parents should be made aware of the different types of swimming proficiency so they can better assess and help their child. A common misconception is when a child goes to the pool and loves the water, the parent may deem them as proficient swimmers. A proficient swimmer is a skilled swimmer.

Safety Perceptions

Despite research on minority fears of water, and all of the awareness about youth drowning, Mexican American parents were confident with their child in the water. Parents of younger children would add, “I feel safe, but I keep an eye on them.” Most parents though, perceive his or her child as being proficient if they are not drowning or struggle when they swim , this leads to a false sense of confidence and safety.

Historical Perceptions

Given the segregation and discrimination at leisure and pool facilities, it is logical to think that the Mexican American population might hold a grudge or feel uncomfortable at swimming pool facilities. However, although a few participants mentioned that their grandparents or parents had to swim on designated Hispanic days at the pool; participants said that does not deter them from going swimming. There seems to be a generational progression with Mexican Americans participation in formal swim lessons. First generations that were born in the United States typically does not take formal swimming lessons. Second generations described in this study also didn't take lessons and were typically thrown in, but the third and following generations, Mexican Americans began to take formal swim lessons.

Value and Attitude

When Mexican Americans were asked what they thought about formal swim lessons, all parents responded positively. This proves that the Mexican community is beginning to value swim lessons and is embracing a positive attitude. Even the Mexican American parents that did not enroll their children in swim lessons said “I think swimming lessons are good.” Swim lesson parents said they valued the structure of

formal swim lessons, whereas non-swim lesson parents valued his or her child learning for free in an unstructured environment from family and friends.

Perceptions of Social Norms

The perception that Mexican American participation is uncommon is a strong social norm belief. All 25 respondents in this study said that it is uncommon for Mexican American youth to take swim lessons. In reality, after the researcher asked the question “What is the ethnic, racial composition of your son’s or daughter’s swim class?” Respondents realized that Mexican Americans typically accounted for a third or half of a swim class. Although it was uncommon the parents interviewed in the study to have participated in formal swim lessons, it is becoming a social behavioral norm and common practice to enroll youth in swim lessons.

Constraints

Reliance on family members and especially older siblings to teach younger siblings or family members how to swim are is was a major constraint. Swimming at private pools, money, time, lack of water safety education and drowning awareness were also major constraints for Mexican American youth swim lesson participation. Lack of interest and the priorities of parents can also act as constraints. As with any family, time money, access to a pool facility can hinder youth formal swim lesson participation. According to the sample in this study, the Spanish language and family size were constraints for past generations, but are no longer inhibiting current and future generations form participating in swim lessons. However, this study was limited to Mexican Americans that spoke English and according to the Pew Hispanic Center (2011),

66% of Mexican Americans are English Proficient and that means that 33% are not. That 33% is proficient in Spanish.

When asked if the history of swimming pool discrimination, the Spanish language or family size were constraints, the vast majority of respondents said no. A few parents said they had parents or grandparents that had to swim on designated days, but that that has not stopped them from enjoying the water as a family in the present. Family size was a constraint for earlier Mexican American generations in the United States, but as this study shows, the average Mexican American family had only 2.8 children.

Facilitators

Drowning awareness, lack of parental skill, water safety education, financial assistance, an attitude shift in favor of learning the “right way” and a generational change in social norm were all of the major facilitators for Mexican American youth formal swim lesson participation. Word of mouth and social media were emphasized ways Mexican Americans can encourage one other Mexican Americans to enroll their children in swim lessons. Mexican American parents increasingly want their children to learn how to swim the “right way.” Almost all parents said that swim lessons are affordable compared to similar your recreation activities. Also, it is beneficial to parents and children when youth child care organizations partner with a local municipal pool facility, so children who normally would not have the opportunity to go to the pool during the day at home can now experience swimming and swimming lessons. There is potential for skilled Mexican American high school athletes to influence the Mexican American parents and youth in the community.

Limitations

Short semi-structured interviews are meant to be orderly, lengthy, confidential and in-depth. All interview questions were asked in the same order to all Mexican American parent participants and every participant responded to each question; however, 13 of the 25 parent participant interviews were less than 45 minutes. Furthermore, 17 of the 25 interviews were held in public areas. All parent interviews held at pools were limited to public pool facilities. Most participants reached using the snowball approach were not interviewed in private or confidential environments, because participants chose public locations. Another limitation of the study was that the researcher only interviewed English speaking Mexican American parents and aquatic personnel. The information form, questions and exit survey were all in English as well. Geographically, this study was limited to Sierra Vista, Bisbee and Douglas, AZ. All are rural border towns in Southeastern Arizona. Data was only collected from April through August 2013. Lastly, all lifeguards and water safety instructors that participated in focus groups were city employees and all focus group discussions were limited to public pool facilities.

Implications

Non-swim lesson Mexican Americans parents in this study mentioned that their children swim at public pools. Lifeguards and water safety instructors are not usually employed at hotel and apartment pool facilities. More often than not there is only a sign posted, in English, say "Swim at your own risk." Policy implications are that aquatic personnel and water safety advocates can more efficiently reach the Mexican American population if they are employed at and offer swim lesson at private swimming pool facilities.

Swim lesson Mexican American parents talked about how it is evident that the Mexican American culture is changing. Typically the grandparents mentioned in this study, moved to the United States from Mexico and upheld their Mexican culture. By that it is meant that they tended to speak Spanish in the home, cook Mexican meals, go to church every Sunday, the wife didn't work outside home, the family size is large and children are not usually involved in recreational activities. Then the first generation of Mexican Americans become parents and are socially acculturate. This means that they adapt to American culture, but retain their Mexican American identity. The second and later American born generations tend to completely blend in with American culture and are therefore assimilated. It is often the second and third generation that loses their language. They may understand Spanish, but they typically don't speak it fluently. During this study there was a pattern of participants talking about generational shift. Aside from speaking Spanish, each subsequent generation seemed to exhibit the following behaviors: decrease in time spent cooking Mexican meals, going to church, the wife/mother would more likely work outside home with each generation in the US, family sizes tended to decrease and children became increasingly involved in recreational activities. When asked about why one participant thinks Mexican families are getting smaller compared to the large sizes in the past one participant said "We got smarter." By this she meant it is easier to financially, physically and socially provide for a smaller quantity of children. Also a cause of the changing Mexican American culture in the US is Mexican Americans marrying and/or starting family with a spouse of a different ethnic background.

Early generations may have needed aquatic recreation facilities to adapt to them and stress to them the importance of taking formal swim lessons as a means of drowning prevention, but it seems with each generation, Mexican Americans are adapting using aquatic facilities and are more commonly enrolling their children in formal swim lessons. The perception that Mexican American youth do not participate in swim lessons is still commonly believed, but contrary to popular belief the numbers of Mexican American youth in formal swim lessons is steadily growing. Two challenges that aquatic personnel do face is 1) convincing the traditional Mexican American parents that swim lessons are vital and worthwhile for their children and 2) retaining the Mexican American youth that are already have enrolled lessons. What can be done to keep Mexican American youth involved in swim lessons for a longer duration? It is worth the time to investigate what should be done to convince Mexican American parents to keep their child in swim lessons, so they can conquer the different level skills and learn the different swimming strokes. This mastering of skill would help prepare Mexican American youth to potentially be involved in swim teams.

Recommendations

Future studies should be advised against attempting focus groups as a means of better understanding the Mexican American community. The belief that the reason focus groups didn't work for this study is that although Mexican Americans are a collectivist culture, they prefer to collect with people they already know at a time and familiar place. Thus, focus groups in theory were appropriate, but not in practice. Also although, not signing up for formal swim lessons is not a sensitive topic, non-swim lesson parents did

feel slightly shy or embarrassed when it came to talking with a researcher about why they didn't sign their children up for lessons.

This study was done in Southeast Arizona. As mentioned in the limitations sections, all towns were rural border towns. It would be interesting to replicate the study and perform in the Phoenix area or in a large city in another state, such as California, New Mexico or Texas, all of which have abundant Mexican American populations.

This study employed short semi-structured interviews. It is advisable for future researchers to use observations as part of their study and conduct unstructured interviews. Furthermore it is also possible use this study's information to make a quantitative survey.

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APPENDIX A
INFORMAITON AND CONSENT FORM

Dear Participant:

Megan Murphy is a graduate student under the direction of Professor Ariel Rodríguez in the College of Public Programs at Arizona State University. She is conducting a research study to (1) help create awareness about youth drowning incidents and (2) provide insight about Mexican American perspectives and behaviors toward drowning prevention through, or not through as the case may be, youth formal swim lesson participation.

Ms. Murphy is recruiting Mexican American parents and aquatic personnel 18 and over to participate in this study. Participating will take approximately 60 to 90 minutes. For this study, Mexican American participants are defined as American citizens of Mexican origin or ancestral decent and qualify as a parent if they have a minimum of one child. For this study, aquatic personnel are experienced lifeguards or water safety instructors.

Mexican American parents that have **never** enrolled their children in formal swim lessons are needed and eligible to participate in this study if they have participated in some form of aquatic recreation with their child in the past, but have never enrolled their child(ren) in formal swim lessons.

Mexican American parents that **have enrolled** their children in swim lessons are also needed for this study and are eligible to participate in this study if they have enrolled and watched their child(ren) participate in a minimum of one formal swim lesson session.

Lastly, experienced lifeguards and water safety instructors are needed for focus group discussions in this study and eligible is they have (a) a minimum of one year experience working in aquatic recreation in Arizona (b) observed and interacted with Mexican Americans people, youth and adults, in an aquatics swim lesson context and (c) are a minimum of 18 years of age.

The later criterion excludes individuals from participation: individuals who refuse to be recorded, minors, undocumented immigrants, pregnant women and those not mentally competent.

During your individual interview or focus group discussion, a series of open-ended questions will be asked by a moderator. As participants, you are expected to answer all questions, share their opinions, and tell short stories. There are no wrong opinions. Participants maintain the right not to answer any question, and to stop participation at any time.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. All focus group interviews will be audio recorded for later transcription and analysis. The recordings will be erased upon

completion of the study. If you have any questions concerning the research study, please call her at (520) 678-6454 or email her at megan.k.murphy@asu.edu.

Individual interviews and focus group discussions will be audio record. You will not be recorded, unless you give permission. If you give permission to be audio recorded, you have the right to ask for the recording to be stopped. The recordings will be destroyed after the completion of my thesis study. Ms. Murphy will complete her thesis in December 2013

If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board, through the ASU Office of Research Integrity and Assurance, at (480) 965-6788.

By signing below you are agreeing to participate to in the study.

Signature

Date

By signing below, you are agreeing to be audio recorded.

Signature

Date

APPENDIX B

AQUATIC PERSONNEL RECRUITMENT

Hello _____,

My name is Megan Murphy. I am a graduate student under the direction of Professor Ariel Rodríguez in the College of Public Programs at Arizona State University. I am conducting a research study to 1) help create awareness about youth drowning incidents and 2) provide insight about the Mexican American population and their cultural beliefs, values, attitudes and behaviors toward drowning prevention through, or not through as the case may be, youth formal swim lesson participation.

I am recruiting lifeguards and water safety instructors 18 and over to participate in a focus group semi-structured interview which will take approximately 60 to 90 minutes. A series of open-ended questions will be asked by a moderator. As participants, lifeguards and water safety instructors are expected to answer all questions, share their opinions, and tell short stories. There are no wrong opinions. Participants maintain the right not to answer any question, and to stop participation at any time.

The focus group session for lifeguards and water safety instructors will be at 6:00PM on Saturday at the lobby area in the Sierra Vista Cove/Bisbee/Douglas Aquatic Center.

For this study the main criteria for lifeguard and water safety instructor participation is (a) all subjects have a minimum of one year experience working in aquatic recreation in Arizona are (b) subjects need to have observed and interacted with Mexican Americans people, youth and adults, in an aquatics swim lesson context and (c) lifeguards and water safety instructors must be a minimum of 18 years of age. The later criterion excludes individuals from participation: individuals who refuse to be recorded, minors, undocumented immigrants, pregnant women and those not mentally competent.

Participation in this study is voluntary. All focus group interviews will be audio recorded for later transcription and analysis. The recordings will be erased upon completion of the study. If you have any questions concerning the research study, please call me at (520) 678-6454 or email me at megan.k.murphy@asu.edu.

APPENDIX C

EXIT SURVEY

EXIT SURVEY #: _____

Date of Interview: _____

A. Demographic Information

What is your:

a Birth Date (month/day/year) ____/____/____

b Gender: Male Female

1. Where were you born?

United States Mexico Other _____

2. Where were did you spend most of your childhood and adolescent years (<21 yrs old)?

United States Mexico Other _____

3. How many years in total have you been living in the United States?

≤ 1year 1-2 yrs 3-5 yrs 6-10 yrs 11-20yrs > 20yrs

4. What language(s) do you speak at home most often?

Spanish English Both Spanish and English equally

5. What is your marital status? Are you. . .

Married Widow Divorced

Separated Single/Never Married Partner

6. Do you own or rent your place of residence?

Own Rent Neither own nor rent

7. Including yourself, how many people live in your home and what are their ages?

#_____Adults

Adult 1_____ (age) Adult 2 _____ (age) Adult 3_____ (age) Adult 4_____ (age)

#_____Children (17 & Under)

Child 1_____ (age) Child 2 _____ (age) Child 3_____ (age)

Child 4_____ (age) Child 5_____ (age) Child 6_____ (age)

8. Including yourself, what is the gender of each person who lives in your home?

(Keep each person in the same position as listed in question 8)

(M=Male/ F=Female)

Adult 1____Adult 2 ____Adult ____ Adult 4_____

(Children 17& under)

Child 1_____ Child 2 _____ Child 3_____

Child 4_____ Child 5_____ Child 6_____

9. What is the highest grade or level of schooling that you completed?

8th grade or less High school graduate/GED College graduate

Some high school Some college/training after HS Post-grad education/degree

10. What is your current employment status?

Employed, full-time Retired Unemployed, looking for work

Employed, part-time Homemaker Unemployed, disabled/medical reason

11. Which of the following amounts is closest to your current household yearly income? (Including all sources of income, such as wages, retirement, alimony, child support, etc.)

≤ \$5,000 \$5,000-\$9,999 \$10,000-\$14,999 \$15,000-\$19,999

\$20,000-\$24,999 \$25,000-\$29,999 \$30,000-\$39,999 ≥ \$40,000

12. What means of transportation do you use most often?

- Own vehicle Friend's vehicle Private taxicab Walk
 Relative's vehicle Bus or railway Medicaid van/cab Other ___

B. Swimming and aquatic recreation information.

13. Including yourself, how many years of formal swim lessons participation has each person in your household experienced? (Again, please keep each person's position the same as in question 8 and 9)

Adult 1 _____ (yrs) Adult 2 _____ (yrs) Adult 3 _____ yrs) Adult 4 _____ (yrs)

Children (17 & Under)

Child 1 _____ (yrs) Child 2 _____ (yrs) Child 3 _____(yrs) Child 4 _____ (yrs) Child 5 _____ (yrs)

14. At what age did your child learn to swim? Put TBD if your child does not know how to swim.

Children (17 & Under)

Child 1 _____ Child 2 _____ Child 3 _____

Child 4 _____ Child 5 _____ Child 6 _____

15. What type of body of water does your child use for swimming?

- Own pool Friend's pool Private pool Neighborhood pool
 Relative's pool River/Lake/Ocean Public pool Apartment pool

16. How often does your child swim in the summer?

- 0 times a month 1-2 times a month 3-4 times a month 5 or > times a month

17. How often does your child swim in the non-summer months?

0 times a month 1-2 times a month 3-4 times a month 5 or > times a month

18. Would you prefer your child swims at an outdoor or indoor pool?

Outdoor Indoor

19. Why do you prefer an outdoor or indoor pool?

20. How far away from your house is the nearest pool that offers swim lessons?

< 1 mile 1-4 miles 5-8 miles 9-12 miles 13-16 miles
 17-20 miles 21-24 miles 25-28 miles 29-32 miles >32 miles

Thank you for your participation! ☺

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR MEXICAN AMERICAN PARENTS

1. Tell us a little about your family background. What brought you to Arizona?
2. Describe how well your child or children can swim and how did he or she learn.
Please tell us the story.
3. How safe do you feel with your child swimming in a pool with other children?
4. Tell us about your family history in swimming or aquatic recreation. For example, do you as a parent know how to swim, and if so, how did you learn?
5. Describe how important it is for your children to learn how to swim.
6. (A) What do you think about formal swim lessons? (B) How uncommon or common is it in your community to take formal swim lessons?
7. What are some problems or barriers Mexican American parents face when deciding whether or not to enroll their children in swim lessons?
8. What are some things that would make it easier for the Mexican American community to participate more in formal swim lessons?
9. (A) What resources exist in your community that could improve aquatic recreation? (B) How can we get more families like yours to be involved in aquatic recreation?
10. (A) How can we get more families like yours to want to learn how to swim
(B) What should be done to get more Mexican American children in swim lessons?
11. What else that has not been discussed thus far have you noticed about Mexican Americans and their behaviors at or around swimming pools?

APPENDIX E

FOCUS GROUP QUESTIONS FOR AQUATIC PERSONNEL

1. Please tell us something about your background and how long you have been in Arizona.
2. How did you get into in aquatics and how long have you been working in aquatics?
3. Describe in general the population or community that you serve as a lifeguard.
4. (A) How familiar are you with the Mexican American population? (B) Given their language and culture, how well can you communicate with Mexican American population?
5. Compared to non-Mexican children, to what extent do you think Mexican Americans children may be more at risk when playing or swimming in the water?
6. Describe to us how well you think Mexican American children can swim compared to non-Mexican children.
7. What are some problems or barriers have you seen Mexican American parents face when deciding whether or not to enroll their children in swim lessons?
8. What are some things that would make it easier for the Mexican American children to participate in swim lessons?
9. What resources exist in your community that could improve aquatic recreation? How can we get more Mexican American families to be involved in aquatic recreation?

10. (A) How can we get more Mexican American families to want to learn how to swim? (B) What should be done to get more Mexican American children in swim lessons?
11. What else that has not been discussed thus far have you noticed about Mexican Americans and their behaviors at or around swimming pool?

APPENDIX F
PERCEPTION THEMES

Perception Themes	Corresponding Questions
Mexican American Youth Swimming Proficiency	<p>Parents- #2. Describe how well your child or children can swim and how did he or she learn. Please tell us the story.</p> <p>Aquatic Personnel- # 6. Describe to us how well you think Mexican American children can swim compared to non-Mexican children.</p>
Mexican American Youth Water Safety	<p>Parents- # 3. How safe do you feel with your child swimming in a pool with other children?</p> <p>Aquatic Personnel- #5. Compared to non-Mexican children, to what extent do you think Mexican Americans children may be more at risk when playing or swimming in the water?</p>
Mexican American Swimming History	<p>Parents- # 4. Tell us about your family history in swimming or aquatic recreation. For example, do you as a parent know how to swim, and if so, how did you learn?</p> <p>Aquatic Personnel- # 2. How did you get into in aquatics and how long have you been working in aquatics?</p>
Mexican American Values and Attitudes Towards Formal Swim Lessons	<p>Parents- # 5. Describe how important it is for your children to learn how to swim. # 6. (A) What do you think about formal swim lessons?</p>

<p>Mexican American Social Norms</p>	<p>Parents- # 6. (B) How uncommon or common is it in your community to take formal swim lessons?</p> <p>Aquatic Personnel- # 3. Describe in general the population or community that you serve as a lifeguard. #4. (A) How familiar are you with the Mexican American population? #4. (B) Given their language and culture, how well can you communicate with Mexican American population?</p>
<p>Mexican American Constraints for Aquatic Recreation and Formal Swim Lessons</p>	<p>Parents- #7. What are some problems or barriers Mexican American parents face when deciding whether or not to enroll their children in swim lessons?</p> <p>Aquatic Personnel- #7. What are some problems or barriers have you seen Mexican American parents face when deciding whether or not to enroll their children in swim lessons?</p>

<p>Mexican American Facilitators for Aquatic Recreation and Formal Swim Lessons.</p>	<p>Parents- # 8. What are some things that would make it easier for the Mexican American community to participate more in formal swim lessons? #9. (A) What resources exist in your community that could improve aquatic recreation? # 9. (B) How can we get more families like yours to be involved in aquatic recreation? #10. (A) How can we get more families like yours to want to learn how to swim? #10. (B) What should be done to get more Mexican American children in swim lessons?</p> <p>Aquatic Personnel- # 8. What are some things that would make it easier for Mexican American children to participate in swim lessons? #9. (A) What resources exist in your community that could improve aquatic recreation? #9. (B) How can we get more Mexican American families to be involved in aquatic recreation? #10. (A) How can we get more Mexican American families to want to learn how to swim? #10. (B) What should be done to get more Mexican American children in swim lessons?</p>
<p>Grounded Theory “Catch All”</p>	<p>Parents- # 11.What else that has not been discussed thus far have you noticed about Mexican Americans and their behaviors at or around swimming pools?</p> <p>Aquatic Personnel- #11.What else that has not been discussed thus far have you noticed about Mexican Americans and their behaviors at or around swimming pool?</p>

APPENDIX G
CODEBOOK

Category of Participant	Type of Constraint or Facilitator	Theme	Definition	Example
Non-Swim Lessons Mexican American Parents	Intrapersonal Constraint-	Belief in Arm “floaties”	The belief in inflatable arm flotation devices as an adequate means for teaching a child how to swim.	“My son started with the floaties, got better and now he doesn’t need them anymore. That’s how he learned.”
		Good Enough Attitude	Judging a child with a low swim ability as an adequate swimmer.	“My child swims good, good enough, we don’t have a pool and we don’t go that much.”
		Sink or Swim Mentality	The mentality that throwing a child into the water will teach them how to swim.	“Well. It’s kind of a Mexican thing... My dad threw my oldest son in the water. That’s how he learned.”
	Interpersonal Constraint-	Lack of Interest in Swim Lessons from Child	When a child does not express interest to their parents in taking formal swim lessons.	“If she (his daughter) doesn’t come to me and say, I want lessons, then I’m not gonna waste my money.”
	Interpersonal Constraint- (Continued)	Self-Sufficient	Not requiring any aid, support, or formal intervention, for	“We don’t need swimming lessons; my

Non-Swim Lessons Mexican American Parents			survival. A type of personal or collective autonomy.	kids can just figure it out.”
	Interpersonal Constraint- (Continued)	Reliance on Family and Friends	When parents rely on family members and friends to teach their children how to swim.	“My daughter is not a very good swimmer, she is afraid of the water, but she can learn from friends.”
	Structural Constraint-	Time	Parents not having enough time to take children to swimming lessons.	“It was hard always having to work. I couldn’t exactly take off in the middle of the day to take my kid to swimming lessons.”
		Money	Parents lack of funds to take children to swim lessons.	“Swimming lessons are about \$30, if you have a lot of kids that gets expensive.”
		Transportation	Parents not having a way to get to swim lessons due to a lack of transportation.	“We may have ten cars in our driveway, but only one of them really works.”
Location		Swimming at private pools that do not offer swim lessons.	“We mostly just swim at hotels and my friend’s apartment	

Non-Swim Lesson Mexican American Parents				pool; no lifeguards there.”
	Intrapersonal Facilitator+	Motivated	Parents need to be intrinsically motivated to sign up their children for swim lessons.	“Looking back, I should have put my kids in lessons. I think parents need to be more aware of how dangerous kids playing in the water can be. Maybe if more parents watched the news about all of the local drowning reports, they would be more motivated to sign up their kids to learn how to swim right.”
	Interpersonal Facilitator+	Positive relationship with aquatic staff	A positive relationship between Mexican American families and aquatic staff.	““Maybe if they (aquatic staff) explained the rules nicer and were more positive and fun, going to the pool would be better.”
	Structural Facilitator+	Deals/Specials/Free	A reduction of swim lesson	“I waited in line an hour

			cost or eliminating cost altogether.	early every Wednesday with my kids to get into the pool for free.”
		More Lessons Offered (Time)	Offering more swim lesson classes at different times of the day, days of the week and keeping services open year-round.	“If pool facilities provide more swim lessons at different days and times, more parents might be able to enroll their child and watch them participate.”
		Parties	An open-house or party to promote swim lessons and generate excitement about water safety.	“A party at the pool to promote swim lessons could get people in the door and would help kick-off summer.”
Swim Lesson Mexican American Parents	Intrapersonal Constraint-	Lack of Education/Awareness	A lack of education of the importance of water safety.	. “Kids should have to learn in school about water safety and parents should learn about it too.”
		Lack of Parent Involvement	Parents not interested or involved in their child learning how to swim.	“You got some parents who just drop their kid off or make them walk to the pool. Those parents don’t

Swim Lesson Mexican American Parents				want to be involved.”
		Priorities	Parents having different priorities from their child learning how to swim and them seeing those priorities as more important.	“I’ll tell you the real reason why there aren’t more Mexican kids in the water, it’s cuase their parent are lazy and have the wrong priorities.”
	Interpersonal Constraint-	Family and Friends	Family members and friends informally teaching children how to swim.	“I know my nephews just teach each other how to swim and that’s normal.”
		Negative Experiences in Swim Lessons	Negative experiences between Mexican American families and aquatic staff.	“My daughter’s instructor spent too much time talking or playing with the children instead of being professional and focusing on instruction.”
	Structural Constraint-	Deep Water	Water that is deeper than the depth that someone can comfortably stand.	“The deepest any pool should ever be is 5 feet. I want to be able to stand.”

Swim Lesson Mexican American Parent		Large Class Size	Large class sizes are unsafe and only allow each child a limited time with the instructor.	“My children used to be in class and there were about eight kids in one half hour class. That doesn’t allow each child very much individual time with the instructor.”
	Intrapersonal Facilitator+	Parental Fear/Low Parental Swimming Ability	When a parent is a poor swimmer and is not confident in their swimming ability, they may seek formal swim lessons for their children to teach them what they cannot.	“Growing up, I never learned how to swim. I missed out on a lot of parties and fun times. I don’t want that for my daughters. If my girls fell in, I couldn’t save them.”
	Interpersonal Facilitator+	Good Relationship with Swim Teachers	A positive experience and relationship between a child and the water safety instructor.	“I know my son really likes his teacher. I think he’s (the teacher) good. Plus this way I don’t have to get in.”
		Word of Mouth	Advertising about swim lessons from Mexican Americans telling one	“I heard about where my friends signed up and they said that place was good, so

Swim Lesson Mexican American Parents			another about it.	that's where I signed my daughter for lessons."
		Social Media	Internet communication sires such as, Facebook, Twitter and Instagram.	"I'm always putting up videos and pictures of my babies swimming at their swim lesson on Facebook." "My son really learned a lot this summer."
		Role Models	Skilled, positive high school, college, or Olympian swimmer athletes that children look up to.	"I don't know of any, but maybe if the local high school swim team athletes met with children it could help inspire them to be better swimmers and learn the right way."
		Water Safety Education	Educating the Mexican American community about the importance of swim lessons and water safety.	"Children need to learn about water safety in P.E at school and their parents should have read a book about water safety with their children too."
	Structural	Zero-Depth Entry	Pools that are	"I like those

	Facilitator+		like a beach. They start off extremely shallow and gradually get deeper.	pool, like the Cove where it starts off with water only up to your toes. Then you can go gradually as deep as you want.”
		Water Park	Pool facility with aquatic attractions, such as slides and sprinkling or spraying structures.	“Water parks are more fun. They are better than boring lap pool like the one here.”
		Weather	Warm weather is a facilitator for families to cool down at a swimming pool.	“It’s hot and swimming is what kids need to learn how to do to cool off and stay busy in the summer.”
		Comfort for Spectators.	Comfortable conditions for spectators such as, shade, seating, and snacks.	“It would be nice to have shade so you are not burning up watching your child’s lessons. It also would be better to have more seating and snacks for parents.”
		“Right Way” Learning Levels	The “right way” is meant by parents as the structured way of learning how to swim by learning skills in	“I am not the best swimmer, so I wanted my boys to learn the <i>right way</i> .”

			each Red Cross level from a certified instructor.	
		Investment	Investing money in your child's success by paying for his or her swim lesson when they are young, so they will have the lifelong skill of knowing how to properly swim.	"It's (the price) not that bad. Parents need to realize paying for swim lessons is an investment in that child's future."
Aquatic Personnel	Intrapersonal Constraint-	High Expectations	The unrealistic and high expectation for a child to learn how to swim after a short period of time in swim lessons.	"How long will it be till my child learns how to swim?"
		Retention	Keeping children enrolled in lessons.	"A lot of Mexican Americans think their child should hurry up and learn, but the fact is there are six levels and most kids have to repeat each level to become proficient."
		Belief in "Floaties"	The belief in inflatable arm flotation devices as an adequate means for teaching a child how to swim.	"Those inflatable arm 'floaties' aren't allowed in the pool. Mexican American

				parents are always putting them on their kids and thinking that their kids will learn how to swim.”
		Lack of Parent Involvement	Parents not interested or involved in their child learning how to swim.	“A lot of (Mexican American) parents drop their kids off at the pool and don’t want to be involved. You can’t make Mexican American parents sign up their children for lessons.”
	Interpersonal Constraint-	Social Swimming	Going to the pool to only stand around in the water and talk with family and friends.	“A lot of Mexican American families come to the pool on Sundays and just hang out and talk in the shallow-end.”
		Lack of Trust and Confidence in Guards	Not trusting or having confidence in certified water safety instructors to teach children.	“We are all certified water safety instructors, and parents need to trust us that we know that we have experience

				teaching kids how to swim. Sure anyone can try to teach their own kids, but it won't be as good as learning from an American Red Cross water safety instructor. There are levels for a reason.”
Structural Constraint-	Time	Parents not having enough time to take children to swimming lessons.	“A lot of Mexican American parents are busy, some work two jobs, some don't have time to take their kids to swim lessons.”	
	Money	Parents lack of funds to take children to swim lessons.	“Mexican Americans tend to be low or low middle class, so some just don't have the money.”	
	Access	A lack of means of approaching, entering, exiting, communicating with, or making use of an	“Some Mexican Americans don't live near a pool or have a regular chance to get	


			aquatic facility.	to a pool, so when they come here, they think it's vacation."
		Language	Spanish as a barrier to enrolling children or children not understanding English from the instructor.	"I know our website has a Spanish translation button, but our forms are in English, so if a parent can only read Spanish then that is a barrier."
		Swimsuit	The proper clothing worn in water.	We have seen Mexican Americans come in pajamas, jeans and a belt, athletic shorts and big shirts or even sports bras."
	Intrapersonal Facilitator+	Parents Open to Asking for Help	Parents being open-minded and willing to get help from a certified instructor for their child to learn.	"I know for my family, we don't like to pay to learn how to do things. I'm always trying to tell my family that we are not professionals and that we need to just pay to learn how to do something the right way."

		Parental Low Confidence in Swimming Ability	If a parent has low confidence in their own swimming ability, then they are not able to teach their children how to swim. Out of necessity parents need someone else to teach their child.	“A lot of parents don’t know how to swim, so they can’t teach their kids and that’s where we (certified instructors) come in.”
	Interpersonal Facilitator+	Trust and Confidence in Qualified Instructors	When Parents trust and are confident in water safety instructors.	“I know I have been trained and certified to teach children how to swim. It feel good when parents trust me to with their children in the water.”
		Partnerships Between Clubs and Pools Facilities	Partnerships between clubs and pool facilities allow children to be supervised with an organization staff and experience going to the pool.	“Partnerships are the future. Sports camp and Boys and girls club already come to the pool, the next step is to give parents the option to sign up for lessons too.”
	Structural Facilitator+	Lesson Accommodations	Accommodating parents by providing walk-in, private, and semi-private set	“The semi-private lessons allowed people to

			to a parent's schedule.	create their own lesson schedule and to divide up the cost with family members or friends that they choose.”
		More Lessons Offered (Time)	Offering more swim lesson classes at different times of the day, days of the week and keeping services open year-round.	“I know we only offer lessons in the summer here at Douglas. Maybe if they were year-round more people would enroll.”
		Small Class Size	Small class sizes are safer and allow each child a more time with the instructor.	“Parents feel like their child is getting a better quality lessons and <i>more bang for their buck</i> when class sizes are smaller. We like them smaller too.”

APPENDIX H
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD EXEMPTION

To: Ariel Rodriguez

From:  Mark Roosa, Chairman
Soc Beh IRB

Date: 04/08/2013

Committee Action: Exemption Granted

IRB Action Date: 04/08/2013

IRB Protocol #: 1303008970

Study Title: Understanding Mexican American Constraints and Facilitators for Swim Lessons Participation

The above-referenced protocol is considered exempt after review by the Institutional Review Board pursuant to Federal regulations, 45 CFR Part 46.101(b)(2) .

This part of the federal regulations requires that the information be recorded by investigators in such a manner that subjects cannot be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects. It is necessary that the information obtained not be such that if disclosed outside the research, it could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability, or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

You should retain a copy of this letter for your records.