The Impact of Leisure Constraints on Leisure Programmers' Participation in Municipal Leisure and Recreation Programs

By

Phil Thornton-Joe, B A

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
MASTER OF ARTS
in the Faculty
of
Education

We accept this thesis as conforming to the required standard

[redacted]

Dr J J Jackson, Supervisor (School of Public Administration)

[redacted]

Dr M L Collis, Departmental Member (School of Physical Education)

[redacted]

Dr D R Nichols, Departmental Member (School of Physical Education)

[redacted]

Dr C E Hodgkinson, External Examiner
(Professor Emeritus, Communications and Social Foundations)

Supervisor Dr J J Jackson

ABSTRACT

This study was based upon a model of leisure constraints, originally proposed by Crawford and Godbey (1987) and elaborated on by Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991), and more recently by Raymore, Godbey, and Crawford (1994) The study sought to determine whether a relationship existed between leisure constraints and leisure programmers' participation The sample consisted of 27 leisure programmers in the public sector from the four-core municipalities (Victoria, Saanich, Oak Bay, and Esquimalt) of Victoria, British Columbia An instrument adapted from Bradshaw and Jackson (1979) was used to measure the personal participation of leisure programmers in their programs Leisure constraints were found to be negatively related to leisure programmers' participation The results of the study suggest that the Raymore et al (1994) model is useful in assessing the constraints on leisure for leisure programmers in their work setting Methodological and practical implications of the study are discussed, and directions for subsequent research are proposed

Examiners

[redacted]

Dr J J Jackson, Supervisor (School of Public Administration)

[redacted]

Dr M L Collis, Departmental Member (School of Physical Education)

[redacted]

Dr D R Nichols, Departmental Member (School of Physical Education)

[redacted]

Dr C E Hodgkinson, External Examiner
(Professor Emeritus, Communications and Social Foundations)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank my committee, Dr Collis and Dr Nichols for their valuable insight concerning my thesis You have both challenged me to a heightened level of understanding in my research--this was initially hard to take, but in the end, I learned to appreciate this

I would also like to thank my statisticians, Dr Muir and Dr Walsh Your suggestions and guidance were invaluable

In addition, I would like to thank Dr Hodgkinson for agreeing to be the external examiner for my oral defense--I appreciate your involvement very much

My thanks also goes out to Gladys, from the School of Physical Education, for providing the administrative support and your kind words

And most importantly, I would humbly like to thank Dr Jackson for your role as my supervisor, as words cannot properly express my gratitude You have touched me with your humanity, wisdom, support, and understanding I have learned so much from you, and I will be eternally grateful for allowing me this opportunity

DEDICATION

To those less fortunate than myself, who lack the opportunity of further education--may wisdom still benefit you

To my wife Charlayne, who has inspired me on so many levels I am so fortunate to share my life with you, and thank you for your tolerence with my thesis I love you so very much

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Facilitating leisure activities for clients through designed leisure programs and services is complex as many factors influence the programmer Parkhouse (1991, p 138) referred to the following factors, which could ultimately influence leisure programmers the available resources (material and human), the restrictions imposed by governments, and the values and expectations of those being served Less obvious, but potentially as significant as those factors listed above, could be those leisure constraints acting on leisure programmers, which could prevent their participation in the very programs and services they would provide Leisure constraints could, in turn, prevent leisure providers from gaining potentially valuable experience through their participation in their programs ("their" is used generically, as others could also have ownership of these programs), which could otherwise aid in program development and evaluation as part of their programming role

By participating, programmers could be provided with a more accurate assessment of the development for their programs, and could be more effective in their programming efforts Rossman (1989, p 186) related the effectiveness of programmer participation by noting

> The programmer needs to model the program and anticipate its episodes step by step This is what successful programmers do Their programs operate smoothly because, when they operate the program in 'real time', it is actually the second or third time they have operated it They have experienced the program before actually operating it

Other instances of effectiveness gained through participative management are stated below (infra, p 8-9) Hence, information gained through research on the topic of leisure constraints and leisure programmer participation could have significance for the leisure organization

Much of the literature on leisure focused on the general population of those who participated in leisure programs with, perhaps understandably, little emphasis placed on research surrounding leisure practitioners and their personal participation in the programs they had developed One could conclude that this omission could be explained by the absence of research in the area However, through the study of the topic, a greater understanding could be gained on one aspect of leisure programming Rossman (1989) noted the complexity of programming by stating

> Programmers of leisure services must understand how people are socialized into specific forms of leisure and how they structure and interpret their interactions in order to experience leisure or satisfy leisure needs Moreover, to be effective, programmers must understand human development and how to manipulate and create program environments to accommodate individual differences in general background and previous experience with an activity, event, or service (p 4)

Hence, leisure programmers needed to be intimately involved with their programs in order to provide effective programming for their clients If leisure programmers distanced themselves from their clientele and the programs they provided, the programming process could potentially become superficial, and their effectiveness

could thereby be reduced within the leisure organization they represented

In conclusion then, as information on the relationship of leisure constraints and programmer participation could potentially affect leisure organizations, a need existed for exploratory research on the topic This study, then, was directed at the relationship of levels of participation (independent variable) in programs by leisure programmers in Greater Victoria, and the leisure constraints (dependent variable) which acted on their opportunities for participation With the information derived from this particular area of leisure constraints research, it became possible to understand if leisure constraints influenced levels of leisure programmer participation

Statement of the Problem

The purposes of this study were threefold (a) to determine to what degree selected leisure programmers participated in their leisure programs, (b) to determine to what extent leisure constraints influenced leisure programmers who provided programs for their clients, and (c) to determine whether or not levels of personal participation by leisure programmers would be correlated to leisure constraints

The study was delimited to leisure programmers from the four-core public municipal leisure and recreation departments in Greater Victoria, British Columbia Structured interviews were utilized by the principal investigator with a sample from the selected population of leisure programmers, in order to identify the programmers' levels of participation in the leisure programs they provided Moreover, the interview also identified levels of leisure programmers' leisure constraints It was hypothesized that leisure constraints would measurably relate to the participation of leisure

programmers

Definitions

Leisure " refers to time that is not committed for work or for mundane life-preserving activity, it may also refer to a 'free' state of mind, or a combination of these two interpretations of the concept" (Jackson, 1984, p 4) Moreover, "It involves freedom, but in the sense of action rather than lack of constraint It includes decision, but always in a social as well as time and space context It is focused on the experience, but with a history and future orientation It is motivated intrinsically, but not without long-term meanings and intentions It is existential and social, immediate and processual, personal and political" (Kelly, 1989, p 416)

A leisure program is " an opportunity for individuals to experience leisure Program is an elastic concept used to describe activities, events, or services conducted by leisure service organizations" (Rossman, 1989, p 3-4)

Leisure programming is " the development of leisure opportunities by manipulating and creating environments to maximize the probability that participants will find the satisfaction they seek" (Rossman, 1989, p 4)

Program development " is the overall process in which one assesses needs, designs programs for specific groups, and operates and evaluates them" (Rossman, 1989, p 4)

Recreation means recovery from, or restoration of something (Arnold, 1991)

Furthermore, recreation occurs as one form of expression during leisure (Searle and Brayley, 1993) Lastly, " recreation is defined as voluntary nonwork activity that is organized for the attainment of personal and social benefits including restoration and social cohesion" (Kelly, 1989, p 27)

Participation is to engage in an activity that he or she desires or expresses a preference for (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991)

A leisure constraint is anything that inhibits people's ability to participate in leisure activities, to spend more time in participation, to take advantage of leisure services, or to achieve a desired level of satisfaction (Jackson, 1988, p 203)

Theoretical Frame of Reference

In this section, a framework was developed through which the phenomena being investigated could be analyzed The research perspective, dependent, and independent variables were conceptually outlined

As was stated (supra, p 2), while much research in leisure had recently focused on constraints and their effects on users from the general public, there appeared to be no research on constraints acting on leisure programmers Moreover, as Rossman (1995, p xi) claimed, much of leisure programming was done without reference to the literature available on the subject of leisure programming (Edginton, Hanson, & Edginton, 1992, Carpenter & Howe, 1985, Farrell & Lundegren, 1991, Russell, 1982), and many of the recommended practices of leisure programming had not been logically derived from current knowledge about experiencing leisure

Rossman went on to state, "Consequently, practice has not been tied to theory, and techniques for successful programming have been somewhat nebulous How programmers actually develop programs has not been documented, so programming techniques remain somewhat mysterious" (p xi) Hence, there remained a strong need for research into the complexities of leisure programming Searle and Brayley (1993, p 222) reported the importance for having research-based recreation programming for these two reasons

> First, an assumed or supposed knowledge of a constituency's needs and interests is suspect because recreation as a profession [this remains to be proven] does not have a systematic, historic measurement of the impact [sic] of its services on which to base such assumptions Second, given the era of economic restraint in which we live, public accountability is much greater and it is difficult to justify expenditures for recreation on the basis of emotional appeals or based on what the recreation program planner just thinks the community wants

As a result, if leisure programmers could obtain empirical information on programming, then by utilizing that information, the result could conceivably be an enhanced level of programming Hence, this study explored leisure constraints which acted on leisure programmers in their programming role, in an effort to build on empirical research surrounding leisure programming, and too, better inform the practising leisure provider on ways of enhancing programming

Participation

After an extensive review of the literature, a focus of leisure constraints research on the general public appeared to emerge, with no constraints research in the context of the participation of the leisure programmer Shaw, Bonen, and McCabe (1991, p 299) put forth a recommendation from their research concerning constraints and participation measures from the perspective of the general public, that "Other relevant factors, such as type of occupation also need to be considered in future research " Hence, the leisure programmer was selected in this study as a user of leisure

Moreover, Gratton and Taylor (1992) provided an example of a 'participation rate' as an effectiveness performance indicator for public sector leisure suppliers "Users - Local authority population", and suggested " better still if disaggregated into different types of user" (p 165) Gratton's and Taylor's rate of participation for leisure suppliers provided a framework of analysis for effective performance, but they indicated that other variables could be substituted instead Hence, by following the participation framework provided by Gratton and Taylor, 'programmer participation' could be expressed as a function of the 'leisure programs' which programmers supervised, thereby deriving a conceptual measure integral to this study

The importance of programmers gaining further insights into leisure constraints acting on their clients was highlighted by Searle and Brayley (1993) who related, "Recreation programmers must seek ways to reduce the effects of these constraints [on their clientele]" (p 213) Again however, the perspective of those constraints acting

on the general public garnered the attention of leisure constraints research So, while the perspective of those constraints acting on the general public was important, the study of those constraints which acted on the leisure programmer warranted attention as well This study then examined the influence of leisure constraints on the personal participation of leisure programmers

Much had been written relating leisure programming, and the concept of participation by the programmer contributing to the enhancement of leisure programming and program development Bannon (1985) referred to the "hands-on practitioner" in describing attributes necessary for successful leisure administrators (p 173) Rossman verified this concept of programmer participation as well (supra, p 2) In addition, Howe (1993) relayed the importance of program evaluation as a method of enhancing leisure programming, and noted that when observing, the programmer functioned in any one of the following modes passive, covert observer, an active, participant-observer, or an overt, full participant Each of these modes provided a variety of depths of involvement and access to the actual experience of participants Kraus and Curtis (1990) commented, " it will be important for recreation professionals to use themselves as models of how leisure should be perceived and used--rather than as people who too often sacrifice their own leisure to serve others" (p 473) In addition, Little (1993) related that a programmer's previous experience with programs, and a knowledge of leisure behaviour that was directly applicable to the current programs, were both necessary in the leisure programming function Kraus and Curtis (1986), distinguished the outstanding leisure service

professional as being " creative, open, and responsive to the crucial social challenges of the present day" (p 415) Peters and Waterman (1982) spoke of "hands-on, value driven management" and [being] "close to the customer" (pp 13-16) Much of the literature on management (Aguilar, 1967, Bourgeois, 1980, Dess, 1987, Fahey & Narayanan, 1986, Jackson & Dutton, 1988, Morrison & Metcalfe, 1996, Smircich & Stubbart, 1985) reported this notion of enhancement to the organization and management through experiential intervention (e g , scanning and forecasting) into their prospective environments Hence, through an experiential process such as their own personal participation in their programs, leisure programmers could contribute towards the process of program development

However, as was stated (supra, p 1), programming leisure for clients was considered complex Rossman (1995) exposed the complexities facing the leisure programmer through the following

> Different individuals find different activities intrinsically satisfying because of factors such as their own skill levels in an activity, their socialization into it, and the previous opportunities and experiences they have had with it Although these factors influence their likelihood of initially participating, their interpretation of the interactions in an activity on a given day will determine whether or not it is a leisure experience for them

With this in mind, it appeared that individuals experienced leisure from various perspectives, according to their differing pre-conceived notions Programmers were no different in this regard, and needed to experience the very programs they facilitated, in

an effort to maintain a high degree of representation (to the clients they served) and programming effectiveness

Thus, by establishing the link that participation could influence leisure programming, a model was then required in order to examine the former variable Bradshaw and Jackson (1979), in light of Burton's (1971) investigation of frequency of participation, developed a five-point Likert-type frequency scale to examine leisure participation among high-school students in Victoria, British Columbia In their (Bradshaw & Jackson) research, frequencies of participation ranged through the following scale (1) daily, (2) three times a week, (3) every week, (4) once every two or three weeks, and (5) greater than once per month (p 106) In addition, their study classified the first three of five categories listed above, as "active" participation (p 99) Moreover, subjects were requested to indicate how often they participated in activities "in season" (p 99) This study adapted the Bradshaw and Jackson (1979) scale as an established normative base, for use in order to investigate the relationship between leisure constraints and participation

As well, an additional model was needed relating categories of program areas, in combination with the Bradshaw and Jackson frequencies of participation model Rossman (1995, p 426) developed an evaluation model for leisure programming which contained eleven sections of information, including the section of "program areas" Within the program area section, Rossman classified the following twelve program area groupings (1) arts and crafts, (2) athletics, (3) dance, (4) drama, (5) hobbies and clubs, (6) language arts, (7) music, (8) science and nature, (9) social

recreation, (10) volunteer services, (11) special populations, and (12) other (p 426) Rossman encouraged adaptation of the model and shared, "The variables on which the data are to be collected can be chosen by the agency The variables included in these example forms are for illustration purposes only, although they are considered by most administrators to be very important" (p 427) Thus, while not considered empirical, the representative development of the scale towards leisure programmers, served as a starting point in this exploratory study

Although no research appeared to exist which examined the two variables together, namely leisure constraints and leisure programmers' participation, the problem within this study could be examined by way of extending other related studies Iso-Ahola (1986), discussed the importance of study replications and extensions and noted, "There is very little systematic pursuing of specific problems Rather we tend to do piecemeal studies" (p viii) Iso-Ahola also went on to relate that in addition to replication studies in the field, there was a need for constructive replication studies involving " replicating the main variables of the first study and adding some other variables to the second study or otherwise changing the original design somewhat Such studies are more than replications, they are extensions" (p ix) To this end, there was a resulting paucity of empirical models (Edginton, Hanson, & Edginton, 1992, Godbey, 1989, Jackson & Witt, 1994) in leisure constraints research In relating leisure constraints to the participation of leisure programmers, the model, soon to follow by Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991), along with Bradshaw's and Jackson's (1979), and Rossman's (1995) model, was

adapted in order to pursue this line of research

Constraints

Studies in leisure constraints produced numerous models and methods for analysis, but as had been previously stated, most of them were non-empirical Moreover, there did not appear to be any research on constraints from the perspective of the leisure programmer Hence, selection of a leisure constraints model for this study was somewhat complex, as a research model examining leisure programmer participation needed to be chosen, even though the models used in leisure constraints research examined participation of the general public Moreover, selection of a model for this study was from an array of interrelated, empirical research models on leisure constraints

For example, Crawford and Godbey (1987) and Henderson, Stalnaker, and Taylor (1988) contributed to the understanding in the field of leisure constraints through their elaboration of the importance of differentiating between antecedent and intervening constraints Antecedent constraints were those which shaped a person's preferences about leisure, whereas intervening constraints were those which provided influence only after preferences had been formed

Recent studies in leisure constraints indicated that constraints did not work in isolation, but appeared to be interrelated Thus, they could be evaluated in the context of underlying dimensions, as it appeared that leisure was not mitigated by a single constraint or even by a single set of constraints (Backman, 1991, Backman & Crompton, 1990, Henderson, Stalnaker, & Taylor, 1988, McGuire, 1984, Wright &

Goodale, 1991) Jackson (1993) identified six common dimensions from the above five studies These dimensions were social isolation, accessibility, personal reasons, costs, time commitments, and facilities, and are described briefly below

Social isolation was considered an interpersonal dimension according to Hultzman (1995) in that it was based on characteristics which involved interaction among/between people Iso-Ahola (1980) relayed the importance of socialization within the leisure experience, hence the inclusion of this dimension

Accessibility was the dimension referring to a lack of, or having limited access to transportation This constraint was often cited across the life span (Jackson, 1991, Jackson, 1994, Kay & Jackson, 1991)

Hultzman classified personal reasons as an intrapersonal dimension as each of the items it comprised related directly to an individual's motivations or abilities This dimension tended to show a high correlation of its elements with those in other dimensions as it appeared to be affected by a host of situational variables

The cost dimension related to the outlay of money It assumed a dimensional characteristic upon consideration of either long-term or short-term, consumptive value For example, the cost of equipment, sometimes necessary for participation in leisure carried with it a long-term value along with ownership Conversely, admission or rental fees implied a short-term value as a dimension of cost

Time as a dimension represented a collection of items often referred to as reasons that affected levels and intensity of participation among adults It was important to note however, that time commitments did not necessarily imply an

inability to participate in leisure Kay and Jackson (1991), Shaw, Bonen and McCabe (1991), and Willits and Willits (1986) showed that time constraints may have actually increased individuals' levels of participation

The final dimension constituted the facility and related to leisure settings and individuals' perceptions For example, overcrowding in a facility may at times have had a direct effect on the psychological experience of individuals (Andereck and Becker, 1993, Westover, 1989) In those situations, crowding may have been perceived as an interpersonal barrier arising from too much interaction with others

For all its value as an organizational and conceptual tool, classification was limited in the insights and benefits it could provide, as Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) stated, "Classification schemes can describe the phenomena of interest but are unable to explain their occurrence" (p 311) Hence, another way in which some researchers challenged the problem of conceptualizing constraints was through the construction of models which attempted to explain the phenomenon These models however, had one related characteristic, in that all had been static, as opposed to being process-oriented A model which exemplified this notion of being process-oriented was developed by Crawford et al (1991) With their model, the dimensions identified by Jackson (1993) could be incorporated as well as other potential dimensions, as the Crawford et al model identified three categories of constraints--intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural, and indicated the dynamic process of how individuals could negotiate a hierarchical series of constraints through to participation and beyond Crawford and Godbey (1987) described each of the three categories as follows

Structural barriers represent constraints as they are commonly conceptualized, as intervening factors between leisure preference and participation Examples of structural barriers include family life-cycle stage, family financial resources, season, climate, the scheduling of work time, availability of opportunity (and knowledge of such availability), and reference group attitudes concerning the appropriateness of certain activities (p 124)

Intrapersonal barriers involve individual psychological states and attributes which interact with leisure preferences rather than intervening between preferences and participation Examples of intrapersonal barriers include stress, depression, anxiety, religiosity, kin and non-kin reference, group attitudes, prior socialization into specific leisure activities, perceived self-skill, and subjective evaluations of the appropriateness and availability of various leisure activities (p 122)

Interpersonal barriers are the result of the interpersonal interaction or the relationship between individuals' characteristics These barriers are either the product of the intrapersonal barriers which accompany spouses into the marital relationship, thus affecting joint preference for specific leisure activities, or those barriers which arise as the result of spousal interaction Barriers of this sort may interact with both preference for, and subsequent participation in, companionate leisure activities In addition, the concept of interpersonal barriers is applicable to interpersonal relations in general An individual may experience an interpersonal leisure barrier if he or she is unable to locate a

suitable partner with which to engage in a particular activity (p 123)

Crawford et al (1991), Raymore, Godbey, Crawford, and von Eye (1993), and more recently, Raymore, Godbey, and Crawford (1994) verified that constraints on participation were encountered hierarchically Leisure preferences were formed when initially, intrapersonal constraints had been successfully confronted, or were absent Following this, as per the type of activity, an individual could experience constraints at the interpersonal level (less relevant with solitary leisure activities) Only when this type of constraint had been overcome could an individual encounter structural constraints If these structural constraints were sufficiently strong, the result would be nonparticipation Hence, participation would result with the negotiation or absence of, structural constraints

From this model, Raymore et al (1993, p 107) developed the following leisure constraint statement topics, to be utilized to further examine the nature and process of leisure constraints

A Intrapersonal

(1) too shy, (2) all right with family, (3) uncomfortable, (4) all right with friends, (5) keeping with religion, (6) self-conscious, and (7) skill

B Interpersonal

(1) people's transportation, (2) people's skills, (3) people know activities, (4) people's family obligations, (5) people's money, (6) people's time, and (7) people too far

C Structural

(1) money, (2) time, (3) facilities convenient, (4) know what is available,

(5) transportation, (6) other commitments, and (7) facilities are not crowded Raymore et al (1993) commented " further research should be aimed at identifying a larger number of intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints on leisure Furthermore, different approaches to the same model should be used" (p 111) Thus, by utilizing the model by Crawford et al (1991) in this study with some recommended adaptations, it was expected that the constraints variable would measurably correlate with programmer's levels of personal participation

Lastly, in helping to understand how, within the confines of a job function (such as leisure programming), leisure could be experienced, Kelly (1983), Parker (1971), and Neulinger (1991), each developed a paradigm of leisure According to Farina (1985, p 31), in order for an individual to have experienced leisure in a working environment, the individual's perceived absence of necessity or obligation to labour would have to have been present

Kelly (1983, p 13) provided a paradigm which identified the following four cells (1) unconditional or pure leisure, which was clearly distinguished from the required activity of work, (2) compensatory or recuperative leisure, which was determined by and related to work, (3) relational leisure, which was determined by the social factors of work, but associated with a high degree of freedom, and (4) role-determined leisure, which was determined by the structural factors of work, and associated with a low degree of freedom In Kelly's paradigm, two dichotomies were present The first dichotomy explored meaning, whereby cells one and two, were considered to be intrinsic, and the last two cells were considered to be social

Moreover, the other dichotomy considered freedom, with cells one and three considered to be high in freedom, whereas cells two and four were low in freedom In short, Kelly's paradigm showed that leisure could be either independent of work, or dependent on the meaning given it by work

The next paradigm of leisure was a two-dimensional scheme of time and activity, developed by Parker (1971, p 28) In Parker's paradigm, one dimension, time, was compared with the other dimension, activity, to determine whether the latter was work or non-work In Parker's paradigm, work (as opposed to non-work) activities ranged from constraint to freedom, and were respectively, work (employment), work obligations (connected with employment), and lastly 'leisure in work' In the other half of Parker's paradigm, non-work activities ranged again from constraint to freedom, and were respectively, physiological needs, non-work obligations, and leisure From his paradigm, Parker related the following "The position of leisure is rather special It is clearly at the 'freedom' end of the constraint-freedom scale, but it need not be restricted to non-working time" (p 28)

The last paradigm of leisure here was developed by Neulinger (1991) Neulinger attempted to categorize states of mind which produced leisure, and states of mind which produced non-leisure conditions, based on two variables perceived freedom and motivation Neulinger posited six levels within his paradigm, dichotomizing leisure (perceived freedom) and nonleisure (perceived constraint) The first of three levels contained in the leisure (perceived freedom) dichotomy from the paradigm were (1) pure leisure, (2) leisure-work, (3) leisure-job The other three

levels, classified within the nonleisure (perceived constraint) dichotomy from the paradigm were (4) pure work, (5) work-job, and (6) pure job According to Witt and Ellis (1985), Neulinger's paradigm of leisure was a major contribution towards identifying the conditions in which leisure could occur They went on to note that it fell short, however, in describing the characteristics of the actual experiential state which was associated with each major combination of perceived freedom and motivation Witt and Ellis (1985) suggested that further research was needed to delineate the specific qualities of these experiential states With reference to the six levels stated above then, much of this study would revolve around the leisure-work and leisure-job classifications, which were contained in the perceived freedom dichotomy

Thus, it was possible to experience leisure within a work-job function, according to Farina (1985), Kelly (1983), Neulinger (1991), and Parker (1971) In operational terms, this study would utilize Kelly's definition of leisure then (supra, pp 4-5), to provide a viewpoint for the problem. However, this study would be open to critical analysis then, as leisure was difficult to define (infra, p 25) But, in the end, it should be recognized that no study was complete Rather, each revealed a particular viewpoint, and some of the limitations of the others

To conclude this introduction then, the conceptual models used in the study required adaptations for the precision upon which to build further empirical study As had been stated (supra, p 9), individuals participated (or were constrained) in leisure for differing reasons, and perceived leisure from varying perspectives and experiences

Moreover, the structures which acted upon the individuals who participated in leisure, may have been further complicated and differed accordingly for providers of leisure, who participated in their own leisure programs they had developed As a result, the social structures examined here were necessarily complex

The problems of this study will be expanded upon, from an empirical perspective, in the following section

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The literature concerning leisure and management was extensive, and offered numerous models and studies for review This chapter presented related literature drawn from two main sources firstly from leisure theory, which revealed findings specific to leisure constraints, and secondly from management theory

While reasons for including leisure theory in this review may have been obvious, the reasons for inclusion of management theory may not have been One of the reasons for including management theory in this review was to show why the leisure programmer would be the most appropriate focal point of research, for this study The other reason was to expose the complex social structures and differing leadership roles which existed within an organization A rationale will follow then, upon which both reasons are premised

To begin, a leadership dichotomy existed between management and administration within many organizations (infra, p 39-40) For public leisure organizations, leadership roles ranged from the level of programmer through to director, with each role represented to some degree within the management-administration dichotomy With reference to the management-administration dichotomy, as a manager, the leisure programmer was selected for the purposes of this study, as opposed to an administrative leader Moreover, leisure programmers functioned mainly as managers, as opposed to administrators (infra, pp 39-40) Also, both managers and administrators had complex social structures associated with either

role (infra, pp 40-44) It followed then, because leisure programmers as managers had inherent complex social structures acting on them, further understanding would be required Hence, management theory was included in this review to explain how leisure programmers became the focal group for this study, as well as for the purposes of understanding the social structures acting upon them

Leisure

The English word 'leisure' seemed to be derived from the Latin *licere*, 'to be free' or 'to be permitted', according to Torkildsen (1992, p 25) He went on to note that the French word *loisir*, meant 'free time' (p 25) Hence, the word 'leisure' was associated with a complexity of meanings in language In general, leisure could be defined in terms of 'free time after work', 'opportunity to choose' or as 'freedom from constraint'

Most theories concerning leisure were developed in the 20th century Many were derived from the troubles of the Industrial Revolution, as hundreds of theories and descriptions of leisure had been written from then until now

The earlier studies and books on leisure conceptualized it as the residual time, be it at the end of the day, work week, or year (Brightbill, 1960, Giddens, 1964, Gross, 1961, Soule, 1957)

In opposition to the narrow view of leisure as only the time after work, Neulinger (1981) held that leisure was "not not-work" He maintained that leisure was a state of mind that reflected one's perception of freedom or constraint and intrinsic or extrinsic motivations According to Neulinger, "Leisure, then, has one and only one

essential criterion, and that is the condition of perceived freedom *To leisure* implies being engaged in an activity as a free agent and of one's own choice" De Grazia (1964) noted that "Work is the antonym of free time But not leisure Leisure and free time live in two different worlds We have got in the habit of thinking them the same Leisure refers to a state of being, a condition of man, which few desire and fewer achieve" (p 5)

Similarly, Goodale and Godbey (1988) noted that the definition of leisure as free time told us little about what free time was Rather, it described what it was not--free time was not devoted to work or other related obligations The implied meaning was that leisure represented an absence of impediments or that free time was earned In contrast, leisure could be the time that one used as one chose, hence the focus shifted to "freedom to" from "freedom from"

In looking at leisure from a holistic viewpoint, Csikszentmihalyi (1975) commented that leisure was a state of "flow" or playfulness that was achieved whenever a person was in optimal interaction with the environment According to that author, flow occurred with the simultaneous presence of four conditions (1) the individual was free from obligation, (2) the activity pursued was a voluntary choice, (3) the participation was pleasurable, and (4) the activity pursued was culturally recognized as leisure Also, Tinsley and Tinsley (1982) held that the leisure state, which referred to a continuum of experience, resided in the individual, as opposed to the activity They stated that leisure could occur in all aspects of life, including work and other functions As a result, these same authors found that leisure involved the

following (1) absorbtion or concentration on the ongoing experience, (2) lessening of focus on the self, (3) feelings of freedom or lack of constraint, (4) enriched perception of objects and events, (5) increased intensity of emotions, (6) increased sensitivity to feelings, and (7) decreased awareness of the passage of time

Another scholar in leisure, Kaplan (1960, p 22), derived an elaborate, multivariate definition, and listed seven essential elements that comprised leisure (1) an antithesis to work as an economic function, (2) a pleasant expectation and recollection, (3) a minimum of involuntary social-role obligations, (4) a psychological perception of freedom, (5) a close relation to values of the culture, (6) the inclusion of an entire range from inconsequence and insignificance to weightiness and importance, and (7) often, but not necessarily, an activity characterized by the element of play

This apparent disagreement about leisure definitions prompted Dumazedier to write about the "quarrel over definitions" in one of his influential works, *Sociology of Leisure* (1974) Smith and Ng (1982, p 9) also referred to this problem and offered the following

> The core of leisure studies, if there is one at all, is an entanglement of concepts, phenomena, variables, questions, [and] observations To achieve understanding of this entanglement is the task of leisure studies We seek to create a periplokoscience (from the Greek, intricacy + knowledge) A periplokoscience is a new conception of scientific inquiry It is based on the recognition that some aspects of reality, such as leisure, are especially entangled and inter-dependent sets of problems and methods The core of the

> periplokoscience is a community of researchers with independent visions and methods but mutually supportive interests

Recently, a multidimensional approach was seen to be accepted as a more functional conceptualization of leisure, as reported by Horna (1994) and Torkildsen (1992) Although Torkildsen reported of the more recent multidimensional approach, he still noted that five discernable, though overlapping approaches were still evident in the leisure literature (1) leisure as time, (2) leisure as activity, (3) leisure as a state of being, (4) leisure as an all-pervading, "holistic" concept, and (5) leisure as a way of life (p 25-26) This complexity of definition was illustrated by Kaplan (1975) who, from a sociological viewpoint noted, "Nothing is definable as leisure *per se* and almost anything is definable as leisure, given a synthesis of elements" (p 19) Hence, leisure could mean many things depending on different interpretations, the way leisure was seen functioning for an individual, and on the orientation towards leisure

As a further complication, the question was often raised regarding the difference in meaning between leisure and recreation? The root of the difference could be found in the Latin derivative for recreation, which was *recreatio* and meant recovery from, or restoration of something (Arnold, 1991) Cheek and Burch (1976) argued that leisure was a human phenomenon, but recreation was a social one because recreation was characteristic of a particular culture, but not all cultures However, this distinction still appeared to lack precision Gray and Greben (1974) noted that recreation was " independent of activity, leisure or social acceptance" (p 49) Searle and Brayley (1993) added that recreation occurred as one form of expression during

leisure Farina (1985, p 31) stated the following to help untangle the misunderstanding of terminology

> Leisure, as opposed to recreation, does not describe activities and as opposed to free time is not time [sic] The term 'leisure time' as differing from 'leisure' describes a particular type of time On this basis, *leisure* should perhaps be more logically compared with *freedom*, i e the two modifiers in the terms 'free time' and 'leisure time' warrant comparison

Hence, recreation was different than leisure, in that recreation was but one aspect of leisure Moreover, to simplify, while recreation implied to re-create, leisure implied (adopting one definition) to be free from work Thus, while both recreation and leisure commonly were used in the same context, each differed conceptually

Closely associated with leisure was the concept of play, which helped to further describe the distinguishing factors of the former term Kaplan (1991) commented that "Play is a reflection of freedom" (p 57) Huizinga (1950) added that play was freedom, an independent order of things Ibrahim (1991) related that "In its simplest form, play refers to an activity participated in for its own sake, not for survival and not for the purpose of achieving collectivity" (p 4) Hence, as with leisure, play incorporated the notion of freedom

In describing play as a leisure related phenomenon, three lines of inquiry were noted, as each featured a conceptualization of leisure and a measurement component First, Ellis (1973), who became known for the development of the arousal seeking theory for play, held that play was caused by a constant, physiological need for

individuals to maintain an optimal level of arousal or interest The application of this theory was significant to the study of play, as arousal was a measurable, physiological phenomenon Second, Csikszentmahalyi (1975) developed a "flow" model describing individuals' peak experiences, whereby a "flow state" would result from a balance between the challenges of an activity and the skills of the participant Lastly, was Neulinger (1981), who, from his paradigm of leisure (supra, pp 18-19), considered perceived freedom to be the "one and only" criterion, essential for a leisure experience to occur (p 14) Once again, the notion of freedom was associated with play, and paralleled the concepts of play and leisure

Another concept which was referred to in the literature on leisure, was time Many leisure researchers examined leisure from the context of time (Cosper & Shaw, 1985, Ibrahim, Mouti, & Touhami, 1981, Robinson, 1977, Szalai, 1972) Farina (1985) noted that time had several dimensions, including duration, intensity, extensity, quantity, and quality Farina stated that time was bound with activity, change, or process Moore (1963) believed that time was considered to be a scarce resource to human beings, and was a mode for ordering life Farina related leisure and time, in that "Leisure is that time when one is free from the necessity of fulfilling primary role expectations This means time not restricted by the demands of occupation and family duties and obligations" (p 33) Ibrahim (1991) related, as compared to the other two components of leisure (activity and state of mind), the concept of time appeared to be more submissible to objective scrutiny (than activity and state of mind as measurable points of reference) Thus, while clearly related to the concept of leisure, the concept

of time served as another basis upon which to measure and relate leisure

Another set of observable phenomena in leisure were the orientations of engagement, or sources of leisure style Three basic approaches to the "how" of leisure engagement emerged from the literature, namely the stereotype model, the balance model, and the core model (Kelly, 1985) First, the stereotype model presupposed that individuals were essentially monothematic in their leisure However, certain difficulties with this model emerged relating to the factor analytic procedures used in the research, and scoring misinterpretations Next, the balance model implied that leisure style may not have been a perfect balance According to this model, style was multi-dimensioned and changed among individuals, with contrast and complexity These changes appeared to reflect the diversity of leisure to most individuals, and the multiplicity of meanings that they found in their activities, rather than a monothematic stereotype The last model, or core model added the element of commonality to the balance model Put simply, there were a number of activities that people did frequently (i e , watching television, reading, gardening, etc), which appeared to cross social lines, and were readily available and resource-free (to a degree) These core activities continued in some form through most of an individual's life course

The literature also reported, over time, different philosophies came to be adopted by various leisure scholars as part of the basis for their actions and research The major areas of philosophical thought which influenced conceptualizations of leisure and leisure services were (1) pragmatism, (2) idealism, (3) realism, (4) humanism, and (5) existentialism (Searle & Brayley, 1993)

The first, pragmatism, sought to resolve questions by tracing the practical consequences In leisure, pragmatism raised the question why adopt any particular view of leisure? Of what practical use would it be to understand leisure behaviour, measure leisure, or provide leisure services by adopting one conceptual position as opposed to another? According to the pragmatic stance, by taking any one conceptual position, one could automatically become limited in focus, as a result of this stance Dewey (1916) and James (1963) inspired leisure practitioners through subscribing to the pragmatic philosophy

Idealism, the second philosophical thought, held that an eternal set of goals or ideals governed human behaviour, and that one should seek to understand these truths and strive towards perfection Idealists believed that with a goal-directed individual, the means were as important as the ends, and the ends did not necessarily justify the means This philosophy became the cornerstone for the work of leisure theorist Nash (1953), who argued there was a hierarchical order to the quality of leisure experiences Moreover, Nash held that leisure service providers had an obligation to provide a range of leisure experiences and encourage individuals to move their participation to the highest levels

The third philosophy which influenced leisure was realism, which reflected the emergence of the scientific method, and was seen as a more contemporary alternative to idealism The realism philosophy suggested that things did not just happen, but instead happened as a result of a set of interrelated forces which created the observed result (Zeigler, 1964) Searle and Jackson (1985), and Wilkinson (1985), could have

been considered realists for their establishment of standards and its applications to the orderly development of leisure services

Next, humanism recognized the interaction between the individual and the environment Humanists believed that the growth of individuals was a function of the ability to overcome oppressive environments Humanism stressed higher functioning, purposeful living, and social consciousness Humanists believed in the potential of individuals and strove to provide leisure programs which facilitated the realization of that potential Murphy (1975) exemplified this philosophy with his "Action Plan for the Recreation and Park Movement"

The last of the five philosophical positions, existentialism, regarded a person's freedom as essential An individual was to be responsible to oneself, creating one's own values and ideals Basically, humankind was said to exist, then to develop an essence, which contrasted with humanism and idealism In existentialism, leisure could only be determined subjectively with variation from individual to individual and from moment to moment Mobily (1975) provided an example of the existentialist view through providing leisure services in clinical settings, thereby helping individuals develop or reclaim their existence

Leisure research had not only been associated with philosophy in the literature, as leisure and ethics were connected as well Contributions to this line of enquiry were numerous (Bedini & Henderson, 1991, Dare, Welton, & Coe, 1987, Fain, 1991, Rancourt, 1991, Riggins, 1988, Wolff, 1988) As questions of values and judgements entered into the sociological realm of leisure, a need was thereby created for ethical

inquiry relating to the concept of leisure Kaplan (1991) commented on three views of ethics relating to leisure, namely morality, power, and rationality Kaplan stated that each of these three views was absorbed within leisure The first, morality, revolved around the moral imperative--or providing the highest quality of leisure service to society The second, power, was related to leisure whereby leisure was provided to those with the least power (i e research on leisure resources and equity) The last form of ethics, based on rationality was exemplified with leisure research, whereby attempts were made to enhance the line of inquiry through rational process and methodology De Grazia (1964), in the face of modern leisure which almost seemed synonymous with *any* free time activity, explained society had lost sight of leisure as an ideal In the place of leisure, society had " an ideal of free time or of the good life The good life consists in the people's enjoyment of whatever industry produces, advertisers sell, and the government orders" (p 279)

Leisure Constraints

According to Jackson (1991), leisure constraints research aimed to investigate and understand the factors that were assumed by researchers and perceived by individuals to inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment of leisure A constraint referred to any relative and/or relevant factor that mitigated between some potential activity and preference or participation in that experience (Jackson, 1988) Jackson went on to note a constraint to leisure then, was anything that inhibited people's ability to participate in leisure activities, to take advantage of leisure services, to spend more time in

participation, or to achieve a desired level of satisfaction

Jackson (1991, p 279) noted that research on leisure constraints could fulfill three important functions within leisure studies, namely

> First, it enhances our understanding of a phenomenon--the complex ways in which leisure is constrained
>
> Second, insights derived from leisure constraints research have the potential to shed new light on aspects of leisure, such as participation, motivations, and satisfaction, that were previously thought to have been fairly well understood
>
> Third, the concept of constraints can serve as a device to assist in perceiving new connections among apparently discrete facets of leisure, and therefore as a vehicle to facilitate communication among researchers with diverse topical interests and methodological orientations

After reviewing the literature, several noteworthy advancements in the field of leisure constraints research were detected Constraints research evolved to feature more complex data collection techniques, more comprehensive scales and statistical analyses, increased diversity of populations studied, new developed hypotheses based on previous research, and reviews of numerous studies

First, leisure constraints research evolved towards increased plurality and complexity of data collection techniques Examples of this were seen from

Mannell and Zuzanek's (1991) modification of the Experience Sampling Method In addition, qualitative research, advocated by Henderson (1991) and Searle (1991) and also shown by McCormick (1991) and Scott (1991), had been produced to complement large sized quantitative questionnaire surveys

The second area of change had to do with the statistical analysis and measurement of leisure constraints Numerous researchers (e g Backman, 1991, Henderson et al , 1988, McGuire, 1984, Wright & Goodale, 1991) developed more comprehensive scales made up of several items as opposed to just a few items, as well as data analysis now rejected the item-by-item approach, but instead used empirical classification techniques such as factor analysis More recently, constraints research evolved to include the conceptualization of the multidimensional scaling technique, which in turn produced visual maps to aid in analysis, as exemplified by Hultsman, 1995

The third development related to the diversity in the aspects of constrained leisure that had been investigated For instance, much of McGuire's research (McGuire, 1980, 1982, 1984) had focused on constraints affecting older adults, while recently, some attention had been given towards adolescent groups, as was shown by Hultsman (1990), and Raymore, Godbey, & Crawford (1994) Others chose to examine constraints on women's leisure, as was seen by Deem (1986), Wimbush and Talbot (1988), and more recently by Henderson and her colleagues (Henderson, Stalnaker, & Taylor, 1988, Henderson, Bialeschki, Shaw, & Freysinger, 1989, Henderson, 1991,

Henderson & Bialeschki, 1991), as well as Bialeschki (1994) and Shaw (1994) Specific activities were being examined in constraints research including bridge players (Scott, 1991), trail users and non-users (Bialeschki & Henderson, 1988), campers (Dunn, 1990), golfers and tennis players (Backman & Crompton, 1989, 1990, Backman, 1991), and pool players (Chick & Roberts, 1989, Chick, Roberts, & Romney, 1991) Other aspects of leisure that researchers identified as being associated with constraints included the insufficient enjoyment of current activities (e g , Francken & van Raij, 1981, Witt & Goodale, 1981), the desire, but inability, to participate in new activities (e g , Jackson & Searle, 1983, Searle & Jackson, 1985, Jackson, 1990a, Jackson & Dunn, 1991), the inability to maintain participation at or increase it to desired levels (e g , McGuire, Dottavio, & O'Leary, 1986, Shaw, Bonen, & McCabe, 1991), ceasing participation in former activities (e g , McGuire et al , 1986, Jackson & Dunn, 1988, 1991, McGuire, O'Leary, Yeh, & Dottavio, 1989, Backman & Crompton, 1989, 1990, Dunn, 1990), and the non-use of public leisure services (e g , Howard & Crompton, 1984, Godbey, 1985)

The fourth advancement was that new hypotheses continued to be developed, as researchers incorporated into leisure constraints research, theories developed elsewhere in the social sciences and leisure studies This was seen in McGuire et al (1989) with their work on interpreting the patterns of ceasing participation in former leisure activities and starting new ones through the life cycle, and in the context of Iso-Ahola's (1980) model of age-based changes in

the relative roles of stability and novelty An additional example of this was found from Searle's (1991) proposal of social exchange theory as a source of propositions for understanding ceasing participation in leisure activities, and Henderson's (1991) essay on feminism as a framework for understanding constraints on women's leisure As well, Backman and Crompton (1990) incorporated marketing concepts in their study of active and passive discontinuers from leisure activities, and Chick and his colleagues (Chick & Roberts, 1989, Chick, Roberts, & Romney, 1991) used the approach-avoidance concept in their research on pool players One final example of incorporated research from other areas of inquiry was the "psychohistorical" perspective, found in the study of leisure participation, specifically relating to sport rejection, from Jackson and O'Sullivan (1981, p 35)

The last noted advancement in constraints research represented attempts by more recent researchers to address limitations from earlier studies, which resulted in reviews which synthesized these findings (Jackson, 1991, Wade, 1985) As a result, it became possible to assess the extent to which contradictions between empirical studies occurred as a result of variations in terms of methods, the constraints-related behaviours selected as criterion variables, or the basic assumptions upon which the investigations rested As well, reviews of research consolidated what had been learned up to now, enabled researchers to assess the emerging body of knowledge against the broader context of the developments in social sciences and leisure studies, and

provided comparison against the backdrop of social and environmental change

Recent research along with increasingly sophisticated interpretation of empirical data were beginning to challenge previously-held assumptions about leisure constraints This was seen both in Kay and Jackson (1991), and Shaw, Bonen, and McCabe (1991), who concluded that more constraints do not necessarily lead to less leisure

Leisure constraints research had not only experienced advancements as noted above, but the terminology had shifted as well These shifts were much more than just semantic differences, but rather represented three changes in focus and conceptualization

The first shift was the use of the more inclusive term "constraints" to the word "barriers", as the latter fell short in representing the entire range of reasons for, or explanations of, constrained leisure behaviour Crawford and Godbey (1987) pointed out that "barrier" moved researchers towards only one type of constraint, that which intervened between preference and participation More recently however, a much more complex and comprehensive range of constraints was now being examined than when "barriers" was the dominant terminology (Henderson et al , 1988, Jackson, 1990a, 1990b, Jackson & Godbey, 1991)

The second change in terminology was the replacement of the word "recreation" with the term "leisure" This shift brought about both a broadening of the focus of investigation and a closer forge of links than before

with the mainstream of thinking in leisure studies As a result, leisure constraints research continued to benefit from the incorporation of new concepts and frameworks from the larger field of which it was a part

The last shift was a departure from the use of the word "participation", based on the understanding that constraints could influence far more than just the choice to participate or not, but many other aspects of leisure such as preferences and satisfaction This was also consistent with the evolution of definitions of leisure, which departed from time- and activity-based conceptualizations and shifted more towards the concept of leisure as experience and meaning (Samdahl, 1991)

The final contribution within leisure constraints research related to that of classification and conceptualization Enhanced conceptualization of leisure constraints was initially achieved through classification of both individuals and the constraints they experienced Research distinguished between participants and nonparticipants, subdividing the latter into those who expressed no desire to participate in a new activity and those who would like to but were limited due to the effects of constraints (Searle & Jackson, 1985) Other distinctions which focused on people that were featured in the literature included users and nonusers of specific leisure services (Howard & Crompton, 1984), continuing participants versus people who ceased participating in an activity (Boothby, Tungatt, & Townsend, 1981), people who ceased participation completely versus those who took up another (replacement) activity (Jackson &

Dunn, 1988, McGuire, O'Leary, Yeh, & Dottavio, 1989), active versus passive discontinuers (Backman & Crompton, 1990), and people who wished to but were unable to increase the range or frequency of their recreational participation and those who did not (McGuire, Dottavio, and O'Leary, 1986)

Classifications of leisure constraints included motivational versus physical barriers (Howard & Crompton, 1984), blocking versus inhibiting barriers (Jackson & Searle, 1985), absolute versus relative barriers (Boothby et al , 1981), temporary versus permanent constraints (Iso-Ahola & Mannell, 1985), the external-internal dichotomy (Jackson & Searle, 1985), and more recently, the intrapersonal versus interpersonal versus structural model of constraints (Raymore et al , 1993, 1994)

Management

As was stated (supra, p 21) a literature review on management theory was required to explain the complex social structures relating to management, as well as provide an understanding as to why the leisure programmer was selected for this study To begin, this review defined the concepts of management, as well as organizations, because " management is integrally linked to organizations " (Parkhouse, 1991, p 136) Sofer (1977) defined organizations as " purposive bodies which get a pay off from multiple contributions by coordinating them toward a common end" (p 6) Etzioni (1964, p 3) stated that organizations were characterized by

(1) divisions of labour, power, and communication responsibilities

> (2) the presence of one or more power centres which control the concerted effort of the organization and direct them towards its goals
>
> (3) substitution of personnel, i e unsatisfactory persons can be removed and others assigned their tasks

Hence, organizations, as social groupings, were considered to be in control of their destiny In describing organizations, the term "bureaucracy" was used, and could take on a dual meaning According to Jackson (1988), "[the term] 'bureaucracy' was sometimes regarded as an efficient organization and sometimes an inefficient organization" (p 49) Max Weber, although he "never defined bureaucracy" (Albrow, 1970 40-41), provided "the single most important statement on the subject in the social sciences, its influence has been immense " Thus, Weber's ideal, pure, and rational type of bureaucracy helped to serve researchers with a utopian comparison

Hodgkinson (1983) provided the following description of management "Administration' refers then to the more thinking, qualitative, humane and strategic aspects of the comprehensive executive function, while 'management' refers to the more doing, quantitative, material and technical aspects" (p 2) Jackson (1984, p 4) referred to Hodgkinson's dichotomy and related

> Management refers to aspects of organizational behaviour that are more routine, definite, programmatic, and susceptible to quantitative methods Therefore, it may be more scientific than administration, but there is no approximation to purity at either end of the administration-management

spectrum

In providing a definition which represented the opposing end of this spectrum, Simon (1976, p 72) revealed, " [administration was] the art of getting things done," and administrative organizations were considered "systems of cooperative behaviour " Moreover, Jackson (1981) pointed out, "Administration is carried out in organizations by people who have values that are bound to influence their decisions" (p 29) Barnard (1976) did not like the terms "administration" or "management", but preferred instead to use "executive" Barnard (1976) also related that administrators, regardless of the organization, " have common problems and adopt similar strategies to meet them They understand each other easily outside of technical discussion" (p xxviii) Hence, administration could be seen as more art like, or as Hodgkinson (1978, p 3) stated, "Administration is philosophy in action " Whereas, in a dichotomous comparison with administration, management could be classified more as technical and scientific in its application Hence, although the terms administration and management appeared to be related, subtle differences became apparent in definition

Next, from definition, significant contributions were made in the literature regarding management theory In looking at management, Frederick Taylor argued for the methods of science and the logic of engineering to be applied (to management) Brown (1990) noted that Taylor " introduced measurement and planning in an attempt to develop a science of

work" (p 71) Taylor (1947) enjoined workers to "make every minute count " (p 132) Taylor's systematic methodology earned his approach the title 'Scientific Management' or 'Taylorism' Taylorism was associated with workforce de-skilling, according to Braverman (1974) Drummond (1995) explained, "De-skilling involves simplifying tasks in order to minimize the amount of skilled labour required to produce goods and services" (p 70) Taylorism, although criticized (Braverman, 1974, Brown, 1990), did serve as a standard or ideal for comparison in management

Related to Taylorism, but critical of the isolationist assumptions found in Scientific Management, came a group of sociological researchers, who were subsequently titled, the 'Human Relations Movement' The Human Relations Movement achieved academic respect, partly due to the publicity efforts of Elton Mayo, who eventually became involved in the famed 'Hawthorne Experiments', reported fully by Roethlisberger and Dickson (1964) These studies, through Mayo, were credited with discovering 'Social Man' as the more developed variant on Scientific Management's 'Economic Man' Mayo abstracted the 'social' factor from the results and argued that good managers were those who were socially skilled in counselling and leadership Moreover, the Hawthorne studies gave rise to the concept of informal organizations Informal organizations could be described as social groupings without governance by any formal organization Hence, informal organizations could promote personal agendas, and allow or withhold, free communication within

them In addition, once a formal organization became established, in turn, an informal organization could be created Turning back to the Human Relations Movement, that management could be successful by facilitating social harmony among workers was perhaps the most significant contribution from the movement However, the movement was an ideology of management which still could not eliminate workplace conflicts between management and workers, and spawned the group known as 'Motivation Theorists'

Following the Scientific Management and Human Relations contributions, the Motivation Theorists focused the attention of managers on a modern day question of how to motivate one's employees? The most significant of the early theorists was Abraham Maslow, who formulated a hierarchy of human needs, where individuals experienced needs in order This hierarchy started with physiological needs, followed by security, social, self-esteem, and finally self-actualization needs were at the top of his pyramidal model Maslow's hierarchy served as a useful management training concept over the years, but the theory was criticized as it had not been validated empirically, as evidenced by studies from Porter (1961 and 1964) and Porter and Mitchell (1967)

Maslow's theory argued that once a need was satisfied, the individual ceased to be motivated Herzberg (1966) concluded there were two distinct sets of factors influencing employee motivation, namely 'hygiene factors' and 'motivators' Hygiene factors, such as increased pay, car-parking, and so forth,

merely served to reduce dissatisfaction, but did not contribute to motivated performance 'Motivators' included factors such as greater autonomy, increased responsibility, enhanced decision-making power, and were labelled as such, as they were necessary for employee effort and motivation Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation, although developed from empirical research, was criticized by Cooper and Makin (1984) due to the ambiguity of the foundation of data (similar population samples, and designs requiring self-reporting of attitudes and performance, which could be suspect of accuracy) Whatever the validity of Hertzberg's research, his conclusions on the nature of the motivating factors brought attention towards modifying job designs to enable more discretion and responsibility

Douglas McGregor (1960) was often credited with having extended Maslow's theory by linking his needs to reality McGregor maintained that people were motivated by their own needs to a much greater extent than those influences brought about by management He presented his 'Theory X and Theory Y' model of motivation, which were two contrasting theories of humankind to which managers could subscribe in adopting a managerial style Theory X assumed that human beings naturally disliked work and needed to be coerced into putting in a satisfactory effort Moreover, the theory also assumed that people would avoid responsibility when possible, and they wanted security above all Conversely, Theory Y made the following six assumptions (1) The expenditure of physical and mental work was natural, and could be a source of

satisfaction or punishment, (2) Self-direction and self-control would be exercised towards committed objectives, (3) Commitment to objectives was related to the rewards provided with achievement, (4) Humans could learn to accept and seek responsibility, (5) Exercising imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in organizational problem solving was widely, not narrowly, distributed to the population, and (6) In modern industrial life, intellectual potential was only partially utilized

More recently, theorists used different approaches in describing management Katz (1974) described management in terms of three skills technical, human, and conceptual skills Zeigler (1979) added two more skills to the above list, namely conjoined and personal Mintzberg (1975), after observing the activities of chief executive officers, developed ten managerial roles, which he further grouped into three broader sets interpersonal roles, informational roles, and decisional roles

A more enduring approach to describing management came from the "classical school", whereby writers would outline the functions managers performed, according to Mintzberg (1973, p 8) Henri Fayol (1949) was credited as the father of this school, as he introduced five basic managerial functions planning, organizing, coordinating, commanding, and controlling (pp 43-110) Mintzberg (1973, p 9) went on to report that, based on Fayol's work, Luther Gulick gave managers one of their early acronyms, POSDCORB, which meant the following

Planning, that is working out in broad outline the things that need to be done and the methods for doing them to accomplish the purpose set for the enterprise,

Organizing, that is the establishment of the formal structure of authority through which work subdivisions are arranged, defined and coordinated for the defined objective,

Staffing, that is the whole personnel function of bringing in and training the staff and maintaining favourable conditions of work,

Directing, that is the continuous task of making decisions and embodying them in specific and general orders and instruction and serving as the leader of their enterprise,

Coordinating, that is the all important duty of interrelating the various parts of the work,

Reporting, that is keeping those to whom the executive is responsible informed as to what is going on, which thus includes keeping himself [or herself] and his [or her] subordinates informed through records, research and inspection,

Budgeting, with all that goes with budgeting in the form of fiscal planning, accounting and control

Summary

This review began by noting the difficulty faced by academics in delineating one embraced definition of leisure Depending on the way leisure

functioned for an individual, his or her orientation, and interpretation of leisure, could ultimately influence and change the meaning of leisure for each individual

After reviewing leisure terminology, many concepts appeared to be synonymous Recreation was found to imply that of re-creating the individual, and was associated with activity, whereas leisure, adopting one definition, meant freedom from work Play was also commonly used in the same context with leisure, and was related to the quality of freedom Time was used to describe leisure, as in free time, and provided a form of measurement for comparison

Leisure was further reviewed according to styles, philosophies, and ethics Leisure styles proposed a combined balance-core viewpoint in exploring leisure, as the two styles explained leisure in terms of diversity and commonalities Searle and Bradley (1993) examined five differing philosophies of leisure pragmatism, idealism, realism, humanism, and existentialism Each philosophy provided a unique view of leisure and helped to pave the way for future analysis In addition, a context of ethics arose, as questions of value and judgement became apparent within the study of leisure

As a subset of leisure, leisure constraints looked at those factors perceived to inhibit or prohibit participation and the enjoyment of leisure Many developments occurred in the study of leisure constraints, including more complex data collection techniques, diversity in statistical analysis,

variety in topics of investigation, new hypotheses and theories being developed, limitations being addressed from earlier studies, and enhanced classification and conceptualization

In addition, shifts in terminology occurred within leisure constraints research Use of the term "barrier" was replaced with "constraint" as a more inclusive viewpoint As well, the term "leisure" was used to replace the term "recreation" in order to broaden the field of study Lastly, inclusion of the concepts of preferences and satisfaction were added to the inquiries around "participation", in an effort towards increased sophistication of leisure analysis

Turning to management, a link was made with organizations, as management was a subset of organizations Moreover, similar to management, organizations were seen as functioning to coordinate individuals toward a common end (Sofer, 1977) Weber's *bureaucracy*, which was seen as an ideal and efficient organization, served as a comparison for management, as a utopian construct In addition, a dichotomy was seen to exist between management, which was described as technical and scientific in process, as compared to administration, which was more art like and philosophical in orientation

There were many contributions to the study of management Taylorism was credited with the science of management, which looked to increase the efficiencies of the worker The Human Relations Movement looked to facilitate social harmony among workers, again in an effort towards enhanced

production In the same effort, Motivation Theorists such as Maslow, Herzberg, and McGregor sought to motivate employees, which was lacking in the Human Relations Movement Still, others such as Katz, Zeigler, and Mintzberg, attempted to classify the concept of management by way of skills In a more enduring approach, management functions such as Fayol's planning, organizing, coordinating, commanding, and controlling were looked at, as well as POSDCORB, in the study of management

Significance of the Study

It was hoped that the study, although exploratory, would begin to expose some of the relevant social and practical constraints acting on leisure programmers As well, it was hoped that the study would further the diversity of constraint research by examining the providers of leisure It would also be useful to determine the appropriateness of extending models from other studies within this line of enquiry Of equal relevance was a need for related model construction, and it was hoped that this study would stimulate researchers to investigate the phenomena further

From a pragmatic perspective, it was hoped that the study could provide both leisure administrators and programmers, with some insights into the relationship of programmer participation and leisure constraints An increased understanding of the relationship could lead to a more effective use of limited programming resources

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

After an extensive review of the literature, there appeared to be little if any research directly related to the study (supra, p 2) This section describes the selection of leisure organizations from which the selection of subjects is made, the method of identifying leisure constraints and programmers' participation, the validity and reliability of the instrumentation, the utilization of a structured interview with the selected subjects (N=27), how the data are gathered, and the analysis of data

Leisure Organizations

In Greater Victoria, at the time of the study, there were 27 organizations which could be defined as public leisure organizations within the four-core municipalities of Saanich, Victoria, Oak Bay, and Esquimalt (see Appendix A) However, for consistency with classification, only those organizations listed within the particular leisure guide for that municipality were selected (many other leisure organizations could exist within each municipality that were not listed in the leisure guide for that municipality, or were omitted for various reasons) Moreover, the majority of "leisure" organizations listed in each municipality's leisure guide could be more appropriately classified as "recreation" organizations or providers These last two notes are of significance for those interested in the pursuit of this problem within this line

of research The term public leisure organization, as used here, referred to those groupings which were publicly funded and represented the provision of leisure services Moreover, this study was delimited to those individuals, employed by the public leisure organizations, whose roles were designated (among other roles) for the purpose of programming and program development

Public leisure organizations in Canadian municipalities, possessed characteristics which differentiated them from other leisure organizations According to Searle and Brayley (1993), the public recreation sector functioned under the broad mandate to enrich life and promote well-being, required that services and programs be available to all, provided a wide range of programs and services directly to citizens, and exercised control over the ability of other sectors to offer such services within its jurisdictional confines Areas and facilities maintained by the public leisure system included fields, zoos, parks, beaches, community halls, arenas, sport and fitness complexes, and libraries

Selection of Subjects

From the 27 organizations listed in Appendix A, only the 14 marked with an asterisk were selected for this investigation as potential organizations employing programmers, as this study only examined those organizations which employed programmers for their programs This number represented approximately 50 percent of the total number of organizations, as Rossman (1995) suggested, "A general rule of thumb is that for populations under 500

[as was the case with this study] a sample of 50 percent of the population should be drawn " (p 398-399) From the 14 organizations, all of those subjects were selected Those subjects numbered 27 in total, and made up the sample for this study from the selected population The total sample of 27 subjects included four programmers from Victoria, seven programmers from Oak Bay, thirteen programmers from Saanich, and three programmers from Esquimalt

Programmer Participation

As was stated (supra, p 2), leisure programmers could enhance their efforts through personal participation in their programs Such levels of participation could differ according to the particular program area of that programmer Therefore, the data gathering, and analysis, was in terms of participation as seen through a particular, or group of particular program areas

Each reported level of participation was measured by a eight-point nominal scale, adapted from Bradshaw and Jackson's (1979) five-point scale

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
zero	< once per 6 mos	every 3-6 months	every 1-2 months	every 2-3 weeks	weekly	3x/week	daily

The reported levels of participation could exist simultaneously among any, or all of the following twelve program area categories (Rossman, 1995)

(1) Arts and crafts

(2) Athletics

(3) Dance

(4) Drama

(5) Hobbies and clubs

(6) Language arts

(7) Music

(8) Science and nature

(9) Social recreation

(10) Volunteer services

(11) Special populations

(12) Other

Leisure Constraints

The formation of a hypothesis concerning the relationship of leisure constraints and participation was challenging, due to the exploratory nature of the study, in the context of leisure programmers Moreover, previous research in the context of the general public showed that leisure constraints led to decreases, and in some cases, increases in their participation (supra, p 36) As a result, the initial focus of the problem was to determine if a relationship existed between the variables (constraints and participation), as opposed to finding causality

The model used here was adapted to include the following 30 constraint statements, intermixed and presented in alternating positive and

negative order (in an effort to reduce response bias), from the original twenty-one statements proposed by Crawford et al (1991), and later verified by Raymore et al (1993)

INTRAPERSONAL

1 I am more likely to do a leisure activity that my family would think is all right

2 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity that makes me feel uncomfortable

3 I am more likely to do a leisure activity that my friends thought was all right

4 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity that my co-workers did not think was all right

5 I am more likely to do a leisure activity that does not make me feel self-conscious

6 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity if I am feeling stressed

7 I am more likely to do a leisure activity that does not require a lot of skill

8 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity if I am disorganized

9 I am likely to do a leisure activity if I am feeling motivated

10 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity if I perceive that my gender would make me feel uncomfortable participating

INTERPERSONAL

1 The people I know live too far away to participate in a leisure activity with

me

2 The people I know usually do not have time to participate in a leisure activity with me

3 The people I know usually are organized to participate in a leisure activity with me

4 The people I know usually have too many family obligations to participate in a leisure activity with me

5 The people I know usually know what leisure activities they could do with me

6 The people I know usually don't have transportation to get to a leisure activity with me

7 The people I know usually are healthy enough to participate in a leisure activity with me

8 The people I know usually don't have enough skills to participate in a leisure activity with me

9 The people I know usually are motivated to participate in a leisure activity with me

10 The people I know usually are too stressed to participate in a leisure activity with me

STRUCTURAL

1 I am more likely to do a leisure activity if the facilities are not crowded where I need to do the activity

2 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity if I have other commitments

3 I am more likely to do a leisure activity if I have transportation

4 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity if the facilities are not convenient where I need to do the activity

5 I am likely to do a leisure activity if it is congruent with my work role

6 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity if I do not have time

7 I am more likely to do a leisure activity if I have money

8 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity if I have work commitments

9 I am likely to do a leisure activity if I do not have a conflicting schedule

10 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity if I perceive that I will become too involved with participant issues

The relative importance of each of the above statements was indicated by using the following nominal scale, again adopted from the previous authors

1	2	3	4
not important	somewhat important	important	very important

Procedures

Thus far, the selection of subjects as well as the measures used, were described Next, the instrument's validity, the instrument's reliability, the sources of data, and the procedures which were followed in gathering the data, will be described

Validity

In order to determine validity, or the degree to which the instrumentation used in this study, measured what it purported to measure, three views were discussed

The first view examined causality In other words, in order to determine whether constraints experienced by leisure programmers would lead to a certain outcome (less participation), cause and effect needed to be established Denzin (1979) related that establishing cause and effect was one of the most difficult social science problems He went on to note that establishing cause and effect required that three propositions be dealt with simultaneously--time-order, covariation, and control of rival causal factors The first proposition, time-order, demonstrated that the cause (constraints) came before the effect (participation) This study would not examine time-order Covariation showed that for every change in the cause, there was corresponding change in the effect If the presumed cause led to an insignificant change in the effect, a cause-and-effect relationship could not then be asserted This study examined covariation The final proposition, controlling for rival causal factors, demonstrated that the cause--not some other possible explanation--was what led to the observed change in the effect This study did not control for rival causal factors These three propositions were best controlled through the use of a good research design The findings from this study could have an empirical base for future enquiries in this area, through the implementation of a

strong research design, although not necessarily concerned with causality

The second view examined the role of "experts" In an effort to reduce uncertainty, the "nominal group method" as developed by Zalatan (1994, p 23-24), was employed to extend the number and context of statements used in the study (see statements from Raymore et al , 1993 model, supra, p 17) Briefly, "experts" considered knowledgeable within the leisure field, were brought together in this qualitative method These "experts" were assembled in a rigorously structured meeting where direct communication was excluded The members of the group (Zalatan recommended 7-10 members) suggested ideas and then voted as to the selection of the ideas Each member of the group then prioritized the ideas and voted by secret ballot The ideas which received the most points were adopted

For the purposes of this study, seven leisure practitioners were selected to generate four additional statements from each of three constraint categories to be added to the original statements, in addition to altering the context to be suitable for use with leisure programmers It should also be noted that the structured format of the nominal group method and the adoption of the highest score could convey the image of a quantitative method and that of precision This image of precision may have been lacking, as communication among the "experts" could effectively be reduced, and the generation of ideas could be limited as a result However, this lack of generated ideas did not seem to become problematic by the implementation of this method

The last view examined the use of correlation to establish construct validity. According to Thomas and Nelson (1990), "Correlation is also used when the tester wishes to examine relationships between constructs." (p. 347) In this study, correlations were used to examine the relationships between leisure constraints and the frequency and breadth of programmers' participation. As a result (infra, p. 68), through construct validity, it was determined that frequency of mean scores of programmers' participation (as opposed to breadth of programmers' participation or programmers' number of program area[s] they oversaw) yielded higher correlations with leisure constraints.

In summary then, through covariation, utilization of the nominal group method, and the use of correlation to establish construct validity, this study established a foundation of validity.

Reliability

In order to test for instrument reliability, several options existed, and could be chosen according to whether testing was to be done more than once, or testing only once. According to Traub (1994, p. 70), one type of reliability test involved collecting repeated measurements from the administration of only one test administered only once. This internal consistency reliability test was utilized in this study, and used Cronbach's Alpha (Traub goes into more detail regarding the derivation of this method--see pages 75-94) to estimate the reliability of test data. To simplify, correlates of test scores were subjected to the Cronbach Coefficient Alpha using the

following formula

$$A = \frac{n}{(n-1)} \left[1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta^2 Y_i}{\delta^2 X} \right]$$

According to Traub (1994, p 86), in the formula, coefficient Alpha (A) was the index pertaining to reliability, *n* was the number of parts of the test, δ squared *Yi* was the variance of the observed-score random variable for the *i*th part of the test, and δ squared *X* was the variance of the observed-score random variable for the total test (A subject's total test score was the sum of his or her scores on all the parts of the constraints test) Cronbach's Alpha held an advantage over other internal consistency tests of reliability in that the test components were not restricted to being dichotomously scored items as was the case with other procedures Hence, Cronbach's Alpha could measure items individually as opposed to having to group items into two subgroups before testing for reliability Measures of at least 0 7 to 0 8 were considered sufficient to indicate reliability using Cronbach's Alpha The instrumentation used in this study was found to be reliable, with Cronbach's Alpha computed to be 0 85 (see Appendix C, Table C 5)

Sources of Data

As this study examined the problem of constraints and participation, qualitative data were gathered, based on the perceptions of 27 leisure programmers from the four-core municipalities of Greater Victoria Through a

structured interview process (infra, pp 60-61), it was hoped that the perceptions of individual programmers could provide a greater understanding of their leisure constraints and levels of participation Moreover, Thomas and Nelson (1990) related by comparing the interview process to that of the use of a questionnaire, that, " the interview has certain advantages over the questionnaire in that the researcher can rephrase questions and ask additional ones to clarify responses and secure more valid results" (p 21) Hence, interviews provided the opportunity for in-depth investigation, and by way of structuring interviews, allowed for data to be gathered in an accurate manner, which could not be obtained in other ways

Gathering the Data

Once an organization had been chosen, the related programmer(s) was contacted Contact was made by the investigator by telephone, to seek permission to send the programmer information pertaining to the study The package of information which was sent, included a letter of invitation to explain the purpose of the study and request a meeting, and an informed consent form Once the consent form was completed by the programmer and sent back to the investigator, a meeting was arranged Assurance was made so that the selected subject would not be inconvenienced, and a mutually convenient location was established An important factor in arranging the interview was the comfort of the subject--he or she needed to feel at ease and be willing to impart information

In developing an interview structure, three criteria noted by Tuckman (1978, p 197), would be heeded constantly (1) To what degree might a question influence subjects to provide responses in a positive context, but not necessarily reflect a true representation of the issue in question? (2) To what degree might a question influence subjects to be unduly helpful by attempting to anticipate what the researcher wanted to hear or discover? (3) To what extent might a question ask for information about subjects that they were not certain, and possibly not likely, to know about themselves?

The interview featured 30 structured questions, along with two initial structured questions on programming information (see Appendix B) to enable the subject to respond to a less complex group of questions at the beginning, in order to help "break the ice" The provision of structured questions helped to obtain background information, to specify or narrow the focus, and to orient the respondent to the questions along with their aims (Cunningham, 1996 15) Moreover, structured interviews, as compared with unstructured interviews, were more reliable (Carlson, Thayer, Mayfield, & Peterson, 1971, Jantz, Hellervik, & Gilmour, 1986, Mayfield, Brown, & Hamstra, 1980)

There were many advantages to using the interview technique in comparison to, for example, a questionnaire, but a possible corresponding experimental effect could pose a certain disadvantage Schein (1969, p 97) related that by asking questions, the respondent could be exposed to new ideas, which in turn affect accuracy This experimental effect was well recognized by

sociologists and psychologists (Sanford, 1970) Other possible disadvantages of using an interview method could include sources of error in the interviewer, instrument and coding responses, and the overall reliability

Appendix B contains relevant interview statements, anecdotal record cards, and numerical data record cards

Analysis of the Data

This section describes the method that is utilized in analyzing the data, as well as previous methods of analysis derived from earlier studies (Crawford et al , 1991, Raymore et al , 1993, 1994) Each part of the problem is given below, along with the procedures used in the analysis in sequence For examples of each step, using the obtained data, see Appendix C

Although the previously mentioned studies (Crawford et al , 1991, Raymore et al , 1993) focused on a hierarchy of constraints, they produced a useful model for further research, as some of their problems were studied and verified later (Raymore et al , 1994) Hence, what will follow is a brief description of their methods of analysis, and then the methods utilized for this study From Crawford et al , and Raymore et al , the main part of their problem was to establish the three types of constraints--intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural--as separate classes of constraints on leisure To do this, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed With the factor analysis, the three types of constraints (or factors) and individual constraint statements (or indicator variables), were reported by the following three methods (a) the

intercorrelations between factors, (b) the correlations (or path coefficients) that linked factors and indicator variables, and (c) indicator variable intercorrelations Evaluation of this analysis then proceeded through the overall-fit indices and chi-squared values being inspected, to test for statistical significance The confirmatory factor analysis verified that the three subcategories of the construct, constraints on leisure, did in fact, exist

As a result of the findings from Crawford et al , 1991, and Raymore et al , 1993, 1994, concerning the three distinct categories of leisure constraints which significantly affected the participation of the general public, this study then utilized an extension of their research This study examined the leisure constraints affecting both the frequencies and number of program area(s) of participation among leisure programmers First, the raw participation and constraint data were arranged into numerical record charts (Appendix C, Tables C 1 through C 4) In the second step, the reliability of the leisure constraints instrumentation used for this exploratory line of research was measured using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha As was stated (supra, p 59), measures of at least 0 7 to 0 8 were considered sufficient to indicate internal consistency among test items (perceived measures of leisure constraints among leisure programmers) being examined for reliability (Appendix C, Table C 5)

The last part of the problem was to determine the relationship between leisure constraints acting on the leisure programmers and their levels of personal participation After completing the second step (reliability of the

instrumentation), a Pearson product moment coefficient of correlation was performed on the sets (intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) of summed leisure constraint statement scores, and both sets of programmers' participation measures By performing a comparison of the correlations between programmers' perceived leisure constraints and both participation measures (mean frequency scores and number of program area[s]), to determine which yielded the highest correlational value, the best relationship between each variable (leisure constraints and programmers' participation) could be obtained Specifically, step 3A related the sets of mean frequency scores for levels of programmers' participation (Appendix C, Table C 6), with each of the three categories of leisure constraints (Appendix C, Tables C 2 to C 4) to yield a correlation matrix (Appendix C, Table C 7) Moreover, programmers' participation based on mean frequency scores was correlated with total leisure constraints (Appendix C, Table C 8) Similarly, step 3B related the sets of programmers' participation based on number of program area(s) (Appendix C, Table C 9) with each of the three categories of leisure constraints to yield a correlation matrix (Appendix C, Table C 10) In addition, programmers' participation based on number of program area(s) was correlated with total leisure constraints (Appendix C, Table C 11) Lastly, this study examined the correlation between both participation measures (Appendix C, Table C 12) On the basis of the results from steps 3A and 3B, the highest correlated relationship would be yielded between leisure constraints and programmers'

participation Based on the highest correlation, the relationship of leisure constraints and programmers' participation, could be determined

However, it should be noted that this would only depict a relationship, not causality, as this test dealt only with whether a relationship existed, and not with the cause of that relationship To rule out the possibility that leisure programmers would participate less in their leisure programs for some other reason other than leisure constraints, an experimental group and a control group that was not given any special treatment would be needed

Chapter 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the results of the three research questions (supra, p 3) for this study are discussed

The first research question was to determine to what degree selected leisure programmers participated in their leisure programs As participation could be measured based on the frequency (mean frequency scores), or based on the breadth (number of program areas), each required analysis Table 1 showed both measures of programmers' participation

Table 1

Sums, Means and Standard Deviations for Total Programmers' Participation (Mean Scores) and Total Programmers' Participation (Number of Program Area[s])

	Leisure Programmers (N=27)		
Variable	Sum	Mean	STD
Participation (Mean Freq Scores)	93 33	3 46	1 87
Participation (# of Prog Area[s])	138 00	5 11	3 11

The mean for total programmer participation was 3 46 (the equivalent of participating in a range of once every 1-2 months, to once every 2-3 weeks),

based on the scale of 0-7 (supra, p 51) used in the study This value could be considered by a leisure practitioner, to be a somewhat low level of participation, but programmers perform other duties as well (i e staffing, keeping records, and budgeting), which could limit their involvement As well, in Appendix C, Tables C 7 and C 8 showed relatively good correlational values of leisure constraints and programmers' participation (mean frequency scores) Specifically, Table C 7 showed correlations of programmers' participation (mean frequency scores) along with the following intrapersonal -0 38, interpersonal -0 28, and structural leisure constraints -0 45, respectively Moreover, Table C 8 indicated that a correlation of -0 45 existed between leisure constraints and programmers' participation (mean frequency scores) A limitation of the mean of the participation scores (as opposed to the sum of the scores) was the restriction of variance Put differently, if programmers' frequencies of participation scores were summed (as opposed to averaged out), a greater difference would exist between the range of high and low scores Then, a more pronounced difference in the range of scores would yield a more effective statistical analysis However, as the reported levels of programmers' participation could exist simultaneously among any, or all of twelve program area categories, the mean of the scores was selected as one measure of programmers' participation (in spite of the limitation of the restriction of variance) The other measure of participation was the total number of program area(s) each programmer oversaw, yielding a mean of 5 1, based on the twelve

program area option(s) (supra, pp 51-52) used in the study Moreover, in Appendix C, Tables C 10 and C 11 both showed very low correlation coefficient values of leisure constraints and programmers' participation (number of program area[s]) In addition, Appendix C, Table C 12 showed an extremely low correlation of -0 003 between both measures of programmers' participation (mean frequency scores and number of program area[s]) It could be concluded therefore, that programmers' participation mean frequency scores produced higher correlations with leisure constraints, and proved to be a more representative measure in this study

The second research question was to determine to what extent leisure constraints influenced leisure programmers who provided programs for their clients From Table 2, work commitments, schedule, and transport were perceived among programmers to be the most important leisure constraints, and others' transport, others' family obligations, and others too far away were the least important

Table 2

Sums, Means, Standard Deviations and Ranking of Leisure Constraints as Perceived by Leisure Programmers

	Leisure Programmers (N=27)			
Leisure Constraint	Sum	Mean	STD	Rank
IA1 All right with family	39	1 44	0 51	21
IA2 Uncomfortable	63	2 33	1 07	11

(table continues)

Table 2 continued

Sums, Means, Standard Deviations and Ranking of Leisure Constraints as Perceived by Leisure Programmers

	Leisure Constraint	Leisure Programmers (N=27) Sum	Mean	STD	Rank
IA3	All right with friends	37	1 37	0 49	22
IA4	Co-workers disapprove	53	1 96	0 76	15
IA5	Self-conscious	61	2 26	1 02	12
IA6	Stress	56	2 07	1 00	14
IA7	Skill	42	1 56	0 75	19
IA8	Disorganized	76	2 82	0 92	6
IA9	Motivation	75	2 78	1 09	7
IA10	Gender discrimination	47	1 74	1 06	17
IR1	Others too far	32	1 19	0 48	28
IR2	Others' time	34	1 26	0 59	26
IR3	Others organized	36	1 33	0 73	23
IR4	Others' family obligations	31	1 15	0 46	29
IR5	Others know activities	36	1 33	0 56	24
IR6	Others' transport	28	1 04	0 19	30
IR7	Others' health	42	1 56	0 97	20
IR8	Others' skills	33	1 22	0 51	27
IR9	Others' motivation	44	1 63	0 84	18
IR10	Others' stress	35	1 30	0 61	25
ST1	Not crowded	64	2 37	1 18	10
ST2	Other commitments	77	2 85	0 95	4
ST3	Transport	82	3 04	1 09	3
ST4	Convenient	69	2 56	1 01	9
ST5	Work role	61	2 26	1 13	13
ST6	Time	76	2 82	1 04	5
ST7	Money	69	2 56	0 93	8
ST8	Work commitments	86	3 19	0 92	1
ST9	Schedule	85	3 15	0 77	2
ST10	Participant issues	50	1 85	0 99	16

According to Crawford et al (1991) and Raymore et al (1993, 1994), leisure

preferences were formed upon successful confrontation of leisure constraints in a hierarchical order (supra, p 16) The same authors indicated the leisure constraints hierarchy was found to be initially intrapersonal constraints, followed by interpersonal, and finally structural, respectively Although similar instrumentation and categories of leisure constraints were utilized in this study, the exploration of a hierarchy of leisure constraints among programmers here was premature The question of whether a relationship existed between leisure constraints and programmers' participation, required analysis initially However, from Table 3, structural constraints were perceived by the leisure programmers (N=27) to be the most important (M=26 74), followed by intrapersonal (M=20 15), and lastly interpersonal constraints (M=13 00)

Table 3

Sums, Means and Standard Deviations for Totals of Each Category of Leisure Constraints

	Leisure Programmers (N=27)		
Variable	Sum	Mean	STD
Intrapersonal Constraints	544 00	20 15	4 19
Interpersonal Constraints	351 00	13 00	4 33
Structural Constraints	722 00	26 74	5 97

It should be noted that a limitation of this study was the ability of leisure programmers to identify that they were in a state of leisure Although the

instrument (measured the perceived importance of programmers' leisure constraints) clearly identified the term leisure throughout, no empirical measurement of the programmers' leisure states was made As scholars continue to be challenged with a unified definition of leisure, programmers could also be unable to clearly identify what leisure is, or when they would be experiencing it However, at no time during the interviews did programmers express their inability to comprehend the use of the term leisure, or challenge the implied use of the term for this study, in relation to their work

The last research question was to determine whether or not levels of personal participation by leisure programmers would be correlated to leisure constraints A significant relationship existed between leisure constraints and programmers' participation (mean frequency scores) With N=27 (27 subjects), and 25 *df* with a two-tailed test (*df* = N-2), the critical value of the correlation coefficient was 0 38, with p @ 0 05 (level of significance) Pearson's *r* = -0 45 (obtained correlation coefficient), was greater than the critical value of 0 38 (at 0 05 level) Therefore, the correlation coefficient of -0 45 was significant at the 0 05 level This meant that if 20 similar studies were conducted, the null hypothesis (that there is no relationship) would be rejected incorrectly, just by chance, on 1 of the 20 occasions As a result, if the study were repeated, there would be a significant probability of obtaining a similar finding

It was also useful to note that the correlation needed for significance decreased with increased numbers of subjects (*df*) In this instance, if there

were only 15 subjects (or pairs of scores), then there would be 13 *df*, and the correlation required for significance at the 0 05 level for 13 *df* would be 0 51 However, if five more subjects had been in the sample (N=20), then there would be 18 *df*, and the correlation required for significance at the 0 05 level for 18 *df* would be 0 44 The correlation of -0 45 (leisure constraints and programmers' participation [mean frequency scores]) met that test of significance But, a higher correlation would be required for significance at the 0 01 level than at the 0 05 level At the 0 01 level, if 100 studies were conducted, the null hypothesis (that there is no relationship) would be rejected incorrectly, just by chance, on one of the 100 occasions Therefore, the test of significance at the 0 01 level was more stringent than at the 0 05 level, and a higher correlation was required for significance at the 0 01 level In this study, there was 25 *df*, which yielded a critical correlation coefficient value of 0 49 The correlation of -0 45 did not meet that test of significance However, if N=32, then there would be 30 *df*, and at the 0 01 level of significance, a critical value of 0 45 would be needed In that case, the obtained value of -0 45 would then be significant at the 0 01 level Hence, as subject numbers increased, lower correlation values were required As this was an exploratory study, the significance of correlation obtained at the 0 05 level was considered appropriate

The interpretation of a correlation for statistical significance was important, but, because of the vast influence of sample size, this criterion was

not always meaningful The most commonly used criterion for interpreting the correlation coefficient as to meaningfulness was the coefficient of determination (r^2) In this method, the portion of common association of the factors that influence the two variables would be determined Put differently, the coefficient of determination would indicate the portion of the total variance in one measure (i e programmers' participation mean frequency scores) that could be explained, or accounted for, by variance in the other measure (i e leisure constraints) For a correlation of -0 45, the coefficient of determination was 20% (r^2 = -0 45 x -0 45 = 0 2 x 100 = 20%), which would usually be expressed as percent of variation Hence, if r = -0 45, then 20% of the influence from one measure (i e programmers' participation mean frequency scores) was associated with, or explained by, the factors involved from the influences of the other measure (i e leisure constraints) As a result, there was 20% common (explained) variance and 80%, error (unexplained) variance The 20% common (explained) variance could be based on commonalities such as both measures examined programmers' work functions, and both measures involved programmers' perceptions Although the 80% error (unexplained) variance could not be fully explained, one unique factor to each measure could be the number of times each concept was measured The concept of participation was measured once, and could vary in meaning for each programmer (i e ranging from observing the program through to full overt participation), whereas the concept of leisure constraints involved multiple

measures (perceptions based on 30 different constraints statements) The foregoing was not intended to be a mechanical analysis of the two measures Rather, they were possible factors of common association, or explained variance, and one factor that could be unexplained or unique to each measure Moreover, interpreting the correlation coefficient would be further complicated depending on the purpose For example, the reliability of a test would require a much higher correlation, than determining whether a relationship existed between two variables

Lastly, Figures 1-4 below, all show the negative relationship between leisure constraints and programmers' participation (mean frequency scores) on the X-Y Scatterplot Graphs

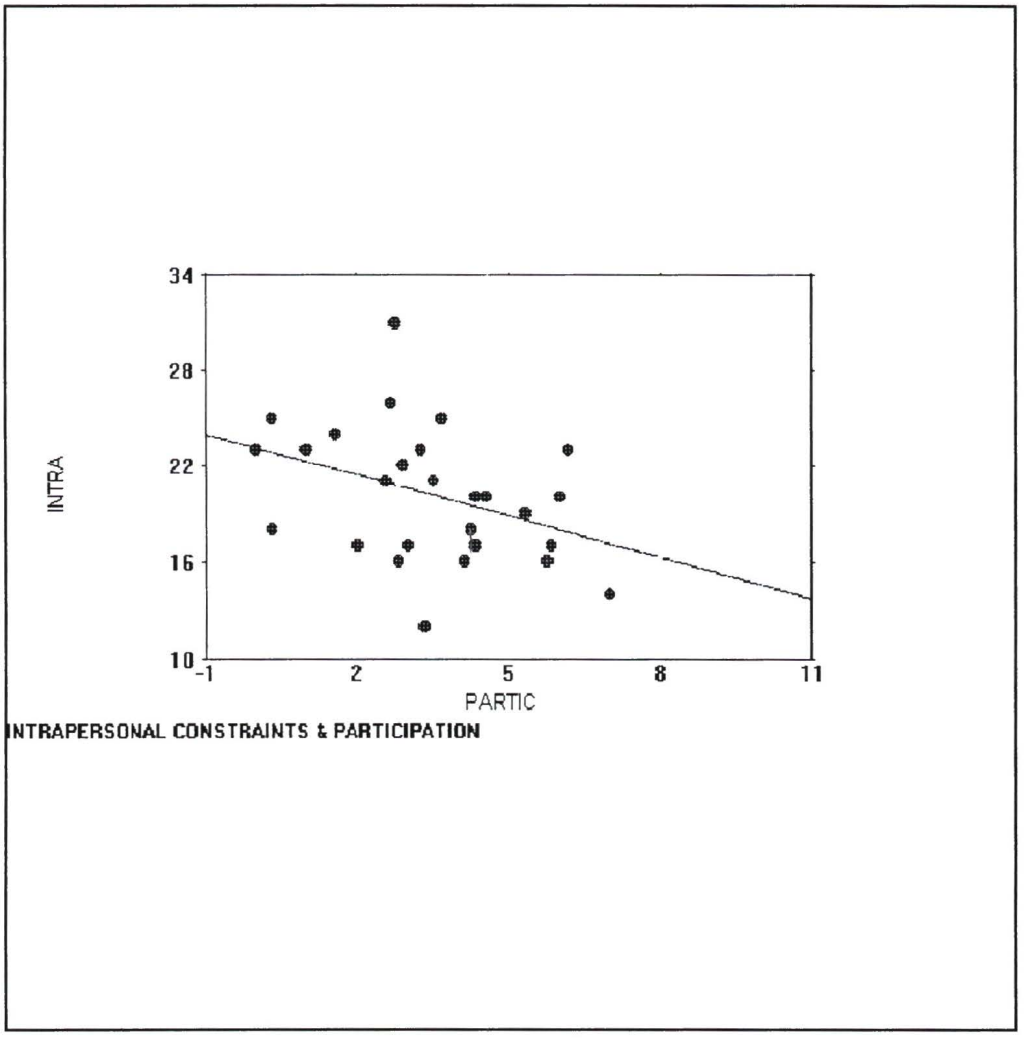

Figure 1

X-Y Plot of Intrapersonal Leisure Constraints

and Programmers' Participation (Mean Frequency Scores)

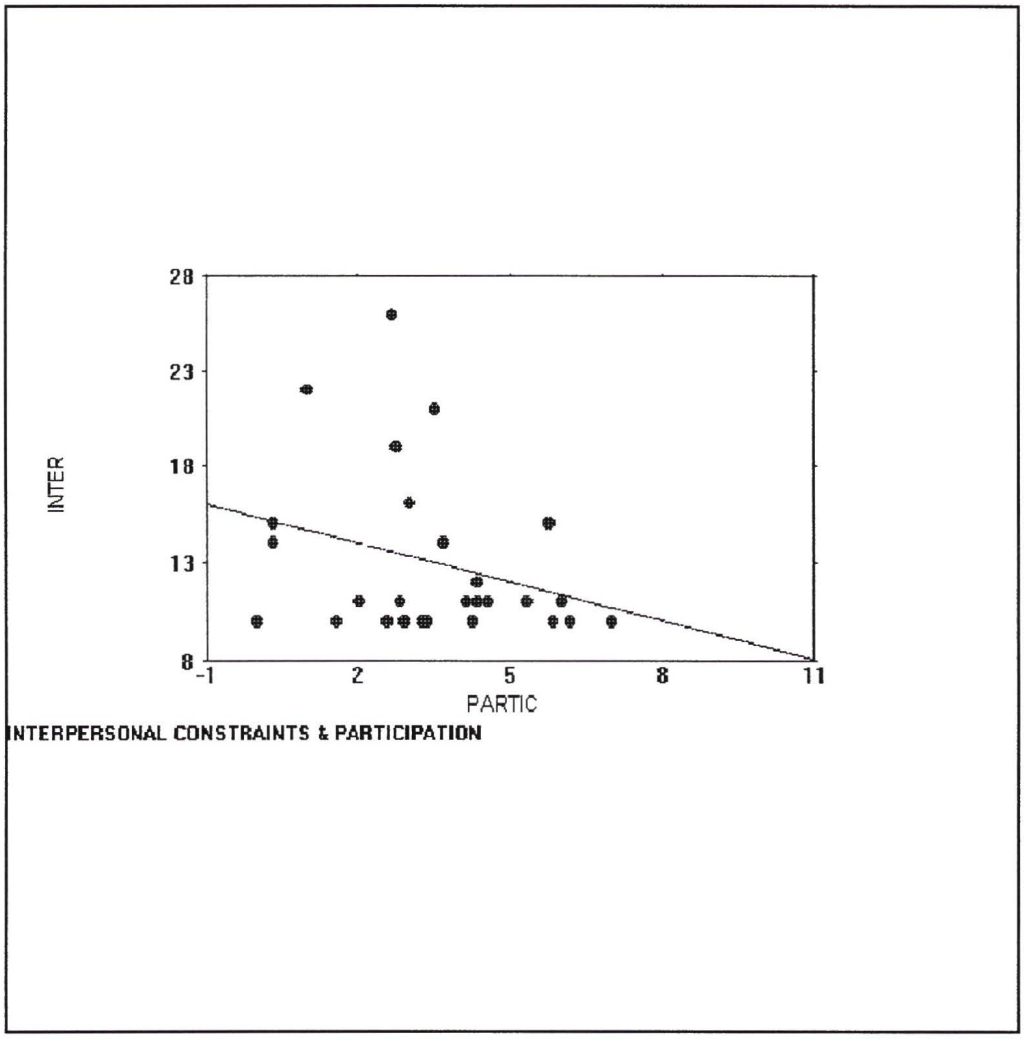

Figure 2

X-Y Plot of Interpersonal Leisure Constraints

and Programmers' Participation (Mean Frequency Scores)

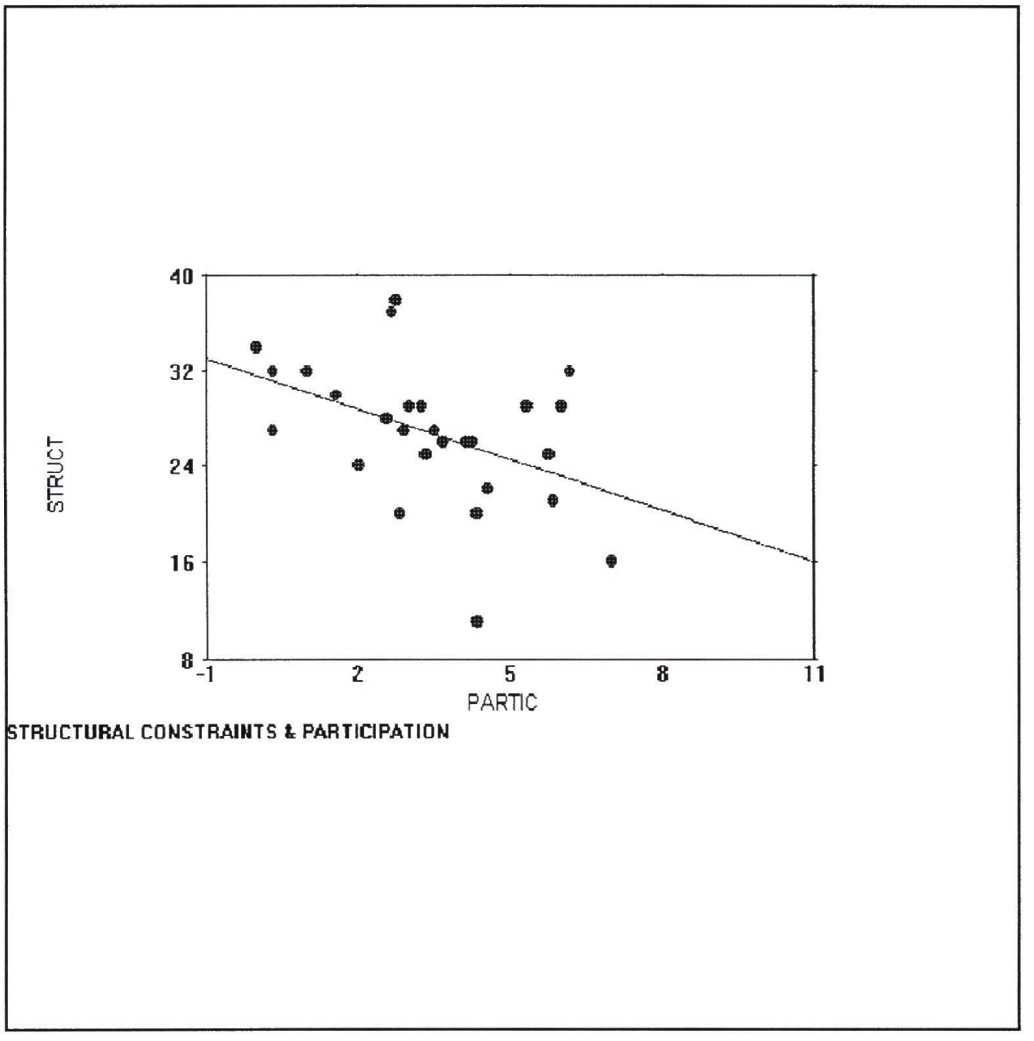

Figure 3

X-Y Plot of Structural Leisure Constraints

and Programmers' Participation (Mean Frequency Scores)

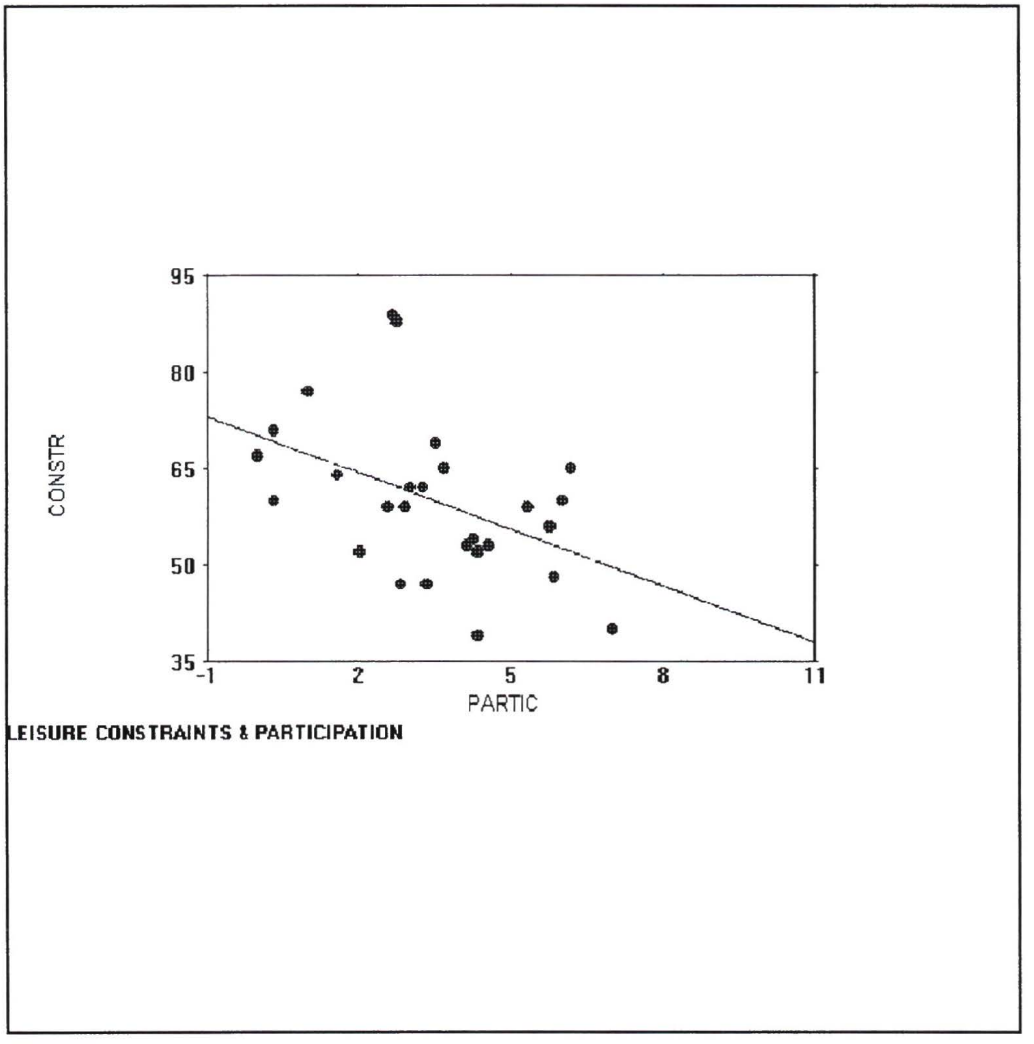

Figure 4

X-Y Plot of Leisure Constraints (Summation of Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, and Structural Constraints) and Programmers' Participation (Mean Frequency Scores)

In each Figure, the negative relationship indicated that as leisure constraints measures increased, there was a corresponding decrease in programmers' participation mean frequency scores However, Figures 5, 7 and 8 all show a

regression line with almost no slope, indicating almost no correlation between the variables

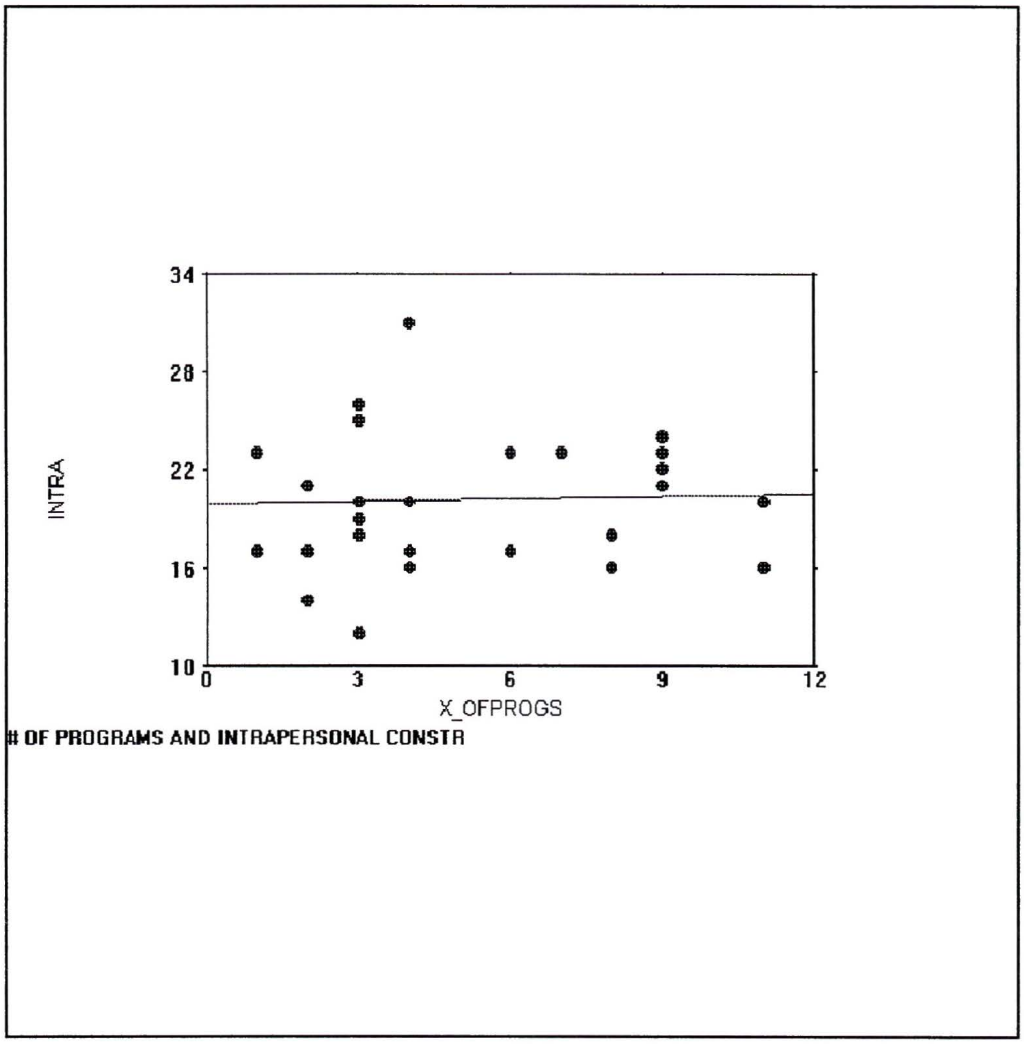

Figure 5

X-Y Plot of Intrapersonal Leisure Constraints

and Programmers' Participation (Number of Program Area[s])

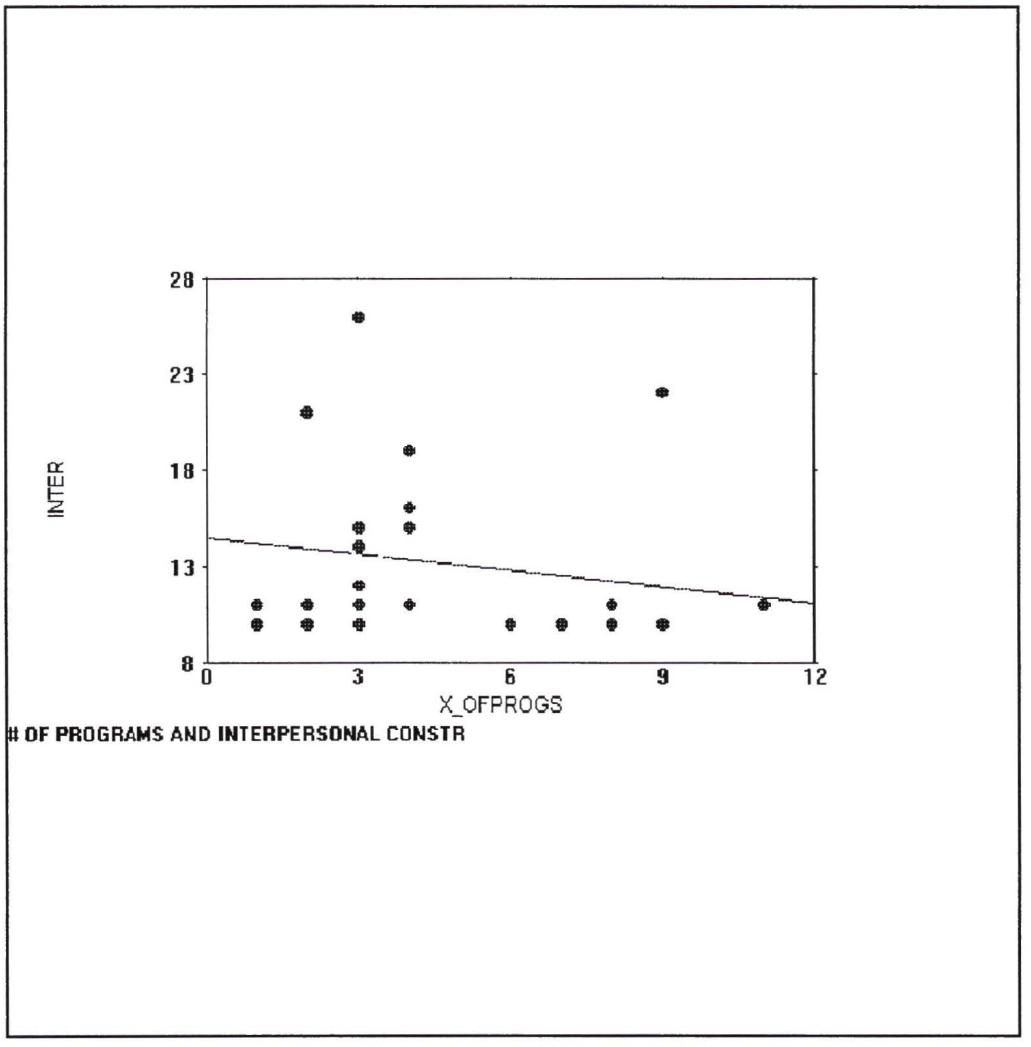

Figure 6

X-Y Plot of Interpersonal Leisure Constraints

and Programmers' Participation (Number of Program Area[s])

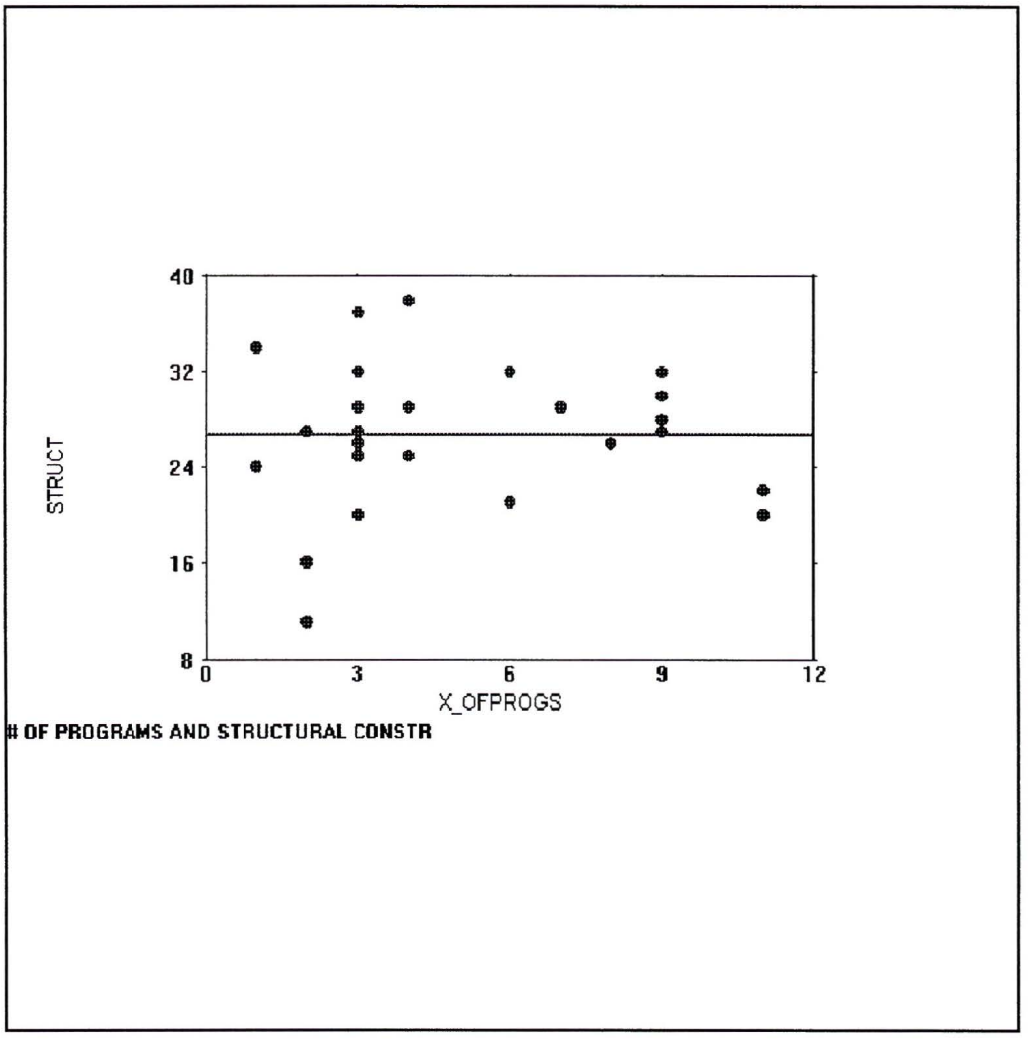

Figure 7

X-Y Plot of Structural Leisure Constraints

and Programmers' Participation (Number of Program Area[s])

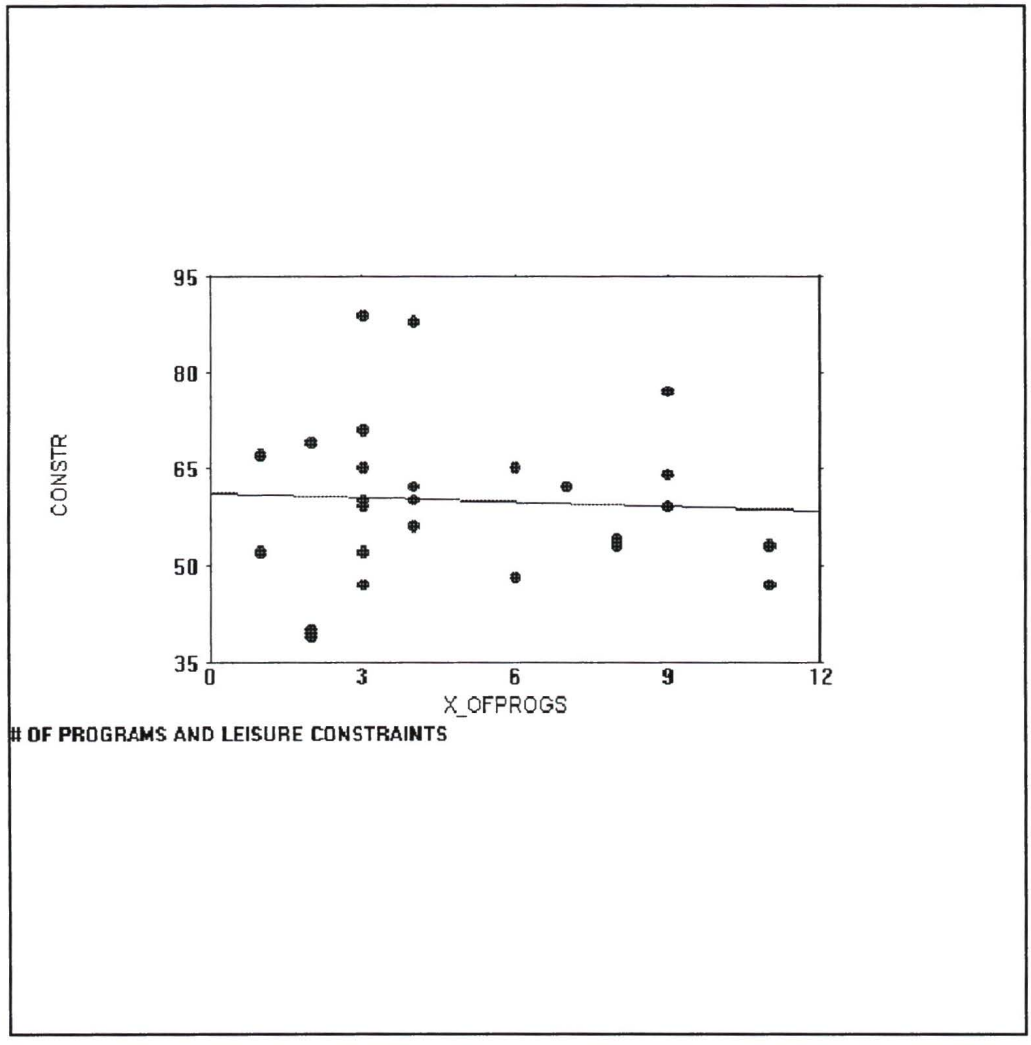

Figure 8

X-Y Plot of Leisure Constraints (Summation of Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, and Structural Constraints) and Programmers' Participation (Number of Program Area[s])

From the last set of Figures 5-8, only Figure 6 showed a negatively sloping regression line, but the slope was minimal, and indicated a small correlation between the two variables As a result, because Figures 1-4 all had clearly negatively sloping regression lines, programmers' participation (mean frequency

scores) produced better correlations with leisure constraints than was evidenced in Figures 5-8 (programmers' participation number of program area[s])

Chapter 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This final chapter summarizes the findings of this study, and provides recommendations for further study These recommendations will suggest how these findings could be used to develop further, the study of leisure constraints which influence programmers' participation

Conclusions

Research Question One To what degree do selected leisure programmers participate in their leisure programs? A participation scale (0-7) for up to twelve program area options was responded to by leisure programmers (N=27), in a structured interview format Means were computed to show leisure programmers participate, on the average, a range of once every 1-2 months, to once every 2-3 weeks, in their programs As well, leisure programmers participate, on the average, in five program areas, out of a possible 12 Programmers' participation mean frequency scores produced higher correlations with leisure constraints than programmers' participation number of program area(s)

Research Question Two To what extent do leisure constraints influence leisure programmers in their participation in their programs? An importance scale (1-4) for 30 leisure constraints statements was responded to by programmers Sums, means, standard deviations and rankings were computed

The most important leisure constraints perceived by programmers were work commitments, schedule, and transport The category of structural constraints was computed to be perceived by programmers as the most important of the other (intrapersonal and interpersonal) leisure constraints categories Put differently, of the three categories of leisure constraints (intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural), leisure programmers perceived that structural constraints (situations which affect leisure preferences) were the most important, or influencing

Research Question Three Whether or not levels of personal participation by leisure programmers would be correlated to leisure constraints? A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed, and yielded a negative relationship (with programmers' participation mean frequency scores) that was significant (p @ 0 05) In other words, as leisure constraints for programmers increased, or became more pronounced, programmers participated less frequently in their programs Moreover, this finding would reoccur 19 of 20 times, with similar research

Based on the findings, practical uses of this research can be made The findings from this research could be used by leisure administrators and programmers to gain awareness of programmers' levels of participation in their programs, as well as the leisure constraints they perceived to be the most important Awareness could be an initial step towards change if desired Programmers could desire increased participation due to an awareness of a

level that they considered, personally or professionally, to be unsatisfactorily low Programmers' awareness of their level(s) of participation, along with an awareness of the leisure constraints they perceived to be most important, could prompt them to increase their participation frequency in their programs

Recommendations

1 Future research in this area could involve collecting data from other geographical locations to see if there is a difference between regions of the country, or even other municipalities Community biases may influence how important different criteria are to the leisure programmer

2 Examine the problem with further categories for participation In addition to frequency of participation as a function of program area(s), the type of participation as a function of program area(s), may also warrant investigation An investigation into differing types of participation could provide the researcher with a more complete analysis of the variable Possible types of participation could include administrative (record keeping and attendance), cursory (attend program to visually scan, and/or be seen by others), and overt (full participation in program)

3 Examine programmers' personal leisure participation, separate from their work-related participation, which this study focused on Programmers' own personal leisure may influence their work-related participation and could warrant study

4 Collect data from more types of leisure programmers (i e community recreation, fitness and health and wellness, aquatic, arena and/or sports, and other types) to see if there is a difference between programmers of different areas Program biases may influence how important different criteria are to each type of leisure programmer Moreover, job functions tend to be dynamic among leisure programmers Changes may have occurred within the leisure organization (i e reorganizations and/or maternity leaves) and affected the programmer's job function(s), in staying on with that organization through the changes The programmer may have had to oversee various other program areas during these changes, which could be a factor in research and would require consideration

5 Add more leisure constraint statements to each category, as this could provide greater insight into the problem For example, an additional intrapersonal leisure constraint statement could ask the programmers' perceived importance of altered dynamics within the program, due to their participation (i e stress to the instructor, and altered interactions among/with participants) Another example could be an additional interpersonal leisure constraint statement, which could ask the programmers' perceived importance of support of co-workers and the organization, to encourage the programmer to participate in their program(s)

6 Examine whether a hierarchy of leisure constraints exists for

programmers This study found a high level of internal consistency for the 30 leisure constraints among the three categories, derived from previous research on leisure constraints and participation levels of the general public Yet, according to Crawford et al , (1991) and Raymore et al , (1993, 1994), they verified previous research that found the three categories of leisure constraints were distinct through factor analysis A factor analysis could be done using the same three categories of leisure constraints to study another sample of programmers, to verify that each category is distinct from the other

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Aguilar, F J (1967) Scanning the business environment New York Macmillan

Albrow, M (1970) Bureaucracy London Macmillan

Andereck, K , & Becker, R (1993) The effects of density on perceived crowding in a busy recreation environment Journal of Applied Recreation Research, 18, 165-179

Arnold, S (1991) The dilemma of meaning In T Goodale, & P Witt (Eds), Recreation and leisure Issues in an era of change (pp 5-20) State College, PA Venture Publishing

Backman, S J (1991) An investigation of the relationship between activity loyalty and perceived constraints Journal of Leisure Research, 23, 332-344

Backman, S J , & Crompton, J L (1989) Discriminating between continuers and discontinuers of two public leisure services Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 7, 56-71

Backman, S J , & Crompton, J L (1990) Differentiating between active and passive discontinuers of two leisure activities Journal of Leisure Research, 22, 197-212

Bannon, J J (1985) Public administration Roots and implications of change In T L Goodale & P A Witt (Eds), Recreation and leisure Issues in an era of change (pp 161-174) State College, PA Venture Publishing

Barnard, C I (1976) The functions of the executive Cambridge, Massachusetts Harvard University Press

Bedini, L A , & Henderson, K A (1991) Methods for teaching ethics in leisure studies curricula In G S Fain (Ed), Leisure and ethics Reflections on the philosophy of leisure (pp 291-298) Reston, Virginia American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance

Bialeschki, M D (1994) Re-entering leisure Transition within the role of motherhood Journal of Leisure Research, 26, 57-74

Bialeschki, M D , & Henderson, K A (1988) Constraints to trail use Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 6, 20-28

Boothby, J , Tungatt, M F , & Townsend, A R (1981) Ceasing participation in sports activity Reported reasons and their implications Journal of Leisure Research, 13, 1-14

Bourgeois, L J (1990) Strategy and environment A conceptual integration Academy of Management Review, 5, 25-39

Bradshaw, R A , & Jackson, J J (1979) Socialization for leisure In H Ibrahim, & R Crandall (Eds), Leisure A psychological approach (pp 93-120) Los Alamitos, California Hwong Publishing

Braverman, H (1974) Labour and monopoly capital The degradation of work in the twentieth century New York Monthly Review Press

Brightbill, C K (1960) The challenge of leisure Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey Prentice-Hall

Brown, R J (1990) The management of human resources in the leisure industries In I P Henry (Ed), Management and planning in the leisure industries (pp 70-96) Hong Kong Macmillan

Burton, T L (1971) Experiments in recreation research London George Allen and Unwin

Carlson, R E , Thayer, P W , Mayfield, E C , & Peterson, D A (1971) Improvements in the selection interview Personnel Journal, 4, 272

Carpenter, G M , & Howe, C Z (1985) Programming leisure experiences A cyclical approach Englewood Cliffs, NJ Prentice-Hall

Cheek, N , & Burch, W (1976) The social organization of leisure in human society New York Harper and Row

Chick, G E , & Roberts, J M (1989) Leisure and antileisure in game play Leisure Sciences, 11, 73-84

Chick, G E , Roberts, J M , & Romney, A K (1991) Conflict and quitting in the Monday Nite Pool League Leisure Sciences, 13, 295-308

Cooper, C , & Makin, P (1984) Psychology for managers London Macmillan

Cosper, R , & Shaw, S (1985) The validity of time-budget studies Leisure Sciences, 7, 205-225

Crawford, D W , & Godbey, G (1987) Reconceptualizing barriers to family leisure Leisure Sciences, 9, 119-127

Crawford, D W , Jackson, E L , & Godbey, G (1991) A hierarchical model of leisure constraints Leisure Sciences, 13, 309-320

Csikszentmihalyi, M (1975) Beyond boredom and anxiety San Francisco Josey-Bass

Cunningham, B (1996) Using interviews in data gathering Unpublished manuscript, University of Victoria, School of Public Administration, Victoria, B C , Canada

Dare, B , Welton, G , & Coe, W (1987) Concepts of leisure in western thought A critical and historical analysis Dubuque, Iowa Kendall/Hunt

Deem, R (1986) All work and no play? The sociology of women and leisure Milton Keynes Open University Press

De Grazia, S (1964) Of time, work, and leisure New York Twentieth Century Fund/Anchor Books

Denzin, N K (1979) The research act (2nd ed) New York McGraw-Hill

Dess, G G (1987) Concensus on strategy formulation and organizational performance Competitors in a fragmented industry Strategic Management Journal, 8, 259-277

Dewey, J (1916) Democracy and education New York Macmillan

Drummond, H (1995) Beyond quality Journal of General Management, 20, 68-77

Dumazedier, J (1974) Sociology of leisure Amsterdam Elsevier

Dunn, E (1990) Temporary and permanent constraints on participation in camping In B J A Smale (Ed), Proceedings of the Sixth Canadian Congress on Leisure Research (pp 360-363) Toronto, Canada Ontario Research Council on Leisure

Edginton, C R , & Ford, P M (1985) Leadership in recreation and leisure service organizations Toronto, Canada John Wiley & Sons

Edginton, C R , Hanson, C J , & Edginton, S R (1992) Leisure programming Concepts, trends, and professional practice (2nd ed) Dubuque, Iowa W C Brown

Ellis, M J (1973) Why people play Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey Prentice-Hall

Etzioni, A Modern organizations Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey Prentice-Hall

Fahey, L , & Narayanan, V K (1986) Macroenvironmental analysis for strategic management St Paul, MN West

Fain, G S (Ed) (1991) Leisure and ethics Reflections on the philosophy of leisure Reston, Virginia American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance

Farina, J (1985) Perceptions of time In T L Goodale & P A Witt (Eds), Recreation and leisure Issues in an era of change (pp 23-34) State College, PA Venture Publishing

Farrell, P , & Lundegren, H M (1991) The process of recreation programming Theory and technique (3rd ed) State College, PA Venture Publishing

Fayol, H (1949) General and industrial management London Pitman and Sons

Franken, D A , & van Raij, M F (1981) Satisfaction with leisure time activities Journal of Leisure Research, 13, 337-352

Giddens, A (1964) Notes on the concept of play and leisure Sociological Review, 12, 73-89

Godbey, G (1985) Nonuse of public leisure services A model Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 3, 1-12

Godbey, G (1989) Implications of recreation and leisure research for professionals In E L Jackson & T L Burton (Eds), Understanding leisure and recreation Mapping the past, charting the future (pp 613-628) State College, PA Venture Publishing

Goodale, T L , & Godbey, G (1988) The evolution of leisure State College, PA Venture

Gratton, C , & Taylor, P (1992) Economics of leisure service management London Longman

Gray, D , & Greben, S (1974) Future perspectives Parks and Recreation, 9, p 9

Gross, E (1961) A functional approach to leisure analysis Social Problems, 9, 2-8

Henderson, K A (1991) The contribution of feminism to an understanding of leisure constraints Journal of Leisure Research, 23, 363-377

Henderson, K A , & Bialeschki, M D (1991) A sense of entitlement to leisure as constraint and empowerment for women Leisure Sciences, 13, 51-65

Henderson, K A , Bialeschki, M D , Shaw, S M , & Freysinger, V J (1989) A leisure of one's own A feminist perspective on women's leisure Venture Publishing State College, PA

Henderson, K A , Stalnaker, D , & Taylor, G (1988) The relationship between barriers to recreation and gender-role personality traits for women Journal of Leisure Research, 20, 69-80

Herzberg, F (1966) Work and the nature of man New York World Publishing Co

Hodgkinson, C (1978) Towards a philosophy of administration Oxford Basil Blackwell

Hodgkinson, C (1983) The philosophy of leadership Oxford Basil Blackwell

Horna, J (1994) The study of leisure An introduction Don Mills, Ontario Oxford University Press

Howard, D R , & Crompton, J L (1984) Who are the consumers of public park and recreation services? An analysis of the users and non-users of three municipal leisure service organizations Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 2, 33-48

Howe, C Z (1993) The evaluation of leisure programs Applying qualitative methods Journal of Physical Education and Recreation, 51, 36-38

Howell, D C (1989) Fundamental statistics for the behavioral sciences Boston, MA PWS-Kent Publishing

Huizinga, J (1950) Homo ludens A study of the play element in culture Boston Beacon

Hultsman, W Z (1990) Barriers to activity participation A focus on youth Paper presented at the NRPA Symposium on Leisure Research, Phoenix, Arizona

Hultsman, W Z (1995) Recognizing patterns of leisure constraints An extension of the exploration of dimensionality Journal of Leisure Research, 27, 228-244

Ibrahim, H (1991) Leisure and society A comparative approach Dubuque, Iowa W C Brown

Ibrahim, H , Mouti, A , & Touhami, N (1981) Leisure behaviour among contemporary Egyptians Journal of Leisure Research, 13, 89-104

Iso-Ahola, S E (1980) The social psychology of leisure and recreation Dubuque, Iowa W C Brown

Iso-Ahola, S E (1986) Concerns and thoughts about leisure research Journal of Leisure Research, 18, iv-x

Iso-Ahola, S E , & Mannell, R C (1985) Social and psychological constraints on leisure In M G Wade (Ed), Constraints on leisure (pp 111-115) Springfield, Illinois Charles C Thomas

Jackson, E L (1988) Leisure constraints A survey of past research Leisure Sciences, 10, 203-215

Jackson, E L (1990a) Trends in leisure preferences Alternative constraints-related explanations Journal of Applied Recreation Research, 15, 129-145

Jackson, E L (1990b) Variations in the desire to begin a leisure activity Evidence of antecedent constraints? Journal of Leisure Research, 22, 55-70

Jackson, E L (1991) Leisure constraints/Constrained leisure Journal of Leisure Research, 23, 279-285

Jackson, E L (1993) Recognizing patterns of leisure constraints Results from alternative analyses Journal of Leisure Research, 25, 129-149

Jackson, E L (1994) Geographical aspects of constraints on leisure and recreation The Canadian Geographer, 38, 110-121

Jackson, E L , & Dunn, E (1988) Integrating ceasing participation with other aspects of leisure behaviour Journal of Leisure Research, 20, 31-45

Jackson, E L , & Dunn, E (1991) Is constrained leisure an internally homogeneous concept? Leisure Sciences, 13, 167-184

Jackson, E L , & Searle, M S (1983) Recreation non-participation Variables related to the desire for new recreational activities Recreation Research Review, 10, 5-12

Jackson, E L , & Witt, P A (1994) Change and stability in leisure constraints A comparison of two surveys conducted four years apart Journal of Leisure Research, 26, 322-336

Jackson, J J (1981) Sport administration Springfield, Illinois Charles C Thomas

Jackson, J J (1984) Leisure and sports center management Springfield, Illinois Charles C Thomas

Jackson, J J (1988) Physical education and recreation administration A case method approach Springfield, Illinois Charles C Thomas

Jackson, J J , & O'Sullivan, M M (1981) Sport rejection Review of Sport and Leisure, 6, 35-41

Jackson, S E , & Dutton, J E (1988) Discerning threats and opportunities Administrative Science Quarterly, 33, 370-387

James, W (1963) Pragmatism and other essays New York Simon and Schuster

Jantz, T , Hellervik, L , & Gilmour, D C (1986) Behaviour description interviewing New, accurate, cost effective Toronto, Ontario Allyn and Bacon

Kaplan, M (1960) Leisure in America A social enquiry New York Wiley

Kaplan, M (1975) Leisure, theory and policy New York Wiley

Kaplan, M (1991) Essays on leisure Human and policy issues Cranbury, NJ Associated University Presses

Katz, R (1974) Skills of an effective administrator Harvard Business Review, 52, 90-102

Kay, T , & Jackson, G (1991) Leisure despite constraint The impact of leisure constraints on leisure participation Journal of Leisure Research, 23, 301-313

Kelly, J R (1983) Leisure identities and interactions - (Leisure and recreation studies, I) London George Allen and Unwin

Kelly, J R (1985) Sources of leisure styles In T L Goodale & P A Witt (Eds), Recreation and leisure Issues in an era of change (pp 208-220) State College, PA Venture Publishing

Kelly, J R (1989) Leisure (2nd ed) Englewood Cliffs, NJ Prentice-Hall

Kraus, R G , & Curtis, J E (1986) Creative management in recreation, parks, and leisure services (4th ed) St Louis, Missouri Times Mirror/Mosby College

Kraus, R G , & Curtis, J E (1990) Creative management in recreation, parks, and leisure services (5th ed) St Louis, Missouri Times Mirror/Mosby College

Little, S L (1993) Leisure program design and evaluation Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance, 64, 26-33

Mannell, R C , & Zuzanek, J (1991) The nature and variability of leisure constraints in daily life The case of the physically active leisure of older adults Leisure Sciences, 13, 337-351

Maslow, A H (1962) Toward a psychology of being Princeton, New Jersey D van Nostrand

Mayfield, E C , Brown, S H , & Hamstra, B W (1980) Selection interviewing in the life insurance industry An update of research and practice Personnel Psychology, 33, 725-740

Mayo, E (1933) The human problems of an industrial civilization New York Macmillan

McCormick, B (1991) Self-experience as leisure constraint The case of alcoholics anonymous Journal of Leisure Research, 23, 345-362

McGregor, D (1960) The human side of enterprise New York McGraw-Hill

McGuire, F A (1980) The congruence between actual and desired leisure involvement in advanced adulthood Activities, Adaptation and Aging, 1, 77-89

McGuire, F A (1982) Constraints on leisure involvement in the later years Activities, Adaptation and Aging, 3, 17-24

McGuire, F A (1984) A factor analytic study of leisure constraints in advanced adulthood Leisure Sciences, 6, 313-326

McGuire, F A , Dottavio, D , & O'Leary, J T (1986) Constraints to participation in outdoor recreation across the lifespan A nationwide study of limitors and prohibitors The Gerontologist, 26, 538-544

McGuire, F A , O'Leary, J T , Yeh, C K , & Dottavio, F D (1989) Integrating ceasing participation with other aspects of leisure behaviour A replication and extension Journal of Leisure Research, 21, 316-326

Mintzberg, H (1973) The nature of managerial work New York Harper and Row

Mintzberg, H (1975) The manager's job Folklore and fact Harvard Business Review, 53, 49-61

Mobily, K E (1985) A philosophical analysis of therapeutic recreation What does it mean to say "can we be therapeutic?" Part I Therapeutic Recreation Journal, 28, 14-26

Moore, W (1963) Man, time and society New York Wiley

Morrison, M , & Metcalfe, M (1996) Is forecasting a waste of time? Journal of General Management, 22, 28-34

Murphy, J (1975) Recreation and leisure service Dubuque, Iowa Brown and Co

Nash, J (1953) Philosophy of recreation and leisure Dubuque, Iowa Brown and Co

Neulinger, J (1981) The psychology of leisure (2nd ed) Springfield, Illinois Charles C Thomas

Parker, S R (1971) The future of work and leisure London MacGibbon and Kee

Parkhouse, B L (1991) The management of sport Its foundation and application St Louis, MO Mosby-Year Book

Peters, T J , & Waterman, R H , Jr (1982) In search of excellence Lessons from America's best run companies New York Warner Books

Porter, L (1961) A study of perceived satisfaction in bottom and middle management jobs Journal of Applied Psychology, 45, 1-10

Porter, L (1964) Organizational patterns of managerial job attitudes New York American Foundation for Management Research

Porter, L , & Mitchell, V (1967) Comparative study of needs satisfactions in military and business hierarchies Journal of Applied Psychology, 51, 139-144

Rancourt, A M (1991) Leisure and ethics Ramifications for the individual and society In G S Fain (Ed), Leisure and ethics Reflections on the philosophy of leisure (pp 230-236) Reston, Virginia American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance

Raymore, L A , Godbey, G C , & Crawford, D W (1994) Self-esteem, gender, and socioeconomic status Their relation to perceptions of constraints on leisure among adolescents Journal of Leisure Research, 26, 99-118

Raymore, L A , Godbey, G C , Crawford, D W , & von Eye, A (1993) Nature and process of leisure constraints An empirical test Leisure Sciences, 15, 99-113

Riggins, R (1988) Social responsibility and the public sector entrepreneur Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance, 59, p 8

Robinson, J (1977) Changes in Americans' use of time 1965-1975 Cleveland, OH Cleveland State University

Roethlisberger, F , & Dickson, W (1964) Management and the worker New York Wiley

Rossman, J R (1989) Recreation programming Designing leisure experiences Champaign, Illinois Sagamore Publishing

Rossman, J R (1995) Recreation programming Designing leisure experiences (2nd ed) Champaign, Illinois Sagamore Publishing

Russell, R (1982) Planning programs in recreation St Loius, MO C V Mosby

Samdahl, D M (1991) Issues in the measurement of leisure A comparison of theoretical and connotative meanings Leisure Sciences, 13, 33-49

Sanford, N (1970) Whatever happened to action research Journal of Social Issues, 26, 3-23

Schein, E (1969) Process consultation Menlo Park Addison Wesley

Scott, D (1991) The problematic nature of participation in contract bridge A qualitative study of group-related constraints Leisure Sciences, 13, 321-336

Searle, M S (1991) Propositions for testing social exchange theory in the context of ceasing leisure participation Leisure Sciences, 13, 279-294

Searle, M S , & Jackson, E L (1985) Socioeconomic variations in perceived barriers to recreation participation among would-be participants Leisure Sciences, 7, 227-249

Searle, M S , & Brayley, R E (1993) Leisure services in Canada An introduction State College, PA Venture Publishing

Shaw, S M (1994) Gender, leisure, and constraint Towards a framework for the analysis of women's leisure Journal of Leisure Research, 26, 8-22

Shaw, S M , Bonen, A , & McCabe, J F (1991) Do more constraints mean less leisure? Examining the relationship between constraints and participation Journal of Leisure Research, 23, 286-300

Simon, H A (1976) Administrative behaviour (3rd ed) New York Free Press

Smircich, L , & Stubbart, C (1985) Strategic management in an enacted world Academy of Management Review, 10, 724-736

Smith, S L J , & Ng, D (1982) Perspectives on the nature of leisure research Waterloo, Ontario University of Waterloo Press

Sofer, C (1977) Organizations in theory and practice New York Basic Books Inc , Publishers

Soule, G H (1957) The economics of leisure Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences, 313, 16-24

Szalai, A (Ed) (1972) The use of time Daily activities of urban and suburban population in twelve countries The Hague Mouton

Taylor, F W (1947) Scientific management London Harper & Row

Thomas, J R , & Nelson, J K (1990) Research methods in physical activity (2nd ed) Champaign, Illinois Human Kinetics

Tinsley, H E A , & Tinsley, D (1982) Psychological and health benefits of the leisure experience Carbondale, Illinois Southern Illinois University Press

Tomasik, B (1979) Professional development planning for leisure services practitioners A handbook Toronto, Ontario Ontario Ministry of Culture and Recreation

Torkildsen, G (1992) Leisure and recreation management London Chapman & Hall

Traub, R E (1994) Reliability for the social sciences Theory and applications Thousand Oaks, CA Sage

Tuckman, B W (1978) Conducting educational research (2nd ed) New York Harcourt Brace Javanovich, Inc

van der Smissen, B (1972) Evaluation and self-study of public recreation and park agencies A guide with standards and evaluative criteria Arlington, Virginia National Recreation and Park Association

Wade, M G (editor) (1985) Constraints on leisure Springfield, Illinois Charles C Thomas

Westover, T (1989) Perceived crowding in recreational settings An environment-behaviour model Environment and Behaviour, 21, 258-276

Wilkinson, P F (1985) The golden fleece The search for standards Leisure Studies, 4, 189-203

Willits, W L , & Willits, F K (1986) Adolescent participation in leisure activities "the less, the more" or "the more, the more"? Leisure Sciences, 8, 189-206

Wimbush, E , & Talbot, M (editors) (1988) Relative freedoms Milton Keynes Open University Press

Witt, P A , & Ellis, G D (1985) Conceptualizing leisure Making the abstract concrete In T L Goodale & P A Witt (Eds), Recreation and leisure Issues in an era of change (pp 105-117) State College, PA Venture Publishing

Witt, P A , & Goodale, T L (1981) The relationship between barriers to leisure enjoyment and family stages Leisure Sciences, 4, 29-49

Wolff, R M (1988) Beware the public mentality Ethical dilemmas for the recreational entrepreneur Leisure Today, 10, 56-58

Wright, B A , & Goodale, T L (1991) Beyond non-participation Validation of interest and frequency of participation categories in constraints research Journal of Leisure Research, 23, 314-331

Zalatan, A (1994) Forecasting methods in sports and recreation Toronto, Ontario Thompson Educational Publishing

Zeigler, E F (1964) Philosophical foundations for physical, health, and recreation education Englewood Cliffs, NJ Prentice-Hall

Zeigler, E F (1979, June) Elements of a competency-based approach to management development A preliminary analysis Paper presented at the Convention of the Canadian Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Winnipeg, Manitoba

APPENDIX A

LEISURE ORGANIZATIONS IN VICTORIA,

OAK BAY, SAANICH, & ESQUIMALT (FOUR-CORE MUNICIPALITIES)

LEISURE ORGANIZATIONS IN FOUR-CORE MUNICIPALITIES

Victoria

Greater Victoria Public Library

Recreation Integration

Victoria Festival Society

* Crystal Pool

* Memorial Arena

* Royal Athletic Park

Community Services

* Parks Department

Victoria Visitors Bureau

Victoria YM-YWCA (Not selected--classified as a semi-private organization)

Source City of Victoria Winter 1997 Active Living Guide, Parks and Recreation Department of the City of Victoria

Oak Bay

* Oak Bay Recreation Centre

* Carnarvon Centre

* Monterey Centre

Oak Bay Parks Department

* Henderson Centre

Windsor Centre

Source Recreation Oak Bay Winter 1997 Leisure Guide, Parks and

Recreation Department of the Corporation of the District of Oak Bay

Saanich

* Saanich Commonwealth Place

* G R Pearkes Recreation Centre

* Cedar Hill Recreation Centre

* Gordon Head Recreation Centre

Cedar Hill Golf Course

Community Services

Saanich Parks Operations

Source Saanich Parks and Recreation Winter '97 Active Living Guide, Parks and Recreation Department of the Corporation of the District of Saanich

Esquimalt

* Esquimalt Recreation Centre

* Archie Browning Sports Centre

Esquimalt Parks Department

Community Services

Source Esquimalt Parks and Recreation Winter '97 Be Active Guide, Parks and Recreation Department of the Corporation of the District of Esquimalt

* Organizations with leisure programmers

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE SCHEDULE AND RELATED DATA RECORD CARDS

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Leisure organization _____

Programmer's name _____

Address _____

City/Province _____ Postal code _____

Telephone _____ Fax _____

Introduction

Explain the purpose of the study and encourage the subject to be candid and open

Programming information

A) Program area(s)/Program(s)

What program area(s) and program(s) do you oversee? (choose any single or combination of 12 categories)

1 = Arts and crafts

2 = Athletics

3 = Dance

4 = Drama

5 = Hobbies and clubs

6 = Language arts

7 = Music

8 = Science and nature

9 = Social recreation

10= Volunteer services

11= Special populations

12= Other

B) Participation frequency

How often do you participate in your programs?

([7] daily, [6] three times a week, [5] every week, [4] once every two or three weeks, [3] once every month or two months, [2] once every three to six months, [1] less than once per six months, [0] not at all)

Leisure Constraint Statements

Instruct the subject to indicate the relative importance of each of the following statements by using the following scale

1 (not important), 2 (somewhat important), 3 (important), 4 (very important)

INTRAPERSONAL

1 I am more likely to do a leisure activity that my family would think is all right

2 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity that makes me feel uncomfortable

3 I am more likely to do a leisure activity that my friends thought was all right

4 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity that my co-workers did not think was all right

5 I am more likely to do a leisure activity that does not make me feel self-conscious

6 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity if I am feeling stressed

7 I am more likely to do a leisure activity that does not require a lot of skill

8 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity if I am disorganized

9 I am likely to do a leisure activity if I am feeling motivated

10 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity if I perceive that my gender would make me feel uncomfortable participating

INTERPERSONAL

1 The people I know live too far away to participate in a leisure activity with me

2 The people I know usually do not have time to participate in a leisure activity with me

3 The people I know usually are organized to participate in a leisure activity with me

4 The people I know usually have too many family obligations to participate in a leisure activity with me

5 The people I know usually know what leisure activities they could do with me

6 The people I know usually don't have transportation to get to a leisure activity with me

7 The people I know usually are healthy enough to participate in a leisure activity with me

8 The people I know usually don't have enough skills to participate in a leisure activity with me

9 The people I know usually are motivated to participate in a leisure activity with me

10 The people I know usually are too stressed to participate in a leisure activity with me

STRUCTURAL

1 I am more likely to do a leisure activity if the facilities are not crowded where I need to do the activity

2 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity if I have other commitments

3 I am more likely to do a leisure activity if I have transportation

4 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity if the facilities are not convenient where I need to do the activity

5 I am likely to do a leisure activity if it is congruent with my work role

6 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity if I do not have time

7 I am more likely to do a leisure activity if I have money

8 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity if I have work commitments

9 I am likely to do a leisure activity if I do not have a conflicting schedule

10 I am unlikely to do a leisure activity if I perceive that I will become too involved with participant issues

Closure

Thank you for participating in this study and for your candour I wish you continued success in your work If you would like, I could provide you with a copy of the final results, and you will not, of course, be mentioned by name Thank you once again

ANECDOTAL RECORD CARD

Leisure organization _____

Programmer's name _____

Address _____

City/Province _____ Postal code _____

Telephone _____ Fax _____

Programming information

A) Program area(s)/Program(s)

1 = Arts and crafts

2 = Athletics

3 = Dance

4 = Drama

5 = Hobbies and clubs

6 = Language arts

7 = Music

8 = Science and nature

9 = Social recreation

10= Volunteer services

11= Special populations

12= Other

B Participation frequency

(7) daily (6) 3x/week (5) weekly (4) every 2-3 weeks

(3) every 1-2 months (2) every 3-6 months (1) every 6+ months (0) 0

Program Area	Participation Frequency (0-7)
1) Arts and crafts	
2) Athletics	
3) Dance	
4) Drama	
5) Hobbies and clubs	
6) Language arts	
7) Music	
8) Science and nature	
9) Social recreation	
10) Volunteer services	
11) Special populations	
12) Other	

Leisure constraint statements scores

INTRAPERSONAL

1 IA1 = All right with family	1	2	3	4	_____
2 IA2 = Uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	_____
3 IA3 = All right with friends	1	2	3	4	_____
4 IA4 = Co-workers disapprove	1	2	3	4	_____
5 IA5 = Self-conscious	1	2	3	4	_____
6 IA6 = Stress	1	2	3	4	_____
7 IA7 = Skill	1	2	3	4	_____
8 IA8 = Disorganized	1	2	3	4	_____
9 IA9 = Motivation	1	2	3	4	_____
10 IA10= Gender discrimination	1	2	3	4	_____

INTERPERSONAL

1	IR1 = Others too far	1	2	3	4	_____
2	IR2 = Others' time	1	2	3	4	_____
3	IR3 = Others organized	1	2	3	4	_____
4	IR4 = Others' family obligations	1	2	3	4	_____
5	IR5 = Others know activities	1	2	3	4	_____
6	IR6 = Others' transport	1	2	3	4	_____
7	IR7 = Others' health	1	2	3	4	_____
8	IR8 = Others' skills	1	2	3	4	_____
9	IR9 = Others' motivation	1	2	3	4	_____
10	IR10= Others' stress	1	2	3	4	_____

STRUCTURAL

1 ST1 = Not crowded	1	2	3	4	_____
2 ST2 = Other commitments	1	2	3	4	_____
3 ST3 = Transport	1	2	3	4	_____
4 ST4 = Convenient	1	2	3	4	_____
5 ST5 = Work role	1	2	3	4	_____
6 ST6 = Time	1	2	3	4	_____
7 ST7 = Money	1	2	3	4	_____
8 ST8 = Work commitments	1	2	3	4	_____
9 ST9 = Schedule	1	2	3	4	_____
10 ST10= Participant issues	1	2	3	4	_____

NUMERICAL DATA RECORD CARD

Program Participation Frequency (0-7)

Subject	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	Totals	M

Intrapersonal (1-4)

Subject	IA1	IA2	IA3	IA4	IA5	IA6	IA7	IA8	IA9	IA10	Tot
Totals											

Interpersonal (1-4)

Subject	IR1	IR2	IR3	IR4	IR5	IR6	IR7	IR8	IR9	IR10	Tot
Totals											

Structural (1-4)

Subject	ST1	ST2	ST3	ST4	ST5	ST6	ST7	ST8	ST9	ST10	Tot
Totals											

APPENDIX C

DATA

This section included the analysis of data, and subjects' levels of participation and constraint scores

Step 1

Raw Data

Subject	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	Total # Program Area(s)
1	2	5	5	5	5		5	5	2	5	5	6	11
2		2							7		7	7	4
3		3										4	2
4		0											1
5		6							2		0		3
6	1		0		1		0	0	3	1	0	3	9
7	0	3	2	0	0				3	2	0	4	9
8					3				4	1	4		4
9		7							7				2
10	5	4	5	3		2	5	5	5				8
11												2	1
12		6							5			5	3
13	6	3	5	3	4		3	2	2		3		9
14		5								3		5	3
15		1							7			3	3
16		7			5				7	4	5	7	6
17		0									1	0	3
18		1									0	0	3

19	1	3	3	1	3	1	4	1	3	4		7	11
20		3					4				3	1	4
21									6	5	7	6	4
22	2	2	2	2		2	2	1	3			7	9
23	4	4	3	4					5	2	4	7	8
24	4	5	4		3				3		4	3	7
25		7			6				7	5	5	7	6
26		7					1		2				3
27											6	7	2

Table C 1

Programmers' Participation Frequency Scores

and Number of Program Area(s)

Subject	IA1	IA2	IA3	IA4	IA5	IA6	IA7	IA8	IA9	IA10
1	1	3	1	3	3	2	1	4	1	1
2	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	4	1
3	2	4	2	3	2	1	2	4	4	1
4	1	3	2	3	3	3	2	1	3	2
5	2	3	2	2	4	3	1	3	4	2
6	1	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	4	2
7	2	3	1	1	3	2	2	2	4	4
8	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	2	3	2
9	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	4	1	1
10	1	2	1	1	1	3	1	3	4	2
11	1	4	1	2	1	1	1	2	3	1
12	2	2	1	2	1	2	3	3	2	1
13	2	1	2	3	3	2	3	3	2	1
14	2	1	1	1	3	4	2	3	2	1
15	2	2	2	3	2	1	3	3	3	4
16	2	1	1	3	2	1	1	4	1	1
17	1	4	2	3	4	2	1	3	4	1
18	1	4	1	1	2	2	1	2	3	1
19	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	4	3	1
20	2	4	2	2	4	4	3	4	3	3
21	1	2	1	2	2	1	2	2	4	3
22	2	2	2	2	1	3	1	1	3	4
23	1	2	1	2	2	1	1	3	2	1
24	1	2	1	1	3	4	2	3	3	3
25	1	3	2	2	3	3	1	4	3	1
26	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	1

27	2	2	1	2	3	2	1	2	1	1

Table C 2

Intrapersonal Constraints Statement Scores

Subject	IR1	IR2	IR3	IR4	IR5	IR6	IR7	IR8	IR9	IR10
1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1	1	2	1	3	1	3	1
3	3	3	3	1	1	1	3	2	3	1
4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
5	2	3	3	3	2	2	3	2	3	3
6	2	2	3	2	3	1	4	1	3	1
7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
8	1	1	1	1	1	1	4	3	2	1
9	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
11	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1
12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1
13	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
14	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	2
15	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	1
16	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
17	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2
18	1	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	3	2
19	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1
20	1	2	2	1	2	1	2	2	3	3
21	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1
22	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
23	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1
24	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
25	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
26	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

27	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2

Table C 3

Interpersonal Constraint Statement Scores

Subject	ST1	ST2	ST3	ST4	ST5	ST6	ST7	ST8	ST9	ST10
1	1	2	4	2	1	3	1	3	4	1
2	1	4	4	1	2	3	4	2	3	1
3	2	4	3	3	2	4	2	3	3	1
4	3	4	4	3	3	4	3	4	3	3
5	4	4	4	4	3	4	2	4	4	4
6	3	4	3	3	2	4	2	4	4	3
7	3	4	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3
8	3	3	4	4	1	3	3	3	3	2
9	1	1	4	2	1	1	1	2	2	1
10	2	2	3	3	1	3	3	4	4	1
11	2	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	4	1
12	1	2	4	4	4	2	2	4	4	2
13	1	3	4	2	1	4	3	4	4	1
14	2	3	1	1	1	3	1	4	3	1
15	3	3	4	3	1	3	3	3	2	1
16	2	3	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	2
17	4	4	2	3	4	3	3	4	3	2
18	4	2	1	2	3	2	3	3	3	4
19	1	3	4	2	1	1	2	3	2	1
20	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3
21	4	2	2	3	2	3	4	3	3	3
22	3	2	2	2	4	3	2	4	4	2
23	1	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	2
24	3	3	3	3	2	4	3	4	3	1
25	1	3	3	4	3	4	2	4	3	2
26	4	1	4	1	4	1	4	1	4	1

27	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

Table C 4

Structural Constraint Statement Scores

Step 2

Instrument Measured for Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient
Leisure Constraints (Internal Consistency)	0 8517

(Measures of at least 0 7 to 0 8 are required to indicate reliability)

Table C 5

Reliability Measure of Internal Consistency of Instrument

(Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient)

Step 3A

Subject	Mean Score	Rank Order
9	7 00	1
27	6 50	2
25	6 17	3
21	6 00	4

16	5 83	5
2	5 75	6
12	5 33	7
1	4 55	8
14	4 33	9
10	4 25	10
23	4 13	11
15	3 67	12
3	3 50	13
26	3 33	14
24	3 25	15
8	3 00	16
13	2 89	17
19	2 82	18
20	2 75	19
5	2 67	20
22	2 56	21
11	2 00	22
7	1 56	23
6	1 00	24
17	0 33	25 5
18	0 33	25 5
4	0 00	27

Table C 6

Subjects' Participation (Mean Frequency Scores) and Rank Order

(Most Frequent to Least Frequent)

Variable	Correlation Coefficient	Correlation Coefficient	Correlation Coefficient	Correlation Coefficient
	Intrapersonal	Interpersonal	Structural	Participation (Mean Freq)
Intrapersonal	-	0 438	0 712	-0 381
Interpersonal	-	-	0 470	-0 284
Structural	-	-	-	-0 446
Participation (Mean Freq)	-	-	-	-

Table C 7

Matrix of Correlation Coefficients for Leisure Constraints

and Programmers' Participation (Mean Frequency Scores)

Correlated Variables	Correlation Coefficient
Leisure Constraints and Participation (Mean Freq Scores)	-0 451

Table C 8

Pearson Product Moment Coefficient of Correlation of Leisure Constraints

and Programmers' Participation (Mean Frequency Scores)

Step 3B

Subject	# of Program Area(s)	Rank Order
1	11	1 5
19	11	1 5
6	9	4 5
7	9	4 5
13	9	4 5
22	9	4 5
10	8	7 5
23	8	7 5
24	7	9
16	6	10 5
25	6	10 5
2	4	13 5
8	4	13 5
20	4	13 5
21	4	13 5
5	3	19
12	3	19
14	3	19
15	3	19
17	3	19
18	3	19
26	3	19
3	2	24
9	2	24
27	2	24

4	1	26 5
11	1	26 5

Table C 9

Subjects' Participation (Number of Program Area[s]) and Rank Order

(Most Frequent to Least Frequent)

Variable	Correlation Coefficient	Correlation Coefficient	Correlation Coefficient	Correlation Coefficient
	Intrapersonal	Interpersonal	Structural	Participation (# of Prog Area[s])
Intrapersonal	-	0 438	0 712	0 040
Interpersonal	-	-	0 470	-0 203
Structural	-	-	-	0 000
Participation (# of Prog Area[s])	-	-	-	-

Table C 10

Matrix of Correlation Coefficients for Categories of Leisure Constraints

and Programmers' Participation (Number of Program Area[s])

Correlated Variables	Correlation Coefficient
Leisure Constraints and Participation (Number of Program Area[s])	-0 059

Table C 11

Pearson Product Moment Coefficient of Correlation of Leisure Constraints

and Programmers' Participation (Number of Program Area[s])

Correlated Variables	Correlation Coefficient
Participation (Mean Freq Scores) and Participation (Number of Program Area[s])	-0 003

Table C 12

Pearson Product Moment Coefficient of Correlation of Participation

(Mean Frequency Scores) and Participation (Number of Program Area[s])

VITA

Surname Thornton-Joe Given Names Philip Wesley

Place of Birth Victoria, British Columbia, Canada

Educational Institutions Attended

University of Victoria 1976 to 1983

Degrees Awarded

Bachelor of Arts, Human Performance 1983

PARTIAL COPYRIGHT LICENSE

I hereby grant the right to lend my thesis to users of the University of Victoria Library, and to make single copies only for such users or in response to a request from a library of another university, or similar institutions, on its behalf or for one of its users I further agree that permission for extensive copying of this thesis for scholarly purposes may be granted by me or a member of the University designated by me It is understood that copying or publication of this thesis for financial gain shall not be allowed without my written permission

Title of Thesis The Impact of Leisure Constraints on Leisure Programmers' Participation in Municipal Leisure and Recreation Programs

Author

[redacted]

Philip Wesley Thornton-Joe

Date

DEC 18, 1997