

The relationship between demographic variables and leisure perceptions of selected South African first year university students

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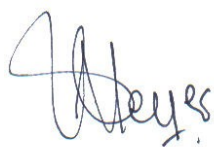
Thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree *Philosophiae Doctor* in Recreation Science at the Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West University

Promoter: Prof C du P Meyer

September 2013

DECLARATION

The co-author of the three articles, which form part of this thesis, Prof Charlé du P Meyer (promoter), hereby gives the candidate, Mr J Theron Weilbach, permission to include the three articles as part of a doctoral thesis. The contribution (advisory and supportive) of the co-author was kept within reasonable limits, thereby enabling the candidate to submit this thesis for examination purposes. The thesis therefore serves as fulfilment of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in Recreation Sciences at the Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West University.



Prof Charlé du P Meyer

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

A study such as this is impossible to complete by oneself and the contribution of various individuals is needed for it to succeed. I wish to express my sincere appreciation to a number of people who played a role in the completion of this thesis:

- My Heavenly Farther, for giving me the talents and abilities to complete this study.
- My wife, Anandi, for her interest, support and encouragement during the study, and helping me stay focussed. Without her, this journey would not have been so enjoyable.
- To my parents August and Hannalie for giving me the opportunity to attend university. Thank you for all your support and encouragement through the years.
- Dr Suria Ellis for her help with the statistical analysis of the data...and her patience in helping me understand it!
- Prof Lateef Amusa, Dr Kobus Roux, Mrs Maliga Naidoo, Mrs Brenda Coetzee, Mrs Marie Young and Mrs Bianca Els for their assistance in gathering the data at their respective universities.
- Prof Casper Lessing for ensuring that the references in the study are in accordance with the needed standard.
- Mrs Cecelia van der Walt for the language editing and professional service she has provided.
- A special thanks to my colleagues for their assistance and patience, and for taking over so much of my workload while I was busy with the study. You truly are fantastic and I am privileged to work with you.
- Last, but definitely not least, my promoter Prof Charlé Meyer who played a significant role not only in terms of the completion of this study, but also in forming me into the academic and researcher I am today. Thank you for sparking my interest in the field of leisure studies, your invaluable insight, guidance, help and friendship. May your legacy continue long after your retirement.

The opinions expressed in this study and the conclusions drawn are those of the author and are not in any way attributed to the above-mentioned persons.

The author

April 2013

“What we do during our working hours determines what we have; what we do in our leisure hours determines what we are.” George Eastman

SUMMARY

Participation in campus leisure and recreation programmes can provide university students with various benefits, but the provision of effective leisure programmes are complicated by the changes that have taken place in the demographic composition of the student population attending South African universities. Increases in the proportion of black students attending university, and decreases in the proportion of white students means that current students possibly exhibit leisure behaviours that differ from those of their predecessors. With eleven official languages in South Africa, the language diversity among students is a further issue with which leisure professionals have to contend. Students also come from different economic backgrounds, posing additional challenges to universities' leisure service providers. Since demographic factors, including culturally based perceptions and values, ethnic identity, language, religious beliefs and family structure (Outley & Witt, 2006:112) may influence leisure behaviour and preferences, it is important for leisure professionals to understand how these factors influence the perceptions students have of leisure. For purposes of this study, leisure perceptions are conceptualised to include leisure meanings, leisure experiences and leisure constraints. Due to the lack of research regarding leisure within a South African context (Goslin, 2003:39; Wegner *et al.* 2006:249) the purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between demographic variables and leisure perceptions of selected South African first-year university students. The study utilised a once off cross-sectional research design, using three research instruments, the Leisure Meanings Inventory (LMI), Leisure Experience Battery for Young Adults (LEBYA) and the leisure constraint questionnaire by Raymore *et al.* (1993:104). An availability sample was used that comprised 344 first-year students in academic programmes related to sport, leisure and recreation studies from six South African universities. Data analysis included confirmatory factor analyses, *t*-tests, ANOVA and 2-way ANOVA.

For leisure meanings, results indicate that female students are more likely to see leisure as Exercising Choice and Achieving Fulfilment than are male students. Home language also influences leisure meanings, with Afrikaans students seeing leisure as Escaping Pressure, whereas English-speaking students associate it with Passing Time. Students staying in private accommodation associated leisure more with Passing Time than those in university hostels. Furthermore, students that are in a relationship are less

likely to see leisure as Achieving Fulfilment than those that are not. For leisure experiences, white students are more aware of leisure benefits and opportunities than are black students, and experience less boredom and distress during their leisure. Additionally, white students are more aware of leisure benefits and opportunities than are Coloured students. Seeing that a lack of awareness of leisure participation benefits and opportunities often are associated with boredom, which in turn is associated with delinquent behaviour, the possibility exists that increased awareness of leisure may assist in combating delinquent behaviour among students. In terms of language, Afrikaans-speaking students and students that speak African languages experienced more challenge in their leisure than their English-speaking counterparts. This result may be either because of ethnic factors, such as traditions or customs associated with specific languages or because of language, *per se*, as proposed by the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. With regard to leisure constraints, black students experienced greater interpersonal constraints than did white students, while white students experienced greater structural constraints than did black students. Additionally, Indian students experienced more intrapersonal constraints than did black students. Students staying in university hostels experience less structural constraints than those in private accommodation. Lastly, students from rural areas/informal settlements experienced less intrapersonal and structural constraints than students that grew up in towns and cities.

The study is the first of its kind in South Africa, providing a new insight into leisure, and addressing the paucity of research within the South African context. Recommendations include the implementation of comprehensive leisure education programmes to inform students of the benefits of leisure and the opportunities available to them. In so doing, students can be assisted in negotiating constraints and in developing more complex leisure meanings. In order to meet the challenges, leisure professionals need to know how student diversity affects leisure programming; hence training of current leisure practitioners in the form of short learning programmes is suggested. Future research should include: a) modifications to the research instruments to accommodate the South African population and to increase reliability, b) replicating the study on a broader student population to provide a more detailed picture of leisure perception at South African universities, and c) using a mixed-method research design, including both quantitative and qualitative methods for gathering data.

[Key words: Leisure, meanings, experience, constraints, South Africa, demographic variables]

OPSOMMING

Deelname aan kampus vryetyd- en rekreasieprogramme kan verskeie voordele aan universiteitstudente bied, maar die voorsiening van effektiewe vryetydsprogramme word bemoeilik deur 'n verandering wat plaasgevind het in die demografiese samestelling van die studentepopulasie wat Suid-Afrikaanse universiteite bywoon. 'n Toename in die proporsie swart studente wat universiteite bywoon en 'n afname in die proporsie wit studente beteken dat huidige studente moontlike vryetydsgedrag openbaar wat verskil van dié van hul voorgangers. Met elf amptelike tale in Suid-Afrika is die taaldiversiteit 'n bykomende kwessie waarmee vryetydskenner rekening moet hou. Studente is ook afkomstig uit verskillende ekonomiese agtergronde, wat verdere uitdagings aan die leweraars van universiteite se vryetydsdienste stel. Aangesien demografiese faktore, insluitend kulturele persepsies en waardes, etniese identiteit, taal, geloofsoortuigings en familiestruktuur (Outley & Witt, 2006:112), vryetydsgedrag en -voorkeure kan beïnvloed, is dit belangrik dat vryetydpraktisyns moet verstaan hoe hierdie faktore studente se persepsies van vryetyd beïnvloed. Vir doeleindes van hierdie studie word vryetydspersepsies so gekonseptualiseer dat dit die betekenis van vryetyd, vryetydservaring en vryetydshindernisse in die weg van vryetydsdeelname insluit. Weens die gebrek aan navorsing rakende vryetyd binne 'n Suid-Afrikaanse konteks (Goslin, 2003:39; Wegner *et al.*, 2006:249) was die doel van hierdie studie om die verhouding tussen demografiese veranderlikes en vryetydspersepsies van geselekteerde Suid-Afrikaanse eerstejaar- universiteitstudente te bepaal. Die studie het gebruik gemaak van 'n eenmalige dwars-deursnit navorsingsontwerp deur drie navorsingsinstrumente te gebruik, naamlik die "Leisure Meanings Inventory" (LMI), "Leisure Experience Battery for Young Adults" (LEBYA), en die vryetydhindernis meetinstrument van Raymore *et al.* (1993:104). 'n Besikikbaarheidstreekproef is gebruik wat bestaan het uit 344 eerstejaarstudente uit akademiese programme wat verband hou met sport, rekreasie en vryetydstudies van ses Suid-Afrikaanse universiteite. Data-ontleding het bevestigende faktoranalises, *t*-toetse, ANOVA en 2-rigting ANOVA ingesluit.

Vir die betekenis van vryetyd het die resultate aangedui dat damestudente meer geneig is om vryetyd as geleentheid om keuses uit te oefen en vervulling te bereik te beskou as

manstudente. Huistaal het ook 'n invloed op die betekenis van vryetyd gehad, met Afrikaanse studente wat vryetyd meer as 'n geleentheid beskou om van spanning en druk te ontsnap, terwyl Engelse studente vryetyd beskou as 'n geleentheid om tyd te verwy. Studente wat in private verblyf woon het vryetyd meer geassosieer met geleentheid om tyd te verwy as studente in universiteitskoshuise. Verder het studente wat nie in 'n verhouding betrokke is nie 'n groter geneigdheid gehad om vryetyd te beskou as 'n geleentheid om vervulling te bereik as studente wat in 'n verhouding betrokke is. Met betrekking tot vryetydservarings is blanke studente meer bewus van die voordele verbonde aan vryetyd en die beskikbare vryetydsgeleenthede en ervaar ook minder verveeldheid en spanning gedurende hul vryetyd as swart studente. Bykomend is blanke studente meer bewus van die voordele verbonde aan vryetyd en die beskikbare vryetydsgeleenthede as gekleurde studente. Aangesien 'n gebrek aan bewustheid van die voordele verbonde aan en geleenthede vir vryetydsdeelname dikwels geassosieer word met verveeldheid, wat ook met negatiewe gedrag geassosieer word, bestaan die moontlikheid dat verhoogde bewustheid van vryetydsvoordele en vryetydsgeleenthede daartoe kan meewerk om negatiewe gedrag onder studente teen te werk. Wat betref taal ervaar Afrikaanse studente meer uitdaging in hul vryetyd as Engelse studente. Dit kan toegeskryf word aan óf etniese faktore, soos tradisies en gewoontes wat met 'n spesifieke taal geassosieer word, óf taal, *per se*, soos voorgestel deur die Sapir-Whorf-hipotese. Met verwysing na vryetydshindernisse ervaar swart studente meer interpersoonlike hindernisse as blanke studente, terwyl blanke studente meer strukturele hindernisse ervaar as swart studente. Verder ervaar Indiërstudente meer intrapersoonlike hindernisse as swart studente. Studente wat in universiteitskoshuise woon, ervaar minder strukturele hindernisse as dié wat in private akkommodasie woon. Laastens ervaar studente wat in landelike gebiede/informele nedersettings grootgeword het minder intrapersoonlike en strukturele hindernisse as studente wat in stede of dorpe grootgeword het.

Die studie is die eerste van sy soort in Suid-Afrika en benewens die feit dat dit nuwe insig rakende vryetyd bied, ondervang dit ook die gebrek aan navorsing binne 'n Suid-Afrikaanse konteks. Aanbevelings sluit die implementering van omvattende vryetydsonderrig-programme om studente in te lig oor die voordele verbonde aan vryetyd en ook die vryetydgeleenthede wat beskikbaar is, in. Op hierdie wyse kan studente ook gehelp word om vryetydshindernisse te oorkom en ook om meer

komplekse betekenis aan vryetyd te heg. Ten einde hierin te slaag moet voorsieners van vryetydsdienste bewus wees van hoe studente se diversiteit 'n impak het op vryetydsprogrammering; gevolglik word opleiding van huidige vryetydpraktisyns in die vorm van kort leerprogramme aanbeveel. Toekomstige navorsing moet onder andere fokus op a) aanpassings aan die navorsingsinstrumente om Suid-Afrikaanse populasies te akkommodeer en die betroubaarheid daarvan te verhoog, b) die studie op 'n breër studentepopulasie te herhaal om 'n beter beeld van vryetydspersies by Suid-Afrikaanse universiteite te kry, en c) die gebruik van 'n gemengde-metode navorsingsontwerp wat beide kwalitatiewe- en kwantitatiewe metodes vir data-insameling insluit.

[Sleutel terme: Vryetyd, vryetydspersies, vryetydservaring, hindernisse, Suid-Afrika, demografiese veranderlikes]

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CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM STATEMENT, GOALS AND STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

1.1. Problem statement

1.2. Goals

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1.1. PROBLEM STATEMENT

A number of significant challenges face South African first-year university students and the transition from school to university can be a source of stress to them (Bojuwoye, 2002:278). Firstly, first-year students are generally 19 years old, and although they are still considered adolescents and old enough to legally gamble and be served alcohol, they are also in a transitory stage; entering the world of young adulthood (Parade *et al.*, 2010:127). Additionally, during the transition to university, students move away from home, live in university residences or in communal homes with friends and often pay more attention to their social lives than to their academic responsibilities (Sylvia-Bobiak & Caldwell, 2006:86). First year university students also experience an increase in freedom with less or no adult supervision and less structured schedules than during their school years, resulting in increased control and responsibility regarding their leisure choices (Sylvia-Bobiak & Caldwell, 2006:74; Bloemhoff, 2010:25) as they are introduced to increased opportunities to engage in a whole range of leisure activities (Hickerson & Beggs, 2007). As changes in leisure behaviour are most likely to occur during stages of transition (Raymore *et al.*, 2001:198), exploration and risk-taking are common during this stage (Geller & Greenberg, 2010:95) and can influence leisure behaviour. Unfortunately, this experimentation can also lead to negative and delinquent behaviour (Caldwell *et al.*, 2004:331) such as vandalism, unhealthy sexual

experimentation and alcohol and drug use, as indicated by Shinew and Parry (2005:364) who suggest that alcohol and drug use are considered to be some of the popular leisure activities among university students.

Despite the fact that first-year university students share certain commonalities, not all first-year students are the same, and therefore cannot be clumped together and seen as a homogenous group in society. With regard to leisure, factors such as culturally based perceptions and values, ethnic identity, language, religious beliefs and family structure (Outley & Witt, 2006:112) are some that can account for differences in their leisure behaviour. In this regard Sasidharan (2002:1) states that a specific concern for the delivery of recreation services lies in the extent to which demographic factors influence recreation behaviour. From a South African perspective, this concern regarding the influence of demographic factors on leisure behaviour is highlighted by Wegner *et al.* (2006:250) who state that, “because of our unique historical, political and socio-cultural context, it is important that culturally relevant research be undertaken in order to establish knowledge that has implication for leisure policies and service provision.” Within the context of South African universities, a demographic shift is occurring in the student composition at all South African universities, with formerly white, Coloured and Indian universities experiencing increased enrolment by students that speak African languages (Council on Higher Education, 2001:4). Additionally, although racial integration has occurred at the more affluent educational institutions, such as universities (Pattman, 2007:473), many of the students that attend university are economically and educationally disadvantaged (Petersen *et al.*, 2009:99), adding to the diversity of the student population. Based on the previous discussion it is apparent that in terms of the delivery of leisure services an understanding is needed of how demographic diversity at South African universities can account for differences in the leisure behaviour of students.

As the focus of this study is on the relationship between demographic variables and leisure perceptions among selected South African first-year university students, it is important to understand the meanings of the term *leisure perceptions*. For purposes of this study, the term *leisure perceptions* will be conceptualised as an umbrella term that includes factors such as leisure meanings, leisure experiences and leisure constraints. This use of the term leisure perceptions is similar to that of Harrington and Dawson

(1995:10) who considered factors such as the meaning of leisure, leisure experiences and perceived leisure constraints to determine leisure perceptions.

Because leisure means different things to different people (Schulz, 2001:39; Edginton *et al.*, 2004:6; Demir, 2005:122), the meanings people attach to leisure can play an important role in their leisure and recreation behaviour. Various views exist regarding the meaning of leisure and as the field of leisure research developed, two distinct approaches to the definition of leisure emerged. In the first approach leisure is defined in an objective manner that is concerned with observable behaviour and viewed objectively as the contrast to work, leisure as free-time or non-work time, or doing specific activities (Lee *et al.*, 1994:195; Schulz, 2001:45; Hunnicutt, 2006:56; Kelly, 2012:19; Cordes, 2013:4). Although this approach to leisure has the advantage of enabling one to quantify, measure, and distinguish leisure time from obligated time, doubt has been cast over the use of time as a sole measure of leisure, for the definition of leisure as time “would empty it from its content” (Zuzanek, 2006:185). The criticism regarding this approach is, firstly, the blurred distinction between what constitutes work and non-work activities. Secondly, defining leisure as an activity poses a problem, as it does not consider the context of the activity or that people may experience leisure activities differently - what is leisure for one person is not always leisure for another. Based on these shortcomings a subjective approach to leisure emerged, concentrating on leisure as a state of mind or a psychological experience (Kelly, 2012:22; Cordes, 2013:5). This implies that a person must *experience* leisure during free-time. In this regard Rojek (1989:1) states that “leisure is consistently associated with positive experiences: liberty, fulfilment, choice and growth”, supporting the notion that a certain state of mind is necessary for leisure to occur. However, problems regarding these discussions are that the meaning of leisure is a product moulded by society and that, as cultural and socio-economic conditions change, the meaning individuals attach to leisure also changes (Fontenelle & Zinkhan, 1993:535; Kelly & Kelly, 1994:273; Schulz, 2001:57). Therefore, although it is important to academically debate the meaning of leisure, these academic meanings of leisure do not necessarily conform to the meanings used by participants. In this regard, Parr and Lashua (2004:1) suggest that the public’s understanding of leisure should be determined in order to ensure that suitable leisure services are delivered. On this point Kelly and Kelly (1994:251) raise the question whether there is a universal meaning to leisure, or whether it is influenced

by gender, philosophical and religious views or historical background. A partial answer to this question is found in research by Schulz (2001:215) who determined that within an Australian sample, meanings of leisure were largely unaffected by religion, but that gender did influence the meaning of leisure as women were more likely to see leisure as passing time than men. These findings indicate the possibility that different sub-groups in a community can attach different meanings to leisure. However, the influences of demographic factors on the meanings of leisure are largely unexplored, emphasising a lack of research in this field of leisure studies.

Closely related to the discussion regarding the meaning of leisure, and the fact that leisure is seen as a psychological experience, studies by Caldwell *et al.* (1992:374) and Barnett (2005:151) suggest it is possible that, as the meanings people attach to leisure are influenced by demographic factors, this may also be the case with the leisure experiences of individuals. Both above-mentioned studies also call for more investigation regarding the way leisure experience could be a product of demographic background. Regarding leisure experiences, research has shown that individuals may not always experience leisure positively as aspects such as boredom or anxiety can also be experienced during leisure. Research found that, although leisure was experienced as enjoyable, providing freedom of choice, autonomy, aesthetic appreciation, companionship, escape, intimacy and relaxation, enjoyment and fun, at times leisure was also associated with exhaustion, apprehension, nervousness, disappointment, frustration, stress, fatigue, feelings of guilt, fearfulness and being unsettled (Tinsley *et al.*, 1993:453; Lee *et al.*, 1994:196; Coble *et al.*, 2003:9). Despite knowing how leisure is experienced, how leisure experiences are influenced by demographic factors, especially within the South African context, are largely unexplored (Goslin, 2003:39) and warrants research into this important field of study.

Furthermore, constraints can play a role in the leisure behaviour of individuals by influencing attitudes, preferences for leisure activities and actual participation (Crawford *et al.*, 1991:313). According to Raymore *et al.* (1994:100), constraints can be defined as “something that limits or inhibits an individual’s ultimate participation in a leisure activity”. Although the terms “constraints” and “barriers” are often used interchangeably, it is important to differentiate between these two terms. Whereas constraints are seen as reasons for not engaging in an activity that can be overcome or reduced (Raymore *et al.*, 1994:100), barriers are seen as factors which intervene between preferences for an

activity and the actual participation in the activity, often inhibiting participation (Crawford *et al.*, 1991:311). For purposes of this study, constraints will be based on the widely used (e.g. Chick & Dong, 2003:338; Walker *et al.*, 2007:585) and most recognised (Shores *et al.*, 2007:228) constraints theory by Crawford *et al.* (1991:313) suggesting a constraints hierarchy consisting of three levels, namely intrapersonal constraints, interpersonal constraints and structural constraints. Intrapersonal constraints are seen as the first level of constraints to be overcome and refer to personal attitudes and preferences. The second level, interpersonal constraints refer to social interaction, or the lack thereof, that can influence leisure participation. The last level, and the most tangible and observable factor that determines recreation behaviour, is structural constraints. These include factors such as availability and accessibility of leisure opportunities, and lack of time or money. With regard to these three levels of constraints, Jackson (2000:64) contends that different sub-groups in the community not only experience varying intensities of each type of constraint, but also varying combinations of constraints. These discussions indicate that it is possible for different demographic and geographical backgrounds, unequal access to recreation resources, and personal and social preferences to lead to differences in the recreation behaviour of communities.

Based on these discussions, the aim of this study is to determine the relationship between of demographic variables and 1) meanings first-year university students attach to leisure, 2) the qualitative nature of first-year university students' leisure experiences and 3) first-year university students' perceived intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints relating to leisure behaviour. The need for research regarding the leisure perceptions and experiences are twofold. Firstly, from a South African perspective, Wegner *et al.* (2006:249) state that there is a distinct shortcoming in leisure research from developing countries such as South Africa. Furthermore, limited research studies in South Africa focussed on constraints research (Goslin, 2003:39). Compared to the abundance of research available internationally, a deficiency is revealed in this field of research in South African. From above statements, it is clear that there is a dire need for leisure research that will not only improve our understanding of leisure behaviour, but will also help in improving the delivery of leisure services. Shinew and Parry (2005:365), who state that a paucity regarding the leisure of university students exists, highlight the second need for this type of research.

Results from this study may contribute to understanding not only what university students do during their leisure, but also how they feel, think about, and experience leisure. In addition, research regarding the leisure perceptions and experiences of first-year students, and the influence of demographic factors on it, is important for a number of reasons. Firstly, from a service delivery point of view, by understanding the leisure perceptions and experiences of first year students, leisure programmes and opportunities can be designed to reduce the prevalence of negative and delinquent leisure behaviour. Additionally, understanding factors that influence the leisure perceptions and experiences of first-year students provides opportunity for universities to provide additional leisure education programmes to students in order to promote lifelong healthy and constructive leisure participation.

1.2. GOALS

The goals of this study are to:

1.2.1. Determine whether relationships exist between demographic variables and the meanings attached to leisure by selected South African first-year university students.

1.2.2. Determine whether relationships exist between demographic variables and the nature of leisure experiences of selected South African first-year university students.

1.2.3. Determine whether relationships exist between demographic variables and perceived intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural leisure constraints of selected South African first-year university students.

1.3. HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1: Relationships exist between demographic variables and the meanings attached to leisure by selected South African first-year university students.

Hypothesis 2: Relationships exist between demographic variables and the nature of leisure experiences of selected South African first-year university students.

Hypothesis 3: Relationships exist between demographic variables and perceived intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural leisure constraints of selected South African first-year university students.

1.4. STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

This thesis will be structured as follows:

Chapter 1: Problem statement, goals and structure of the study. References for this chapter will be in accordance with guidelines of the NWU.

Chapter 2: A review of factors affecting the leisure perceptions and leisure behaviour of individuals. References for this chapter will be in accordance with guidelines of the NWU.

Chapter 3: 1st Article: *“Leisure meanings of selected first-year university students: a South African perspective”*. To be submitted for publication in the *South African journal for research in sport, physical education and recreation*. The structure of this article will be in accordance with the guidelines of the *South African journal for research in sport, physical education and recreation*.

Chapter 4: 2nd Article: *“The relationship between demographic variables and leisure experiences of selected South African first-year university students: Implications for service delivery”*. To be submitted for publication in *South African journal for research in sport, physical education and recreation*. The structure of this article will be in accordance with the guidelines of the *South African journal for research in sport, physical education and recreation*.

Chapter 5: 3rd Article: *“The relationship between demographic variables and leisure constraints of selected South African first-year university students”*. To be submitted for publication in the *South African journal for research in sport, physical education and recreation*. The structure of this article will be in accordance with the guidelines of the *South African journal for research in sport, physical education and recreation*.

Chapter 6: Summary, conclusion and recommendations. References for this chapter will be in accordance with guidelines of the NWU.

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CHAPTER 2

A REVIEW OF FACTORS AFFECTING THE LEISURE PERCEPTIONS AND LEISURE BEHAVIOUR OF INDIVIDUALS

- 2.1. Introduction: leisure in the lives of university students
 - 2.2. Theoretical foundations of leisure: what is leisure?
 - 2.3. Leisure behaviour theories
 - 2.4. The influence of demographic factors on leisure behaviour
 - 2.5. Leisure perceptions
 - 2.6. Conclusion
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2.1. INTRODUCTION: LEISURE IN THE LIVES OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Transition from adolescence to young adulthood is an important stage of life (Geller & Greenberg, 2010:92) and attending university plays a critical part in this transition (Sivan, 2003:130). In this regard, Daugherty and Lane (1999:359) mention that students often drop out of university due to feelings of stress and alienation. Leisure can play an important role in combating negative experiences during this time, as research has shown that students that participate in leisure activities (such as campus recreation programmes and intramural sport) perform better academically (e.g. higher grade point averages) (Huesman *et al.*, 2007:10; Todd *et al.*, 2009:51; Gibbison *et al.*, 2011:252), demonstrate better retention (Belch *et al.*, 2001:261), as well as reduced stress (Iwasaki, 2003:51), while social benefits include better social skills and stronger feelings of belonging (Artinger *et al.*, 2006:78; Henderson, 2010:39).

Literature has also shown that leisure contributes to benefits in other life areas, such as physical, emotional and psychological health. For example, physical benefits relating to active leisure are well documented, including enhanced physical fitness (Cheng *et al.*, 2011:330), lower body mass index as well as increased health (Miller *et al.*, 2008:93;

Todd *et al.*, 2009:49), lower fat intake and less smoking (Todd *et al.*, 2009:49). Haskell *et al.* (2009:282) additionally conclude that increased physical active leisure may reduce the occurrence of chronic disease and enhance functional capacity. Similarly, with regard to the physiological effects of active leisure, Stumbo and Peterson (2004:8) mention that an overview of literature indicates various health benefits such as a reduction of blood pressure and heart disease, as well as improved bone density, heart rate and joint mobility. Hutchinson and Brooks (2011:7-8) additionally found that leisure participation can lead to added ability to cope with stress, decreased anxiety and depression, increased self-esteem and reduced drug use. More benefits of leisure were also found by Ellis *et al.* (2002:57) who report that leisure participation contributes to higher levels of quality of life, as well as increased happiness. However, the benefits of leisure are not only limited to individuals as relationships and friendships formed during leisure can also lead to stronger cultural identity and stronger community cohesion, and although these benefits are possible for a community as a whole (Edginton, 2006:109), the possibility exists that these benefits can also be attained in sub-communities, such as among university students.

Although participation in leisure during university attendance has certain distinct benefits, university attendance in itself may, according to Raymore *et al.* (2001:200), promote positive socially valued leisure, as well as less acceptable forms of leisure behaviour. First-year students are faced with increased freedom and control over their leisure, and different patterns of free time availability and exposure to new leisure activities can lead to influences on leisure behaviour (Hickerson & Beggs, 2007). The possibility exists that due to a lack of leisure-related skills and inability to successfully manage leisure, some first-year students may exhibit deviant leisure behaviour, such as engaging in risky sexual experimentation and substance abuse, and in consuming alcohol (Witt & Crompton, 2002:65; Shinew & Parry, 2005:364). Therefore, in order to ensure that adolescents engage in positive leisure activities, Lee *et al.* (1994:196) state that leisure professionals “must facilitate leisure experiences, rather than merely provide recreation opportunities”. This statement is supported by Mahoney *et al.* (2001:518) who highlight the importance of programmed leisure opportunities by reporting that higher levels of participation in low-structured recreation activities, or programmes with little or no supervision, correlated with higher levels of delinquent adolescent behaviour. Given the importance of providing first-year students with opportunities for developing

the skills and knowledge to cope with the stresses and challenges they experience and to fill their free time with constructive activities, it is critical for leisure professionals to recognise the trends, issues and problems faced by students with regard to leisure behaviour, and provide leisure and recreation programmes that will assist students in meeting and addressing the challenges they experience (Caldwell, 2005:25). Additionally, to facilitate leisure experiences and provide meaningful recreation opportunities, it is important to have a solid understanding of how and why adolescents engage in leisure and recreation activities.

In order to create a contextual framework for the rest of this chapter, the following section explains the concept *leisure* as well as how it has evolved over time.

2.2. THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS: WHAT IS LEISURE?

Edginton *et al.* (2004:6), Godbey (2008:2) and Cordes (2013:1) explain that the idea of leisure is complicated and diverse with the meanings and definitions attached to it changing and evolving over the centuries. The reason for this is that leisure, and the meanings societies and individuals attach to it, are to a large degree dependent on factors such as cultural norms, customs and values that vary between people, places and time (Edginton & Chen, 2008:6; Russell, 2009:4). In an attempt to understand the complex nature of leisure, it is at this stage of the discussion important to distinguish between definitions of leisure and the meaning of leisure. For purposes of this study, definitions of leisure refer to statements that attempt to clarify the term *leisure* and determine certain “universal” conditions that need to be met in order for leisure to occur. In contrast, the meaning of leisure refers to the feelings of value and importance as well as the role leisure plays in the lives of individuals and societies. In order to grasp the concept *leisure*, the history of leisure together with different definitions of leisure is subsequently discussed.

2.2.1. Historical perspectives

In order to understand the term *leisure*, and all connotations to it, it is important to investigate the history of leisure, and how leisure has changed since its conception. Consistently throughout history, leisure has been identified and examined based on its contrast to work (Hunnicut, 2006:56) and the birth of this modern notion can be found in Ancient Greece. Leisure was born with the rise of slavery and mastery over workers in

Greece. The privileged upper class had the means to own slaves that worked for them, and as a result, was able to live a life free from toil and labour. In contrast, their slaves had to perform all the work and labour in order to make a living and were largely deprived from leisure (McLean *et al.*, 2008:34; Kelly, 2012:151). It must be noted, however, that even slaves had a certain degree of leisure – time during the day when they were left unsupervised or when they retired to their quarters after the day's work (Hunnicut, 2006:60). From this birth of leisure, it is clear that leisure was seen as the contrast to work and was to a large degree reserved for the privileged. During this period of history, leisure of the privileged upper class was not associated with doing nothing or being inactive, but considered a means to the good life. Virtuous use of leisure implied playing sports, reading, engaging in philosophy and discourse and engaging in music in order to achieve personal growth and perfection in these activities. Stokowski (1994:4) and Kelly (2012:152) point out that these leisure undertakings were not merely for personal growth and enjoyment – it was required of those privileged enough to have leisure, to contribute to society through the application of their knowledge and virtues. However, despite the important role leisure played in Greek society, Kelly (2012:151) insists that it came at a great cost to the less privileged, and with reference to modern times, questions whether the availability of leisure still depends on the existence of less privileged people (based on race, ethnicity, economic status) that have limited leisure opportunities.

With the rise of the Roman Empire from 200 BC, leisure took on a new meaning (Russell, 2009:17). With the expansion of the empire and a growing middle class, leisure played a more utilitarian role and mass leisure was implemented to keep the population satisfied and entertained (Stokowski, 1994:5). Kelly (2012:154) indicates that, unlike the Greeks, Romans viewed leisure as consumption and entertainment and used it as a political instrument – to maintain political stability and structure by giving the majority of the population something to do. This mass leisure took the form of various spectacles in which the middle class acted as spectators. The entertainment ranged from public competitions to re-enactments of famous battles to violent gladiatorial battles. The growth in these kinds of events led to increased expenditure to host such events and had a negative effect on populations and their culture (Russell, 2009:18). Today the Roman concept of leisure serves as an example of inappropriate leisure due to the effect it had on the population and culture as a whole. With regard to modern

times Kelly (2012:155) notes that concerns can be raised regarding any society that makes the provision of mass entertainment a priority, be it through entertainment or goods to be purchased, as it removes elements of expression and active participation from leisure, and replaces it with entertainment to fill free time. Genoe *et al.* (2013:25) raise a similar concern by stating that it is possible that the rapid increase in obesity can be attributed to modern societies' increased focus on mass leisure and entertainment instead of active participatory leisure activities.

The next major change in the concept *leisure* occurred during the Middle Ages with the emergence of the work ethic (Russell, 2009:23). During this period, the Catholic Church became the most important force in guiding and managing society (Russell, 2009:23). According to the church, man was made with a calling and, although deeds and hard work could not ensure salvation, a higher quality of life can be attained through hard work (Hunnicut, 2006:69). This view saw leisure as idleness and an opportunity to engage in other sins and leisure was, thus, against the church's teachings as it withheld people from their moral obligation to work (Russell, 2009:25). Whereas previously work was regarded as inferior to leisure, and only a means to attain leisure, the birth of the Protestant work ethic sees a reversal in these roles, with work being seen as the highest purpose in life. The idea of work being the highest priority is still evident in our modern era, and although this is still evident today, the religious connotations have faded and disappeared with financial gain now being the main concern. The shift in the value of time and work is easily understood when one considers the statement by Zuzanek (2006:187) that time is not valued "for its own sake as a source of wisdom, serenity and redemption, but rather as an opportunity to produce, save, invest and succeed".

2.2.2. Definitions of leisure

Based on the previous discussions, a number of questions regarding leisure arise. Is leisure indeed inferior to work, or should leisure be seen as the opportunity for self-development and a higher quality of life? Furthermore, with all the changes in the meaning of leisure: Is it in fact possible to define leisure? The following section of this chapter attempts to highlight certain developments in defining leisure and to provide a definition of *leisure* that will be used as a guideline for this study.

Various authors such as Edginton and Chen (2008:6), Godbey (2008:4), Russell (2009:24) and Cordes (2013:5) indicate that leisure has been defined, for most part, in terms of three very different viewpoints, namely leisure as time, leisure as activity and leisure as a state of mind. **Leisure as free time** has at its base the notion that a day consists of a limited 24 hours which an individual must fill with various activities, ranging from work to sustenance activities such as eating and sleeping. The time left in the day after these obligatory tasks have been completed is referred to as discretionary time and can be seen as leisure (Cordes, 2013:4). However, although this approach provides the opportunity to quantify free time, the question arises as to the degree of freedom during that time (Kelly, 2012:20). Is it possible to have time free when all obligations have been met? Furthermore, Zuzanek (2006:185) states that leisure is more than just discretionary time and that defining leisure as time would “empty it of its content”. Kelly and Godbey (1992:17) suggest that time should rather be considered a dimension of leisure, while Kelly (2012:20) insists that the defining factor in seeing leisure as free time relates to the quality of the time, specifically the presence of freedom of choice, and not by simply seeing leisure as a quantity of time. Therefore, although free time is an important dimension of leisure, leisure cannot be defined as free time.

Leisure as an activity suggests that leisure can be seen as participation in activities that helps one to relax or re-create oneself (Russell, 2009:26). It suggests that there are a number of activities that can be done in one’s free time and that can be identified as leisure activities. These activities are usually seen as the antithesis of compulsory work. However, this approach to leisure has certain shortcomings. As an example, activities can be regarded as leisure in a certain situation (playing golf) and in another situation as work (playing golf with clients) (Godbey, 2008:5; Russell, 2009:27). By defining leisure as specific activities, it is impossible to theoretically define what leisure is, as knowing the reasons for choosing to participate in an activity is needed to distinguish whether or not it is leisure (Kelly, 2012:22). In this regard, the early leisure sociologist Dumazedier (1974:68) states that “leisure is not a category but a style of behaviour...Any activity may become leisure”. Additionally, Kelly (2012:21) mentions that the freedom dimension is the primary determinant of leisure and that it is the quality of the leisure experience, and not the activity self, that makes it leisure. Therefore, the paucity in defining leisure as an activity is that it does not consider the experience an

individual has during engagement in the activity. However, Kelly (2012:19) points out one important aspect of leisure and that is the fact that leisure is dependent on an individual doing something – leisure is therefore not merely idleness or doing nothing.

The last approach to defining leisure is to define **leisure as a state of mind**. Godbey (2008:27) asserts that time and activity are irrelevant in the definition of leisure as it is only the subjective feelings, or state of mind, of the individual that determines whether leisure occurs. A feeling closely associated with this state of mind is perceived freedom. This term focuses on the ability of the individual to freely choose to take part in an activity without being obligated or forced to do so. Important in this context is the word *perceived*. As society, time or financial constraints are always present, one can never be totally free to do what one likes, but the perception of freedom – the feeling that one is free – is of importance in this definition of leisure. In this regard, Russell (2009:33) notes that perceived freedom can refer either to freedom “from” (e.g. freedom from work) or freedom “to” (e.g. freedom to choose). Both freedom “from” and freedom “to”, form part of the definition of leisure as a state of mind. Although this approach to defining leisure expands on the notion of leisure merely being free time or a specific set of activities, it cannot be used in isolation to define leisure. In order to come to understand what leisure is and to clarify the concept *leisure* for purposes of this study, leisure is broadly defined as:

“That portion of an individual’s time that is not directly devoted to work or work-connected responsibilities or to other obligated forms of maintenance or self-care. Leisure implies freedom and choice and is customarily used in a variety of ways, but chiefly to meet one’s personal needs for reflection, self-enrichment, relaxation, or pleasure. While it usually involves some form of participation in a voluntarily chosen activity, it may also be regarded as a holistic state of being or even a spiritual experience.” (McLean et al., 2008:39)

Based on the above discussions it is clear that definitions of leisure have changed over time. However, although it is important to theoretically define leisure as a concept and identify components that contribute towards experiencing leisure, Parr and Lashua (2004:2) note that it is more important to determine the public’s understanding, definitions and meanings of leisure in order to provide suitable leisure services.

2.3. LEISURE BEHAVIOUR THEORIES

Henderson *et al.* (2004:414) argue that in order to broaden our understanding of leisure, considering theories that relate to leisure is important. Unfortunately, according to Edginton *et al.* (2004:100), the study of leisure behaviour is approached from different disciplines such as psychology, sociology and anthropology, making it a complex field of study. Because of the different disciplines involved in studying leisure, Kelly (1998:157) warns against the use of theories from other disciplines by stating, “*Any field with a social-behavioral science base needs scholars who are in the disciplines rather than those who merely use them*”. As the current study is not a study from a psychological, sociological or anthropological field, but from the field of leisure studies, theories applicable to understanding leisure behaviour are briefly discussed in order to provide a background to understanding the complex nature of leisure behaviour. In this regard popular theories used by leisure researchers to understand leisure behaviour are discussed, namely the Self-determination Theory (SDT), the Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB).

2.3.1. Self-determination theory (SDT)

The self-determination theory (SDT), developed by Ryan and Deci in 1985, is a general theory of human motivation and has often been used within the contexts of sport, health, physical activity and work (Farmanbar *et al.*, 2011:58; Ng *et al.*, 2012:325). The SDT explains motivation based on three psychological needs, namely autonomy, competence and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000a:68; Ng *et al.*, 2012:326). Autonomy refers to the need of an individual to initiate and determine one’s own behaviour. Competence refers to the perception an individual has regarding the application of certain behaviour in order to achieve desired outcomes. Relatedness refers to the need to be part of satisfactory and supportive relationships (Ryan & Deci, 2000a:71; Ng *et al.*, 2012:326; Zhang & Solomon, 2013:62). The SDT makes provision for the fact that different factors, both internal and external, can motivate individuals to act and that individuals not only exhibit different levels of motivation but also different types of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000b:54). Intrinsic motivation (which is a concept closely related to the definition of leisure) can be seen as “*the inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one’s capacities, to explore, and to*

learn” (Ryan & Deci, 2000a:70) and it was found that situations that facilitate feelings of perceived competence, led to increases in intrinsic motivation.

Furthermore, experiencing competence was not enough for intrinsic motivation to be present, as autonomy, where a person is able to determine his or her own behaviour, also needed to be part of the experience (Ryan & Deci, 2000a:70). Additionally, Ryan and Deci (2000a:70) mention that because of factors such as tangible rewards, threats, deadlines and imposed goals, intrinsic motivation will diminish. In terms of understanding this theory within the context of leisure, research by Chatzisarantis and Hagger (2009:31) compared the effectiveness of a school-based intervention to increase leisure time physical activity based on the tenets of the SDT against a similar intervention that was less supportive of autonomy. Results indicated that not only did the pupils in the intervention based on the SDT find physical education to be an enjoyable and important subject, but that it also increased their leisure time physical activity, whereas this was not the case for the intervention with less support for autonomy (Chatzisarantis & Hagger, 2009:42-44).

2.3.2. Social cognitive theory (SCT)

The social cognitive theory (SCT) was developed by Bandura in 1985 and is valuable in that it identifies factors such as behavioural, personal and environmental factors that influence an individual’s behaviour (Bandura, 1986:18; Kim, 2008:24; Nehl *et al.*, 2012:12; Ramirez *et al.*, 2012:304). Four constructs form part of the SCT, namely social institution (social support and encouragement) , self-efficacy (the confidence and belief in one’s own ability to perform a behaviour and overcome barriers) (Winters *et al.*, 2003:437; Nehl *et al.*, 2012:12), outcome expectation (the individual’s belief regarding the cost and benefits of the behaviour) (Winters *et al.*, 2003:438; Ramirez *et al.*, 2012:304) and self-regulation (the personal regulation of goal-directed behaviour) (Winters *et al.*, 2003:438).

Research by Hartz and Petosa (2008:306) implemented an intervention to promote physical activity by addressing these four variables of the SCT and found that the intervention had an effect on self-regulation and social situation, and that it mediated increases in physical activity. Winters *et al.* (2003:437) also focussed on the social situation, self-efficacy, outcome expectations and self-regulation and found that

outcome expectation and self-regulation were related to moderate and vigorous non-school physical activity. These researchers also concluded that although in their study self-efficacy had no effect on non-school physical activity, it might be related to overcoming barriers to physical activity. As can be seen from leisure research utilising this theory, increased participation in leisure can be achieved when outcome expectation, self-regulation and social situation are addressed by leisure programmes.

2.3.3. Theory of planned behaviour (TPB)

The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) has been used with success to predict and explain human behaviour such as participation in leisure and physical activities (Ajzen & Driver, 1992:207; Chatzisarantis & Biddle, 1998:304; Hagger *et al.*, 2002:25; Latimer & Martin Ginis, 2005:393; Walker *et al.*, 2006:244; Hobbs *et al.*, 2013:246). A central factor to the TPB is intention, which refers to the amount of energy, effort and commitment an individual is prepared to expend in order to perform a certain task (Ajzen & Driver, 1992:208; Armitage, 2005:235). The intention to perform a task is in turn influenced by three factors, namely attitudes towards behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. Attitude towards behaviour is determined by whether an individual has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of the behaviour (e.g. whether the behaviour is useful/useless or enjoyable/unpleasant), or whether a person is for or against performing the behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980:6; Ajzen & Driver, 1992:208; Chatzisarantis & Biddle, 1998:304; Armitage & Conner, 2001:473; Armitage, 2005:235). Subjective norms in turn refer to the perceptions an individual has of the social pressures to perform the behaviour (Ajzen & Driver, 1992:208; Chatzisarantis & Biddle, 1998:304; Armitage, 2005:235). Lastly, perceived behavioural control refers to the perceived difficulty, or ease, of performing the behaviour and may be influenced by previous experiences or perceptions of anticipated obstacles to performing the behaviour (Ajzen & Driver, 1992:208; Chatzisarantis & Biddle, 1998:304; Armitage, 2005:235).

An example by Latimer and Martin Ginis (2005:390) has relevance to leisure behaviour as knowledge regarding the benefits of participation in a leisure activity relates to attitude towards leisure behaviour, perceptions regarding the constraints and barriers to leisure participation relates to perceived behavioural control, and encouragement from family and friends to participate in the leisure activity relates to subjective norms and,

according to the TPB, these three factors will determine a person's intention to take part in the leisure activity. Research by Walker *et al.* (2006:224) expanded on the use of the TPB by not only using this theory to predict leisure behaviour, but also by investigating the relationship between gender and ethnicity and the TPB's variables. According to Walker *et al.* (2006:245), the TPB remains a popular framework for studying and interpreting, amongst others, leisure behaviour.

The discussions on factors that influence leisure behaviour, as well as the theories that can be used to understand leisure behaviour, provide valuable insight into certain aspects of leisure behaviour. However, none of the theories can be declared the only "right" theory, as aspects of each theory have relevance to understanding leisure behaviour. In order to provide a comprehensive framework for understanding leisure behaviour the following section highlights a holistic approach to understanding leisure behaviour.

2.3.4. A holistic view to understanding leisure behaviour

According to Iso-Ahola (1980:227), one of the most recognised authorities in the field of sociology and leisure, the reason why theories fail to explain leisure behaviour is that these theories often fail to consider other, less apparent, factors that influence leisure behaviour. In this regard, Iso-Ahola (1980:228) suggests a framework for understanding leisure behaviour that is based on various levels of causality that influence leisure behaviour. At the base of the framework is the first level of causality, namely biological disposition and socialisation, followed by need for optimal arousal, perceived freedom and ending with leisure needs. Situational influences as well as the social environment in turn influence all four of the levels of causality. By recognising the scope of this approach, it is clear that various factors, often unknown to an individual, play a role in determining one's leisure behaviour.

Biological disposition and early socialisation, at the base of the framework, refers to those biological (e.g. physical talents) and personality traits (e.g. extraversion) that influence the leisure behaviour of an individual. This first level of causality factors is very important as all the following levels of causality will be based on and influenced by it (Iso-Ahola, 1980:228). Optimal arousal, the second level of causality, refers to the need of an individual to be optimally aroused through leisure participation. Different

people have different levels of optimal arousal, and as a result, they will either seek or avoid sensation-seeking activities that contribute to achieving the preferred levels of arousal (Gordon & Caltabiano, 1996; Cheung, 2005:8; Dridea & Murgoci, 2010:199). Various authors have highlighted the importance of optimal arousal during leisure, stating that if optimal arousal levels are not achieved it may lead to boredom (Wegner *et al.*, 2008:421; Wegner & Flisher, 2009:7) and result in adolescents experiencing frustration and engaging in high-risk deviant behaviour in an attempt to reach preferred levels of arousal (Caldwell *et al.*, 1992:363; Sharp *et al.*, 2011:348). It is therefore clear that optimal arousal plays a large part in determining leisure behaviour.

The next level of causality consists of perceived freedom and competence. Perceived freedom is a term often associated with leisure and is seen as a condition for leisure to occur. Kelly and Godbey (1992:18), Edginton *et al.* (2004:8) and Kelly (2012:496) agree that an attitude of perceived freedom of choice for the sake of the experience itself is needed for leisure to occur, while Siegenthaler and O'Dell (2000:286) mention that people who experience perceived freedom also perceive themselves to be competent and in control of what happens during leisure participation. With regard to perceived competence, Edginton *et al.* (2004:8) and Edginton and Chen (2008:9) support the importance of perceived competence as it is not based on the actual competence of an individual, but the perception that one is capable and competent to take part in the activity. Both perceived freedom and perceived competence form part of intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to the internal desire of an individual to take part in a leisure activity and, according to Caldwell *et al.* (2010:205), individuals who participate in activities for the inherent enjoyment and satisfaction derived from it are intrinsically motivated. Similarly, Kelly and Godbey (1992:238) reason that intrinsic motivation is important as activities are more likely to be enjoyable and promote optimal arousal if they are done for their own sake and not because of external factors. According to Iwasaki and Mannell (1999:287), research supports the idea that situational influences that lead to the creation of situations where individuals may feel controlled, such as external reward, obligations and rules and structure, inhibit intrinsic motivation to engage in a leisure activity. In this regard external rewards decrease intrinsic motivation, as the individual is no longer motivated from within to take part in an activity but rather by the possibility of receiving a reward for participation from an external source (Iso-Ahola, 1980:233; Iso-Ahola, 1999:43; Fawcett *et al.*, 2009:176). It

is also important to remember that the influence of perceived freedom and competence on leisure behaviour is determined by the previous level of causality, namely the need for optimal arousal (Iso-Ahola, 1980:229; Iso-Ahola 1999:43). It is suggested that an individual will always try to experience some level of challenge (based on the perceived competence) during leisure in order to prevent the activity from becoming boring and unchallenging (Dridea & Murgoci, 2010:199).

The last level of causality is leisure needs. According to Edginton *et al.* (2004:128), leisure needs can be seen as imbalances, or discrepancies, between a current physical, psychological or social state and the desired “ideal” state and which influences leisure behaviour by moving individuals to act in such a way that a balance is reached. Likewise, Mannell (1999:243) states that leisure needs influence leisure behaviour in that individuals will engage in leisure activities that will fulfil certain unsatisfied needs. In order to understand how leisure needs can influence leisure behaviour, three leisure theories related to how antecedent factors influence leisure behaviour are discussed. These theories are 1) the catharsis theory, 2) the compensation theory and 3) the spill-over theory.

The *catharsis theory* states that through participation in leisure activities, individuals have the opportunity of relieving or purging themselves from emotional tension. In this theory it is supposed that because of exposure to highly emotional situations or situations that create anxiety, individuals may choose leisure activities, either high energy or relaxing, that provide opportunity for acting out their feelings and emotions (Witt & Bishop, 2009:337). The *compensation theory* is built on the belief that an individual will choose to participate in a leisure activity that provides characteristics that will fulfil the shortcomings experienced in their work. If a person’s work is physically demanding it is suggested that the individual will prefer passive recreation that provides opportunity for rest, or if the work is passive, prefer physically demanding leisure activities (Witt & Bishop, 2009:337). In contrast, the *spill-over theory* suggests that when people are satisfied and fulfilled by their work, they will also engage in leisure activities that emulate the characteristics of their work (Witt & Bishop, 2009:338). Unfortunately, both the compensation theory and spill-over theory have seen little research testing the validity of these theories (Russell, 2009:67).

Although these theories are quite diverse and focus on different antecedent factors, all of these theories indicate the importance of leisure needs in determining leisure behaviour. In this regard, Ragheb (1996:246) contends that leisure activities are not randomly selected by individuals but are rather based on real needs and that participation in leisure will continue when the leisure experiences are meaningful to individuals.

The holistic approach to understanding leisure behaviour of individuals has far-reaching practical implication. Firstly, it indicates that in order to provide successful leisure programmes, recreation practitioners should have knowledge of more than just leisure programming and management, but also of the socio-psychological aspects that motivate individuals to participate in leisure activities as well as the factors that influence their leisure choices. This is clearly illustrated by Edginton *et al.* (2004:100) and Rossman and Schlatter (2008:21) who state that factors such as values, motives, lifestyles and personality are aspects that can influence leisure choices and that the successful design and provision of leisure programmes depend on a body of knowledge based on leisure behaviour. The second implication has reference to the information recreation professionals use to determine the types of leisure programmes to be presented. Needs identification and assessments are often used to determine the leisure interests and desires of customers. However, according to the holistic approach to understanding leisure behaviour, it is clear that leisure needs is the most basic factor that influences leisure behaviour. At a deeper level, the aspects of perceived freedom, competence and intrinsic motivation should be considered during programme design and provision. By giving participants opportunity to freely choose how and when to participate and refraining from introducing elements that may reduce intrinsic motivation, such as competition or rewards, may facilitate feelings of perceived freedom, competence and intrinsic motivation. Additionally, at the level of optimal arousal, programmers should be cognisant of the fact that different people have different levels of arousal and that leisure programmes should accommodate these different levels. By designing programmes that accommodate different levels of difficulty and challenge, participants will not only feel they have the freedom to choose how they want to participate, but also have the opportunity to participate at a level that will meet their levels of optimal arousal.

Based on these discussions it is clear that, although understanding leisure behaviour is a complex task, it also has practical implications. Although various theories related to leisure behaviour exist, of which only a couple were discussed, it should be borne in mind that most theories used in leisure studies have only limited scope and can therefore only provide partial understanding (Henderson *et al.*, 2004:413) to leisure behaviour. In order to understand how other factors such as gender, race and religion, influence leisure behaviour, the following discussion focuses on how demographic factors influence leisure behaviour.

2.4. THE INFLUENCE OF SELECTED DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS ON LEISURE BEHAVIOUR

2.4.1. Leisure and gender

The majority of early research on leisure behaviour focussed on the leisure behaviour of males and, according to Henderson (1994a:123), considered these to be representative of all humans, without considering the effect of gender or the fact that additional consideration should be given to the leisure behaviour and experiences of women. However, changes in the study of gender and how it relates to leisure emerged to the point where, especially for women, leisure research focuses not on the differences or similarities between men and women's leisure, but on the unique meanings and experiences women have regarding leisure (Henderson, 1994a:125; Henderson, 1994b:2). Shaw (1999:272) indicates the complex and dynamic nature of the relationship between leisure and gender by stating that neither leisure nor gender can be understood without considering the societal, cultural and historical context. Similarly, Henderson (1994b:3) concludes that the relationship between leisure and gender is especially difficult when analysed within the context of historical, cultural and political issues of social control and power. To clarify these statements, and to introduce the discussion on the influence of gender on leisure behaviour, it is important to contextualise what is meant by the term gender.

Although gender and sex are two terms often used interchangeably, sex refers to biologically based distinctions between individuals while gender refers to cultural connotations and expectations associated with the different sexes (Henderson, 1994a:120; McLean *et al.*, 2008:150). Through society a set of socially constructed

gender-related behaviours have been formed, creating expectations of what is gender-appropriate behaviour and what is not, including societal expectations of leisure-related behaviours that are seen as appropriate for different genders (Henderson, 1994a:121; Edginton *et al.*, 2004:112). It is further noted that when youth reaches adolescence they already understand that certain activities are appropriate for the different genders (Philipp, 1998:216). As an example of gender-appropriate behaviour Athenstaedt *et al.* (2009:400) found that behaviour that exhibits independence, dominance and assertiveness is generally associated with male roles, while behaviour that is deemed to show sensitivity and communality is considered to be more in line with female roles.

However, the overall quality of leisure experiences is also influenced by society's gender expectations. Research by Dowling *et al.* (1997) indicated that although women consider leisure to be important and necessary, their quality and quantity of leisure opportunities are limited and that gender-role expectations further restricted women's leisure opportunities. The findings of Dowling *et al.* (1997) also support the notion that males were entitled to greater leisure outside the home whereas it was expected from females to perform domestic duties. An explanation for this can be that males were, historically, responsible for providing in the needs of their families through working in the fields and later on, as society industrialised, in the factories. As leisure was associated with time after industrial work, society changed to fulfil the leisure needs of working men, neglecting the leisure needs of women who were responsible for household and domestic chores (Kelly & Godbey, 1992:40; deLisle, 2010:127). It should be noted that, although trends and perceptions may have changed since Dowling and her colleagues conducted the research, literature suggests that women still experience the same factors that influence their leisure experiences (Shaw & Henderson, 2005:23-31).

Although society has changed and more women have entered the labour market, with more equality in both paid and unpaid work, certain differences in the quality and availability of leisure of men and women still exist (Sayer, 2005:296). To a large degree, this is because when women enter paid employment, they merely add an additional burden to their current obligations of domestic and family care (Bittman & Wajcman, 2000:166). This is often referred to as a second shift, and has been identified as a significant factor in women's feelings of having inadequate leisure. However, Bianchi *et al.* (2000:219) have found that there has also been an increase in the amount of housework that North American men, regardless of being married or

single, do. According to these researchers, as well as Sayer (2005:288), it possibly indicates that there is a cultural change in what is seen as a woman's work. However, the inequality of leisure between women and men are not only due to societal influences and the fact that women are regarded as having to perform domestic duties after paid employment, but also due to intrapersonal factors. As an example, research by Mattingly and Bianchi (2003:1024) indicates that women are less likely than men to rest and relax during leisure, and it is suggested that men are more capable of compartmentalising their different roles and do not let concerns and worries spill over from one role to the other, while women are more likely to let worries or problems related to their work influence their leisure while at home.

Additionally, it often seems that women experience denial during leisure, as indicated by Lafrance (2011:81), who states that even when women have free time, they feel they should not spend it on themselves. This consideration towards others highlights a significant intrapersonal factor that influences leisure behaviour of women, namely the ethic of care. Because women, in general, experience feelings of responsibility to care for others, such as their partners or children, they often attempt to satisfy the needs of others while neglecting their own leisure needs (Shaw, 1999:273; Mattingly & Bianchi, 2003:1000). Although it seems that different individuals have different feelings regarding the role ethic of care should play in their lives, it continues to shape the leisure behaviour of women. Research by Lafrance (2011:87) found that some women justified their participation in leisure as a way of renewing or reenergising themselves so that they could take better care of others, although some women might consider this attention to one as being selfish. Additionally, Lafrance (2011:89) found evidence regarding the ease with which men can engage in leisure activities compared to the turmoil women often experience in this regard and how some women attempt to adopt a more male-based approach to leisure by rejecting the notion of selfishness when engaging in leisure, but rather defending their right to leisure. This contrast in the ways women feel about leisure has been identified by Henderson (1996:151) who concluded that women can attach different meanings to leisure and that leisure can act as a means of empowerment or disempowerment to women, as well as a means to conform to or resist social norms and roles.

While it is well beyond the scope of the section to provide a complete analysis of the differences between the leisure behaviour of men and women, the preceding discussion

does provide some insight into the complexities in the study of leisure and its relation to gender. It is clear that leisure within the context of gender cannot be fully understood by merely taking into account whether a person is male or female, but that the social and cultural context and how this influences the leisure of both men and women should be considered. Finally, it is worth noting that even among male or female groups, differences in the leisure behaviour and the role of leisure in individuals' lives exist, indicating the difficulty of understanding the nature of leisure when studied in relation to gender.

2.4.2. Leisure and race

Understanding how leisure relates to race is important for various reasons. Academically, research into this field will help build and strengthen the current theory regarding how different population groups experience and perceive leisure. From a more practical approach, knowledge regarding the relationship between leisure and race can help improve leisure services management. In this regard, Sasidharan (2002:1) remarks that aspects such as race and ethnicity influence the way recreation resources and facilities are managed. Similarly, Bell and Hurd (2006:28) conclude that with demographic change expected in the United States, leisure professionals should adopt a demographic-based approach when deciding what activities and programmes to provide in communities.

However, despite the importance of this field of study, Henderson and Ainsworth (2001:24) and Shinew *et al.* (2004:182) report that research regarding how leisure is related to aspects such as race, culture and ethnicity is only beginning to be explained by research. Similarly, Philipp (1998:215) revealed that leisure research regarding race and adolescents has not been a central research theme. Deng *et al.* (2005:241) highlights another shortcoming in research regarding leisure and race by noting that previous research has mainly focused on aspects such as differences or similarities in participation patterns and preferences, and has neglected to consider factors such as racial attitudes towards leisure. The following discussions focus on clarifying terminology, different approaches to understanding the factors influencing the relationship between leisure and race, and the difficulties faced when studying leisure and race.

2.4.2.1. Race and ethnicity: a clarification of terminology

In order to understand the context of research on leisure and race, it is firstly important to clarify some terminological issues. The first issue that needs clarification is the difference between the terms *race* and *ethnicity*. Various studies use these two terms interchangeably, as if they are similar concepts, or use both these terms in their discussions (e.g. Floyd *et al.*, 1994:159; Floyd, 1998:3; Barnett, 2006:449; Barnett & Klitzing, 2006:223; Floyd, 2007:245), and although within the context of these studies it may be appropriate to use both terms, it does provide opportunities for confusion to arise regarding the meaning of each of these terms. According to Popenoe *et al.* (1998:206) and Sasidharan (2002:2), race refers to a group of people who are believed to share certain physical traits and who are genetically distinct. However, among people of a given race, a large degree of diversity exists, as for example the black South African racial group consists of various ethnic divisions, amongst others Xhosas, Sothos, Tswanas, Vendas, Zulus, Swazis and Tsongas (Popenoe *et al.*, 1998:206). Whereas race is largely based on the physical characteristics of a group of people, ethnicity is more socially constructed and made up out of culture, religion, language and ancestry (Nagel, 1994:153; Popenoe *et al.*, 1998:205). It is therefore clear that a distinction can be drawn between the terms race and ethnicity.

A problem, however, does exist when one considers race merely as physical and genetic traits, as these factors on their own do not explain behavioural differences between different racial groups. It should be noted that by looking at race as biological and genetic characteristics, *per se*, is meaningless in terms of its application in leisure studies. Race also has certain social connotations, such as level of income, wealth, quality of education one receives as well as one's access to leisure and recreation (Freysinger & Harris, 2006:251) and, as these authors indicate, race stratifies power and privilege. As an example, Shinew *et al.* (2006:405) mention that racial minority groups are often more exposed to environmental hazards, health risks and undesirable land use and as a result do not always have the opportunities other racial groups have. In this regard, South Africa is distinctly unique. Because of South Africa's political history, where in the past a system of apartheid meant that the minority of white population were in power, the first democratic election in 1994 changed the political landscape with a true democracy being formed. This created a unique situation with significant socio-economic and political differentiation, with affluence still being closely

associated with race, where the more affluent white minority still have more access to leisure and recreation services than the majority of black South Africans (Magi, 1999:294). It is clear from this discussion that leisure behaviour based on race is not influenced by a racial group's physical and biological characteristics, but rather on the social and political history relevant to a specific race.

2.4.2.2. Different approaches to studying leisure in relation to race

In his seminal work, Washburne (1978:176) provides a conceptual basis from which differences in leisure behaviour of different racial groups can be studied, namely the marginality hypothesis and ethnicity hypothesis, with much of the available literature using these approaches (Floyd, 1998:5; Stodolska & Walker, 2007:9).

The marginality hypothesis proposes that differences in the leisure behaviour of different racial groups are the result of differences in the socio-economic resources of the different races (Washburne 1978:176; Gómez, 2006:246). Floyd *et al.* (1994:159) and Haluza-DeLay (2006:265) conclude that marginalised racial groups occupy subordinate positions in society and as a result do not have equal opportunities to access all the public services, influencing their lifestyles and their ability to access and to participate in leisure and recreation activities.

The ethnicity hypothesis suggests that differences in leisure behaviour between racial groups are as a result of ethnic differences, such as culture, values, norms and socialization patterns (Floyd *et al.*, 1994:159; Philipp, 1997:194; Gómez, 2006:246). However, results from research utilising these approaches have been inconsistent (Gómez, 2002:126; Li *et al.*, 2007:515), often with more similarities than differences between the racial groups. Additionally, Floyd (1998:5) and Philipp (1997:194) remark that, apart from the marginality and ethnicity theses, a third and significant theoretical framework regarding leisure and race can be identified, namely perceived discrimination, and that perceived discrimination can condition minorities' willingness to engage in leisure pursuits. Sharaievska *et al.* (2010:302-304) state that this discrimination can be in the form of discrimination by other recreation users, discrimination by staff or differential upkeep of leisure resources, and evidence of this has also been found by Stodolska and Shinew (2010:322-328). The consequences of these actions can be significant, as Gobster (2002:156), Hibbler and Shinew (2002:151)

and Sharaievska *et al.* (2010:304-305) indicate that these forms of discrimination can lead to confrontation, withdrawal or changes in leisure behaviour, with individuals changing the time and places where they participate, visiting leisure settings in groups and not alone, and gaining more information about a setting before deciding to visit it.

From this discussion, it is clear that the relationship between leisure and race is a complex field of study, as various theoretical frameworks in this regard exist. However, these are not the only challenges that exist in studying leisure and race. Firstly, little research has been conducted on people racially classified as “others”, or more specifically, interracial or biracial groups (Hibbler & Shinew, 2002:136). According to Shinew *et al.* (2006:406), the increase in interracial marriages poses challenges to researchers, as they will be faced with unique social challenges, including challenges regarding their leisure choices. Based on this trend, Shinew *et al.* (2006:406) also suggest that the rigid categories used in research to determine a person’s race, for example “white” or “black”, should be reconsidered (as this is usually based on an individual’s self-identification) and that people with interracial backgrounds may be more likely to associate themselves with different races, rather than choose just a single race.

Based on the complexity of this field of study, it is not the purpose of these discussions to report all the findings from research on this topic, as the majority of the available research was conducted in countries with different historical and political backgrounds, as well as different racial and ethnic groups, such as the United States of America and Canada, and may therefore not be relevant to the South African context. With regard to the South African context, research in this field has been limited, providing a rich field of research yet to be explored. However, with South Africa’s unique historical and political background, research in this field will be increasingly difficult and complex.

2.4.3. Leisure and religion

There is a long-standing relationship between leisure and religion. As discussed earlier (see 2.2.1), Christianity and the Catholic Church had a significant impact on the way leisure is seen and the role it should play in individuals’ lives (Hunnicut, 2006:68; Russell, 2009:23). However, research regarding leisure and religion is limited, as indicated by Heintzman (2009:7) who, in a review of studies regarding these two topics, make mention of only two studies that are relevant to these topics. Because of the lack

of scientific evidence regarding the relationship between leisure and religion, the literature on these topics are probably speculative, but can still provide insight into possible relationships between leisure and religion. According to Godbey (2008:173-174) and Schulz and Auld (2009:122), although the relationship between leisure and religion have always existed, albeit not always apparent, religion has shaped the values and behaviour regarding leisure and how individuals experience leisure by providing limits to leisure or providing alternatives to leisure. Similarly, Rojek (2005:95) states “sanctions on leisure behaviour are often associated with religious belief”. Examples of this is given by Livengood (2009:390-391) who suggests that religion can influence a person’s leisure and recreation by determining what is acceptable or unacceptable behaviour or by emphasising fellowship with members of the religion, above those who do not share the same religious beliefs. Additionally, Kraus (2010:457) suggests that religion sets a certain expectation regarding the gender roles of individuals and this can have a significant effect on the leisure behaviour of individuals. However, religion is not only prescriptive in terms of what is acceptable behaviour or not, but also has an effect on intrapersonal aspects of an individual’s behaviour, including leisure. This is indicated by Good and Willoughby (2011:689), who found that more frequent involvement in religious activities led to lower substance abuse over time, possibly because of changes in the individual’s beliefs regarding the wrongfulness of certain activities.

These are merely a couple of examples of the possible ways in which religion can influence leisure behaviour. The truth, however, is that no strong evidence exists to support the notion that religion affects leisure behaviour, as noted by Schulz and Auld (2009:140) who concluded that, in an Australian context, there is not a significant relationship between leisure and religion. How these findings can be generalised to other contexts (e.g. South Africa) remains questionable and, therefore, indicates a future field of leisure research that can provide significant insight into the leisure behaviour of South Africans.

2.4.4. Summary

The previous discussions have focussed on the importance of leisure in students’ lives, not only in terms of social, psychological and physical benefits, but also in terms of how it can assist students in successfully completing their time at university. The discussions also provided a brief overview of the concept of leisure and how it has

evolved over time from being considered to be time free from obligation to a point where leisure is now considered to be a state of mind. Lastly, the discussions covered theories that aim at explaining why people engage in leisure behaviour, and focussed on how demographic factors, specifically gender, race and religion, can influence leisure behaviour. Based on the preceding discussions, the following section focuses on leisure perceptions, and more specifically on three areas of leisure research that provide valuable insight into leisure behaviour.

2.5. LEISURE PERCEPTIONS

Research regarding leisure perceptions has been an important field of leisure studies for the past two decades (Kim, 2008:24). According to Janke *et al.* (2011:55), it remains important to understand the perceptions people have of leisure, and what their attitudes are towards it. However, a review of literature reveals that determining what constitutes leisure perceptions remains problematic. For example, Harrington and Dawson (1995:10) considered leisure meanings and leisure experience to be part of leisure perceptions, while later research by Carpenter and Patterson (2004:18) used factors such as leisure attitudes, perceived freedom and leisure meanings to determine leisure perceptions. Finally, Dattilo *et al.* (2008:16) used a qualitative approach to understanding leisure perceptions and found that factors such as benefits of leisure, leisure constraints as well as factors that support leisure participation were reported as factors of leisure perceptions. From these different studies it is clear that a definitional problem regarding leisure perceptions exists. However, for purposes of this study leisure perceptions are conceptualised to consist of three different factors, namely leisure meanings, leisure experiences and perceived leisure constraints, as all three of these factors can contribute to an individual's perception of leisure.

As a point of departure each of the components that influence leisure perceptions, namely leisure meanings, leisure experiences and leisure constraints, are discussed.

2.5.1. The meaning of leisure

Kelly and Kelly (1994:251) raise an important question by asking whether there is a universal meaning to leisure, as meanings of leisure can be influenced by the gender, philosophical and religious views or historical backgrounds of individuals. Understanding how leisure meanings differ between individuals, different gender

groups, cultures and societies can play a crucial role in building theory regarding leisure and may lead to improved service delivery (Schulz & Watkins, 2007:477). Additionally, if differences in leisure meanings exist, it will also provide opportunity to investigate why these differences exist and what factors are responsible for the differences. Regarding service delivery, Parr and Lashua (2004:2) argue that there are differences between the meanings leisure professionals and the public attach to leisure and that, in order to improve the delivery of leisure services, attention should be given to understanding the meanings the public attach to leisure.

2.5.1.1. Challenges to studying meanings of leisure

The concept *leisure* is complex, and according to Esteve *et al.* (1999:80), it is not surprising that, given the various definitions of leisure, confusion arises regarding the meaning of leisure. According to Esteve *et al.* (1999:80) and Schulz and Watkins (2007:477), this vagueness and lack of agreement have hindered the development of a reliable scale to measure the meaning of leisure. As Esteve *et al.* (1999:80) state, it is not unusual to find some authors regarding a certain element of leisure as a core concept while other authors regard the same concept as a mere benefit of leisure. Based on this lack of agreement, Schulz and Watkins (2007:478) argue that a construct definition of leisure meaning is needed in order to determine a specific range of meanings that can be attached to leisure.

A further difficulty that arises from studying leisure meanings is that researchers often utilise a dualistic approach to determine leisure meanings (Henderson, 1996:151; Watkins 2000:101). This dualistic approach, according to Watkins (2000:101), limits leisure meanings research as it studies leisure meanings either as subjectively constructed within the mind of the individual, or as socially constructed and determined, without considering the possibility that leisure meanings can be formed based on individual reasoning within the context of a social reality. Research regarding meanings of leisure as a socially determined construct found that North Americans tend to perceive leisure as freedom from work whereas Koreans are more likely to experience leisure in terms of freedom to do what one wishes to do (Lee *et al.*, 2001:147; Russell, 2009:34). Based on these findings it is clear that society does play a role in determining the meaning of leisure. However, if leisure meanings were only formed by society it would be impossible to explain differences between individuals from the same society.

In order to understand leisure meanings it is therefore necessary to consider the influences of the individual as well as the society in forming leisure meanings. In fact, the leisure meanings of individuals also depend on whether the individuals are male or female, as gender plays an important role in the meanings individuals attach to leisure. In this regard, Henderson (1994b:3) proposes the following equation that indicates how leisure meanings are created:

Gendered meanings of leisure = values/entitlement + benefits/outcomes + leisure opportunities + negotiated constraints + life situation

As can be seen in the afore-mentioned equation, it is clear that leisure meanings are determined by various factors, and that different meanings can be attached to leisure. The following section identifies and examines different meanings that can be attached to leisure.

2.5.1.2. Different meanings of leisure

As explained earlier, confusion exists regarding what leisure meanings are and what meanings can be attached to leisure. In order to avoid confusion, for purposes of this study, meanings of leisure are discussed as Passing Time, Exercising Choice, Escaping Pressure and Achieving Fulfilment as proposed by Schulz (2001:107) and Schulz and Watkins (2007:478). The identification of these four leisure meanings were based on a relational perspective, suggesting that leisure meanings are not defined as either cognitive constructs or social constructs, but as “the particular ways experiences of leisure are constituted by individuals in their awareness of leisure” (Schulz & Watkins, 2007:482). The four meanings were determined through qualitative interviews and confirmed through quantitative research. For all four of these leisure meanings, differences in the dimensions of context, intention, time, act, emotion and outcome are apparent (Schulz & Watkins, 2007:484); highlighting the fact that differences in the meanings of leisure are based on various dimensions. In order to facilitate a better understanding of the different leisure meanings, a discussion on each of the four leisure meanings subsequently follows.

According to Schulz and Watkins (2007:483), the meaning of leisure as ***Passing Time*** refers to having free or discretionary time (during which there is nothing important to do), and using it for relaxation or entertainment. This meaning of leisure highlights the

differences between academically defining leisure and the actual meaning certain individuals attach to leisure. From an academic or theoretical standpoint, this meaning of leisure raises a number of serious questions. Firstly, it is argued that no period can truly be seen as free, as there is always a certain degree of obligation present (Kelly, 2012:19). Other problems that arise from this view of leisure as passing time relate to the fact that without considering what happens during the free or discretionary time, this view empties leisure from its contents (Godbey, 2008:7; McLean *et al.*, 2008:36). Although these arguments are valid, in practice it is viable that to individuals, leisure can mean passing time during which no responsibilities are present. In support of this meaning of leisure, Schulz (2001:163) in fact found that Australian women were more likely than men to attach this meaning to leisure. This meaning of leisure is to a certain degree also relevant to the findings by Lee *et al.* (2001:147) and discussion by Russell (2009:34) that some individuals are more likely to experience leisure as freedom from work, implying that leisure is free or discretionary time. This meaning of leisure may also have a far-reaching effect on the leisure behaviour of individuals, as it is possible that individuals that attach this meaning to leisure prefer to experience leisure that help them relax or provide entertainment. This discussion clearly confirms the assumption by Parr and Lashua (2004:2) that the meanings leisure practitioners and the public attach to leisure may differ.

The ***Exercising Choice*** dimension of leisure meanings refers to being able to do what one wants and enjoys during free time (Schulz & Watkins, 2007:483). This dimension seems to be similar to freedom of choice, or perceived freedom, which is an important concept in leisure studies. In fact, according to Janke *et al.* (2011:53), perceived freedom is a core element of experiencing leisure. Godbey (2008:5) contends that freedom of choice is related to a feeling that one is in control of events as opposed to being controlled. Siegenthaler and O'Dell (2000:286) explain that individuals who experience perceived freedom in their leisure activities experience feelings of competence and control over what happens before, during and after their engagement in leisure activities. According to Iso-Ahola (1980:186), perceived freedom is experienced as high when a person can attribute the initiation of leisure behaviour to oneself as opposed to low perceived freedom when a person feels that external forces initiated leisure behaviour. However, most of the time individuals are not free, but restricted in some way. Even despite complete freedom, within these restrictions

people experience freedom in their leisure choices. Once again, the findings by Lee *et al.* (2001:147) and discussion by Russell (2009:34) that some individuals are more likely to experience leisure as freedom to do as one wishes, are relevant.

Escaping Pressure, according to Schulz and Watkins (2007:483), refers to using leisure as a means to escape daily pressures and to relax the mind. Escaping pressure and relaxation has been cited as a benefit or outcome of leisure (Russell, 2009:47) and explains the importance of relaxation during leisure in that it provides an opportunity for rest and restoration in order to be productive at a later stage. Two theories regarding antecedents to leisure behaviour, namely the Relaxation theory and the Catharsis theory (Witt & Bishop, 2009:337), may have relevance to *escaping pressure* as a meaning of leisure. Both these theories focus on the ability of leisure to relieve tension and to provide opportunity for the purging of emotions or restoration of the body and mind after involvement in activities that require high levels of involvement and attention. Both these theories therefore support the notion that leisure can have a meaning of *escaping pressure*. Strong support for this meaning of leisure can be found in research by Patry *et al.* (2007:252-253) regarding leisure coping styles of university students as it was determined that 66.2% of the activities students participated in was of a passive, relaxing and recuperative nature as opposed to only 33.8% of activities being active, challenging and stimulating in nature. Considering that during the earlier discussions of the definitions of leisure, no mention was made of “escaping pressure” as a prerequisite for leisure, it is once again clear that differences can exist between the meanings individuals attach to leisure and professionals’ definition of leisure.

The meaning of leisure as **Achieving Fulfilment**, according to Schulz and Watkins (2007:483) and Watkins (2008:215), is associated with deep feelings of happiness and being content. In this regard, Lu and Hu (2005:329) suggest that satisfaction and happiness are the most direct indicators of leisure benefits. However, leisure is, according to Ragheb (1996:249), more than just superficial activity that only provides pleasure and short-term benefits; it also is a means through which higher-order rewards, such as personal meaning in life, and therefore self-fulfilment, can be achieved. Similarly, Kelly (2012:52) suggests that leisure provides opportunity for the richest expression of what we want to become and deep experience of self-fulfilment. Maybe more in line with this particular meaning of leisure is the earlier work of Dumazedier (1974:71) who stated that he “prefer[s] to reserve the word leisure for the

time whose content is orientated towards self-fulfilment as an ultimate end". From Dumazedier's statement, it is clear that achieving fulfilment is not a by-product, or benefit of leisure, but that self-fulfilment is in fact the essence of leisure.

2.5.2. Leisure experiences

The fulfilment of individuals' need for leisure depends on the production and consumption of individually defined pleasant experiences (Ateca-Amestoy *et al.*, 2008:64), and in order to design and produce successful leisure services, knowledge regarding how leisure is experienced is of utmost importance (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008:21).

Researchers have different views of what constitutes a leisure experience and how it should be studied (Kivel *et al.*, 2009:474). Edginton *et al.* (2004:8) identified four criteria that need to be met for a leisure experience to occur, namely a perceived freedom to take part in the activity, intrinsic motivation, perceived competence to engage and participate in the activity, and positive affect (which can be seen as the ability to influence the course or outcome of the activity). Similarly, Kelly (2012:494) proposes that a leisure experience must include freedom, intrinsic motivation and final, as opposed to instrumental, goals.

However, although these authors give an indication of the criteria for an experience to be classified as leisure, it provides little insight into how leisure experience should be studied. For example, according to Kelly (2012:495), leisure is an actual experience, the real-time action of engaging in activities. However, Sylvester (2008:22) insists that a leisure experience consists of two components, namely an objective component, which is the activity self, and a subjective component, which includes feelings and emotions. Based on this it is clear that research on leisure experiences may focus on either the qualities of the activity self, or on the emotions and feelings individuals have during participation in the activity. An example of research that centres on the objective leisure experience can be found in the work of Chen *et al.* (2012:260) who studied the gap that exists between the expectations individuals have regarding the quality of an experience, and the actual experience. In their study of the quality of the objective leisure experience, Chen *et al.* (2012:260) measured four aspects, namely services, facilities, information and recreation experiences, with recreation experiences focusing

on issues identified by Burns *et al.* (2003:369), such as crowding, participating without the influence of other visitors, compatibility of the activity with the area and the availability of places free from conflict with other visitors. From this, it is clear that, although the objective component of leisure experience may influence satisfaction with an activity, it does not explain all the feelings and emotions associated with the subjective component of leisure experiences.

In addition, studying the subjective component of leisure experiences is also complex. While subjective leisure experience is based on feelings and emotions, it should be noted that human beings do not merely act and react to situations, but also analyse and interpret experiences, and over time, these interpretations may change the perceptions of previous leisure experiences (Lee, 1999:44). For example, when considering an outdoor leisure activity such as mountain biking, a person's immediate experience may be full of negative feelings, such as tiredness and concerns about one's ability to complete the trail, while over time the recollection of the experience may include pleasant feelings such as excitement, achievement and perseverance.

Because leisure experience changes over time from the immediate lived experience to perceptions regarding the experience based on recollection and interpretation, the question arises as to how leisure experiences should be studied and the importance of knowing how people felt during actual participation as opposed to their recollections of their experiences after participation. In this regard, earlier work by Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987:318) suggests that three approaches can be used to study leisure experience. Firstly, leisure experience can be approached from a definitional perspective in an attempt to determine the underlying qualities of an experience that leads to people identifying it as leisure. The second approach is to study the real-time, immediate conscious experiences of individuals while participating in leisure activities. The third approach is the post-hoc activity approach where the aim is to determine the feelings and degree of satisfaction individuals had in terms of the activity meeting their leisure needs (Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987:318). Research by Lee *et al.* (1994:198) used all three approaches mentioned by Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987:318) to determine leisure experiences and found that for the definitional and post-hoc satisfaction approaches leisure experiences were described in terms of pleasant experiences, while the immediate conscious approach revealed that leisure experiences consisted of pleasant and unpleasant as well as stressful experiences.

Research regarding immediate conscious leisure experience has highlighted the complex nature of leisure experiences. Tinsley *et al.* (1993:453) found that although leisure was experienced as enjoyable, providing aesthetic appreciation, companionship, escape, intimacy and relaxation, at times leisure was also associated with feelings of fearfulness, stress, fatigue and being unsettled. Similarly, a study by Lee *et al.* (1994:203) found that participants in leisure and recreation activities reported various experiences, ranging from enjoyment and fun, relaxation and freedom of choice to exhaustion, apprehension, nervousness, disappointment, frustration and guilt. Additionally, it seems that women often experience denial or feelings of guilt during leisure, as they feel they should not spend their free time on themselves (Wilders *et al.*, 2010:548; Lafrance, 2011:88). These findings indicate that leisure is not always experienced in a positive manner, but that negative feelings may also occur during leisure.

In an attempt to investigate the qualitative nature of adolescents' leisure experiences, Caldwell *et al.* (1992:362) conclude that for adolescents, leisure experiences are not always positive, as they may also engage in risky and deviant leisure behaviour, and as a result a questionnaire, the Leisure Experience Battery for Adolescents (LEBA), consisting of four selected and relevant leisure experiences, namely awareness, boredom, challenge and anxiety, was designed. Based on the LEBA, Barnett (2005:151) designed a modified version called the Leisure Experience Battery for Young Adults (LEBYA) and after testing concluded that the four constructs (awareness, boredom, challenge and distress/anxiety) were reliable and valid for determining the leisure experiences of adolescents, although these four constructs were not the sole contributors to understanding adolescents' leisure experiences. However, for purposes of this study, the qualitative nature of leisure experiences are discussed in terms of these four concepts.

2.5.2.1. Awareness

According to Barnett (2005:132), many authors have suggested that in order to engage in leisure one must first have knowledge of the leisure opportunities and resources available. Without knowledge and awareness of leisure opportunities, leisure can lead to boredom (Hickerson & Beggs, 2007). In order to experience fulfilling leisure Godbey (2008:294-295) proposes that the focus should rather be on creating one's own leisure

than on consuming entertaining leisure from external sources. However, in order to achieve this, leisure must be planned for and must involve the acquisition of leisure skills. In order to plan for leisure, awareness of the benefits, opportunities and resources of leisure is needed.

2.5.2.2. Boredom

Questions exist regarding whether or not boredom can be experienced during leisure. On the one hand, arguments such as those by Ragheb and Merydith (2001:43) declare that although boredom can act as a constraint and inhibit an individual from experiencing leisure, boredom cannot take place during leisure. On the other hand, research by Caldwell *et al.* (1999:119), Wegner *et al.* (2006:260) and Wegner *et al.* (2008:428) concluded that boredom could be experienced during leisure. A possible reason for the contrasting views of leisure boredom can be the complex nature of leisure experiences, as well as the complexity of boredom. Additionally, there appears to be no commonly accepted definition for boredom or agreement regarding its causes or even ways of overcoming it (Martin *et al.*, 2006:196).

Barnett and Klitzing (2006:224) highlight that recent research has moved away from investigating external features that are perceived as being boring and now focuses on the experiences of the individual. In this regard boredom has been described as a label to portray a feeling or situations that are unpleasant and unrewarding, when one experiences a situation that is tedious or when there is a feeling of disinterest due to the absence of external stimulation, experiencing feelings of emptiness, inaction and a sense of time as “unchanging” (Conrad, 1997:468; German & Latkin, 2012:2245). Martin *et al.* (2006:206) noted that boredom is a terrible feeling, “possibly worse than any other.”

Boredom might influence individuals’ thoughts, feelings, motivation and actions (Van Tilburg & Igou, 2012:181) and although research has shed light on the consequences of boredom, such as delinquent behaviour, little is known regarding the causes of boredom (Caldwell *et al.*, 1999:104). However, in a review of literature, Wegner and Flisher (2009:4) concluded that three broad factors, namely social control, psychological influences and context of leisure could influence leisure boredom. Firstly, in terms of social control it is suggested that adolescents have a need for autonomy and may

experience boredom in situations when they feel their ability to achieve autonomy is restricted, either by teachers, societal expectations or even parents who are considered too strict (Wegner & Flisher, 2009:4). In terms of personality it is suggested that individual motivation, as well as personality traits such as, amongst others, being an introvert and having high imagination, may lead to boredom, whereas the ability to entertain oneself, extroversion and emotional stability served as predictors for lower levels of boredom (Barnett & Klitzing, 2006:239; Wegner & Flisher, 2009:5). Finally, in terms of the context of leisure, it was found that limited leisure resources and knowledge regarding the benefits of leisure (Caldwell *et al.*, 1999:118; Hickerson & Beggs, 2007) contributed to higher boredom. Additionally, lack of challenge during leisure might lead to boredom, while lower levels of boredom were found when adolescents wanted to take part in an activity opposed to higher levels of boredom when adolescents felt they had to take part in an activity or took part because they had nothing else to do (Caldwell *et al.*, 1999:111; Wegner & Flisher, 2009:6).

Based on the previous discussion it is apparent that boredom and leisure are related. It is also clear that boredom is not only the result of external factors, but is also an internal process, and as a result, how individuals experience boredom during leisure may differ from individual to individual.

2.5.2.3. Challenge

Challenge is a concept closely related to leisure (also see the discussion on the need for challenge and optimal arousal in section 2.3.4) and is seen as a factor that can lead to sustained leisure involvement (Dridea & Murgoci, 2010:199). Ragheb (1996:251) points out that people are driven to seek challenge through their leisure pursuits because changes and advances in the modern world have led to increased boredom and apathy. Challenge through leisure participation, therefore, is seen as a way of combating boredom and apathy. In this regard, the concept *flow*, as proposed by Csikszentmihalyi and LeFerve (1989:816) and Csikszentmihalyi and Csikszentmihalyi (1999:154) is relevant. Flow has been described as a mental state during which a person becomes so immersed in an activity that nothing else seems to matter (Edginton *et al.*, 2006:47; Piquart & Silbereisen, 2010:148). Flow is achieved during leisure when there is a match between the challenges represented by the activity and the skills of the participant. If the challenge is far greater than the skill of the participant it will

result in anxiety, if the skills are far greater than the challenge, boredom will set in (Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1999:154). In contrast to boredom and anxiety, optimal challenges promote feelings of intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000a:70) and, as stated previously, intrinsic motivation plays an important part in experiencing leisure.

2.5.2.4. Distress

Little research exists regarding distress as a result of leisure (Barnett 2005:134), but Lee *et al.* (1994:203) found that some individuals experienced feelings of apprehension and nervousness during leisure, confirming that distress may be part of the leisure experience. As indicated by Csikszentmihalyi and Csikszentmihalyi (1999:154), situations in which the challenge of an activity exceeds the skills of a person taking part in the activity may lead to feelings of anxiety. However, according to Caldwell *et al.* (1992:364), anxiety during leisure may also occur due to fear of evaluation by others, or the fear of free time itself, including the possibility of aloneness. As stated earlier (see 2.5.2.2), negative feelings regarding boredom exist, and these negative feelings may cause feelings of distress, especially when an individual is aware of available free time, without anything to fill the time with, in the near future. It is important, however, to note that Caldwell *et al.* (1992:364) as well as Barnett (2005:140) indicated that there is a difference between the negative feelings and distress experienced during free time without knowing how to fill it, and somatic anxiety.

From this discussion it is clear that leisure can be experienced in different ways, and that the experiences may not always be positive or pleasant. Furthermore, Barnett (2005:151) determined that important factors relating to leisure experiences are the gender and ethnic backgrounds of the individuals, as this plays a significant role in how individuals experience leisure. It is, therefore, clear that despite the varied nature of leisure experiences, additional complexity to understanding how individuals experience leisure is the fact that demographic factors should also be considered.

2.5.3. Leisure constraints

Leisure is an important part of life and, as a lack of leisure can hinder healthy adolescent development, it is important to understand constraints and the reasons for adolescents not to be able to participate in leisure activities (Caldwell & Baldwin,

2005:75; Palen *et al.*, 2010:435). Godbey (2008:97) explains that leisure constraints are those factors that prevent a person from participating in a leisure activity, but that it can be overcome if the desire to participate is intense enough. Over the last two decades, research regarding leisure constraints has been well documented (Alexandris & Carrol, 1997:1) and has provided precious information on various aspects of leisure behaviour. Jackson (1991:279) notes that leisure constraints research focuses on investigating and understanding those factors researchers and individuals perceive to inhibit or prohibit participation in leisure. The importance of this type of research lies not only in the fact that it provides information that can lead to improved management of leisure services, but also because leisure constraints can have an impact on the leisure experiences of individuals (Bülent *et al.*, 2010:326), and play an important role in shaping the leisure behaviour of individuals.

2.5.3.1. The hierarchical model of leisure constraints

Although different models regarding leisure constraints exist, the most widely accepted model is based on the works of Crawford and Godbey (1987), Crawford *et al.* (1991) and Jackson *et al.* (1993). Firstly, research by Crawford and Godbey (1987:122) identified that leisure constraints could be classified into three types of constraints, namely intrapersonal (e.g. shyness, poor health, lack of skill), interpersonal (e.g. conflicting schedules, family obligations) and structural (e.g. inconvenient facilities, time limitations, lack of affordable leisure options) constraints (Son *et al.*, 2008:199). Further research by Crawford *et al.* (1991:317) proposed a hierarchical nature of these three constraints, with intrapersonal constraints being the most proximal and structural constraints being the most distal form of constraint. Raymore *et al.* (1993:110) later confirmed this proposed hierarchical nature of leisure constraints through research. Later research by Jackson *et al.* (1993:9) determined that these different levels of constraints had to be negotiated in a sequential manner for participation in a given leisure activity to occur, by firstly overcoming intrapersonal, then interpersonal and finally structural constraints. In an assessment of the hierarchical model of leisure constraints after two decades, Godbey *et al.* (2010:124) conclude that the hierarchical model is in fact circular in nature and that the starting point of the constraints negotiation process depends on where, in terms of the constraints, the individual finds himself/herself at that specific moment.

2.5.3.2. Leisure constraints and leisure participation

Early research on leisure constraints forms the basis of the current understanding of how leisure constraints influence leisure participation. An early study by Kay and Jackson (1991:310) found that time and financial constraints were significant forms of structural constraints, while Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997:435) similarly found that the most often mentioned forms of structural constraints were a lack of time and money, and poor health. In an overview of research regarding leisure constraints, Jackson (2000:64) states that time- and cost-related constraints were ranked as the most widely experienced forms of constraints. However, despite the fact that a lack of time is a widely experienced leisure constraint, it was found by Shaw *et al.* (1991:294) that individuals who indicated that they experienced time constraints had significantly higher levels of participation than those who did not report time as a leisure constraint. From these findings it is clear that merely experiencing constraints do not ultimately prevent participation. In terms of structural constraints, Alexandris and Carroll (1997:11) additionally found that for a Greek sample, time- and facility/service-related constraints were the most experienced constraints for both participants and non-participants.

With regard to interpersonal constraints, Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997:437) found that social aspects played an important role in leisure constraints as family responsibilities, absence of a partner and mismatched leisure interest among partners were the most cited forms of constraints. It was also found that with regard to intrapersonal constraints, the most significant aspect was personality, and that introverted people experienced constraints as they felt they could not make friends or take part in activities by themselves (Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997:439). Interestingly though, findings by Alexandris *et al.* (2002:247) revealed that only intrapersonal constraints significantly influenced participation (acting as a blocking constraint) and that once overcome, individuals were likely to participate even though interpersonal and structural constraints existed. It was determined that intrapersonal constraints act as antecedents of motivation as it acts as de-motivating forces for individuals. According to Alexandris *et al.* (2002:247), these findings lend support to the hierarchical nature of leisure constraints, indicating that intrapersonal constraints are not only the first level of constraint, but also the most significant constraints to overcome.

Additionally, contrary to the expectation that experiencing high levels of constraints leads to decreased leisure participation, Kay and Jackson (1991:312) found that in certain cases higher levels of constraints were experienced by active leisure participants than by non-participants. Similarly, Shaw *et al.* (1991:297) conclude that frequent reporting of some constraints is associated with higher levels of participation. Proposed reasons for this is that individuals who engage in leisure activities are more aware of the different constraints that had to be overcome in order to participate than those who did not participate (Kay & Jackson, 1991:312). However, contrasting findings by Alexandris and Carroll (1997:11) were found in a Greek sample where higher levels of constraints were linked to lower participation, indicating that different population groups not only experience different intensities of leisure constraints, but also unique combinations of constraints (Jackson, 2000:64).

From the previous discussions it is clear that despite the presence of leisure constraints, individuals still succeed in participating in leisure activities. Research by Jackson and Rucks (1995:102) concluded that individuals negotiate through constraints and do not merely passively react to them. Similarly, results by Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997:442) supported the existence of leisure constraints, but also found that people will, despite the constraints that they experience, actively plan and modify their behaviour in order to be able to participate in leisure. From these findings it is clear that leisure constraints do not necessarily prevent participation, but that individuals can negotiate obstacles to still experience satisfactory leisure.

In conclusion, based on the contrasting results found in constraints research, it is clear that research findings cannot be generalised. As mentioned by Shaw *et al.* (1991:299), to understand leisure constraints, attention should be given to the influence of social class, as well as factors such as age, gender and race. It is therefore necessary to consider the composition of sample groups, such as demographic factors, when investigating leisure constraints.

2.5.3.3. Leisure constraints and demographic factors

The reason why leisure researchers and practitioners need to take note of the distribution of leisure constraints is explained by Jackson and Scott (1999:306) who mention that constraints are not distributed equally among society and that different

combinations and intensities of leisure constraints are experienced by different subgroups in a community. It is therefore important to have an understanding of how demographic variables influence leisure constraints.

With regard to the relationship between gender as a demographic factor and leisure constraints, a study undertaken by Jackson and Henderson (1995:47) focusing on a gender-based analysis of leisure constraints found that although both women and men mostly experienced the same constraints, the intensity of the constraints were higher for females – supporting the notion that women are more constrained in terms of leisure. In terms of intrapersonal constraints, it was found that adolescent females were more likely to have lower levels of self-esteem than their male counterparts, and as a result experienced greater intrapersonal constraints than male adolescents (Raymore *et al.*, 1994:100; Shaw & Henderson, 2005:26; Liechty *et al.*, 2006:323). Similarly, it was found that body image is a major factor that influences leisure behaviour of women and that young women might avoid activities that make them feel as if they are on display (Shaw, 1999:275; Shaw & Henderson, 2005:26). Additionally, the ethic of care has been identified as a factor that can constrain women's leisure (Shaw, 1999:275). In this regard, women experience self-denial, as well as feelings regarding a lack of entitlement (a possible intrapersonal constraint) during leisure as they place their personal needs before those of their family (Harrington & Dawson, 1995:6; Dowling *et al.*, 1997). Another constraint more prevalent in women is risk of injury due to participation in leisure activities (Shaw, 1999:275).

In terms of interpersonal constraints, Shaw and Henderson (2005:26) mention that interpersonal constraints have not been as widely researched as the other types of constraints. However, they conclude that social disapproval for participation in certain leisure activities can act as interpersonal constraints. Additionally, Dowling *et al.* (1997) provide insight into how the societal context can influence the leisure constraints of women. According to these authors, the notion exists that men are more entitled to leisure outside the home than women, because society expects women to perform domestic duties. Accordingly, Harrington and Dawson (1995:6) argue that women's leisure is perceived as secondary to men's leisure and because of their leisure being restricted by family and home-centred activities, their experience of leisure also differs from that of men. In terms of structural constraints Shaw and Henderson (2005:24) mention that in general women do not have the financial freedom men have and as a

result are more constrained by their finances than men. These authors also recognise that men and women have relatively equal sporting opportunities while young, but that the opportunities for women to participate in sport significantly decrease as they move into later stages of life. Moreover, Arab-Moghaddam *et al.* (2007:112) mention that the ethic of care, which is an intrapersonal constraint, can also influence structural constraints in that women do not have time for leisure as they need to care for others.

Although much research has focussed on leisure constraints, limited findings exist regarding leisure constraints experienced by adolescent males. Allison *et al.* (2005:162-163) found that adolescent males experienced both internal and external constraints to participation in physical activities, and when considered within the context of the leisure constraints model of Crawford *et al.* (1991:313) it is clear that these constraints can be categorised into intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints. Intrapersonal constraints included factors such as believing that one is too small to participate in certain activities, lack of confidence, fear of failure and low perceived competence (Allison *et al.*, 2005:162). Interpersonal constraints included parents placing a higher importance on academic activities than on physical activities or prohibiting participation due to safety issues. Additionally, it was found that a lack of friends to participate with also acted as an interpersonal constraint (Allison *et al.*, 2005:163). Lastly, Allison *et al.* (2005:163) determined that structural constraints, including a lack of time, inaccessibility of facilities and costs influenced adolescent males' participation in physical activities. With regard to the influence of society's gender expectations, research by Gleeson (2008:226) illustrates that it is not only women who are constrained by societal expectation, as it was found that for adolescent males in Cape Town gender stereotypes acted as a leisure constraint.

Seen from a South African perspective, contrasting results regarding leisure constraints and gender have been found. A national survey in 2005 found that a significant difference exists between males and females in terms of a lack of interest being a constraint, where 18.1% of males reported that they had no interest in sport or recreation activities compared to 28.1% of women having no interest in those activities (Department of Sport and Recreation, 2005:7). In a study on adolescents' leisure in Cape Town, Palen *et al.* (2010:444) found that gender, in itself, was the most often referred to socio-cultural constraint, with adolescents believing that certain skills needed for participating in an activity are limited to only one gender. Additionally, overt

discrimination was also found to be a constraint, with boys telling girls they may not participate in certain activities (Palen *et al.*, 2010:445). In contrast to the aforementioned differences between the constraints experienced by males and females, a more recent study regarding leisure in Cape Town found no significant differences in terms of the top five constraints experienced by males and females (City of Cape Town, 2011:74).

From this discussion, it is clear that various factors can influence an individual's perceived leisure constraints, and that gender does play a role in experiencing constraints. However, two points are worth mentioning. Firstly, with the contrasting results found, not only within the South African literature but also internationally, it is clear that there is still a vast amount of research to be done before leisure constraints, within the context of gender, can be fully understood. Secondly, considerable progress has been made through a feministic approach, in understanding leisure constraints of women. However, it seems that the same depth of understanding leisure constraints has not been reached for males, indicating a possible area of future research that could be developed.

Although leisure constraints research has evolved tremendously, race and its relation with constraints is still poorly understood (Shinew *et al.*, 2004:182). However, Shinew *et al.* (2004:182) point out that benefits related to understanding leisure constraints within the context of race are twofold, namely that it will lead to understanding issues such as access, choice and enjoyment of leisure, but also understanding the broader societal issues regarding race. Unfortunately, the relevance of race and leisure research and the ability to generalise research findings, are questionable. Chick and Dong (2003:339) note that the overwhelming majority of leisure research has focused on North America and that, to their knowledge, there are no studies regarding the validity of the leisure constraints model based on cross-cultural comparative research. In the same vein Walker *et al.* (2007:568) conclude that there is little research available on how leisure constraints, and particularly intrapersonal constraints, may be similar or different across cultures.

In terms of constraints research in South Africa, little is known, with only one study, according to Palen *et al.* (2010:435), focussing on leisure constraints in South Africa. A national survey, the 2005 Participation Patterns in Sport and Recreation in South Africa

Survey (Department of Sport and Recreation, 2005:7) does however provide insight into constraints in South Africa. From the survey, it is clear that the strongest reason for persons aged 21 to 25 years not to participate in recreation was “no particular reason” followed by “not interested”. Further, the survey also indicated that race played a significant role in reasons for non-participation. For example, 26.3% of Asian/Indian people indicated that “no particular reason” led to non-participation, compared to only 14.4% for Africans, 17.8% for Coloured people and 15.6% for whites. Asian/Indian people also reported to be the least interested in sport and recreation (30.8%) while only 18.8% of whites reported not being interested. With regard to opportunities/facilities for participation, 11.8% of African and 13.2% of Coloured people reported this as a constraint compared to 2.2% of whites and 0.5% of Indian/Asian people. Additionally a study in the City of Cape Town found that although the most significant leisure constraint across all races was a lack of facilities, black and Coloured residents also identified a lack of money as a significant constraint while white and Indian residents in contrast also experienced lack of time as a major leisure constraint (City of Cape Town, 2011:74).

With specific reference to the leisure constraints of adolescents in South Africa, a recent study by Palen *et al.* (2010:435) found that most of the adolescents in Cape Town reported experiencing intrapersonal constraints to leisure most frequently, with disinterest being the greatest intrapersonal constraints. The frequency of reporting structural and interpersonal constraints were similar, with parents being the biggest interpersonal constraint and risk of harm due to factors external to the activity (e.g. crime) being the most significant structural constraint (Palen *et al.*, 2010:449).

From this discussion it is clear that differences in leisure constraints may vary between communities, as well as racial and cultural groups. Although international research regarding leisure constraints and race may provide information on how race influences leisure constraints, the importance of researching leisure constraints from a South African perspective cannot be denied. Only once this is achieved can the relevance of international constraints research be determined.

2.6. CONCLUSION

As can be seen in the discussions in this chapter, leisure is a dynamic and complex phenomenon, and although most people do not give much thought to the perceptions they have regarding leisure, leisure researchers are faced with the daunting task of discovering how individuals' perceptions of leisure are influenced by various factors. By reviewing the literature regarding leisure meanings, it became clear that this field of leisure studies is still in its infancy as little agreement exists regarding what leisure meanings are and how it should be studied. However, the value of understanding the meanings individuals attach to leisure is clear and knowledge of the meanings people from different demographic backgrounds attach to leisure may prove invaluable in providing relevant and justifiable leisure programmes.

In terms of leisure experiences, progress has been made in terms of research, but once again the available literature and research reveal opposing views regarding what constitutes a leisure experience and how it should be studied. Despite the lack of agreement, it is apparent that an understanding of leisure experiences forms the basis of providing successful leisure programmes. Only by understanding how participants experience leisure can modifications and improvements be made to leisure services. With regard to leisure constraints, research provides important insight into factors that inhibit or prevent leisure participation. In contrast with research on leisure meanings and leisure experience, constraints research is well developed with a strong theoretical basis. However, consensus exists that leisure constraints research has not yet reached its full potential, especially within the context of constraints and race.

A final point that should be made relates to the scarcity of leisure research within South Africa. In order to improve perceptions regarding leisure as a profession and a legitimate field of study, research within the South African context is needed. It is no longer adequate to rely on research from Western and developed countries to inform South African leisure service providers, as the unique historical background and diverse demographic composition of South Africa may limit the ability to generalise those findings in South Africa. The time has come for leisure researchers to scrutinise and test leisure theories and models within the South African context, and create a scientific body of knowledge based on the leisure behaviour of the diverse people of South Africa.

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CHAPTER 3

LEISURE MEANINGS OF SELECTED FIRST-YEAR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS: A SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVE

Title/Titel

Leisure meanings of selected first-year university students: a South African perspective

Vryetydsbetekenisse van geselekteerde eerstejaar- universiteitstudiante: 'n Suid-Afrikaanse perspektief

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Abstract

Increased diversity among university students poses various challenges for the provision of campus leisure and recreation programmes. In this study the meanings attached to leisure by selected South African first-year university students, and how this is influenced by various demographic variables, were determined. Data was gathered by means of the Leisure Meanings Inventory (LMI) (Schulz & Watkins, 2002) that identifies four leisure meanings (i.e. Achieving Fulfilment, Exercising Choice, Escaping Pressure, and Passing Time) based on a 5-point Likert scale. First-year students (N=334) in the fields of sport, leisure or recreation studies were selected from six universities based on an availability sample. A confirmatory factor analysis, effect sizes, *t*-tests and ANOVA were used for the analysis of the data. Results indicate differences in leisure meanings based on gender ($p=0.025$), home language ($p=0.001$), where students stay ($p=0.011$) and relationship status of students ($p=0.029$). As leisure meanings may influence leisure behaviour, it is suggested that leisure service providers should determine the meanings students attach to leisure, and then develop and produce leisure services that capitalise on these leisure meanings.

[Key words: Leisure meanings, university students, escaping pressure, exercising choice, fulfilment, passing time]

LEISURE MEANINGS OF SELECTED FIRST-YEAR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS: A SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVE

INTRODUCTION

Seen from a South African perspective, concern exists regarding the influence of demographic factors on leisure behaviour. Wegner *et al.* (2006) state that, “because of our unique historical, political and socio-cultural context, it is important that culturally relevant research be undertaken in order to establish knowledge that has implication for leisure policies and service provision.” In particular, understanding the meanings individuals attach to leisure can play a crucial role in building theory regarding leisure, as well as improved service delivery. As different people attach different meanings to leisure (Philipp, 1997; Schulz, 2001; Edginton *et al.*, 2004; Demir, 2005), this may influence their leisure preferences and as a result, leisure meanings are becoming an increasingly important concept that can assist leisure researchers in understanding leisure behaviour (Philipp, 1997). Additionally, Schulz (2001) and Lafrance (2011) explain that understanding the meanings people attach to leisure can improve service delivery and assist service providers in developing socially responsible leisure programmes. As leisure meanings differ amongst individuals, research regarding leisure meanings can play an important role when diverse population groups are concerned, as demographic factors such as culturally based perceptions and values, ethnic identity, language, religious beliefs and family structure (Outley & Witt, 2006) may influence individuals’ leisure behaviour.

First-year university students is a specific population group that can benefit from building theory and improved leisure and recreation service delivery through a better understanding of their leisure behaviour. Shinew and Parry (2005) note that research regarding the leisure behaviour of individuals during the transition from late adolescence and young adulthood to university or college has generally been neglected. Additionally, although first-year university students share certain commonalities, not all first-year students are the same and cannot be clumped together and seen as a homogenous group in society. More specifically, within the context of South African universities, a demographic shift is occurring in the student composition at all South African universities, with formerly white, Coloured and Indian universities experiencing increased enrolment by students that speak African languages (Council on Higher Education, 2001). Evidence of this demographic shift can be

seen in the fact that the proportion of African students attending public higher education institutions had increased from 49% in 1995 to 63% in 2007. In contrast the proportion of white students attending these higher education institutions had decreased from 39% in 1995 to 24% in 2007, while in 2007 Coloured students and Indian students respectively made up 6% and 7% of the total student body (Council on Higher Education, 2009). Furthermore, although racial integration has occurred at the more affluent educational institutions, such as universities (Pattman, 2007), many of the students that attend university are economically and educationally disadvantaged (Petersen *et al.*, 2009), adding to the diversity of the student population. Based on the previous discussion and the fact that, according to Wu *et al.* (2010), the majority of studies that did investigate students' free time are, to a large degree, confined to Western contexts, it is apparent that an understanding of how demographic diversity in a non-Western context, such as South African universities, can account for differences in the leisure behaviour of students is needed in order to improve the provision of leisure services and recreation programmes at universities. Based on this need, the purpose of the study was to determine the effect of demographic variables on the leisure meanings of selected South African first-year university students.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Leisure and first-year university students

Available research suggests that leisure plays an important role during youth's transition to university, providing benefits such as better academic performance (e.g. higher grade point averages) (Huesman *et al.*, 2007; Todd *et al.*, 2009; Gibbison *et al.*, 2011), better retention (Belch *et al.*, 2001), as well as reduced stress (Iwasaki, 2003), while social benefits include better social skills and stronger feelings of belonging (Artinger *et al.*, 2006; Henderson, 2010). Literature has also shown that leisure contributes to benefits in other life areas such as physical health. Physical benefits relating to active leisure are well documented, including higher physical fitness (Cheng *et al.*, 2011), lower body mass index as well as increased health (Miller *et al.*, 2008; Todd *et al.*, 2009), lower fat intake and less smoking (Todd *et al.*, 2009). Haskell *et al.* (2009) additionally conclude that increased physical active leisure may reduce the occurrence of chronic disease and enhance functional capacity. Similarly, with regard to the physiological effects of active leisure, Stumbo and Peterson (2004) mention that an overview of literature indicates various health benefits such as a reduction of blood pressure and heart disease, as well as improved bone density, heart rate and joint mobility. Hutchinson and Brooks (2011) additionally found that leisure participation can lead to added

ability to cope with stress, decreased anxiety and depression, increased self-esteem and reduced drug use. Further benefits of leisure was found by Ellis *et al.* (2002) who reported that leisure participation contributes to higher levels of quality of life, as well as increased happiness. Additionally, the benefits of leisure are not limited to the individual, as relationships and friendships formed during leisure can also lead to stronger cultural identity and stronger community cohesion (Edginton, 2006). Although these benefits are possible for a community as a whole, the possibility exists that these benefits can also be attained in sub-communities, such as among university students. However, despite the benefits related to leisure, not all first-year students experience the benefits of leisure. Many students are at risk of making unhealthy life style choices, including declined physical activity, while others may exhibit deviant leisure behaviour such as engaging in risky sexual experimentation, consuming alcohol and substance abuse due to a lack of leisure-related skills and inability to successfully manage their new free time patterns, and exposure to new leisure activities (Witt & Crompton, 2002; Shinew & Parry, 2005; Hickerson & Beggs, 2007).

Given the importance of providing first-year university students with opportunities for developing the skills and knowledge to cope with the stresses and challenges they experience and in filling their free time with constructive activities, it is critical for leisure professionals at universities to provide leisure and recreation programmes that will assist students in meeting and overcoming the challenges they experience (Caldwell, 2005). In this regard, Lee *et al.* (1994) state that leisure professionals “must facilitate leisure experiences, rather than merely provide recreation opportunities”. Understanding the meanings first-year university students attach to leisure may help to facilitate appropriate leisure experiences, as leisure meanings may influence the leisure preferences and leisure experiences sought by first-year students.

Leisure meanings

As the field of leisure research developed, two distinct approaches to the definition of leisure developed. The first approach defines leisure in an objective manner that is concerned with observable behaviour such as leisure as the contrast to work, as free-time or non-work time, or doing specific activities (Lee *et al.*, 1994; Schulz, 2001; Hunnicutt, 2006; Kelly, 2012; Cordes, 2013), whereas the second is a subjective approach that defines leisure in terms of a state of mind, or a psychological experience (Kleiber *et al.*, 2011; Kelly, 2012; Cordes, 2013). With regard to this state of mind Rojek (1989) states that “leisure is consistently

associated with positive experiences: liberty, fulfilment, choice and growth”, supporting the notion that a certain state of mind is necessary for leisure to occur. However, although these definitions attempt to clarify the term *leisure* and determine certain “universal” conditions that need to be met in order for leisure to occur, it does not address leisure meanings. For purposes of this article, the meaning of leisure refers to the feelings of value and importance as well as the role leisure plays in the lives of individuals and societies.

Esteve *et al.* (1999) point out that, given the various definitions of leisure, confusion arises regarding the meaning of leisure, and that it is not unusual to find some authors regarding a certain element of leisure as a core concept while other authors regard the same concept as a mere benefit of leisure. In this regard, an overview of studies highlights the different approaches used in determining the meaning of leisure. Although not the first study to determine the meaning of leisure, Iso-Ahola (1980) attempted to determine the dimensions of leisure definitions and found that perceived freedom was a critical determinant of what individuals identify as leisure. Additionally, aspects such as intrinsic motivation, goal orientation and work-relation also played a role in determining whether or not leisure occurred, although not as significantly as perceived freedom. Similarly, a study by Unger and Kerman (1983) determined that perceived freedom, along with intrinsic motivation and degree of involvement in an activity were stable factors with regard to whether individuals experienced leisure, whereas arousal, mastery and spontaneity were aspects of the leisure experience that were more specific to certain activities. With regard to perceived freedom research by Lee *et al.* (2001) also found that people from different cultures attach different meanings to leisure, as North Americans tend to perceive leisure as freedom from work whereas Koreans are more likely to experience leisure in terms of freedom to do what one wishes to do. More evidence that different population groups may attach different meanings to leisure was found by Walker and Wang (2009) in their study on a non-Western population, where for Chinese students leisure consisted of high intrinsic motivation, low effort and low introjected reward motivation, while contrary to the previously mentioned studies, perceived freedom was not found to be an important factor of leisure. Another study, by Esteve *et al.* (1999), concluded that factors such as effort level, social interaction and purpose for participation were important aspects in defining leisure. In summary, Edginton *et al.* (2004) and Kelly (2012) contribute to the meaning of leisure by stating that leisure has the following qualities: perceptions of freedom, intrinsic motivation, perceived competence, positive affect, and focus on final rather than instrumental goals. Based on these studies, it is clear that

despite the different research approaches, progress has been made with regard to determining the underlying factors that define leisure. However, the studies also indicate that not all the factors that define leisure are universal. Lastly, although these studies give important insight into the different underlying dimensions or conditions that play a role in whether or not leisure is experienced, it does not necessarily consider the meanings individuals attach to leisure.

A different approach to this field of study is to determine the meanings individuals attach to leisure. In an integrated review of feminist leisure research Henderson (1996) found that leisure has multiple meanings for women, depending on whether leisure was self-initiated or initiated by others. Leisure meanings for women ranged from a context for empowerment in certain cases to a context of victimisation and disempowerment in other cases, as well as a context for conformity with social roles or resistance to social roles. These findings indicate the complexity and diversity that encompass all aspects of leisure behaviour. Similarly, Dupuis and Smale (2000) note the changeability and contradictory nature of leisure meanings, this time within an institution-based care-giving context. Results indicated that leisure had different meanings during different stages of a care-giving career, starting at leisure as constriction (no time for leisure), leisure as moments (certain moments classified as leisure experiences during work) and lastly leisure as reclamation (leisure as a context for creating a new identity or reinforcing an existing identity outside the work context). Both these studies moved away from determining leisure meanings in terms of underlying conditions or dimensions, but rather took into account the meanings individuals attach to their own leisure experiences, and revealed the rich and complex nature of leisure meanings and the role it plays in individuals' lives.

From these discussions regarding leisure meanings it is clear that a vagueness and lack of agreement regarding leisure meanings exist, making research in this field difficult (Esteve *et al.*, 1999; Schulz & Watkins, 2007). A further difficulty that arises from studying leisure meanings is that researchers often utilise a dualistic approach for determining leisure meanings (Henderson, 1996; Watkins, 2000). This dualistic approach, according to Watkins (2000), limits leisure meanings research as it studies leisure meanings either as subjectively constructed within the mind of the individual, or as socially constructed and determined, without considering the possibility that leisure meanings can be formed based on individual reasoning within the context of a social reality. Similarly, Henderson (1996) concludes that

“going beyond dualistic, totalizing, and essentializing views of leisure may help us understand meanings in more encompassing ways”. Additionally, there seems to be a need for an instrument that can determine the subjective leisure meanings. Based on these research challenges, Schulz and Watkins (2007) argue that a construct definition of leisure meaning is needed in order to determine a specific range of meanings that can be attached to leisure. Based on this need, the Leisure Meanings Inventory (LMI) was developed to conceptualise leisure meanings as an experiential construct (Schulz & Watkins, 2007) and measures leisure meanings in terms of Passing Time, Exercising Choice, Escaping Pressure and Achieving Fulfilment (Schulz, 2001; Schulz & Watkins, 2007). The identification of these four leisure meanings was based on a relational perspective, suggesting that leisure meanings are not defined as either cognitive constructs or social constructs, but as *“the particular ways experiences of leisure are constituted by individuals in their awareness of leisure”* (Schulz & Watkins, 2007). In this study, the different leisure meanings of first-year university students will be determined, based on this abovementioned perspective, and more specifically on the Leisure Meanings Inventory, as proposed by Schulz (2001) and Schulz and Watkins (2007).

For various reasons, research on the leisure meanings of South African first-year university students is important. Firstly, this type of research will broaden the current understanding of leisure meanings within a South African context, addressing the paucity of leisure research in South Africa. Secondly, the research will provide information regarding how leisure meanings are influenced by demographic factors, and will add to the current body of knowledge regarding leisure meanings. Lastly, the research will provide insight into the factors South African universities should consider when providing campus recreation services to their diverse student populations.

RESEARCH METHODS

Research sample

The research was based on an availability sample from six South African universities. First-year students from academic programmes in sport, recreation or leisure studies were selected for this study. The sample consisted of 334 participants of which 52.1% were male and 47.9% female. The mean age was 19.86 years. In terms of race, 41.6% were black, 42.8% were white, 9.6% were Coloured, 5.4% were Indian and 0.6% reported to belong to other racial groups. As South Africa has eleven official languages, of which nine are indigenous African languages (i.e. Ndebele, Northern Sotho, Sotho, Swazi, Tswana, Tsonga, Venda,

Xhosa and Zulu), these nine languages were grouped together and will be referred to as African languages. African languages were the home languages of 35.4% of the respondents, English was the home language of 33.8% of the respondents and Afrikaans was the home language of 30.8% of the respondents. In terms of where the respondents grew up, 39.5% came from cities, 33.2% from towns and 27.3% from farms, rural areas or informal settlements. Christianity was the most prevalent religion (84.7%), followed by atheism (7.2%). Only 26% of the respondents stayed in university residences or dormitories, with the majority (74%) staying in private accommodation.

Research instruments

The Leisure Meanings Inventory (LMI) developed by Schulz and Watkins (2007) was used to determine the leisure meanings of first-year university students. The LMI is a 23-item multi-dimensional scale for measuring four meanings of leisure, namely Passing Time, Exercising Choice, Escaping Pressure and Achieving Fulfilment. Participants were required to answer each item in the LMI on a five-point Likert Scale (1=Strongly Disagree; 3=Neutral; 5=Strongly Agree). The LMI has a reported internal reliability of 0.81 (Cronbach Alpha) with reliability for the individual categories being lower (Passing time = 0.74; Exercising choice = 0.66; Escaping pressure = 0.74 and Achieving fulfilment = 0.69) (Schulz & Watkins, 2007). Information regarding demographic variables was gathered by means of a questionnaire while students' involvement in leisure activities was determined through an open-ended question in which students had to indicate the leisure activities they participate in, along with the frequency of participation.

Research procedures

Ethical approval for the research was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the North-West University. Permission for the use of first-year students in the fields of sport, recreation or leisure studies at the various universities was obtained from the heads of the relevant programmes. The research questionnaires were distributed during contact sessions and were completed under the supervision of a lecturer versed in the aims of the study.

Statistical analysis

The data was processed by the Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University. Firstly, descriptive statistics were used to determine mean scores and standard deviations. In terms of students' involvement in leisure, reported leisure activities were grouped into leisure programme areas and an average mean participation count in each of the

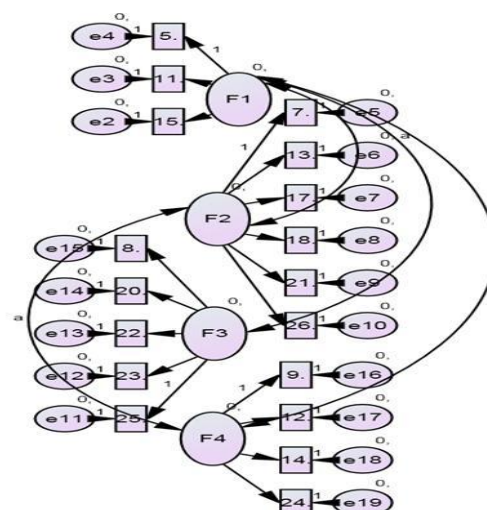
programme areas was determined per participant. Secondly, confirmatory factor analysis was performed on the LMI, using AMOS (Amos Development Company, 2011), to determine whether the proposed factors measured by the questionnaire fit the factors found in the sample of the current study. Reliability of the LMI for this sample was also determined. Thirdly, Spearman's rank order correlations were used to determine the relationship between leisure meanings and involvement in leisure. Lastly, practical significance in terms of effect sizes for the differences between means were calculated (small effect: $d=0.2$; medium effect: $d=0.5$; large effect: $d=0.8$), along with t -tests, ANOVA and 2-way ANOVA that were performed to determine whether the various demographic variables had statistically significant influences on leisure experiences.

RESULTS

Results are reported in two phases. The first phase includes discussions on the results from the confirmatory factor analysis, as well as the determination of reliability of the LMI. The second phase of the discussion focuses on the results regarding students' leisure involvement and whether statistical differences exist in terms of leisure experiences based on selected demographic variables.

Confirmatory factor analysis and reliability

Confirmatory factor analysis



F1 = Escaping Pressure; F2 = Achieving Fulfilment; F3 = Passing Time; F4 = Exercising Choice

FIGURE 1: THE CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS MODEL OF THE LMI

The confirmatory factor analysis of this study was based on the four factors identified by Schulz and Watkins (2007). These authors determined that not all items of the LMI could be accommodated within the four factors, hence they discarded four of the twenty-three LMI items.

Due to the overly strict nature of the Chi-square test in determining goodness of fit of a model (Hancock & Mueller, 2010), alternative methods for determining goodness of fit were utilised. In accordance with what Hancock and Mueller (2010) recommend, goodness of fit of the four-factor model is reported in terms of more than one index. In this study three different indices, namely Minimum Sample Discrepancy divided by Degrees of Freedom (CMIN/DF), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) are used to evaluate fit.

The four-factor model provided a CMIN/DF value of 2.54, which can be regarded as acceptable, being smaller than 5. In terms of the CFI, values higher than 0.9 are described by Mueller (1996) as a good overall fit, and the value of 0.725 achieved in this study can be considered to be less than acceptable. Lastly, a RMSEA value of 0.068 was obtained, with a 90% confidence interval of [0.059; 0.077], which indicate an acceptable fit with a value smaller than 0.08. For purposes of this article, achieving goodness of fit in two of the three methods will be considered acceptable. Additionally, all means, variances, correlations and regression weights were statistically significant.

Reliability

In order to achieve acceptable reliability of the constructs, a single item (i.e. *Leisure occurs when I am able to take time out and get away from everyday life*) from the factor “Escaping Pressure” of the LMI had to be deleted. Considering that a reliability of 0.70 (Chronbach Alpha) or higher could be regarded as satisfactory (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), it is clear that the reliability of the four factors (Table 2) ranging between 0.51 and 0.65 are marginally acceptable. However, when seen in the light of the fact that the LMI was only available in English, and only a third of the students considered English their first language, the marginal reliability can be explained. With regard to the mean inter-item correlation, a measure of internal consistency, the desired range is between 0.15 and 0.55 (Clark & Watson, 1995). As the inter-item correlation of the four factors is between 0.184 and 0.265, it is evident that these values fall within the desired range. It can therefore be concluded that the internal consistency of the LMI, with reference to this sample, is satisfactory (Table 2).

TABLE 1: RELIABILITY OF THE LMI CONSTRUCTS

Construct	Chronbach Alpha	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean Inter-Item Correlation
Escaping Pressure	0.51	3.92	0.66	0.265
Achieving Fulfilment	0.57	3.64	0.58	0.184
Passing Time	0.63	2.61	0.70	0.259
Exercising Choice	0.51	3.58	0.69	0.209

From the mean scores achieved for the different constructs of the LMI (Table 1), as measured on a 5-point Liker scale, it is clear that students attach greatest meaning to leisure as Escaping Pressure, with leisure as Passing Time achieving the lowest score. It is concluded that students in general have positive feelings regarding the different meanings that can be attached to leisure, with only Passing Time leaning towards the negative.

Correlations

With regard to the correlation between leisure meanings and participation in leisure, results from Spearman's rank order correlations indicate that the following statistically significant correlations were observed: Escaping Pressure ($r=0.175$) and Achieving Fulfilment ($r=0.144$) were, to a small degree, positively related to total participation in leisure activities, whereas Passing Time ($r=-0.134$) was negatively related to total participation in leisure activities. In particular, Passing Time was negatively related to participation in outdoor activities ($r=-0.189$) as well as in individual sport ($r=-0.173$).

Demographic variables and leisure meanings

Results from a *t*-test indicate that significant statistical differences exist in terms of the meanings attached to leisure by male and female students. Female students ($\bar{x}=3.70$; $SD=0.55$) are more likely ($p=0.025$; $d=0.24$) to associate leisure with an opportunity to achieve fulfilment than men ($\bar{x}=3.56$; $SD=0.59$). Additionally, female students ($\bar{x}=3.67$; $SD=0.63$) are more likely ($p=0.025$; $d=0.23$) to attach a meaning to leisure that relates to leisure being an opportunity to exercise choice, than it does to male students ($\bar{x}=3.5$; $SD=0.72$).

With regard to the relationship between race and leisure meanings, no statistically significant differences exist in the meanings black, white, Coloured and Indian students attach to leisure. However, through the use of an ANOVA interesting findings emerge as the relationship between leisure meanings and home language indicate that statistically significant differences

exist ($p=0.001$) between the different language groups. Results of the Tukey B post-hoc test indicated that Afrikaans-speaking students ($\bar{x}=4.11$; $SD=0.60$) are more likely ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.48$) to see leisure as Escaping Pressure than English students ($\bar{x}=3.82$; $SD=0.61$). Additionally, Afrikaans-speaking students are also more likely ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.39$) to see leisure as Escaping Pressure than students who speak African languages ($\bar{x}=3.83$; $SD=0.72$). In addition, English-speaking students ($\bar{x}=2.73$; $SD=0.75$) are more likely ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.39$) to associate leisure with Passing Time than Afrikaans students ($\bar{x}=2.44$; $SD=0.71$). However, as race is also associated with home language, investigation into the influence of language within a specific race on leisure meanings, by means of a 2-way ANOVA, showed that white Afrikaans-speaking students ($\bar{x}=4.13$; $SD=0.60$) are more likely ($p=0.01$; $d=0.46$) to associate leisure with Escaping Pressure than white English-speaking students ($\bar{x}=3.85$; $SD=0.60$). Additionally, white English students ($\bar{x}=2.66$; $SD=0.80$) are more likely ($p=0.048$; $d=0.33$) to associate leisure with Passing Time than white Afrikaans-speaking students ($\bar{x}=2.39$; $SD=0.72$), which highlights the fact that language, and not race, influences leisure meanings.

No relationship was found between leisure meanings and where students grew up (city, town or farm/rural area). However, a t -tests revealed a statistically significant difference ($p=0.011$; $d=0.32$) in leisure meanings based on where students stay. Students who stay in private accommodation ($\bar{x}=2.66$; $SD=0.69$) are more likely to associate leisure with Passing Time than students who reside in university residences or dormitories ($\bar{x}=2.43$; $SD=0.71$).

Lastly, results of a t -test indicate that a statistically significant difference exists in leisure meanings based on the relationship status of a student. Students who are in a relationship ($\bar{x}=3.55$; $SD=0.56$) are less likely to see leisure as an opportunity for achieving fulfilment ($p=0.029$; $d=0.24$) than students who are not in a relationship ($\bar{x}=3.69$; $SD=0.57$).

DISCUSSION

In terms of statistically significant differences based on gender, female students attach more meaning to leisure as Achieving Fulfilment and as Exercising Choice than male students. Explanations for these results are twofold. Firstly, a possible explanation can be based on the fact that women's leisure in general is more constrained and seen as subordinate to male's leisure (Dowling *et al.*, 1997; Bittman & Wajcman, 2000; Sayer, 2005) and that when opportunities for leisure arise, women experience freedom to exercise choice and do as they please, being able to do what they want and enjoy during free time. Additionally, female students may choose to participate in activities that will help in achieving fulfilment which,

according to Schulz and Watkins (2007) is associated with deep emotional feelings of happiness and being content. A second explanation can be that first-year students are faced with increased freedom and control over their leisure, different patterns of free time availability, and exposure to new leisure activities (Hickerson & Beggs, 2007). During this time of transition, female students can break from the personal identities that are associated with their families and home communities (Russell, 2009; Kelly, 2012) and freely choose to participate in a completely new range of leisure activities to form new adult identities, without the need to conform to gender expectations or being stereotyped. Interestingly, Schulz (2001) determined that Australian women were more likely to associate leisure with Exercising Choices and Passing Time than men, indicating that different samples may provide different results and that results cannot be generalised without further investigation.

As race played a significant role in the political history of South Africa, and considering that race is not merely based on biological traits, but also has certain social connotations such as level of income, wealth, quality of education one receives as well as one's access to leisure and recreation (Freysinger & Harris, 2006), it was expected that race would have a significant effect on leisure meanings. However, results indicate that race does not seem to play a role in the meanings students attach to leisure. Washburne (1978) provides a conceptual basis from which leisure behaviour of different racial groups can be understood, namely the marginality hypothesis and ethnicity hypothesis, with much of the available literature using these approaches (Floyd, 1998; Stodolska & Walker, 2007). The marginality hypothesis proposes that differences in the leisure behaviour of different racial groups are the result of differences in the socio-economic resources of the different races (Washburne, 1978; Gómez, 2006). Floyd *et al.* (1994) and Haluza-DeLay (2006) conclude that marginalised racial groups occupy subordinate positions in society and as a result do not have equality and opportunities of having access to all the public services, influencing their lifestyles and their ability to access and participate in leisure and recreation activities. Based on this hypothesis a possible explanation for the lack of difference found in the leisure meanings of different racial groups is that although marginality issues related to race, such as discrimination and unequal access to services, may influence leisure experiences and constraints, race in itself may not necessarily influence the meanings individuals attach to leisure and, therefore may not be the best demographic variable to detect differences in leisure meanings. In contrast, the ethnicity hypothesis suggests that differences in leisure behaviour between racial groups are due to ethnic differences such as culture, values, norms and socialization patterns (Floyd *et al.*,

1994; Philipp, 1997; Gómez, 2006). Consequently, whereas race is largely based on the physical characteristics of a group of people, ethnicity, which is more socially constructed and comprises culture, religion, language and ancestry (Nagel, 1994) as a variable may provide more useful results regarding leisure meanings. A possible indication of this can lie in the differences found in leisure meanings based on language. As race is based on physical traits such as skin colour, the fact that there were significant differences between the leisure meanings of white English-speaking students and white Afrikaans-speaking students may indicate that ethnic difference within a specific race can lead to different leisure meanings. As white Afrikaans-speaking students are more likely to attach a meaning of Escaping Pressure to leisure than white English students, they see leisure as a means to escape daily pressures and to relax their minds (Schulz & Watkins, 2007). According to Russell (2009), escaping pressure is an important benefit of leisure as it provides opportunities for rest and restoration in order to be productive at a later stage. In contrast, white English students are more likely to associate leisure with Passing Time, indicating that they are more likely to see leisure as opportunity for relaxation and entertainment, without any obligations being present (Schulz & Watkins, 2007).

However, another explanation for the differences in leisure meanings based on language is also possible. Based on the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis that language influences the way people perceive the world (Davies *et al.*, 1998; Skerrett, 2010) it is conceivable that language, *per se*, is the cause of the different meanings attached to leisure. For example, an Afrikaans word closely related to leisure is *vryetyd*, directly translated meaning free time. However, Afrikaans also has another word that relates to leisure, namely *ontspanning*, directly translated meaning releasing tension. Based on the hypothesis that language influences the way individuals think about and perceive the world, it is possible that the word *ontspanning* (releasing tension) resulted in Afrikaans students associating leisure with escaping pressure.

Whether students grew up in cities, towns or rural areas and farms, made no statistically significant difference in the meanings they attached to leisure. Once again, it is conceivable that where students grew up did not necessarily influence the meanings they attach to leisure, but rather may have influenced their leisure experiences and leisure participation due to availability of and access to leisure opportunities. However, the results do indicate that where students stay during university attendance had an influence on leisure meanings. As students that stay in private accommodation are more likely to attach meanings of Passing Time to

leisure than students that stay in university residences or dormitories, it is possible that university residences offer students more opportunities to be involved in residence activities, other leisure activities and social interaction. As a result, it is possible that they are less likely to see leisure as Passing Time than students that stay privately and do not have access to all these leisure opportunities. A study by Miller *et al.* (2008) lends support to this argument as it found that students that stayed on campus made more use of campus recreation facilities than students that stayed off campus.

Very little research exists regarding the relationship between leisure and being in a relationship while at university, as the majority of research in this regard focuses on family leisure or the leisure of married couples (Bittman & Wajcman, 2000; Mattingly & Bianchi, 2003; Hultsman, 2012). As a result, the finding that relationship status influenced leisure meanings is difficult to explain. Students in a relationship are less likely to see leisure as an opportunity for achieving fulfilment, which is associated with deep emotional feelings of happiness and being content (Schulz & Watkins, 2007). It is possible that factors such as lack of support for leisure participation by a partner (Hultsman, 2012), or a decrease in leisure activities usually experienced separately due to being in a relationship (Russell, 2009) may influence the way leisure is experienced and the meanings attached to leisure. Additionally, it might be possible that students experience being in a relationship as fulfilling, and therefore have less need to experience fulfilment through their leisure. However, further research regarding the context of couples' leisure, as well as the influence of partners on leisure, is needed.

CONCLUSION

Despite the fact that not all statistical significant differences were supported in terms of practical significance, the study still provides some interesting results regarding the relationship between demographic variables and leisure meanings. Meanings attached to leisure differ between male and female students, and as the leisure meanings of female students relate to exercising choice and achieving fulfilment, it is clear that participation in leisure activities is rather based on the outcomes of participation than merely on entertainment. As the meanings individuals attach to leisure may also influence their motivations and preferences for activities, providers of campus leisure and recreation services should consider these differences when designing programmes, providing opportunities for female students to exercise choice as well as to achieve fulfilment.

The fact that language, and not race, accounted for different leisure meanings, especially between white English and white Afrikaans-speaking students, suggests that other factors such as ethnicity and culture may influence leisure meanings. Unfortunately, due to the relatively small sample size and large number of ethnic backgrounds found among the black students, it was not possible to determine whether ethnicity also had an influence on the leisure meanings of this specific racial group. Future research in this regard may highlight the complexity of how leisure meanings are formed. Additionally, based on the Sapir-Worth hypothesis that language determines the way individuals perceive the world, the fact that language may influence leisure meanings should not be dismissed.

The fact that 74% of respondents stay in private accommodation and are more likely to associate leisure with time which is free from other commitments and passing time may pose various challenges to the providers of campus recreation and leisure services. Leisure education is a possible approach that can be utilised to enhance expectations students have of leisure and change leisure meanings (Watkins, 2010). Research on the effect of credit-bearing leisure education at a university revealed that these classes provided students with opportunities of trying something new, contributing to better health, aiding in socialization with other students, helping to form well-rounded and balanced students and enriching their lives (Clark & Anderson, 2011). Based on these findings, it is clear that, although the model of a credit-bearing university course may not fit the course structure of all universities, the value of leisure education cannot be denied.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE STUDIES

Firstly, as leisure behaviour changes during transition periods, such as university attendance, it is possible that the meanings students attach to leisure may also have changed since leaving school, and may continue to change during their time at university. A longitudinal study that tracks leisure meanings of students from school and through their years at university may provide important insight into the stability of leisure meanings. Secondly, the sample of this study consisted of first-year students from academic programmes that focus on sport, leisure or recreation studies. The possibility exists that students interested in these fields of study may attach different meanings to leisure than students from other fields of study, such as engineering or economics. Future research should attempt to broaden the sample group to include a diverse student population. Lastly, as the results suggest that ethnicity and culture may be important factors that influence leisure meanings, it is suggested that research focus

on how these aspects influence leisure meanings. Additionally, cross-cultural research including students from different nationalities may reveal how leisure meanings are similar, or different, across cultures.

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CHAPTER 4

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND LEISURE EXPERIENCES OF SELECTED SOUTH AFRICAN FIRST-YEAR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS: IMPLICATIONS FOR SERVICE DELIVERY

Title/Titel

The influence of demographic variables on leisure experiences of selected South African first-year university students: Implications for service delivery

Die invloed van demografiese veranderlikes op die vryetydservarings van geselekteerde Suid-Afrikaanse eerstejaar- universiteitstudente: Implikasies vir dienslewering

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Abstract

Leisure experiences have a significant influence on individuals' leisure behaviour, and based on the diverse student populations found at South African universities, knowledge of how demographic variables influence leisure experiences may prove invaluable for the delivery of successful campus leisure programmes. Therefore the aim of the study was to determine the influence of demographic variables on leisure experiences of selected South African first-year university students. An availability sample (N=344) was used of students in the fields of sport, leisure or recreation studies from six South African universities. The Leisure Experience Battery for Young Adults (LEBYA) developed by Barnett (2005) was used which consists of 19 items measuring four factors, namely Awareness, Boredom, Challenge and Distress on a 5-point Likert scale. A confirmatory factor analysis, effect sizes, *t*-tests and ANOVA were used to analyse the data. Results indicate no differences in the leisure experiences of male and female students. For race, white students were more aware of leisure than were black students ($p=0.02$), and experienced less boredom ($p=0.00$) and distress ($p=0.27$). Additionally, white students had greater awareness of leisure than did Coloured students ($p\leq 0.05$). Finally, English-speaking students experienced less challenge in their leisure than students speaking African languages and Afrikaans-speaking students did ($p\leq 0.05$). It is suggested that universities implement leisure education programmes to increase awareness of leisure among students from different demographic backgrounds.

[Key words: Leisure experience, university students, awareness, boredom, challenge, distress, South Africa]

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND LEISURE EXPERIENCES OF SELECTED SOUTH AFRICAN FIRST-YEAR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS: IMPLICATIONS FOR SERVICE DELIVERY

INTRODUCTION

Within South African universities, leisure professionals are challenged to adapt to changes in the demographic composition of students. With a 14% increase in the proportion of African students attending public higher education institutions and the proportion of white students decreasing by 15% from 1995 to 2007, and with Coloured and Indian students comprising 6% and 7% respectively of the total student body in 2007, it is clear that a demographic shift is taking place in South African universities (Council on Higher Education, 2009). In order to continue providing quality leisure services, leisure and recreation professionals must be able to anticipate change and respond in suitable ways that will be positive and productive (Edginton *et al.*, 2004; Outley & Witt, 2006). A key factor in responding to these changes is knowledge of how students from different demographic backgrounds experience leisure, since the provision of successful leisure programmes is based on an understanding of the leisure behaviour and experiences of individuals (Lee, 1999; Rossman & Schlatter, 2008).

Seen from a research perspective, Shinew and Parry (2005) note that research regarding the leisure behaviour of individuals during the transition from late adolescence and young adulthood to university or college has generally been neglected. Considering the fact that understanding how people experience leisure forms the foundation for successful programming, research on the leisure experiences of first-year university students can add to the current body of knowledge regarding the leisure behaviour of this specific population group, as well as assist in facilitating and providing successful campus leisure and recreation programmes. To understand leisure experiences, research has moved away from studying what, how and when people engage in leisure activities, to focussing on the quality of their leisure participation and how they appraise what they do (Mannell, 1999; Barnett, 2005). However, research by Barnett (2005) concluded that understanding the different dimensions of leisure experience relies significantly on the ethnic and gender background of individuals; therefore it is important to note that although first-year students share certain commonalities, they cannot be seen as a homogenous group. In an attempt to expand on the leisure experience research, the purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between

demographic variables and the leisure experiences of selected South African first-year university students in the fields of sport, leisure or recreation studies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Leisure experiences of first-year students

First-year university students face several changes with regard to their leisure behaviour. During the transition to university, students move away from home, live in university residences or in communal homes with friends and often pay more attention to their social lives than to their academic responsibilities (Sylvia-Bobiak & Caldwell, 2006). First-year university students also experience an increase in freedom with less or no adult supervision and less structured schedules than during their school years, resulting in increased control and responsibility regarding their leisure choices (Sylvia-Bobiak & Caldwell, 2006; Bloemhoff, 2010). During this time, they are also introduced to increased opportunities to engage in a whole range of leisure activities (Hickerson & Beggs, 2007). As changes in leisure behaviour are most likely to occur during stages of life transition (Raymore *et al.*, 2001), exploration and risk-taking are common during this stage (Geller & Greenberg, 2010) and can influence leisure behaviour.

Unfortunately, this experimentation can also lead to negative and delinquent behaviour (Caldwell *et al.*, 2004) such as vandalism, unhealthy sexual experimentation and alcohol and drug use, as indicated by Shinew and Parry (2005) who suggest that alcohol and drug use are considered some of the popular leisure activities among university students. Hence it is important to note that leisure is not always associated with healthy and positive behaviour. In this regard, it is important to understand the leisure experiences of students as this may provide insight into reasons for both positive and negative forms of leisure behaviour.

The complex nature of leisure experiences

Despite attempts to broaden the current understanding of leisure experience, no consensus exists regarding what constitutes “experience” (Kivel *et al.*, 2009). Edginton *et al.* (2004) identified four criteria central to a leisure experience, namely perceived freedom, intrinsic motivation, perceived competence and positive affect. However, merely knowing the attributes of leisure experiences provides little insight into how these experiences shape and influence leisure behaviour, and further research in this field is needed (Lee, 1999). Sylvester (2008) suggests that a leisure experience consists of two components, namely an objective component and a subjective component. The objective component focuses on aspects related

to the activity itself, such as quality of equipment, neatness of facilities or quality of the instructor, whereas the subjective component focuses on the emotions and feelings individuals experience during participation in a leisure activity. Although an objective approach to studying leisure experiences can provide insight into how to improve leisure programmes and activities, it does not necessarily explain the feelings and emotions related to leisure experiences; therefore this article focuses on subjective leisure experiences.

Kelly (2012) describes leisure as being an actual experience, the real-time action of engaging in activities, and research on the feelings and emotions experienced during leisure has highlighted the complex nature of leisure experiences. Research found that, although leisure was experienced as enjoyable, providing freedom of choice, autonomy, aesthetic appreciation, companionship, escape, intimacy and relaxation, enjoyment and fun at times, leisure was also associated with exhaustion, apprehension, nervousness, disappointment, frustration, stress, fatigue, feelings of guilt, fearfulness and being unsettled (Tinsley *et al.*, 1993; Lee *et al.*, 1994; Coble *et al.*, 2003). Literature also suggests that women often experience denial or feelings of guilt during leisure, seeing that they feel they should not spend their free time on themselves (Wilders *et al.*, 2010; Lafrance, 2011). Additionally, research by Wegner *et al.* (2006) and Wegner *et al.* (2008) determined that boredom is also a feeling that is associated with leisure. These findings indicate that leisure is not always experienced in a positive manner, but that negative feelings may also occur during leisure and, as a result, influence leisure behaviour.

As adolescents do not only engage in positive and healthy forms of leisure, but also in experimentation with negative leisure activities, a need exists to understand how leisure experiences contribute to participation in these types of activities. It is based on this need that Caldwell *et al.* (1992) conceptualised leisure experiences of adolescents to be composed of four constructs, namely awareness, boredom, challenge and distress. Though the importance and the use of these four constructs have been described and justified by Caldwell *et al.* (1992), Barnett (2005) and Gokturk (2009), it remains important to analyse the available literature that relates to adolescents' leisure and each of these four constructs.

Awareness

Many authors have argued that in order to engage in leisure one must first have knowledge of the leisure opportunities and resources available (Barnett, 2005). Similarly, Godbey (2008) explains that in order to get involved in a leisure activity, one needs to have knowledge and

awareness of the activity so that it arouses interest to participate. Increased knowledge and awareness of leisure benefits and leisure resources in a community is also positively associated with increased self-confidence, leisure participation and leisure satisfaction (Prvu *et al.*, 1999). In contrast, a lack of awareness can have a negative effect on individuals' leisure experiences, as lack of awareness of leisure benefits and leisure resources are linked to experiences of boredom and delinquent leisure behaviour (Caldwell *et al.*, 1999; Hickerson & Beggs, 2007; Wegner & Flisher, 2009). Hence it is clear that an awareness of leisure benefits and resources plays an important role in experiencing leisure in a positive manner.

Boredom

Understanding the concept *boredom* is important, since boredom and situations where individuals have no interest (Sharp *et al.*, 2011) have been closely associated with negative and delinquent behaviour.

Boredom has been described as a feeling or situation that is unpleasant and unrewarding, and is associated with feelings such as tediousness, disinterest due to a lack of external stimulation, emptiness and inaction, stress, restlessness, and entrapment combined with lethargy (Conrad, 1997; Farnworth, 1998; Martin *et al.*, 2006; German & Latkin, 2012). Boredom reflects unmet human needs, and as a result can influence individuals' thoughts, feelings, motivation and actions (Van Tilburg & Igou, 2012). However, although research has indicated how boredom can influence individuals' actions, little is known about the causes of boredom. In a review of literature, Wegner and Flisher (2009) concluded that three broad factors, namely social control, psychological influences and context of leisure, could influence leisure boredom. Firstly, in terms of social control, it is suggested that adolescents have a need for autonomy and may experience boredom in situations when they feel their ability to achieve autonomy is restricted, either by teachers, societal expectations or even parents who are considered to be too strict (Wegner & Flisher, 2009). In terms of personality it is suggested that individual motivation, as well as personality traits such as, amongst others, being an introvert and having high imagination, may lead to boredom, whereas the ability to entertain oneself, extroversion and emotional stability served as predictors for lower levels of boredom (Barnett & Klitzing, 2006; Wegner & Flisher, 2009). Finally, in terms of context of leisure, it was found that limited leisure resources and knowledge regarding the benefits of leisure (Caldwell *et al.*, 1999; Hickerson & Beggs, 2007) contributed to higher boredom. Additionally, lack of challenge during leisure might lead to boredom, while lower

levels of boredom were found when adolescents wished to take part in an activity opposed to higher levels of boredom when adolescents felt they had to take part in an activity or took part because they had nothing else to do (Caldwell *et al.*, 1999; Wegner & Flisher, 2009).

From this discussion it is clear that although external factors may cause boredom, it is also an internal process, and as a result, how individuals experience boredom during leisure may also be influenced by demographic factors such as gender (Shaw *et al.*, 1996; Barnett, 2005) and race (Barnett, 2005; Barnett & Klitzing, 2006; Wegner *et al.*, 2006).

Challenge

Challenge is a concept closely related to leisure and is seen as a factor that can lead to sustained leisure involvement (Dridea & Murgoci, 2010). Since boredom, as discussed previously, is the result of a lack of external stimulation, challenge through leisure participation is therefore seen as a way of combating boredom. In this regard, the concept *flow*, as proposed by Csikszentmihalyi and LeFerve (1989) and Csikszentmihalyi and Csikszentmihalyi (1999), is relevant. Flow is a psychological state that is experienced when a person is so intensely occupied and immersed in an activity that nothing else seems to matter, and is the consequence of perceived balance between the individual's skills and the challenges posed by the situation (Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1999; Edginton *et al.*, 2006; Heo *et al.*, 2010; Piquart & Silbereisen, 2010). However, if the challenge is far greater than the skill of the participant it will result in anxiety, if the skills are far greater than the challenge, boredom will set in. In contrast to boredom and anxiety, activities that provide optimal challenges promote feelings of intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and are negatively related to antisocial behaviour (Coatsworth *et al.*, 2005). Leisure activities where high levels of challenge and high skills levels are present are also associated with leisure experiences of a better quality (Delle Fave & Bassi, 2003) and also relate to increased life satisfaction (Guinn, 1999).

Distress

Little research regarding distress as a result of leisure exists (Barnett, 2005), but Lee *et al.* (1994) found that some individuals experienced feelings of apprehension and nervousness during leisure, confirming that distress may form part of the leisure experience. According to Csikszentmihalyi and Csikszentmihalyi (1999), situations in which the challenge of an activity exceeds the skills of persons taking part in the activity may lead to feelings of anxiety. Caldwell *et al.* (1992) further explain that anxiety during leisure may also occur due

to fear of evaluation by others, or the fear of free time itself, including the possibility of aloneness. As stated earlier, negative feelings regarding boredom exist, and these conditions may cause feelings of distress, especially when an individual is aware of available free time in the near future, without anything to fill the time with. It is important, however, to note that Caldwell *et al.* (1992) as well as Barnett (2005) indicated that there is a difference between the negative feelings experienced during free time without knowing how to fill it, and somatic anxiety. Interesting findings by Barnett (2005) also related to the fact that the people who were less likely to experience distress about unfilled free time, also tended to experience boredom during this unfilled free time.

RESEARCH METHODS

Research sample

The research was based on an availability sample from six South African universities. First-year students from academic programmes in sport, recreation or leisure studies were selected for this study. The sample consisted of 334 participants of which 52.1% were male and 47.9% female. The mean age was 19.86 years. In terms of race, 41.6% were black, 42.8% were white, 9.6% were Coloured, 5.4% were Indian and 0.6% reported to belong to other racial groups. As South Africa has eleven official languages, of which nine are indigenous African languages (i.e. Ndebele, Northern Sotho, Sotho, Swazi, Tswana, Tsonga, Venda, Xhosa and Zulu), these nine languages were grouped together and referred to as African languages. African languages were the home languages of 35.4% of the respondents, English was the home language of 33.8% of the respondents and Afrikaans was the home language of 30.8% of the respondents. In terms of where the respondents grew up, 39.5% came from cities, 33.2% from towns and 27.3% from farms, rural areas or informal settlements. Christianity was the most prevalent religion (84.7%), followed by atheism (7.2%). Only 26% of the respondents stayed in university residences or dormitories, with the majority (74%) staying in private accommodation.

Research instruments

The Leisure Experience Battery for Young Adults (LEBYA), developed by Barnett (2005), was used to determine the leisure experiences of first-year students. The LEBYA was developed to measure salient dimensions of adolescents' leisure experiences, namely awareness, boredom, challenge, and distress, and is based on the original questionnaire of Caldwell *et al.* (1992), with the exception that the terminology was changed from using free

time, to leisure. The battery consists of 19 items that measures four subscales related to leisure experiences, namely Awareness (Cronbach Alpha = 0.67), Boredom (Cronbach Alpha = 0.736), Challenge (Cronbach Alpha = 0.721) and Distress (Cronbach Alpha = 0.736). The questionnaire used a 5-point Likert scale (1=Strongly Disagree; 3=Neutral; 5=Strongly Agree) to determine respondents' level of agreement with the statements in the questionnaire. Barnett (2005) regards this questionnaire as a reliable and valid scale for determining qualitative aspects of adolescent leisure experiences. Information regarding demographic variables was gathered by means of a questionnaire while students' involvement in leisure activities was determined through an open-ended question in which students had to indicate the leisure activities they participate in, along with the frequency of participation.

Research procedures

Ethical approval for the research was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the North-West University. Permission for the use of first-year students in the fields of sport, recreation or leisure studies at the various universities was obtained from the heads of the relevant programmes. The research questionnaires were distributed during contact sessions and were completed under the supervision of a lecturer versed in the aims of the study.

Statistical analysis

The data was processed by the Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University. Firstly, descriptive statistics were used to determine mean scores and standard deviations. In terms of students' involvement in leisure, reported leisure activities were grouped into leisure programme areas and an average participation count in each of the programme areas was determined per participant. Secondly, confirmatory factor analysis was performed on the LEBYA using AMOS (Amos Development Company, 2011) to determine whether the proposed factors measured by the questionnaire fit the factors found in the sample of the current study. Reliability of the LEBYA for this sample was also determined. Thirdly, Spearman's rank order correlations were used to determine the relationship between leisure experiences and involvement in leisure. Lastly, practical significance in terms of effect sizes for the differences between means were calculated (small effect: $d=0.2$; medium effect: $d=0.5$; large effect: $d=0.8$), along with *t*-tests, ANOVA and 2-way ANOVA that were performed to determine whether the various demographic variables had statistically significant influences on leisure experiences.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results are reported in two phases. The first phase includes discussions on the determination of reliability of the LEBYA, as well as the results from the confirmatory factor analysis. The second phase of the discussion focuses on the results regarding leisure involvement and whether statistically significant differences exist in terms of leisure experiences based on selected demographic variables.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Due to the overly strict nature of the Chi-square test in determining goodness of fit of a model (Hancock & Mueller, 2010), alternative methods for determining goodness of fit were utilised in this study and goodness of fit is reported in terms of more than one index. In this study three different indices, namely Minimum Sample Discrepancy divided by Degrees of Freedom (CMIN/DF), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) are used to evaluate fit.

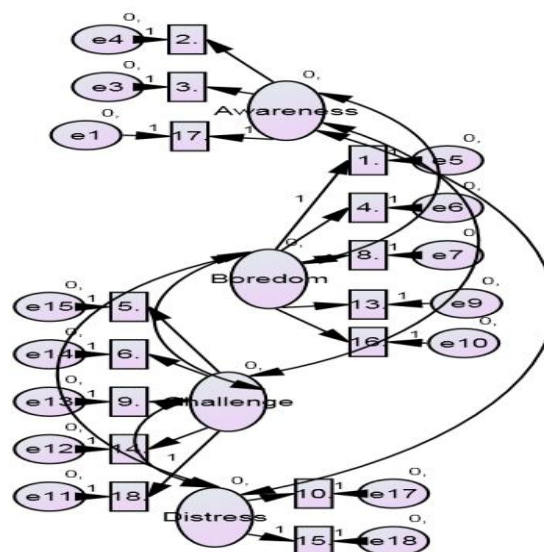


FIGURE 1: THE CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS MODEL FOR THE LEBYA

The four factor model provided a CMIN/DF value of 2.178, which can be regarded as acceptable, being smaller than five. In terms of the CFI, as values higher than 0.9 are described by Mueller (1996) as a good overall fit, the value of 0.852 achieved in this study can be considered to be relatively acceptable. Lastly, a RMSEA value of 0.06 was obtained,

with a 90% confidence interval of [0.048; 0.071], which indicate a good fit with a value smaller than 0.08. Additionally, all means, variances, correlations and regression weights were statistically significant.

Reliability

In order to achieve acceptable reliability of the constructs, four items of the LEBYA had to be deleted. Three of the deleted items correspond to items deleted in a study by Barnett (2005). However, an additional item had to be removed from the Distress factor to achieve higher reliability. Reliability for the four constructs is indicated in Table 1.

Considering that a reliability of 0.70 (Chronbach Alpha) or higher could be regarded as satisfactory (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), it is clear that the reliability of the four factors, ranging between 0.51 and 0.65, is marginally acceptable. With regard to inter-item correlation, a measure of internal consistency, the desired range is between 0.15 and 0.55 (Clark & Watson, 1995). As the mean inter-item correlation of the four factors is between 0.208 and 0.364, it is evident that these values fall within the desired range. It can therefore be concluded that the internal consistency of the LEBYA, with reference to this sample, is satisfactory.

TABLE 1: RELIABILITY OF THE LEBYA CONSTRUCTS

Construct	Chronbach Alpha	Means	Standard Deviation	Mean Inter-Item Correlation
Awareness	0.51	3.43	0.83	0.265
Boredom	0.57	2.21	0.66	0.208
Challenge	0.65	3.75	0.63	0.276
Distress	0.53	3.22	1.05	0.364

From the mean scores achieved for the different constructs (Table 1), as measured on a five-point Likert scale, it is clear that students in general disagree with the Boredom statements in the LEBYA, indicating that they do not experience boredom. Additionally, students have relatively neutral feelings towards Distress while tending towards positive feelings regarding Awareness and Challenge.

Correlations

Table 2 shows the correlation between the different factors of the LEBYA. From the table it is clear that strong negative correlations exist between Awareness and Boredom, as well as between Awareness and Distress, and Boredom and Challenge.

TABLE 2: CORRELATION BETWEEN FACTORS OF THE LEBYA

Factors	Awareness	Boredom	Challenge	Distress
Awareness		-0.381*	0.162*	-0.247*
Boredom	-0.381*		-0.314*	0.258*
Challenge	0.162*	-0.314*		0.054
Distress	-0.247*	0.258*	0.054	

* indicates statistical significance

Additionally, with regard to the correlation between the four constructs of the LEBYA and leisure participation, results from Spearman's rank order correlations indicate no statistically significant correlation between total leisure participation and Awareness. However, a statistically significant positive correlation does exist between Awareness and participation in individual sport ($r=0.119$), and outdoor activities ($r=0.125$), while a negative correlation exists with watching television ($r=-0.107$). A statistically significant negative correlation was found between Boredom and total leisure participation ($r=-0.196$), as well as performing arts ($r=-0.122$), visual arts ($r=-0.138$), outdoor activities ($r=-0.145$) and wellness activities ($r=-0.143$). A statistically significant positive correlation existed between Challenge and total leisure participation ($r=0.196$), individual sports ($r=0.115$), outdoor activities ($r=0.141$) and wellness activities ($r=0.142$).

Leisure experience and demographic variables

Results indicate that no differences existed in how females and males experience leisure in terms of Awareness, Boredom, Challenge or Distress. This lack of differences was somewhat unexpected seeing that Barnett (2005) concluded that gender plays a significant role in the leisure experiences of students. With leisure research regarding gender now focussing more on the unique leisure experiences of women (Henderson, 1994a; Henderson, 1994b), and with research indicating that women's leisure differs from that of males because of gender

role expectations (Dowling *et al.*, 1997), the findings of this study are contrary to available literature. Whether these findings are specific to a South African context is uncertain, but a more reasonable explanation can be attributed to the sample being students, with both male and female students having equal free time, access and opportunities for campus leisure and recreation, and therefore possibly similar leisure experiences. Additionally, as the ethic of care and fulfilment of domestic duties significantly influence leisure experiences of women (Shaw, 1999; Mattingly & Bianchi, 2003), the fact that female students do not yet have to contend with these issues, may also account for the similarities between male and females' leisure experiences.

In terms of race, a *t*-test was applied to the leisure experiences of the two largest racial groups, namely white and black students. This *t*-test revealed that statistical significant differences exist between the leisure experiences of black and white students, specifically in terms of Awareness ($p=0.02$; $d=0.35$), Boredom ($p=0.00$; $d=0.59$), and Distress ($p=0.003$; $d=0.33$). For Awareness white students ($\bar{x}=3.64$; $SD=0.79$) achieved higher scores than did black students ($\bar{x}=3.34$; $SD=0.86$), whereas white students ($\bar{x}=2.01$; $SD=0.61$) achieved lower scores than did black students ($\bar{x}=2.39$; $SD=0.64$) in Boredom. In terms of Distress white students ($\bar{x}=3.04$; $SD=1.13$) also achieved lower scores than did black students ($\bar{x}=3.42$; $SD=0.98$). An ANOVA on the leisure experiences of white, black, Indian and Coloured students further revealed statistical significant differences in terms of Awareness ($p=0.001$), Boredom ($p=0.000$), Distress ($p=0.027$) and race. A follow-up Tukey B post-hoc test indicated a difference ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.66$) only between Coloured ($\bar{x}=3.11$; $SD=0.69$) and white students ($\bar{x}=3.63$; $SD=0.79$) in terms of Awareness, with white students demonstrating greater awareness. As both Coloured and black students come from previously disadvantaged racial groups in South Africa, it is possible that the results support the marginality hypothesis of Washburne (1978) who proposes that differences in the leisure behaviour of racial groups are the result of differences in the socio-economic resources of the different races (Washburne, 1978; Gómez, 2006). Similarly, Floyd *et al.* (1994) and Haluza-DeLay (2006) concluded that marginalised racial groups occupy subordinate positions in society and as a result do not have equal opportunities and access to all the public services, influencing their lifestyles and their ability to access and participate in leisure and recreation activities. However, as all university students generally have equal access to campus recreation and leisure services, the premise of the marginality hypothesis that not all racial groups have equal access and opportunities for leisure fail to explain the effect of race on leisure

behaviour fully. In this regard, Philipp (1997) and Floyd (1998) remark that, apart from the marginality hypothesis, a significant theoretical framework regarding leisure and race, namely perceived discrimination, can be identified. Perceived discrimination can condition minorities' willingness to engage in leisure pursuits, and can be in the form of discrimination by other recreation users, discrimination by staff, or differential upkeep of leisure resources (Sharaievska *et al.*, 2010; Stodolska & Shinew, 2010). The consequences of these forms of discrimination can lead to confrontation, withdrawal or changes in leisure behaviour, where individuals change the time and places where they participate, visit leisure settings in groups and not alone, and gaining more information about a setting before deciding to visit (Gobster, 2002; Hibbler & Shinew, 2002; Sharaievska *et al.*, 2010). A final possible explanation for the differences in leisure experience based on race can be that different racial groups have different ethnic and cultural backgrounds (ethnicity hypothesis), and that these different backgrounds are the reasons why different racial groups experience leisure differently (Washburne, 1978).

An ANOVA revealed significant differences between language groups in terms of Awareness ($p=0.029$), Boredom ($p=0.001$) and Challenge ($p=0.004$). By means of a Tukey B post-hoc test significant statistical differences ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.34$) were found between Afrikaans-speaking students ($\bar{x}=3.59$; $SD=0.85$) and students who speak African languages ($\bar{x}=3.29$; $SD=0.89$) in terms of Awareness. Similarly, a significant statistical difference ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.50$) exists between Afrikaans students ($\bar{x}=2.02$; $SD=0.60$) and students that speak African languages ($\bar{x}=2.36$; $SD=0.68$) in terms of Boredom. In the above-mentioned cases, Afrikaans students were more aware of leisure and less bored during leisure than students that speak African languages. Although it is possible that language played a role in these results, the similarity of these results to those found with regard to race suggest that, because the majority of students that speak African languages were black students, and the majority of Afrikaans-speaking students were white, these results were rather based on the racial backgrounds of the different language groups. The results of the Tukey B post-hoc test indicated that statistically significant differences exist between English students and Afrikaans-speaking students ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.31$), as well as students that speak African languages ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.40$) in terms of Challenge. Students who speak African languages ($\bar{x}=3.85$; $SD=0.59$) and Afrikaans-speaking students ($\bar{x}=3.79$; $SD=0.63$) experienced more challenge in their leisure than their English-speaking ($\bar{x}=3.59$; $SD=0.65$) counterparts. In order to exclude the influence of race on the results related to language, a t-test was

conducted specifically on the white students. The results within the white racial group revealed that Afrikaans-speaking students ($\bar{x}=3.82$; $SD=0.63$) had significantly higher scores ($p=0.035$; $d=0.37$) for Challenge than the English-speaking students ($\bar{x}=3.60$; $SD=0.60$), indicating that language can have an influence on leisure experiences within a specific racial group. Whether ethnic aspects, such as culture, values, norms and socialization patterns (Floyd *et al.*, 1994; Philipp, 1997; Gómez, 2006) associated with specific language groups influence leisure experience, is unclear and further research in this regard is needed. Additionally, language, *per se*, may also have an effect on leisure behaviour as the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis suggests that language influences the way people perceive the world (Davies *et al.*, 1998; Skerrett, 2010), and as a result may influence their experiences. Although it seems unlikely that language can influence leisure experiences, Chick (2006:45) mentions that no research exist that can directly refute it.

Lastly, no difference was found in leisure experience based on the relationship status of students, whether students stayed in university residences or privately, or whether students grew up in cities, towns, rural areas or informal settlements.

CONCLUSION

Very little research regarding leisure experiences exist within a South African context and despite the fact that not all statistical significant differences were supported in terms of practical significance, the results of this study still provide interesting and important insight into the leisure experiences of South African first-year university students. The results not only highlight the complexity of leisure experiences within different demographic groups, but also provide information for leisure and recreation professionals that can be used to improve the delivery of campus recreation and leisure services.

To date, contrasting results regarding leisure experience and gender have been found. Research by Barnett (2005) determined that within a North American student sample gender does influence leisure experiences, whereas Gokturk (2009) found that within a Turkish student sample no statistically significant differences exist in terms of leisure experiences of males and females. In line with the findings of Gokturk (2009), the sample used in this study showed no relationship between gender and leisure experiences. The reason for this finding is unclear, and further research is needed to determine whether this result can be explained by other factors. It should be noted, however, that although male and female first-year students have similar leisure experiences in terms of Awareness, Boredom, Challenge and Distress,

the actual leisure behaviour and leisure preferences may still be different. As a result, providers of campus leisure and recreation programmes should still focus on determining the leisure needs and preferences of male and female students and provide leisure opportunities that will fulfil these needs.

The existing differences in terms of leisure experiences and race suggest that students from marginalised and previously disadvantaged racial groups do not have the same level of leisure awareness than the white students, and that black students, in particular, also experience more boredom and distress during their leisure. Although the marginality hypothesis as suggested by Washburne (1978) provides a possible explanation for these results, the fact that all university students generally have equal access to campus leisure and recreation opportunities, suggests that unequal access and opportunities to leisure, as suggested by the marginality hypothesis, is not the only explanation for these results. Additionally, perceived discrimination, as suggested by Philipp (1997) and Floyd (1998), may also contribute to the racial differences in terms of leisure experience. In practice, leisure and recreation professionals should focus on ensuring that leisure and recreation programmes are provided in a safe and accessible manner in an attempt to reduce the occurrence of perceived discrimination. Additionally, literature suggests that individuals that do not have leisure skills have difficulty in managing their leisure time and are more likely to be bored. Furthermore, not being aware of the benefits of leisure or leisure opportunities also leads to boredom (Hickerson & Beggs, 2007; Caldwell *et al.*, 1999). Considering the fact that in this study boredom showed a negative correlation to total leisure participation, as well as performing and visual arts, outdoor activities and wellness activities, it is suggested that campus leisure and recreation services focus on reducing student boredom by providing a wide range of diverse leisure activities (Hickerson & Beggs, 2007). Additionally, leisure professionals should promote all leisure opportunities and highlight the benefits of participation in these activities through the implementation of comprehensive leisure education programmes.

Although language accounted for differences in leisure experiences, the fact that students that speak African languages are in general also black students, should be borne in mind, as it becomes unclear whether the differences are due to race or language. However, the fact that differences exist between different language groups within a specific race suggests that language does have an influence on leisure experiences of South African first-year university

students. Whether these are because of the influence of language, *per se*, or because of cultural and ethnic factors related to specific language groups, such as traditions, is not clear and it highlights an area of leisure research that may contribute to the current understanding of how leisure experiences are determined.

The fact that where students grew up (e.g. cities, towns, rural areas or informal settlements) did not influence leisure experiences can be explained by the possibility that leisure experiences change over time. In support, the findings may indicate that leisure experiences, particularly Awareness, Boredom, Challenge and Distress, are not stable, but rather change over time as a person is introduced to new leisure opportunities or becomes more aware of leisure and the benefits it provides. In terms of this explanation future research, focussing on longitudinal data may provide valuable insight into the stability or changeability of leisure experiences over time. Additionally, qualitative research, used in conjunction with the LEBYA, may provide useful information on the factors influencing leisure experiences.

LIMITATIONS

Certain limitations in this study can be identified. Firstly, the study focussed on South African first-year students in the fields of sport, recreation or leisure studies, and it is possible that their leisure experiences differ from those of first-year students from other fields of study. Future research should utilise a more diverse sample in order to improve the ability to generalise the findings. Secondly, socio-economic status of students was not considered in the study. With higher socio-economic status generally associated with the white racial groups (Magi, 1999) the possibility exists that the results may have been influenced by socio-economic status and not only by race. Lastly, the study used a once-off cross-sectional research design, providing insight into the students' current leisure experiences. Whether leisure experiences change over time, as first-year students become more involved in student life and familiar with the leisure opportunities provided by universities, is not clear and a longitudinal research design may provide valuable information on how leisure experiences change, or stay the same, over time.

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CHAPTER 5

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEISURE CONSTRAINTS AND DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES OF SELECTED SOUTH AFRICAN FIRST-YEAR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Title/*Titel*

The relationship between demographic variables and leisure constraints of selected South African first-year university students

Die verband tussen demografiese veranderlikes en vrytydhindernisse van geselekteerde Suid-Afrikaanse eerstejaar- universiteitstudente

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Abstract

This study aimed at determining the influence of demographic variables on leisure constraint among selected South African first-year students. Based on an availability sample, first-year students (N=334) from academic programmes in sport, recreation or leisure studies at six South African universities were selected for this study. The leisure constraints questionnaire by Raymore *et al.* (1993) was used, which consists of 21 statements and measures perceived leisure constraints in three categories, namely intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints, based on a five-point Likert scale. A confirmatory factor analysis, effect sizes, *t*-tests and ANOVA were used for the data analysis. Results indicate that white students experience more structural constraints than do black students ($p=0.032$), while black students experience more interpersonal constraints than do white students ($p=0.019$). Differences also exist between black and Indian students in terms of intrapersonal constraints ($p\leq 0.05$). English-speaking students experience greater intrapersonal constraint than do African languages-speaking students ($p\leq 0.05$), while students staying in private accommodation experience greater structural constraints than those staying in a university hostel ($p=0.011$). Lastly, students that grew up in rural areas/informal settlements experience less intrapersonal and structural constraints than do students from cities or towns ($p\leq 0.05$). Leisure education programmes are suggested to assist students in negotiating these constraints.

[Key words: Leisure constraints, intrapersonal, interpersonal, structural, university students, South Africa]

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEISURE CONSTRAINTS AND DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES OF SELECTED SOUTH AFRICAN FIRST-YEAR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

INTRODUCTION

In terms of research, South Africa poses a number of unique variables that may influence leisure constraints. Magi (1999) proposes that a history of apartheid had a significant effect on the leisure behaviour of South Africans, as it led to a society that consists of diverse socio-economic backgrounds. As a result affluence is closely related to race, with the majority of opportunities for leisure participation being found in the more privileged and affluent sectors of society. Additionally, Palen *et al.* (2010) state that the legacy of apartheid also shaped the leisure constraints in South Africa, as issues of marginality, cultural values and racial discrimination may have influenced the leisure constraints of South Africans in a unique way. In terms of understanding the relationship between demographic variables and leisure constraints in South Africa, a particular demographically diverse population group, that may provide valuable insight into leisure behaviour, is South African university students.

Currently a demographic shift is occurring in the student composition at all South African universities, with formerly white, Coloured and Indian universities experiencing increased enrolment by students that speak African languages (Council on Higher Education, 2001). Evidence of this demographic shift can also be seen in the fact that the proportion of African students attending public higher education institutions had increased from 49% in 1995 to 63% in 2007. In contrast, the proportion of white students attending these higher education institutions had decreased from 39% in 1995 to 24% in 2007, while in 2007 Coloured students and Indian students comprised 6% and 7% of the total student body (Council on Higher Education, 2009). Furthermore, although racial integration has occurred at the more affluent educational institutions, such as universities (Pattman, 2007), many of the students that attend university are economically and educationally disadvantaged (Petersen *et al.*, 2009), adding to the diversity of the student population.

Although research regarding leisure constraints has seen significant growth and expansion since the 1980s (Jackson, 2000), many aspects regarding leisure constraints still need to be understood (Shinew *et al.*, 2004). How gender, race, and social class, along with other socio-

demographic factors, relate to leisure constraints are some of the research areas that still need to be further explored (Jackson & Henderson, 1995; Shinen *et al.*, 2004; Shinen & Floyd, 2005). Furthermore, to date the overwhelming majority of constraints research has been conducted in North America, and although this research has formed the foundation of the current body of knowledge regarding leisure constraints, research paucity exists in terms of the application of constraints models in non-Western and developing countries. More specifically, Goslin (2003) and Palen *et al.* (2010) highlight the fact that very little is known about leisure constraints from a South African perspective due to a lack of research in this field. It is based on these shortcomings in constraints research that the purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between the demographic variables and leisure constraints of selected South African first-year university students.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Leisure constraints

Research regarding leisure constraints has made significant progress over the last three decades. Whereas leisure constraints were initially considered to be insurmountable barriers to participation, the model of leisure constraints by Crawford and Godbey (1987), Crawford *et al.* (1991) and Raymore *et al.* (1993), propose that three distinct categories of constraints exist, namely intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints. The model also determined that these three constraints function in a hierarchical manner, and that the constraints have to be overcome in a sequential manner, starting with intrapersonal constraints and ending with the structural constraints.

Kay and Jackson (1991) found time and financial constraints to be the most significant forms of structural constraints. Similarly, Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997) also determined that the most often mentioned forms of structural constraints were a lack of time and of money, and poor health. In an overview of research regarding leisure constraints, Jackson (2000) agrees that time- and cost-related constraints were ranked as the most widely experienced forms of constraints. In contrast, however, Alexandris and Carroll (1997) found that for a Greek sample, time- and facility/service-related constraints were the most experienced constraints for both participants and non-participants, whereas Drakou *et al.* (2008) also concluded that lack of access and lack of facilities were the two most significant leisure constraints experienced by Greek university students. Similarly, Bülent *et al.* (2010) found that for a Turkish sample, facilities and service-related issues, along with accessibility were the most

significant constraints. These contradictory findings may indicate that structural constraints are not experienced similarly among different population groups.

In contrast to research that has found structural constraints to be the greatest, several studies report interpersonal constraints to be the most significant forms of leisure constraints. Research by Chick and Dong (2003) on the leisure constraints of a sample consisting of Japanese and Chinese couples determined that most of the subjects were extremely constrained by interpersonal factors and that this resulted in them terminating their leisure participation. Similarly, Wilhelm Stanis *et al.* (2010) determined that in terms of leisure time physical activity, interpersonal factors were the greatest form of leisure constraints. With regard to interpersonal constraints, Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997) found that social aspects played an important role in leisure constraints as family responsibilities, absence of a partner and mismatched leisure interest among partners were the most cited forms of interpersonal constraints.

With regard to intrapersonal constraints, the most significant constraints found by Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997) was personality, and that introverted people experienced constraints as they felt they could not make friends or take part in activities by themselves. Interestingly though, findings by Alexandris *et al.* (2002) revealed that of all the leisure constraints only intrapersonal constraints significantly influenced participation (acting as a blocking constraint) and that once overcome, individuals were likely to participate even though interpersonal and structural constraints existed. In a later study by Alexandris *et al.* (2002) it was further determined that intrapersonal constraints act as antecedents of motivation, and that individuals that reported higher levels of intrapersonal constraints were also less motivated to participate in leisure activities. According to Alexandris *et al.* (2002), these findings lend support to the hierarchical nature of leisure constraints, indicating that intrapersonal constraints are not only the first level of constraint, but also the most significant constraints to overcome.

Additionally, contrary to the expectation that experiencing high levels of constraints lead to decreased leisure participation, it was found by Kay and Jackson (1991) that in certain cases higher levels of constraints were experienced by active leisure participants than by non-participants. These findings were supported by Shaw *et al.* (1991) who similarly found that individuals that indicated that they experienced time constraints had significantly higher levels of participation than those that did not report time as a leisure constraint. Proposed

reasons for this are that individuals that engage in leisure activities are more aware of the different constraints that had to be overcome in order to participate than those that did not participate (Kay & Jackson, 1991). However, contrasting findings by Alexandris and Carroll (1997) were found in a Greek sample, where higher levels of constraints were linked to lower participation. This indicates that different population groups not only experience different intensities of leisure constraints, but also unique combinations of constraints (Jackson, 2000).

Leisure constraints and demographic factors

Although society has changed and more women have entered the labour market, with more equality in both paid and unpaid work, certain differences in the quality and availability of leisure of men and women still exist (Sayer, 2005). However, research regarding gender and leisure constraints has yielded contrasting results. Researchers such as Drakou *et al.* (2008) and Casper and Harrolle (2013) found that no difference exists in leisure constraints based on gender. In contrast, Jackson and Henderson (1995) as well as Raymore *et al.* (1994), found that although females and males mostly experienced the same constraints, the intensity of the constraints was higher for females, supporting the notion that women are more constrained in terms of leisure. Similarly, Tergerson and King (2002) and Bülent *et al.* (2010) found that females experience more constraints than males. Specific constraints affecting females relate to them having lower self-esteem than males, resulting in increased intrapersonal constraints (Raymore *et al.*, 1994), while perceptions regarding body image were found to be a major factor that influences leisure behaviour of women (Shaw, 1999; Liechty *et al.*, 2006). Additionally, Shaw (1999) identified the ethic of care as an additional factor that uniquely affects women's leisure behaviour. In this regard Harrington and Dawson (1995), Dowling *et al.* (1997) and Koca *et al.* (2009) mention that because women are expected to be responsible for domestic duties, childcare and other family responsibilities, they experienced self-denial (a possible intrapersonal constraint) during leisure since they place their personal needs before those of their family.

However, leisure choices are not made based on biological gender, but due to the relationships and context in which an individual finds him/herself, together with the cultural and societal expectations placed on them (Jackson & Henderson, 1995), creating distinct interpersonal constraints. With regard to the impact of societal factors affecting leisure behaviour Dowling *et al.* (1997) conclude that society often assumes that men are more entitled to leisure outside the home than women because, according to society, women have

to perform domestic duties. Accordingly, Harrington and Dawson (1995) argue that women's leisure is perceived to be secondary to men's leisure and as a result of their leisure being restricted by family- and home-centred activities; their experience of leisure also differs from that of men. Similarly, Shaw and Henderson (2005) mention that women may experience social disapproval in their leisure activities, which may act as an interpersonal leisure constraint. In terms of structural constraints, Shaw and Henderson (2005) mention that lack of financial resources and a lack of time for leisure may influence women's leisure. Additionally, these authors note that while women and men may have equal opportunities for participation in sport during their youth, there is a significant decrease in the opportunities for women to participate in sport during adulthood.

Although leisure constraints research has evolved tremendously, race and its relation with constraints is still poorly understood (Shinew *et al.*, 2004). Shores *et al.* (2007) note that socio-economic factors can influence leisure constraints since lower income is associated with people of colour, and that this can lead to increased constraints. Additionally, perceived discrimination may act as a leisure constraint. According to Sharaievska *et al.* (2010), this discrimination can be in the form of discrimination by other recreation users, discrimination by staff, or differential upkeep of leisure resources, and evidence of this has also been found by Stodolska and Shinew (2010). The consequences of these actions can be significant, as Gobster (2002), Hibbler and Shinew (2002) and Sharaievska *et al.* (2010) indicate that these forms of discrimination can lead to confrontation, withdrawal or changes in leisure behaviour, where individuals change the time and places where they participate, visit leisure settings in groups and not alone, and gaining more information about a setting before deciding to visit. Philipp (1998) also determined that racial peer group acceptance of leisure activities, especially among adolescents, plays a significant role in whether or not an individual will participate in certain activities, as certain activities are often labelled "black" or "white" activities. From this discussion it is clear that differences in leisure constraints may vary between communities, as well as racial and cultural groups.

Leisure constraints in South Africa

Despite the lack of South African leisure constraints research, the available studies do provide some insight into leisure constraints among South Africans. Research by Wilders *et al.* (2010) found that intrapersonal constraints (feelings of guilt when participating in leisure, as well as poor health), interpersonal constraints (no friends to participate with) and structural

constraints (lack of opportunities, monetary constraints, too little time) significantly influence the leisure behaviour of South African women. Additionally, a recent study by Palen *et al.* (2010) found that adolescents in Cape Town reported experiencing intrapersonal constraints to leisure most frequently, with disinterest being the greatest intrapersonal constraint. The frequency of reporting structural and interpersonal constraints were similar, with parents being the biggest interpersonal constraint and risk of harm due to factors external to the activity (e.g. crime) being the most significant structural constraint (Palen *et al.*, 2010). From a national survey (Department of Sport & Recreation, 2005) it is clear that the strongest reason for persons aged 21 to 25 years not to participate in recreation was “no particular reason” followed by “not interested”. Further, the survey also indicates that race played a significant role in reasons for non-participation. For example, 26.3% of Asian/Indian people indicated that “no particular reason” led them to not participate, compared to only 14.4% for Africans, 17.8% for Coloured people and 15.6% for whites. More Asian/Indian people (30.8%) also reported not to be interested in participating in sport and recreation with whites reporting the lowest score with only 18.8% not being interested. With regard to a lack of opportunities/facilities for participation, 11.8% of African and 13.2% of Coloured people reported this as a constraint compared to 2.2% of white and 0.5% of Indian/Asian people that reported it as a constraint. It should, however, be noted that the survey had a significant shortcoming as it only considered intrapersonal and structural constraints, leading to a lack of findings regarding the status of interpersonal constraints and highlighting the need for further research in this field.

RESEARCH METHODS

Research sample

The research was based on an availability sample from six South African universities representative of the demographic composition of South Africa. First-year students from academic programmes in sport, recreation or leisure studies were selected for this study. The sample consisted of 334 participants of which 52.1% were male and 47.9% female. The mean age was 19.86 years. In terms of race, 41.6% were black, 42.8% white, 9.6% Coloured, 5.4% Indian and 0.6% reported to belong to other racial groups. As South Africa has eleven official languages, of which nine are indigenous African languages (i.e. Ndebele, Northern Sotho, Sotho, Swazi, Tswana, Tsonga, Venda, Xhosa and Zulu), these nine languages were grouped together and referred to as African languages. African languages were the home languages of 35.4% of the respondents, English was the home language of 33.8% of the

respondents and Afrikaans was the home language of 30.8% of the respondents. In terms of where the respondents grew up, 39.5% came from cities, 33.2% from towns and 27.3% from farms, rural areas or informal settlements. Christianity was the most prevalent religion (84.7%), followed by atheism (7.2%). Only 26% of the respondents stayed in university residences or dormitories, with the majority (74%) staying in private accommodation.

Research instruments

The leisure constraints questionnaire by Raymore *et al.* (1993) was used to determine the perceived leisure constraints of first-year university students. The instrument consists of 21 statements and measures perceived leisure constraints in three categories, namely intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints, with seven items per constraint category. For this study research participants were required to indicate the importance of each statement based on a five-point Likert scale. Raymore *et al.* (1993) describes that the questionnaire does not focus on constraints during a specific activity, but on general constraints that can influence participation in any new leisure activity. Godbey *et al.* (2010) note that certain concerns exist regarding the reliability of the instrument, but are adamant that it remains a suitable instrument for determining leisure constraints. Information regarding demographic variables was gathered by means of a questionnaire while students' involvement in leisure activities was determined through an open-ended question in which students had to indicate the leisure activities they participate in, along with the frequency of participation.

Research procedures

Ethical approval for the research was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the North-West University. Permission for the use of first-year students in the fields of sport, recreation or leisure studies at the various universities was obtained from the heads of the relevant programmes. The research questionnaires were distributed during contact sessions and were completed under the supervision of a lecturer versed in the aims of the study.

Statistical analysis

The data was processed by the Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University. Firstly, descriptive statistics were used to determine mean scores and standard deviations. In terms of students' involvement in leisure, reported leisure activities were grouped into leisure programme areas and an average participation count in each of the programme areas was determined per participant. Secondly, a confirmatory factor analysis

was performed on the research instrument using AMOS (Amos Development Company, 2011) to determine whether the proposed factors measured by the questionnaire fit the factors found in the sample of the current study. Reliability of the constraints questionnaire for this sample was also determined. Thirdly, Spearman's rank order correlations were used to determine the relationship between leisure constraints and involvement in leisure. Lastly, practical significance in terms of effect sizes for the differences between means were calculated (small effect: $d=0.2$; medium effect: $d=0.5$; large effect: $d=0.8$), along with t -tests and ANOVA that were performed to determine whether the various demographic variables had statistically significant influences on leisure constraints.

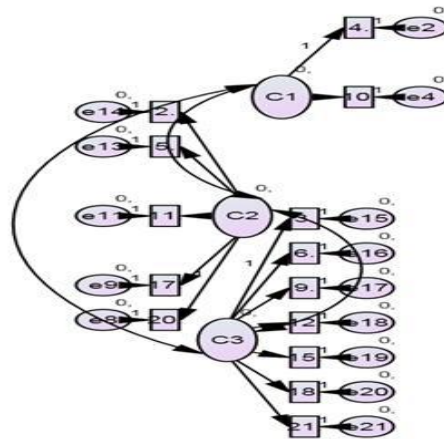
RESULTS

Results are reported in two phases. The first phase includes discussions on the determination of reliability of the research instrument, as well as the results from the confirmatory factor analysis. The second phase of the discussion focusses on the result regarding students' leisure involvement and whether statistically significant differences exist in terms of leisure constraints based on selected demographic variables.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Due to the overly strict nature of the Chi-square test in determining goodness of fit of a model (Hancock & Mueller, 2010), alternative methods for determining goodness of fit were utilised. In accordance to Hancock and Mueller (2010), goodness of fit of the three-factor model is reported in terms of more than one index. In this study three different indices, namely, Minimum Sample Discrepancy divided by Degrees of Freedom (CMIN/DF), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) were used to evaluate fit.

The three-factor model provided a CMIN/DF value of 2.5, which can be regarded as acceptable, being smaller than five. In terms of the CFI, as values higher than 0.9 are described by Mueller (1996) as a good overall fit, the value of 0.76 achieved in this study can be considered to be less than acceptable. Lastly, a RMSEA value of 0.067 was obtained, with a 90% confidence interval of [0.055; 0.079], which indicate an acceptable fit with a value smaller than 0.08.



C1 = Intrapersonal; C2=Interpersonal; C3=Structural

FIGURE 1: THE CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS MODEL OF THE CONSTRAINTS QUESTIONNAIRE

Results for the confirmatory factor analysis of the leisure constraints questionnaire are indicated in Table 1. For the purposes of this study, goodness of fit in two of the three indices is considered acceptable. Additionally, all means, variances, correlations and regression weights between in the three factors were statistically significant.

TABLE 1: GOODNESS OF FIT INDICES FOR THE RESPECTIVE STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELS

	CMIN/DF	CFI	RMSEA [90% CI]
Three Factor Model	2.5	0.76	0.067 [0.055; 0.079]

CMIN=Minimum Sample Discrepancy, DF = Degrees of Freedom; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, CI=Confidence Interval

Reliability

The leisure constraints questionnaire consists of three factors, namely intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints. However, in order to achieve acceptable reliability of the constructs, items of the questionnaire had to be removed from the factor analysis in order to achieve higher reliability. Reliability for the three constructs is indicated in Table 2. Considering that a reliability of 0.70 (Chronbach Alpha) or higher could be regarded as satisfactory (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), it is clear that the reliability of the three factors, ranging between 0.49 and 0.59, are marginally acceptable. However, low reliability is a common occurrence within leisure constraints research that utilises the hierarchical

framework of leisure constraints, and therefore Godbey *et al.* (2010) warn that high reliability should not be blindly pursued with removal of whichever items that do not fit, as these still represent valid leisure constraints. Based on this, the items that did not fit into the intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraint factors were still included as individual items during the analyses.

With regard to mean inter-item correlation, a measure of internal consistency, the desired range is between 0.15 and 0.55 (Clark & Watson, 1995). As the inter-item correlation of the four factors is between 0.14 and 0.32, it is evident that two of these values fall within the desired range. It can therefore be concluded that the internal consistency of the leisure constraints questionnaire, with reference to this sample, is marginally satisfactory.

TABLE 2: RELIABILITY OF THE CONSTRAINTS QUESTIONNAIRE, ALONG WITH INDIVIDUAL ITEMS THAT DID NOT FIT INTO THE THREE FACTORS

Construct	Chronbach Alpha	Means	Standard Deviation	Mean Inter-Item Correlation
Intrapersonal	0.49	2.95	0.85	0.32
Interpersonal	0.59	2.82	0.65	0.22
Structural	0.54	3.36	0.53	0.14
Individual items that did not fit into the intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraint factors				
I am too shy to start a new leisure activity (a)				
I am unlikely to do a new leisure activity that makes me feel uncomfortable (a)				
The people I know usually have enough money to begin a new activity with me (b)				
I am more likely to do a new leisure activity that is in keeping with my religious beliefs (a)				
The people I know usually know what new leisure activities they could do with me (b)				
I am more likely to do a new leisure activity that makes me feel self-conscious (a)				
I am more likely to do a new leisure activity that doesn't require a lot of skill (a)				
<i>(a): Intrapersonal constraints, and</i>				
<i>(b): Interpersonal constraints according to the original questionnaire by Raymore et al. (1993)</i>				

Based on the mean scores achieved in the three constraints constructs (Table 2), as measured on a 5-point Liker scale, it is concluded that students' leisure is not significantly constrained, and that of the three constructs, students considered structural constraints to be the most significant.

Correlations between constraints and leisure participation

Correlations between the different leisure constraints and leisure participation were determined by means of Spearman's rank order correlations and revealed some interesting results. In terms of intrapersonal and interpersonal constraint factors, as used in this study, no statistical

significant correlations with leisure participation were found. However, a number of statistical significant correlations were found between structural constraints and leisure participation. Firstly, structural constraints showed a negative correlation with team sports ($r=-0.198$), individual sports ($r=-0.113$) and outdoor activities ($r=-0.128$). Secondly, structural constraints had a positive correlation with social activities ($r=0.154$), watching television ($r=0.115$) and relaxation ($r=0.137$).

In terms of the individual questions that did not fall into the three factors, further correlations were found. The statement, *“I am more likely to do a new leisure activity that doesn’t require a lot of skill”* was negatively related to total participation ($r=-0.123$), outdoor activities ($r=-0.130$) and wellness ($r=-0.136$), while the statement *“I am more likely to do a new leisure activity that doesn’t make me feel self-conscious”* had a negative correlation with team sport ($r=-0.124$). The statement *“I am more likely to do an activity that is in keeping with my religious beliefs”* showed positive correlations with total participation ($r=0.118$), self-improvement activities ($r=0.125$) and watching television ($r=0.146$), while the statement *“I am unlikely to do a new leisure activity that makes me feel uncomfortable”* had negative correlations with team sport ($r=-0.114$) and outdoor activities ($r=-0.117$), and a positive correlation with relaxation ($r=0.132$). Finally, the statement *“I am too shy to start a new leisure activity”* had a negative correlation with total participation ($r=-0.127$).

Demographic variables and leisure constraints

Results indicate that gender had no effect on the intrapersonal, interpersonal or structural constraints experienced by students. However, with regard to the individual statements not included in these factors, the statement *“I am more likely to do a new leisure activity that does not make me feel self-conscious”* showed that a statistically significant difference ($p=0.021$; $d=0.25$) exists between male and female students, with female students ($\bar{x}=3.43$; $SD=1.06$) experiencing self-consciousness as a greater constraint than do male students ($\bar{x}=3.17$; $SD=0.98$).

In terms of race, results of the t -test between white and black students reveal statistically significant differences in terms of interpersonal constraints ($p=0.019$; $d=0.26$), structural constraints ($p=0.032$; $d=0.24$) and the statement *“I am more likely to do a new leisure activity that doesn’t require a lot of skill”* ($p=0.031$; $d=0.24$). In these cases, black students ($\bar{x}=2.88$; $SD=0.70$) experience greater interpersonal constraints than do white students ($\bar{x}=2.70$; $SD=0.60$). Black students ($\bar{x}=2.84$; $SD=1.13$) also experience the need for skill as

greater constraints than do the white students ($\bar{x}=2.57$; $SD=0.94$), whereas white students ($\bar{x}=3.40$; $SD=0.48$) experience more structural constraints than do the black students ($\bar{x}=3.26$; $SD=0.57$). With regard to differences between all four racial groups (white, black, Coloured and Indian) the ANOVA revealed that statistically significant differences exist in terms of intrapersonal constraints ($p=0.014$), interpersonal constraints ($p=0.017$), structural constraints ($p=0.028$) and the statement “*I am more likely to do a new activity that doesn’t require a lot of skill*” ($p=0.012$). A Tukey B post-hoc test revealed that for intrapersonal constraints a statistically significant difference ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.63$) exists between black ($\bar{x}=2.81$; $SD=0.95$) and Indian ($\bar{x}=3.4$; $SD=0.67$) students. For the statement “*I am more likely to do a new activity that doesn’t require a lot of skill*” a statistically significant difference ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.58$) exists between white ($\bar{x}=2.57$; $SD=0.94$) and Indian ($\bar{x}=3.22$; $SD=1.11$) students. In both these instances, the Indian students experience the greatest level of constraints.

Results indicate that differences also exist in terms of language and perceived leisure constraints. The ANOVA revealed that statistically significant differences exist between the different language groups (Afrikaans, English and African languages) in terms of intrapersonal constraints ($p=0.013$) and structural constraints ($p=0.05$). However, the results of the Tukey B post-hoc test revealed that a statistically significant difference ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.35$) only exists between the intrapersonal constraints of English students ($\bar{x}=3.10$; $SD=0.80$) and students that speak African languages ($\bar{x}=2.78$; $SD=0.92$). In this instance English students experience greater intrapersonal constraints than the students that speak African languages.

In terms of where students stayed, results of a *t*-test suggest that a statistically significant difference ($p=0.011$; $d=0.31$) exist, with larger structural constraints being experienced by students staying in private accommodation ($\bar{x}=3.40$; $SD=0.52$) than students staying in university residences and hostels ($\bar{x}=3.22$; $SD=0.57$).

Finally, where students grew up also influenced their perceived leisure constraints. The ANOVA revealed that statistically significant differences exist between where students grew up (city, town or rural/informal settlement) and intrapersonal constraints ($p=0.022$), structural constraints ($p=0.002$) and the statements “*I am more likely to do a new leisure activity that is in keeping with my religious beliefs*” ($p=0.05$) and “*The people I know usually know what new leisure activities they could do with me*” ($p=0.017$). The Tukey B post-hoc test indicates that the statistically significant differences ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.36$) in intrapersonal constraints exist

between students that grew up in towns ($\bar{x}=3.11$; $SD=0.84$) and students from rural areas/informal settlements ($\bar{x}=2.78$; $SD=0.91$). For structural constraints, the differences ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.44$) exist between students that grew up in the city ($\bar{x}=3.44$; $SD=0.55$) and students from rural areas/informal settlements ($\bar{x}=3.19$; $SD=0.55$), as well as between students from towns ($\bar{x}=3.39$; $SD=0.46$) and students from rural areas/informal settlements ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.36$), with students from rural areas/informal settlements reporting the lowest level of structural constraints. For the statement *“I am more likely to do a new leisure activity that is in keeping with my religious beliefs”* differences ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.32$) exist between students that grew up in towns ($\bar{x}=3.53$; $SD=0.96$) and students from rural areas/informal settlements ($\bar{x}=3.18$; $SD=1.12$), with students that grew up in rural areas/informal settlements reporting the lowest level of constraints. With regard to the statement *“The people I know usually know what new leisure activities they could do with me”* a difference exists between students that grew up in the city and students from rural areas/informal settlements ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.25$). Additionally, a difference also exists between students that grew up in towns and students from rural areas/informal settlements ($p\leq 0.05$; $d=0.33$). In the context of this specific statement, students from rural areas/informal settlements ($\bar{x}=3.05$; $SD=1.07$) achieved the lowest score, indicating that for this specific statement they experience a greater constraint than do students from cities ($\bar{x}=3.33$; $SD=0.84$) and towns ($\bar{x}=3.41$; $SD=0.80$).

DISCUSSION

Although strong evidence exists that females experience higher levels of leisure constraints than do males, the results of this study indicate that there are no significant differences between male and female students in terms of the intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints. However, the fact that female students reported higher scores for the statement *“I am more likely to do a new leisure activity that does not make me feel self-conscious”* suggests that a feeling of self-consciousness is a greater constraint for female students than for male students. A possible explanation for this result can be found in research by Raymore *et al.* (1994) who determined that female adolescents had lower self-esteem and hence experienced greater intrapersonal constraints than did male adolescents. Therefore, as female students have lower self-esteem than males, it is possible that they will prefer to avoid leisure activities that they perceive will make them feel self-conscious. Additionally, research has found that body image is of particular concern to females (Shaw, 1999; Liechty *et al.*, 2006) and as a result, it is possible that they will avoid participation in leisure activities that makes them feel self-conscious of their bodies. The fact that insignificant differences exist between

the intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints of male and female students suggests that universities provide an environment where students of both genders may have equal access to leisure and recreation opportunities. However, because female students experience self-consciousness as a greater constraint than do male students, it is suggested that leisure and recreation professionals design programmes in ways that limit situations where female students may feel self-conscious.

The fact that black students experience greater interpersonal constraints than did the white students can be attributed to a number of factors. Although research by Raymore *et al.* (1994) did not find any relationship between socio-economic status (i.e. perceived family income) and interpersonal constraints, within a South African context where black students generally are from previously disadvantaged and marginalised communities, this may differ. Considering that interpersonal constraints are based on an individual's ability to participate with other people, it is plausible that, in marginalised communities, factors such as limited access or no money for transport, limited free time due to family responsibilities and lack of knowledge of leisure, may prevent other people, such as friends or family, from participating in leisure. Therefore, in this case it is possible that race, *per se*, does not influence interpersonal constraints, but rather the socio-economic status and marginalisation associated with a specific racial group. The finding that black and Indian students experienced the need for skill to participate in a leisure activity as a greater constraint than did the white students, can possibly be explained by the fact that in South Africa the white population participates more in sport and recreation activities than any other population group (Department of Sport & Recreation, 2005). As a result, white students may have had more access to various activities and have already mastered the necessary skill by the time they attend university, whereas other racial groups may feel intimidated by the skills required to participate in new leisure and recreation activities presented by universities. Additionally, as black and Indian students perceived a need for skill as a leisure constraint, leisure programmers may consider implementing introductory and skills development programmes so that individuals may progress through different levels of participation.

Additionally, the fact that white students report higher levels of structural constraints than do black students is surprising, since literature suggests that marginalised racial groups are in general more constrained in their leisure. However, the findings of this study are similar to those by Shinenew *et al.* (2004) who found that in North America marginalised groups, in their

case African Americans, were less constrained than Caucasians. Possible explanations for white students experiencing more constraints can be that they have different expectations of leisure facilities than black students (Shinew *et al.*, 2004). Additionally, Shinew *et al.* (2004) suggest that individuals from marginalised groups are more accustomed to negotiating constraints; therefore may have developed strategies to overcome their structural constraints. Considering the negative correlation of structural constraints with participation in team and individual sport, and its positive correlation with social activities, watching television and relaxing, the fact that white students experience more structural constraints than do black students may indicate that the nature of white students' leisure may be less active than that of black students. Since the reason for white students experiencing greater structural constraints is not clear, further research is recommended so that leisure professionals can have guidelines on how to help students negotiate these structural constraints.

The fact that differences exist in terms of intrapersonal constraints between English-speaking students and students that speak African languages can be attributed to ethnic factors associated with specific languages. Researchers suggest that differences in leisure behaviour result from ethnic differences such as culture, values, norms and socialization patterns (Floyd *et al.*, 1994; Philipp, 1997; Gómez, 2006) and it is possible that these differences between English students and students that speak African languages accounted for the higher levels of intrapersonal constraints among English-speaking students. In support of this notion Stodolska and Yi-Kook (2005) note that differences in constraints based on language is a clear function of ethnicity.

The fact that students staying in private accommodation experience more structural constraints than students staying in university residences and hostels, was expected. Students staying on campus have easier access to campus recreation and leisure facilities than their off-campus counterparts, and have more opportunities of engaging in recreation and leisure activities, such as team sports, within their hostel context. The strong negative correlation between structural constraints and team sports found in this study further supports this explanation. Additionally, research by Miller *et al.* (2008) found that students living on campus are 50% more likely to utilise campus recreation facilities than students living off campus, indicating the possibility that structural constraints may influence the use of campus recreation and leisure facilities. However, as this study found positive correlations between structural constraints and social activities, watching television and relaxation, it is possible

that students that experience structural constraints change their leisure behaviour to include activities that do not pose structural constraints.

Lastly, it appears that where students grew up accounted for the most differences in leisure constraints. In terms of intrapersonal constraints, structural constraints, as well as the statement *“I am more likely to do a new leisure activity that is in keeping with my religious beliefs”*, students that grew up in rural areas/informal settlements experience the lowest levels of constraints. In terms of constraints related to the statement, *“The people I know usually know what new leisure activities they could do with me”* students from rural areas/informal settlements recorded the lowest scores, indicating that they do not agree with the statement as much as do students from cities and towns. Whether the results can be explained because students from rural areas/informal settlements are generally from lower socio-economic backgrounds or whether other factors play a role in these findings is unclear and further research into these findings is suggested.

CONCLUSION

Despite the fact that not all statistical significant differences were supported in terms of practical significance, the results still indicate that demographic factors influence leisure constraints. Within a South African context, where a diverse student population is the norm, it is clear that leisure professionals have a difficult leisure programming task as they need to consider the different combinations and intensities of leisure constraints experienced by students during leisure. However, apart from the practical implications of this study, certain theoretical insight into leisure constraints within South Africa is gained. Firstly, some of the findings in this study are similar to those of studies on American and other first-world populations, indicating the possibility that leisure constraints are more generalised than initially expected. Secondly, although based on a very specific population, the findings contribute greatly to a unique body of knowledge based on South African populations within a unique South African context. It should be noted, however, that without further studies to expand on or confirm these findings, the true nature of leisure constraints in South Africa would never be fully understood.

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study did have certain limitations. Firstly, the reliability of the constraints questionnaire proved to be marginal, and future studies should consider revising and expanding the questionnaire to improve reliability. A second limitation relates to the very specific

population used in this study. It is recommended that students from more diverse academic fields be used in order to obtain a more representative picture of constraints within South African universities. A final limitation is that the study focussed on first-year students only. In terms of recommendations, the possibility exists that perceived leisure constraints may change as students spend more time at university and are more accustomed to the leisure opportunities available, and settle into life at university in general. Longitudinal studies that track leisure constraints during students' stay at university may provide valuable information concerning the stability or changeability of leisure constraints.

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CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

6.2. Summary

6.3. Conclusion

6.4. Contribution of this study and recommendations

6.5. Limitations of the study and future research

6.6. References

6.1. INTRODUCTION

Various South African researchers have lamented the lack of South African leisure research (Goslin, 2003:39; Wegner *et al.*, 2006:249) and this study is the first of its kind in South Africa to investigate leisure perceptions (based on leisure meanings, experience and constraints) among selected South African first-year university students. Additionally, although research regarding leisure constraints has previously been done on South African youth, especially school-going youth, the study is the first to use the Leisure Meaning Inventory (LMI) and the Leisure Experience Battery for Young Adults (LEBYA) within a South African context. As a result, the study provides valuable insight into the relationship between demographic variables and leisure perceptions, and forms the basis for future research in this field of leisure studies from a South African perspective. Considering the fact that leisure is a context for the development of healthy lifestyles as well as potentially negative and risky behaviour, understanding the leisure meanings, experiences and constraints of students can be invaluable in terms of combating the development of unhealthy leisure behaviour. In particular, as the development of healthy lifestyles of students may influence their future health and wellness (Dawson *et al.*, 2007:39; van Niekerk & Barnard, 2011:650) it is clear that the

development of healthy leisure behaviour can have current and future health implications. In order to ensure that students of all demographic backgrounds benefit from campus leisure and recreation, knowledge regarding their different leisure perceptions is needed.

However, in order to draw a conclusion and make recommendations regarding the relationship between demographic variables and leisure perceptions as a whole, it is first necessary to look at the relationships that exist between demographic variables and leisure meanings, leisure experiences and leisure constraints respectively.

6.2. SUMMARY

With due consideration of the literature review and the findings of the first article, *Leisure meanings of selected first-year university students: a South African perspective*, it is clear that, as leisure meanings have an influence on leisure behaviour, leisure meanings remain an important field of study. Specifically, results of the first article indicate that leisure meanings related to *achieving fulfilment* and *exercising choice* result in higher total leisure participation whereas the meaning related to leisure as *passing time* resulted in lower total leisure participation. With regard to the relationship between demographic variables and leisure meanings, it is postulated that the leisure meanings of individuals are to a larger degree a product of demographic factors related to societal expectations, upbringing, traditions and personal convictions than that of physical factors such as access to leisure facilities, or quality of leisure experiences. This argument is based on the fact that neither race, with all the connotations of discrimination, marginalisation and unequal access to leisure opportunities, nor where students grew up, accounted for any differences in leisure meanings. In contrast, factors such as gender, with connotations of societal influences and gender expectations, as well as language, and possibly the *ethnic factors* related to it, accounted for different leisure meanings. Although this postulation has not yet been tested, it is partially supported by literature that states that personal meanings of leisure may be influenced, and in accordance, with the beliefs and values of social groups or societies (Kleiber *et al.*, 2011:62), and as a result provides a framework for future research into leisure meanings.

As leisure meanings have an effect on leisure behaviour, especially leisure preferences (Philipp, 1997:192), knowledge of leisure meanings can assist leisure and recreation service providers in understanding students' motivation for participating in leisure, and

therefore ensure that programmes are designed to coincide with students' leisure meanings and meet their expectations. In particular, Parr and Lashua (2004:2) indicate the importance of leisure meanings by mentioning that leisure service providers should determine the public's understanding of leisure and their leisure meanings, and develop and produce leisure services that capitalise on these leisure meanings.

In terms of leisure experiences, the complexity of this field of study was highlighted in the second article, *The relationship between demographic variables and leisure experiences of selected South African first-year university students: implications for service delivery*. Only race and language accounted for differences in leisure experiences of students, with white students having a higher awareness of leisure benefits and leisure opportunities and less boredom and distress during their leisure than did the black and Coloured students. Based on the findings it would seem reasonable to assume that the marginality hypothesis (Washburne, 1978:176) would be applicable, seeing that black and Coloured students are from previously disadvantaged racial groups in South Africa and that lower socio-economic status and unequal access to leisure activities and facilities may influence their leisure experiences. However, while at university, all students have equal access to campus leisure and recreation facilities and equal opportunity for leisure participation, suggesting that the influence of these issues on leisure experiences is reduced. Additionally, the fact that where students grew up, which includes low socio-economic areas such as rural areas/informal settlements with little access to leisure opportunities, did not account for differences in leisure experiences suggests that socio-economic status and access to leisure are not necessarily the only factors that influence leisure experiences.

Moreover, the fact that language also influenced leisure experiences of students suggests the possibility that language, *per se*, may influence leisure experiences. Alternatively, ethnic factors such as traditions and customs related to language may have influenced the leisure experience. In truth, apart from knowing that certain demographic variables do influence leisure experience, understanding the underlying causes and theory regarding leisure experience and demographic variables remains vague. Finally, it should be noted that the strong negative correlation found between leisure awareness, and boredom and distress, suggest that by increasing students awareness of the benefits of leisure, along with the opportunities available for leisure participation may decrease feelings of boredom and distress. It is proposed, therefore, that leisure experiences are not necessarily stable, but rather dynamic and changeable.

From the study, it is also clear that not all students are equally aware of the benefits of leisure, nor of the leisure opportunities available to them, and can therefore benefit from increased awareness of leisure benefits and opportunities.

Article three, *The relationship between demographic variables and leisure constraints of selected South African first-year university students*, revealed some interesting insights into leisure constraints. Based on the correlations between the different constraints and leisure participation, it is noteworthy that intrapersonal (e.g. shyness, religious beliefs) and interpersonal constraints (e.g. not having friends to participate with) did not seem to influence leisure participation. However, structural constraints (e.g. lack of facilities, too little time) had an effect on leisure participation within the university setting. Specifically, the results suggest that due to structural constraints individuals will participate less in team and individual sports, as well as outdoor activities, and substitute these activities with other activities, such as social activities, watching television or relaxing. These findings suggest that individuals may not always actively negotiate constraints in order to participate in certain activities, but that they may also choose to substitute certain activities with those that represent less structural constraints. In terms of demographic variables and constraints, the results indicate that race and where students grew up accounted for the most differences in leisure constraints.

However, these results also reveal the complex nature in which leisure constraints are perceived. The fact that no significant differences existed in terms of how males and females perceived intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints suggest that universities provide an environment in which both male and female students have equal access and opportunity to participate in leisure activities. Secondly, results show that students from marginalised groups, such as black students or those that grew up in rural areas/informal settlements, experience lower perceived structural constraints than white students and students that grew up in cities or towns. Based on the findings it is proposed that these students are used to having limited access and opportunities for leisure, and over time, have developed effective strategies to negotiate structural leisure constraints, whereas non-marginalised students may not have developed the same leisure skills.

As a whole it appears that a relationship does exist between leisure perceptions, consisting of leisure meanings, experience and constraints, and demographic variables. However, the effect of demographic variables are not uniform across these three

aspects of leisure perceptions, indicating that certain aspects of leisure perceptions are to a larger or lesser degree affected by demographic variables. As various personal, situational and social factors play a role in determining a person's leisure behaviour, the findings reflect the need for a holistic approach to understanding individuals' leisure behaviour (see 2.3.4). Based on the discussions above, the next section will focus on conclusions drawn from the study.

6.3. CONCLUSION

With consideration to the hypotheses of this study, the following conclusions are drawn:

Hypothesis 1: *Relationships exist between demographic variables and the meanings attached to leisure by selected South African first-year university students.* This hypothesis is accepted. Based on the results of the first article it is clear that demographic variables do account for differences in leisure meanings. Although not all demographic variables accounted for differences, the fact that gender, language, living arrangements and relationship status influenced leisure meanings, serves as motivation for the acceptance of the first hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2: *Relationships exist between demographic variables and the nature of leisure experiences of selected South African first-year university students.* This hypothesis is also accepted. From the second article, it is apparent that race and language had an effect on the leisure experiences of the students.

Hypothesis 3: *Relationships exist between demographic variables and perceived intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural leisure constraints of selected South African first-year university students.* This hypothesis is also accepted. The results of the third article clearly demonstrate that, to varying degrees, gender, race, living arrangements, language, and where students grew up, influenced students' perceived leisure constraints.

6.4. CONTRIBUTION OF THIS STUDY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The contribution of this study to the field of leisure research and the body of knowledge of recreation science as a field of study is twofold. Firstly, various authors have mentioned the lack of leisure research in South Africa. In order to establish leisure as a profession and legitimate field of study in South Africa, research within a South African context is needed. As South Africa has a unique historical background, it is no longer

adequate to rely on research from Western and developed countries to inform leisure service providers on the delivery of leisure programmes, as the demographic composition of South African populations should also be considered. For leisure researchers in South Africa, the time has come to create a scientific body of knowledge through testing and scrutinising existing leisure theories and models within the South African context. In this regard the study provides a valuable insight into leisure meanings, experiences and constraints within a South African context. Specifically, the study is one of the first to investigate leisure meanings and experiences in South Africa, and more specifically among university students, and can serve as a stepping-stone from which future studies in these fields can be launched. The study indicates that the Leisure Meanings Inventory, the Leisure Experience Battery for Young Adults, and the leisure constraints questionnaire by Raymore *et al.* (1993:104) can be used on South African samples, although a certain degree of refinement and modifications are recommended in order to improve the reliability of these instruments. Additionally, although this study represents only a single attempt to understand the leisure perceptions of a South African population, in future it may benefit students in the field of leisure and recreation studies not to rely on literature and research from Western and developed countries only, but also on literature that focuses on South Africa and the impact its diverse populations have on the delivery of leisure and recreation services.

The second contribution of this study relates to the practical value of the research. Considering the demographic shift in universities' student population, the provision of leisure services can assist with this transformation (Edginton & Chen, 2008:124) by integrating students from different demographic backgrounds into universities. Additionally, campus leisure and recreation programmes should enhance students' quality of life, prepare them for their future and educate them so that they can engage in healthy lifestyles during their attendance of universities and thereafter, but merely providing leisure and recreation programmes does not guarantee that these outcomes will be reached (Weese, 1997:264). The findings provide a useful reference that leisure professionals at universities can use to improve service delivery and provide quality leisure programmes to ensure that the desired outcomes are reached.

Based on the outcomes of the study, two types of recommendations are made. The first type of recommendation relates to the specific findings from this study, whereas the second type of recommendation is based on general themes and issues that emerged from the study. Specific recommendations from this study firstly include that leisure

professionals design programmes in such a manner that it supports the leisure meanings of students. Male and female students' leisure meanings only differ in terms of achieving fulfilment and exercising choice, with females attaching more value to these meanings than males. As a result, in practice, this would imply providing female students with opportunities to exercise choice during their leisure, be it through various programmes they may choose from, or opportunities provided within specific programmes for the students to choose their own level of participation. Additionally, the programmes for female students should attempt to provide opportunities for self-fulfilment and enjoyment. Secondly, considering the strong negative correlation found between leisure awareness, and boredom and distress, it is suggested that university leisure services focus on increasing awareness of leisure benefits and opportunities among students from marginalized racial groups. Finally, leisure constraints are not perceived equally among different demographic groups and structural constraints are not necessarily perceived more by marginalized groups such as black students or students from rural areas/informal settlements, than white students or students from cities and towns. It is suggested that leisure professionals determine the specific constraints experienced by the students at their university in order to design strategies that will minimize students' leisure constraints.

In terms of emerging themes and issues, two recommendations are made. Firstly, the study highlights the importance of leisure education programmes, and it is recommended that leisure and recreation professionals at universities consider this as a high priority, as research has shown that leisure education programmes can have a positive effect on leisure behaviour (Clark & Anderson, 2011:49). In terms of leisure meanings, Watkins (2010:374) found that leisure education at universities can help students move from less developed leisure meanings, such as seeing leisure as passing time, to more developed leisure meanings, such as seeing leisure as an opportunity for achieving fulfilment.

Additionally, in terms of leisure experience, it is recommended that leisure professionals not only focus on providing leisure opportunities and activities, but also on education and creating awareness among students of different demographic backgrounds regarding the importance of participation in leisure activities and what activities are available to them. However, a strategic approach to this aspect of leisure education is suggested, as leisure and recreation services should firstly ensure that programmes are designed and provided in such a manner that the desired benefits and outcomes are

achieved. Only when this is in place, can students be educated on the importance of leisure and the benefits it provides. Finally, although little research is available on what leisure professionals can do to reduce leisure constraints (Scott, 2005:287) it is recommended that leisure education programmes should assist students in developing leisure constraint negotiation strategies that may help them overcome the constraints they experience. Research by Caldwell *et al.* (2004:329) found evidence to support the notion that leisure education can help individuals negotiate constraints, since they determined that a leisure education programme for high school learners helped learners to select, optimise and compensate during their leisure. From this discussion, it is clear that leisure education programmes may positively influence leisure perceptions by addressing leisure meanings, experiences and constraints. A second recommendation relates to the training of future as well as current leisure and recreational professionals providing leisure and recreation services within universities. As university management have increased expectations of university leisure and recreation services to illustrate performance, and coupled with increased diversity of students, this has led to stronger focus on increasing standards of service delivery, achievement of desired programme outcomes and overall programme effectiveness (Cooper & Faircloth, 2006:126; Cooper *et al.*, 2009:12). In order to meet these new expectations leisure professionals need to know how student diversity affects leisure programming, as successful leisure programming is largely based on understanding human behaviour.

Through a review of the recreation or leisure curriculums of South African universities (e.g. University of Venda, 2012; North-West University, 2013:143-145; University of the Free State, 2013:132-139; University of KwaZulu-Natal, 2013:326-341; University of the Western Cape, 2013) it seems that a specific shortcoming in these academic curricula relates to how social aspects such, as demographic factors within the diverse South African context, affect leisure behaviour. With this in mind, there is a significant opportunity to train current and future leisure and recreation professionals with regard to managing and adapting to the changes in the demographic background of South African university students. In terms of university students in the field of leisure and recreation studies, this can be achieved through new modules within existing leisure and recreation curriculums, and for current professionals the development and provision of short learning programmes can address the need for further training.

6.5. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Although the study provides valuable insight into the relationship between leisure perceptions and demographic variables, certain limitations do exist. The first limitation relates to issues regarding the reliability of the different research instruments within the South African context. A second limitation is based on the fact that the study focussed on first-year students in sport, leisure or recreation studies only, and as a result, the findings cannot easily be generalised to other student groups. A third limitation of the study is that it used race as a demographic variable and did not include ethnicity.

Based on these limitations and the results of the study in general, seven specific suggestions for future research are made. **As a starting point**, future research should firstly attempt to expand on, or modify, the instruments used in this study to accommodate the South African population and increase the reliability of the instruments. This could entail modifications to the wording and phrasing of the items in the instruments, or even translating the instruments into the relevant languages. **Secondly**, results from a single study should always be verified, and as a result, future research should focus on replicating the study on a broader student population as this may provide a more detailed picture of leisure perception at South African universities. A **third** direction for future research should be on the influence of race and ethnicity on leisure perceptions, as this will indicate which of the two variables have the greatest influence on leisure perceptions.

A **fourth** suggestion is that future research considers using a mixed method research design, including both quantitative and qualitative methods for gathering data. Whereas quantitative methods provide information on the influence of demographic variables on leisure perceptions, the use of a qualitative approach may provide additional understanding on how and why demographic variables influence leisure perceptions. A **fifth** suggestion for future research relates to using a longitudinal research design in order to track the stability or dynamic nature of leisure perceptions over the duration of students' stay at university. This may provide valuable information on how leisure meanings, experiences and constraints change over time. The **sixth** suggestion is that future research investigates the effect of leisure education programmes on the leisure perceptions, as conceptualised in this study, of South African university students. **Finally**, as discussed in Chapter 2 (see 2.4.3), religion is a factor that could potentially have influenced leisure perceptions. However, for this study, the majority of students

were Christians. Hence it was impossible to determine the influence of different religions on leisure perceptions. Future research may consider using qualitative research techniques to determine how leisure perceptions are influenced by religion.

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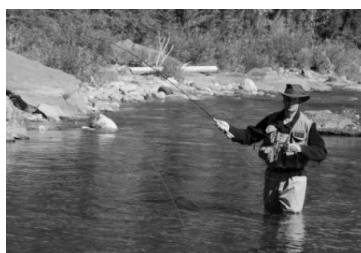
APPENDIX A

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRES

*The relationship between demographic variables and
leisure perceptions of selected first year university
students*

Research Questionnaires

2012



Purpose of the study

This research forms part of a PhD study and aims to better understand the meanings that different groups in our society attach to leisure, how they experience leisure, and how constraints influence their leisure behavior. Your cooperation in this research is very important and your willingness to take part highly appreciated.

The questionnaires relate to how you experience leisure and free time. Leisure refers to the activities you do, out of free-will, during your free time. Free time refers to the time outside of scheduled school / work and other required home activities.

Take your time to read through the instructions and the statements/questions in each questionnaire. Make sure you understand what is expected of you and please answer each question truthfully.

Thank you very much.

PLEASE COMPLETE THIS SECTION FIRST

General Information						
How old are you today?			First language:			
Where did you grow up?	City	Town	Farm/Rural area	Informal settlement		
Town where you went to school?						
Gender:	Male	Female	What do you study?			
Which religion do you belong to?						
Race:	Black	White	Coloured	Indian	Other	
Are you currently in a relationship?	Yes	No	Where do you currently stay?	University residence	Private	

SECTION A

Current Leisure Participation

Read this first before completing the question

Leisure activities refer to any of the activities you do out of free will during your free time.

*Please list the leisure activities that you participate in and also indicate the frequency
with an **X** in the relevant box*

Leisure Activity	Once a week	2 Times a week	3 -4 Times a week	2-3 Times a month	Once a month	Less than once a Month
1.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	1	2	3	3	5	6
12.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Other:						

SECTION B

Leisure refers to the activities you do, out of free-will, during your free time. **Free time** refers to the time outside of scheduled school / work and required home activities.

Read each question carefully and think about it how you feel about each statement before you answer. Please answer all the questions.

Leisure Experiences									
Circle the number that best describes how you usually feel, using the scale below: <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around; text-align: center;"> <div>1 Strongly disagree</div> <div>2 Disagree</div> <div>3 Neutral</div> <div>4 Agree</div> <div>5 Strongly agree</div> </div>					Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1. For me, free time just drags on and on.	1	2	3	4	5				
2. In the community where I live I am aware of exciting things to do in my free time.	1	2	3	4	5				
3. I know of places where there are lots of things to do.	1	2	3	4	5				
4. Free time is boring.	1	2	3	4	5				
5. I like free time activities that are a little beyond my ability.	1	2	3	4	5				
6. If I think I might fail at an activity during my free time I won't do it.	1	2	3	4	5				
7. When I know I'm going to have some free time, I generally get anxious.	1	2	3	4	5				
8. In my free time I usually don't like what I am doing but I don't know what else to do.	1	2	3	4	5				
9. I like a challenge in my free time.	1	2	3	4	5				
10. The worst feeling I know is when I have free time and don't have anything planned.	1	2	3	4	5				
11. I usually get very absorbed by what I do in my free time.	1	2	3	4	5				
12. I've never really given much thought to whether free time could be good for me.	1	2	3	4	5				
13. During my free time I almost always have something to do.	1	2	3	4	5				
14. I am willing to try the unknown in my free time	1	2	3	4	5				
15. I get uptight when I have a whole weekend with nothing to do.	1	2	3	4	5				
16. My friends and I often talk about how bored we are.	1	2	3	4	5				
17. My community lacks things for people my age to do.	1	2	3	4	5				
18. I feel good when my free time activities challenge my skills.	1	2	3	4	5				
19. I feel relaxed about free time when I don't have any plans	1	2	3	4	5				

SECTION C

Leisure refers to the activities you do, out of free-will, during your free time. **Free time** refers to the time outside of scheduled school / work and required home activities.

Leisure Meanings									
Circle the number that best describes how you usually feel, using the scale below: <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around; width: 100%;"> 1 Strongly disagree 2 Disagree 3 Neutral 4 Agree 5 Strongly agree </div>					Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1. I think leisure is an important part of life.	1	2	3	4	5				
2. For me leisure contributes to the quality of my life.	1	2	3	4	5				
3. Overall, I am satisfied with my leisure experiences.	1	2	3	4	5				
4. For me, leisure is often unplanned because all the other obligations in my life have been fulfilled.	1	2	3	4	5				
5. Leisure allows me to escape the pressure of my daily routine.	1	2	3	4	5				
6. Leisure is the time left over, when everything else in my life is completed.	1	2	3	4	5				
7. Leisure occurs in all aspects of my life and can occur anytime in my day.	1	2	3	4	5				
8. Most of my leisure usually involves lazing around and doing passive things.	1	2	3	4	5				
9. To me leisure stops being leisure when it needs to meet the expectations of others.	1	2	3	4	5				
10. I find my leisure experiences begin spontaneously.	1	2	3	4	5				
11. Leisure for me is a change from life's usual routine.	1	2	3	4	5				
12. Leisure is the time when we can be in control and do not have to meet the expectations of others	1	2	3	4	5				
13. Sometimes during my leisure experiences I get so absorbed that I don't feel the time passing	1	2	3	4	5				
14. To me leisure stops being leisure when other people put pressure on me to perform.	1	2	3	4	5				
15. Leisure is the time when I get to free myself from normal life.	1	2	3	4	5				
16. Leisure occurs when I am able to take time out and get away from everyday life.	1	2	3	4	5				
17. Sometimes I get so occupied that I forget about time and forget about myself.	1	2	3	4	5				
18. I often find leisure is a time to think about life and discover a lot about myself.	1	2	3	4	5				
19. Leisure is a way to refresh my mind and I don't have to think about anything.	1	2	3	4	5				
20. Leisure serves just to fill the extra time in my life.	1	2	3	4	5				
21. Sometimes I get so relaxed during my leisure it is almost spiritual and that is satisfying.	1	2	3	4	5				
22. Leisure is doing nothing.	1	2	3	4	5				
23. Leisure just occurs in my spare time.	1	2	3	4	5				
24. Leisure to me is having my time free of responsibilities, to do what I want to do and not the things I am obliged to do.	1	2	3	4	5				
25. Leisure is all about doing inactive things.	1	2	3	4	5				
26. Leisure allows me to feel connected to something outside myself.	1	2	3	4	5				

SECTION D

Leisure refers to the activities you do, out of free-will, during your free time. **Free time** refers to the time outside of scheduled school / work and required home activities.

Read each question carefully and think about it how you feel about each statement before you answer. Please answer all the questions.

Leisure Constraints									
<p style="text-align: center;">Circle the number that best describes how you usually feel, using the scale below:</p> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around; margin-top: 10px;"> 2 Strongly disagree 2 Disagree 3 Neutral 4 Agree 5 Strongly agree </div>					Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1. I am too shy to start a new leisure activity	1	2	3	4	5				
2. The people I know live too far away to start a new leisure activity with me	1	2	3	4	5				
3. I am more likely to do a new leisure activity if the facilities I need to do the activity are not crowded	1	2	3	4	5				
4. I am more likely to do a new leisure activity that my family would think is alright	1	2	3	4	5				
5. The people I know usually don't have time to start a new leisure activity with me	1	2	3	4	5				
6. I am unlikely to do a new leisure activity if I have other commitments	1	2	3	4	5				
7. I am unlikely to do a new leisure activity that makes me feel uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5				
8. The people I know usually have enough money to begin a new leisure activity with me	1	2	3	4	5				
9. I am more likely to do a new leisure activity if I have transportation	1	2	3	4	5				
10. I am more likely to do a new leisure activity that my friends thought was alright	1	2	3	4	5				
11. The people I know usually have too many family obligations to start a new leisure activity with me	1	2	3	4	5				
12. I am more likely to do a new leisure activity if I knew what was available	1	2	3	4	5				
13. I am more likely to do a new leisure activity that is in keeping with my religious beliefs	1	2	3	4	5				
14. The people I know usually know what new leisure activities they could do with me	1	2	3	4	5				
15. I am unlikely to do a new leisure activity if the facilities I need to do the activity aren't convenient	1	2	3	4	5				
16. I am more likely to do a new leisure activity that doesn't make me feel self-conscious	1	2	3	4	5				
17. The people I know usually don't have enough skills to start a new leisure activity with me	1	2	3	4	5				
18. I am unlikely to do a new leisure activity if I don't have time	1	2	3	4	5				
19. I am more likely to do a new leisure activity that doesn't require a lot of skill	1	2	3	4	5				
20. The people I know usually don't have the transportation to get to a new leisure activity with me	1	2	3	4	5				
21. I am more likely to do a new leisure activity if I have money	1	2	3	4	5				

!!!!END OF THE QUESTIONS!!!!

APPENDIX B

INFORMATION FOR AUTHORS

INFORMATION FOR AUTHORS

The *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation* is published by the Stellenbosch University. Contributions from the fields of Sport Science, Movement Education, Recreation/Leisure Studies, Exercise Science and Dance Studies will be considered for publication. The articles submitted will be administered by the appropriate Subject Review Editor and evaluated by two or more referees. The decision as to whether a particular article is to be published or not, rests with the Editorial Board.

SUBMISSION

Manuscripts should be typed with **one and a half spacing** in 12-point Times New Roman letter size. The original manuscript (clearly indicated) can be submitted by e-mail. Length must not exceed 20 pages (tables, figures, references, etc. included). Original manuscripts may be submitted in English or Afrikaans and should be sent to:

The Editor
South African Journal for Research in Sport,
Physical Education and Recreation
Department of Sport Science
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Republic of South Africa

Editorial Office
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Fax: 021-808 4817
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CONDITIONS

A signed declaration in respect of the originality must accompany each manuscript. On submission of the manuscript, the author shall present a written statement that the article has not been published or is not being presented for publication elsewhere. We discourage the practice of parts of one study in different journals. Authors who submit a manuscript from a study, some of these data which has been or will be published elsewhere, must provide a strong justification in an accompanying letter to the editor. The justification for not publishing all the data together in one paper or as multiple papers in a single issue of the *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation* must also be covered in the covering letter.

Should the article be taken from a Master's thesis or Doctoral dissertation, academic ethic requires that the student will be the first author.

The author should also ensure that the LANGUAGE of the manuscript has been thoroughly edited at the time of submission (in British English). The name, address and telephone number of the person who has done the language editing must be provided. Any expenses dealing with language editing will be added to the author's page fees.

PREPARATION OF MANUSCRIPT

Title page

The first page of each manuscript should indicate the *title* in English and Afrikaans (will be

translated for foreign authors), the *names* (title, first name in full and other initials, surname) of the author(s), the *telephone* numbers (work & home), *facsimile* number, *e-mail* address (if available) and the *field of study*. The mailing address of the first named author and the institution where the work was conducted should be provided in full. A short title of not more than 45 characters, including the spaces, should be provided for use as a running head.

Abstract

Each manuscript must be accompanied by an abstract of approximately 150-200 words in *English* and should be set on a *separate page* as a **SINGLE** paragraph (one and a half spacing). A list of three to seven **key words** in *English* is required for indexing purposes and should be typed below the abstract. Articles in Afrikaans must include an *additional* extended summary (500-1000 words) in English. This summary must start on a new page (following the list of sources) providing the English title of the article at the beginning.

Text

Start the text on a new page with the title of the article (centred and *without* the names of the authors). Follow the style of the most recent issue of the journal regarding the use of headings and subheadings. Use only one space after a sentence.

Tables and figures

Tables and figures should be numbered in *Arabic* numerals (1, 2, etc.). Tables require a heading at the *top* and figures a legend *below* and separate from the figure. **Note:** Use the decimal POINT (not the decimal comma).

References

In the *text* the Harvard method must be adopted by providing the author's surname and the date placed in parentheses. *For example:* Daly (1970); King and Loathes (1985); (Botha & Sonn, 2002); McGuines *et al.* (1986) or (Daly, 1970: 80) when Daly is not part of the sentence. More than one reference must be arranged chronologically. Note that *et al.* is used in the body of the text when there are more than two authors, but never in the list of references.

List of references

Only the references cited in the text should be listed alphabetically according to surname (last name) of authors (capitals) after the body of text under the heading, **References** (capitals) starting on a new page. In the case of articles published in *JOURNALS*, references listed should include the surnames and initials (capitals) of all authors, the date of the publication in parentheses, the full title of the article, the full title of the journal (*italics*), the volume number, the serial number in parentheses (omitted only if the said journal does not use issue numbers), followed by a colon and the first and last page numbers separated by a hyphen.

Example:

VAN WYK, G.J. & AMOORE, J.N. (1995). A practical solution for calculating instantaneous values of tension in the extensor muscles of the knee joint during extension and flexion. *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation*, 18(1): 77-97.

If the reference is a *BOOK*, the surname (last name) and initials of the author or editor (Ed.)

must be given, followed by the date of publication in parentheses, the title of the book (italics) as given on the title page, the number of the edition (ed.) in parentheses, the city (and abbreviation for the state in the case of the USA) where published, followed by a colon and the name of the publisher.

Example:

JEWETT, A.E.; BAIN, L.L. & ENNIS, C.E. (1995). *The curriculum process in Physical Education* (2nd ed.). Madison, WI: WCB Brown & Benchmark.

For a CHAPTER from a book, the page numbers of the chapter cited must be provided in parentheses (not italics) after the title of the book. For further details, authors should consult the most recent publication of this Journal for other examples.

Example:

DE RIDDER, J.H. (1999). Kinanthropometry in exercise and sport. In L.O. Amusa; A.L. Toriola & I.U. Onyewadume (Eds.), *Physical Education and sport in Africa* (235-263). Ibadan (Nigeria): LAP Publications.

If the reference is a THESIS or DISSERTATION, no italics is used as it is an unpublished work.

Example:

CRAVEN, D.H. (1978). The evolution of major games. Unpublished PhD dissertation. Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University.

For *ELECTRONIC SOURCES* all references start with the same information that would be provided for a printed source (if available). The web page information follows the reference. It will usually contain the name of the author(s) (if known), year of publication or last revision, title of complete work in inverted commas, title of web page in italics, Uniform Resource Locator (URL) or access path in text brackets (do not end the path statement with a fullstop) and date of access. See "*How to cite information from the internet and the world wide web*" at <http://www.apa.org/journals/webref.html> for specific examples. When citing a web site in the text, merely give the author and date (in this case: Ackermann, 1996).

Example of Web Page:

ACKERMANN, E. (1996). "Writing your own Web Pages." *Creating Web Pages*. Hyperlink [<http://www.mwc.edu/ernie/writeweb/writeweb.html>]. Retrieved 22 October 1999.

ADMINISTRATION

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APPENDIX C

CONFIRMATION OF LANGUAGE EDITING



23 April 2013

I, Ms Cecilia van der Walt, hereby confirm that I took care of the editing of the PhD thesis of Mr Theron Weilbach titled *The relationship between demographic variables and leisure perceptions of selected South African first-year university students*.

MS CECILIA VAN DER WALT

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