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Continued Sport Participation and the Negotiation of Constraints

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Supervisor: Dr. Karen Danylchuk, *The University of Western Ontario*
A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree in Kinesiology

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CONTINUED SPORT PARTICIPATION AND THE NEGOTIATION OF

CONSTRAINTS

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by

Laura <u>Wood</u>

Graduate Program in Kinesiology

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

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The University of Western Ontario
London, Ontario, Canada

THE UNIVERSITY OF WESTERN ONTARIO
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Abstract

The purpose of this dissertation was to expand upon current theoretical understandings of how and why people continue to participate in recreational sport. Central to this purpose is an understanding of the social processes that support ongoing involvement and the negotiation of constraints that would otherwise limit participation. This purpose is explored through three studies that seek to overcome limitations in extant research.

Study 1 examines the contributions of a social group to women's continued participation in golf through ethnographic methods. This study builds upon research on leisure-based social worlds and recent work identifying the potentially valuable roles of social groups in women's continued participation in recreation. Data were collected through an ethnography of a women's social group who regularly played golf. Data were analyzed using a grounded theory approach. The findings suggested two overarching themes that explained persistence in golf for these women: connecting with group members, and constructing a group culture. Importantly, the processes that facilitated the development of group connections were also identified. Thus, work noting the importance of socializing in leisure engagement is extended by analyzing participation in process terms. Further, downplaying competition, constructing unique rules, and avoiding instruction were identified as key aspects of a unique group culture.

Study 2 develops an understanding of constraints and negotiation processes in a self-organized middle age women's recreation group. While research has found that people prefer to participate with others, research examining constraints to participation have primarily taken an individual perspective. Further, although women's participation

in recreation is often limited for various reasons, recent research has found that participation in a group setting can facilitate women's persistence in recreational pursuits. Data were collected and analyzed the same way they were in Study 1. While some of these constraints influenced recreation involvements negatively, the findings predominantly describe how the group has collectively developed strategies that enabled them to negotiate most constraints. Specifically, findings highlight six ways in which the group of women negotiated constraints. Importantly, a description of how constraints developed and were negotiated over time was also identified and described, thereby casting the negotiation process in a more dynamic light.

Study 3 extends Hubbard and Mannell's (2001) work on the constraint negotiation process through the addition and refinement of key factors, within the context of intramural sports. Thus, both theoretical advances at a general level and context specific understandings were sought. The sample consisted of university students aged 17 to 24 years at a large university in Southwestern Ontario ($N = 237$). Results of the structural equation modeling analysis indicated the constraint-effects-mitigation model was not supported and the perceived-constraint-effects model provided a good fit to the data. Contrary to previous tests of the model, higher levels of negotiation strategies were found to be predictive of lower levels of constraints. Although constraints were still negatively impactful on participation levels, their overall effect was reduced by the use of negotiation strategies. Further, both motivation and ego involvement were found to be positive predictors of negotiation.

KEYWORDS: Continued sport participation, constraints, negotiation, social groups

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Introduction

Sport participation is associated with many positive benefits including increased

physical, psychological, and social health and well-being (Mannell, 2007). In fact,

scientific research has found that physical activity is beneficial as it can lead to lower

levels of heart disease, type 2 diabetes, and an increased life-span (e.g., Lee &

Paffenbarger, 2000; Walker, Walker, & Adam, 2003). Engagement in physical activity

can also decrease the development of osteoporosis (e.g., Damilakis, Perisinakis,

Kontakis, Vagios, & Gourtsoyiannis, 1999) and illness related to mental health (e.g.,

DiLorenzo et al., 1999; Moore et al., 1999). Engagement in many forms of physical

activity also provides other benefits such as reduced stress (Iwasaki & Mannell, 2000),

the facilitation of social connections (Green & Chalip, 1998; Mair, 2009), and personal

growth (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). For many people, sport is a particularly meaningful

form of physical activity because of the importance it holds in society, its ability to bring

people together, and the perception that it is more enjoyable than pure exercise (Chalip,

2006; Leipert et al., 2011).

Despite positive benefits, Canadian's participation in sport continues to decline.

In fact, only 30% of Canadians recently reported that they participate in sport (Canadian

Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute, 2008). Differences between genders still remain,

with males participating more often than females; however, this gap appears to be

narrowing (Statistics Canada, 2008). Despite this narrowing, women's participation in

sport continues to decline and remain at insufficient levels to acquire the health benefits

afforded by participation. Specifically, women's participation in sport has dropped from

26% in 1998 to 21% in 2005 (Statistics Canada, 2008). While this decline is not as drastic

as men's decline in participation (from 43% in 1998 to 36% in 2005), women's initial participation levels are already significantly lower than males. For women aged 35 to 54 years of age in particular, only 19% participate in sport (Statistics Canada, 2008). Another population group where participation levels appear to be on a rapid decline are people aged 19 to 24 years. In 2005, only 43% of Canadians aged 19 to 24 years were engaging in some form of organized sport, an 18% decline from 1992 (Statistics Canada, 2008). Thus, as sport participation appears to be declining it is necessary to develop understandings of continued sport participation to assist in the creation of management practices aimed at increasing involvement in sport.

Developing understandings of sport participation and non-participation is perhaps best served through the development of sound theory. However, it is not enough to simply replicate or apply existing models or frameworks with little advancement through conceptual development or inductive analysis. It is with that thought in mind that I approached this dissertation. Central to the purpose of expanding upon current theoretical knowledge of recreational sport participation is developing an understanding of the social processes that support ongoing involvement and the negotiation of constraints that would otherwise limit participation (Mannell & Iwasaki, 2005). Despite considerable advances in sport participation and leisure constraints research, a number of limitations exist in extant research. These limitations are addressed, in part, through the three studies that form this dissertation.

Research exploring participation in sport and leisure has well identified a number of social psychological constructs predictive of participation, such as motivation, attitudes, and ego involvement. However, in doing so, the influence of one's social world

in the participation process has been neglected (Kyle & Chick, 2002, 2004; Scott & Shafer, 2001; Stewart, Smith, & Nicholson, 2003). Although past research has focused heavily on individual levels of analyses, work examining social worlds has given focus to the relationships, behaviours, and social organization that groups experiencing sport or leisure share (Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998). Researchers have suggested that continued participation in an activity involves more than viewing the pursuit as enjoyable, as it can also involve becoming dedicated to the values and norms of the social world of which one is a part (Buchanan, 1985; Green & Chalip, 1998). Further, recent work examining women's social groups in particular have identified the important role of the group in activity initiation and continuation (e.g., Heuser, 2005; Yarnal, Chick, & Kerstetter, 2008). However, an understanding of how this process works is still underexplored.

It has been argued that to study people's involvement in sport and leisure within one's social world, and therefore develop an understanding of inter-relationships amongst people and situated meanings of leisure, specific methods need to be employed. Specifically, ethnographic methods that involve participant observation, informal interviews, and formal interviews have been advocated by a number of researchers operating within the symbolic interactionist tradition (e.g., Blumer, 1969; Charmaz, 2008; Prus, 1996). However, an over-reliance on cross-sectional quantitative survey designs in favour of ethnographic methods has limited understandings of the social processes that explain continuance in sport and leisure (Kyle & Chick, 2004; Mannell, Kleiber, & Staempfli, 2006). Therefore, the purpose of Study 1 was to examine the roles of a social group in women's continued participation in golf through ethnographic methods.

As a way of studying participation in recreation, considerable attention has been paid to the factors or "constraints" that limit people's participation and strategies employed to overcome or "negotiate" those constraints (Godbey, Crawford, & Shen, 2010). Despite advances over the past 25 years, Scott's (1991) earlier observation that the majority of research on constraints had taken an individual perspective, with limited focus on constraints at the group level, still holds (Mannell & Iwasaki, 2005). Such a gap in the literature is significant as research suggests that some individuals prefer to engage in sport and leisure as part of a subculture or group, and much leisure is social in nature (e.g., Green, 2001; Green & Chalip, 1998; Heuser, 2005; Kyle & Chick, 2002, 2004; Scott & Godbey, 1992). Thus, little is known about how constraints are managed within group life (Mannell & Iwasaki, 2005).

Not only has an over-reliance on quantitative cross-sectional survey methods caused some researchers to question the social psychological nature of such research (Mannell et al., 2006; Scott, 1991), it has also been critiqued for severely limiting understandings of constraints, behaviours, and experiences as they develop over time. Reflecting on this limitation in the literature, Snelgrove and Havitz (2010) suggested the use of retrospective methods that involve participants reflecting on sport and leisure involvements and experiences in the past as well as the present. Similar suggestions were made by Mannell and Iwasaki (2005) with respect to constraints research. Study 2 takes these limitations and related suggestions into consideration by examining group-related constraints for a women's recreation group using participant observation and open-ended interviews that delve into past and current experiences. The same women's group was utilized in Study 1 and Study 2.

Previous research, including findings from Study 2, suggests that constraints to sport and leisure participation can be overcome when negotiation strategies are employed. However, a limited understanding of the factors that predict the use of negotiation strategies remains. To address this limitation in extant literature, Study 3 extended the constraint negotiation models developed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001), by adding ego involvement and a more robust measure of motivation as predictors of negotiation. Ego involvement in particular has been identified as a construct predictive of leisure participation (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004) and, based on related research, may be helpful in understanding constraint negotiation (Snelgrove, Taks, Chalip, & Green, 2008). Hubbard and Mannell tested a variety of constraint negotiation models that they theorized based on previous research and found the greatest support for the constraint-effects-mitigation model, which describes the interrelationships amongst constraints, negotiation strategies, motivation, and participation. The context of this study is intramural sport participation as university students have been identified as a group that is underactive in physical activity (Irwin, 2004). Thus, in addition to expanding understandings of the constraint negotiation process, this study also seeks to develop theory that can be applied in the context under study.

This study employed the use of a quantitative survey design and collected data from undergraduate students at a large Southwestern Canadian university. Data were analyzed using structural equation modeling. Notwithstanding some of the limitations of survey designs, their use may be particularly fruitful when they involve the development and testing of structural models. Such an approach allows for the simultaneous testing of a process-oriented model of behaviour rather than relying on disconnected statistical

relationships brought together in a post-hoc fashion. This study employs an objectivist approach, in contrast to the first two studies which are more subjectivist in nature (Crotty, 1998). Although objectivist approaches make it difficult to understand situated meanings of leisure, they are beneficial in that they allow one to examine the strength of relationships amongst concepts and develop more generalized theory (Snelgrove & Havitz, 2010).

The last section of this dissertation provides a summary of the main research findings and contributions to the literature. As this dissertation is presented in the integrated article format, each study had a specified purpose and review of extant literature. These three studies, however, had a unified purpose of enhancing understandings of continued sport participation for the purposes of increasing overall sport participation in Canada. Thus, it should be noted that some of the information covered in this introduction will also be discussed, albeit in greater detail, in each of the three studies.

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Study 1

Playing Our Way:

Contributions of Social Groups to Women's Continued Participation in Golf

Research examining continued participation in recreational sport has provided a number of valuable insights, yet remains limited in two related and important ways. First, sport and leisure research has tended to focus on individual level constructs such as motivation, attitudes, or ego involvement and their relationships to levels of attachment to activities. However in doing so, socially constructed meanings and relationships are often neglected (Kyle & Chick, 2002, 2004; Scott & Shafer, 2001; Stewart, Smith, & Nicholson, 2003). Second, some researchers have argued that an over-reliance on cross-sectional quantitative survey designs has limited understandings of the social processes that explain continuance in sport and leisure (Kyle & Chick, 2004; Mannell, Kleiber, & Staempfli, 2006; Snelgrove & Havitz, 2010).

Although past research has focused heavily on individual levels of analyses, work examining social worlds has given focus to the relationships, behaviours, and social organization that groups experiencing sport or leisure share (Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998). Researchers have suggested that continued participation in an activity involves more than viewing the pursuit as enjoyable, as it can also involve becoming dedicated to the values and norms of the social world of which one is a part (Buchanan, 1985; Green & Chalip, 1998). Further, recent work examining women's social groups in particular have identified the important role of the group in activity initiation and continuation (e.g., Heuser, 2005; Yarnal, Chick, & Kerstetter, 2008). However, an understanding of how this process occurs is still underexplored in the leisure and sport literature. Therefore, the

purpose of this study was to examine the roles of a social group in women's continued participation in golf through ethnographic methods.

Literature Review

Social Aspects of Sport and Leisure Participation

In the late 1960s, researchers found preliminary support for the idea that recreation activities are often characterized by the group structure of participants, with different groups having different objectives and needs (Burch, 1969). Burch (1969) postulated that the origins of leisure participation and continued involvement are more often influenced by individuals' social connections and circles of co-workers, friends, and family than by individual causes. Subsequent research built on Burch's seminal work has demonstrated that individual variation in leisure behaviour is often well explained by social group influences (Field & O'Leary, 1973). Similarly, Stokowski (1990) suggested that leisure occurs in a social world and an individual's engagement is influenced and constrained by social circumstances, often beyond the control of the individual. However, leisure researchers have traditionally examined an individual's behaviour at the expense of studying the social group (Arai & Pedlar, 2003; Mannell et al., 2006; Scott & Godbey, 1992). Sampling the disconnected individual in a random sample is potentially problematic though, because "the connectedness of humans is carefully sampled out" (Meyersohn, 1969, p. 55). Thus, while the act of participating in leisure has been recognized as a social experience, limited research has been conducted on the social or recreational group (Heuser, 2005; Scott & Godbey, 1992; Yarnal et al., 2008).

Research that has examined the social aspects of sport and leisure behaviour has taken a social worlds or subculture perspective. A social world or subculture is a distinct

group in which members orient themselves in an identifiable way (Donnelly & Young, 1988; Unruh, 1979). Similarly, Scott and Godbey (1992) noted that social worlds represent a "unique scheme of life in which members share in a special set of meanings and in which various cultural elements … are created and made meaningful by social world members and serve to set the social world apart from other social worlds" (p. 49). Early work in the area of recreation specialization speculated that individuals highly committed to an activity were part of a leisure social world that influenced the decisions they made in other aspects of their life including friendships, career, and vacation (e.g., Bryan, 1977). Social worlds in sport and leisure socialize members by setting norms related to leisure styles, clothing and equipment, meanings of activity participation, and behaviours associated with the activity (Donnelly & Young, 1988; Scott & Godbey, 1992; Wheaton, 2000).

Contrary to previous research arguing individuals progress and become more specialized the longer they participate in an activity (e.g., Bryan, 1977; Glancy, 1990; McIntyre & Pigram, 1992), Scott and Godbey's (1992, 1994) ethnographic work on adult bridge groups found that not all bridge players were interested in becoming more specialized. Rather, they concluded that there were two different groups of people, namely those who were interested in being serious players and those who were interested in being social players. The groups varied based on a number of characteristics including the recruitment of new players, style of game played, adherence to formal rules, creation of player partnerships, physical setting where games are played, conversations that take place during the game, characteristics of players, and the types of relationships formed. Further, the social players made a point of not progressing to the serious bridge group.

Thus, Scott and Godbey (1994) concluded that an increase in specialization may not occur over time for all participants, and as a result, specialization may be better conceptualized as membership in different social worlds, as opposed to a continuum of expertise. Similarly, in a study of women lawn bowlers, Heuser (2005) found that some of the women were not interested in being serious players and created a playing environment that met their needs (e.g., low competition, constant chatter between members, and a lack of concern for the specific rules). Instead, the women were interested in spending meaningful time with one another in a social and relaxed environment. Despite these findings, limited understandings of the various ways in which social groups influence recreational participation remain.

Continued Participation in Sport and Leisure

The role that social groups play in activity continuance has garnered recent attention (e.g., Kyle & Chick, 2002, 2004). Having an opportunity to celebrate a shared identity with others was found to be an important reason for participation in events and sport experiences related to the subculture (e.g., Green & Chalip, 1998; Snelgrove, Taks, Chalip, & Green, 2008). Research has advanced the idea that people attend sport events to be with similar others, suggesting that it is not just about the event activity itself, but rather it is about the connections and opportunities to be with similar people that results in continued participation (e.g., Green, 2001; Green & Chalip, 1998; Snelgrove et al., 2008). Further, research also found that shared meanings held amongst members leads to continued participation (e.g., Green 2001; Wheaton, 2000).

The idea that the social processes of a group not only act to create the group's culture, but are also essential reasons for participation, is supported by other work. For

example, similar conclusions have been made in the area of health promotion, where researchers found that individuals who participated in physical activity with others were more likely to continue to participate in an exercise program, compared to those who participated alone (Burke, Carron, Eys, Ntoumanis, & Estabrooks, 2006). Similarly, Kyle and Chick (2002, 2004) examined repeat attendance at an annual agricultural fair in Pennsylvania by collecting descriptions of campers' experiences through the use of narrative inquiry.

While most agricultural fairs in the United States were rapidly declining in attendance, this specific fair seemed to be able to maintain its attendance levels, thereby invoking the question: what is special about this fair? Fair attendees discussed their experiences as being shared and co-constructed with members of their social group (e.g., family and friends). These relationships proved to be the most meaningful element for attendees, and an opportunity to share and celebrate these relationships was shown to be the most influential reason behind repeat fair attendance. Further, each social world was described as having a unique culture passed down through generations and was manifested in the different groups' fair traditions and camping rituals. Also, with respect to women specifically, recent work has found that the group member's initiation in a leisure pursuit was highly influenced by one's friends and family (Heuser, 2005).

Theoretical Perspective

This study employed a symbolic interactionist (SI) perspective, which emphasizes the socially derived nature of recreational sport participation meanings and the processes that contribute to continued participation. Blumer (1969), in his seminal definition of symbolic interactionism, identified three major premises fundamental to this perspective,

which include: (a) "Human beings act toward things on the basis of the meanings that these things have for them"; (b) "The meaning of such things is derived from, or arises out of, the social interaction that one has with one's fellows"; and (c) "These meanings are handled in, and modified through, an interpretive process used by the person in dealing with the things he encounters" (p. 2). In sum, symbolic interactionism posits that the construction of meaning is an interpretive process that occurs through social interaction, and over time these shared meanings become people's reality (Blumer, 1969; Prus, 1996).

Methodologically, the "social act" is the fundamental unit of analysis, and sociological methods should enable researchers to grasp people's meanings (Sandstrom, Martin, & Fine, 2010). More specifically, interactionists strive to examine and explain group activity in terms of processes of interaction amongst members. This involves an analysis of a group's unique history and an examination of the patterns of activity and knowledge that accrue as a result of interaction amongst the members over time (Scott & Godbey, 1992). In doing this, researchers need to achieve intimate familiarity with one's subject matter by engaging with participants in their natural setting, and employing informal and unobtrusive data collection techniques (Blumer, 1969; Sandstrom et al., 2010).

Method

Context

Golf is a sport that lends itself well to the social group setting as it is typically played with other people, and was therefore considered a suitable choice for this study. Furthermore, participation in golf is highly prevalent in North America. In Canada,

21.5% of the population participated in the sport in 2005, the highest rate of all sports (Statistics Canada, 2008). Yet, in Canada, less than 15% of golfers are women (RCGA, 2006). Similar patterns of participation exist within the United States. As McGinnis and Gentry (2006) noted, in the United States golf is a sport predominately engaged in by men. Allowing for generalization to other sports and settings, the social group and general social processes were the focus of this study rather than golf specifically (Fine, 1979). However, the role of golf in the continued participation process was also assessed to identify activity specific aspects. Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine the role of social groups in women's continued participation in golf through the use of ethnographic methods.

Sample

A group of 13 women who regularly engage in golf together in a small rural town (population of township approximately 15,000) in Ontario, Canada was chosen as the context for this study. The women in this study were part of a women's league at a public course and they played nine holes of golf together every Monday evening during the golf season (May to September). Following the round of golf, the group had dinner together in the clubhouse. The women ranged in age from 45 to 62 years old and were all married in heterosexual relationships. All but one of the women had children, and with the exception of one individual, the children were no longer living at home. Their level of education ranged from high school to college degrees, two of the participants were retired, and the rest worked full time in a variety of fields. All of the participants were Caucasian and were self-described as being middle class. Participants were recruited through a personal

contact; however, no connection or contact with the group was made prior to this investigation.

Data Collection

Data collection was guided by an SI perspective. Interactionists believe that in order to develop an understanding of human behaviour and processes, the researcher needs to be with the individuals who are engaging in the behaviours under investigation (Sandstrom et al., 2010). As Prus (1996) explained, "interpretivists are centrally concerned with the meanings people attach to their situations and the ways in which they go about constructing their activities in conjunction with others…The study of human behaviour is the study of human lived experience" (p. 9). As a result, when utilizing this approach many interactionists engage in ethnography, as this methodology enables the researcher to become a part of the lives of those they are studying. Prus further argued that, "when researchers are able to gather observational, participant-observation and interview data on a more or less simultaneous basis, this generally leads to a more complete understanding of the other" (p. 21).

Thus, consistent with an SI perspective, an ethnography of an existing women's group engaged in golf was conducted (Charmaz, 2006; Prus, 1996). Specifically, data were collected through participant observation, informal interviews, and in-depth unstructured interviews. The purpose of the data collection was to develop an intimate knowledge surrounding the inner-workings of the social group. An SI perspective recognizes that researchers are not "passive receptacles into which data are poured" or "scientific observers who can dismiss scrutiny of our values by claiming scientific neutrality and authority" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 15). Thus, researchers need to be reflexive

about what they bring to a research project, where attention is given, and how situations are interpreted (Charmaz, 2006). Throughout the data collection phase, I was reflexive about what I brought to the study as a person and researcher, with particular focus on the type and way in which questions were asked, and the observed experiences of the group. Further reflexivity was undertaken in the data analysis phase, and is addressed below.

Participant observation. The data collection process began with an observation of the women while they were playing golf, and this was the exclusive method during the first meeting with the group. This provided an opportunity to develop rapport with the group members prior to asking them personal information. Thus, engaging in some preliminary observation prior to interviewing allowed for the development of trusting and comfortable relationships with the women (Scott & Godbey, 1992, 1994). After this initial meeting, participant observation continued over a period of two months with the women. Participant observation took two main forms. One method involved walking the course with the participants while they were playing golf every week. The women randomly grouped themselves into foursomes each week depending on the arrival time of group members and I walked the course with all women who were in attendance. I was able to spend time with all of the different foursomes each round. This involved walking all nine holes and observing the participants as they interacted with each other while playing golf. I (a novice player) was also invited by the group to play a round of golf with them, which occurred near the end of the observation period. Field notes were taken and were written down immediately following an observation session and were transcribed to be utilized for analyses. The second method of participant observation occurred during dinner with the participants. During this time, observations were also made of the

interactions amongst the women and topics of discussion. The group would have dinner and then stay for a short period of time to chat. In sum, approximately 30 hours of participant observation were completed during the investigation.

Informal interviews. During dinners, informal interviews were conducted with the women. Questions were informed by activities or situations that were observed while playing golf, delving deeper to develop a more complete understanding of the inner-working of the group. Also, these discussions lead to participants sharing other relevant experiences from the past. These informal discussions provided in-group knowledge that may not have otherwise been revealed, and reinforced or added further clarity to data obtained through observations and one-on-one interviews. These interactions with participants were written down immediately following the dinner session and were transcribed for subsequent analysis.

One-on-one interviews. After two observational sessions and initial informal interviews with the women, they were asked to participate in in-depth one-on-one interviews and all agreed. The interviews were conducted at the golf course or at the home of the participants. The interviews ranged from 60 to 120 minutes and were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim. As suggested by Prus (1996), the interviews were characterized by receptive listening, and open-ended inquiries and probing. Further, as this study employed an SI perspective, the interviews were also guided by an interest in understanding group processes and relationships, initial and ongoing involvement, the meanings the group and golf participation held for these women, and broader contextual issues (e.g., family life, gendered nature of sport). The interviews all began with a common question: "how did you come to be involved with the group?" The one-on-one

interviews were purposely informal, interactive, and conversational in nature to provide an opportunity for the women to talk about their experiences in their own words and on their own terms (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995). The week following an interview with a participant I would spend time casually discussing some of the topics identified during the interview with the participant. In some cases additions or clarifications were made to the individual's transcripts. The multiple data collection methods all served to inform each other. For example, observations noted were addressed in formal and informal interviews. Further, data collection through these multiple methods continued for two weeks after the researchers felt theoretical saturation was reached. This additional period of two weeks served to confirm that no new information would be garnered from further data collection.

Data Analysis

Interactionists commonly employ grounded theory techniques to analyze collected data (Sandstrom et al., 2010). This approach emphasizes the lived experiences of the participants involved and privileges their meanings over ones set a priori by the researcher (Prus, 1996). Commensurate with a grounded theory approach, the data were simultaneously collected and analyzed throughout the research process. Coding focused on social processes and the interactions between group members. Specifically, the data were coded in a two-stage process to develop themes and categories with the assistance of NVivo software (Charmaz, 2006). This involved both initial and focused coding (Charmaz, 2006). Initial coding involved a line-by-line analysis of all interview transcripts and field notes. Line-by-line coding enables researchers to remain open to the

data and to uncover nuances within. Thus, initial codes were "provisional, comparative, and grounded in the data" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 48).

Focused coding involved determining which codes could be brought together to make the most analytic sense of the data. As a result, the codes became more directed, selective, and conceptual and led to the creation of categories. Moving from the first to second stage of coding is not a linear process, and instead, at times during the coding process, both of these stages were engaged in simultaneously, through constant comparison methods, to further refine the analysis and emergent themes. Also, memo-writing was used to avoid forcing the data into extant theories, and allow for clarification and connection between categories. Additionally, to reduce preconceptions, notes were maintained to record feelings that arose throughout the research process that may have influenced the coding process, and a second researcher reflected on the emergent themes to add some support to the reasonability of the analysis. Pseudonyms were used to refer to all participants and places.

Findings

Most of the women involved in the social group under investigation had known each other since early adulthood when they began participating in baseball together. The group varied in age as some group members recruited their younger sisters to be a part of the group or in some cases sisters-in-law. The age range of the members did not appear to affect how the group operated. Over time, new members became a part of the group through newly developed relationships or the reconnection of older friendships. When baseball became too physically demanding for the group they began playing golf together approximately ten years prior to the start of this research. During this transition, the

women were looking for a recreational activity to replace baseball and they became aware of a women's league at the local public golf course. Although the women in the group had limited exposure to golf prior to their collective participation, they were drawn to golf because they thought it would be an activity that would enable them to spend time with one another while meeting their desired level of physical activity.

What follows are two overarching themes that explain how a women's social group contributes to continuance in golf. The two themes are *connecting with group members* and *constructing a group culture*, and will be outlined below along with a description of the processes that enabled and facilitated their development. Through an examination of on course and clubhouse behaviours, the following themes identify the social group as the impetus for the women's initiation and continued participation. As all of the women were interested in playing the game in a non-serious manner, this served to connect them further as a group. Also, being a part of a group interested in the same approach to the sport provided women with an opportunity to be themselves by not conforming to the traditional norms of the sport. As will be described in further detail, these elements of the social group served to strengthen their connection with one another and with golf.

Connecting with Group Members

For almost all of the women in this study, the opportunity to be with friends was one of the strongest influences on initial golf participation, and the most verbalized explanation for their continued involvement in golf. Common reflections on golf initiation included: "I think that if I wouldn't have had the group, I don't think I would have got into [golf]" (Marie); "I had my mom's golf clubs. When she passed away she

gave me her clubs and I thought I'll never use those things (chuckles)… And the girls said, no, come on and give it a try, and then I was hooked" (Mary). Beyond these initial experiences, most of the women explained that golf provided them with an opportunity to be together and to enjoy each other's company. As Amy described,

> All of the people and getting out, the social aspect of that is really what it's all about in life. It's just nice to have something like golf to bring people together. That's really what [we] use it for. So that's how we use golf.

Golf, then, served as an opportunity for the women in the group to socialize and deepen relationships with each other. Patricia explained the importance of having time to connect with her friends in the group in the following way, "[My favourite part of Monday] is just getting together with everybody, it's not even the golf. Just that we're getting together and it's like, there's about 12 or 14 [of us] or whatever." Further, Heather connected this reason with her persistence in golf when she explained, "If I wasn't golfing with [the group] I wouldn't be here. I wouldn't come."

The women often expressed how Monday golf is their night out, it is a chance for them to spend time with one another and share what is going on in their lives. Golf was the activity chosen to meet this desire. In fact, given the opportunity to play a round with others in the league on Monday night, the women waited to play with their friends. As Lindsay describes,

> A couple weeks ago I got there early and Jean was golfing early, but she was golfing with two ladies I didn't know. And I kind of held back, not that I didn't want to go with them, but I didn't know them. So I kind of held back… It's like this is my comfort group, it's why I'm here.

Opportunities to connect and socialize extended beyond golf. That is, all women expressed the importance of having dinner together after their round. During these times,

shared stories and laughs were common. Most women in the group described the social time following golf as being the part of the evening they look forward to most on Mondays.

> My favourite part of Monday is probably eating (laughs) when everybody comes in. I mean though, it is nice the walking around and that. And I mean we talk a lot and everybody's had a lot of good conversations. A lot of laughing and a lot of tears, a lot of everything you know, just, we are very fortunate women. We are so fortunate. (Ellen)

As another group member described it, "we have a lot of fun at dinner afterwards and we have our little, kind of meetings. It's almost turning into meetings, where you need to take minutes just in case somebody's not there and they miss something that's going on." On the golf course the women would also frequently discuss amongst the foursome, and even shout across to other groups ahead or behind, to determine the dinner special at the clubhouse.

The following sections contain a description of the group processes that were integral in enabling the women to develop connections with one another and ultimately continue participating in golf.

Supporting skill development. When the women first began playing golf, they found it to be quite difficult due to the skill and coordination requirements of the game. Despite the frustration that resulted from learning a new and difficult sport, the women indicated that they never thought of stopping. All of the women indicated that their connection with the other group members and their desire to socialize with one another contributed to their continuation with golf. Further, some of the women even explained that being with a supportive group enabled them to improve their skills despite the difficulty. As Patricia explained, "I think I tried harder because you want to be there with

them… Just everybody can get together." Thus, the women continued participating despite the frustration associated with the skills aspect of golf, in part, because of a desire to connect with others. In the end, while they were not interested in becoming expert golfers, they were successful in developing some of the skills necessary to continue playing the sport.

Structured participation. In addition to the desire for social connection with group members, the specific ways in which group relations and golf participation were carried out was also prominently intertwined with the women's ongoing engagement in golf. Interestingly, the women described a preference for structured leisure. They expressed enjoyment over having one evening a week when they knew they would be getting together with their friends. So in a significant sense, this evening is a routine and ritualized behaviour for the women, as they believe regardless of the circumstances Monday is golf night with this group. Mary expressed this sentiment in the following way,

> I think it just makes your life that much more interesting. Because you have something to look forward to, something that's very scheduled. It's not, oh are we getting together, you know that Monday night is the time…otherwise you could sit home here I guess and you could manage, but how boring.

The timing of this undertaking in the life course may also be of importance. That is, the women made reference to their parental roles in the family and noted how they were able to "come out and play again," as their children were no longer living at home. Their preference for a structured life was the result of numerous family and career commitments, and in most cases this preference stemmed from their child rearing days.

A desire for a structured lifestyle, then, led them to seek out and ultimately continue with a leisure pursuit that facilitated such a lifestyle. As Patricia explained,

> It's been great because it's very social and it's an excuse to get out because sometimes if you don't have a structured thing to do it's hard to get out, even just to take a walk on your own, it's hard you know. But, if you have somebody to do it with, [it's not hard].

Patricia suggested that without the routine it becomes more difficult to commit to an activity. Further, it is not only about having the structured activity that is important, but having others with whom to engage in the activity that assists in ensuring continued participation.

The group's interest in structure is further evident in the means through which they chose to pursue golf, that being a women's league. They enjoyed being a part of the women's league because the organization of the league provides the structure they are seeking. As Mary described, "I like the convenience of it I guess, you know, knowing that you don't have to call ahead to get tee times, there's this block from 3 o'clock until 6 o'clock at night, that's ladies league." Amy further elaborated on this idea and described her belief that women's leagues are integral to the potential initiation and perhaps continuation in activities such as golf for women.

> I like that it's part of a league. That way at least it's kind of organized. And you know that it's every Monday night and you're going to be here. … I think it's good for the community to have leagues like this, because sometimes it's easier for people to join a ladies league. Because you do tend to feel out of place if you're learning and there's other people there, they're not always that tolerant of beginners. So if you can keep the ladies league going it might help ladies feel better about coming and trying it with other ladies.

Ritualized practices. The women's group also developed additional ritualized practices that proved to strengthen their connection together and with golf. All of the

women in this social group stayed after playing golf each week to have dinner together at the clubhouse. The group developed this repeated behaviour over time and had an unwritten rule that regardless of the weather conditions they will meet at the course on Monday to eat dinner together. Mary described the strength of this ritual when she stated, "The golf course was closed one night because there was so much rain, I mean everything was flooded, they said nobody's going to show up, [but] we were there."

Constructing a Group Culture

This group of women is recognized by themselves and others at the golf course as being unique in their practices and behaviours. They have collectively developed unique group norms, related to their style of play, over time that constitutes a small group culture. This small group culture is the product of their relationships with each other and the meanings of these connections. Their collective approach to the game and their interest in being social players provided the women with the opportunity to be themselves while playing golf. Thus, being a part of a social group that had similar goals and styles of play enabled the women to persist with the sport. Julia acknowledged that the group is identifiable by others, and these others carry perceptions of the group based on their behaviour and ways of interacting with one another.

> I think we're seen as the crazy Sommerville girls that take over everything we do. Because we arrive in a mass, it's like the younger red hat ladies, or we don't have any hats (laughs), the no hat ladies. Because, it's just that we're always known as the Sommerville group, they always know it's us.

The uniqueness of the group is also recognized by the individual members. As Sarah explained, "What we have here is something different than other people have, you know.

Like they might have a couple friends, the people at work, but they don't have like ten…

it's like a pack."

Further, the uniqueness of the group and their culture can be seen in the way in which they preferred to play golf. That is, they preferred to play in accordance with their group's norms, and when given the opportunity to golf with others outside of the group they often do not enjoy the experience. Ellen revealed this when she was describing her experience playing with another group. "I was just so nervous I just thought, do I really want to play golf this way anyway?" Similarly, Kristin described one of her negative experiences playing golf with others due to their competitive nature:

> I have golfed with other women before, at a fundraiser because you just got mixed in and I golfed with women who were very serious and I hated it. Because every time you flubbed a shot they were disappointed because they wanted to win and I was in it just for the fundraiser so I don't want to ever put myself in that kind of a position again.

The following processes facilitated the development of the group's unique culture. These processes include the downplaying of competition, the construction of unique rules for playing, and the avoidance of instruction. Each of these will be described below to identify their contribution to the group's culture and continuation with golf.

Downplaying competition. During our interactions, the women indicated a lack of interest in being serious or competitive golfers. In fact, they began participating in golf with this notion in mind and have continued to abide by this idea. Many of the women discussed how the group's focus on enjoyment over expertise was one of the major reasons why they kept playing golf, especially when the sport was difficult at the onset of participation, as previously described. The low importance the group places on competition was evident during observations of the group. For example, when a group

member had an undesirable tee shot, someone would throw another ball towards the tee and mention how "they hadn't seen anything, her ball must have just disappeared." Last, as Patricia describes, competition did not exist amongst the members either: "obviously some people are going to be better at it than others, but as you can see with the group they don't really care which is nice. Because then it takes the pressure off."

The group's decision not to engage in a serious nature of play was also noticed by the other women in the league, and was not always regarded highly by these outsiders. Heather described this when she said,

> We've heard other ladies complain that we're too loud or they want to golf around us. If we're golfing on the back nine they want to golf on the front because, I guess we're having too much fun and we don't take it serious enough for them, I guess. I mean you're not going out on the PGA (laughs).

Interestingly, some group members did mention that although the group does not play in a serious manner, they would not be opposed if a member in the group wanted to take golf more seriously. As Julia explained, "That's why I like this group, because I could be as serious as I want or as not serious as I want." Thus, the group was open to having the members engage in golf in the manner that best suited their interests and needs. While no group member became serious in their approach to golf, all of the women felt comfortable in doing so if they wanted to one day.

Constructing unique rules. Another unique and defining characteristic of this group is their reluctance to play golf by the prescribed rules and etiquette. Instead, the women have created rules and norms and consistently play according to them. The group openly spoke about how they were not interested in following the rules. As Caroline stated, "we don't follow all of the rules, I don't know if you've heard that (laughs).

Yeah, which makes it relaxing." Disregarding predetermined rules seemed to enable the group to play in a manner that interests them and suits their abilities as well. Further, as Heather explained,

> We still look at the rules and go, you can't do that? (laughs) Who made that rule up? So we really don't follow the rules very well. If we put our ball in the water we go over to the other side, we're pretty casual about it. Like kick the ball out from under a tree, I know you're not supposed to do all of that.

While observing the group play golf, their unique set of norms and rules were easily identifiable. Practices such as taking additional tee shots, stopping balls on the green, kicking the ball out from under bushes, talking while others are hitting the ball, walking over lines on the green, and many others have been defined as acceptable behaviour for the group and contributed to the construction of the group's culture.

Other golfers in the women's league did not necessarily regard this way of participating as acceptable. However, these perceptions have not affected how the group engages in golf together. As Ana explained,

> Some people are a little annoyed at our nature. We are just pretty happy and one girl's laugh you can hear across the fairway. And we are probably not counting every stroke. One time we got in trouble for going out with five of us versus four. So I think over the years our reputation maybe wasn't top notch in some eyes.

Interestingly, as the group members' skills improved they chose to continue to participate according to the developed norms.

Avoiding instruction. The women also emphasized how they do not give each other advice on how to play golf. Even when they were first learning how to play, those who had some experience would not give their opinion regarding technique to other group members. When describing one of her initial golf experiences, Lindsay revealed,

> There was no advice, I was on my own. They kept saying you're doing good Lindsay. They said we are not going to tell you what to do. You know, a couple things but I had to drag it out of them, like what am I doing wrong, like I can't even get it off the tee (laughs). So when you ask for advice, it's like, oh for what. So no they don't give advice.

Further, Marie stated, "we don't share tips very often. We each do our own thing, and nobody tells you, well you're doing it wrong, no, they just say, just keep trying, you'll get better. It's always encouraging." While spending time with the group, this notion was observed multiple times and reinforced their commitment to avoid instructing each other. For example, when one woman had a difficult shot and was unsure of where to hit her ball, instead of offering advice the group cheered her on saying, "you can do it Lindsay." The women believe that playing golf together is meant to be enjoyable, and that offering advice takes away from this experience.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the roles of a social group in women's continued participation in golf. As this study was guided by an SI perspective the focus was on understanding recreation as a social act. The findings suggest two overarching themes, connecting with group members, and constructing a group culture, that provide additional insight into continued participation in recreational sport and the role of the social group. The women's continued participation in golf can be traced to the social group, including the support it provides, and the collective culture they developed that allows for alternate ways of participating in golf. This study's findings extend previous research related to continued participation in different settings in a number of ways to provide initial support for new ideas about continued sport participation.

Consistent with previous research (e.g., Field & O'Leary, 1973; Heuser, 2005; Kyle & Chick, 2002, 2004), this study discovered that the women's initiation in golf was heavily influenced by their social circle of friends. The women in this group began participating in golf together when they were looking for an activity that would allow them to spend time with each other. Engaging in golf provided the group with an opportunity to connect with one another, an element of their participation that was described as contributing significantly to their ongoing engagement in golf. More specifically, these golf nights provided the women with an opportunity to discuss what was happening in their lives, share laughs, spend time with one another, and collectively engage in a recreational activity. This finding is consistent with previous research that found the opportunity to connect and be with similar others resulted in continued sport and leisure participation (e.g., Green, 2001; Heuser, 2005; Kyle & Chick, 2002, 2004), even in the presence of poorly organized events (e.g., Green & Chalip, 1998). As previous work in this area has focused heavily on sport and leisure events, this study adds to the literature by focusing on recreational sport participation, and the growing literature on adult focused recreation groups (e.g., Scott & Godbey, 1992; Yarnal et al., 2008).

This study's findings are also consistent with other research. For example, Heuser's (2005) examination of adult women lawn bowlers also found that the women enjoyed having the opportunity to spend meaningful time with other women, and their friends and family were the main reason they initiated their participation in the sport. Further, similar to the lawn bowlers, the women golfers in this study were not interested in being serious players and as a result they created a playing environment and culture that met their needs. Having the ability to play their own way was very important to the

lawn bowlers' continued participation with the sport and the women golfers in the current study identified a similar sentiment. Therefore, for some people having a social group that is interested in participating in a recreational activity according to the norms developed by the group serves an integral element in continued activity participation. Thus, similar to the lawn bowlers, the social group in this study played an important role in the group's continued participation in golf due to their relaxed nature, interest in playing golf in a social manner, and spending meaningful time with their circle of friends.

In fact, with respect to the social nature of the group, the findings in the present study found that the women actively resisted the classification of serious golfer and they purposefully created a group culture that was in direct opposition to a dominant way of playing golf (i.e., according to the formal rules and norms of golf). This group culture, built upon an interest in having fun and engaging in leisure activities together, is what ultimately led to their continued participation. For example, previous researchers found that contrary to initial perceptions, not all individuals within a given activity are interested in progressing from the stage of being a social player to a serious player (e.g., Scott & Godbey, 1992, 1994; Scott & Schafer, 2001). In fact, Scott and Godbey (1994) found that social bridge players made a point of not progressing to the serious bridge stage, thus resisting the idea of increasing specialization altogether.

The importance of social support as a predictive variable on continued sport participation has been recognized by researchers, but because it has received mixed and weak results, Casper, Gray, and Babkes Stellino (2007) called for future research in this area. Similarly, Burke et al. (2006) found that individuals who participate in physical activity with others are more likely to continue participation than those who participate

alone. However, because they employed a meta-analysis consisting almost exclusively of studies using a survey methodology, the authors were not able to explain why this may have been the case. The findings in this study may help in this regard. Specifically, social support was important because it facilitated continued participation in golf despite difficulties attributed to skill acquisition early on. While the women were not interested in becoming expert players, they were interested in developing adequate levels of skill so that they could play the sport. As a result of the group and their interest in playing in a similar fashion, the women were able to develop the skills necessary to play the sport. These findings suggest two important points. First, when some women participate in golf in a social group setting, they may be more likely to overcome the difficulty associated with skill acquisition and ultimately continue participation. Second, this development of skill enabled the women to overcome this barrier to continued participation (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004), enabling the women to ultimately have the opportunity to connect with the group. Thus, social support may affect continued participation by negotiating barriers related to skill, and by facilitating social connections.

Several interpretations can be drawn from this investigation surrounding the unique role of golf in shaping the group's social processes and resultant continued participation. First, golf by nature can be a very social sport as it can involve walking or riding a cart together with others, facilitating the opportunity to socialize. Second, because golf is typically not a team game, it is feasible for a group to enjoy playing together in the presence of varying levels of skill, and to continue to play together even when some of the group members can not attend. Third, golf courses are commonly designed in such a manner that facilitates the development of ritualized practices such as

dinner following the round. On-site clubhouses provide golfers with a place to get together following their game. This may not be the case for other recreational sports, such as baseball, curling, and volleyball for example, as participants would have to leave the ball diamond, rink, or court to find somewhere to get together. Finally, golf provides an environment in which golfers can play in a self-chosen manner, depending on their level of involvement (i.e., recreational versus competitive). That is, although golf is governed by a set of rules and regulations, they are most often only enforced by the individuals who are playing together (unless a marshal controls the pace of play, or they are competing in a tournament). Thus, there is no referee in non-competitive golf who determines how the game will be played each round and the refereeing is left up to the golfers playing together. Additional research is needed to determine whether these findings are unique to golf or whether they are applicable in other sports.

While this study has contributed to the growing body of literature on the roles of social groups in women's continued sport participation, it is not without limitations. More specifically, this study involved the examination of one social group of women engaged in one sport, at a public golf course, and who were all of similar socio-economic status and race. Future research is needed to develop this area with a focus on further understanding other contextual elements, such as stage in the life course, masculinity/femininity, race, social class, and sport type, all of which may be intertwined in some way. In particular, determining whether these findings are unique to golf, or if the social group plays a similar role in the development of continued participation for other sports is warranted. Also, with respect to the sport of golf specifically, examining

whether these results are unique to public golf courses or whether similar experiences occur at private and semi-private courses could be explored.

Conclusion

This study builds on the growing body of literature that recognizes involvement in recreation as a socially constituted endeavour. Whereas other approaches emphasize participation in recreation as psychologically driven activity, this study emphasizes the importance of one's social world in the construction of meaning and ongoing engagement. A symbolic interactionist perspective which emphasizes attending to local meanings and observing social acts facilitated understandings of social processes not easily understood through other perspectives and methods. Thus, this study extends extant literature through its focus on recreation at a group level, and the identification of social processes and their role in continued sport participation.

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Study 2

Constraints and Negotiation Processes in a Women's Recreational Sport Group

As a way of studying participation in recreation, constraints and their negotiation have received considerable attention in the literature over the past 25 years (Godbey, Crawford, & Shen, 2010). Yet, Scott's (1991) earlier observation that the majority of research on constraints had taken an individual perspective, with limited focus on constraints at the group level, still holds. Such a gap in the literature is significant as research suggests that some individuals prefer to engage in sport and leisure as part of a subculture, and much leisure is social in nature (e.g., Green, 2001; Green & Chalip, 1998; Heuser, 2005; Kyle & Chick, 2002, 2004; Scott & Godbey, 1992; Wood & Danylchuk, in press).

While participation in recreation is often associated with many positive benefits including increased physical, psychological, and social well-being (Mannell, 2007), many women's opportunities for engaging in recreation are limited as they are socialized into putting others' needs ahead of their own (Henderson & Allen, 1991; Shaw, 1994). Recent research has found that participation as a group can facilitate women's persistence in recreational pursuits (e.g., Wood & Danylchuk, in press). Recreational groups may be particularly beneficial for mid-to-older women as they can help negotiate or resist societal constraints related to gender and age (Green, 1998). However, recreation in the lives of older women is significantly underexplored, with a few exceptions (e.g., Heuser, 2005; Yarnal, 2004; Yarnal, Chick, & Kerstetter, 2008). Employing constraints as a framework represents one fruitful approach (Hawkins, Peng, Hsieh, & Eklund, 1999; Godbey et al., 2010; Son, Kerstetter, & Mowen, 2008). Examining constraints, namely

intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural, and their impact within a recreation group may provide insight into the group's ability to operate and engage in activities as a collective, and the groups' role in helping individuals manage participation related constraints. Acquiring an understanding of the factors that influence participation in recreation for individuals in mid to later life could assist in the development of effective solutions for increasing participation amongst this population (Son et al., 2008).

Midlife (approximately 40-60 years of age) is accompanied by changes in life circumstances (Stalp, Radina, & Lynch, 2008), such as current or upcoming retirement from paid work, partners beginning to retire, and children, if present, moving away from home permanently (Shapiro, 1996). This stage is also characterized by increased opportunities for women to engage in their own recreational activities (Stalp et al., 2008). As a woman in Wood and Danylchuk's (in press) study explained, "I'm now able to come out and play again." Considerations of age and gender have also been called for in constraints-based research (e.g., Alexandris & Carroll, 1997; Jackson, 2000; Shaw & Henderson, 2005; Son et al., 2008). Thus, the purpose of this study is to develop an understanding of constraints and negotiation processes in a self-organized women's recreation group.

Literature Review

Research related to recreation groups, and leisure constraints and negotiation, seem particularly relevant to the examination of constraints in a women's recreation group. Thus, research conducted within these two areas is reviewed below, followed by a critique of existing constraints work.

Recreation Groups

Although participating in sport and leisure is often a social experience, there is a paucity of research on recreation groups (Heuser, 2005; Scott, 1991; Scott & Godbey, 1992; Yarnal et al., 2008). Research that has been conducted on adult recreation groups has focused on groups comprised of both men and women (e.g., Scott, 1991; Scott & Godbey, 1992), with little attention paid to play and leisure in the lives of older women specifically (Yarnal, 2004). More recently, research has examined women only groups with the increasing interest in groups such as the Red Hat Society (e.g., Stalp et al., 2008; Yarnal et al., 2008) and other activities that women engage in collectively, including lawn bowling, dragon boat racing, and golf to name a few (e.g., Heuser, 2005; Parry, 2007; Wood & Danylchuk, in press).

Women's recreation groups can provide women with an opportunity to spend meaningful time with others in a space where they feel free to be themselves and not feel pressure to conform to socially-defined gender appropriate behaviour (Green 1998; Heuser, 2005; Stalp et al., 2008; Yarnal et al., 2008). That is, these groups provide women an opportunity to engage in recreation in a way that is meaningful to them and the others in their group. Further, it is a context through which a sense of community or belonging is created for many participants (Heuser, 2005; Parry, 2007). Last, women's initial involvement in these types of groups has been found to stem from the influence of important others in their lives such as friends, family, and partners (e.g., Heuser, 2005; Wood & Danylchuk, in press).

In recent work examining women's recreation groups, the women identified how the timing of this undertaking was significant as they had recently entered or were close

to retirement, and their children had left home, providing them with free time to be able to engage in leisure activities (e.g., Heuser, 2005, Wood & Danylchuk, in press; Yarnal et al., 2008). Further, friendship and camaraderie afforded through a leisure activity is one of the reasons some women continue to be involved with the pursuit (Heuser, 2005; Wood & Danylchuk, in press). For the women in Heuser's (2005) study, their commitment to the sport-at-hand did not remain consistent and instead changed over time as additional commitments and circumstances, both physical and social, in their lives outside of the sport changed.

Constraints to Recreation

It is now widely accepted that three types of constraints exist, namely, intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Godbey et al., 2010; Jackson, Crawford, & Godbey, 1993). In the following section, research related to the three types of leisure constraints is reviewed.

Intrapersonal. Intrapersonal constraints were described by Crawford and Godbey (1987) as the "individual psychological states or attributes which interact with leisure preferences" (p. 122). This form of constraint is thought to exist within the individual and can include a lack of self-efficacy, interest, physical ability, and stress, anxiety, and depression (Hudson, 2000). That is, intrapersonal constraints affect participation in leisure when individuals do not develop leisure preferences as a result of their personality, prior socialization, ability, and the attitudes of their immediate reference group toward an activity (Scott, 1991). With respect to stage in the life course, research has found that intrapersonal constraints increase with age (e.g., Alexandris & Carroll, 1997). Intrapersonal factors are thought to predispose individuals to associate leisure

objects, such as activities and services as appropriate or inappropriate, interesting or uninteresting, and so forth (Scott, 1991).

In terms of women's leisure, Shaw and Henderson (2005) suggested that the majority of research has not been guided by a constraint's framework and instead has focused on the connections between the gendered lives of women and their leisure. Research that has been conducted utilizing a constraints framework, however, has identified that women are more constrained in their leisure as compared to men (e.g., Hudson, 2000; Jackson & Henderson, 1995), and that these constraints are the result of socially-derived gender role expectations (Shaw & Henderson, 2005). Some of the more prominent intrapersonal constraints highlighted in research for women's leisure have been feelings of shyness, self-consciousness, body image, and a perceived lack of skills (e.g., Alexandris & Carroll, 1997; Hudson, 2000; Jackson & Henderson, 1995; Liechty & Yarnal, 2010; Raymore, Godbey, & Crawford, 1994).

An area of constraints that has received considerable attention within the constraints literature is the "ethic of care" notion. Research has identified that women's caring behaviour is a significant constraining factor affecting their engagement in leisure (e.g., Henderson, Bialeschki, Shaw, & Freysinger, 1996). That is, women are socialized to put others' needs ahead of their own, and this increased caring behaviour and sense of responsibility for others often results in women not developing their own needs or a sense of entitlement to leisure for themselves (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1991). Further, an ethic of care clearly leads to decreased opportunities for women to engage in leisure for themselves (Henderson & Allen, 1991; Shaw, 1994), making it difficult to delineate the

intrapersonal constraint of caring for others and the structural constraint of lack of time (Shaw & Henderson, 2005).

An ethic of care constraint may be experienced to a greater degree for married women with children and for women who are caregivers for older relatives (Harrington, Dawson & Bolla, 1992; Rogers, 1997). As women age and children begin to leave home, many women begin to develop an interest in personal leisure and a sense of entitlement to this personal time (Bialeschki & Michener, 1994; Parry & Shaw, 1999). Thus, this intrapersonal constraint may change over the life cycle for women and eventually may not be a constraining factor to leisure engagement. While women may be faced with new constraints during this time, this originally constraining factor becomes less pertinent in their lives. Reinforcing this notion, Jackson (2005) argued that "*leisure changes most at transitional points in people's lives*" (p. 115).

Interpersonal. Interpersonal constraints arise out of social interaction or relationships between individuals (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Thus, these constraints occur within social contexts (Scott, 1991). Interpersonal relationships can influence individuals' recreation preferences and choices, or limit partnered recreation engagement when interested friends are difficult to find (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Hudson, 2000; Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997). Although scant work has examined the effect of interpersonal constraints (Jackson, 2000), some research provides direction. In an examination of leisure constraints for adult volunteers, Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997) found that people's leisure choices and activities were constrained by family responsibilities, not having someone to participate in leisure with, and dissimilar leisure interests as spouses or friends. In fact, women, in particular, identified that they

experienced constraints related to their role within the family. Family was seen by some as an aspect of their life that shaped their leisure but did not prevent them from participating altogether. That is, family was a determinant in activity choice and routine; however, the women were still able to engage in meaningful leisure activities.

In a study of group related constraints, Scott (1991) found that interpersonal constraints experienced by bridge group members stemmed from the operation of the group. These interpersonal constraints included gate-keeping mechanisms (i.e., the means through which group members limit and/or prohibit others' involvement in the group), scheduling problems, and group disbandment. Individuals affected by gate-keeping mechanisms were unable to penetrate existing bridge clubs to participate. These people had an interest in playing, but were determined unfit for the group based on style of play, skills, or bridge personalities (Scott, 1991). Scheduling problems were an interpersonal constraint when schedules could not be coordinated to allow certain individual members to play together. Even when schedules were created for games, group members' additional interests outside of bridge caused them to miss games with the group. In fact, Scott noted how time commitments were frequently given as reasons why members were unable to participate in scheduled games. An important point to note here is that the individual time commitments of those within the group made it difficult for the group to participate, a notion which has been disregarded in constraints research. Thus, when individuals within the group experienced a structural constraint (i.e., a lack of time), it resulted in an interpersonal constraint for the group. Last, group disbandment was also found to affect the group's participation in bridge collectively. That is, as group

membership decreased some groups ultimately had to dissolve as there were not enough players to continue participating.

Interpersonal constraints that exist for women's leisure specifically have not been widely studied within the literature (Shaw & Henderson, 2005). Interpersonal constraints that have a negative effect on women's leisure experiences are outward social disapproval of friends and family members over engagement in leisure activities they deem to be inappropriate, and the influence spouses and partners have over women's engagement in leisure (e.g., Green & Hebron, 1988; Herridge, Shaw, & Mannell, 2003).

Structural. Structural constraints have been the most widely studied of the three constraint categories (Jackson, 2000; Jackson & Scott, 1999). This type of constraint was originally conceptualized by Crawford and Godbey (1987) as representing the factors that intervene between leisure preference or choices and resultant participation in a given activity. Examples of structural constraints include availability of facilities, availability of opportunities, financial cost of participating, availability of time, work, climate, family commitments, health, and transportation (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Hudson, 2000; Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997; Scott, 1991). Further, time constraints experienced by individuals may cause interpersonal constraints for recreation groups collectively, such as scheduling problems (Scott, 1991).

In terms of group-related structural constraints, Scott (1991) found that a declining interest in bridge in the United States (an intrapersonal constraint), particularly with the younger generation, has resulted in diminished opportunities for individuals to engage in this leisure pursuit as they lack knowledgeable players with whom to play. This also led to a decline in membership within existing bridge groups as spaces were not

filled with new players and existing groups were threatened as a result (Scott, 1991). Players in Scott's study identified that their involvement in bridge became stymied because of the declining number of bridge clubs within their town.

Many of the constraints experienced by women have been conceptualized as structural as they interfere between an interest in leisure and subsequent participation. In fact, one of the most salient constraints for women is a lack of time to engage in leisure (Shaw & Henderson, 2005). That is, women experience time constraints as a result of their work commitments as well as family responsibilities, ultimately leaving limited time for personal leisure (Green, Hebron, & Woodward, 1990). Intuitively then, time constraints for women with children would be further exacerbated and have a greater influence on leisure participation. As Jackson (2005) identified, constraints increase during transitional stages in life such as the birth of a child, leaving less time for mothers to engage in their own leisure. Financial constraints have been identified as a structural constraint for women as they often lack independence with respect to economic resources (Shaw & Henderson, 2005). Further, opportunities for women to participate in leisure pursuits such as sports and physical activities are often limited as greater resources are put into these activities for men (Shaw & Henderson, 2005; Theberge, 2000).

Negotiating Constraints

Although constraints may limit involvements and/or enjoyments in leisure in various ways, constraints are no longer viewed as insurmountable obstacles. Rather, they are thought of as potentially negotiable (Jackson et al., 1993; Kay & Jackson, 1991; Shaw, Bonen, & McCabe, 1991). That is, through the initiation of creative strategies, constraints can be overcome and participation in recreation can occur (Hubbard &

Mannell, 2001). A variety of negotiation strategies have been identified in the literature. In a study of group- and individual-related constraints, Scott (1991) found that while bridge players were faced with a variety of constraints, they engaged in negotiation strategies to alleviate some of the factors that could have limited their participation. Specifically, the group recruited substitute players to fill the role of missing members, and engaged in skill enhancement to enable participation with advanced players. In an examination of constraints to leisure for junior high and high school students, Jackson and Rucks (1995) found that the students engaged in negotiation strategies when faced with constraints, including acquiring the necessary skills, changing leisure aspirations, getting physical therapy, changing one's interpersonal relations, modifying time and commitments, and improving finances.

In an examination of how people respond to some of the most frequently cited leisure constraints (i.e., time and money), Kay and Jackson (1991) found that only 11 percent of adults sampled reported ceasing participation. Instead, strategies were employed to assist in continued participation in leisure activities, such as reduced participation, saving money to participate, and finding less expensive opportunities. While not intending to examine negotiation strategies directly, Samdahl and Jekubovich (1997) found that making time for self, coordinating time with others, compromising on activity, and sharing leisure with others were strategies that enabled people to engage in leisure. Henderson and Bialeschki (1993) found that, for some women, the use of negotiation strategies that enabled women to resist gender role expectations resulted in continued involvement in physical recreation activities. Last, Little (2002) found that women constrained by factors such as gender role expectations, family and other

commitments, personal constraints related to cultural notions of gender and adventure, and the technical nature of adventure recreation, engaged in several negotiation strategies, namely, prioritizing leisure, compromising on activity, and anticipating future involvement.

Relationships among Constraints

As evidenced throughout the previous review, the three constraints do not exist in isolation. That is, one type of constraint often leads to another (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Gilbert & Hudson, 2000; Godbey et al., 2010; Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997; Shaw & Henderson, 2005; Scott, 1991). For example, intrapersonal constraints may ultimately lead to interpersonal constraints should they affect the nature of an individual's relationships and interactions with others (Crawford et al., 1991; Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997). This idea challenges the linear hierarchical model originally depicted by Crawford et al. (1991). In a recent review of constraints research, Godbey et al. (2010) cautioned against "a rigid interpretation of the sequential hierarchy proposition by Crawford et al. (1991)" (p. 117). Recent research has identified that intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints that individuals experience within their life are often time intensified and interrelated as they age (Kleiber, McGuire, Aybar-Damali, & Norman, 2008). This occurs as a result of physical decline, as was experienced by the adult volunteers in Samdahl and Jekubovich's (1997) study, and due to increasing loss of friends and family which accompanies this stage in the life course. Subsequently, later in life adults experience heightened constraints with respect to leisure and these constraining factors are increasingly interconnected (Kleiber et al., 2008). For example, losing a spouse results in an interpersonal constraint; however, it may also influence

financial resources and mobility in terms of transportation (i.e., structural constraints) and further the need to overcome shyness that may have been masked by an outgoing partner (i.e., an intrapersonal constraint) (Kleiber et al., 2008).

Limitations in Constraints Research

Despite considerable advances in constraints research to date, a number of limitations can be identified. First, researchers have primarily focused on the individual at the expense of studying constraints at the group level, leaving little known about how constraints are managed within group life (Mannell & Iwasaki, 2005). Yet, as previously suggested, leisure meanings exist in social worlds and participation may be more likely to occur in the presence of groups (Scott, 1991; Wood & Danylchuk, in press). Second, commensurate with individual approaches, past research has relied heavily on quantitative survey methods (Jackson, 2000; Jackson & Scott, 1999), causing some researchers to question the social psychological nature of such research (Mannell, Kleiber, & Staempfli, 2006; Scott, 1991). Employing survey methods and semi-structured interviews without the addition of methods such as observation and open-ended interviews may not create a full appreciation of social interaction within group level leisure (Mannell et al., 2006; Prus, 1996).

Third, constraints research, much like sport and leisure involvement research in general, has over-relied on cross-sectional research designs (Mannell & Iwasaki, 2005; Snelgrove & Havitz, 2010). It has been argued that an over-reliance on such approaches has severely limited understandings of constraints, behaviours, and experiences as they develop over time. Reflecting on this limitation in the literature, Snelgrove and Havitz (2010) suggested the use of retrospective methods that involve participants reflecting on

leisure involvements and experiences in the past as well as the present. Similar suggestions were made by Mannell and Iwasaki (2005) with respect to constraints research. This study takes these limitations and related suggestions into consideration by examining group related constraints for a women's recreation group using observation and open-ended interviews that delve into past and current experiences. For the current study, the three categories of constraints were utilized as sensitizing concepts (Blumer, 1969). Thus, they served as "a general sense of reference and guidance" (Blumer, 1969, p. 148) in developing an understanding of the constraints that exist and the impact they have on the functioning of a mid-to-older adult women's recreation group.

Method

Consistent with a focus on group life, this study was guided by a symbolic interactionist perspective. This perspective emphasizes that meaning making is an interpretive process that takes place through social interaction (Blumer, 1969). To develop a deep understanding of the lived experiences and processual nature of group life, symbolic interactionists argue that researchers should connect with participants in natural settings that encompass their everyday life, through ethnographic methods (Charmaz, 2008; Prus, 1996). Thus, participant observation and open-ended interviews were employed.

Context

An existing women's informal recreation group was chosen as the context for this study. There are 13 women involved in this group and they engage in a wide spectrum of recreation activities including golfing, swimming, exercise classes, and biking, and other leisure activities such as quilting, barbeques, camping, and trivia nights. The women

range from 45 to 62 years in age and they are all employed with the exception of two women who have recently retired. With the exception of one, all of the women no longer have children living at home and they are all married in heterosexual relationships. The group lives in a small rural town (approximately 15,000 in the township) in Southwestern Ontario, Canada. The women's level of education ranges from high school to completed college degrees. This recreation group was recruited from a personal contact; however, prior to the study I had no contact with the group. Also, this study is a part of a larger ongoing study aimed at examining the inner working of a women's social group and their role in women's persistence to recreation participation. Pseudonyms are used throughout to refer to the women and the places where their recreation experiences take place.

Data Collection

As this study was guided by a symbolic interactionist perspective, data collection involved the use of ethnographic methods (Charmaz, 2006; Prus, 1996). Symbolic interactionists in leisure studies have too often relied on semi-structured interviews (Mannell et al., 2006), despite suggestions that "interviews should not be seen as substitutes for extensive involvements as participant-observers" (Prus, 1996, p. 20). Multiple methods are important because, "when researchers are able to gather observational, participant-observation and interview data on a more or less simultaneous basis, this generally leads to a more complete understanding of the other" (Prus, 1996, p. 21). For the current study then, three different sources of data were collected and will be described in detail.

Data collection took place over a two-month period. During this time I took on a field role and spent time with the women while they were engaging in one of their weekly

scheduled recreation activities, that being nine holes of golf. The women's group was part of an organized women's league at the local public golf course and played nine holes of golf together every Monday. I walked the course with all of the different foursomes of women, observed how they interacted, and engaged with them in informal conversations. Following Scott (1991), I would arrive before the group's scheduled tee times and was one of the last to leave in the evening in order to observe the entire range of activities that transpired during this time. This role of observer provided the opportunity to experience first hand how the group interacts with one another and allowed rapport to develop prior to one-on-one interviews (Scott & Godbey, 1992, 1994). Following the round of golf, the group would have an informal dinner together in the clubhouse each week and I was invited to join them after each game. During this time, additional informal conversations took place and I inquired about the group, took notice of topics of conversation and the ways in which they interacted with one another. Instead of taking field notes while in the presence of the group, they were taken following dinner.

Following a few observational sessions with the group, in-depth open-ended interviews were conducted with each member of the group. This form of interviewing was utilized as it has been identified as producing greater breadth than other forms of interviewing and it allows for "the establishment of a human-to-human relation with the respondent" (Fontana & Prokos, 2007, p. 41). Further, open ended interviews provide the opportunity to understand rather than to just explain (Fontana & Prokos, 2007). Interviews were conducted with each member of the group either at the home of the individual or at the golf course depending on the preference of the participant. The interviews were conducted as informal conversations, involving open-ended inquiries and

an interest in understanding the inner working of the group (Prus, 1996). The interviews ranged from 60 to 120 minutes in length and were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim.

Data Analysis

In accordance with an interactionist perspective, this study employed a social constructivist approach to grounded theory as it recognizes the researcher as a part of the social world that he/she study (Charmaz, 2000). Further, this approach emphasizes the experiences of the participants and the meanings they associate with them as opposed to those set a priori by the researcher (Prus, 1996). The data were analyzed in a two-stage process in accordance with Charmaz's (2006) approach to grounded theory. More specifically, the first stage of analysis involved initial coding. During this stage, a line-by-line analysis was conducted of the transcribed interviews, written field notes, and observations. I remained open to all potential theoretical directions at this stage of the analysis (Charmaz, 2006). The second stage involved focused coding. This stage involved organizing and integrating the initial codes to make analytic sense of the data. The codes became more directed and conceptual, ultimately leading to the creation of categories.

<center>**Findings**</center>

A number of perceived and negotiated constraints were evident in this women's recreation group. While some of these constraints influenced recreation involvements negatively, the findings predominantly describe how the group has over time collectively developed strategies that enabled them to negotiate most constraints.

Managing to Participate without Others

The women in this recreation group experienced a variety of intrapersonal constraints related to skill, fear, physical condition, outside involvements, and lack of interest. While these constraints restricted some of the women's involvement in the group's activities, they did not prevent the group from being able to participate together. That is, these intrapersonal constraints did not in turn cause an interpersonal constraint for the group. Instead, the women were able to continue engaging in collective leisure as a result of their activity choice. These intrapersonal constraints and their negotiation will be discussed in turn.

Some of the women in the group implicated a lack of skill in their decision not to participate in certain group activities. That is, a belief that their abilities were not equivalent to those of their group members kept them from engaging in certain activities. As one woman stated,

> And I hear these girls talk about their skiing, especially Sarah, I don't think she has any fear (laughs). So I thought, well it would be nice to go but I would hold them back, it would be nice if somebody was at my level. But, so I don't even go there.

Thus, a perceived lack of skill was a concern primarily because of the perception that it would impact the other women's ability to enjoy the recreation activity. Similarly, Kristin described how her "worrying personality" prevented her from participating in a group activity. While all other members were engaged in a water-based activity, her concern about the danger associated with the activity resulted in her watching from the sidelines. However, the group was able to engage in the activity without Kristin's involvement. Ana described how after a weekend away skating with the group, her skates became dull and during her lunch break she fell down while skating, resulting in a broken wrist. This

injury prevented Ana from being able to participate with the group in golf in the most recent season, as her wrist had not healed. On the whole, as the women's perceived lack of abilities pertained to recreation activities that did not require a specified number of participants (e.g., skiing, skating), the women's absence did not affect the overall group's participation.

In some instances, members of the group had other leisure interests outside of the groups' activities they participated in instead of group activities. For example, Jean was an avid quilter and her involvement with a quilting guild prevented her from being able to golf every Monday at the start of the season. Her involvement with the guild also impacted her involvement in other activities as well. One woman explained the group's reaction to Jean's involvement in outside activities: "Jean's quite involved in quilting, outside of us she belongs to a guild. So there's just stuff that happens that Jean doesn't go to. And nobody says, oh gosh she didn't come. It's just like come if you can." Similarly, Julia explained that although she participated in golf with the group during the summer months, her lack of interest in quilting meant that she did not quilt with the group during the winter. Although the impact of the group members' absence was not always detrimental to the group's ability to engage in activities together, particularly ones that did not depend on team participation, the individuals themselves often reported feeling like they missed out on spending time with others. Thus, important to acknowledge here, is that the activities the group engaged in did not require a certain number of women to be present for the group to participate. Instead, these activities could be undertaken no matter how many group members were available. The group collectively and purposively chose leisure activities that did not require the attendance of all or a specified number of

members. It also removed the concern of group members should they not be able to attend as the women mentioned they knew the group would be able to participate without them.

The group developed a strategy over time that assisted in partially alleviating the constraining effect of different leisure interests on the group's collective participation. Specifically, the women more recently altered their engagement in quilting in the winter to satisfy the different interests of the group. That is, the group altered their weekly quilting by occasionally engaging in different activities during this time. As Ana described it,

> We'll have a quilting banquet and we'll all end up going out to dinner, just fun things. There's a show, once in a while we'll go and see, just to not do quilting every time. I think that's a good thing, we tried that a couple of times this year and that was a good way to do it.

The women also developed an additional negotiation strategy aimed at the problematic nature of varying leisure interests. This strategy involved prioritizing, and over time the women began organizing and scheduling their other interests and activities so that they were able to engage with the group on a continual basis. Thus, this strategy enabled the women to attend and participate in most of the activities with the group.

Meeting the Physical Limitations of the Majority

Physical constraints were also identified by members of the group. These constraints included physical ailments associated with aging that made it more difficult to participate in certain recreational activities. Mary discussed how she ceased participating in baseball with the group because of the physical strain it imposed on her body.

> We have a history of bad knees in the family and I don't know if it's the combination of the weight and the knees and everything but I just, yeah, my knees couldn't handle it. And the running, forget it, just forget it (laughs).

Initially, a few injuries or illnesses were mostly impactful to those who were affected and not able to participate. It was not until more members of the group experienced sustained physical limitations over time that the group's collective activities changed. Thus, physical constraints were initially an intrapersonal constraint, however, over time they became interpersonally constraining for the group. As Ana explained,

> We've kind of all gone from a really active group to some not being very active. And, which kind of broke things up because we used to all go up to Collingwood in a bus and then all ski and now we're down to like four, five in a car, actually five. And the others aren't skiing. Their bodies are just breaking down, they weren't able to do it anymore and didn't enjoy it as much, and were nervous about it.

For example, the women transitioned from playing baseball in the summer to the less physically demanding sport of golf. However, physical limitations once again resurfaced over time. For Mary, this involved choosing to use an electric golf cart instead of walking with the other women so that she would still be able to play with the group. As she stated,

> I've been having trouble with my knee. And because of that I asked at the golf course if we could use a golf cart because it helps me out a lot. I think it's my weight that makes it hard for me to walk around on my knee, but I think that it's something that we'll drop the push carts, and eventually just go to, just driving a cart.

Looking to the future, the other women spoke about their plans to also use electric golf carts when or if walking becomes too difficult, so that they can continue playing with each other.

Reconciling Family Commitments with Group Leisure

Another interpersonal constraint expressed by the members of the group was their family responsibilities. Almost all of the women identified how they prioritize their family over their group of friends. As a result, their group involvement is often determined based on their family responsibilities. This often meant the women missed out on activities with the group as their family took priority. As Caroline explained, "I try to be here every Monday for golf. But now that there's something that's taken priority though (laughs), I pick up my grandson two times a week so I miss two Mondays a month because of that." For many of the group members, their family responsibilities often pertained to a new generation of family (i.e., grandchildren). Further, for one woman who still had a young child living at home, this constraint was especially salient. When describing the feelings she experiences when she has to miss an activity with the group to fulfill her family responsibilities, Caroline stated,

> Well I feel bummed out because you're missing out, it's like oh man I won't see them for another week, won't find out what's going on…when you get together with them you just have this gut wrenching laughter and it feels so good when you get that.

Despite family constraints the women have developed a successful negotiation strategy to maintain some levels of participation. This strategy involves the prioritization and organization of their family responsibilities. More specifically, over time many women began organizing their family life and scheduling responsibilities so that they were able to collectively engage in activities together as a group. Many of the women did this by making a point of letting their family know about the activities in which they would be participating with the group. Doing so enabled them to coordinate activities with the family around these times.

Lindsay described how she often felt guilty when she did not make the time to spend with her ill mother. Burdened by guilt, she felt as though she should be attending to her family by taking care of her mother instead of engaging in activities with the group. Over time, however, she found a way to reduce these feelings by organizing her role as a caregiver in her family around her activities with the group. That is, she would make the time to visit with her mother prior to, or following, an activity with the group. This enabled Lindsay to set aside time with her mother, while also setting aside time to spend with the group. This strategy was also described by some of the other women as they discussed how they have arranged their family duties around the group's activities. Also, some women described their families' involvement in their activities. If daughters were in town on a Monday they were invited to golf with the group; the children and grandchildren would come to their baseball games as cheering fans; and sisters, brothers, husbands, and children were invited to partake in a variety of the activities with the women.

Coordinating Activities of Group

The group experienced difficulty organizing activities because of the size of the group. Having a group with 13 members made it difficult to coordinate all of the members' schedules to arrange group activities. When discussing the problematic nature of a large group, Sarah said: "The hardest thing is probably getting information back in time to set plans and do the bookings. That's probably the hardest with a group this size." Many other women echoed this concern and expressed similar frustration. In fact, one winter Mary, in an effort to bring everyone together in the off-season for golf, tried to

book a holiday for everyone. However, due to the varying schedules and availability of the group members, the trip did not come to fruition.

Scheduling became a further constraint when group members left. This was most impactful when Caroline left the group (due to a career move), given her informal role as organizer. It was not until Caroline's departure from the group for a few years that others were aware of the important role she had fulfilled. Shortly after her departure, they discovered that there was no real leader in terms of the organization of their activities and their participation in leisure pursuits floundered initially. When discussing the effect on the group as a result of Caroline's departure, Ana stated,

> Yeah I would say [it affected us] because she was always the organizer it seemed. Kind of the silent organizer. So if we were going skiing for instance, to Collingwood, she had the main list of what everybody was bringing. So yeah, I think that it did affect the group that way, because she was more the organizer.

Initially, other group members were not used to organizing the group's activities and thus missed out on some opportunities to engage in leisure pursuits together. Over time, however, the group adapted to her departure as they took on and shared responsibility for organizing group activities.

Responding to the problematic nature of varying schedules, and at times lack of organization, the women began scheduling their activities which aided in their ability to participate. One way in which they utilized scheduling involved an activity list. This list was created by one of the group members and contained all of their activities for a season. This approach enabled the women in the group to be aware of what activities were going to be taking place and then they could adjust their schedules accordingly to

attend or not attend. All of the women described the importance of this list. The creator of the list explained,

> We do so many things together that I started typing up a list, our things to do list. Because some people if they weren't at golf, or they didn't come to quilting to hear, they might have missed out. Especially if it was for the next weekend.

The women also used scheduling for re-occurring activities to ensure participation. That is, Monday night became known as golf night in the summer, Tuesday as biking, and in the winter Thursday evenings were for quilting. The group members knew that tee-off times would start at 3:30 pm on Mondays; if they were interested in cycling they needed to be at the church when the clock struck seven; and that quilting began at 8:00 pm on Thursdays when the golf season was over. The structuring of these leisure activities improved the group's ability to participate collectively as they knew when the group would be getting together and no additional organization was required for their participation.

Maintaining Connections Despite Distance

Over time some of the women in the group had to move away (in one case across the country) from the rest of the group due to their career or their spouse's. Doing so meant they were no longer able to simultaneously engage in activities with the other women. Caroline's experiences are particularly illustrative of how the group worked to include her in activities despite geographic constraints. For example, the rest of the group found a way to involve her in their weekly winter quilting sessions by sending her the scraps of material from the quilt, holiday napkins from socials they had while she was away, and anything else that would connect her with the group, so that she could create pillows to go with the quilt. While the group was getting together to quilt, Caroline was

doing the same, only many miles away from everyone else. Caroline also came home to

visit a few times a year and while doing so she attended Thursday quilting and put a few

stitches on the quilt so she could be involved. The group also described how when group

members turn 50 they have a special party for them. Although Caroline was not living in

the town when she turned 50, the group threw her a party anyway. As Laura described it,

> We had a birthday party for her, [but] she wasn't even here, she was out west
> (laughs). So somebody video taped it and we sang happy birthday and we had this
> dummy all dressed up as her and gave her our present, had her birthday cake and
> then we mailed it all to her and said, you had a great birthday party.

In sum, the group found unique ways for their members to be involved in their activities

despite geographic constraints.

New Members Adjusting to Group

When new members entered the group they identified feeling welcomed by the

other women. The outgoing nature of the women and their willingness to involve others

in their activities resulted in the absence of gate-keeping mechanisms for the addition of

new members. Despite these typical occurrences, one woman described her concerns

when she began participating in leisure activities with this group. Reflecting on her initial

experiences with the group and its impact on her involvement, Lindsay stated,

> I'm not near as outgoing as they are, I had to be invited. I didn't want to assume
> that just because I was here they had to include me in everything. So I tried to be
> careful that unless someone specifically said you're coming, I didn't say well
> does that include me? And I know it's tough because they've known each other
> for years so it's like if I don't [get invited] I won't be offended. But I want to be
> (laughs).

Thus, initially for Lindsay her concern over the group's history together and whether she

was included in all of the group's activities limited her involvements in all of their leisure

pursuits. Unless she was invited by someone in the group, she did not engage in the given

activity with the other women. Over time this changed, however, as Lindsay became more comfortable with the group and recognized that she was an equal member and always invited to group activities.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to develop an understanding of constraints and negotiation processes in a self-organized middle age women's recreation group. By employing qualitative methods, this work extends constraints research by situating an analysis of constraints and negotiation processes within group life and in process terms. Specifically, use of these methods enabled the appreciation of social interaction and developments over time, both of which have been lacking in leisure constraints research to date (Mannell et al., 2006; Mannell & Iwasaki, 2005; Snelgrove & Havitz, 2010). Examining constraints and negotiation processes in this way also facilitates an understanding of leisure and constraints as they fit into the lives of individuals in more holistic terms (Little, 2002; Shaw, 1994). Further, this approach highlights the idea that constraints are not easily delineated into a simple categorization of intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000; Godbey et al., 2010; Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997; Scott, 1991; Shaw & Henderson, 2005). Rather, as evidenced in this study, intrapersonal and structural constraints often become interpersonal constraints. Examining constraints with attention to the social, interactional and processual aspects of human life highlight these interrelations much more than other research approaches.

As research to date has primarily focused on more formally organized recreation groups (e.g., Heuser, 2005; Scott, 1991), findings from this study also extend understandings of the constraint and negotiation process through an examination of a

self-organized recreation group. Further, as argued by Liechty and Yarnal (2010), the majority of previous work examining women's and older adults' leisure constraints have focused mainly on involvement in a single activity (e.g., Dionigi, 2006; Heuser, 2005; Little, 2002; Roster, 2007). Thus, this study's focus on a group of women engaged in multiple activities of their choosing highlights the social influences involved in activity choices (Green, 2001; Kyle & Chick, 2002, 2004; Wood & Danylchuk, in press), and how change occurs from one activity to another over time.

Consistent with previous research, intrapersonal constraints related to skill, fear, physical condition, outside involvements, and lack of interest contributed to a reduction in, or end to, certain individuals' involvement in group leisure activities (Hudson, 2000; Scott, 1991). Importantly though, while some of the women were constrained individually, constraints did not always limit the rest of the group's ability to engage in activities together. By choosing leisure pursuits that do not require a specified number of participants, the women were able to avoid the potential problem of not having enough individuals with whom to engage in an activity (e.g., Scott, 1991). As a result, whether the activity was skiing, golfing, or quilting, the group chose to engage in activities with which they knew they would be able to continue, even if all members would not be participating at all times. In Scott's (1991) study of an adult bridge group, the members were able to negotiate the lack of players to some degree by recruiting substitute players and the acceleration of activity specialization. Over time though, recruitment and acceleration of members may be difficult to sustain, and altering one's activities may be a more likely path taken in certain contexts.

In other cases, intrapersonal constraints experienced by the individual group members resulted in interpersonal constraints for the rest of the group. That is, for some women the physicality involved in some of the group's activities (e.g., baseball) resulted in their inability to continue participating due to injury or aging. When this intrapersonal constraint affected a greater majority of the group, they decided to change activities so that more of the group could participate. Thus, they engaged in a creative negotiation strategy to overcome this constraint (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001). Specifically, the women transitioned from baseball to golf to meet the physical abilities of the group. By adjusting their activity choices, they were able to continue engaging in group leisure (Jackson & Rucks, 1995; Little, 2002; Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997). This concern over physical ability in the participation of strenuous activity has been identified as a constraint in previous work as well, and also resulted in changes in activity choice (e.g., Liechty & Yarnal, 2010). The women in the group also spoke openly about a strategy they plan to utilize in the future to continue participating in golf. More specifically, they described how they will utilize carts when they are no longer able to walk the course instead of ceasing participation. Thus, similar to previous work, the women in this recreation group made decisions with respect to their activity involvements based on their changing values and priorities, and ultimately the importance they placed on their physical health and continued involvement in physical activity and leisure (e.g., Heuser, 2005; Liechty & Yarnal, 2010).

The women also had to reconcile family commitments with their involvement in group leisure. Previous work has identified that family-related constraints negatively impact women's leisure because of the caregiving roles women typically hold within the

family (e.g., Henderson & Allen, 1991; Henderson et al., 1996; Little, 2002). This

constraint is particularly salient for those women who have children or care for older

relatives (Harrington et al., 1992), both of which were constraining factors in the current

study. Over time, however, the women found ways to negotiate this constraint and thus

family did not prevent their engagement in leisure altogether, but rather it shaped their

routine (Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997). That is, they began to prioritize their leisure and

organize their lives and family commitments to ensure participation. Similar to the

women in pursuit of adventure recreation in Little's (2002) study, the women in this

study utilized these strategies to negotiate the constraints placed on them by their family

to make time for their group leisure. The women also identified how they involved their

family in the group's activities to alleviate this constraint. This was a tactic that worked

well for the group, enabling them to spend time with their family and with the group, and

is a strategy that has received limited attention in the literature.

Although family responsibilities are commonly viewed as a constraint in need of

negotiation, and thus put in a negative light, the women in this study did not always view

them in that way. Instead, in a number of cases, such as caring for a grandchild, the

women often chose to be there for their family and viewed it as a positive and desirable

experience despite it limiting their involvement with the group. Thus, while family

responsibilities can be a constraint to leisure, findings from this study highlight the need

to attend to people's own meanings about situations rather than relying on assumptions.

As Little (2002) argued, our academic and social definitions of constraining forces may

not be viewed by the women themselves as being negative aspects of their lives. Thus,

the women's choices to spend time with family instead of leisure with group members is

perhaps better viewed as a personal decision rather than being the result of constraining factors (Liechty & Yarnal, 2010; Little, 2002).

The women's group also experienced difficulty with the organization of group activities as a result of the group's size. This interpersonal constraint was the result of managing and organizing activities for a group that consisted of 13 members. In the end, some activities were not executed because of the varying schedules of the group members. Scheduling problems with group members was also found to be a constraining factor in group leisure in previous work (e.g., Scott, 1991) and often resulted in the inability to engage in an activity. Important to note here is that similar to previous research (Scott, 1991), as individuals in the group experienced time constraints (i.e., a structural constraint) with respect to their leisure, it resulted in scheduling problems for the group (i.e., an interpersonal constraint).

This scheduling constraint was further exacerbated when a key member of the group moved away. As this member held the unofficial role of organizer in the group, her departure was initially marked by disorganization and the temporary reduction in activities. Over time this changed, however, as the group began to take the organization of activities into their own hands. Further, they also developed effective strategies to assist them in negotiating this constraint. These strategies enabled the women to organize their lives around the group's activities in advance, or adjust their schedules accordingly, so they could participate with the group. Thus, consistent with Jackson and Rucks (1995), the women were able to modify their commitments to engage in activities with the group. The scheduling of activities for the group seemed to be very important for this group, as it enabled them to coordinate their roles as caregivers and maintain their own personal

time for leisure. Last, the group further developed scheduling strategies through the creation of reoccurring activity nights. That is, Monday became known as golf night, Tuesday as cycling, and Thursday as quilting, which aided in enabling the women to organize their lives in a way that involved leisure with the group.

With respect to changes in group composition over time, the group experienced both the removal and addition of group members. While not having others to participate with has been identified as a constraining factor to leisure participation (e.g., Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Hudson, 2000; Jackson & Rucks, 1995; Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997), the women in this study who moved away were still able to be involved in activities despite the geographical distance that separated them. Thus, this departure of group members did not preclude them from being involved in activities with the other members because of the adoption of creative strategies by the women to ensure their involvement.

Last, while other research on group-related constraints found gate-keeping mechanisms as an interpersonal constraint to participation (e.g., Scott, 1991), the women in this group identified how the absence of these mechanisms enabled them to feel welcomed and comfortable upon their entrance into the group. For one member, however, her concern over fitting in with the other women (an intrapersonal constraint) as a result of their developed history restricted her initial involvement in all of the group's activities. These feelings of shyness and self consciousness, which have been identified as restricting women's involvement in previous research (e.g., Alexandris & Carroll, 1997; Hudson, 2000; Raymore, Godbey, & Crawford, 1994), ultimately prevented her involvement in the group's leisure pursuits. Over time, however, this group member came to realize that being a part of the group meant she was included in all of the group's

activities and personal invitations were not necessary. Had she not come to this realization, however, this may have continued to constrain her involvement with the rest of the group. Thus, while one woman was initially concerned with her involvement in the group, the lack of gate-keeping mechanisms enabled an easy transition for new members into the group.

Conclusion

As constraints have been recognized as an important lens through which leisure behaviour can be understood (Godbey et al., 2010), this study provides insight into how a women's recreation group experienced and negotiated constraints in pursuit of collective recreation. Despite facing a variety of constraints, the women in this study were active participants in the negotiation of those constraints, which enabled them to continue collective participation in recreation, rather than being passive and non-responsive to their changing circumstances (Little, 2002). Further, this study highlights the value of pursuing qualitative methods that situate an analysis of people's leisure experiences as they unfold over time within their social worlds. While this study's purpose was to understand constraint negotiation for a women's recreation group over time, it should be acknowledged that this was accomplished through the use of a retrospective design as opposed to a prospective approach. While retrospective approaches have received recent attention for their potential value (i.e., Snelgrove & Havitz, 2010), future research could also benefit from using a prospective approach.

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Study 3

The Effect of Motivation and Ego Involvement on the Constraint Negotiation

Process: The Case of Intramural Sport Participation

According to the Canadian Community Health Survey 2007/2008, 52% of Canadians 20 years of age and older are highly inactive in physical activity, and only 30% of Canadians reported that they participate in sport (Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute, 2008). Further, in 2005 only 43% of Canadians aged 19 to 24 years were engaging in some form of organized sport, an 18% decline from 1992 (Statistics Canada, 2008). One of the major decreases in engagement in physical activity occurs during the transition from adolescence to young adulthood, a period often associated with commencement of college or university studies (Melina, 2001). In fact, research suggests that most Canadian and American college and university students are not meeting established physical activity requirements (Irwin, 2004). Understanding physical activity engagement by this group is particularly important because they are faced with increased stress and a new set of responsibilities as they move away from home leaving some decisions to be made without parental influences. As well, behavioural patterns tend to be formed during these years that lay the groundwork for future behaviours (Bungum & Vincent, 1997; Irwin, 2004).

One widespread opportunity for participation in physical activity for university students is through intramural sports held on campus (Lewis, Jones, Lamke, & Dunn, 1998). Intramural sports are not only a source of present day physical activity, but also have been shown to influence future involvement in physical activity (Forrester, Ross, Hall, & Geary, 2007), and given university graduates' future roles as mentors (Leslie,

Owen, & Sallis, 1999), may serve to act as positive influences on others' engagement in physical activity. Thus, research seeking to understand the process of participation in intramural sport participation may lead to the creation of policies, programs, and promotions aimed at increasing overall physical activity levels. However, previous research in this area has been limited in its theoretical development, focusing primarily on the benefits, motivation, or constraints of participation, with limited integration of relevant concepts that would explain the process of participation (e.g., Beggs, Elkins, & Powers, 2005; Begg, Stitt, & Elkins, 2004; Haines, 2001; Kilpatrick, Hebert, & Bartholomew, 2005).

　　To address this limitation in extant literature, this study employed the constraint negotiation model developed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001) as a way of theoretically understanding university students' participation in intramural sports. Hubbard and Mannell tested a variety of constraint negotiation models that they theorized, based on previous research, and found the greatest support for the constraint-effects-mitigation model, which describes the interrelationships amongst constraints, negotiation strategies, motivation, and participation. Further, Hubbard and Mannell suggested that future research employing this model should consider additional variables that may influence negotiation efforts and their effectiveness. As a result, in addition to expanding understandings of intramural sport participation, this study also seeks to increase the predictability of the model by adding ego involvement, a variable that has received widespread attention in the leisure literature (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Kyle, Absher, Norman, Hammitt, & Jodice, 2007). Thus, the purpose of this study is to examine the constraint negotiation process for university students engaged in intramural sports, and

contribute more generally to leisure research by developing an understanding of motivation and ego involvement in this process. A description of Hubbard and Mannell's model, other related models, and the addition of ego involvement are discussed further in the following review of literature.

Literature Review

The constraint-effects-mitigation model developed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001) is based on the premise that constraints negatively impact participation levels, and this negative effect can be mitigated by the use of constraint negotiation strategies. That is, negotiation strategies help people overcome constraints that otherwise would limit participation. Further, Hubbard and Mannell found that the more people were motivated to participate in an activity, the more likely they were to employ negotiation strategies. Hubbard and Mannell found greatest support for a model that suggested the presence of constraints were related to an increased use of negotiation strategies (see constraint-effects-mitigation model in Figure 1). However, the opposite relationship, in that negotiation strategies can lead to reduced constraints, is also conceptually reasonable and consistent with previous research (see Perceived-constraint-effects model in Figure 1). Thus, the relationship between constraints and negotiation strategies will be examined in both ways by testing competing models. Further, as previously discussed, ego involvement will be added as a predictor of engagement in negotiation strategies. The following review of literature describes each component of the constraint negotiation process, including constraints, negotiation, motivation, and ego involvement.
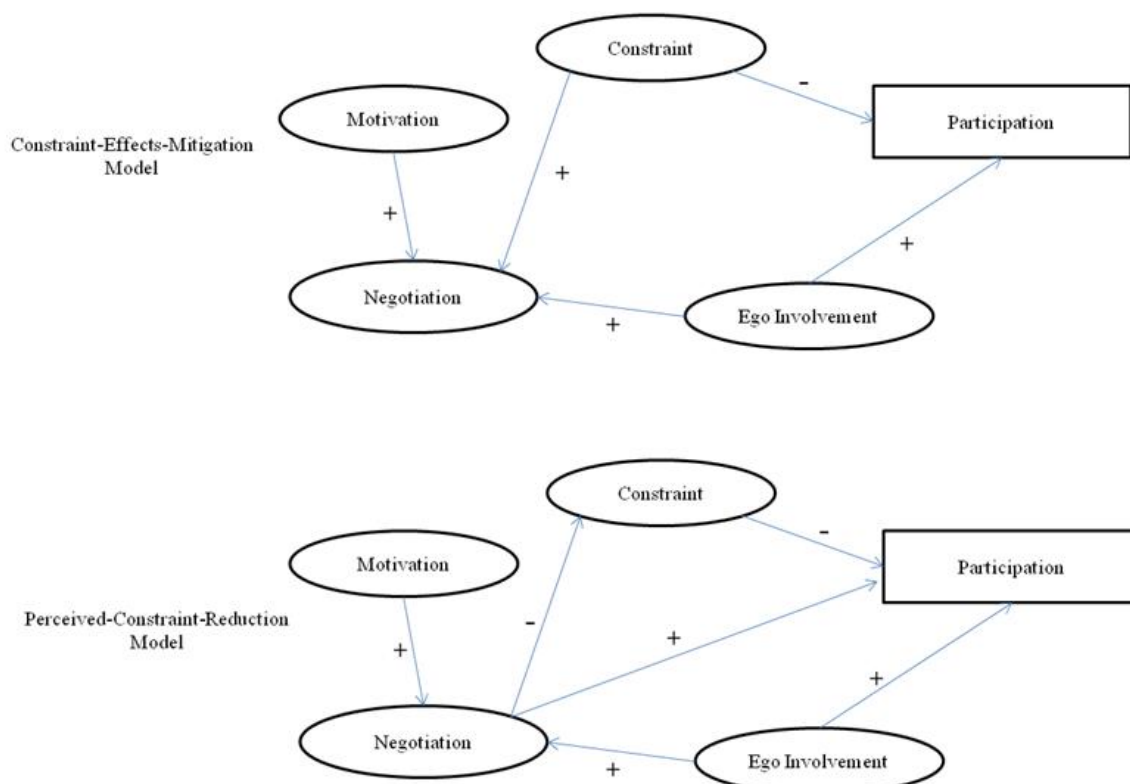
Figure 1. Hypothesized models of the constraint negotiation process with the addition of ego involvement.

Constraints

Constraints research has received considerable attention in the last two decades, moving from a narrower focus on barriers to a broader conceptualization of constraints (Shaw & Henderson, 2005). Constraints have been recognized as an important lens through which understandings of leisure behaviours can be achieved (Godbey, Crawford, & Shen, 2010). More specifically, three types of constraints have been conceptualized, including intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Intrapersonal constraints exist within the individual and include aspects such as shyness, low self efficacy, and lack of interest (e.g., Hudson, 2000; Jackson & Henderson, 1995).

Interpersonal constraints occur as a result of social interactions with others, such as incompatible schedules with potential recreation partners and family responsibilities (e.g., Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Hudson, 2000; Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997). Last, structural constraints are factors that intervene between individuals' preference for leisure and their participation. Examples of this type of constraint include financial costs associated with the activity, work, availability of opportunities, and transportation (e.g., Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Hudson, 2000; Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997; Scott, 1991).

Negotiation Strategies

Leisure constraints are not viewed in most cases as insurmountable obstacles, but instead are seen as negotiable. Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (1993) argued that leisure participation "is dependent not on the absence of constraints (although this may be true for some people) but on negotiation through them. Such negotiations may modify rather than foreclose participation" (p. 4). Thus, through the use of creative strategies, individuals can negotiate constraints and ultimately engage in recreation (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Son, Mowen, & Kerstetter, 2008). In a study of junior high and high school students, Jackson and Rucks (1995) found that when faced with constraints, students engaged in a variety of negotiation strategies. These strategies included modifying time and commitments, acquiring the required skills, changing one's interpersonal relations, and improving finances among others (Jackson & Rucks, 1995).

Based particularly on Jackson and Rucks' (1995) work, the following negotiation strategies were measured in Hubbard and Mannell's (2001) constraint negotiation model, namely, time management, skill acquisition, interpersonal coordination, and financial resources and strategies. Based on the measures and findings from these previous two

studies, Beggs and colleagues (2005) examined the strategies most commonly used by college students to negotiate constraints related to campus recreational sport participation. Consistent with these previous studies, they found that time management and skill acquisition were the most commonly used strategies by the students. Additionally, in another study of negotiation strategies used by college students in pursuit of campus recreational sport participation, interpersonal relations, physical fitness, and skill acquisition were identified as being the most commonly used strategies (Elkins, Beggs, & Choutka, 2007). As constraints are negotiable, it seems useful to develop an understanding of the factors that positively influence this negotiation process, as a way of facilitating an increase in overall physical activity levels. Previous research suggests that motivation and ego involvement are two factors that help explain leisure participation and constraint negotiation (e.g., Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Son et al., 2008; Snelgrove, Taks, Chalip, & Green, 2008). These two factors will be discussed next.

Motivation

Motivation was first introduced to the constraint negotiation process by Jackson and colleagues (1993) in their sixth *balance* proposition when they argued, "both the initiation and outcome of the negotiation process are dependent on the relative strength of, and interactions between, constraints on participating in an activity and motivations for such participation" (p. 6). However, the role of motivation in the negotiation constraint process has not been studied extensively with a few exceptions (e.g., Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Son et al., 2008; White, 2008). Research that has been conducted has found that motivation has a positive effect on the use of negotiation strategies (Hubbard

& Mannell, 2001; Son et al., 2008; White, 2008). However, in these studies, motivation was broadly conceptualized and measured with the use of only two scale-items related to health and enjoyment. These researchers identified this limitation and the need to develop an understanding of the constraint negotiation process with the use of more developed measures of motivation.

Motives related to leisure in general are perhaps best captured by Beard and Ragheb (1983). Their work categorized four main leisure motives, namely (a) social, (b) escape, (c) intellectual, and (d) skill-mastery. Further, the existence of these four leisure motives has received subsequent empirical support (e.g., Kim & Chalip, 2004; Losier, Bourque, & Vallerand, 1993; McDonald, Milne, & Hong, 2002; Ryan & Glendon, 1998; Snelgrove et al., 2008), including research in the area of university intramural sport participation (e.g., Beggs et al., 2004; Kanters & Forrester, 1997). Specifically, this research on intramural sport participation has found that students were motivated to participate because of the challenge, competition, social, and competency/mastery factors associated with campus recreational sport programs. Further, students have identified competition, affiliation, enjoyment, and challenge as their primary motives for participation in other work (Kilpatrick et al., 2005). Thus, it seemed appropriate to employ Beard and Ragheb's (1983) measures of leisure motivation in the present study.

Ego Involvement

Although definitions of ego involvement vary within the literature, this construct essentially represents an individual's personal attachment or connection to an activity, sport, or product. Although ego involvement was originally conceptualized as a uni-dimensional construct, it has since been cast as a profile that encompasses a number of

different facets (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997, 1999; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; McIntyre, 1989; McIntyre & Pigram, 1992). The most developed conceptualization describes ego involvement as including five facets: attraction, identity affirmation, identity expression, centrality, and social bonding (Kyle et al., 2007). It should be noted that ego involvement differs from motivation in that it measures the ways in which people are connected to an activity. In doing so, it arguably offers a deeper description of how an activity is connected both socially and personally to a person than motivation. As Wood and Snelgrove (in press) argued, motivation represents the post-hoc reasons people attribute to their participation in a given activity and in some cases may be more reflective of initial interest in an activity than ongoing participation.

The attraction facet is conceptualized as a combination of pleasure and importance, which refers to the pleasure derived from participation and the perceived importance an activity holds for an individual. Identity affirmation and identity expression represent connections between leisure participation and aspects of a person's identity. Specifically, identity affirmation "examines the degree to which leisure provides opportunities to affirm the self to the self" and identify expression "examines the extent to which leisure provides opportunities to express the self to others" (Kyle et al., 2007, p. 405). The centrality facet represents the idea that as people deepen their connection to an activity they tend to organize their lives around the activity (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004). People also form relationships through their participation in activities, an idea reflected in the social bonding facet.

To date, research has focused on the role of constraints in (a) limiting the development of ego involvement, and (b) moderating the relationship between ego

involvement and participation (e.g., Alexandris, Kouthouris, Funk, & Chatzigianni, 2008; Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004). Limited attention, though, has been given to the role of ego involvement in the constraint negotiation process (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999). In doing so, research examining the link between ego involvement and participation has tended to ignore the possibility that highly involved people still have to negotiate constraints, and may be more likely to do so if highly involved. It is reasonable to suggest, though, that ego involvement is a positive predictor of negotiation strategies, based on research in related areas. For example, research investigating identity, a facet of ego involvement, suggests that people are more likely to negotiate leisure constraints when the activity is tied to their identity (e.g., Potwarka, 2011; Snelgrove et al., 2008).

In summary, the purpose of this study is to examine the constraint negotiation process for university students engaged in intramural sports (as depicted in Figure 1), and contribute more generally to leisure research by developing an understanding of motivation and ego involvement in this process.

Method

Procedures and Participants

The sample in this study consisted of undergraduate students at a large university in Southwestern Ontario. More specifically, undergraduate courses in Kinesiology (two courses), Health Sciences (one courses), Geography (two courses), and Spanish (four courses) were sampled. A variety of classes were sampled to obtain a reasonably representative sample of university students. An attempt was made to garner a more representative sample of university students (including courses from all of the faculties at the university), however, these were the courses the researcher was able to access. Data

were collected through the use of a written survey administered at the end of each of the classes. Potential respondents were asked to complete the survey and return it to the researcher or one of the research assistants before they left the class. The survey took approximately 10 minutes to complete. In all cases except one, the professors were not in the classroom when the students completed the survey. Also, before considering involvement in the study, students were instructed that their participation was completely voluntary and would not impact their course grade. Of the 676 possible respondents, 560 surveys were returned for a response rate of 83%. Of these returned surveys, 516 were usable and 237 were completed by people who had or were participating in intramural sports during the current academic year. Thus, the final sample used in the analyses consisted of a subgroup of 237 students. Similar to Hubbard and Mannell's (2001) approach, this subgroup was selected because they had or were participating in intramural sports this academic year.

Respondents ranged in age from 17 to 24 years with a mean age of 19.6 years (*SD* = 1.42). Further, 58% of the sample was female and the mean academic year of the students was 2.2 (*SD* = 1.25). Participants were studying in 26 different academic programs, however; just over half of the respondents were in Kinesiology. Other programs included Management and Organizational Studies, Sociology, Biology, French, Music, and Medical Sciences to name a few. In terms of living arrangements, 42% of the students were living in university residence, 45% in off campus housing without family, and 13% were living with their family. With respect to the number of intramural sports in which the students participated, this ranged from one to seven different sports with an average of 1.7 (*SD* = 1.05). The sports in which the students participated included

basketball, dodgeball, soccer, hockey, volleyball, flag football, ultimate frisbee, futsal, inner tube waterpolo, and softball among others.

Measures

This study used a modified version of the questions Hubbard and Mannell (2001) employed for the constraints and negotiation constructs. That is, parts of the questions were reworded to reflect the context of the study and ensure relevance to survey participants. Some additional questions were added to the negotiation strategies, and a discussion of their inclusion is included below. Departing from Hubbard and Mannell's measures were the inclusion of a more robust measure of motivation and the addition of ego involvement. The details of each measure are discussed in the following sections.

Constraints. Using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*), respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with 25 different statements that reflected intrapersonal (9 items), interpersonal (7 items), and structural constraints (9 items). Examples of intrapersonal constraint statements included, "I am too shy to start participating" and "I am not in good enough shape to participate in intramurals." Statements related to interpersonal constraints included "The people I know usually don't have time to participate in intramurals with me" and "The people I know usually don't have enough skills to participate in intramurals with me." Structural constraints were measured with statements such as, "I don't have the right clothes or equipment required to participate in intramurals." Subscale item scores were averaged to form an aggregate measure of each of the three constraint types. Also, for each of the constraints, mean scores were calculated with higher scores reflecting higher levels of perceived and experienced constraints.

Negotiation. Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they had used or tried to use strategies related to time management (10 items), skill acquisition (5 items), interpersonal coordination (8 items), and financial strategies (4 items) to overcome constraints to their participation in intramural sports. A 5-point Likert scale was used ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*very often*). Items were added to the interpersonal coordination and skill acquisition strategies already developed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001) based on the work of Wood and Danylchuk (in press). Specifically, items were added related to the support provided by others in overcoming constraining factors in the pursuit of leisure participation. Examples of statements used to measure these strategies include, "I set aside time for intramural sports" (time management), "I ask for help with the required skills" (skill acquisition), "I try to find people to do intramurals with" (interpersonal coordination), and "I improvise with the equipment and/or clothes I have" (financial strategies). Subscale item scores were averaged to form an aggregate measure of the strategies. Further, mean scores were calculated for each of the four negotiation strategies with higher scores reflecting a greater use of negotiation strategies.

Motivation. Motivation was measured using Beard and Ragheb's (1983) Leisure Motivation Scale. This measure of motivation includes four different dimensions, namely, social, escape, intellectual, and skill-mastery. The intellectual dimension was not included in this study as it did not seem relevant to the intramural sport setting. Further, this motivation is not supported by previous work examining college students' motivations for participating in campus recreational sport (i.e., Beggs et al., 2004; Kilpatrick et al., 2005). Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with nine statements related to their reasons for participating in intramural sports. A 5-

point Likert scale was used ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Examples of statements used to measure these motivations included, "To build

friendships with others" (social), "To renew my energy levels" (escape), "To develop

physical skills and abilities" (mastery). Subscale item scores were averaged for each of

the three motivations to form an aggregate measure. Mean scores were also calculated

with higher scores reflecting higher levels of motivation.

Ego involvement. Ego involvement was measured using the Modified

Involvement Scale developed by Kyle et al. (2007). This scale is comprised of five

different dimensions, namely, attraction, centrality, social bonding, identity affirmation,

and identity expression. Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed

with statements related to each dimension of involvement. A 5-point Likert scale was

used ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Three statements were

used for each dimension of ego involvement. Examples include, "Intramurals is one of

the most enjoyable things I do" (attraction), "I find a lot of my life is organized around

intramurals" (centrality), "Participating in intramurals provides me with an opportunity to

be with friends" (social bonding), "When I participate in intramurals, I can really be

myself" (identity affirmation), and "When I participate in intramurals, others see me the

way I want them to see me" (identity expression). Subscale item scores were averaged for

each of the five ego involvement dimensions to form an aggregate measure. Mean scores

were also calculated with higher scores reflecting higher levels of ego involvement.

Participation. Similar to previous work, intramural sport participation was

measured by the frequency of participation. More specifically, participants were asked

how often they participated in intramural sports in an average week (during the current

intramural season). A 5-point Likert scale was used ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*very often*).

Data Analysis

For each of the variables in the study (i.e., constraints, negotiation, motivation, involvement, and participation), mean scores and standards deviations were calculated. Alpha coefficients were then calculated to determine the acceptability of the internal consistency of the subscales. Structural equation modeling (SEM) using AMOS 15, SPSS 15 for Windows was then used to test the fit of the competing models to the data. Given the constraint-effects-mitigation model received the greatest support from Hubbard and Mannell (2001), it was tested first. This model was tested and re-specified where theoretically possible to obtain an acceptable measurement model prior to testing alternative models (Kline, 2011). The fit indices were then examined to determine which model best fit the data. It should be noted that during this stage both the fit indices and previous research were considered to determine the most appropriate model.

Results

Internal Consistency and Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations, and alpha coefficients for each of the variables in the model appear in Table 1. To facilitate comparison, the alpha coefficients from Hubbard and Mannell's (2001) work are also presented where available. Alpha coefficients for each of the scales (e.g., constraints, negotiation, motivation, and involvement) and subscales (e.g., intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints) were calculated. The alpha coefficient for the constraint scale and subscales yielded similar values to those obtained in previous research using these measures (e.g., Hubbard & Mannell, 2001) and,

consequently, all of the constructs were retained for further analysis. Having low alpha coefficients for these factors is not surprising given each scale is very heterogeneous as they measure different constraints within each type (e.g., Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Son et al., 2008). However, as Hubbard and Mannell argued,

> the reliability of the scales is not necessarily compromised by the lack of high internal consistency as reflected by the low coefficient alphas. Overall, constraint scores on each of these scales are a function of the number of constraints reported and the strength of each of the constraints comprising a particular scale (p. 161).

With the negotiation scale and subscales, however, there were some deviations from previous work. Specifically, in the current study, the alpha coefficient for the financial strategies subscale yielded an unacceptable level ($\alpha = .50$). While this negotiation strategy did not have an acceptable level when measured and developed initially in Hubbard and Mannell's study (see Table 1), it has also not found strong support in subsequent work (e.g., Son et al., 2008). Thus, for the purposes of this study, this strategy was removed from the analysis. Interpersonal coordination yielded a lower alpha compared to previous research (see Table 1); however, it was retained to replicate previous research in this area. The other negotiation strategies yielded similar values to previous work and thus were retained for further analysis in this study. Both the motivation and ego involvement scales and subscales yielded acceptable alpha coefficients and were retained for subsequent analysis (see Table 1).

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for the Participation, Constraint, Negotiation, Motivation, and Ego

Involvement Variables

	Present Study			Hubbard and Mannell (2001)
Variables	*M*	*SD*	Coefficient alpha (α)	Coefficient alpha (α)
Participation	3.89	1.06	…	…
Constraint (Total scale)	2.42	0.34	0.62	0.72
Intrapersonal	2.07	0.48	0.65	0.50
Interpersonal	2.45	0.48	0.51	0.55
Structural	2.73	0.40	0.40	0.42
Negotiation (Total scale)	3.41	0.45	0.76	0.89
Time management	3.54	0.50	0.70	0.79
Skill acquisition	3.32	0.63	0.68	0.71
Interpersonal Coordination	3.36	0.52	0.62	0.70
Motivation (Total scale)	4.10	0.52	0.79	…
Escape	4.00	0.64	0.70	…
Social	4.19	0.55	0.75	…
Skill mastery	4.12	0.66	0.80	…
Ego Involvement (Total scale)	3.32	0.65	0.85	…
Attraction	3.48	0.89	0.91	…
Centrality	2.59	0.86	0.88	…
Social bonding	3.52	0.80	0.78	…
Identity affirmation	3.64	0.72	0.70	…
Identity expression	3.36	0.85	0.85	…

An inspection of Table 1 reveals, with respect to participation, that on average the students in this sample participated in intramural sports sometimes to regularly in an average week ($M = 3.89$, $SD = 1.06$, 5-point scale). The mean score of the combined constraint scale (i.e., intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural composite) identified that the respondents appear to be moderately constrained as a group ($M = 2.42$, 5-point scale). An examination of the means of the subscales suggested that they all fell just below the midpoint of 3. Of the three constraint types, structural were scored the highest ($M = 2.73$) followed closely by interpersonal and then intrapersonal (Table 1). With respect to negotiation strategies, respondents scored just over the midpoint ($M = 3.41$) suggesting moderate use of these strategies (i.e., time management, skill acquisition, and interpersonal coordination) to negotiate constraints. Respondents identified time management as the most often used strategy ($M = 3.54$) followed very closely by interpersonal coordination ($M = 3.36$) and skill acquisition ($M = 3.32$).

Respondents were motivated to participate in intramural sports as represented by a mean of 4.10 on a 5-point scale. In terms of the different dimensions of motivation, participants were motivated most by the social opportunities afforded to them through intramural sport participation ($M = 4.19$). Almost as high was a motivation to participate in intramurals for the skill mastery ($M = 4.12$). Last, the respondents also had a high motivation for the escape dimension of motivation ($M = 4.00$). Students also had moderate levels of ego involvement with a mean around the midpoint ($M = 3.32$, on a 5-point scale). In terms of each of the five dimensions of ego involvement, all of them fell around the midpoint, with centrality falling just below with a mean of 2.59 (see Table 1).

Testing the Constraint Negotiation Models

SEM was used to determine whether the data fit the model outlined previously. As indicated, the constraint-effects-mitigation model was tested first. There were 14 observed variables in the models as represented by the rectangular boxes and four latent variables as represented by the ellipses (see Figure 2). For the constraint, negotiation, motivation, and ego involvement variables, the mean scores for their subscales (e.g., for constraints this would include intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) were used as indicators for the constraint, negotiation, motivation, and ego involvement latent variables. Each of the latent variables and their indicators served as measurement models (Kline, 2011). These measurement models, along with all of the relationships outlined between them, served as the construct model. For each of the paths in Figure 2, the standardized regression or beta coefficients (β) are depicted between the latent constructs and their respective indicators. These values represent how good of a measure each indicator is of the latent variable.
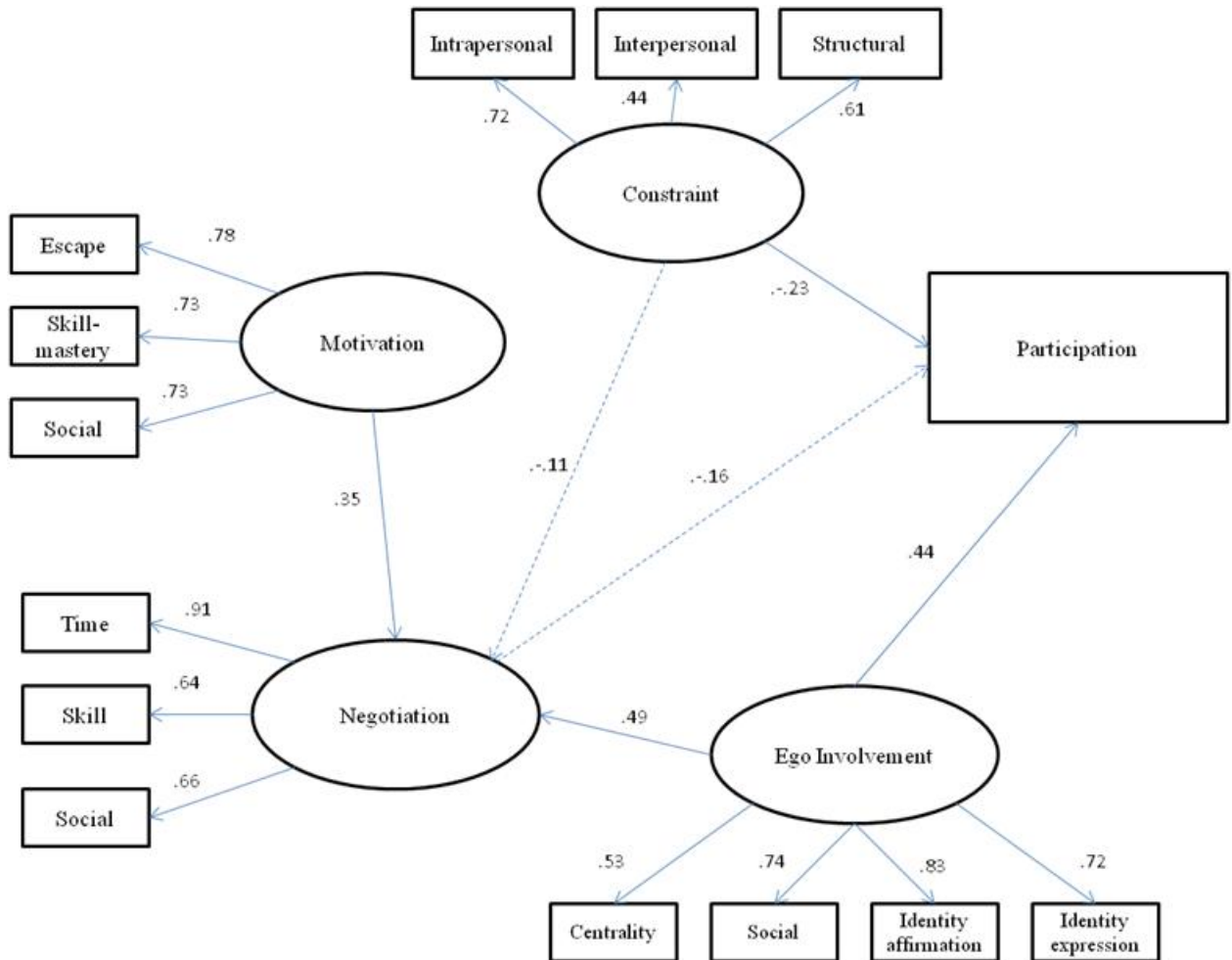
Figure 2. The constraint-effects-mitigation model with the non-significant paths represented by broken lines.

To determine the model fit, a number of different indices were used based on the recommendations of Hu and Bentler (1999) and Arbuckle (2005). A good fit normally exists when chi-square is statistically non-significant. However, as this measure can be sensitive to sample size, relative chi-square was used (χ^2/df) with a ratio of 2 to 1 indicating an acceptable fit (see also Hubbard & Mannell, 2001). The Incremental Fit

Index (IFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) were other fit indices that were assessed. For each of these measures, values greater than .95 indicate a close fit, and values as low as .90 indicate an acceptable fit. Finally, the Root Mean Square of Approximation was assessed. For this measure of fit, values of .05 or less are considered to be a close fit of the model and values of .08 or greater are considered inadequate.

Constraint-effects-mitigation model. The first model tested was the constraint-effects-mitigation model. The results of the SEM analysis for the re-specified model can be seen in Figure 2. After examining the initial fit indices, the original model did not fit the data well. As a result, the modification indices were examined and the attraction facet of ego involvement was removed. Following its removal, the analysis was conducted again and the model was found to be a good fit to the data. The fit indices can be seen in Table 2. After close inspection of this model, however, there were some differences and inconsistencies found from the initial proposed model. Specifically, the path from constraints to negotiation ($p = .174$), and the path from negotiation to participation were not statistically significant ($p = .200$). As a result of these variations from Hubbard and Mannell's work, a competing model they also supported was tested next (see Figure 1).

Table 2

Fit Indices for the Constraint-Effects-Mitigation and Perceived-Constraint-Reduction

Models

Model	Overall fit indices					
	x^2/df	IFI	CFI	RMSEA	NFI	TLI
Constraint-effects-mitigation	1.93	0.95	0.95	0.06	0.90	0.93
Perceived-constraint reduction	1.96	0.94	0.94	0.06	0.89	0.93

Perceived-constraint-reduction model. The perceived-constraint-reduction

model was tested to determine whether this model would fit the data. The results of this

analysis appear in Figure 3. Similar to the constraint-effects-mitigation model, the fit

indices indicate the model has a good fit to the data (see Table 2). As proposed, the

relationship between motivation and negotiation, and involvement and negotiation were

positive and statistically significant ($\beta = .41$, $p < .001$ and $\beta = .52$, $p < .001$ respectively).

Important to acknowledge in this analysis is the statistically significant ($p < .001$)

negative relationship found between negotiation strategies and constraints ($\beta = - .55$).

This negative relationship was not found in Hubbard and Mannell's (2001) study and was

one of the reasons why they selected the constraint-effects-mitigation model as being

superior. However, the negative relationship from negotiation to constraints is consistent

with previous research and indicates that higher levels of negotiation were associated

with lower levels of constraints. The path from negotiation to participation was not

statistically significant as originally theorized and proposed in the model (Hubbard &

Mannell, 2001). That is, the use of negotiation strategies was not found to directly result

in higher levels of participation ($p = .18$). Ego involvement was also found to be a

statistically significant ($p <. 001$) predictor of participation, (i.e., higher levels of ego

involvement predicted higher levels of participation). Last, higher levels of constraints

predicted lower levels of participation ($p < .05$).
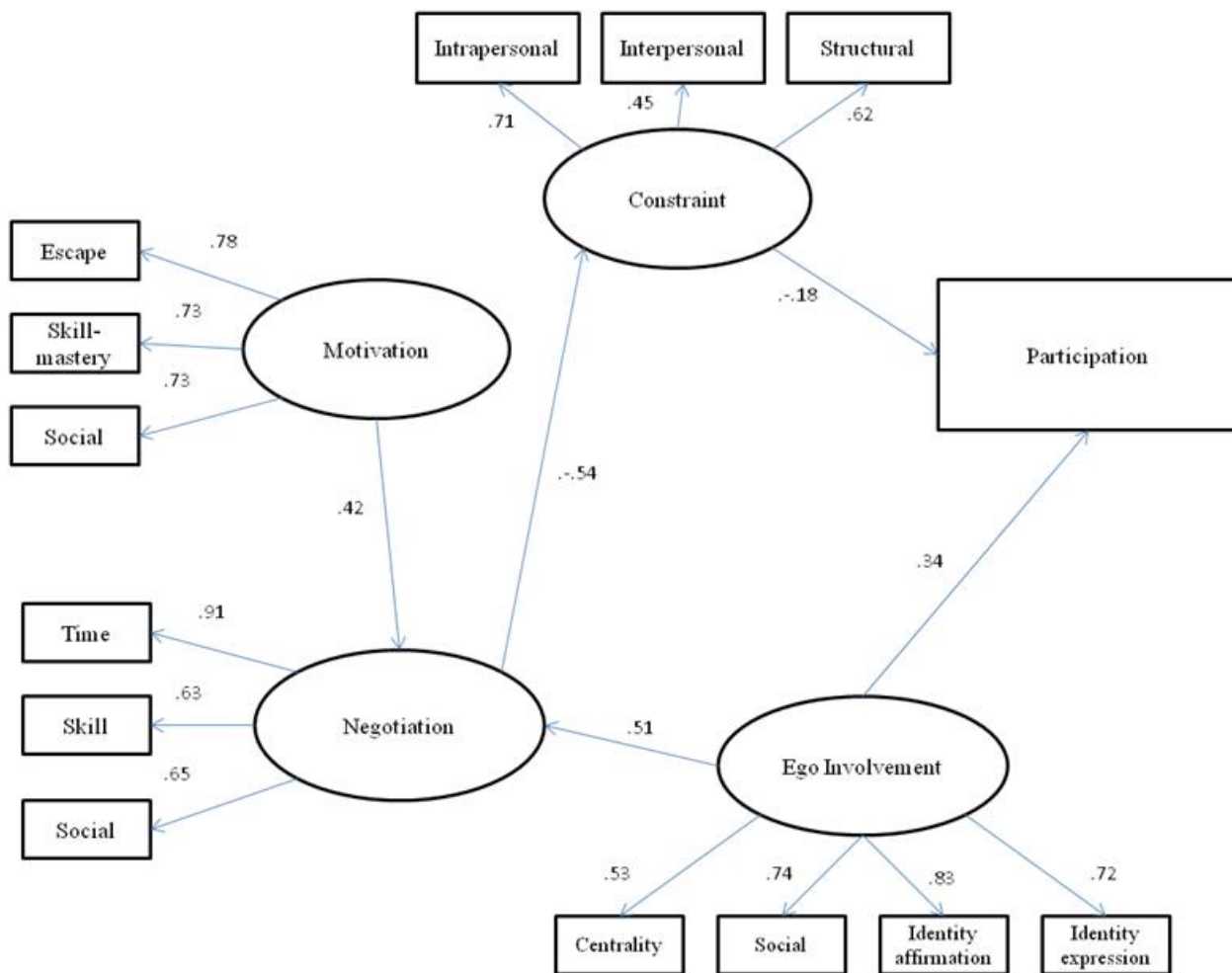
Figure 3. The perceived-constraint-reduction model of the constraint negotiation process.

Note. The non-significant path from negotiation to participation was removed from the final model. All relationships, with the exception of the path between constraints and participation ($p < .05$), were significant at the $p < .001$ level.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to (a) develop a theoretical understanding of intramural sport participation by examining competing models developed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001), and (b) contribute to the literature on constraint negotiation more

broadly by examining the roles of motivation and ego involvement in this process. Thus, findings from this study have implications for the context under investigation and the development of theory.

Prior to discussing the results of the tested models, it seems relevant to address the specific constructs individually. Descriptive statistics suggest that respondents are slightly to moderately constrained in their efforts to participate in intramural sports. Structural constraints, including factors such as financial costs of the activity and availability of opportunities, were more constraining than intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints. This finding is surprising given that the university setting has a variety of resources in terms of facilities, equipment, and opportunities available for students (Suminski, Petosa, Utter, & Zhang, 2002). Further, the specific university attended by participants has a new state-of-the-art sport facility with a plethora of intramural sport opportunities available to the students at a reasonable cost. One possible explanation is that students may not be receiving the necessary information about opportunities, or the promotion of the intramural program may not be effective enough in reaching students. Interpersonal factors (i.e., incompatible schedules with potential recreation partners and family responsibilities) were the next most constraining, indicating that the students appear to be having some difficulty in finding recreation partners, perhaps as a result of incongruent class and work schedules.

Although students faced a variety of constraints, they also engaged in negotiation strategies to alleviate some of the constraining factors. The use of these strategies is consistent with previous leisure research (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Little, 2002; Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997; Son et al., 2008), and research focusing on intramural

sport participants specifically (e.g., Beggs et al., 2005; Elkins et al., 2007). Notably, time management strategies were cited as being used most often (e.g., Beggs et al., 2005; Jackson & Rucks, 1995), whereas skill acquisition and interpersonal coordination were also employed by some of the students (e.g., Elkins et al., 2007).

Overall, respondents were highly motivated to participate in intramurals as reflected in the high mean scores for all three motives. Consistent with previous research (e.g., Beggs et al., 2004; Kilpatrick et al., 2005), social and skill mastery motives were found to be important. Additionally, students were also motivated by the opportunity to escape everyday life as provided through intramural sport participation. In terms of ego involvement, a variable added as a predictor of negotiation, respondents were moderately involved with intramurals. Specifically, students identified that participating in intramurals provides them with the opportunity to affirm their identity, and develop and continue social bonds with others. However, they scored low on the centrality facet of ego involvement, meaning they did not organize their lives around intramurals nor did it hold a central role in their lives.

Leisure Constraints Negotiation Process

The constraint-effects-mitigation model was tested initially with less than desirable fit. After the removal of the attraction facet of ego involvement, this model provided a good fit to the data. The attraction facet was removed after careful inspection of the modification indices showed that removal of this construct would greatly improve the fit of the model to the data. As suggested by Kline (2011), this initial model was tested and re-specified where possible and conceptually plausible, to obtain an acceptable measurement model prior to testing competing or alternative models. Attraction was

removed as a result of this process. This facet of involvement is very similar to some

motives for participation and perhaps this contributed to its weak fit with the data.

Further, it could be argued that conceptually the attraction facet differs markedly from the

other four facets which assess the connection between a person's identity or lifestyle and

the activity more directly. After further inspection of the initial model, some of the

originally proposed relationships were not found to be statistically significant.

Specifically, constraints did not predict the use of negotiation strategies as expected (e.g.,

Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; White, 2008), nor was the use of negotiation strategies a

statistically significant positive predictor of participation (e.g., Hubbard & Mannell; Son

et al., 2008). Thus, the resulting model was neither consistent with previous tests nor

conceptually sound.

As a result, an additional model (i.e., the perceived-constraint-reduction model)

originally proposed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001) was tested. Results of the SEM

analysis indicated that the perceived-constraint-reduction model provided a good fit to

the data. Contrary to other tests of the model (e.g., Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Son et al.,

2008), support was found for the relationship between negotiation and constraints.

Specifically, higher levels of negotiation strategies were predictive of lower levels of

constraints. Although constraints were still negatively impactful on participation levels,

their overall effect was reduced by the use of negotiation strategies. Thus, negotiation

was found to influence participation through its indirect effect on constraints. Low to

moderate levels of reported constraints are also consistent with Jackson et al.'s (1993)

statement "variations in the reporting of constraints can be viewed not only as variations

in the experience of constraints but also as variations in success in negotiating them" (p. 6).

Further, two factors, motivation and ego involvement, were examined for their ability to predict the use of negotiation strategies. Both motivation and ego involvement were found to be statistically significant positive predictors of negotiation. Thus, higher levels of motivation to participate in intramurals and higher levels of ego involvement in intramural sports both led to higher uses of negotiation strategies. The finding that higher levels of motivation influenced the use of negotiation strategies is consistent with previous research using these models (e.g., Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Son et al., 2008; White, 2008). However, as indicated, previous work has traditionally used a broad conceptualization of motivations comprised of only two scale items and has been cited as a limitation by these scholars (e.g., Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Son et al., 2008). This study employed the use of a more robust measure of motivation, encompassed by multiple facets that have found support in previous work, including research on intramural sport participation (e.g., Beggs et al., 2004; Kanters & Forrester, 1997; Snelgrove et al., 2008). Thus, this study confirms that the perceived-constraint-reduction model will retain fit with the use of a more robust measure of motivation. Also, it was found that motivation only indirectly influenced participation through the use of negotiation strategies and subsequent constraint reduction, rather than a direct relationship found in previous intramural sport research (e.g., Beggs et al., 2004; Kilpatrick, 2005). Thus, as complexity is added to previous simple conceptualizations, taken for granted relationships may be challenged. Clearly, future work is needed to address the relationship between motivation and participation in the face of constraints.

Ego involvement was added to the constraint negotiation model in this study to expand current understandings of the constraint negotiation process (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001). This study found that the greater the connection students had with intramurals, the more likely they were to use strategies to negotiate constraints to participation. Although previous research has found a connection between ego involvement and participation (e.g., Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2004), limited attention has been paid to the role of constraints and negotiation (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999). Interestingly, within the preferred model, ego involvement was found to positively predict participation directly and also indirectly by positively influencing the use of negotiation strategies. Thus, this study confirms the efficacy of ego involvement as a factor in the constraint negotiation process. That is, it appears as though part of the process of being highly involved in an activity means people also tend to negotiate constraints. This idea is consistent with other work (e.g., Potwarka, 2011; Snelgrove et al., 2008), but is more explicitly confirmed in the present study.

This study is not without limitations. Specifically, this study examined only one large university in Southwestern Ontario with relatively new recreation facilities, and was not an overly representative sample of this university's population, thereby reducing the generalizability of the study's findings. Future research should extend this work through the examination of additional universities. This study also only examined intramural sport participation and did not examine the other campus recreation opportunities available to university students, including drop-in sport and recreation, and exercise classes, or other forms of physically active leisure that may be substituted for sport participation. Future research should examine participation more broadly to include additional programming

available from campus recreation and examine other physically active leisure pursuits. Further, participation was measured using a frequency of participation measure. Future research should extend this work with the use of a more robust measure of participation that encompasses other facets such as intensity and duration. Last, the constraint negotiation model replicated from previous work in this study does not account for changes over time and substitution between activities, whether they be sport or non-sport related. Future research is needed to determine the role of substitution (as eluded to earlier in this section) and time in this model as a way of further understanding the constraint negotiation process.

Conclusion

Clearly, efforts aimed at reducing constraints and encouraging the use of negotiation strategies stand to increase overall participation levels in sport and physical activity (e.g., Beggs et al., 2005) for current participants or those who would like to participate (Hall, Rodgers, Wilson, & Norman, 2010). However, findings also suggest that marketing strategies aimed at attraction and retention would benefit from focusing on people's motives for participating, and appealing to and fostering their connection with sport. In doing so, people may be more likely to undertake the effort to engage in creative strategies to negotiate constraints that may otherwise limit their participation. More generally, future research is needed to support the conclusion drawn from this study that ego involvement represents an important addition to constraint negotiation models.

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Summary

The purpose of this dissertation was to extend existing theoretical understandings of sport participation. In doing so, some of the conceptual and methodological limitations of previous research were addressed and informed the three studies in various ways. The purpose of Study 1 was to examine the roles of a social group in women's continued participation in golf through ethnographic methods. This study built upon research on leisure-based social worlds and recent work identifying the potentially valuable roles of social groups in women's continued participation in recreation. The findings suggested two themes that provide additional insight into continued participation in recreational sport and the roles of the social group. These overarching themes were connecting with group members and constructing a group culture.

Specifically, the women in this study began and continued participating in golf because of their social circle of friends, a finding consistent with previous research (e.g., Field & O'Leary, 1973; Heuser, 2005; Kyle & Chick, 2002, 2004). That is, they used their weekly golf nights as opportunities to connect with one another. Although the opportunity to connect and spend time with others has been found in previous work (e.g., Green, 2001; Heuser, 2005; Kyle & Chick, 2002, 2004), how this process is facilitated has not been well documented. This study is particularly notable because it identified three ways in which social connections were made possible. The way in which women were able to participate in golf, as supported through the development of a group culture, was also an important factor in their ongoing participation. Importantly, the development of a group culture allowed the women to resist dominant ways of playing golf and play in a way that fit with the women's interests and styles.

The purpose of Study 2 was to develop an understanding of constraints and negotiation processes in a self-organized middle-age women's recreation group. This study extends previous work in a number of important ways. For instance, this work employed qualitative methods thereby enabling enhanced understandings of constraints and negotiation strategies as they related to social interaction and developments that occur over time (Mannell & Iwasaki, 2005; Snelgrove & Havitz, 2010). Further, this study contributed to the idea that constraints cannot be easily delineated into a silo of intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000; Godbey, Crawford, & Shen, 2010; Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997; Scott, 1991; Shaw & Henderson, 2005). Rather, intrapersonal and structural constraints often become interpersonal constraints when one considers the social nature of sport participation.

By focusing on a group of women engaged in multiple activities of their choosing, this study also highlights the social influences that are involved in activity choices (Green, 2001; Kyle & Chick, 2002, 2004), and how change occurs from one activity to another over time. While some of the constraints experienced by the group influenced their recreation involvements negatively, the findings predominantly describe how the group has collectively developed strategies that enabled them to negotiate most constraints. The strategies that emerged from the analysis that the group used to negotiate constraints include, (a) managing to participate without others, (b) meeting the physical limitations of the majority, (c) reconciling family commitments with group leisure, (d) coordinating activities of the group, (e) maintaining connections despite distance, and (f) new members adjusting to group. Thus, the women were active participants in the

negotiation of constraints which enabled them to continue collective participation in leisure.

Study 3 sought to examine the constraint negotiation process for university students engaged in intramural sports, and contribute more generally to leisure research by developing an understanding of roles of motivation and ego involvement in this process. As previous research in this area has focused primarily on motivation, ego involvement, and constraints independently, this study sought to address this limitation through an integrated examination of these constructs and their role in the process of continued participation (e.g., Beggs, Elkins, & Powers, 2005; Beggs, Stitt, & Elkins, 2004; Haines, 2001; Kilpatrick, Hebert, & Bartholomew, 2005). Specifically, this involved the use of the constraint negotiation models developed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001). This study also sought to increase the predictability of these models through the addition of ego involvement, a variable that has received widespread attention in the leisure literature (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Kyle, Absher, Norman, Hammitt, & Jodice, 2007) and a more robust measure of motivation (e.g., Beard & Ragheb, 1983). Thus, findings from this study have implications for the context under investigation and the development of theory.

The results identified that university students ($N = 237$) were slightly to moderately constrained in their participation. Structural constraints were identified as being the most impactful. While the students experienced constraints, consistent with previous research, they also engaged in negotiation strategies (e.g., Beggs et al., 2005; Elkins, Beggs, & Choutka, 2007; Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Little, 2002; Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997; Son, Mowen, & Kerstetter, 2008). Time management strategies were

used most often by the students. With respect to motivation, the respondents were highly motivated to participate with social and skill motives being identified as most important. Further, the results identified that respondents were moderately involved with intramurals.

The result of the structural equation modeling analysis indicated that the perceived-constraint-reduction model provided a good fit to the data. Contrary to previous research using this model (e.g., Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Son et al., 2008), support was found for the relationship between negotiation and constraints such that higher levels of negotiation strategies were predictive of lower levels of constraints. While constraints still had a negative effect on levels of participation, their overall effect was reduced by the use of negotiation strategies. Further, motivation and ego involvement were found to be positive predictors of negotiation. As a result, higher levels of motivation to participate in intramurals and higher levels of ego involvement in intramural sports were both found to lead to higher uses of negotiation strategies. As this study employed the use of a more robust measure of motivation, the results identify that the perceived-constraint-reduction model will retain fit with the use of a more robust measure of motivation.

With respect to the addition of ego involvement, this construct was found to positively predict participation directly and indirectly by positively influencing the use of negotiation strategies. As a result, this study provides support for the efficacy of ego involvement as a factor in the constraint negotiation process. That is, this study confirms that idea that being highly involved in an activity also appears to mean that people tend to negotiate constraints.

Sport and recreation managers seeking to increase sport participation could benefit from the findings of this dissertation in a number of ways. Specifically, implications can be drawn from the findings of Study 1 and Study 2 to increase women's participation in recreational sport. First, the role of social groups in encouraging initiation and continuation in sport participation should be recognized and leveraged. Sport managers can support the creation of such social groups among women who are seeking similar social outlets, or inform already existing social groups of women about sport opportunities that will enable them to participate as a group.

Second, and related to the previous point, the development of women's leagues may serve as an integral component of some women's sport experience, as it provides a structured experience and an opportunity for the women to connect with their circle of friends. This is contrary to McGinnis and Gentry's (2006) suggestion that men's and women's leagues be integrated as a way of furthering serious play. Instead, recognizing and allowing multiple forms of participation to exist would be beneficial. This would enable women (and men) who are interested in being casual or serious participants to persist with the sport more or less simultaneously. Thus, managers need to be cognizant of the varying needs and interests of participants and target segments accordingly. Third, creating opportunities for women to spend time together following physical activity and engage in meaningful exchanges seems to be of importance, and may ultimately lead to continued participation.

With respect to Study 3, intramural sport programs would benefit from the findings in this dissertation in order to attract and retain participants. Specifically, managers need to be aware of students' motives for participating in intramurals. This

knowledge may inform the development of program variations that meet the needs of their consumers, and facilitate the development of effective marketing campaigns that appeal to these motivations. Also, developing marketing strategies that appeal to and foster students' psychological and social connections with intramural sports would be beneficial in retaining intramural sport participants. Importantly, developing promotional campaigns and programs with this information in mind may increase the likelihood that students will make the effort to engage in creative strategies to negotiate constraints that may otherwise limit their participation.

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APPENDIX A

The University of Western Ontario Certificates of Approval for Research Involving

Human Subjects

Office of Research Ethics

The University of Western Ontario
Room 4180 Support Services Building, London, ON, Canada N6A 5C1
Telephone: (519) 661-3036 Fax: (519) 850-2466 Email: ethics@uwo.ca
Website: www.uwo.ca/research/ethics

Use of Human Subjects - Ethics Approval Notice

Principal Investigator: Dr. K. Danylchuk
Review Number: 16055S   **Review Level:** Full Board
Review Date: April 03, 2009

Protocol Title: The context surrounding women's enduring involvement in golf
Department and Institution: Kinesiology, University of Western Ontario
Sponsor:
Ethics Approval Date: May 15, 2009   **Expiry Date:** November 30, 2009
Documents Reviewed and Approved: UWO Protocol, Letter of Information and Consent, Advertisement.

Documents Received for Information:

This is to notify you that The University of Western Ontario Research Ethics Board for Non-Medical Research Involving Human Subjects (NMREB) which is organized and operates according to the Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct of Research Involving Humans and the applicable laws and regulations of Ontario has granted approval to the above named research study on the approval date noted above.

This approval shall remain valid until the expiry date noted above assuming timely and acceptable responses to the NMREB's periodic requests for surveillance and monitoring information. If you require an updated approval notice prior to that time you must request it using the UWO Updated Approval Request Form.

During the course of the research, no deviations from, or changes to, the study or consent form may be initiated without prior written approval from the NMREB except when necessary to eliminate immediate hazards to the subject or when the change(s) involve only logistical or administrative aspects of the study (e.g. change of monitor, telephone number). Expedited review of minor change(s) in ongoing studies will be considered. Subjects must receive a copy of the signed information/consent documentation.

Investigators must promptly also report to the NMREB:
   a)   changes increasing the risk to the participant(s) and/or affecting significantly the conduct of the study;
   b)   all adverse and unexpected experiences or events that are both serious and unexpected;
   c)   new information that may adversely affect the safety of the subjects or the conduct of the study.

If these changes/adverse events require a change to the information/consent documentation, and/or recruitment advertisement, the newly revised information/consent documentation, and/or advertisement, must be submitted to this office for approval.

Members of the NMREB who are named as investigators in research studies, or declare a conflict of interest, do not participate in discussion related to, nor vote on, such studies when they are presented to the NMREB.

Chair of NMREB: Dr. Jerry Paquette

Ethics Officer to Contact for Further Information			
☑ Grace Kelly (grace.kelly@uwo.ca)	☐ Janice Sutherland (jsutherl@uwo.ca)	☐ Elizabeth Wambolt (ewambolt@uwo.ca)	☐ Denise Grafton (dgrafton@uwo.ca)

cc: ORE File

This is an official document. Please retain the original in your files.

UWO NMREB Ethics Approval - Initial
V.2007-10-12 (rptApprovalNoticeNMREB_Initial)   16055S   Page 1 of 1

Office of Research Ethics

The University of Western Ontario
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Use of Human Subjects - Ethics Approval Notice

Principal Investigator: Dr. K. Danylchuk	
Review Number: 17647S	**Review Level:** Full Board
Review Date: December 03, 2010	**Approved Local # of Participants:** 250

Protocol Title: The effect of motivation and involvement on the constraint negotiation process and intramural sport participation

Department and Institution: Kinesiology, University of Western Ontario

Sponsor:

Ethics Approval Date: January 20, 2011   **Expiry Date:** May 31, 2011

Documents Reviewed and Approved: UWO Protocol, Announcement Script. Letter of Information.

Documents Received for Information:

This is to notify you that The University of Western Ontario Research Ethics Board for Non-Medical Research Involving Human Subjects (NMREB) which is organized and operates according to the Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct of Research Involving Humans and the applicable laws and regulations of Ontario has granted approval to the above named research study on the approval date noted above.

This approval shall remain valid until the expiry date noted above assuming timely and acceptable responses to the NMREB's periodic requests for surveillance and monitoring information. If you require an updated approval notice prior to that time you must request it using the UWO Updated Approval Request Form.

During the course of the research, no deviations from, or changes to, the study or consent form may be initiated without prior written approval from the NMREB except when necessary to eliminate immediate hazards to the subject or when the change(s) involve only logistical or administrative aspects of the study (e.g. change of monitor, telephone number). Expedited review of minor change(s) in ongoing studies will be considered. Subjects must receive a copy of the signed information/consent documentation.

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   a)   changes increasing the risk to the participant(s) and/or affecting significantly the conduct of the study;
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If these changes/adverse events require a change to the information/consent documentation, and/or recruitment advertisement, the newly revised information/consent documentation, and/or advertisement, must be submitted to this office for approval.

Members of the NMREB who are named as investigators in research studies, or declare a conflict of interest, do not participate in discussion related to, nor vote on, such studies when they are presented to the NMREB.

Chair of NMREB: Dr. Riley Hinson
FDA Ref. #: IRB 00000941

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APPENDIX B

Letter of Information (Study 1 and Study 2)

The Context Surrounding Women's Enduring Involvement in Golf

Hello,

I am undertaking a study on the context surrounding women's enduring involvement in golf as a part of my doctoral studies at The University of Western Ontario, under the supervision of Dr. Karen Danylchuk. We are interested in understanding what influenced your involvement in golf prior to and when you initially began playing. We are also interested in understanding how and/or whether your involvement in golf has changed over time. The information you provide will help us to understand what influences women's involvement in golf.

The interview will take approximately one hour to complete, and will be audio recorded with your permission. The location of the interview will be of your choosing. We will provide you with a final report highlighting summarized findings upon your request.

Participation in the study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate, refuse to answer any questions, or withdraw from the study at any time. The information reported to us will be held in the strictest confidence. In order to protect your identity, the transcripts will be coded by pseudonyms and all personal identifiers will be removed. A copy of the transcribed interviews will be kept in a locked office, accessible only to the researchers conducting the study. Everything stored on an electronic device, computer or other media will be de-identified and stored separately from any personal identifiers. There are no known risks to participation. You will receive a copy of your interview in order to verify the statements. Changes can be made to the transcript if you feel that your thoughts and opinions were not properly conveyed.

This letter is for you to keep. If you have any questions about the study, you can contact Laura Wood at the number or e-mail address given below. If you have any questions about the conduct of this study or your rights as a research subject, you may contact the Office of Research Ethics, The University of Western Ontario, 661-3036 or e-mail at: ethics@uwo.ca.

Yours in Sport,

Laura Wood   Karen Danylchuk, EdD
Ph.D. Candidate   Associate Professor
The University of Western Ontario   The University of Western Ontario

APPENDIX C

Letter of Information (Study 3)

Letter of Information for survey participants

Hello,

We are interested in studying university students' participation and non-participation in intramural sports. Subsequently, we are inviting you to take a few minutes to complete the attached survey. The first part of the survey involves demographic questions. The next group of questions addresses reasons for your involvement or lack of involvement in intramurals. The questions following that pertain to some of the things that people do to get around obstacles to participation. The final set of questions relates to your level of involvement and motivations for participating in intramural sports. The survey will take approximately 10 minutes to complete.

Participation in this study is voluntary and there are no known risks to your participation. There are no known benefits to the participant for completing this research, however, this research could be utilized by practitioners to increase the number of university students that participate in intramural sport. You may refuse to participate, refuse to answer any questions, or discontinue completion of the survey at any time with no effect on your academic status. You will not be asked to provide your name so you will remain anonymous. Individuals who are between the ages of 16 and 24 will be included in this study.

The information provided in this survey will only be viewed by the researchers. All information will be kept strictly confidential, and only group data will be reported. The surveys will be stored in a locked office at The University of Western Ontario and will be destroyed upon completion of the study. Completion of the survey indicates your consent to participate in the study. Please return the survey to the research assistant upon leaving the classroom. If you have any questions about the conduct of this study or your rights as a research subject, you may contact the Office of Research Ethics, The University of Western Ontario, (519) 661-3036 or email at: ethics@uwo.ca. You may detach this letter from the survey in order to keep this contact information.

Laura Wood, MHK   Karen Danylchuk, EdD
Doctoral Candidate   Associate Professor
School of Kinesiology   School of Kinesiology
The University of Western Ontario   The University of Western Ontario

APPENDIX D

Undergraduate Students' Involvement in Intramural Sports Survey (Study 3)

PART A:

1. What is your gender?   □ Female   □ Male

2. What is your age? _____

3. What academic program are you enrolled in at Western (e.g., English, Kinesiology)?

   _____

4. What academic year are you in? _____

5. What are your current living arrangements? Please check the box that applies to you.

   □ In residence   □ Off-campus housing   □ At home with family

6. How many intramural sports have you participated in at Western during this academic year (2010-2011)? _____

7. Please list the intramural sports you have participated in during this time.

8. In an intramural sport season, how often do you participate in an average week?
   Please circle the number that best represents your participation.

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Regularly	Very Often
1	2	3	4	5

PART B:

The following are reasons that people often give for their level of involvement or lack of involvement in *intramural sports*. Please read each of these reasons and on the 5-point scales provided, circle the number which best represents the extent to which each statement is true for you.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I am too shy to start participating in intramurals	1	2	3	4	5
2. I have friends to participate with in intramurals	1	2	3	4	5
3. The people I know live too far away to participate in intramurals with me	1	2	3	4	5
4. I feel comfortable participating in intramurals with members of the opposite sex	1	2	3	4	5
5. The people I know usually don't have time to participate in intramurals with me	1	2	3	4	5
6. I don't feel comfortable changing clothes in front of other students	1	2	3	4	5
7. I wouldn't participate in intramurals if I have school commitments	1	2	3	4	5
8. I don't have the right clothes or equipment required to participate in intramurals	1	2	3	4	5
9. The people I know usually have enough money to participate in intramurals with me	1	2	3	4	5
10. I wouldn't participate in intramurals if the facilities aren't convenient	1	2	3	4	5
11. The people I know usually have too many school obligations to participate in intramurals with me	1	2	3	4	5
12. I would participate in intramurals if I know what is available	1	2	3	4	5
13. I would participate in intramurals that don't make me feel self-conscious	1	2	3	4	5
14. I prefer the atmosphere for physical activities in the school environment	1	2	3	4	5
15. The people I know usually don't have enough skills to participate in intramurals with me	1	2	3	4	5
16. I would participate in intramurals if I have money for clothes, equipment, and fees	1	2	3	4	5
17. I feel comfortable participating in	1	2	3	4	5

intramurals with people older or younger than me					
18. The people I would participate in intramurals with are on a different class schedule from me	1	2	3	4	5
19. I am not in good enough shape to participate in intramurals	1	2	3	4	5
20. I wouldn't participate in intramurals if it does not keep with my religious beliefs	1	2	3	4	5
21. I wouldn't participate in intramurals if I don't have time	1	2	3	4	5
22. I am too busy with physical activities outside of school to participate in intramurals	1	2	3	4	5
23. I have a disability that prevents me from participating in intramurals	1	2	3	4	5
24. I don't have the energy to participate in intramurals	1	2	3	4	5
25. I have a preference for activities other than intramurals	1	2	3	4	5

PART C:

The following are some of the things that people have told us they do to get around the obstacles that they face in starting, continuing, or increasing their involvement in *intramural sports*. Please read each of these statements, and on the scales provided, circle the number that best represents how frequently you have done or are doing the following things to try to start, continue, or increase your participation in *intramural sports*.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Regularly	Very Often
1. I try to find people to do intramurals with	1	2	3	4	5
2. I try to be organized	1	2	3	4	5
3. I try to budget my money	1	2	3	4	5
4. I arrange rides with friends	1	2	3	4	5
5. I try to plan ahead for things	1	2	3	4	5
6. I set aside time for intramurals	1	2	3	4	5
7. I save money to do intramurals	1	2	3	4	5
8. I do more physical activities closer to where I live	1	2	3	4	5

9. I make intramurals a priority	1	2	3	4	5
10. I just swallow my pride and try my best	1	2	3	4	5
11. I get up earlier or stay up later to make time for intramural sports	1	2	3	4	5
12. I ask for help with the required skills	1	2	3	4	5
13. Sometimes, if I need some recreation time, I just drop what I am doing and I will participate in the game that day	1	2	3	4	5
14. I improvise with the equipment and/or clothes I have	1	2	3	4	5
15. I only attend certain games that fit with my schedule	1	2	3	4	5
16. I try to meet people with similar interests	1	2	3	4	5
17. I participate in activities with people of the same gender	1	2	3	4	5
18. I try to participate in intramurals that fit with my class/work schedule	1	2	3	4	5
19. I practice the required skills on my own	1	2	3	4	5
20. I finish assignments/studying early so I have time to participate	1	2	3	4	5
21. My teammates assist with my skill development	1	2	3	4	5
22. I participate in intramurals that meet my ability	1	2	3	4	5
23. I participate in intramurals that meet the interests of my friends more than mine	1	2	3	4	5
24. I participate in intramurals when I know I don't have to be there every week	1	2	3	4	5
25. My teammates remind me about our games	1	2	3	4	5
26. My teammates give me encouragement to stick with intramurals	1	2	3	4	5

28. My friends are willing to participate in intramurals with me	1	2	3	4	5

PLEASE COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING SECTION (PART D) IF YOU ARE AN INTRAMURAL SPORT PARTICIPANT

PART D:
This section contains questions about your reasons for participating in *intramural sports* and your connection to *intramural sports*.

One of my reasons for participating in intramural sports is:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. To renew my energy levels	1	2	3	4	5
2. To interact with others	1	2	3	4	5
3. To develop physical skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5
4. To keep in shape physically	1	2	3	4	5
5. To build friendships with others	1	2	3	4	5
6. To meet new and different people	1	2	3	4	5
7. To get away from my everyday life	1	2	3	4	5
8. To enhance my overall mood	1	2	3	4	5
9. To challenge my abilities	1	2	3	4	5

Please circle the number that reflects how you feel about each statement:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Intramurals is one of the most enjoyable things I do	1	2	3	4	5
2. Intramurals is very important to me	1	2	3	4	5
3. Intramurals is one of the most satisfying things I do	1	2	3	4	5
4. I find a lot of my life is organized around intramurals	1	2	3	4	5
5. Intramurals occupies a central role in my life	1	2	3	4	5
6. To change my preference from intramurals to another recreation	1	2	3	4	5

activity would require major rethinking					
7. I enjoy discussing intramurals with my friends.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Most of my friends are in some way connected with intramurals	1	2	3	4	5
9. Participating in intramurals provides me with an opportunity to be with friends	1	2	3	4	5
10. When I participate in intramurals, I can really be myself	1	2	3	4	5
11. I identify with the people and image associated with intramurals	1	2	3	4	5
12. When I'm participating in intramurals, I don't have to be concerned with the way I look	1	2	3	4	5
13. You can tell a lot about a person by seeing them participate in intramurals	1	2	3	4	5
14. Participating in intramurals says a lot about me	1	2	3	4	5
15. When I participate in intramurals, others see me the way I want them to see me	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey

Curriculum Vitae

LAURA WOOD

Education

2007 –	Ph.D. Candidate (Sport Management) The University of Western Ontario, Canada Dissertation title: *Continued Sport Participation and the Negotiation of Constraints* Supervisor: Dr. Karen Danylchuk
2004-06	M.H.K (Sport Management) University of Windsor, Canada Supervisor: Dr. Marijke Taks
2000-04	Bachelor of Kinesiology McMaster University, Canada

Research Interests

- Development of enduring relationships with sport and leisure
- Leveraging sport and leisure events to promote healthy active lifestyles
- Recreation groups and their contribution to quality of life

Publications

Wood, L., Snelgrove, R., & Havitz, M. E. (under review). Walking for multiple sclerosis: Exploring volunteer experiences over time.

Wood, L., & Danylchuk, K. (in press). Playing our way: Contributions of social groups to women's continued participation in golf. *Leisure Sciences.*

Wood, L., & Snelgrove, R. (in press). Consumer behaviour in sport. In R. McCarville & K. MacKay (Eds.), *Leisure for Canadians (2nd ed.).* State College, PA: Venture.

Snelgrove, R., & Wood, L. (2010). Attracting and leveraging visitors at a charity cycling event. *Journal of Sport & Tourism, 15,* 269-285.

Wood, L., Snelgrove, R., & Danylchuk, K. (2010). Segmenting volunteer fundraisers at a charity sport event. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing, 22*(1), 38-54.

Wood, L., Taks, M., & Danylchuk, K. (2008). Communicating with young people in the sport industry: Practitioners' insights. *International Journal of Sport Communication, 1*, 286-300.

Conference Presentations

Wood, L. (2010, October). The social nature of women's sport participation. Paper presented at the Sport Canada Research Initiative Conference, Ottawa, ON.

Wood, L., & Snelgrove, R. (2010, October). Tourists' motivation as a basis of promoting and leveraging charity sport events. Paper presented at the Sport Marketing Association annual conference, New Orleans, LA.

Snelgrove, R., Wood, L., & Havitz, M. E. (2010, October). Walking for multiple sclerosis: Volunteer fundraising and well-being. Paper presented at the 2010 National Recreation and Park Association Leisure Research Symposium, Minneapolis, MN.

Wood, L. (2010, June). Playing our way: The role of social groups in women's loyalty to sport participation. ***Best paper award, student research paper competition.*** Presented at the 25th annual conference of the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM), Tampa Bay, FL.

Wood, L., & Danylchuk, K. (2010, March). The social nature of women's sport participation. Faculty of Health Science Research Day, London, ON.

Wood, L, & Danylchuk, K. (2009, May). The connection between brand personality and loyalty. Paper presented at the 24th annual conference of the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM), Columbia, SC.

Wood, L., Snelgrove, R., & Danylchuk, K. (2008, June). Is the cause or the sport more important to fundraisers? Paper presented at the 23rd annual conference of the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM), Toronto, ON.

Wood, L. (2008, March). Communicating with "tweens" in the sport industry. Faculty of Health Science Research Day, London, ON.

Wood, L., & Taks, M. (2007, June). Communicating with young people in the sport industry: Practitioners' insights. Paper presented at the 22nd annual conference of the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM), Ft. Lauderdale, FL.

Reports for Industry Partners

Wood, L., & Snelgrove, R. (2009). MS Walk: A longitudinal analysis of volunteer fundraisers' experiences. A report submitted to the MS Society of Canada.

Wood, L., & Snelgrove, R. (2008). Rona MS Bike Tour: A segmentation analysis. A report submitted to the MS Society of Canada.

Awards and Scholarships

2010-11	Doctoral Fellowship	Social Sciences and Humanities and Research Council (SSHRC)	$20,000
2010-11	Doctoral Fellowship	SSHRC Sport Participation Research Initiative	$10,000
2010-11	Ontario Graduate Scholarship	Provincial government, declined in lieu of SSHRC scholarship	$15,000
2010	Student Research Paper Competition Winner	North American Society for Sport Management	$500
2010	Graduate Thesis Research Award	The University of Western Ontario	$560
2009-10	Ontario Graduate Scholarship	Provincial government	$15,000
2009	Packianathan Chelladurai Bursary	The University of Western Ontario	$600
2009	Graduate Thesis Research Award	The University of Western Ontario	$375

2008-09	Ontario Graduate Scholarship	Provincial government	$15,000
2008	The Earle F. Zeigler Scholarship in Kinesiology	The University of Western Ontario	$1,000
2007-08	Dean's Entrance Scholarship	The University of Western Ontario	$5,000
2005-06	Human Kinetics Graduate Scholarship	University of Windsor	$5,400

<u>Teaching Related Experience</u>

Guest Lectures

2010	"Defining the Field of Sport Management" – Prepared and presented to Introduction to Sport Management, September 15: The University of Western Ontario.
2010	"Promotions in Recreation and Leisure" – Prepared and presented to Marketing Recreation and Leisure Services, March 19: University of Waterloo.
2010	"Advertising" – Prepared and presented to Marketing Recreation and Leisure Services, March 17: University of Waterloo.
2010	"Ambush Marketing" – Prepared and presented to a third year Sport Marketing course, March 9: The University of Western Ontario.
2010	"Marketing Research in Academia" – Prepared and presented to Marketing Recreation and Leisure Services, January 22: The University of Waterloo.
2009	"Financial management in sport" – Prepared and presented to the Introduction to Sport Management, November 4: The University of Western Ontario.

| 2009 | "Financial management in sport" – Prepared and presented to the Introduction to Sport Management, November 6: The University of Western Ontario. |

| 2008 | "Fundraising for a charity sport event: The role of identity and motives" – Prepared and presented to the Graduate Sport Marketing, November 18: The University of Western Ontario. |

| 2008 | "Communicating with "tweens" in the Sport Industry: Practitioners' Insights" – Prepared and presented to a third year Sport Marketing course, January 10: The University of Western Ontario. |

Teaching Assistantships

2009	Sport Marketing	Dr. Karen Danylchuk, The University of Western Ontario
2008	Sport Management Field Experience (*Responsible for teaching weekly lab sessions*)	Dr. Alison Doherty, The University of Western Ontario
2007	Sport and Exercise Psychology	Dr. Bob LaRose, The University of Western Ontario
2004/05	Ethics in Sport	Dr. Marge Holman, University of Windsor
2005	Human Resources in Sport	Professor Mike Bates, University of Windsor
2003	Management Concepts and Program Design (*Responsible for organizing and delivering weekly seminars*)	Dr. Sue Inglis, McMaster University

Teaching Development

| 2007-2010 | *Western Certificate in University Teaching and Learning* (WCUTL) – Teaching Support Centre, UWO |

2010	*Advanced Teaching Program* (WCUTL), Teaching Support Centre, London, ON, January – March.
2009	Created a comprehensive case study used by an International Sport Management course at The University of Western Ontario and two international countries.
2009	*Teaching Mentor Program* (WCUTL), Teaching Support Centre, London, ON, September – December.
2009	*Fostering Active Learning in the Classroom* (WCUTL) – Teaching Support Centre, UWO, January 29
2008	*What's the Difference Between an A and a B?* (WCUTL), Teaching Support Centre, UWO, November 25
2008	*Writing a Teaching Philosophy Statement*, (WCUTL), Teaching Support Centre, UWO, November 10
2008	*World Café*, (WCUTL), Teaching Support Centre, UWO, November 3
2008	*Teaching Critical Thinking – Part 2*, (WCUTL), Teaching Support Centre, UWO, March 13
2008	*Teaching Critical Thinking – Part 1*, (WCUTL), Teaching Support Centre, UWO, March 6
2008	*Developing a Course Outline*, (WCUTL), Teaching Support Centre, UWO, January 22
2007	*Teaching Portfolios: The Importance of Documenting Teaching*, (WCUTL), Teaching Support Centre, UWO, November 7
2007	*Advanced Strategies for Teaching with PowerPoint*, (WCUTL), Teaching Support Centre, UWO, October 31
2007	*Introduction to Teaching with WebCT*, (WCUTL), Teaching Support Centre, UWO, October 21

2007 *Graduate Student Teaching Conference on Teaching*, Teaching Support Centre, UWO, September 5

Professional Development

2009 NVivo workshop: The Basics of NVivo 8 (April 30)
2007 Writing the Proposal for the Qualitative Project Workshop, Dr. Margarete Sandelowski, London, ON (May 28)

Membership in Academic and Professional Societies

2007- North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM)

Professional Service

2010-11 NASSM conference organizing committee
2010 Reviewer, *European Sport Management Quarterly*
2010 Co-Reviewer, *Sport Marketing Quarterly*
2009- Copy editor, *European Sport Management Quarterly*
2009 Co-Reviewer, *Sport Management Review* (2 manuscripts)

Volunteer Service

2009 CIBC Run for the Cure
2008-09 Jump! Conference for female high school athletes (Hosted by the Women's Athletic Alumni of The University of Western Ontario), Organizing Committee
2007-08 Super Cities WALK for MS
2007 RBC Annual Golf Tournament in support of MS
2007 MS Carnation Campaign
2007 RONA MS Bike Tours
2006 Detroit Free Press Marathon in support of Diabetes research
2006 Kidsport Ontario
2005-06 CIBC Run for the Cure

Work Experience

2006-07 MS Society of Canada, Fundraising and Events Coordinator
2006 XMC Sports and Entertainment, Research Assistant
2004 McMaster and Brock University, Research Assistant