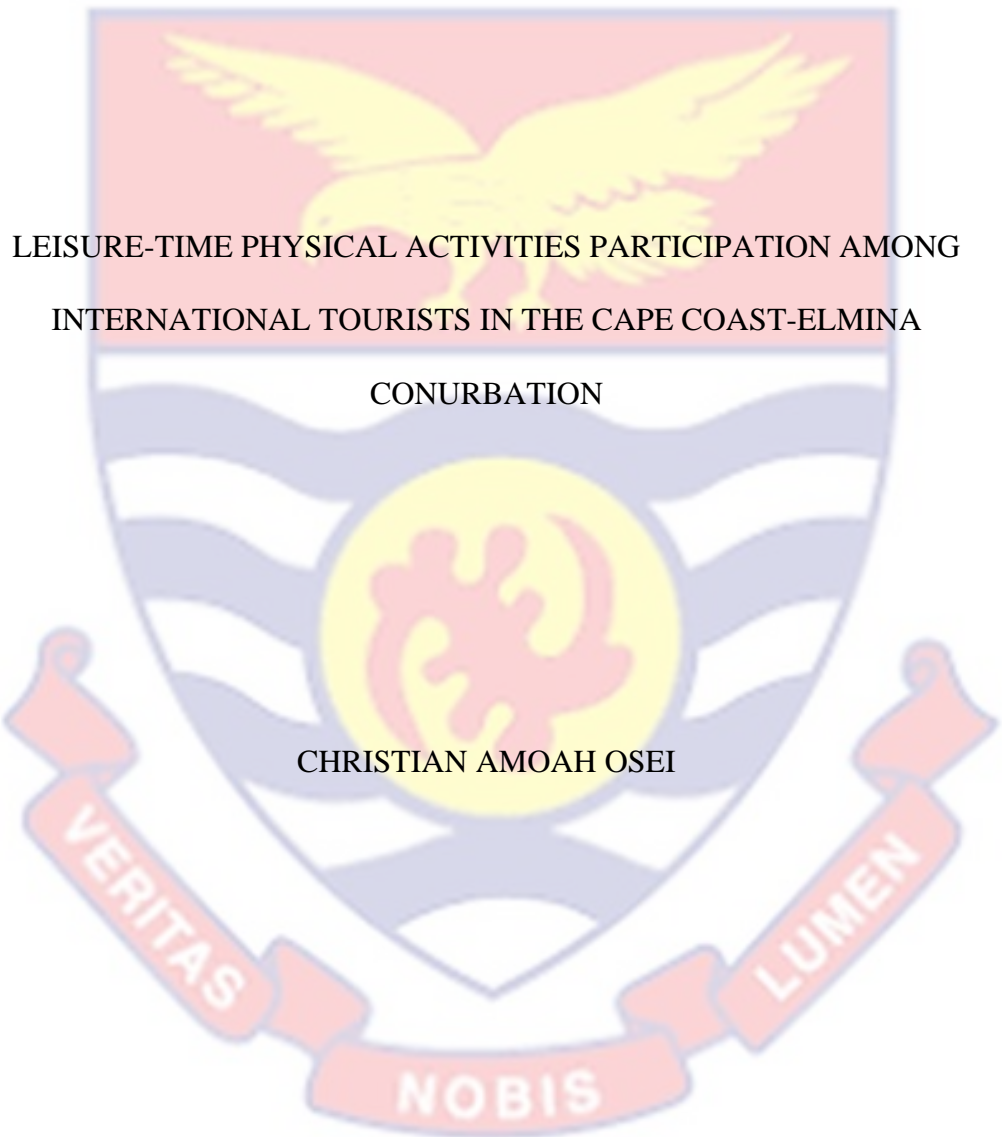


UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST



LEISURE-TIME PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES PARTICIPATION AMONG  
INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS IN THE CAPE COAST-ELMINA  
CONURBATION

CHRISTIAN AMOAH OSEI

2021

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CONURBATION

BY

CHRISTIAN AMOAH OSEI

This thesis submitted to the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management of the Faculty of Social Sciences, College of Humanities and Legal Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy degree in Tourism Management.

DECEMBER, 2021

## DECLARATION

### Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature ..... Date .....

Name: Christian Amoah Osei

### Supervisors' Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature ..... Date .....

Name: Dr. Stephen E. Hiamey

## ABSTRACT

Leisure-time physical activity (LTPA) has become an effective preventive and management tool for non-communicable diseases, because of its therapeutic benefits. The study aimed at assessing leisure-time physical activities participation, motivation, constraints, and negotiation strategies among international tourists in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. The self-determination theory and hierarchical leisure constraint model guided the study. A cross-sectional study using a questionnaire was used to collect data from 172 international tourists who visited Cape Coast and Elmina conurbation between May-July. Both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were performed with the help of chi-square, t-test, ANOVA, Factor analysis, and linear regression. The study revealed that international tourists were motivated by relaxation, recreation, and fun to participate in LTPA. Also, the study revealed that the tourists were constrained mostly by structural issues. They negotiated these constraints with cognitive and leisure aspirations strategies. There were variations in motivation, constraint, and negotiation strategies across respondents' background characteristics. Lastly, LTPA motivation and constraint contributed significantly to constraint negotiation strategies. It is recommended that the motivations identified should inform the marketing messages of destination management organizations in the country. Again, attention should be paid to improving the LTPA facilities in the Cape Coast-Elmina area.

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## DEDICATION

To my entire family



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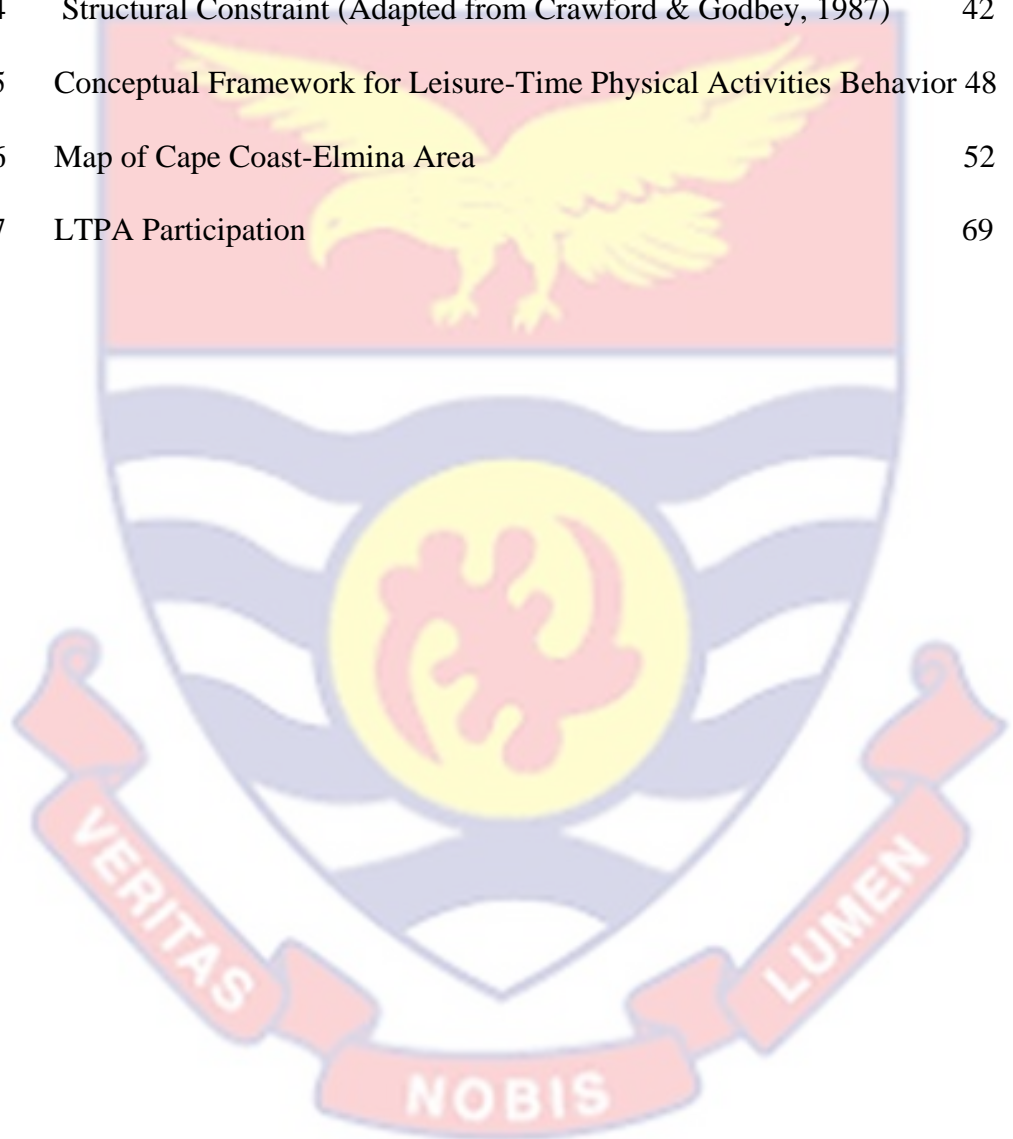


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## LIST OF ACRONYMS



ACSM	American College of Sports Medicine
AHA	American Health Association
CDC	Centers for Diseases Control and Prevention
CNS	Constraint Negotiation Strategies
CSO	Central Statistical Office
GTA	Ghana Tourism Authority
LTPA	Leisure-Time Physical Activities
MET	Metabolic Equivalent
MPA	Moderate Physical Activities
MVPA	Moderate-to-Vigorous Physical Activities
NCD	Non-Communicable Diseases
PA	Physical Activity
PANAFEST	Pan African Historical Theatre Festival
SDT	Self-Determination Theory
SGR	Surgeon's General Report
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization,
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
USHHS	United Nations Department of Health and Human Services
VPA	Vigorous Physical Activities
WHO	World Health Organisation

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### Background of the Study

The importance of leisure cannot be overlooked because of the associated benefits (Kleiber, Walker, & Mannell, 2011). According to the World Health Organisation WHO, (2014) only around a quarter of the world's population participates in leisure activities, with the majority of them being inactive or sedentary. Other than active, passive leisure activities are more sedentary, including sleeping, listening to music, playing video games, sunbathing, watching television, talking with friends, and several other things which do not include movement. On the other hand, active leisure activities are those that require movement and energy expenditure such as football, canoeing, swimming, hiking, skating, and skiing, among others (Joudrey & Wallace, 2009; Rahim, Kadir, Mahmud, Mohamed, & Kee, 2011). Active leisure, specifically, leisure-time physical activities (LTPA) are the most important leisure for people because of their numerous benefits such as improving health conditions, making new friends, and skill acquisition (WHO, 2018).

Therefore, LTPA covers both athletic and leisure pursuits that are unrelated to one's daily employment (Nyawornota, 2010). Whiles a person's behaviour linked to physical activity during his or her spare time is referred to as LTPA (Nyawornota, 2010). This means there is a distinction between LTPA and physical activity that is done as part of everyday life. The distinction between LTPA and daily activities, on the other hand, is blurred due to their situational and subjective existence (Nyawornota, 2010). Whiles

LTPA only participated during one's free time, physical activities are participated at any time and could also be related to daily employment. This study conceptualized leisure-time physical activities as any activity that is undertaken during one's leisure time, that demands an amount of energy. Walking, general gardening, dancing, golf, water aerobics, canoeing, or vigorous-intensive physical activities (running/jogging, trekking, bicycling, heavy yard labor, such as cutting wood, swimming, aerobics, basketball, tennis, and playing football) are examples of LTPA. Moderate-intensity physical activities require less energy and effort, but vigorous-intensity physical activities necessitate more energy (WHO, 2018). In addition, moderate-intensity LTPA is 3-6 METs, whereas vigorous-intensity LTPA is greater than 6 METs, where METs are Metabolic Equivalent of Tasks (WHO, 2004).

LTPA, whether moderate-intensity or vigorous-intensity, is associated with numerous benefits (WHO, 2018). Individuals who participate in LTPA are motivated by the benefits associated with it. These motivating factors could be health or medical, economic, relaxation, enjoyment, competence mastery, and others. Leisure-time physical activity, according to the Center for Diseases Control [CDC] (2011) and WHO (2018), is one of the best strategies for people to enhance their health and prevent non-communicable diseases. For instance, inadequate physical activity costs the American economy roughly \$117 billion per year in health care costs (WHO, 2018). Consequently, it has been found that LTPA decreases hospitalization, hospital visits, and health-related expenses (Chen, Ku, Steptoe, Chen & Lin, 2017; Esteban, Arostegui, Aburto, Moraza, Quintana, Aizpiri & Basualdo, 2014; Li,



Chu, Sheu & Huang, 2011; Perkins & Clack, 2011). Other benefits associated with LTPA are psychological well-being and social advantages such as the building of self-confidence, making new friends, the ability to make better decisions, and releasing of stress (Sie, Patterson & Pegg, 2016; Martin & Griffiths, 2016; Blanco & Barnett 2014; Burrows & McCormack 2011; Kleiber, Walker & Mannell, 2011; Stumbo, Wang & Pegg, 2011). Notwithstanding the above-mentioned benefits, individuals are faced with several constraints (such as intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural issues) in an attempt to participate in LTPA (Crawford & Godbey, 2012). As a result, the world population has focused majorly on passive leisure activities, rather than leisure-time physical activities, with an estimated figure of only 23% of adults aged 18 and more being sufficiently active (WHO, 2018). The decline in physical activeness is partly due to the sedentary lifestyle at work and home, and the use of a 'passive' mode of transportation (Sie, Patterson, & Pegg, 2016). However, the effect of these constraints can be lessened with negotiation strategies. These negotiation strategies are termed constraints negotiation strategies (financing, time modification, skills acquisition, cognitive strategies). The strategies are being used by LTPA participants to deal with constraint-related issues encountered either before or during participation.

Over the last two decades, Ghana has become one of the most competitive tourist destinations in the West African sub-region, attracting significant numbers of visitors [Ghana Tourism Authority (GTA), 2014]. Studies conducted by Amuquandoh (2011), Boakye (2012), and Otoo and Amuquandoh (2014a, 2014b) revealed that travelers, such as backpackers,

volunteers, and educational tourists, have found the country to be particularly appealing because of its pristine ecotourism resources, culture, safety, and hospitality. International tourists are observed to be interested in sightseeing and passive leisure (Dayour, 2012). However, tourists' LTPA is unknown because one cannot easily distinguish between tourism activities and LTPA since the relationship between these two concepts remains fuzzy. Although some researchers are of the view that tourism and leisure are two distinct ideas, the majority believe they are both parts of the same spectrum (Carr, 2002). The line between the two conceptions is blurry since they both include unrestricted free time, happiness, and, in some cases, benevolence and self-interest (Lockstone-Binney, Holmes, Smith, & Baum, 2010). As a result, depending on the goals of participants, some tourism can feel like leisure, whereas 'serious' leisure can encompass travel that requires significant work, skills, and expertise (Pearce, 2005).

### **Statement of the Problem**

Leisure-time physical activity is becoming an effective preventive and management tool for non-communicable diseases (WHO, 2020). Individuals who participate in leisure-time physical activities can experience psychological and social benefits that improve their well-being (Ku, Fox & Chen, 2016). The risks of a sedentary lifestyle or lack of physical activity have long been recognized (Gupta, Heiden, Mathiassen, & Holtermann, 2016) and have been classified as the world's fourth greatest cause of mortality, accounting for 6% of all deaths (Bao, Cai, Peng, Gu, Su, Shu, & Zheng, 2016).

Consequently, a scientific study on leisure-time physical activities is not new. From the literature, LTPA issues have been extensively researched (notably, Rahim, Kadir, Mahmud Mohamed, & Kee, 2011; Sie, Patterson & Pegg, 2016; Chen, Ku, Steptoe, Chen & Lin, 2017), however, a few of these studies were studied from the tourism perspective, despite the fuzzy relationship between tourism and leisure (Lockstone-Binney, et al., 2010; Zahra & McIntosh, 2007). A lot has been studied on international tourists in Ghana (such as Dayour & Adongo, 2015; Osei, Mensah & Amenumey, 2018). However, such studies have only expanded our knowledge of tourists' food choices or preferences (Amuquandoh & Asafo-Adjei, 2013), the motivation and revisit intention of international tourists (Dayour & Adongo, 2015), tourists' response to harassment (Badu-Baiden, Adu-Boahen & Otoo, 2016), public transport mode preference of international tourists (Nutsugbodoa, Amenumey, Mensah, 2018), utilization of social media by international tourists (Osei, Mensah & Amenumey, 2018).

A few studies including Afrifa-Anane, et al. (2020), Atorkey, Owiredua, Mohammed, & Gyimah (2019), Doegah & Amoateng (2019), Glozah, Asante, & Kugbey (2018), Nyawornota, et al. (2018) studied leisure-time physical activities in the context of Ghana but did not consider international tourists. Some of these previous studies only focused on Ghanaian migrants, Ghanaian youth, senior high school students and others. More importantly, little research has been conducted to understand international tourists' motivation for engaging in LTPA in Ghana.

Also, previous studies have hardly studied the constraints encountered by international tourists in LTPA participation, as such the question of why

people do not participate in LTPA remains unanswered. Again, researchers have barely studied the negotiation strategies international tourists adopt to lessen the effects of the constraints. The few researchers that studied constraints and negotiation strategies did not look at it from international tourists' perspective. For instance, Ito, E., Kono, S., and Walker, G. J. (2020), looked at it from the perspective of Japanese and Euro-Canadian adults, Qiu, Y., Lin, Y., & Mowen, A. J. (2018) focused on Chinese women, while Öcal, K. (2014) also focused on public universities students.

Lastly, due to the number of leisure spaces situated in the Cape Coast-Elmina area (Dayour, 2013) such as pristine beaches, and other ecotourism resources, (Amuquandoh, 2011; Boakye, 2012), the Cape Coast-Elmina area attracts the greatest number of tourists (Sasu, 2021), meanwhile previous LTPA studies did not consider the area as the study context. Based on the gaps identified, the study sought to assess the leisure time physical activities participation among international tourists in the Cape Coast-Elmina conurbation.

### **Objective of the Study**

Given the above knowledge gaps, this study sought to assess leisure-time physical activities participation, motivation, constraints, and negotiation strategies among international tourists in the Cape Coast-Elmina area

Specifically, the study intended to:

1. Examine the kinds of LTPA undertaken by international tourists.
2. Analyze the motivations for undertaking leisure-time physical activities by international tourists.
3. Analyze the constraints in undertaking leisure-time physical activities by international tourists.
4. Determine international tourists' negotiation strategies against the constraints of undertaking LTPA.

### **Research Questions**

1. What are the kinds of LTPA undertaken by international tourists?
2. What are the motivations for undertaking LTPA by international tourists?
3. What are the constraints to undertaking LTPA by international tourists?
4. What are the LTPA constraint negotiation strategies adopted by international tourists?

### **Hypotheses of the Study**

H<sub>1</sub>: International tourists' LTPA constraint does not influence constraint negotiation strategies.

H<sub>2</sub>: International tourists' LTPA motivation does not influence constraint negotiation strategies.

### **Significance of the Study**

This study will contribute to both practice and literature as it assesses the under-researched relationship between international tourists and LTPA motivation, and constraints. Practically, it will help in encouraging and improving international tourists' LTPA participation. Understanding the LTPA motivations will go a long way to guide tour operators and volunteering agencies on how to plan an itinerary for international tourists and also inform policymakers on the strategies to put in place to enhance international tourists' LTPA participation because of its importance. Again, knowing the constraints for LTPA among international tourists will also inform the Authorities of the various potential barriers to leisure-time physical activities, and try to put in place measures as a negotiation strategy to lessen the constraints and enhance or improve LTPA among international tourists.

Empirically, the findings of the study will fill some of the research gaps identified such as leisure-time physical activities constraints, negotiation strategies, and motivation. Also, the finding will serve as one of the scientific bases on which researchers can rely for further studies on leisure-time physical activity participation among international tourists. Furthermore, the study will help in testing the utilization of the theories used (i. e. Hierarchical leisure constraints model and Self-determination theory) and its proposition in the area of leisure time physical activities, and tourism.

### **Delimitation of the Study**

The study focused on international tourists' leisure-time physical activities in the Cape Coast-Elmina area in Ghana's Central region. It examined international tourists' leisure-time physical activities in the Cape Coast-Elmina area, examining their LTPA participation, analyzing their motivation for participating in LTPA, analyzing their constraints or barriers to LTPA participation, and determining their negotiation strategies for reducing the effects of these constraints. International travelers were given a lot of attention since the line between tourism and leisure is blurry, with some tourism activities being considered leisure and some leisure activities involving tourism. Because it is one of the most frequented destinations in the country, the study was limited to the Cape Coast-Elmina destination region.

### **Organization of the Study**

The research was divided into five chapters. The first chapter included an introduction that covered topics such as the study's background, problem statement, research objectives, research questions, hypothesis, the study's importance, delimitations, and organization. A survey of related literature, theoretical issues, and a conceptual framework were all covered in Chapter Two. The third chapter was research methodology. The research principle, research design, and research approach were all included. Study area, target population, sampling technique, sample size, source of data, instrumentation, data collection procedure, pre-testing, fieldwork, and related problems, data analysis, and ethical considerations were all covered in the methodology.

The fourth chapter dealt with the interpretation of results as well as debate. The results of the respondents' socio-demographic variables were examined, and the principal conclusions were analyzed. Finally, chapter five of the thesis closed with a summary of the study's principal findings, conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions for further research.





## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### Introduction

This chapter presents both theoretical and empirical reviews on issues relating to leisure-time physical activities. Issues reviewed include the relationship between leisure and tourism, the definition of leisure, forms of leisure activities, leisure-time physical activities, frequencies, duration and intensity of LTPA, the prevalence of leisure-time physical activities, leisure-time physical activities recommendation, benefits of LTPA, motivation for LTPA, constraints to LTPA, constraint negation strategies for LTPA. Other issues include the theories underpinning the study as well as the conceptual framework.

#### Definition of Leisure

The concept of leisure has been an issue of divided perspectives in the academic community by scholars. There are two main perspectives of leisure in the literature as expressed by scholars. Some viewed leisure from the perspective of it being a “free time away from any remunerated activity or responsibility” for instance, Leitner and Leitner (2012) described leisure as "free or unobligated time spent not working or performing other life-sustaining functions." Leisure time is time spent by a person outside of work, home responsibilities, and other important activities like learning, sleeping, and eating (Gibson & Wood, 2000). Ibrahim (1991) defines leisure as a state of mind or being that allows a person to engage in meditative, recreational, or entertaining activities while free from work, civil, or familial commitments. It

can alternatively be described as "the application of free time to an activity that is seen as beneficial or enjoyable by individuals" (Grainger-Jones, 1999). Leisure is sometimes described as the free time that can be spent on whatever one wishes. Furthermore, leisure is described as a period of free time after one's daily tasks have been completed (Fairchild, 1970). Giddens (1964) defines leisure as time spent not working, traveling to work, or sleeping. Leisure has been described as time spent on activities that are not related to paid labor or other obligations (Parker, 1971).

Contrary to the view of leisure as a free time away from the remunerated activity, some see leisure from a psychological and emotional viewpoint as expressed below. Leisure has also been described as a somewhat freely chosen humanistic activity, as well as the associated feelings and emotions (such as satisfaction and contentment) that can enrich and meaningfully enrich one's life (Przepiorka & Blanchnio, 2017). Although leisure is not a requirement for living, it does have an impact on an individual's psychological condition (Sandoval, 2017) due to varying levels of satisfaction (Stebbins, 2007). As a result, the type or types of leisure activities that an individual engages in is critical to his or her psychological well-being or survival. Consequently, recreation refers to activities that are done in one's spare time (free time), usually for the goal of enjoyment (Leitner & Leitner, 2012). The term "recreation" refers to the activities that people do in their spare time (Gibson & Wood, 2000). The study conceptualized leisure as a period when one is free of certain commitments such as work, house chores, and studying and chooses to engage in recreational activities for various

purposes depending on one's interests. Meanwhile, the relationship between leisure and tourism is blurred, therefore, there is a need to look at the concept.

### **Forms of Leisure**

Leisure activities come in a variety of forms and intensities, and different people engage in different types of leisure depending on how they view leisure and what interests them. It might be individual (a single person's action) or group (a group of people's activities) (an activity that two or more people participate in). Four types of leisure activities were proposed by Gibson and Wood (2000). Active leisure activities (walking, swimming, football, and weight lifting/training) and passive leisure activities (such as watching television, visiting/entertaining friends and family, listening to radio or tapes or recordings, and reading books) are the two categories. Home-based leisure activities (such as computer games, including those that can be played on the internet, Play Station (interactive games), music, and cooking) and leisure activities that take place away from home (eating out, shopping, countryside recreation, walking, mounting biking).

### **Relationship between Leisure and Tourism**

Some researchers see tourism and leisure as two separate concepts. The majority of scholars believe they are both parts of the same continuum (Carr, 2002). According to some scholars, both tourism and leisure involve "unobligated free time," "enjoyment," and, in some cases, "altruism" and "self-interest" (Lockstone-Binney et al., 2010). Tourism and leisure are inextricably linked; in fact, the phrases are sometimes used interchangeably, as if they

were a single subject of study. As a result, Urry's book "Tourist Gaze" (1990) is subtitled "leisure and travel in modern culture." Crouch (2000) explores embodied lay geographies in leisure and tourism, whereas Aitchison (2001) published 'Leisure and Tourism Landscapes.' In any of these authors' works, there was no obvious line between tourism and leisure.

In contrast, Leiper (1990), claims that leisure and tourism differ because tourism, maybe a treasured kind of leisure because it has qualities that distinguish it from normal leisure, the most notable of which is the quest for enjoyable leisure experiences in new places. Moreover, IsoAhola (1980), believes that "leisure becomes a subjective perception of a real or imagined activity a person participates in at a given moment," and "leisure becomes a subjective impression of an actual or imagined activity a person participates in at a particular time." Specifically, some tourism may feel like leisure depending on the goals of participants, whereas 'serious' leisure might include tourism that involves a significant amount of effort, skills, and expertise (Pearce, 2005). To put it in another way, the distinction between the two ideas is hazy (Lockstone-Binney et al., 2010).

### **Leisure-time Physical Activities (LTPA)**

LTPA is important for human development as a type of recreation (WHO, 2017). LTPA is a collective activity that incorporates sports and planned activity in freely disposable time (Steinbach, & Graf, 2008). LTPAs are described as "any physiological movement induced by skeletal muscle contraction that raises energy expenditure over a basal level" (CDC, 2011). LTPA is described as "any physical activity produced by skeletal muscles that

require energy expenditure" during free time (WHO, 2017, pp.1). It is an essential component of a healthy lifestyle that helps people of various ages, ethnic backgrounds, and chronic diseases (Dergance, Calmbach, Dhanda, Miles, Hazuda, & Mouton, 2003). According to Liu and Walker (2015), respondents defined leisure-time physical activities as "physical activities you engage in during your free time". Furthermore, LTPA is commonly touted as a beneficial technique to both improve mental health and socialize with others (Cerin, Leslie, Sugiyama, & Owen, 2009). Again, Amireault and Godin (2015) defined LTPA as any activity that increases overall energy expenditure during one's idle time.

LTPA has been associated with two broad benefits, health benefits, including a lower risk of coronary heart disease, depression, increased cardiorespiratory fitness, and stress relief, as espoused by (World Health Organization, 2018). And the psychological and social effects/benefits of LTPA have been widely demonstrated by (Liu & Walker, 2015), and Ku, Fox, and Chen (2016) indicate that LTPA participants can benefit psychologically or socially (e.g., self-development or social connection). The advantages of LTPA are well-known, and it plays a vital role in the primary and secondary prevention of obesity, type 2 diabetes, and cardiovascular disease (Lavie, Thomas, Squires, Allison, & Milani, 2009), as well as improving daily activities and independent functioning (Maruthur, Wang, & Appel, 2009). Higher assessments of general and mental health are linked to LTPA (Mock, Plante, Reysen, & Gerbasi, 2013), making it a source of happiness and improving quality of life.

In recent times that most professions are sedentary, thus, LTPA is important for mental and physical recovery (Kekäläinen, Freund, Sipila, & Kokko, 2019). De Rezende, Lopes, Rey-López, Matsudo, and do Carmo Luiz, (2014) and Hamer, Stamatakis, and Mishra, (2010) discovered a negative relationship between sedentary leisure behavior and mental well-being and subjective health outcomes in adults, whereas numerous previous studies in various fields found a positive relationship between LTPA and mental well-being and health in adults (Holstila et al. 2017; Lahti et al. 2016; Wiese, Kuykendall, & Tay, 2018). Physical benefits, exercise mastery, enjoyable emotions of recovery and relaxation, and social connection are all possible reasons why LTPA improves mental and subjective health (Newman, Tay, & Diener, 2014).

Based on the length, frequency, and intensity of the activity, many studies classify the leisure-time physical activity as moderate to intensive (Physical activity guidelines advisory committee report the US, 2008). Minutes are used to measure the length of time it takes to perform an activity or workout. The number of times an exercise or activity is undertaken is referred to as frequency. The session, episode, or bout frequency is usually stated in sessions, episodes, or bouts per week. The amount of labor being done or the quantity of the effort necessary for an individual to execute an activity or exercise is referred to as intensity.

Moderate-intensity activity is described as activity that lasts 3 to 6 metabolic equivalent (METs), which is derived by dividing the metabolic rate for an activity by the resting metabolic rate, which is roughly 3.5 mL O<sub>2</sub>kg<sup>-1</sup>min<sup>-1</sup> for a 60 kg individual. Gardening, brisk walking, and aerobic

dance are examples of such hobbies. The Surgeon General's Report on Physical Activity and Health, published by the US Public Health Service in 1996, includes the recommendation (US Department of Health and Human Services. Physical Activity and Health: A Report of the Surgeon General. Atlanta, Ga: US Dept of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion; 1996). The report defines moderate physical activity as 627.6 kJ/d (150 kcal/d) or 1484 kJ/wk (1000 kcal/wk) of energy expenditure. Moderate-intensity workouts include brisk walking, bicycling, gardening, housework, or anything else that causes slight increases in breathing or heart rate for at least 30 minutes per day, 5 days per week. Activity conducted at a rate of more than 6 metabolic equivalents is also known as vigorous intensity (METs). Running, aerobics, hard yard work, basketball, soccer, sports, and others that generate big increases in breathing or heart rate for at least 20 minutes three times a week, are examples of vigorous activities (Nyawornota, 2010).

Physical activity is divided into three groups in other studies: high, moderate, and low activity. Each activity type is assigned a metabolic equivalent task (MET) value, which is used to categorize exercise as low, moderate, or strenuous (Gordon-Larsen 2000). Skating, cycling, dance, martial arts, and combative sports, for example, were given 5 to 8 METs and thus classified as moderate to vigorous physical activity. Walking (low) physical activity was rewarded with 3.3 METs, whereas moderate physical activity was rewarded with 4.0 METs (Gordon-Larsen 2000; Dobbins, Husson, DeCorby, & LaRocca, 2013).

Previous studies have reported several leisure-time physical activities. According to Akarolo-Anthony and Adebamowo, (2014) participants rated walking as the most popular leisure-time physical activity. Since it is the most accessible, common, and inexpensive compared to other activities (Hallal, Andersen, Bull, Guthold, Haskell, Ekelund, & Lancet, 2012). Similarly, García-Fernández, González-López, Vilches-Arenas & Lomas-Campos, (2019) also reported walking as the preferred leisure-time physical activity. However, Rowiński, Morgulec-Adamowicz, Ogonowska-Słodownik, Dąbrowski, and Geigle (2017) found gardening to be the most preferred leisure-time physical activity among polish. Whereas Lamont, Kennelly, and Moyle, (2019) also concluded that running, and adventure racing events as the preferred leisure-time physical activities.

Furthermore, two main variables account for the differences in leisure-time physical activity in literature such as sex and age. Men are likely to be more sedentary when they reach their mid-years, but for women, it is during their later age that they become sedentary (Azevedo, Araujo, Reichert, Siqueira, da Silva, & Hallal, 2006). Physical activity declines among both males and females as they age, (Sun, & Kawthur, 2013; Molanorouzi, Khoo, & Morris, 2015). According to Gavin, Keough, Abravanel, Moudrakovski, and Mcbrearty (2014), people under the age of 40 are 1.4 times more likely than those over 40 to participate in LTPA.

According to a study in European Union countries (Martinez-Gonzalez, Varo, Santos, Irala, Gibney, Kearney, & Martinez, 2001), Men tend to decrease engagement in LTPA as they get older, whereas women do not show this dose-response. Also, Gómez, Mateus, and Cabrera (2004) found no



link between women's age and their level of physical activity. In their study, middle-aged women (30–49 years) had the highest percentage of inactivity. Although a study by Chigbu, Berger, Aniebue, and Parhofer (2020) confirms that gender had no significant independent impact on physical activity. A contrary view, however, was expressed by earlier research from various parts of the world has found that females have a higher percentage of physical inactivity than males (Adegoke, & Oyeyemi, 2011; Bauman, Reis, Sallis, Wells, Loos, & Martin, 2014); Kirunda, Wamani, Fadnes, Van den Broeck, & Tylleskär, 2016; Morseth, Jacobsen, Emaus, Wilsgaard, & Jørgensen, 2016). According to Alayode, Babalola, and Oyeseun (2014), men are more likely than women to participate in sports such as soccer, tennis, and swimming. Men were more active than women in terms of moderate-intensity, vigorous-intensity, and overall LTPA practice. Walking was the sole activity reported by both men and women (Azevedo, Araujo, Reichert, Siqueira, da Silva, & Hallal, 2006).

Schroeder et al., (2012) discovered that women are now participating in LTPA. Other research (Martinez-Gonzalez, Varo, Santos, Irala, Gibney, Kearney, & Martinez, 2001; Martinez-Gonzalez, Varo, Santos, Irala, Gibney, Kearney, & Martinez, 2001) found no relationship between gender and LTPA. The previous study has highlighted the need for specifically developed programs with flexible delivery mechanisms in response to the issues of women's sedentary behavior. To help women modify their LTPA behaviors and prevent becoming a health risk, "interventions" such as pram walking, supervised exercises, and home-based fitness training is recommended (Marshall, Miller, Graves, Barnett, & Fjeldsoe, 2013).

### **Frequency, Duration, and Intensity of Leisure-time Physical Activities**

The type and quality of LTPA could have a big impact on whether or not it achieves its goal (Diggs, 2008). When developing a good LTPA, however, the intensity, frequency, and duration of the activity should all be taken into account. Intensity, frequency, and duration are quantitative variables that describe the amount of physical activity that occurs during a certain period (Kim, Kim, & Thapa, 2021). The number of times an action occurs in a certain time frame is referred to as frequency (e.g., one day, one week, one year). While duration refers to how long the physical activity lasts. This can range from very short bursts of energy to several hours of continuous activity. Finally, the rate at which an activity expends energy is referred to as intensity. The higher the metabolic cost per unit of time, the more intensive the activity (Kim, Kim, & Thapa, 2021). From one moment to the next, the amount of activity may fluctuate. The Metabolic Equivalent Task (MET) is a multiple of a person's resting energy expenditure that can be used to determine the intensity of activity (Kuykendall, Tay & Ng, 2015).

LTPA is a multidimensional phenomenon with intensity, frequency, duration, and volume, therefore a single-dimensional study cannot fully explain the relationship (Falck, McDonald, Beets, Brazendale & Liu-Ambrose, 2016). These LTPA components could predict distinct signals of well-being or the participants' status, especially when individuals choose rigorous activities on their own rather than those forced by others (Sylvester, Mack, Busseri, Wilson, & Beauchamp, 2012). As a result, LTPA intensity levels (moderate or strong) should be considered key elements (Kuykendall, Tay & Ng, 2015; Kim, Kim, & Thapa, 2021).

Men had a larger frequency, longer duration, and overlong time of vigorous physical activities (VPA), whereas women had a lower frequency, shorter duration, and moderate amount of MPA (Wang, et al., 2019). Men were more active than their female counterparts in terms of moderate-intensity, vigorous-intensity, and overall leisure-time physical activity (Chigbu et al. 2020). In addition, at least once a week, individuals reported engaging in LTPA (Chigbu et al. 2020).

In this regard, some organizations have published LTPA suggestions. The World Health Organization (WHO) recommends that older people engage in 75 minutes of vigorous physical activity (VPA) or 150 minutes of moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MPA) or an equivalent mix of moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA) per week (WHO, 2010). The American Heart Association also recommends that the elderly spend at least 30 minutes on MPA five days a week and at least 20 minutes on VPA three days a week, according to the American Heart Association (Elsawy & Higgins, 2010). According to Chigbu, Berger, Aniebue, and Parhofer's (2020) study, only 6.45% of the population reported doing outdoor leisure-time physical exercise at least once a week.

Also, Rogers, Markwell, Courneya, McAuley, and Verhulst (2011), reported that people are either unable or unwilling to adopt the proper frequency, intensity, and duration of physical activity as a whole, but the measure of whether they are more or less effective depends on the specific component of physical activity being measured. Specifically, 62 percent of the population met the recommended frequency of physical exercise (every other day). However, when the necessary time (30+ minutes) and frequency were

coupled, the figure fell to 49 percent of the population. When the necessary intensity (50 percent or greater of age-specific ability) was added to the other two components, 11% of the population met the three-part requirement. Only two-thirds of adults globally achieve the minimum level of health-improving LTPA, (Hallal, Andersen, Bull, Guthold, Haskell, and Ekelund, 2012).

Other studies looked at LTPA in terms of intensity, duration, and frequency, and came up with more complicated results: some found that people who did vigorous/moderate physical activity (Schuch, et al., 2016; Chi, Wang, & Tsai, 2016) or LTPA with higher frequency (Wang, Ma, Wang & Yi, 2018; Kanamori, et al., 2018) had a less chance of any health problem. Nonetheless, others have reported that LTPA rather than vigorous physical activity/moderate physical activity (Jung, et al., 2018; Buman, et al., 2010), lower frequency (1–2 times/week) (Bishwajit, et al., 2017), or LTPA with a smaller volume than recommended (Mammen & Faulkner, 2013; Wen, et al., 2011) was protective. According to Dobbins, Husson, DeCorby, and LaRocca (2013), the magnitude of an activity's impact on chronic diseases is influenced by its intensity and frequency. Light and moderate activity, for example, has been linked to a lower risk of coronary heart disease and all-cause death.

### **Motivation for Leisure-time Physical Activities**

Understanding leisure motives, according to Manfredi, Driver, and Tarrant (1996), is the key to understanding why people participate in recreational activities. Argyle (1997), on the other hand, observed that many people are either hesitant or unable to communicate their motivations. Furthermore, leisure comes in a variety of forms, with different desires

stimulating different leisure activities. Individual motives for first leisure engagement may fluctuate or be reliant on characteristics such as age (Piper, 1994), gender (Passmore and French, 2001), and perceived ability (James, 2001), according to research mentioned in Fawcett (2007). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are two types of motivation.

### *Intrinsic Motivation*

There is considerable agreement in the leisure literature that most leisure activities are intrinsically driven (Iso-Ahola, 1999). "The intrinsic energy that people display when they pursue a goal or an activity because it is intriguing or exciting," says Intrinsic Motivation (Koestner and Losier, 2002, p 101). Intrinsic motivation can take numerous forms, including escape, relaxation, and spending time with friends (Iso-Ahola, 1980). Curiosity, a desire to succeed, and competent development are examples of intrinsic motivation (Koestner and Losier, 2002). The activity must be freely decided and result in emotions of competence for the participants for leisure to become intrinsically driven (Iso-Ahola, 1980).

### *Extrinsic Motivation*

Extrinsic motivation is described as activities that are undertaken for reasons other than the enjoyment of the activity. As a result, rather than being an end in itself, it is a means to a goal. Extrinsic motivation is defined as a desire to engage in an activity or endeavor as a result of influences beyond one's control (Reiss, 2012). Individuals who engage in extrinsically motivated

leisure activities are more likely to receive social and financial benefits (Chen & Pang, 2012).

According to Alayode, Babalola, and Oyeseun, people engage in leisure-time physical activity for a variety of reasons (2014). This is consistent with Zambri et al., (2013)'s findings, which demonstrated a connection between motivation and physical activity participation. For a variety of reasons, people are compelled to be physically active in their spare time. Motivation is one of the most important of these characteristics since it affects physical activity participation and, more importantly, the desire to continue participating (Aaltonen, Leskinen, Morris, Alen, Kaprio, Liukkonen, & Kujala, 2012). As a result, motivation is defined as the driving factor behind, directing, and maintaining conduct (Petri, 1981). LTPA is one of many studies that have looked into many types of physical exercise motivation. In a study conducted in the United States, Ryan, Frederick, Leps, Rubio, and Sheldon (1997) revealed five reasons for physical exercise participation: enjoyment, competence/challenge, beauty, fitness, and social. Status, relaxation, intellectual, social, competition/achievement, health/fitness, and competition/achievement were recognized as the six main motives for recreational sports involvement in Greece by Alexandris and Carroll (1997b). The list was topped by health and fitness. "All of the groups, regardless of their gender or age, said that they expected health advantages from their sports engagement," they found (p. 135).

According to Aaltonen, Leskinen, Morris, Alen, Kaprio, Liukkonen, and Kujala (2012), enjoyment was a primary motivator for leisure-time physical activity, but there was no difference between active and inactive

twins. Similar findings have been reported by Dong, Yang, Lu, Gao, An, and Zhang, (2011), as they suggested that the Chinese are mostly motivated by enjoyment and health for LTPA, these were followed by competence for males and appearance for females. Iannotti, Chen, Kololo, Petronyte, Haug, and Roberts, (2012) also supported the findings of previous studies, where they identified a variety of motives as potential influences on LTPA including weight control, enjoyment, and personal well-being. Chen, Wang, Rong, Pan, and Bao (2013), on the other hand, recommended perseverance as an essential motivating factor for LTPA participation. In their studies, Sit, Kerr, and Wong (2008), and Yu (2011) found empirical evidence for this hypothesis, and they also recognized perseverance as one of their primary motives for LTPA.

According to empirical studies, some of the major motivators for LTPA involvement are health (Iannotti, et. al., 2012), improved psychological state (Aaltonen, et. al., 2012), appearance (Chen, Wang, Rong, Pan, & Bao, 2013), and body image (Brudzynski & Ebben, 2010). Iannotti, Chen, Kololo, Petronyte, Haug, and Roberts, (2012) assume health motivation to be a primary motivation for health behaviors such as LTPA. However, it was revealed in the same study that health motivation was inconsistently related to adolescence, where it was reported that Eastern Europeans are less likely to endorse health motivation but was positively related to Western European adolescence and their LTPA participation. They concluded that there does not appear to be a uniform incentive for PA. They meant that the impacts of various incentives are affected by geographic region, gender, and age. Liu and Walker (2015) also found that the most important motivator was health or fitness, followed by fun and perseverance and that persons who valued the

perceived benefits of LTPA, such as increased health, had a higher chance to engage in it. Similarly, Sukys, Cesnaiteine, Emeljaovas, Mieziene, Valantine & Ossowski, (2019) also supported the fact that health or fitness was the most important motivation for the majority of individuals to participate in LTPA, meanwhile, they reported a relatively new motivation that is a mood which was next most important motivation.

Individuals are autonomously motivated to participate in LTPA, according to certain other studies on the topic (Wang, 2017). He also claims that autonomous motivation influences MPVA time in a beneficial way. LTPA engagement has been linked to enjoyment, competence, intrinsic motivation, and autonomous control, according to various studies (e.g., Teixeira, Carraça, Markland, Silva, & Ryan, 2012). This is also true in the context of physical activities, where studies have demonstrated that having more autonomous regulating variables allows for better long-term adherence to LTPAs (Fortier et al. 2007).

According to Iannotti et al., (2012) motivation for LTPA is frequently examined from the viewpoints of gender and age. LTPA motivations differ depending on age and gender (McCarthy Jones Clark-Carter 2008). Men and women have radically different motives for participating in physical activity (Azevedo, Araujo, Reichert, Siqueira, da Silva, & Hallal, 2006). For men, the most important LTPA motives are strength, competitiveness, and enjoyment (Patay, Patton, Parker, Fahey, & Sinclair, 2015); for women, the most important LTPA motives are weight control, appearance, and stress management (Patay, Patton, Parker, Fahey, & Sinclair, 2015). (Molanorouzi, Khoo, & Morris, 2015). Almost half of the men cited pleasure as a motive,



compared to only a quarter of women. Women were more likely than men to say "because a physician advised me to engage in physical activity" (Azevedo, Araujo, Reichert, Siqueira, da Silva, & Hallal, 2006).

For age, it is fairly well established that LTPA decreases with age (Dumeth, Gigante, Domingues, Kohl, 2011). The youth, for example, participate in LTPA for therapeutic reasons as well as physical activity (Doegah & Amoateng, 2019) and excellent health (Hallal et al., 2012). However, studies have shown that older adults who participate in leisure activities maintain or improve their cognitive abilities (Ferreira, Owen, Mohan, Corbett, & Ballard, 2015; Wang et al., 2013), social health (Adams, Leibbrandt, & Moon, 2011; Toepoel, 2013), emotional well-being (Lee et al., 2012), and life satisfaction (Adams, Leibbrandt, & Moon, 2011). (Chmelo, Nicklas, Davis, Miller, Legault, & Messier, 2013). As is positively connected to long-term LTPA practice (Deci & Ryan, 1980), motivation is a crucial predictor of participation in LTPA practices (Downs, Savage, & DiNallo, 2013).

### **Constraints to Leisure-time Physical Activities**

Despite the well-known advantages of LTPA, a huge number of people are physically inactive (Kessler, Sisson, & Short 2012) because these people are constrained in one way or another. Leisure constraints are the circumstances that make it difficult or impossible for people to engage in leisure activities (Schneider, 2016). Leisure constraints, once again, are elements that hinder the development of people's leisure preferences and/or prevent or obstruct leisure participation (Higham, & Hinch, 2010). The

relationship between this idea and other theoretically relevant categories including negotiation, motivation, and self-efficacy have been thoroughly investigated (e.g., Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007; Son, Mowen, & Kerstetter, 2008). "Approaching a base of over 40 years of research, the leisure constraints research path is well-traveled," Schneider (2016) said of the state of constraints research (p. 159). As a result, leisure limitations research plays a significant role in leisure studies. Tourism limitations, according to Chen, Chen, and Okumus (2013), are more resource-intensive (e.g., cost, time). Leisure constraints have been considered from a variety of approaches (e.g., Scott, 2005).

Furthermore, the discussion of people's backgrounds has included constraint research. Race, ethnicity, culture, religion, age, gender, and financial level have all been linked to leisure limits in some research (e.g., Shaw 1999; Shinew, Floyd, and Parry 2004; Arab-Moghaddam, Henderson, & Sheikholeslami 2007). Shinew, Floyd, and Parry (2004) go on to say that an individual's age, ethnicity, and financial level can all influence what constitutes a constraint. As a result, restrictions on leisure involvement pervade all aspects of society, including the most 'privileged' socioeconomic groups (Adam, 2014).

Additionally, the factors that impede LTPA participation vary depending on the amount of LTPA and socioeconomic class (WHO, 2010). People in vulnerable social groups and those in locations with higher family incomes have different perceptions of external constraints than those in areas with lower family incomes, as shown by access to facilities ((Lee, et. at.,

2012; Cerin & Leslie, 2008). When individual income is considered, the same issue arises (McNeill, Kreuter, & Subramanian, 2006).

Crawford and Godbey (1987) identify three categories of constraints, that is, intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints. According to Godbey, Crawford, and Shen (2010) and Crawford & Godbey (2012), intrapersonal constraints are individual psychological moods and attributes or qualities (e.g., perceived competence, personality traits) that influence the formation of leisure preferences (1987). The interpersonal constraint has to do with social isolation (for example, a lack of companions) and other circumstances that inhibit leisure preferences and involvement. Structural constraints are external environmental conditions that include issues with resource availability (e.g., a lack of time, money, or facilities) that prevent developed leisure preferences from becoming actual leisure involvement. Godbey et al. (2010) proposed three categories of restrictions, namely personal, interpersonal, and structural, which were corroborated by Davras, Caber, and Crawford (2019).

According to Crawford and Godbey, (1987), people are more constrained by intrapersonal constraints. According to Kinuthia (2018), respondents were more constrained by issues related to skills and competence than interpersonal relations structural constraints. A slight reduction in intrapersonal restrictions could give enormous incentive, allowing clients to negotiate higher quantities of structural constraints and therefore enhancing participation. Other research studies (Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007; Shifman, Moss, D'Andrade, Eichel, & Forrester, 2012) have found that intrapersonal constraints are felt firsthand, with structural constraints being the

furthest away (Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007). Intrapersonal and structural constraints are the main determinants, according to Ridinger, Funk, Jordan, and Kaplanidou (2012). Also, participants most typically express intrapersonal constraints, followed by interpersonal and structural constraints, (Palen, et al., 2010). Similarly, Rowinski, et al., (2017), found intrapersonal constraints as the most frequent constraint toward leisure participation.

The findings of the aforementioned investigations, on the other hand, contradicted those of multiple previous studies. Anaza and McDowell (2013), Marwat, Zia-ul-Islam, & Khattak (2016), and Stensland, Aas, & Mehmetoglu (2017), for example, found structural limitations to be the most prevalent, followed by intrapersonal, and finally interpersonal constraints. Structure constraints are the most influential, according to Kara & Demirci (2010), Cai (2015), Wood & Danylchuk (2015), and Alahmad (2016), whereas interpersonal and intrapersonal constraints are the least influential. Several studies in the West have looked into the barriers to LTPA, with structural constraints being identified as the most significant (e.g., Brown, Brown, Miller, & Hansen, 2001).

Other studies came to the same conclusion. Yu (2011) revealed that structural constraints, followed by intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints, had the greatest impact on rural residents' LTPA. Distance to facilities/venues and time restrictions (both structural constraints) were important drivers of LTPA in China, according to Chen (2012). Sukys, Cesnaiteine, Emeljaovas, Mieziene, Valentine & Ossowski, 2019) found that external (structural) constraints were negative predictors of LTPA. These findings are consistent with Walker's (2015) findings, which found that structural restrictions came

first, followed by interpersonal constraints. In addition, Wood and Danylchuk (2015) and Alahmad (2016) discovered that intrapersonal constraints were the least restrictive, contrary to what other researchers such as Crawford & Godbey (1987) and Kinuthia, (2018) found.

Several academics looked at the subject of constraint from a different perspective than Crawford and Godbey (1987), which was supported or agreed by Godbey, Crawford, and Shen, respectively (2010). Time, transportation, safety, cost, a lack of skills, a sense of being in the minority, weariness, and family obligations are all issues that can influence LTPA participation (Miller & Brown, 2005; Son, Mowen, & Kerstetter, 2008). Low self-esteem, fear of being evaluated by others, lack of skills, lack of interest or desire for LTPA, and negative peer pressure are all factors for insufficient LTPA, according to Yungblut, Schinke, and McGannon (2012). Other studies have found that the most common constraints to being physically active are a lack of time (Casper, Harrolle, Palacios, 2011; El-Gilany, Badawi, El-Khawaga, & Awadalla, 2011; Patay, Patton, Parker, Fahey, & Sinclair, 2015), a lack of pleasure, boredom, fear of getting hurt (Edmunds, Hurst, & Harvey, 2013), (Sousa, Fonseca, & Barbosa, 2013). Other cited constraints include a lack of understanding about LTPA and access to it, as well as inadequate facility selection (Patay et al., 2015) and inclement weather (Das & Petruzzello, 2016; Patay et al., 2015). The most often claimed constraints to LTPA, according to Aaltonen, et al (2012), were pain, health problems or sickness, and time.

After analyzing two decades of research on constraints, Godbey, Crawford, and Shen (2010) realized that the kind or type of constraint varies relative to the activity, and the level of participation. People who engage in

high-intensity activities, such as running, are more likely to face limits than those who engage in moderate-intensity activities, such as strolling. However, it has been suggested that perceived limits may influence future characteristics of involvement such as loyalty, dedication, and specialism, rather than just non-participation (Alexandris, Funk, & Pritchard, 2011; Lyu & Oh, 2014). The previous study demonstrates that different forms of constraints may have an impact on people at different phases of leisure involvement (Balaska, Alexandris, Kouthouris, & Polatidou, 2012; Son, Mowen, & Kerstetter, 2008).

Gender and age can alter determinants associated with physical activity, such as perceived restrictions, according to research (Balaska & Kouthouris 2014; Hoden, 2010). Interpersonal constraints, for example, are observed to be more intense in younger and older respondents than in middle-aged respondents (Jackson, 1993). Intrapersonal constraints connected to health concerns are identified as important constraints among older persons by Cousins (2000) and McGuire and Norman (2005). Participants aged 18 to 25 years old face at least one constraint from each of the three kinds of constraints (Ehsani (2002). According to Alexandris and Carroll (1997), intrapersonal constraint rises with age. Tekin (2011) found personal issues to be the greatest restricting factor when analyzing girls aged 18-24 years. Structured constraints increased with age, (Wang, et al., 2005, Shores, et al., 2007). Alahmad (2016), found a statistically significant variation in constraints based on age groupings. However, according to Kinuthia (2018) and Jackson (1993), there is no statistically significant variation in constraints among age groups.

The leisure constraints of men and women have also been contrasted. Women, according to Hoden (2010), face more intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints than men. Men encountered fewer hurdles to leisure than women in terms of household commitments, life expectations, cost, working hours, and perception of opportunity, among other characteristics, according to a survey of Turkish college male and female students (Demir, 2005). According to Alexandris and Carroll (1997) and Shaw & Henderson (2005), gender has a significant impact on structural constraints. They reported that women encounter more structural constraints than men because men commit more resources to these tasks. Males are also less bound by structural constraints than females, (Gürbüz & Henderson 2014). Khan (2011) discovered that women are still more bound by family duties, which is an interpersonal constraint. Kinuthia (2018), on the other hand, discovered a substantial difference between male and female structural constraints. Female responders scored about the same as their male counterparts. Males and females see constraints in the same way (Rauso, 2016).

### **Constraint Negotiation Strategies of Leisure-time Physical Activities**

LTPA had been seen as one of the ways people can improve their well-being. However, people are always faced with challenges or constraints in their quest to participate in LTPA, but there are various ways for them to negotiate these constraints. The social cognitive theory gave rise to the fundamental assumption of negotiation (Schunk, 2012). People prefer to actively pick or alter situational and environmental settings based on their

prior knowledge and experiences, rather than passively accepting unpleasant circumstances (Mannell & Loucks-Atkinson, 2005).

Individuals' efforts to use behavioral or cognitive treatments to enable people to participate in leisure activities despite their limits are referred to as constraint negotiation (Sonja, Wilhelm Stanis, Schneider & Pereira, 2010). Behavioral solutions include looking for alternate leisure activities and changing non-leisure areas of one's lifestyle (Jackson & Rucks, 1995), as well as changes in time management, skill acquisition, financial management, and the creation and maintenance of personal relationships (Metcalf, Graefe, Trauntvein & Burns, 2015). Nonleisure behavioral techniques include rearranging work schedules and lowering other expenses. Leisure-related behavioral tactics entail direct adjustments in individuals' leisure routines, such as reduced participation frequency, the substitution of cheaper places, and changes in participation schedule. Leisure researchers, on the other hand, have generally overlooked cognitive strategies because behavioral aspects are commonly assumed to be the best way of dealing with constraints (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1993). Individuals combine these two methods, and their choice of negotiation tactics is primarily determined by the nature of the constraints they perceive (Jackson & Rucks, 1995). Those with interpersonal constraints, for example, are more likely to employ behavioral or cognitive strategies, or a combination of the two (Lyu & Oh, 2014). Constraint negotiation (Guo & Schneider, 2015) and leisure restrictions (Chick, Dong, Yeh, & Hsieh, 2020; Dong & Chick, 2012) differ among cultures.

As a result, constraint negotiation typologies created in the West thus behavioral and cognitive (Jackson, et al., 1993) may be unimaginable in other



cultures (Dong & Chick, 2012). As a result, recreationists who want to participate more frequently are more likely to use different negotiation methods than prospective participants. It could be because of previous experiences dealing with a variety of restraints during the first engagement (Lyu & Oh, 2014).

Time management, skill development, interpersonal relationship adjustment, financial improvement, physical rehabilitation, changes in leisure preferences, and others were recognized as subcategories of behavioral strategies by Jackson and Rucks (1995). Jackson and Rucks' list of behavioral negotiation strategies was streamlined by Hubbard and Mannell (2001) and Son, Mowen, & Kerstetter (2008) into four strategies: time management, skill acquisition, interpersonal coordination, and financial improvement. Although Hubbard and Mannell (2001) and Son et al. (2008) had reasonable alpha coefficients, neither study addressed cognitive approaches. Time management, skill acquisition, and financial resources have also been highlighted as prominent constraint negotiation methods employed by individuals to reduce the consequences of constraints in research (Elkins, Beggs & Choutka, 2007; Rintaugu, Mwangi & Bailasha, 2013).

Meanwhile, respondents were found to use monetary resources often as negotiating strategies to deal with LTPA constraints than skills acquisition, time management, and social skills strategies (Kinuthia, 2018). By referring to the conceptual overlap between cognitive negotiation techniques and stress-coping strategies. The responsibilities of cognitive negotiation strategies (problem- vs. emotion-focused strategies) were reiterated by Wilhelm Stanis, Schneider, & Russell (2009) They also recommended that cognitive

bargaining tactics be "added and elaborated upon in future studies. Howie & Pate, (2012) backed up this claim by stating that "the overwhelming majority of published articles find positive relationships between LTPA and cognition."

Despite constraints, continued leisure involvement is linked to a person's desire to get the rewards of their activity (Stebbins, 2015). As a result, participants regard limits as minimal in comparison to the rewards they derive from their activity (Stebbins, 2015). Stronger motives, according to Stodolska, Shinew, and Camarillo (2020), resulted in enhanced bargaining efforts. "Both the commencement and outcome of the negotiation process are dependent on the relative intensity of, and interactions between, constraints to participating in an activity and motives for such engagement," Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (1993) wrote in their hierarchical constraint model (p. 9). Chung, Liu, and Chen (2013) investigated and tentatively confirmed this "balanced" proposition, finding that involvement in recreational sports was inversely connected with constraint but favorably correlated with motivation. Even though prevailing constraints can influence leisure participation, (Jackson and Rucks, 1995) leisure seekers are also highly motivated people who employ a variety of cognitive and behavioral skills to comprehend and actively control boundaries to stay engaged (Kennelly, Moyle & Lamont, 2013). Motivation overcomes constraints through encouraging negotiating techniques, which positively impact participation. Motivation cannot be overlooked in the process of the negotiation process (Schneider, 2016).

## Theoretical Underpinnings

Two theories have been used to support this study. These are the self-determination theory and the hierarchical leisure constraint model. These theories have been used by many researchers to study motivation and constraint respectively. By using these theories, the main variables of the study can be appreciated since just one cannot study the variables involved in this study.

### *Self-determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000, 2008)*

The self-determination theory (SDT) was developed by Deci and Ryan (1985) and has been utilized in previous research to try to explain what motivates people to engage in leisure activities (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). Self-determination theory (SDT) is an experimentally grounded theory that distinguishes between autonomous and controlled motivation in social situations (Deci & Ryan, 2012). It examines whether people truly engage in actions with a full sense of choice, which is relevant to leisure. The social environment can either support or hinder a person's desire for growth, development, and a clear sense of self through meeting basic human needs. People's general well-being and psychological health can suffer if their desires are not realized or thwarted. In terms of forecasting LTPA and creating LTPA therapeutics, SDT has a lot of scientific interest and support. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are distinguished by SDT. It is founded on the organismic philosophy, which assumes that humans are active creatures with a desire to acquire and integrate information and talents in both their physical and social settings.

It is concerned with the reasons that drive people's decisions, regardless of whether they are affected or not. The focus of SDT is on how self-motivated and self-determined an individual's conduct is (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Many academics have used this idea to try to explain what motivates people to engage in LTPA, which was the goal of Deci and Ryan's study. They believe motivation happens when basic psychological requirements are addressed (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). This idea can be characterized as a spectrum of self-determination motivation that varies qualitatively depending on how external rules of behavior are internalized (Leal, Miranda & Carmo, 2012). SDT helps differentiate between intrinsic motivation (where individuals engage in LTPA because of internal motivation) and extrinsic motivation (which talks about where an individual's participation in LTPA is as a result of external reward or outcomes associated with the phenomenon). Meanwhile, people are extrinsically motivated for the associated external rewards, not the activity necessarily. Deci and Ryan (1985, 2000) state that motivation emerges when basic psychological requirements are met to promote well-being and health. Autonomy (the ability to make choices), competence (the ability to master skills), and relatedness (the ability to form meaningful connections) are all basic psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000).

The urge to engage in behaviors that provide one a sense of choice or personal approbation is referred to as autonomy. The desire to be optimally challenged and capable of achieving goals and desired outcomes is characterized as competence. And, the desire to be connected to and accepted by others is referred to as relatedness (e.g., parents, peers, and siblings) (Yli-

Piipari, Layne, Hinson, & Irwin, 2018). Individual psychological needs are interconnected and often act as a whole, although representing various components of motivation (Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002). Individuals are more likely to pick situations, activities, and relationships that help them meet these demands (Levesque et al., 2004). These are viewed as universal wants that are natural, not taught, and can be found in people of all ages, genders, and cultures. However, at various times, some may be more important than others (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Researchers have used this idea to investigate the link between LTPA and self-determination theory in their research. Edmunds, Ntoumanis, and Duda (2008), Teixeira, Carraca, Markland, Silva, & Ryan (2012), and Lauderdale, Yli-Piipari, Irwin, & Layne (2012) are notable examples.

Many types of research have yielded conflicting results when it comes to whether a person's level of autonomy, competence, and relatedness encourages physical activity involvement. In the case of LTPA and SDT, the findings support a beneficial link between more autonomous motivation and exercise (Teixeira, Carraca, Markland, Silva, & Ryan, 2012). "There were no significant differences between individuals who did and did not achieve CDC recommendations," according to another study (McDaniel, 2012, p. 1). Lauderdale, Yli-Piipari, Irwin, & Layne (2015) confirmed that males are intrinsically motivated in comparison to females in their research. Other research (Standage, Duda, & Ntoumanis, 2003; McDonough & Crocker, 2007; Chen & Hypnar, 2015) has found that meeting all three psychological demands has a favorable impact on autonomous motivation in physical activities.

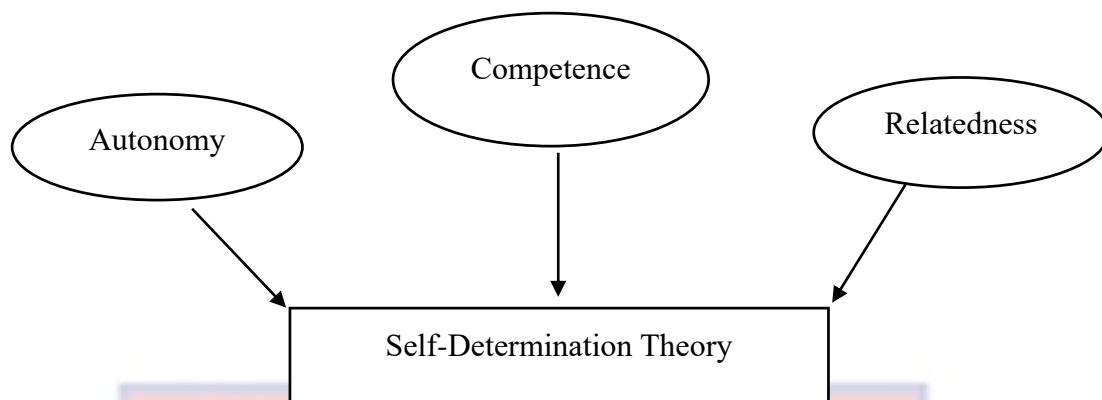


Figure 1: Self-Determination Theory,  
Source: Deci & Ryan (1985)

### *The Hierarchical Leisure Constraints Model*

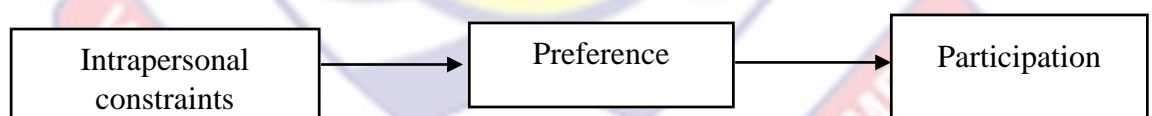
One of the theories underpinning this research is the hierarchical leisure constraints model (Crawford and Godbey, 1987; Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991; Godbey, Crawford, & Shen, 2010). Crawford and Godbey (1987) initially created the model to give an in-depth description of how constraints in leisure activity participation occur. As a result, three types of constraints are given intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural.

Crawford et. al. (1991) on the other hand, have critiqued the first iteration of the model. They discovered that the model had flaws in terms of depicting the process that the restrictions are pursuing, as well as the linkages between them. In the revised version, which is referred to as the hierarchical model of leisure constraints, the notional three-dimensional model received a hierarchical structure. People are advised to overcome each constraint one at a time to progress to the next level of the process in the hierarchical model. People should begin by removing intrapersonal constraints before moving on to interpersonal and structural constraints if they want to participate in a leisure activity. What then it means is, that if the structural constraints are not

able to be overcome, it may result in non-participation (Davras, Caber & Crawford, 2019).

Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) formulated three assertions concerning the nature, operation, and sources of constraints based on this alternative framework, in which leisure participants are considered as having successfully met a sequential or hierarchical succession of constraint levels. They claimed that constraints are confronted hierarchically in terms of leisure participation and nonparticipation, beginning at the intrapersonal level (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991).

Intrapersonal constraints (psychological and sociological conditions such as a lack of skills, competence, or feelings of social inappropriateness) that inhibit rather than intervene between preferences and participation in leisure activities confront individuals seeking to engage in leisure activities (Adam et. al., 2014). Intrapersonal constraints include stress, melancholy, religiosity, kin and non-kin reference group attitudes, prior socialization into specific leisure activities, and perceived self-skill (Crawford & Godbey 1987).



*Figure 2: Intrapersonal Constraints.*  
Source: Crawford & Godbey (1987).

Individuals that can overcome intrapersonal constraints will be confronted with interpersonal constraints (peer pressure, cultural and social norms, values, and expectations) (Adam et. al., 2014). Interpersonal constraints are the outcome of interpersonal interactions or the relationship between the qualities of individuals. If a person is unable to find an

appropriate partner with whom to participate in a specific activity, he or she may face an interpersonal leisure barrier. Barriers of this nature may interact with both a predisposition for companionate leisure activities and subsequent involvement in them.

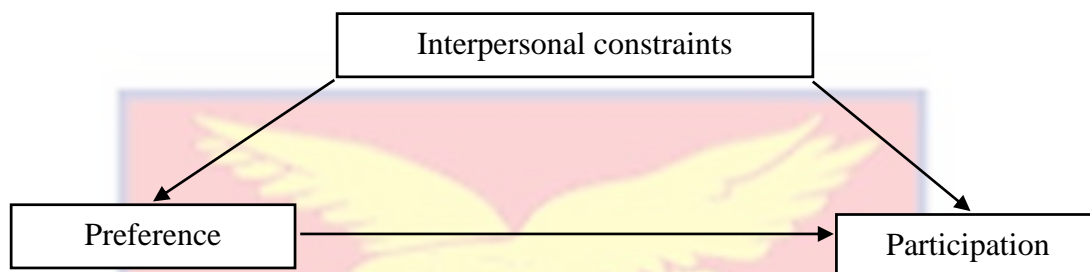


Figure 3: Interpersonal Constraints  
Source: Crawford & Godbey (1987)

Finally, structural constraints are defined as intervening elements between leisure preference and participation, as they are typically understood (Crawford & Godbey 1987). There are also structural constraints, which have a greater impact on an individual's ability to engage in leisure activities and act as a bridge between intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints. Lack of facilities, time, money, and transportation, among other things, are structural constraints that obstruct the individual's leisure preferences from becoming genuine leisure participation (Adam et. at., 2014).

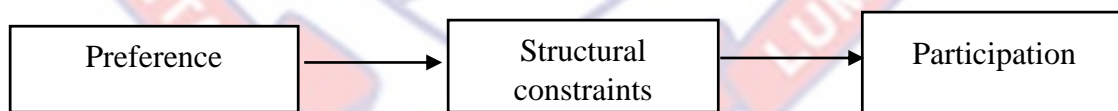


Figure 4: Structural Constraint (Adapted from  
Source: Crawford & Godbey (1987)

When intrapersonal restraints of the type outlined above are absent or their effects have been challenged through a combination of privilege and exercise of the human will, it is argued that leisure preferences are formed.



The individual may then confront interpersonal constraints, depending on the type of activity; this may occur in activities that need at least one partner or coparticipant, but is less relevant in solo leisure pursuits. Structural restrictions occur only after this type of constraint has been addressed. Participation will result in the removal of structural constraints, or the negotiation of their removal. However, if structural constraints are severe enough, the result will be nonparticipation (Rocchi, Robichaud Lapointe, Gainforth, Chemtob, Arbour-Nicitopoulos, Kairy, & Sweet, 2020).

Leisure constraints and negotiation methods are two intertwined notions that have sparked decades of research (Godbey, Crawford, & Shen, 2010). Leisure participation is highly reliant on the ability to deal with a variety of constraints (Ocal, 2014). Hubbard and Mannell (2001) investigated four alternative models to examine the link between constraints, constraints negotiation, and leisure-time physical activity. The latter hypothesis, which has been supported by multiple studies (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Son, Mowen, & Kerstetter, 2008), proposes that when faced with constraints, individuals can adjust their actions to preserve their involvement in leisure activity through negotiation. As a result, believing in one's ability to overcome constraints can help cope with constraints associated with LTPA planning, organizing, and participation. According to Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) and Godbey, Crawford, and Shen (2010), participants are primarily challenged by these hierarchy restrictions, which will affect or result in nonparticipation if not addressed. As a result, this research will apply this theory to assess the constraints that international tourists face when engaging in leisure-time physical activities.

## Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework was constructed by the researcher, and it was informed by the literature that was reviewed and the two theories underpinning the study. That is the hierarchical leisure constraints model and the self-determination theory. The framework comprises antecedents to participation (personality and motivation), LTPA preference, constraints (which prevent people from participating or moderating between LTPA preference and behavior), constraint negotiation strategies (which lessens the effect of constraint), and eventually behavior.

### *Antecedents of Participation*

Antecedents are all those influences that shape interest in, demand for, choices, and actual participation. For this study, the antecedent of participation was grouped into two main dimensions. These are personality (socio-demographic characteristics of participants) and motivation, comprising of health benefits, recreation, fun and relaxation, autonomy, competence mastery, and relatedness. These variables push and or drive an individual to make a decision or choice (LTPA preference) to participate in leisure-time physical activities. According to the SDT by Deci & Ryan (1985), motivation occurs when the needs are met. Therefore, for an individual to make a choice, there should be motivation.

### *Personality*

The psychological components that underpin human behavior are personality, values, and lifestyle preferences. Individuals will have a proclivity for specific behaviors as a result of these circumstances, but this does not guarantee that they would act on them, or act consistently. Depending on the individual's personality traits, personality can influence LTPA motivation, LTPA participation, and LTPA constraint.

### *LTPA Motivation*

Motivation can occur based on the psychological needs of the individual, the health benefits associated with the activities, and the socio-demographics of the individual. Motivation then influences an individual on his or her LTPA participation. LTPA participation includes the activities engaged, the frequency at which the activities are been engaged, and the duration and the intensity of the activity. Again, motivation may influence the constraint negotiation strategies that may be adopted by the individual in a situation the individual encounter a constraint before his or her LTPA participation. Further, it is assumed that highly driven individuals will make larger efforts to negotiate their leisure limitations, whilst those with lesser desires will make little or no effort to negotiate their constraints (White, 2008). Specific domains of motivation will, indeed, have a significant impact on specific domains of negotiation methods. The type of incentive for which a person engages in leisure activities will lead to participation in particular bargaining methods over others (Adam, 2017).

### *LTPA Participation*

LTPA participation is the end product of this model. Participation is measured based on the type of LTPA, frequency, duration, and intensity of participation. These are been influenced, usually by the motives for participation and the constraint negotiation strategies. Constraint negotiation strategies, usually lessen the consequences of the constraints encountered.

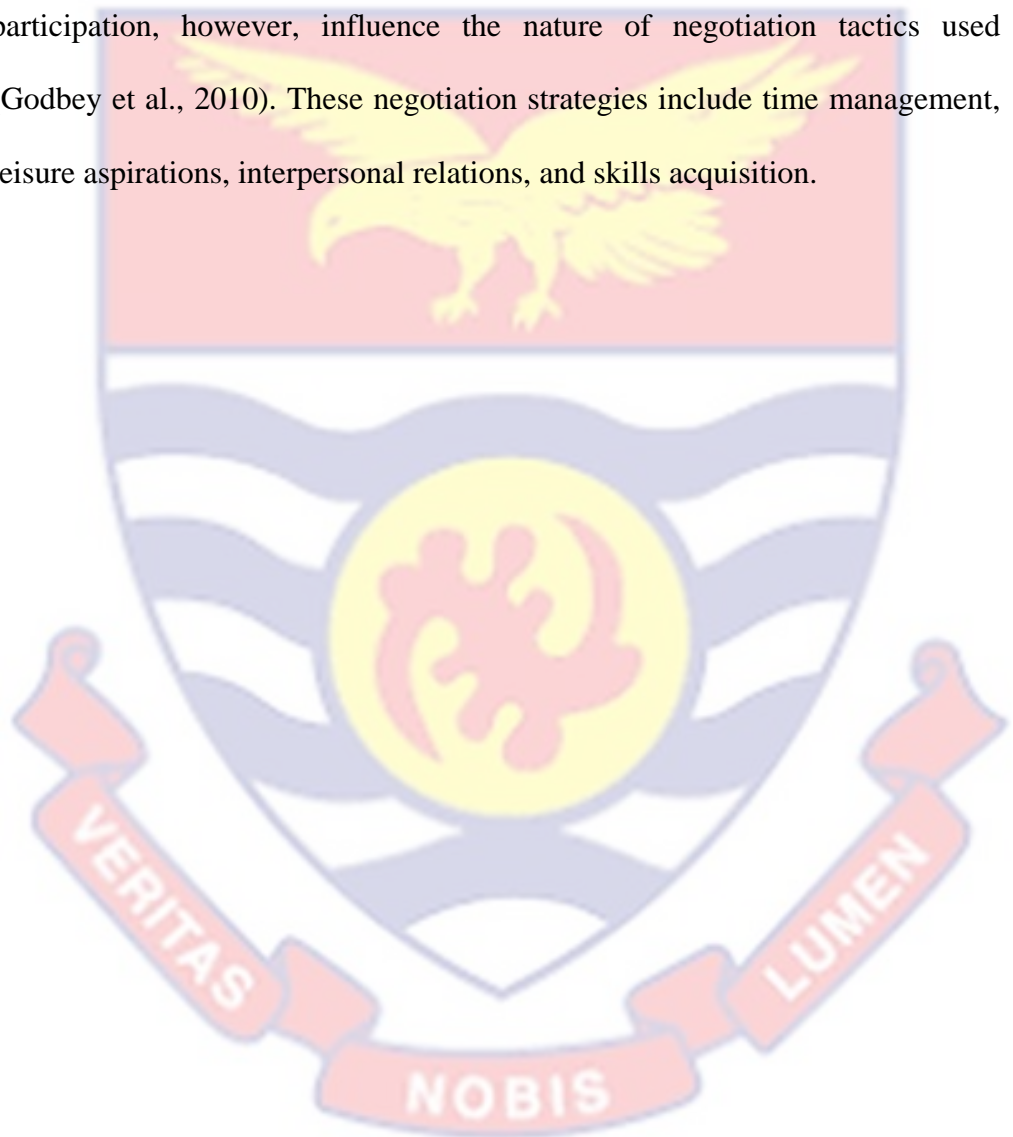
### *LTPA Constraints*

These are the factors that can and/or may prevent an individual from participating in leisure-time physical activities. According to the hierarchical leisure constraint model by Godbey, Crawford, & Shen, (2010), constraints include intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural. Constraints usually occur between motivation or preference and participation. Constraint in this model act as a moderating variable, moderating between LTPA motivation and LTPA participation. As have indicated personality traits, such as age, gender, income level, and family size, sometimes influence constraints. Moreover, these constraints would be the dependent variable for constraint negotiation strategies.

### *Constraint Negotiation Strategies (CNS)*

These are strategies or measures that an individual will adapt to be able to lessen the effect of constraints, if not eliminate them. Therefore, constraints lead to constraint negotiation strategies and motivation also leads to constraint negotiation strategies. Negotiations become necessary when the reason for

participation is much more important and when the constraints can be dealt with easily. Individuals who perceive their constraint(s) to be herculean will devote more negotiation effort to overcome them, whereas those who perceive their constraint(s) to be marginal would devote less effort to negotiating them (Godbey et al., 2010). The sort of constraint encountered and the reason for participation, however, influence the nature of negotiation tactics used (Godbey et al., 2010). These negotiation strategies include time management, leisure aspirations, interpersonal relations, and skills acquisition.



Antecedents to participation

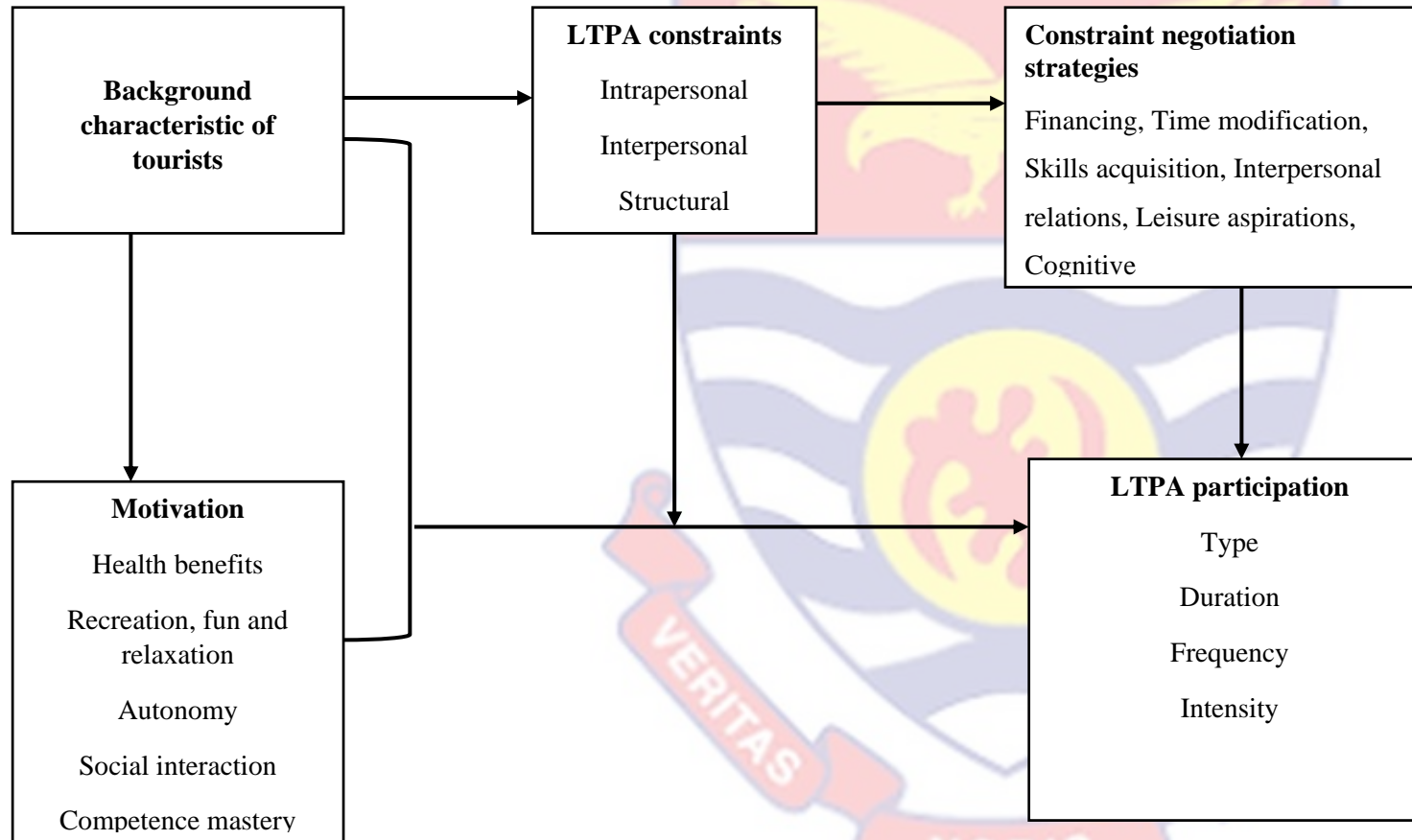


Figure 5: Conceptual Framework for Leisure-Time Physical Activities Participation

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### Introduction

The research methodology used in the study is discussed in this chapter. The study area's description and justification, the research philosophy, and design, and the data sources are among the specific topics covered. The target population and sample size, as well as the sampling procedure, research instruments, pre-testing of research instrumentation, fieldwork, data collection procedure, ethical considerations, and data analysis and presentation methods, are all covered.

#### Research Philosophy or Paradigm

In scientific research, there are two major research philosophies, these are the positivist and interpretive philosophies. Positivist philosophy is a mixture of empiricism and rationalism that deals with a hypothesis in an objective manner (Bhattacharjee, 2012). The study adopted the positivist paradigm or philosophy. The positivist philosophy is of the view that reality can be studied objectively without biases and is stable (Levin, 1988). The study used a quantitative approach to data collection and analysis as a result of this. It is used in various ways such as in natural and social sciences, including physics, biology, psychology, and sociology (Dayour, 2013).

Its benefits include reliable results that can be statistically constrained and the ability to conduct relevant statistical comparisons across different groups. It also aids researchers in generating study findings once they have

been reproduced in numerous demographics and sub-groups (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The research was not epistemologically dependent, making it value-free and neutral. As a result, quantitative measurements and analyses of respondents' motivation for LTPA, constraints to LTPA, constraints negotiation techniques for LTPA, and the test for differences across variables were conducted.

### **Research Design**

The research design for the study was a cross-sectional design. According to Creswell (2014), this type of design enables the researcher to study current beliefs, practices, and attitudes at a given point in time. The findings from a cross-sectional study easily provide a snapshot of the prevailing problem. This type of design involves just a contact with the study population and is relatively cheap to undertake (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005). This design is suitable for the study because it enabled the researcher to conduct one-time research on leisure-time physical activity among international tourists in the Cape Coast-Elmina area without future follow-ups. The study was aimed at understanding the current state of international tourists' and their motivations and constraints for leisure-time physical activities, hence is no need for future follow-ups.



## Study Area

For this study, Cape Coast and Elmina were chosen as the study setting where respondents were sought for. Elmina is part of the Komenda Edina Eguafo Abrem (KEEA) District, and it is about 6km west of Cape Coast. Cape Coast is also located in the Cape Coast Metropolis. These two towns are both situated along the coastline and are largely inhabited by the Fante ethnic group, with their dominant economic activities as fishing and trading (Dayour, 2013). Sunny weather coupled with high humidity drives a lot of tourists toward the beaches in these areas. These towns are the most well-known tourist attractions in the area, and they have made significant contributions to tourism in the Central Region, as the region is regarded as the country's tourism center (Adu-Ampong, 2017). Geographically, the two towns can be classified as a 'conurbation' because they have steadily merged in terms of settlement and development (Dayour, 2013).

For a variety of reasons, there is a need to research into LTPA of tourists visiting the area. Firstly, Cape Coast-Elmina is one of Ghana's oldest historic tourist destinations, with a well-preserved heritage monument that is listed on the UNESCO World Heritage List. Secondly, the number of domestic and international tourists visiting the area has been steadily increasing. According to the Ghana Tourism Authority, the Central Region is the first in terms of the number of attractions and tourist arrivals, with Cape Coast having the largest number of tourists in 2017, with 74,988 visitors, including 35,088 international visitors (Ghana Business News, 2019). The areas tend to be the most visited destinations in Ghana receiving tourists from different countries (Newitt, 2005).

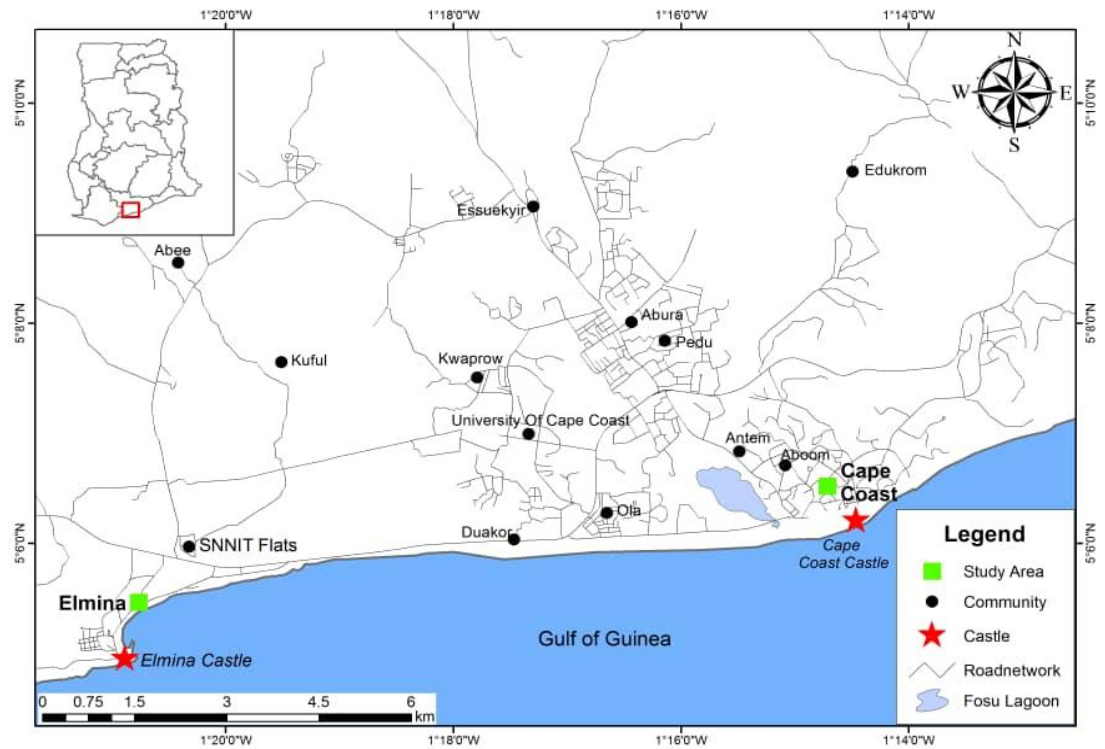


Figure 6: Map of Cape Coast-Elmina area

Source: Cartography and Remote Sensing Unit of the Department of Geography and Regional Planning, UCC, (2021).

Third, the Cape Coast-Elmina area attracts a bigger number of tourists due to the three major UNESCO world heritage sites, namely Cape Coast castle, Elmina castle, and Fort St. Jago. Tourists are also attracted to the area by festivals and other activities. Every two years, the Pan African Historical Theatre Festival (PANAFEST) is held at Cape Coast-Elmina.

Aside from all these reasons, the area is also endowed with leisure-time physical activities spaces which can encourage international tourists to engage in LTPA. Specifically, the area can boost three different stadia, and a volleyball, basketball, and tennis court. The Cape Coast stadium apart from the pitch has a gym center and running tracks. Also, the area is blessed with a

very flat-long pristine beach along the coast, swimming pools, playgrounds, and forests for hiking.

### **Target Population**

A research population is the entire set of persons of interest to a researcher (Gravetter & Forzano, 2009). The study targeted international tourists who visited and stayed (for three or more days) within the Cape Coast and Elmina area between June and August 2021. International tourists were considered because of their diversity. An individual who travels to another country for not more than 12 months, and for reasons other than to make money is termed an international tourist (UNTWO, 2004). International tourists could be backpackers, volunteers, students, researchers, explorers, and others (Boakye, 2012). International tourists visiting Ghana have been steadily increasing. The study further restricted the target population to only English speakers, this was because of the nature and the language of the questions.

### **Source of Data and Information**

The study relied on primary and secondary information. The primary data came from questionnaires administered to the international tourists while the secondary information was obtained from institutions like the Ghana Tourism Authority.

### Sample Size

Fisher, Laing, Stoeckel, and Townsend's (1998) formula was very helpful to determine the sample for the study. The fact that the size of the target population under analysis is unclear, as well as, the lack of a valid sample frame, necessitated the use of this technique or formula. Therefore, as suggested by Fisher et al., (1998) the sample size (n) for the study was calculated by

$$n = Z^2pq/d^2$$

where:

n = desired sample size

Z = confidence level set at 95% (standard value = 1.96)

p = proportion of the target population that has similar characteristics

q = 1 – p

d = the margin of error set at 5% (standard value = 0.05)

The desired sample size calculated was:

$$n = (1.96)^2 (0.50) (0.50) / 0.05^2$$

$$n = 384$$

The sample size seemed impossible due to the COVID-19 pandemic, which has had a significant impact on travel and tour businesses as well as tourist arrivals at most tourist destinations around the world. However, Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) believe that the question of how large the sample size should be remains unsolved. They believe that a sample of 100 to 150 respondents, based on a large distribution theory, will offer accurate and reliable findings estimates.

## Sampling Procedure

A convenient sampling procedure was used in selecting respondents for the study. The absence of a reliable sampling frame for international tourists to the study area propelled the researcher to use the convenient sampling technique. The convenient sampling technique was deemed suitable because it is good for the nature of the population. Tourists are always on the move and, as such, do not stay in one place, making it difficult to trace them or use a probability sampling procedure. In recent years, similar research has used the convenient sampling strategy to obtain data from travelers (Su, Hsu, & Swanson, 2017; Muboko, Gandiwa, Muposhi, & Tarakini, 2016; Lee, Kruger, Whang, Uysal, & Sirgy, 2014; Xu & Fox, 2014). Consequently, international tourists who had agreed and accepted to be part of the study were asked to answer some questions. The researcher used an on-site approach. This method entailed gathering data from respondents at the destination (Chien, Rodger, & Copley, 2017).

Convenient sampling is commonly correlated with selection biases (Mackey & Gass, 2005) and is non-representative of the population (Babbie, 2007). To reduce the selection biases associated with this technique and ensure some degree of representativeness. For international tourists who visited the attractions or restaurants in groups, only two people were chosen on average, to participate in the study. This was to resolve the problem of group bias (Adongo, Taale, & Adam, 2018). International tourists who had finished a guided tour at attraction sites were approached and engaged in a casual conversation. Again, the data collection team visited some popular eating places within the catchment area such as Oasis beach resort, Castle

Restaurants, Coconut Bridge House, and Lemon beach resort, to interact with international tourists. Through this informal interaction, the study and its purpose were introduced and duly explained to them. This move was to gain the consent of the tourists for participating in the survey. Those who consented were given a questionnaire to complete at the facility and returned to the researcher before leaving.

### **Data Collection Instrument**

It is important, as with any empirical research, to understand how the proposed variables should be measured. The data for the analysis was collected using a structured questionnaire. Its decision was based on Creswell's (2012) assertion that using a questionnaire is the best method for gathering quantitative data and ensures the confidentiality and privacy of respondents. In addition to the aforementioned reasons, the administration of a self-administered questionnaire is faster, cheaper, and allows respondents the freedom to operate. The questionnaires were structured into five parts (parts 1 - 5) with open and close-ended questions. Parts (1) profile of international tourists' LTPA, (2) international tourists' motivations for LTPA, (3) international tourists' constraints on LTPA, (4) LTPA constraints negotiation strategies, and the last module (5) looked at the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. There was an introductory section that explained the purpose of the study, the estimated time involved in filling out a questionnaire, and the ethical considerations. This section also contained the consent form, which sought the respondent's consent of participation or otherwise, and a filter question, to help deal with the issue of duplication of

data. With the hypothesis that most of the visitors coming to Ghana can read, write, and communicate in English (Amuquandoh, 2011), the questions were captured in English.

Likert-scale was used to assess the motivation, constraints, and negotiation strategies of respondents. One of the most frequently used tools for performing survey research is the Likert scale. The Likert scale is used to determine the severity of feelings about a particular area, theme, or concept (Bryman, 2008). As a multiple-indicator or multiple-item measure, it helps researchers to overcome the effects of misclassification on specific issues, gain access to a broader variety of aspects of a definition, and make far finer distinctions than single indicator tests (Bryman, 2008).

Part 1 comprised five questions to obtain the profiles of respondents with regards to their leisure-time physical activities. They included; physical leisure activities undertaken, LTPA frequency, LTPA intensity, LTPA duration, and participation partners. In part 2, a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) was used to gauge respondents' motivation for LTPA participation. The gauging scale for motivation involved five main constructs comprising 28 statements. The first construct, Health reasons had seven statements, relaxation, recreation, and fun had five statements. The third construct, competence mastery also had five statements, relatedness had the seven statements, and the last construct, autonomy had 4 statements.

In part 3, respondents were to rate their constraints to leisure-time physical activities on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). In all, a set of 3 constructs comprising 15

statements. Six (6) statements on intrapersonal constraints, four (4) on interpersonal constraints, and five (5) statements on structural constraints. The choice of these constructs in parts two and three was influenced by the self-determination theory, the hierarchical leisure constraint model, and the framework adopted for the work. However, the scale was developed based on available literature on LTPA motivation and constraints. Again, on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), respondents were asked to indicate how they are likely to deal with the constraints they might face in an attempt to engage in LTPA. In all, this part was made up of six constructs, comprising 23 statements. Three statements on financing, five statements on time modification, four statements on interpersonal relations, three on skills acquisition, and four on both leisure aspiration and cognitive.

The last part (part 5) was on respondents' socio-demographic characteristics. All ten questions were posed to respondents. These questions focused on respondents' gender, age, marital status, highest educational attainment, religion, occupation, country of origin, and purpose of visit. Respondents were either to tick appropriate responses or indicate in writing their responses (choices).

### **Data Processing and Analysis**

The study employed both descriptive and inferential statistics. The data from the surveys were also processed using IBM Statistical Product for Service Solution (SPSS) version 25. For all of the variables, descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations



were calculated, and a pie chart was utilized to define, present, and summarize the subject matter's features. To offer an overview of the sample characteristics and data distributions, descriptive statistics were used. The Chi-square test was used to look at the differences in leisure-time physical activities and background variables among international tourists. Chi-square test is usually used when both dependent and independent variables are categorical.

Concerning inferential statistics, an independent sample t-test was performed to give an understanding of the relationship that exists between certain key variables (motivation, constraints, and constraint negotiation strategies) among sex and marital status. Again, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine the relationship between international tourists' background characteristics and the key issues studied (motivation, constraints, and constraint negotiation strategies). Again, to be able to determine the number of variances explained by the various dimensions of the scale, a Principal Component Analysis was conducted on international tourists' motivations and constraint negotiation strategies. Finally, to determine causality among motivation and LTPA duration, motivation and constraint negotiation strategies, and constraints and constraint negotiation strategies a multiple linear regression was conducted. One hundred and seventy-two (172) respondents were involved in the entire study, which yielded accurate results for the study's meaningful conclusions. This low response rate can be largely associated with the COVID-19 Pandemic. The pandemic generally, has reduced tourists' arrivals to the country drastically,

and the few that came around were very reluctant to consent to be part of the study.

**Table 1: Summary of Data Analysis**

Objectives and hypothesis	Analytical tools
1	Descriptive (Frequencies, percentages, mean), Chi-square
2	Descriptive (mean, standard deviation). T-test, ANOVA & Factor analysis
3	Descriptive (mean, standard deviation). T-test, & ANOVA
4	Descriptive (mean, standard deviation). T-test, ANOVA & Factor analysis
Hypothesis 1 and 2	Multiple linear regression

**Pre-testing**

The instrument was created in English and tested in May 2021 at Cape Coast, one of Ghana's most popular tourist destinations. The pre-test study included a total of 20 international tourists who were systematically chosen. Because tourists are a transient population, the instrument was pre-tested in the same location. Because the same tourists would not have been encountered in the same study area by the time the real fieldwork was conducted, the validity of the study would not be affected. The instrument's appropriateness and dependability were determined using the pre-test. The researcher was able to discover unnecessary questions and questions that were phrased incorrectly in the instrument as a result of the pre-testing, and the necessary changes were made.

## Fieldwork and Related Challenges

This study started in September 2020. However, the actual fieldwork took place between June and July 2021. To begin, the respondents were approached politely and informed of the study's goal before being handed a questionnaire to complete. The tourists answered the questionnaire at the Castles, beach resorts, and restaurants located within the study area. At the numerous attractions and eateries, two hundred surveys were distributed using the convenient sample technique. One hundred and seventy-two (172) questionnaires were found to be useful for analysis. Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS) version 25 software was used to code and analyze the data. The data was thoroughly cleaned to remove any outliers or excessive values that could threaten the validity of the results.

Two field assistants were involved in the fieldwork. The assistants were taken through a day of training on the instrument and method of data collection. The training was to get them to understand the structure and content of the research instrument and also equip them with the ability to explain to the tourists and answer any question. Two field assistants worked at Elmina and the researcher also worked at Cape Coast every weekend during the two months of data collection.

During the fieldwork, several challenges came up. Some of the tourists who were approached for data collection refused to take part in the study. Their justification was that they were short on time, and filling out the questionnaire would eat up a lot of it. The researcher overcame this problem by explaining the study's objective and value to them, which some of them understood and agreed to participate in. In addition, some questionnaires were

misplaced and others were taken away by the tourists making retrieval very difficult. For instance, about five of them asked and insisted that the field assistants should give them the instruments and add their email addresses because they do not have much time so they will fill them out later and send them via mail, but till now such emails have not been received. All the same, extra copies of the questionnaires were made available to new respondents who visited the study area.

The biggest of all the challenges encountered was the issue of COVID-19. The pandemic has greatly affected almost everything in this world, and the study was never spared by the pandemic and its effects. The pandemic affected the data collection process in two folds. 1. It prolonged the duration and 2. It made it difficult to get the intended sample size. However, the researcher had to stay on the field longer than the scheduled date, at least to get sufficient data that can make meaningful conclusions. Lastly, because of the nature of the pandemic, entry, and approval to some of the attractions were initially difficult. But the researcher ensured that all the field assistants had copies of a signed letter from the department. And also made sure that all field assistants had adequate nose masks to wear whenever they were on the field.

### **Ethical Issues**

Study ethics help to protect the interests of research subjects while also promoting the research's credibility (Israel & Hay, 2006). The following ethical issues were considered during the data collection; confidentiality, anonymity, right to free consent, right to informed consent, and privacy. Also, an introductory letter was taken from the department to facilitate the data

collection process as well as an approval letter from the Institutional Review Board-UCC (IRB/UCC).

The consent of the respondents was sought before the questionnaires were administered. Since it was impossible to contact the respondents before their visits and the fact that convenient sampling technique was used to select them, their consent was sought at the data collection point. They were approached and asked if they would be willing to participate in the survey. The purpose of the study was explained as well as their responsibilities. They were also made to understand that their participation is voluntary.

Respondents' anonymity was duly ensured. To that effect, respondents were asked not to include their names and telephone numbers or any form of identification. Their identities were concealed to win their confidence in responding to the questionnaire items of which some required the declaration of important personal information. The issue of respondents' anonymity was considered important in the usage, storage, and sharing of data. Consequently, data gathered was used for the intended purpose (academic) only and firmly secured electronically for the study, future reference, and use by other researchers as secondary data.

### **Chapter Summary**

The methodology of the study was described in full in this chapter, along with where and how the study was conducted. The study area was Cape Coast and Elmina, both in Ghana's Central Region. As Bryman (2008) advised, the study was meant to gather data on several cases at a particular point in time to collect a body of quantitative data including multiple variables

to demonstrate patterns of correlation. Data was essentially primary and was collected via a survey instrument (questionnaire) from about 172 international tourists who were conveniently selected within the catchment area of the study. The instrument was pretested among 20 international tourists on Cape Coast before the actual data collection. Data were analyzed with both descriptive and inferential statistical tools using IBM SPSS version 25. Social research ethics such as consent, anonymity, and confidentiality were the major considerations.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### Introduction

Chapter four presents and discusses the results, in line with the objectives of the study. It starts by describing the socio-demographic characteristics of international tourists who participated in the study. It also describes the motivation and constraints of respondents. Lastly, the chapter discusses the constraint negotiation strategies of respondents.

#### Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

This section details the socio-demographic characteristics of the international tourists who took part in the study. The socio-demographic parameters covered included sex, age, marital status, educational level, religious affiliation, the continent of origin, and purpose of visit.

The result indicates that more females (54.70%) than males (45.30%) participated in the study. This result could be a result of the use of a convenient sampling procedure, which did not allow the researcher to systematically select the respondents. The result confirms the observation made by Dayour (2012) that tourists to the Cape Coast-Elmina area are dominated by females. More than half of the respondents were less than 30 years (52.9%), and those who were within age 31-40 constituted 18.6 percent. Those who are more than 60 years were the minority (8.10%). The average age was established to be 35 years among all the respondents (Table 2). It is explainable that the respondents were relatively young tourists which supports

the observations by Priskin (2003), Westerhausen (2002), and Kininmont (2000) that tourist arrivals, the world over, are characterized by the young population who are less than 35 years old.

**Table 2: Background Characteristics of International Tourists (N=172)**

Background	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<b>Sex</b>		
Male	78	45.3
Female	94	54.7
<b>Age</b>		
18-30	91	52.9
31-40	32	18.6
41-50	17	9.9
51-60	18	10.5
60 +	14	8.1
<b>Marital status</b>		
Married	65	37.8
Unmarried	107	62.2
<b>Highest level of education</b>		
High school	33	19.2
Diploma/Degree	81	47.1
Masters	43	25.0
Ph.D.	15	8.7
<b>Religious affiliation</b>		
Christianity	109	63.4
Islam	10	5.8
Atheist	45	26.1
Other	8	4.7
<b>Occupation</b>		
Students	43	25.0
Employed	123	71.5
Unemployed	6	3.5
<b>Purpose of visit</b>		
Leisure	91	52.9
Volunteerism	37	21.5
Education	27	15.7
Other	17	9.9
<b>Continent of origin</b>		
Europe	100	58.1
North America	65	37.8
Asia	2	1.2
Africa	5	2.9

Source: Field survey, Amoah (2021)



With regards to the marital status of the international tourists, the majority of them were unmarried (62.2%) with the married constituting 37.8 percent. This affirms Dayour's (2012) finding that tourists to the Cape Coast-Elmina area are mostly unmarried young people. Regarding the educational level of respondents, it was noticed that those who had attained a diploma or degree qualification were a little less than half (47.10%) of the respondents, representing a majority. Those who had Ph.D. qualifications were the least (8.70%) followed by high school qualifications (19.20%). Previous studies (Boakye, 2012; Otoo & Amuquandoh 2014) have indicated that the area is attracted to educational tourists, perhaps the reason why more of the respondents have at least a degree qualification.

The majority (63.40 percent) of the international tourists who visited the Cape Coast-Elmina area were Christians, while almost a third (26.10%) were atheists. About (5.8%) of the respondents professed Islam whereas other religions including Hinduism, traditional religion, and Agnostic constituted just 4.7 percent. Perhaps the Christians' dominance in the study is since Ghana is predominantly Christian, making it more comfortable for other Christians to visit the country. This confirms the results of Dayour (2012), Otoo and Amuquandoh, (2014), and Badu-Baiden et al., (2016) that tourists to the area are dominated by Christians. It was noticed that about two-thirds (71.50%) of the respondent were employed, followed by students (25.0%). The study also ascertained the purpose of the visit of the respondents. The majority (52.90%) of international tourists who were in the Cape Coast-Elmina area because of leisure, followed by volunteerism (21.50%), education (15.70%), and others (9.9%) including missionary, VFR, and business. The Cape Coast-Elmina

area, because of its pristine beaches and other leisure facilities could be the reason why more than half of the respondents visited the area for leisure purposes

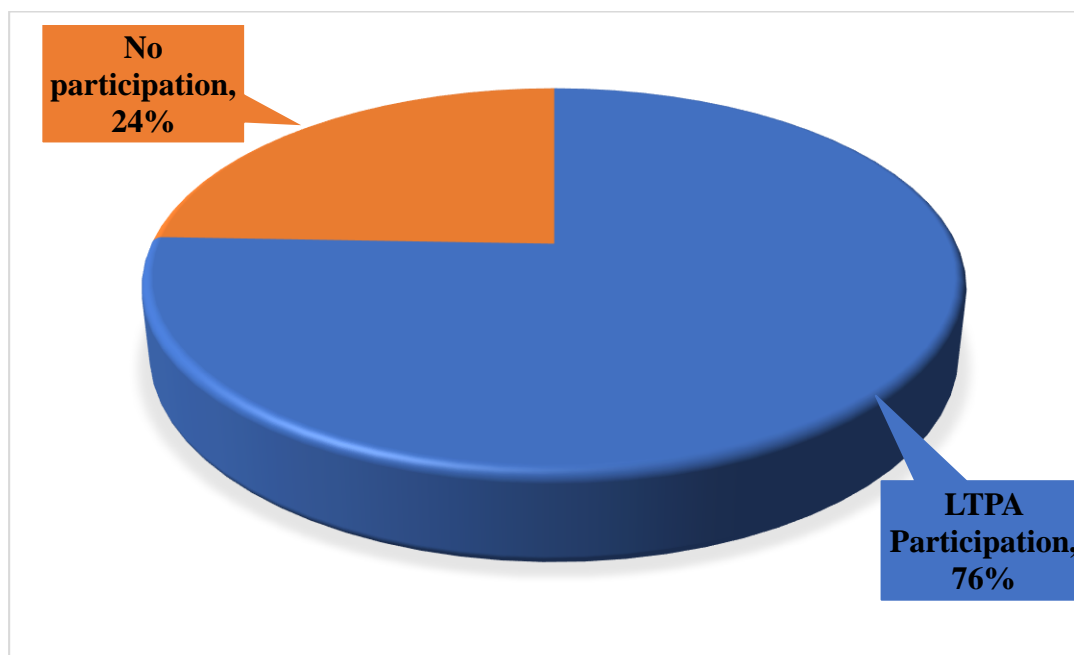
The analysis covered the continent from which international visitors to the Cape Coast-Elmina region arrived. Specific countries of origin were regrouped based on the six (6) major continents: Europe, North America, South America, Asia, Africa, and Australia. The majority (58.10%) of the respondents originated from Europe with about one-third of them being British (36.10%). North Americans were the next highest (37.80%) followed by Africans (2.9%), Asia (1.2%), and Australia has no representative. This result affirms Dayour's (2012), conclusion that globally, Europe and North America are widely recognized as leading tourists generating regions. And also confirms Van Beek & Schmidt's (2012) study results that, European and American travelers dominate the tourists that travel to Africa.

### **International Tourists' Leisure-time Physical Activities Participation**

This part of the study examines the leisure-time physical activities among international tourists who visited the Cape Coast-Elmina area.

Figure 7 is an illustration of the respondents' LTPA participation. Out of a total of 172 respondents who took part in the study, it was revealed that 130, representing 76% have engaged in LTPA during their stay in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. This result could be because international tourists visited the area predominantly because of leisure. Also, this result might have occurred because respondents were not selected systematically but conveniently sampled owing to the transient nature of tourists. This is

indicative that the physical inactivity among tourists is relatively lower, which is consistent with the finding of Gerovasili et al. (2015). They reported 28 percent physical inactivity, the study was among respondents from 28 European countries.



*Figure 7: LTPA Participation*  
Source: Field survey, Amoah (2021)

### **LTPA Participation by Respondents' Socio-Demographics Characteristics**

This section looks at the disparities in LTPA participation among the demographic characteristics of the respondents. A Chi-square test was conducted to ascertain whether there is a statistically significant relationship between respondents' background characteristics and LTPA participation (Table 3). The test indicates that international tourists' LTPA participation had no relationship with any of the socio-demographic characteristics. A review of the results shows that 71.8 percent of males participated in LTPA as against

those who did not participate in LTPA (28.2%). While 78.7 percent of females had participated in LTPA, only 21.3 percent did not. Perhaps, the available LTPA facilities or activities are not gender biased, therefore, allow both males and females to engage in LTPA. The result of this study is consistent with the conclusions of Chigbu, Berger, Aniebue, and Parhofer (2020), that gender did not differ significantly in leisure-time physical activity but inconsistent with the findings of previous studies such as Adegoke and Oyeyemi, (2011), Bauman et. al. (2014), and Kirunda, et. al. (2016) that found that males have a higher percentage of participating in leisure-time physical activity than females.

It was also established that the majority (78.0%) of the participants between the ages of 18-30 engaged in LTPA during their stay at Cape Coast-Elmina, as opposed to those who did not (22.0%). Also, the majority (75.0%) of those between the ages of 31-40 engaged in LTPA as against those who did not (25.0%). Same as those who are 60 years or more, a majority (64.3%) of them engaged in LTPA as compared to about 35.7% who did not. Previous studies such as Sun, et. al. (2013), Molanorouzi, et. al., (2015), and Gavin et. al., (2014) concluded that leisure-time physical activity declines with age. They found that people under the age of 40 are more likely to engage in leisure-time physical activity than those over 40. Unlike the previous studies which concentrated on residents, the current study looked at international tourists with a majority of them in the country purposely for leisure, therefore, this could have accounted for the indifference among the age groupings. This is an indication that the findings of this current study are not in agreement

with the previous studies because this study found no relationship between leisure-time physical activities among the age groupings of the respondent.

**Table 3: LTPA Participation by Socio-Demographic Characteristics**

Socio-demographic Characteristics	N	Participation		X <sup>2</sup> -value	p-value
		Yes	No		
Sex				1.109	0.292
Male	78	71.8	28.2		
Female	94	78.7	21.3		
Marital status				0.994	0.803
Single	78	76.9	23.1		
Married	65	73.8	26.2		
Cohabitation	21	71.4	28.6		
Divorced	8	87.5	12.5		
Age				1.544	0.819
18-30	91	78.0	22.0		
31-40	32	75.0	25.0		
41-50	17	70.6	29.4		
51-60	18	77.8	22.2		
60+	14	64.3	35.7		
Level of education				0.425	0.935
High school	33	75.8	24.2		
Diploma	81	74.1	25.9		
Diploma/Degree					
Masters	43	79.1	20.9		
Ph.D.	15	73.3	26.7		
Religion affiliation				2.183	0.336
Christianity	109	81.0	19.0		
Islam	10	60.0	40.0		
Other	53	73.3	26.7		
Purpose of visit				0.995	0.802
Leisure	91	80.1	19.9		
Volunteering	37	76.0	24.0		
Education	27	75.4	24.5		
Other	17	77.1	22.9		

Source: Field survey, Amoah (2021)

Again, the results showed no relationships between LTPA participation and marital status, level of education, and the continent of origin, same as religion, occupation, and purpose of visit. The result indicates that majority of

the respondents regardless of the demographic characteristics engaged in LTPA during their stay in Cape Coast-Elmina. Perhaps, the nature of the available activities such as swimming, walking, jogging, and others makes it easy to participate irrespective of age, sex, and other socio-demographic characteristics.

### **Leisure-time Physical Activities Engaged by International Tourists**

This part of the study examined international tourists' LTPA participation. By this, the focus was geared toward the international tourists' LTPA, participation partners, the intensity of the activity, duration, and the frequency or number of times they participated in the activities. Table 4 shows the leisure-time physical activities that were been undertaken by international tourists during their stay in the study area. Swimming (33.3%) emerged as the activity that international tourists mostly participated in, followed by hiking and or walking (29.2), and jogging (12.3%). Activities such as playing football (6.2%), playing volleyball (4.6%) and gym (4.1%) were among the active leisure activities that were mentioned by the respondents (Table 4).

Walking/hiking and swimming are the most readily available LTPA activities that one can engage in within the Cape Coast-Elmina area, therefore, it could be one of the reasons if not the main reasons why the majority of the tourists turn to have participated in these two activities. Also, some of the tourists had only spent three to four days in the area, therefore, would not have gotten the chance or time to engage in other activities other than swimming, hiking, and jogging. This finding confirms the observation made by Akarolo-Anthony & Adebamowo, (2014), that walking is the most popular leisure-time

physical activity among Nigerians. Because it is the most accessible, common, and inexpensive LTPA compared to other activities (Hallal, et. al. 2012). But not in support of Lamont, et. al. (2019), who found racing events as the preferred leisure-time physical activities among backpackers.

**Table 4: International Tourists’ LTPA Activities**

Activities	N	Percentage (%)	Rank
Swimming	81	33.3	1
Hiking/walking	71	29.2	2
Jogging	30	12.3	3
Playing football	15	6.2	4
Playing volleyball	14	5.8	5
Work-out	14	5.8	6
Other	6	2.5	7
Playing basketball	5	2.1	8
Cycling	4	1.6	9
Dancing	3	1.2	10
Overall	243 <sup>a</sup>	100	

Source: Field survey, Amoah (2021)

Note: <sup>a</sup> Multiple Response

The research results indicate that almost half (44.6%) of the respondents who participated in LTPA do it for 1-2 days a week as compared to those who do it 3-5 days per week (40.0%). Only 20 respondents, representing 15.4% engage in LTPA at least 6 days a week. Again, the majority (63%) of the LTPA participants reported having engaged in

moderate-intensive activities as compared to those who engaged in vigorous-intensive (18.5%) and light-intensive activities (18.5%).

**Table 5: International Tourists’ LTPA (Frequency, Intensity and Duration)**

Profile	Frequency (130)	Percentage	Mean
<b>Number of days</b>			
1-2 days/week	58	44.6	
3-5 days/week	52	40.0	
6-7 days/week	20	15.4	
<b>Intensity (Self-reported)</b>			
Light	24	18.5	
Moderate	82	63.0	
Vigorous	24	18.5	
<b>Duration</b>			87.81
< 1 hour	61	46.9	
1-2 hours	50	38.5	
2-3 hours	10	7.7	
3 hours +	9	6.9	
<b>LTPA participation partnership</b>			
No partner(s)	70	53.8	
Partner (s)	60	46.2	

\*N=130

Source: Field survey, Amoah (2021)



### LTPA by Respondents' Sex and Age

An attempt was made to establish respondents' LTPA by their sexual orientation and age. Overall, the results suggest that the favorite LTPA of the respondents varied by their sexual orientation. For instance, the proportion of females (48.9%) who favored swimming and hiking/walking (48.9%) is more than the male proportion (44.9%; 32.1% respectively) for the same activities. On the other hand, jogging and playing football are favored more among males, 18.1 and 11.7 percent respectively, when compared to their female counterparts (16.7% and 5.1% respectively). Jogging and football are known to be among the rigorous-intensive LTPA and are known as masculine-based activities so these could be among the reason why male tourists favored these two activities that their female counterparts.

**Table 6: LTPA by Respondents' Sex and Age**

LTPA	Male (N = 56)	Female (N = 74)	Young (N=101)	Old (N=29)
Swimming	44.9	48.9	49.6	38.5
Hiking/walking	32.1	48.9	43.6	33.3
Jogging	18.1	16.7	18.0	15.4
Playing football	11.7	5.1	9.0	7.7
Work-out	8.5	7.7	7.5	10.3
Playing volleyball	9.0	7.4	6.0	15.4
Playing basketball	3.8	2.1	3.0	2.6

Source: Field survey, Amoah (2021)

Similarly, the results indicate that the LTPA of the respondents varies by their age groupings. The proportion of young tourists (49.6%) who favored swimming and hiking/walking (43.6%) is more than the old proportion (38.5%; 33.3% respectively) for the same activities. Instead, work-out and playing volleyball are favored more among old tourists, 10.3 and 15.4 percent respectively, when compared to their young counterparts (7.5% and 6.0% respectively). These findings reinforce the conclusion drawn by Sun, & Kawthur, (2013). Although a study by Chigbu, et al., (2020) and Alayode, et al., (2014) in a study on gender and age perspectives of LTPA among international tourists.

### **International Tourists' Motivation for Participating in Leisure-time Physical Activities**

Motivations are a key constituent of tourists' psychographic studies. Motivation has always served as the driving force that stimulates tourists to undertake an activity to satisfy an internal or emotional desire. Within the context of this study, the Self-Determination Theory [SDT] (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000) guided the development of a scale to measure the leisure-time physical activities motivation of international tourists. Consequently, the LTPA motivation of international tourists in this study was gauged with the three main constructs in the SDT and the other two based on the literature, making it five constructs. These five constructs are autonomy, competence mastery, social relations (relatedness), health, and fun or relaxation. Table 7 shows the description of the scores of both the individual indicator items and the constructs. International tourists' motivations for LTPA participation were

captured under the various constructs on a Five-point Likert scale (1-strongly agree, 2-disagree, 3-neither disagree nor agree, 4-agree, 5-strongly agree). Respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they agreed with each of the constructions' statements by selecting one of the scale's options as an answer.

Among the constructs, relaxation, recreation, and fun inspired the international tourists most into undertaking leisure-time physical activities (mean = 3.66). Here international tourists accepted that participating in LTPA is interesting and fun (mean = 3.69), and LTPA participation makes them happy (mean = 3.88) and relieves stress and tension (mean = 3.60). The next construct that motivated international tourists most to participate was health benefits (mean = 3.23), followed by competence mastery (mean = 3.12) and social relations (3.02), the least motivating factor was found to be external factors (mean = 2.00). This can be explained that international tourists are autonomous, in other words, their decisions are not influenced by others. Perhaps, international tourists were mostly inspired by relaxation, recreation, and fun to engage in LTPA because the majority were identified to have come to the area for leisure-related activities. Also, the use of a convenient sampling procedure could have accounted for this finding, since respondents were not selected randomly.

For health, the respondents agreed on individual items such as maintaining a healthy body (mean = 3.97), being physically fit (mean = 3.91), and improving cardiovascular fitness (mean = 3.66). Therefore, respondents moderately agreed to health is a motivating factor for LTPA participation.

**Table 7: Motivation for LTPA Participation**

Statement	M	SD
<i>Health benefit</i>	3.23	1.33
Maintaining a healthy body	3.97	1.31
Being physically fit	3.91	1.23
Improving cardiovascular fitness	3.66	1.25
Maintaining a trimmed, and toned body	3.32	1.32
Managing a medical condition	2.62	1.50
Prescribed by a doctor or physio	2.00	1.33
Losing weight, guarding against obesity, and looking better	2.86	1.35
<i>Relaxation, Recreation, and Fun</i>	3.66	1.24
Avoiding the hustle and bustle of daily life	3.39	1.28
Relieving stress and tension	3.60	1.31
Interesting and fun	3.69	1.24
Makes me happy	3.88	1.11
Enjoy participating in leisure-time physical activities	3.78	1.28
<i>Competence mastery</i>	3.12	1.30
Improving existing skills	3.09	1.33
Doing my personal best	3.12	1.31
Obtaining new skills/activities	3.14	1.36
Maintaining current skill level	3.12	1.26
Getting better at an activity	3.12	1.26
<i>Social interaction (relatedness)</i>	3.02	1.34
Interacting with others	3.38	1.35
Building a friendship with others	3.07	1.34
Gaining the respect of others	2.40	1.41
Gaining the feeling of belonging	2.54	1.28
Getting along with people I come into contact with	3.12	1.34
Enjoy spending time with others	3.34	1.28
Doing something in common with friends	3.27	1.39
<i>Autonomy</i>	2.00	1.16
Depending on other people more than the majority of those I know	2.01	1.17
To do anything, I first need other people's approval	1.90	1.11
When taking a decision, I depend too much on other people's opinions	2.05	1.18
Finding it difficult to decide on my own	2.03	1.18

Source: Field survey, Amoah (2021)

Scale: 1-1.49 = strongly disagree, 1.50-2.49 = disagree, 2.50-3.49 = neutral, 3.50-4.49 = agree, 4.50-5.0 = strongly agree.

In terms of relatedness, individual indicator items such as gaining the respect of others (mean = 2.40) were disagreed by the respondent. Concerning competence mastery, the respondents were in doubt on all the individual items, such as improving existing skills (mean = 3.09), doing my personal best (mean = 3.12), obtaining new skills/activities (mean = 3.14), and maintaining current skill level (mean = 3.12). Regards to autonomy, the respondents strongly disagreed with the fact that they cannot decide for themselves. For instance, they disagreed (mean = 1.90) with seeking approval from others before they can do anything, again respondents disagreed with finding it difficult to decide on their own.

The finding is consistent with Wang's (2017) conclusion that LTPA participants are autonomously motivated to engage in LTPA. Also, the finding was in line with Aaltonen and his colleagues' study (2012), that enjoyment or fun was a strong motivator for physical activity during leisure time. However, previous studies including Iannotti, et. al., (2012), Liu and Walker (2015), and Sukys et, al., (2019) found health to be the most motivating factor for people to engage in LTPA, which is inconsistent with the current study. Probably, this could be due to the target population involved in the study. For instance, the study by Iannotti et al. (2012) involved adolescents of similar cultural backgrounds, meanwhile, the population of this current study involve young employees who had traveled predominantly because of leisure, therefore, could not have had any other reason for participating in LTPA than relaxation and fun.

## **Factors that Account for International Tourists' Motivation for Participating in LTPA**

After the assessment of respondents' reactions to individual variables on the motivations using basic descriptive statistics, it was then necessary to delve into the fundamental underlying components of what motivated international tourists to engage in the LTPA. This analysis was required to ascertain how specific motivational factors put together interrelate to influence motivations for LTPA participation, hence the need for factor analysis (FA) to be carried out. FA is a 'data reduction' approach, according to Pallant (2005). It takes a large amount of data and attempts to minimize or summarize it using a smaller number of elements or components.

As a result, the FA was run on twenty-eight (28) variables, with the results shown in Table 8. The sample adequacy and factorability of the data were verified before applying FA in this study to ensure that all of the FA's assumptions were met. The data was factorable using Bartlett's test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) criterion of sample adequacy. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), Bartlett's test of sphericity must be significant ( $p=0.05$ ) for the FA to be considered appropriate, although the KMO index ranges from 0 to 1, with 0.6 indicated as the minimum value for a good FA. In this examination, Bartlett's test of sphericity (2529.283) was determined to be very significant ( $p=0.00$ ), while the KMO score of 0.798 confirmed the data's eligibility for FA. The eigenvalues and factor loadings are also listed in Table 8. A correlation matrix with a factor loading of 0.3 or more is recommended for scrutiny, whereas factors or components with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or more are kept for further investigation (Pallant, 2005).

More importantly, Cronbach's alpha was utilized to determine the scale's reliability as well as the extent to which the variables contributed to the factor's explanation. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient should be examined, according to Pallant (2005), to evaluate the degree to which all the individual items under the concept adequately measure it. For appropriateness, Cronbach's alpha value should be greater than 0.7, according to her.

Furthermore, the factors were 'rotated' to be presented with components represented by several strongly loaded variables, making it easier to grasp the results. The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) reduced the twenty-eight (28) variables to four (4) key underlying dimensions that accounted for international tourists' participation in LTPA using the varimax rotation. However, one variable (avoiding the hustle and bustle of daily life) was left out because it loaded below the recommended matrix. The four uncorrelated factor-solution together explained 60.3% of the total variances. This output suggests that 39.7% of other factors could account for the variance. The factors, on the other hand, contributed differentially to the total variance explanation, as follows:

Factor one (1) labeled as social interaction consisted of issues on building a friendship with others, interreacting with others, doing something in common with friends, enjoying spending time with others, getting along with people I come into contact with, gaining the feeling of belonging and gaining the respect of others. This factor explained 8.37 (18.32%) of the total variance.

**Table 8: Structure of Factors for Respondents’ LTPA Motivation**

Factor and observed variables	Factor Loading	Eigen-value	Variance Explained (%)	Cronbach’s alpha
I Social interaction		8.36	18.32	0.911
Building a friendship with others	0.818			
Interacting with others	0.806			
Doing something in common with friends	0.796			
Enjoying spending time with others	0.794			
Getting along with people I come into contact with	0.739			
Gaining the feeling of belonging	0.676			
Gaining the respect of others	0.665			
II Competence mastery		3.95	17.45	0.884
Improving existing skills	0.762			
Maintaining current skill level	0.750			
Learning a new skill or activity	0.742			
Doing my personal best	0.697			
Getting better at an activity	0.625			
Makes me feel happy	0.623			
Relieving stress and tension	0.590			
Interesting and fun	0.492			
Enjoy participating in LTPA	0.478			
III Autonomy		2.67	13.11	0.845
To do anything, I first need other people’s approval	0.834			
Finding it difficult to decide on my own	0.800			
When taking a decision, I depend too much on other people’s opinions	0.685			
Depending on other people more than the majority of those I know	0.617			
IV Health benefits		1.95	11.38	0.800
Prescribed by a doctor or physio	0.687			
Maintaining a trimmed, and toned body	0.670			
Managing a medical condition	0.668			
Improving cardiovascular fitness	0.611			
Be physically fit	0.587			
Lose weight, guard against obesity and look better	0.552			
Maintaining healthy body	0.495			
Total variance explained			60.26	

Source: Field survey, Amoah (2021). Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity (Approx. Chi-square) = 2529.283, p-value=0.00. Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.798.



Factor two (2) is labeled as competence mastery. Competence mastery formed part of the motivational factors that accounted for international tourists' participation. It included improving existing skills, maintaining current skill level, learning new skills or activities, interesting and fun, enjoying participating in LTPA, making me happy, doing my personal best, and relieving stress and tension. Together explained 3.95 (17.45) of the total variances.

Factor three (3), autonomy, which comprised of finding it difficult to decide on my own, depending on other people more than the majority of those I know, when taking a decision, I depend too much on other people's opinions and seek for approval from others before anything is done. These variables together with autonomy explained 2.67 (13.11%) of the total variance. The last factor (factor four, 4) was labeled as health benefits. This included variables such as maintaining a trimmed, and toned body, maintaining a healthy body, losing weight, guarding against obesity and looking better, improving cardiovascular fitness, prescribed by a doctor or physio, and managing a medical condition. This factor explained 1.95 (11.38%) of the total variance.

### **The Difference in Motivations across Background Characteristics of International Tourists**

There may be differences in LTPA motivations across various socio-demographic backgrounds (Piper, 1994; Passmore & French, 2001; Fawcett, 2007). Additionally, the conceptual framework that underpins this study has linked the socio-demographics of LTPA participants to their motivations for

undertaking LTPA. Thus, this section of the analysis also aims at establishing whether motivations differ across the various background characteristics of the subjects. The five-point Likert scale was collapsed into a three-point Likert scale (disagree, neutral, agree). Thus, “strongly disagree” and “disagree” were recoded as disagree, and “strongly agree” and “agree” were also recoded as agree. The collapse of the scale into three was important because such re-categorization will enhance and facilitate clearer and easier interpretations of the averages generated. Again, other researchers (Amuquandoh, 2010; Adam & Amuquandoh, 2013) who have employed the five-point Likert scale collapsed the response categories into a three-point Likert scale without any loss in the data quality.

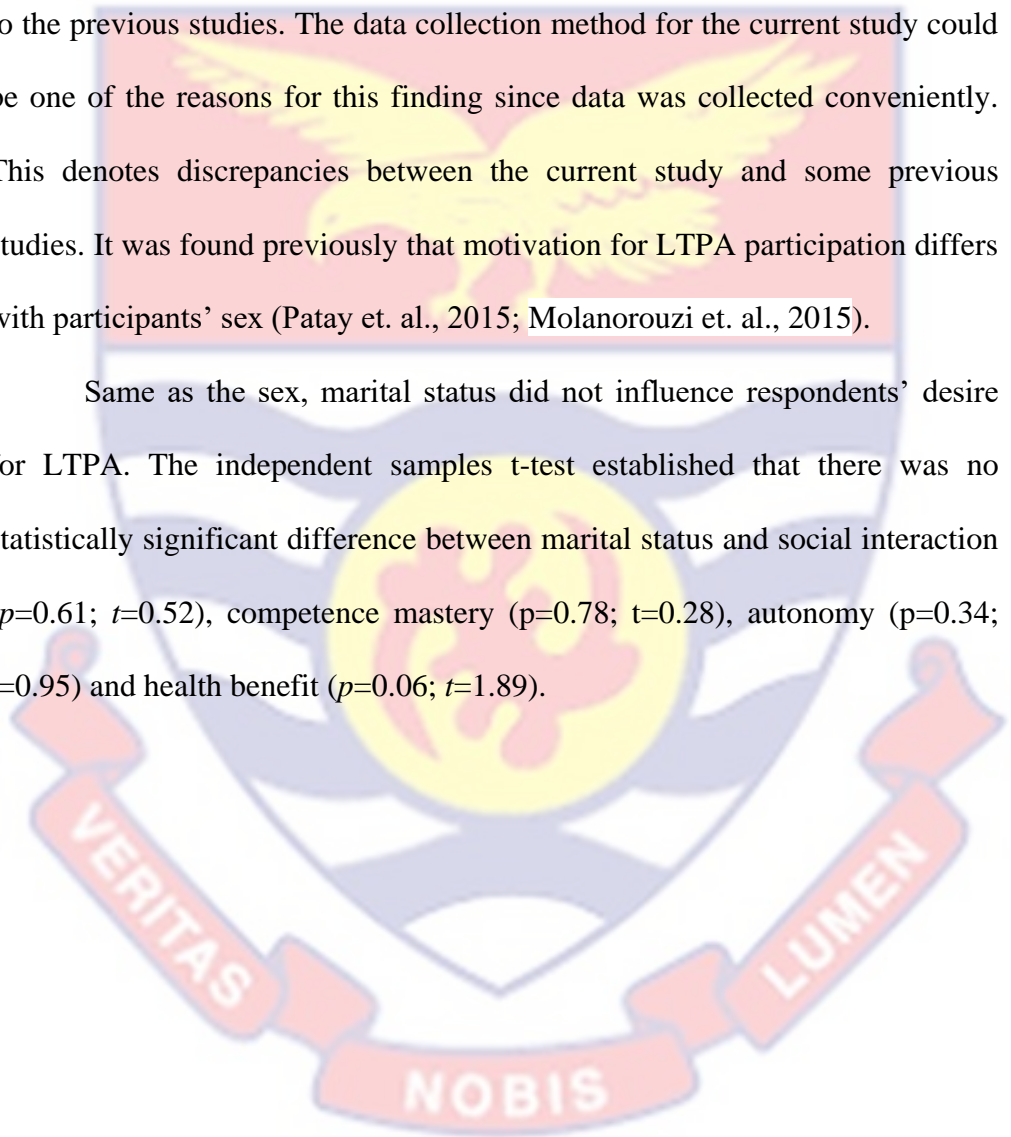
Two statistical tools were used to establish the variation of LTPA motivation across the various socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. These are the independent samples t-test and the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). To determine where differences exist among the various groups, the Tukey HSD procedure, one of the post-hoc or posterior (Pallant, 2005) was used.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the LTPA motivation scores for males and females. With respect to the social interaction ( $p=0.90$ ;  $t=0.12$ ), and competence mastery/relaxation ( $p=0.40$ ;  $t=0.84$ ), there were no statistically significant differences between male and female international tourists. Both males and females were indifferent to social interaction, and competence mastery as the reasons for participating in LTPA.

Similarly, the independent samples t-test indicates there were no statistically significant differences in autonomy ( $p=0.08$ ;  $t=-1.77$ ) and health

benefits ( $p=0.052$ ;  $t=-2.02$ ). Meanwhile, a critical review of the mean scores shows that while females (mean = 1.36) disagreed with external influence on their decisions, their male counterparts were uncertain (Table 9). Meaning what motivates men to engage in LTPA will be different from what motivates their female counterparts. However, the result of the current study is contrary to the previous studies. The data collection method for the current study could be one of the reasons for this finding since data was collected conveniently. This denotes discrepancies between the current study and some previous studies. It was found previously that motivation for LTPA participation differs with participants' sex (Patay et. al., 2015; Molanorouzi et. al., 2015).

Same as the sex, marital status did not influence respondents' desire for LTPA. The independent samples t-test established that there was no statistically significant difference between marital status and social interaction ( $p=0.61$ ;  $t=0.52$ ), competence mastery ( $p=0.78$ ;  $t=0.28$ ), autonomy ( $p=0.34$ ;  $t=0.95$ ) and health benefit ( $p=0.06$ ;  $t=1.89$ ).



**Table 9: LTPA Motivation by Background Characteristics**

Background characteristics	Social interaction	Competence mastery/relaxation	Autonomy	Health
<b>Sex</b>				
Male	2.018	2.212	1.510	2.018
Female	2.004	2.296	1.356	2.214
	$p=0.903$ $t=0.122$	$p=0.401$ $t=-0.842$	$p=0.078$ $t=1.773$	$p=0.052$ $t=-2.018$
<b>Age</b>				
≤ 30	2.097	2.518*	1.503*	2.127*
31-40	1.988	2.204	1.547*	2.304*
41-51	1.929	2.361	1.206	2.119
51-60	1.653	1.817*	1.319	1.464*
60 +	2.063	2.506*	1.054*	2.270
	$p=0.202$ $F=1.515$	$p=0.016$ $F=3.179$	$p=0.014$ $F=3.244$	$p=0.012$ $F=3.364$
<b>Marital status</b>				
Married	2.048	2.278	1.373	2.235
Unmarried	1.988	2.249	1.458	2.057
	$p=0.608$ $t=0.515$	$p=0.781$ $t=0.279$	$p=0.343$ $t=-0.950$	$p=0.062$ $t=1.886$
<b>Level of education</b>				
High school	2.093	2.289	1.745*	2.091
Diploma/Degree	1.976	2.165*	1.435*	2.057
Masters	1.891	2.268	1.285*	2.176
Ph.D.	2.391	2.687*	1.100*	2.390
	$p=0.129$ $F=1.922$	$p=0.040$ $F=2.861$	$p=0.000$ $F=6.339$	$p=0.237$ $F=1.431$
<b>Continent of origin</b>				
Europe	1.971	2.096	1.488	2.001*
North America	2.105	2.151	1.346	2.518*
Africa	1.929	2.050	1.400	2.143
Asia	1.000	1.300	1.000	1.857
	$p=0.095$ $F=2.173$	$p=0.087$ $F=2.236$	$p=0.310$ $F=1.203$	$p=0.009$ $F=4.041$
<b>Religion</b>				
Christianity	2.500*	2.276	1.475	2.062
Islam	1.952	2.148	1.500	2.381
Others	1.806*	2.220	1.350	2.205
	$p=0.031$ $F=3.588$	$p=0.824$ $F=0.194$	$p=0.399$ $F=0.924$	$p=0.240$ $F=1.444$
<b>Occupation</b>				
Employed	1.920*	2.199	1.350*	2.155
Unemployed	2.071	2.444	1.375	2.214
Student	2.505*	2.437	1.651*	2.018
	$p=0.016$ $F=4.285$	$p=0.106$ $F=2.284$	$p=0.010$ $F=4.716$	$p=0.441$ $F=0.441$
<b>Purpose of visit</b>				
Leisure	1.974	2.297	1.376	2.154

Volunteerism	1.974	2.173	1.473	2.090
Education	2.179	2.310	1.537	2.030
Other	1.952	2.148	1.412	2.214
	$p=0.562$	$p=0.659$	$p=0.578$	$p=0.696$
	$F=0.686$	$F=0.535$	$F=0.660$	$F=0.482$

Scale 1-1.49 = Disagree, 1.50-2.49 = Neutral, 2.50-3 = Agree, Sig. level at  $\leq 0.05$ ,

Post-hoc test \*

Source: Field survey, Amoah (2021)

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of age on the LTPA motivational factors. Subjects were divided into five (5) groups according to their age (Group 1: less than 30; Group 2: 31-40; Group 3: 41-50; Group 4: 51-60; Group 5: more than 60). There was a statistically significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05$  level in health benefits for the five age groups [ $F(4, 129) = 3.36, p=0.01$ ]. The post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for Group 1 (M=2.13, SD=0.52) and Group 2 (M=2.30, SD=0.43) were significantly different from Group 4 (M=1.46, SD=0.52). Group 3 (M=2.12, SD=0.55) and Group 5 (M=2.27, SD=0.45) did not show any significant differences. It is explainable that younger international tourists below age 30 and between 30-40 would probably be more willing to and interested in undertaking LTPA purposely for health reasons than older ones especially those who are between age 51-60. Similarly, there was a statistically significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05$  level in competence mastery [ $F(4, 129) = 4.52, p=0.02$ ] and autonomy [ $F(4, 167) = 3.24, p=0.01$ ] for the five age groups.

As regards competence mastery, the post-hoc comparison using Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 4 (M=1.82, SD=0.50) was significantly different from Group 1 (M=2.52, SD=0.68), and Group 5 (M=2.51., SD=0.75). This means that young international tourists are motivated to engage in LTPA to improve their competence but those who are between the ages of 50-60 could not decide whether competence mastery inspired them to engage in LTPA. For autonomy, the results show that the mean score for Group 5 (M=1.05, SD=0.15) was significantly different from Group 1 (M=1.50, SD=0.59) and Group 2 (M=1.55, SD=0.63). Group 3 (M=1.21, SD=0.44) and Group 4 (M=1.32, SD=0.52) did not show any significant differences.

On the contrary, respondents across the various age groupings did not show significant differences in social interaction [ $F(4,128) = 1.45, p=0.20$ ]. The result of this study affirms the results of earlier studies (Hallal et al., 2012; Toepoel, 2013; Doegah & Amoateng, 2019; Ferreira, et. al., 2015), that motivation for LTPA varies across the age groups of respondents. For example, the youth participate in LTPA because of therapeutic reasons and physical activeness. (Doegah & Amoateng, 2019) concluded that, while the youth engage in LTPA for physical activeness, older adults engage to improve cognitively.

The level of education attained by international tourists had an impact on their motivation to engage in LTPA. Subjects were divided into four (4) groups according to their educational qualifications (Group 1: high school; Group 2: diploma/degree; Group 3: masters; Group 5: Ph.D.). There was a statistically significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05$  level in competence

mastery/relaxation [ $F(3, 129) = 2.28, p=0.04$ ]. The post-hoc comparison using Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for Group 2 ( $M=2.17, SD=0.58$ ) were significantly different from Group 4 ( $M=2.69, SD=0.49$ ). Thus, respondents who had a Ph.D. agreed to be motivated by competence mastery/relaxation while their colleagues who had diploma/degree qualifications could not choose between either agreeing or disagreeing. Group 1 ( $M=2.29, SD=0.75$ ), and Group 3 ( $M=2.27, SD=0.60$ ) did not show any significant differences, since both groups were uncertain of the fact that competence mastery was the motivating factor for their LTPA participation.

Again, there was a statistically significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05$  level in autonomy [ $F(3, 168) = 6.34, p=0.00$ ]. The post-hoc comparison using Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for Group 1 ( $M=1.75, SD=1.69$ ) were significantly different from Group 2 ( $M=1.44, SD=0.54$ ), Group 3 ( $M=1.29, SD=0.48$ ) and Group 4 ( $M=1.10., SD=0.33$ ). While subjects with high school qualifications were uncertain about external influence, those who had diplomas or degrees together with those with master's and Ph.D. qualifications disagreed with the fact that they cannot decide for themselves but rather seek approvals, and opinions from others before they could do anything. Contrary to that health benefits ( $p=0.24, F=1.14$ ), and social interaction ( $p=0.13, F=1.85$ ) did not differ among the level of education, since subjects were wholly in doubt.

Furthermore, the continent of origin (Group 1: Europe; Group 2: North America; Group 3: Africa; Group 4: Asia) had an impact on respondents' motivation for LTPA engagement. There was a statistically significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05$  level in health benefits [ $F(3, 129) = 4.041, p=0.01$ ]. The

post-hoc comparison using Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for Group 1 (M=2.00, SD=0.50) were significantly different from Group 2 (M=2.52, SD=0.50). North Americans agreed to health benefits as the reason for LTPA participation whereas Europeans were in doubt. Group 3 (M=2.14, SD=0.64) and Group 4 (M=1.86., SD=0.40) did not significantly differ from each other. There were, however, no established significant differences in social interaction ( $p=0.10$ ,  $F=2.17$ ) competence mastery ( $p=0.09$ ,  $F=2.24$ ), and autonomy ( $p=0.31$ ,  $F=1.20$ ) among the continents of origin of the respondents. For instance, respondents from all the continents disagreed with the fact that their participation in LTPA is based on external influence.

Also, the religious affiliation subjects were grouped into three (Group 1: Christianity; Group 2: Islam; Group 3: Others). It was established that there was a statistically significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05$  level in social interaction [ $F(3, 129) = 3.58$ ,  $p=0.03$ ]. The post-hoc comparison using Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for Group 1 (M=2.50, SD=0.64) were significantly different from Group 3 (M=1.81, SD=0.59). It is explainable that Christians agrees to social interaction as the motivating factor for LTPA participation but those who professed other religion such as Hinduism were uncertain about social interaction.

On occupation, subjects were grouped into three (Group 1: Employed; Group 2: Unemployed; Group 3: Student). It was established that there was a statistically significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05$  level in social interaction [ $F(3, 129) = 4.285$ ,  $p=0.02$ ]. The post-hoc comparison using Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for Group 1 (M=1.92, SD=0.65) were significantly different from Group 3 (M=2.51, SD=0.54). It is explainable that



students agree to social interaction as the motivating factor for LTPA participation but the working population of the international tourists was not certain about social interaction as a motivating factor for their LTPA. Again, there was a statistically significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05$  level in autonomy [ $F(3, 129) = 4.72, p=0.01$ ]. The post-hoc comparison using Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for Group 1 ( $M=1.35, SD=0.53$ ) were significantly different from Group 3 ( $M=1.65, SD=0.60$ ). The mean scores of the groups show that while the working population disagreed with autonomy, students were in doubt. Students could not decide because most students are been regulated by their parents or institutions, therefore, most of their decisions are influenced by either their parents or the institutions. But, health benefits ( $p=0.44, F=0.44$ ), and competence mastery ( $p=0.11, F=2.28$ ) did not differ among occupation of the respondents. To most people, their health condition is paramount irrespective of the occupation, perhaps the reason why health benefits did not vary across respondents' occupation.

Concerning the purpose of the visit, the respondents were grouped into four, (Group 1: Leisure; Group 2: Volunteerism; Group 3: Education; Group 4: Other). It was observed that the reasons for international tourists' visitation to the area did not in any way had an impact on their motivation for LTPA. Table 9 shows there is no statically significant difference in motivation across the purpose of the visit. This finding could be contingent on the fact that the majority of the respondents visited the area because of leisure.

## **International Tourists' Constraints to Participating in Leisure-time Physical Activities**

Leisure constraints are the conditions that make it difficult or impossible for people to engage in and enjoy leisure activities, whereas leisure negotiation refers to the tactics people use to get around these restrictions (Schneider, 2016). The Hierarchical Leisure Constraint model (Crawford and Godbey, 1987; Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991; Godbey, Crawford, & Shen, 2010) directed the creation of a scale to quantify international travelers' leisure-time physical activity limitations. Consequently, the constraints on LTPA of international tourists in this study were gauged with the three main constructs in the model. These three constructs are intrapersonal constraints, interpersonal constraints, and structural constraints.

The result indicates the description of the scores of both the individual indicator items and the constructs. International tourists' LTPA constraints were captured under the various constructs on a Five-point Likert scale (1-strongly agree, 2-disagree, 3-neither disagree nor agree, 4-agree, 5-strongly agree). Respondents were required to indicate whether or not they agreed with each statement under the constructs by choosing one option on the scale for an answer. Among the constructs, structural issues (mean = 3.14) constrained the international tourists most on leisure-time physical activities participation followed by intrapersonal (mean = 2.51) and the least construct as regards international tourists LTPA constraints was interpersonal (mean = 1.91). The structural constraint may have emerged as the highest or most in terms of tourist LTPA constraint because there are inadequate LTPA spaces and facilities to facilitate activities such as skiing, horse racing, skating, and

others. Also, intrapersonal, for example could not emerge as the most LTPA constraint because the most of the LTPA they participated in do not require any special or peculiar skills, or competence.

This finding is consistent with previous findings by Marwat, Zia-ul-Islam, & Khattak, (2016) and Stensland, Aas, & Mehmetoglu, (2017), who found structural constraints to be the most prominent, followed by intrapersonal constraints, and finally interpersonal constraints. It also agreed with Kara and Demirci (2010), Anaza and McDowell (2013), Cai (2015), Wood and Danylchuk (2015), Walker (2015), and Alahmad (2016), who listed structural constraints as the most important of all restrictions. However, the findings did not conform with Crawford and Godbey's (1987) assertion and Kinuthia's (2018) conclusion, that people are more constrained by intrapersonal constraints.

Concerning structural constraints, respondents admitted that there are limited or no leisure-time physical activities facilities (mean = 3.92), a lack of assistive devices, and suitable equipment for LTPA (3.53). Respondents were in doubt on items such as limited time (mean = 2.83) and facilities being mostly occupied (mean = 3.47), but wholly disagreed with the fact that high admission fees (mean = 1.97) could be a constraint to their participation in LTPA.

In terms of intrapersonal, respondents disagreed with lacking participation skills (mean = 2.02), not having interest (mean = 2.22), having difficulty in movement (mean = 1.90), were uncertain on been hurt by other people but agreed on lack of information on LTPA opportunities (3.69).

**Table 10: International Tourists’ LTPA Constraints**

Statement	Mean	SD
<i>Intrapersonal</i>	<i>2.51</i>	<i>1.14</i>
Do not have information on leisure opportunities.	3.69	1.08
Lack of participation skills.	2.02	1.16
Difficulty in movement.	1.90	1.21
Lack of interest.	2.22	1.24
Afraid of getting hurt by other people.	3.43	1.03
Don’t have the physical ability.	1.82	1.13
<i>Interpersonal</i>	<i>1.91</i>	<i>1.18</i>
Not feeling welcome by others.	1.67	1.12
Having no friends to participate with.	1.84	1.19
Companions prefer other activities to leisure-time physical activities.	2.27	1.26
Pretty much keep to myself and don’t have a lot of social contacts.	1.84	1.15
<i>Structural</i>	<i>3.14</i>	<i>0.96</i>
Unavailability of leisure-time physical activity facilities.	3.92	.73
Do not have enough time.	2.83	1.46
Lack of assistive devices and unsuitable equipment.	3.53	.72
Admission fees are too high.	1.97	1.06
Because available facilities are mostly occupied.	3.47	.83

Source: Field survey, Amoah (2021)

Scale: 1-1.49 = strongly disagreed, 1.50-2.49 = disagreed, 2.50-3.49 = neutral, 3.50-4.49 = agreed, 4.50-5.0 = strongly agreed.

Lastly, with regards to interpersonal constraints, international tourists disagreed with all the individual indicator items. Also in regards to intrapersonal constraints, respondents agreed to not having enough information on leisure opportunities (mean = 3.69), but disagreed with lack of participation skills (mean = 2.02), difficulty in movement (mean = 1.90), lack of interest (mean = 2.22) and were in doubt on the issue of getting hurt by other people (mean = 3.43). On interpersonal constraints, the tourists disagreed on all the items. Indicating that those do not constraint them *vis a vis* LTPA participation in the Cape Coast-Elmina area.

### **The Difference in Constraints across Background Characteristics of International Tourists**

This section examines the extent to which LTPA constraints differ by the same socio-demographic characteristics of international tourists. Furthermore, the factors that impede LTPA participation vary depending on the amount of LTPA, socioeconomic situation, and socio-demographics (World Health Organization, 2010), and since the conceptual framework that underpins this study has been linked to the socio-demographics of respondents to the constraints they are likely to face in their quest to engage in LTPA. The independent samples t-test and one-way analysis of variance were used again to test for the differences among the constraint and background characteristics based on the mean responses. The main constraint dimensions include intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural (Table 11).

The independent samples t-test was used to test for differences in constraints to LTPA participation among international tourists' sex. It was

observed that intrapersonal ( $p=0.249$ ;  $t=1.157$ ), interpersonal ( $p=0.295$ ;  $t=1.051$ ) and structural constraints ( $p=0.779$ ;  $t=0.280$ ) did not differ significantly among male and female. Both males and females disagreed on these three dimensions of constraints. This finding is following Kinuthia (2018), who found that there is no significant difference in constraints between males and females. Rauso, (2016), also found that males perceived constraints the same way as females. Contrary to that, there was a statistically significant difference at  $p\leq 0.05$  level in the constraint to intrapersonal ( $p=0.000$ ;  $t=3.688$ ) among married people ( $M=1.94$ ,  $SD=0.43$ ) and unmarried ( $M=1.67$ ,  $SD=0.82$ ). But, Table 11 shows that constraints did not differ among respondents' marital status *vis a vis* interpersonal ( $p=0.396$ ;  $t=0.852$ ), and structural ( $p=0.738$ ;  $t=0.335$ ).

**Table 11: LTPA Constraints by Background Characteristics**

Background characteristics	Intrapersonal	Interpersonal	Structural
<b>Sex</b>			
Male	1.761	1.474	2.164
Female	1.830	1.394	2.179
	$p=0.249$ $t=1.157$	$p=0.295$ $t=1.051$	$p=0.779$ $t=0.280$
<b>Age</b>			
≤ 30	1.762	1.437	2.165
31-40	1.760	1.469	2.200
41-51	1.931	1.382	2.235
51-60	1.778	1.389	2.111
60 +	1.988	1.411	2.157
	$p=0.186$ $F=1.564$	$p=0.974$ $F=0.123$	$p=0.838$ $F=0.358$
<b>Marital status</b>			
Married	1.938	1.462	2.172
Unmarried	1.688	1.391	2.192
	$p=0.000$ $t=3.688$	$p=0.396$ $t=0.852$	$p=0.738$ $t=0.335$
<b>Level of education</b>			
High school	1.783	1.538	2.224
Diploma/Degree	1.817	1.441	2.158
Masters	1.752	1.384	2.121
Ph.D.	1.867	1.267	2.280

	p=0.744 F=0.413	p=0.320 F=1.178	p=0.335 F=1.140
Continent of origin			
Europe	1.820	1.448	2.186
North America	1.790	1.392	2.185
Africa	1.600	1.600	1.960
Asia	1.500	1.375	1.600
	p=0.445 F=0.894	p=0.783 F=0.358	p=0.047 F=2.708
Religion			
Christianity	1.810	1.375	2.174
Islam	1.667	1.250	2.280
Others	1.803	1.558	2.183
	p=0.743 F=0.298	p=0.059 F=2.877	p=0.792 F=0.234
Occupation			
Employed	1.817	1.415	2.179
Unemployed	1.722	1.417	2.200
Student	1.756	1.477	2.149
	p=0.615 F=0.488	p=0.784 F=0.244	p=0.866 F=0.144
Purpose of visit			
Leisure	1.791	1.407	2.138
Volunteerism	1.892	1.446	2.173
Education	1.728	1.435	2.215
Other	1.745	1.515	2.282
	p=0.363 F=1.070	p=0.870 F=0.238	p=0.377 F=1.039

Scale 1-1.49 = Disagree, 1.50-2.49 = Neutral, 2.50-3 = Agree, Sig. level at  $\leq$  0.05,

Post-hoc test \*

Source: Field survey, Amoah (2021)

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of age (Group 1: 18-30; Group 2: 31-40; Group 3: 41-50; Group 4: 51-60; Group 5: more than 60) on the constraints to LTPA participation. It was observed that constraints to intrapersonal ( $p=0.186$ ,  $F=1.564$ ), interpersonal ( $p=0.974$ ,  $F=0.123$ ), and structural ( $p=0.838$ ,  $F=0.358$ ) did not differ significantly among the age groupings of international tourists. As regards intrapersonal, all the age groups were in doubt as well as

structural but disagreed with interpersonal constraints. It is, therefore, explicable that age does not impact LTPA constraints in any way as far as international tourists who visited the Cape Coast-Elmina area are concerned. One reason for this could be because the data was not normally distributed in terms of respondents' age groups since the researcher used a convenient sampling approach due to the transient nature of tourists and the lack of a sample frame. This result supports the findings of Kinuthia, (2018) and Jackson, (1993), who established that there is no statistically significant difference for constraints across various age categories. But, was inconsistent with Alahmad, (2016), who observed a statistically significant difference in constraints based on different age groups.

Similarly, level of education attained (Group 1: high school; Group 2: diploma/degree; Group 3: masters; Group 5: Ph.D.) by international tourists had no impact on constraints to intrapersonal ( $p=0.744$ ,  $F=0.413$ ), interpersonal ( $p=0.320$ ,  $F=1.178$ ) and structural ( $p=0.335$ ,  $F=1.140$ ). A review of the mean scores indicates that all international tourists, regardless of the level of education qualification, disagreed with interpersonal constraints as the barriers to LTPA participation, but was not very clear as regards the constraints to intrapersonal and structural.

The continent of origin (Group 1: Europe; Group 2: North America; Group 3: Africa; Group 4: Asia) had an impact on respondents' constraints to structural issues. The ANOVA conducted established that there was a statistically significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05$  level in the constraints to structural barriers among the four groups [ $F(3,168) = 2.71$ ,  $p=0.05$ ]. However, the post-hoc comparison with Tukey HSD test shows that the groups did not



differ significantly from each other. These groups were all neutral about structural issues being a barrier to their LTPA participation. There were, however, no significant differences in the constraint to intrapersonal ( $p=0.445$ ,  $F=0.894$ ) and interpersonal ( $p=0.783$ ,  $F=0.358$ ) and the continent from which international tourists came from.

Religion of the respondents (Group 1: Christianity; Group 2: Islam; Group 3: Other) had no impact on constraints to intrapersonal ( $p=0.74$ ,  $F=0.30$ ), interpersonal ( $p=0.06$ ,  $F=2.88$ ) and structural ( $p=0.79$ ,  $F=0.23$ ). A review of the mean scores indicates that all international tourists, regardless of their religious affiliation, disagreed with interpersonal constraints as the barriers to LTPA participation, but were in doubt as regards intrapersonal and structural constraints. Similarly, occupation (Group 1: Employed; Group 2: Unemployed; Group 3: Student) did not influence respondents' constraints to LTPA participation. There was no statistically significant difference religion and intrapersonal ( $p=0.62$ ,  $F=0.49$ ), interpersonal ( $p=0.78$ ,  $F=0.4$ ) and structural constraints ( $p=0.87$ ,  $F=0.14$ ). Lastly, the results indicate that there was no statistically significant difference between respondents' purpose of visit and constraints.

### **Regression Coefficients between Constraints and Negotiation Strategies**

A regression model was estimated and the results are displayed in Table 12. The model which includes intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural accounted for 5.6 percent of the total variance explained in constraint negotiation strategies. Among all the specific dimensions in the

model, it was the only structural constraint that made a statistically significant contribution to constraint negotiation strategies ( $\beta = 0.17$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ).

The model was further estimated on the individual constraint negotiation strategies dimensions. The least amount of variance explained in each constraint negotiation strategies dimension is 1 percent, which was for cognitive strategy. The maximum variance explained is 13 percent, which was for interpersonal relations. There was a negative relationship between intrapersonal constraint and cognitive strategy ( $\beta = -0.06$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ), and interpersonal relations ( $\beta = -0.03$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ). Interpersonal constraints made a statistically significant contribution to interpersonal relations ( $\beta = 0.28$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ). With the same constraint, a negative relationship was discovered with cognitive strategy ( $\beta = -0.03$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ).

The result also established that, structural constraints made a statistically significant contribution to interpersonal relations ( $\beta = 0.19$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ). However, there were no statistically significant relationship between structural constraints and financing ( $\beta = 0.05$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ), skills acquisition ( $\beta = 0.14$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ), time modification ( $\beta = 0.10$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ) and cognitive ( $\beta = 0.10$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ).

**Table 12: Regression Coefficients between Constraints Dimensions and Negotiation Strategies**

Constraints	Constraint	Cognitive	Interpersonal Relations	Time Modification	Skills Acquisition	Financing
Intrapersonal	0.024(0.328)	-0.056(0.134)	-0.028(0.097)	0.060(0.099)	0.134(0.067)	0.060(0.050)
Interpersonal	0.114(0.393)	-0.034(0.161)	0.280(0.116)*	0.011(0.119)	0.082(0.081)	0.138(0.060)
Structural	0.167(0.449)*	0.107(0.184)	0.190(0.133)*	0.101(0.136)	0.138(0.092)	0.049(0.068)
	$R^2 = 0.056$	$R^2 = 0.012$	$R^2 = 0.137$	$R^2 = 0.018$	$R^2 = 0.067$	$R^2 = 0.036$
	$p = 0.02$	$p = 0.56$	$p = 0.00$	$p = 0.38$	$p = 0.01$	$p = 0.10$

Standard errors in parenthesis; p-value is significant at, \* $p < 0.05$

Source: Field survey, Amoah (2021)

### **International Tourists' Constraints Negotiation Strategies to Leisure-time Physical Activities**

Constraint negotiation strategies are ways by which leisure participants can lessen the effects of possible constraints in an attempt to engage in any form of leisure. This was measured based on six dimensions. These dimensions include financing, time management, interpersonal relations, skills acquisition, leisure aspiration, and cognitive. Table 13 explains the description of the mean scores of both the individual indicator items and the constructs or dimensions. International tourists' LTPA constraints negotiation strategies were captured under the various constructs on a Five-point Likert scale (1-strongly agree, 2-disagree, 3-neither disagree nor agree, 4-agree, 5-strongly agree). Respondents were required to indicate whether or not they agreed with each statement under the constructs by choosing one option on the scale for an answer.

Among the constructs, cognitive (mean = 3.42) emerged as the best way for international tourists who visited the Cape Coast-Elmina area to negotiate constraints. Here, respondents agreed to individual items such as trying to be positive and have fun (mean = 3.78) and thinking about the benefits of the activity (mean = 3.70). Meanwhile, respondents could not choose between agreed and disagreed on thinking less of the constraints (mean = 3.10). The next negotiation strategy (Table 13) for international tourists was leisure aspiration (mean = 3.23). Respondents agreed that they will go to facilities where they will feel comfortable (mean = 3.51), but were in doubt about improvising with what they have (mean = 3,30), going to a less crowded

area (mean = 3.09), and finding an activity that is easy to perform (mean = 3.00).

**Table 13: Constraint Negotiation Strategies of International Tourists**

Statement	Mean	SD
<i>Financing</i>	1.96	1.07
Borrowing money from friends for leisure	1.39	0.78
Reducing my expenditure	1.99	1.07
Setting aside money to use for recreation	2.50	1.36
<i>Time modification</i>	3.05	1.21
Get up early or stay up late to make time	3.20	1.27
Sacrifice other activities for leisure-time physical activities	3.11	1.18
Reduce the amount of time I work	2.70	1.23
Plan my time for the week or month	3.00	1.11
Use my free time to engage in leisure-time physical activity	3.26	1.25
<i>Interpersonal relations</i>	2.60	1.30
Use the assistive device to help and guide me	2.28	1.26
Get friends or relatives with similar interests to assist me	2.82	1.30
Bring other people to make me feel safer	2.51	1.31
Organize events with my group	2.80	1.33
<i>Skills acquisition</i>	2.99	1.21
Learn to perform new activities	2.95	1.19
Learn skills on my own	3.08	1.15
Ask friends and relatives to teach me	2.93	1.29
<i>Leisure aspirations</i>	3.23	1.59

Go to less crowded areas	3.09	1.28
Go to areas where I feel comfortable	3.51	1.25
Improvise with what I have	3.30	1.11
Find an activity that is easier to perform	3.00	2.71
<i>Cognitive</i>	<i>3.42</i>	<i>1.28</i>
Try to be positive and have fun	3.78	1.24
Think about the benefits of the activity	3.70	1.30
Just put up with the constraint	3.10	1.26
Think less of the constraint	3.10	1.31

Source: Field survey, Amoah (2021)

Scale: 1-1.49 = strongly disagreed, 1.50-2.49 = disagreed, 2.50-3.49 = neutral, 3.50-4.49 = agreed, 4.50-5.0 = strongly agreed.

Skills acquisition had a mean value of 2.99. With this, international tourists were uncertain about all the individual indicator items. For instance, learning to perform new activities scored a mean of 2.95, learning skills on my own (mean = 3.08), and asking friends and relatives to teach me (mean=2.93). In addition, respondents were indecisive on constructs including time modification (mean = 3.05) and interpersonal relations (mean = 2.60) but disagreed with financing (mean = 1.96) as a strategy to deal with constraints. The cognitive strategy may have emerged as the most adopted negotiation strategy by international tourists because most of the LTPA are not monetary-intensive, therefore, financing could not have been the best or most negotiating strategy. Also, financial could not have emerged the most adopted strategy because, looking at the target population money is never a constraint to them as far as LTPA in concern especially in Ghana. The results were not congruous with Kinuthia's (2018) conclusion that LTPA participants were found to use financial or monetary resources more as negotiating strategies for

LTPA than skills acquisition, time management, and social skills strategies (Kinuthia, 2018).

### **EFA on International Tourists' Constraint Negotiation Strategies**

Again, it was necessary to take a further delve into the major underlying components of strategies that enable respondents to negotiate their constraints. This analysis was required to ascertain how specific constraint negotiation strategies put together interrelate to influence constraint negotiation, hence the need for factor analysis (FA) to be carried out. The FA was consequently performed on twenty-three (23) variables and the output is presented in Table 14.

Bartlett's test of sphericity was found to be very significant ( $p=0.00$ ) while the KMO index of 0.802 confirmed the suitability of the data for FA. The table also contains the eigenvalues and the factor loadings. A recommendation is made for the inspection of a correlation matrix of 0.3 or more while factors or components with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or more are retained for further investigation (Pallant, 2005). Also, Cronbach's alpha was used to test the reliability of the scale used and the extent to which the variables contributed to explaining a factor. Pallant (2005) suggests that to determine the degree to which all items under the construct effectively measure it, Cronbach's alpha coefficient should be examined. She recommends that for appropriateness, Cronbach's alpha coefficient should be more than 0.7

Moreover, for an easier interpretation of the results, the factors were subjected to a 'rotation' to be presented with components represented by

several strongly loaded variables. Therefore, the Principal Component Analysis (PCA), employing the varimax rotation, reduced the twenty-three (23) variables to five (5) main underlying dimensions which were adopted by respondents as constraint negotiation strategies. The five (5) uncorrelated factor solutions together explained 61.7% of the total variances (Table 14). This output suggests that 38.3% of other factors or strategies might have influenced their constraint negotiation. The factors or strategies, however, contributed differently to the explanation of the total variance which was as follows:

Factor one (1) labeled as cognitive consisted of issues about going to areas that make respondents feel comfortable, trying to be positive and have fun, improvising with what I have, thinking about the benefits of the activity, thinking less of the constraints, just putting up with the constraint and finding an activity that is easier to perform. This factor explained 7.08 (30.80%) of the total variance. Factor two (2) is labeled as interpersonal relations. Interpersonal relations included bringing other people to make the participant feel safe, getting friends and relatives with similar interests, organizing events with my group, using assistive devices to help and guide me, and going to less crowded areas. These together explained 2.55 (11.09%) of the total variances.

Factor three (3), which was labeled as time modification, comprised sacrificing other activities for LTPA, getting up early or staying up late to make time for LTPA, planning my time for the week or month, and reducing the amount of time I work and using my free time to engage in LTPA. This factor explained 1.70 (7.42%) of the total variance. Factor four (4) was labeled as skills acquisition. This factor included learning skills on my own, learning



to perform new activities, and asking friends and relatives to teach me. Skills acquisition explained 1.54 (6.72%) of the total variance.

**Table 14: Structure of Factors for Respondents' Negotiation Strategies**

Factor and observed variables	Factor Loading	Eigen-value	Variance Explained (%)	Cronbach's alpha
I Cognitive		7.083	30.80	0.740
Go to areas where I will feel comfortable	0.761			
Try to be positive and have fun	0.728			
Improvise with what I have	0.701			
Think about the benefits of the activity	0.686			
Think less of the constraints	0.666			
Just put up with the constraint	0.594			
Find an activity that is easier to perform	0.305			
II Interpersonal relations		2.551	11.09	0.801
Bring other people to make me feel safe	0.772			
Get friends and relatives with similar interests to assist me	0.771			
Organize events with my group	0.721			
Use assistive devices to help and guide me	0.703			
Go to less crowded areas	0.481			
III Time modification		1.701	7.42	0.803
Sacrifice other activities for LTPA	0.777			
Get up early or stay up late to make time	0.728			
Plan my time for the week or month	0.656			
Reduce the amount of time I work	0.594			
Use my free time to engage in LTPA	0.590			
IV Skills acquisition		1.545	6.72	0.803
Learn skills on my own	0.797			
Learn to perform new activities	0.777			
Ask friends and relatives to teach me	0.628			
V Financing		1.312	5.70	0.709
Borrowing money from friends for LTPA	0.753			
Reduce my expenditure	0.688			
Setting aside money to use for recreational activities	0.549			
Total			61.73	

Source: Source: Field survey, Amoah (2021). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Approx. Chi-square) = 1952.541, p-value=0.00. Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.802.

The fifth and last factor was labeled as financing. It explained 1.31 (5.70%). This factor involved borrowing money from friends for LTPA, reducing my expenditure, and setting aside money to use for recreational activities. These results indicate that financing was never an option when it comes to the issue of international tourists' constraint negotiation strategies. Probably because finance was not a constraint in the first place since they enjoy a favorable exchange rate when they visit developing countries such as Ghana.

### **The Difference in Constraint Negotiation Strategies across Background Characteristics of International Tourists**

The strategies that participants would adopt to lessen the effects of the constraints may vary according to socioeconomic status and socio-demographics (World Health Organization, 2010). And, since the conceptual framework that underpinned the study has a linkage, though indirect, between the socio-demographics of respondents and the constraint negotiation strategies, it becomes necessary to find out if constraint negotiation strategies vary among background characteristics. The independent samples t-test and one-way analysis of variance were used again to test for the differences among the constraint negotiation strategies and background characteristics based on the mean responses.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the constraint negotiation strategies scores for males and females. It was revealed that there were statistically significant differences between males and females on cognitive [ $t(172) = -2.70, p = 0.01$ ], and interpersonal relations [ $t(172) = -$

3.29,  $p=0.00$ ]. In contrast, the test indicates that international tourists did not differ by sex with respect to time modification ( $p=0.27$ ;  $t=-1.10$ ), skills acquisition ( $p=0.30$ ;  $t=-1.04$ ) and financing ( $p=0.98$ ;  $t=0.02$ ). Marital status did not influence respondents' decision on cognitive as a negotiation strategy. The independent samples t-test shows no statistically significant difference ( $p=0.34$ ;  $t=0.87$ ). Similarly, there were no difference between married and unmarried international tourists when it comes to financing ( $p=0.07$ ;  $t=1.80$ ), interpersonal relations ( $p=0.32$ ;  $t=-1.00$ ), time modification ( $p=0.84$ ;  $t=-21$ ), and skills acquisition ( $p=0.15$ ;  $t=1.44$ ).

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of age on the constraint negotiation strategies. Subjects were divided into five (5) groups according to their age (Group 1: less than 30; Group 2: 31-40; Group 3: 41-50; Group 4: 51-60; Group 5: more than 60). There was a statistically significant difference at  $p\leq 0.05$  level in interpersonal relations for the five age groups [ $F(4, 171)= 4.55$ ,  $p=0.00$ ]. The post-hoc comparison using Turkey HSD test indicates that the mean scores for Group 4 ( $M=1.49$ ,  $SD=0.41$ ) were significantly different from Group 1 ( $M= 1.96$ ,  $SD=0.57$ ) and Group 3 ( $M= 1.96$ ,  $SD=0.75$ ). Whiles those who are between the ages of 50 and 60 years disagreed with interpersonal relation strategy, those who are less than 30 years were not certain. Group 2 ( $M=1.65$ ,  $SD=0.67$ ) and Group 5 ( $M=1.52$ ,  $SD=0.63$ ) did not show any significant difference (Table 15).

**Table 15: LTPA Negotiation Strategies by Background Characteristics**

Background characteristics	Cognitive	Interpersonal relations	Time modification	Skills acquisition	Financing
<b>Sex</b>					
Male	2.095	1.707	2.021	1.983	1.427
Female	2.322	2.000	2.117	2.089	1.429
	$p=0.008$ $t=-2.697$	$p=0.001$ $t=-3.289$	$p=0.272$ $t=-1.101$	$p=0.298$ $t=-1.043$	$p=0.981$ $t=-0.023$
<b>Age</b>					
≤ 30	2.242	1.956*	2.145	2.158*	1.458
31-40	2.107	1.649	2.063	2.021	1.417
41-51	2.370	1.956*	2.235	1.980	1.549
51-60	2.095	1.485*	1.778	1.450*	1.204
60 +	2.306	1.518	1.814	1.929	1.405
	$p=0.408$ $F=1.002$	$p=0.002$ $F=4.546$	$p=0.031$ $F=2.720$	$p=0.033$ $F=2.689$	$p=0.254$ $F=1.348$
<b>Marital status</b>					
Married	2.266	1.809	2.062	2.128	1.513
Unmarried	2.191	1.903	2.080	1.988	1.377
	$p=0.388$ $t=0.865$	$p=0.320$ $t=-0.997$	$p=0.835$ $t=-0.209$	$p=0.152$ $t=1.440$	$p=0.074$ $t=1.801$
<b>Level of education</b>					
High school	2.139	1.958	2.139	2.030	1.445
Diploma/Degree	2.185	1.874	1.975	2.082	1.424
Masters	2.322	1.898	2.130	2.000	1.333
Ph.D.	2.286	1.547	2.293	1.956	1.467
	$p=0.437$ $F=0.912$	$p=0.157$ $F=1.759$	$p=0.141$ $F=1.844$	$p=0.866$ $F=0.243$	$p=0.297$ $F=1.240$
<b>Continent of origin</b>					
Europe	2.256	1.956	2.046	2.090	1.377
North America	2.187	1.732	2.117	1.979	1.497
Africa	1.914	1.960	2.120	2.000	1.733
Asia	2.214	1.600	1.900	1.667	1.000
	$p=0.536$ $F=0.729$	$p=0.108$ $F=2.056$	$p=0.847$ $F=0.270$	$p=0.626$ $F=0.585$	$p=0.109$ $F=2.051$
<b>Religion</b>					
Christianity	2.227	1.892	2.094	2.050	1.470
Islam	2.257	2.040	2.440	2.400	1.533
Others	2.231	1.847	2.027	1.989	1.378
	$p=0.993$ $F=0.007$	$p=0.751$ $F=0.869$	$p=0.269$ $F=1.325$	$p=0.387$ $F=0.955$	$p=0.467$ $F=0.765$
<b>Occupation</b>					
Employed	2.210	1.839	2.078	1.962*	1.401
Unemployed	2.429	1.567	1.900	1.889	1.611
Student	2.216	1.991	2.084	2.587*	1.481
	$p=0.640$	$p=0.163$	$p=0.753$	$p=0.017$	$p=0.418$

	<i>F</i> =0.448	<i>F</i> =1.836	<i>F</i> =0.284	<i>F</i> =4.145	<i>F</i> =0.876
Purpose of visit					
Leisure	2.223	1.844	2.110	2.000	1.440
Volunteerism	2.170	1.946	2.092	2.000	1.414
Education	2.132	1.778	1.926	2.136	1.272
Other	2.445	1.965	2.071	2.196	1.647
	<i>p</i> =0.993	<i>p</i> =0.751	<i>p</i> =0.269	<i>p</i> =0.387	<i>p</i> =0.467
	<i>F</i> =0.007	<i>F</i> =0.869	<i>F</i> =1.325	<i>F</i> =0.955	<i>F</i> =0.765

Scale 1-1.49 = Disagree, 1.50-2.49 = Neutral, 2.50-3 = Agree, Sig. level at  $\leq 0.05$ ,

Post-hoc test \*

Source: Field survey, Amoah (2021)

Again, there was a statistically significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05$  level in skills acquisition for the age groups [ $F(4, 171) = 2.69, p = 0.03$ ] and time modification [ $F(4, 171) = 2.72, p = 0.03$ ]. The post-hoc test for skills acquisition strategy shows that the mean scores for Group 1 ( $M = 2.16, SD = 0.68$ ) were significantly different from Group 4 ( $M = 1.45, SD = 0.38$ ). Group 2 ( $M = 2.02, SD = 0.72$ ), Group 3 ( $M = 1.98, SD = 0.58$ ) and Group 5 ( $M = 1.93, SD = 0.64$ ) did not show any significant difference. The results show that young international tourists are likely to negotiate their constraints with interpersonal relations and skills acquisition. Perhaps, youth or young people easily associate with their peers and are fast learners, therefore, can easily acquire skills to be able to participate in LTPA. On the contrary, respondents across the various age grouping did not show significant differences in financing ( $p = 0.25; F = 1.35$ ), and cognitive ( $p = 0.51; F = 1.00$ ). As indicated earlier, international tourists, whom majority originated from Europe have a favorable exchange rate, therefore, are financially strong so financing would not be a constraint in the first place for them to negotiate irrespective of the age.

The levels of education attained by international tourists had no impact on their constraint negotiation strategies. Subjects were divided into four (4) groups according to their educational qualifications (Group 1: high school; Group 2: diploma/degree; Group 3: masters; Group 5: Ph.D.). It was observed that there was no statistically significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05$  level in cognitive ( $p=0.44$ ;  $F=0.91$ ), interpersonal relations ( $p=0.16$ ;  $F=1.76$ ), time modification ( $p=0.14$ ;  $F=1.84$ ), skills acquisition ( $p=0.87$ ;  $F=0.24$ ) and financing strategies ( $p=0.30$ ;  $F=1.24$ ). This shows that respondents wholly disagreed with financing and were uncertain about cognitive, interpersonal relations, time modification, and skills acquisition strategies.

Moreover, continent of origin (Group 1: Europe, Group 2: North America, Group 3: Africa and Group 4: Asia) had no impact on international tourists' constraint negotiation strategies. There were no significant disparities on cognitive ( $p=0.54$ ;  $F=0.73$ ), interpersonal relations ( $p=0.11$ ;  $F=2.06$ ), time modification ( $p=0.85$ ;  $F=0.27$ ), skills acquisition ( $p=0.63$ ;  $F=0.59$ ) and financing ( $p=0.11$ ;  $F=2.05$ ). Similar to level of education, respondents wholly disagreed to financing and were uncertain on cognitive, interpersonal relations, time modification and skills acquisition strategies. Lastly, respondents did not differ by religious affiliation on cognitive ( $p=0.99$ ;  $F=0.00$ ), interpersonal relations ( $p=0.75$ ;  $F=0.87$ ), time modification ( $p=0.27$ ;  $F=1.33$ ), skills acquisition ( $p=0.39$ ;  $F=0.96$ ) and financing ( $p=0.47$ ;  $F=0.77$ ).

In terms of religious affiliation, the results indicate that there was no statistically significant difference between respondents' religion and constraint negotiation strategies. There was no statistically significant difference on cognitive strategy ( $p=0.99$ ;  $F=0.01$ ), interpersonal relations ( $p=0.75$ ;  $F=0.87$ ),

time modification ( $p=0.27$ ;  $F=1.33$ ), skill acquisition ( $p=0.39$ ;  $F=0.96$ ) and financing ( $p=0.42$ ;  $F=0.77$ ). This is an indication that irrespective of their religious affiliation, international tourists were uncertain about the constraint negotiation strategies.

On the other hand, occupation (Group 1: Employed; Group 2: Unemployed; Group 3: Student) influenced respondents' LTPA constraint negotiation strategies. There was a statistically significant difference between occupation and skill acquisition at  $p \leq 0.05$  level ( $p=0.02$ ,  $F=4.15$ ). The post-hoc test for skills acquisition strategy shows that the mean scores for Group 1 ( $M=1.96$ ,  $SD=0.65$ ) were significantly different from Group 3 ( $M= 2.59$ ,  $SD=0.65$ ). A critical review of the mean scores shows that students agree to skill acquisition as a negotiation strategy to constraints, while employed respondents were neutral on skill acquisition. It can be said that students have time and are ready to learn new skills but respondents who are employed may not have the time to learn new skills due to their busy schedules and other responsibilities. However, there was no statistically significant difference between occupation and cognitive ( $p=0.64$ ,  $F=0.45$ ), interpersonal relations ( $p=0.16$ ,  $F=1.84$ ), time modification ( $p=0.75$ ,  $F=0.28$ ) and financing ( $p=0.42$ ,  $F=0.88$ ). Lastly, Religion of the respondents (Group 1: Christianity; Group 2: Islam; Group 3: Other) had no impact on cognitive strategy ( $p=0.99$ ,  $F=0.01$ ), interpersonal relations ( $p=0.75$ ,  $F=0.87$ ), time modification ( $p=0.27$ ,  $F=1.33$ ), skill acquisition ( $p=0.38$ ,  $F=0.96$ ) and financing ( $p=0.47$ ,  $F=0.77$ ).

### **Regression Results on Factors Influencing International Tourists' Constraint Negotiation Strategies**

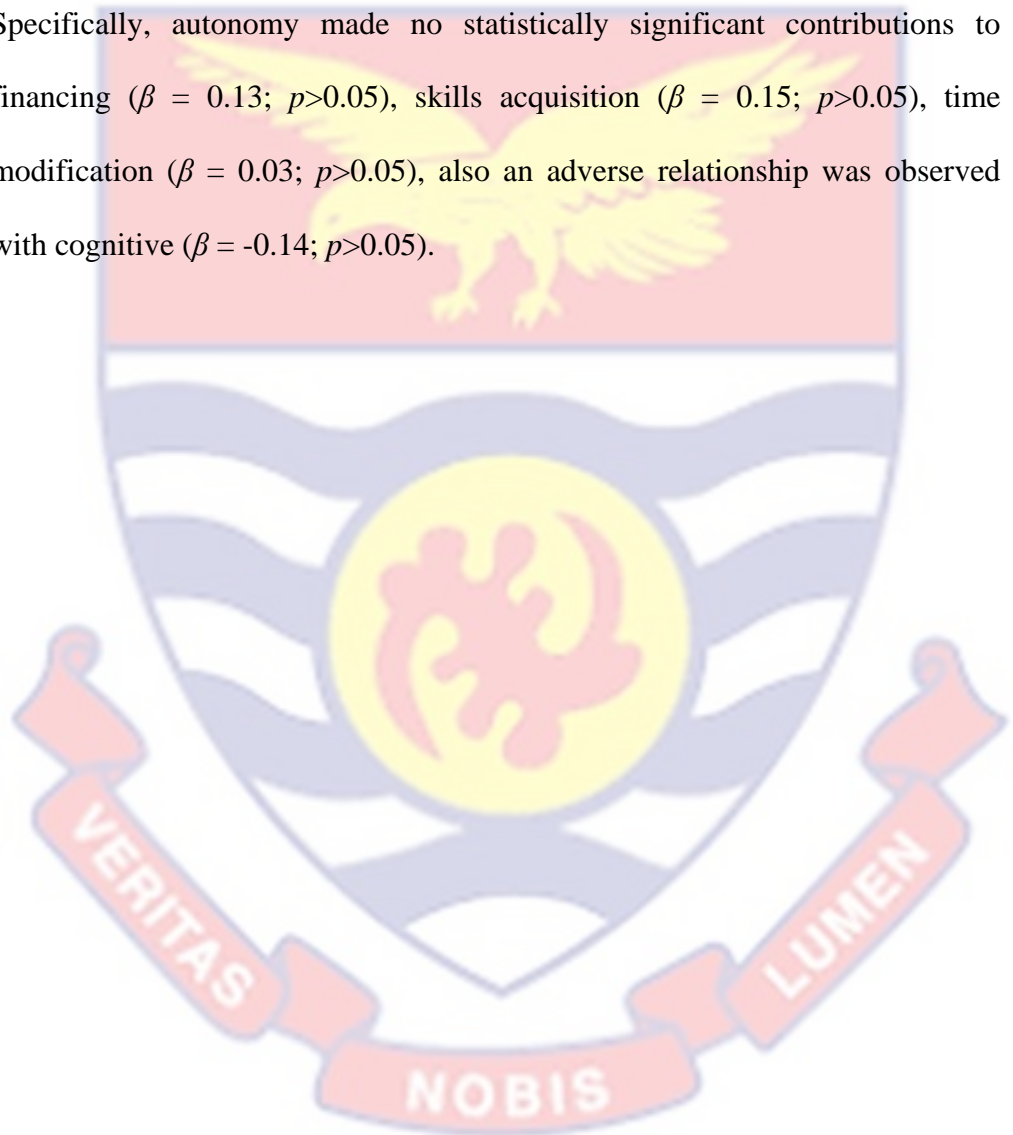
The researcher hypothesized that motivation does not influence constraint negotiation strategies. To reject or fail to reject the hypotheses a multiple linear regression model was estimated and the results are displayed in Table 16. The model which includes social interaction, competence mastery, autonomy, and health benefits explains 11 percent of the total variance in constraint negotiation strategies. None of the specific dimensions in the model made a statistically significant unique contribution to the constraint negotiation strategy. An inverse relationship was established between health and constraint negotiation strategy ( $\beta = -0.04$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ).

The analysis was disaggregated into the specific constraint negotiation strategies dimensions. The model did not make any statistically significant contribution to interpersonal relations ( $p = 0.20$ ) and time modification ( $p = 0.11$ ). The least amount of variance explained in each constraint negotiation strategies dimension is 4 percent, this was for the interpersonal relations strategy. The maximum variance explained is 18 percent, that is for skills acquisition. Health benefits had no significant relationship with any of the constraint negotiation strategies. An inverse relationship was observed between health benefits and cognitive ( $\beta = -0.04$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ), interpersonal relations ( $\beta = -0.06$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ), and skills acquisition ( $\beta = -0.09$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ).

The results on the effect of social interaction on constraint negotiation strategies, generally, made no statistically significant unique contribution ( $\beta = 0.17$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ) to constraint negotiation strategy. Specifically, statistically significant unique contributions were made to skills acquisition ( $\beta = 0.21$ ;  $p <$



0.05) while a reverse relationship was established with cognitive ( $\beta = 0.00$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ). Competence as a motivation dimension made a statistically significant contribution to cognitive strategy ( $\beta = 0.36$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ) and skills acquisition ( $\beta = 0.28$ ;  $p < 0.50$ ). Lastly, it is observed that autonomy makes no statistically significant contribution to constraint negotiation strategies ( $\beta = 0.04$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ). Specifically, autonomy made no statistically significant contributions to financing ( $\beta = 0.13$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ), skills acquisition ( $\beta = 0.15$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ), time modification ( $\beta = 0.03$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ), also an adverse relationship was observed with cognitive ( $\beta = -0.14$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ).



**Table 16: Regression Coefficients of Motivation Dimensions and Constraint Negotiation Strategies Dimensions**

Motivation	Constraint Negotiation Strategies	Cognitive	Interpersonal Relations	Time modification	Skills Acquisition	Financing
Social interaction	0.170(0.220)	-0.006(0.090)	0.152(0.073)	0.179(0.065)	0.207(0.043)*	0.206(0.033)
Competence	0.217(0.206)	0.355(0.084)*	0.010(0.068)	0.012(0.060)	0.278(0.040)*	0.047(0.031)
Autonomy	0.041(0.362)	-0.141(0.148)	0.130(0.120)	0.027(0.106)	0.149(0.071)	0.133(0.054)
Health benefits	-0.039(0.241)	-0.106(0.099)	-0.062(0.080)	0.100(0.071)	-0.091(0.047)	0.098(0.036)
	$R^2 = 0.110$	$R^2 = 0.128$	$R^2 = 0.047$	$R^2 = 0.058$	$R^2 = 0.187$	$R^2 = 0.104$
	$p = 0.00$	$p = 0.00$	$p = 0.20$	$p = 0.11$	$p = 0.00$	$p = 0.00$

Standard errors in parenthesis; p-value is significant at, \* $p < 0.05$

Source: Field survey, Amoah (2021)

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Introduction

This chapter presents the concluding part of the study which summarizes the whole thesis. The chapter presents the summary of the main findings and draws conclusions based on the results as well as recommendations.

#### Summary

The main objective of the study was to assess the leisure time physical activities participation, motivation, constraints, and negotiation strategies among international tourists in the Cape Coast-Elmina conurbation. Specifically, to

1. Examine the kinds of LTPA undertaken by international tourists.
2. Analyze the motivations for undertaking leisure-time physical activities by international tourists.
3. Analyze the constraints in undertaking leisure-time physical activities by international tourists.
4. Determine leisure-time physical activities constraint negotiation strategies adopted by international tourists.

The conceptual framework for the study was guided by the hierarchical leisure constraints model (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey 1991; Godbey, Crawford, & Shen, 2010) and the Self-Determination Theory, (Deci & Ryan, 1985) to support the study. The framework identifies

five main issues in profiling, which include background characteristics, motivation, constraints, and constraint negotiation strategies, leisure participation. The framework also established some linkages between the five main issues, of which the tourists is a function.

The study adopted a cross-sectional research design and a quantitative method of data collection and analysis. Questionnaires were administered to 172 international tourists through a convenient sampling procedure. The data from the field was edited, coded, entered, and analyzed using the IBM SPSS version 25. Descriptive statistical presentations included frequency tables, pie charts, means, standard deviations, chi-square, and fisher's exact test. Inferential statistical analyses involved the use of independent samples t-test and ANOVA to test for differences in motivation, constraints, and negotiation strategies among the background characteristics of international tourists. Regression analysis was also conducted to determine the causality between certain key variables. And lastly, factor analysis was conducted to ascertain how much of the variance explained was a result of some key components or dimensions.

### **Main Findings**

The majority (76%) of international tourists participated in LTPA. It was established that there is no statistically significant relationship between LTPA participation and background characteristics of international tourists.

Predominantly, swimming (33.3%) and walking/hiking (29.2%) were the most participated LTPA, followed by jogging (12.3%), and playing football (6.2%). Also, LTPA of the respondents significantly vary by their sex

and age. A majority (44.6%) of the respondents engaged in LTPA for 1-2 days per week, with very few engaged in 6-7 days in a week (15.4%). The majority (63.0%) of international tourists who had engaged in LTPA, were reported having engaged in moderate-intensive activities, whereas both light-intensive and vigorous-intensive constituted 18.5% each of LTPA participants. In terms of duration, it was established that the majority (46.9%) of participants engaged in LTPA for less than an hour while a relatively small proportion engaged for more than 3 hours (6.9%) and 2-3 hours (7.7%).

On respondents LTPA motivation, recreation, relaxation and fun accounted for the highest variance (mean = 3.66) explained followed by health benefits (mean = 3.23), and competence mastery (mean = 3.12). The PCA, reduced the twenty-eight (28) variables to four (4) main underlying dimensions. These factors together accounted for 60.26% of the total variance explained. Social interaction (18.32%) and competence mastery (17.45%) account for the highest percentage. Again, there were variations in some motivational factors across respondents' background characteristics. Motivation for health differed among sex ( $p=0.05$ ), age ( $p=0.01$ ) and continent of origin ( $p=0.01$ ) of respondents. Autonomy differed by age ( $p=0.01$ ) and level of education ( $p=0.00$ ). Also, competence mastery differed by respondents' age groups ( $p=0.00$ ) and level of education ( $p=0.04$ ). Social interaction also differed by respondents' religious affiliation ( $p=0.03$ ).

Constraints were measured with three main dimensions. Structural constraints accounted for the highest variance (mean = 3.14) explained, followed by intrapersonal constraints (mean = 2.51) and interpersonal constraints (mean = 1.91). There were discrepancies in some constraints

across respondents' background characteristics. Intrapersonal constraints varied by just international tourists' marital status ( $p=0.00$ ) while structural constraints also differed among the continent of origin ( $p=0.05$ ) of respondents. It was established that LTPA constraints made a significant contribution to a change in constraint negotiation strategies ( $\beta = 0.06$ ;  $p<0.05$ ).

As regards constraints negotiation strategies, cognitive (mean = 3.70) had the highest variance, followed by leisure aspiration (mean = 3.23), and time modification (mean = 3.05). The PCA, reduced the twenty-three (23) variables to five (5) main underlying dimensions or strategies. These factors or strategies accounted for 61.73% of the total variance explained. Specifically, cognitive accounted for 30.80% of the total variance explained, whereas interpersonal accounted for 11.09%. Also, time modification accounted for 7.42%. There were differences in constraint negotiation strategies across respondents' background characteristics. Cognitive differed among respondents' sex ( $p=0.01$ ), also Interpersonal relation varied among sex ( $p=0.00$ ) and age ( $p=0.00$ ). Time modification differed among ages ( $p=0.03$ ), as skills acquisition differed by just respondents' age groups ( $p=0.03$ ). Lastly, Motivation explained 11 percent of the variance in constraint negotiation strategies with a p-value of 0.00.

## Conclusions

Based on the objectives of the study and the ensuing findings presented, the following conclusions are drawn:

International tourists who visited the destination are interested in LTPA and can be concluded that international tourists' LTPA participation

does not relate to background characteristics. Swimming and walking/hiking emerged as the most preferred LTPA among the tourists. It can also be concluded that the preferred LTPA of the respondents significantly varies by their sex and age. Generally, international tourists are inclined to moderate-intensive LTPA.

Furthermore, it can be concluded that international tourists are motivated largely by fun, relaxation, and recreation. Again, there is sufficient evidence to conclude that differences exist in motivational dimensions across background characteristics. The motivation for health varies among sex, age groups, and the continent of origin of international tourists while autonomy also differs by international tourists' age groups and level of education. Competence mastery varies among respondents' age and level of education, whereas social interaction differs by respondents' religious affiliation.

Moreover, international tourists who visited the Cape Coast-Elmina area are been constraint mostly by structural issues. Again, there is enough evidence to conclude that differences exist in some constraint variables across some background characteristics. This was revealed by the results of the independent samples t-test and the one-way analysis of variance. Intrapersonal constraint differs among respondents' marital status while structural constraint varies by continent of origin of the respondents. In short, it can be concluded that concerning constraints to LTPA participation, international tourists are not homogeneous. While some specific constraint variables differ by background characteristics, others do not. It can also be concluded that LTPA constraint had an impact on LTPA constraint negotiation strategies, therefore,

the researcher rejects the null hypothesis that LTPA constraint does not influence constraint negotiation strategies.

International tourists who participated in the study mostly negotiate constraints with cognitive strategy and time modification strategy. Again, based on the available statistics, it can be concluded that negotiation strategies differ among background characteristics. Consequently, cognitive differences among respondents' sex and interpersonal relations also vary by sex and age. Time modification differed among the age of respondents as skills acquisition differed by just respondents' age groups. In furtherance, conclusions can be drawn that motivation contributed significantly to negotiation strategies. As a result, the researcher rejects the null hypothesis, that there is no statistically significant relationship between motivation and constraints negotiation strategies.

### **Recommendations**

Based on the major findings and conclusions drawn, the following recommendations are made:

- Since it was found that swimming and hiking are the most preferred LTPAs, it is recommended that tour operators should include these two activities in their itineraries or tour packages as a marketing strategy.
- Ghana Tourism Authority (GTA) together with the Tourism Ministry should consider developing more active leisure activities or spaces (such as horse riding, cycling, boat riding, recreational fishing, and others) since the tourists said they do not engage in LTPA because



there are limited LTPA facilities in the area. This can help generate more revenue for the local community and the national economy.

- Having known that international tourists participate in LTPA because of the fun and relaxation, it is, therefore, recommended that tourism developers and promoters should consider including any form of fun-based physical activity space or facility in their development to attract the tourists to the facilities, either hotel or attraction site.
- The tourism ministry, together with GTA (policy implementation agency) should incorporate and or redesign the tourist sites in Ghana to include recreational facilities that encourage LTPA.

### **Suggestions for Further Research**

The study has explored the motivation, constraint, and negotiation strategies for leisure-time physical activities participation of international tourists. A further study could focus on a comprehensive comparison of international tourists and domestic tourists, in terms of their LTPA motivation, constraints, and negotiation strategies.

Furthermore, leisure-time physical activities may have implications on tourists' health; therefore, further researchers may take a look at the impact of leisure time physical activities participation on tourists' wellbeing.

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APPENDIX

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST  
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES  
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCE  
DEPARTMENT OF HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT  
SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

**INTRODUCTION**

The researcher is a Masters of Philosophy (MPhil) student researching Leisure-time physical activities among international tourists. This research is part of the requirement for the award of an MPhil. degree in Tourism at the University of Cape Coast, Ghana. I would very much appreciate it if you could take 15 minutes to complete this questionnaire.

**Filter question**

- i. Have you filled out this questionnaire during your stay in Cape Coast-Elmina?
  - a. YES {    }                      b. NO {    }

**If NO, please continue**

- ii. Have you engaged in any leisure-time physical activity during your stay in Cape Coast-Elmina?
  - a. YES {    }                      b. NO {    }

**If YES complete Section A – F. If NO, please move to Section C**

**Section A: Leisure-time physical activities profile**

- iii. What is your preferred leisure-time physical activity during your vacation?
  - a. ....
  - b. ....
- iv. How often do you engage in leisure-time physical activities?
  - a. 1–2 days/week {    }                      b. 3-5days/week {    }
  - c. 6-7days/week {    }

- v. Describe the intensity of your leisure-time physical activity
  - a. Light {     }     b. moderate {     }     c. Intense {     }
  - d. vigorous {     }
- vi. How many minutes do you practically spend engaging in leisure-time physical activities daily?  
.....
- vii. Do you engage in leisure-time physical activities alone?
  - a. YES {     }     b. NO {     }
- viii. If no, with who.....

**Section B: Motivation for leisure-time physical activities**

The following statements are some of the motivations that influenced an individual to participate in leisure-time physical activities. By ticking (√), please indicate how much you agree with the statements: 1= No Agreement, 2 Slightly Agree, 3 Moderately Agree, 4 Mostly Agree, and 5 Completely Agree.

	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
	<b>Health</b>					
	<i>One of the reasons for engaging in leisure-time physical activities is;</i>					
1	To maintain a healthy body.					
2	To be physically fit.					
3	Improving cardiovascular fitness.					
4	To maintain a trimmed, and toned body.					
5	To manage a medical condition.					
6	Because it was prescribed by a doctor or physio.					
7	To lose weight, guard against obesity, and look better.					
	<b>Relaxation, Recreation, and Fun</b>					
8	To avoid the hustle and bustle of daily life.					
9	To relieve stress and tension.					
10	Because it is interesting and fun.					
11	Because it makes me happy.					
12	Because I enjoy participating in leisure-time physical activities.					
	<b>Autonomy</b>					
13	I depend on other people more than the majority of those I know.					
14	To do anything, I first need other people’s approval.					
15	When taking a decision, I depend too much on other people’s opinions.					
16	I find it difficult to decide on my own.					

<b>Competence mastery</b>						
17	To improve existing skills					
18	To do my personal best					
19	To obtain new skills/activities					
20	To maintain current skill level					
21	To get better at an activity					
<b>Social interaction (relatedness)</b>						
22	To interact with others.					
23	To build a friendship with others.					
24	To gain the respect of others.					
25	To gain the feeling of belonging.					
26	I get along with people I come into contact with.					
27	Because I enjoy spending time with others.					
28	To do something in common with friends.					

**Section C: Constraints to leisure-time physical activities**

The following statements are some constraints or barriers that impede an individual not to participate in leisure-time physical activities. By ticking (√), please indicate how much you agree with the statements: 1= No Agreement, 2 Slightly Agree, 3 Moderately Agree, 4 Mostly Agree, and 5 Completely Agree.

	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Intrapersonal</b>						
1	Do not have information on LTPA opportunities.					
2	Lack of participation skills.					
3	Difficulty in movement.					
4	Lack of interest.					
5	Afraid of getting hurt by other people.					
6	Don't have the physical ability.					
<b>Interpersonal</b>						
7	I do not feel welcome by others.					
8	I have no friends to participate with.					
9	Companions prefer other activities to leisure-time physical activities.					
10	I pretty much keep to myself and don't have a lot of social contacts.					
<b>Structural</b>						
11	Unavailability of leisure-time physical activity facilities.					
12	I do not have enough time.					
13	Lack of assistive devices and unsuitable equipment.					
14	Admission fees are too high.					
15	Because available facilities are mostly occupied.					

**Section D: Constraint negotiation strategies for leisure-time physical activities**

The following statements are constraint negotiation strategies that can be adopted by individuals to do away with or lessen the effects of the constraints on leisure-time physical activities. By ticking (√), please indicate how much you agree with the statements: 1= No Agreement, 2 Slightly Agree, 3 Moderately Agree, 4 Mostly Agree, and 5 Completely Agree.

	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Financing</b>						
1	Borrowing money from friends for LTPA					
2	Reducing my expenditure.					
3	Setting aside money to use for recreation.					
<b>Time modification</b>						
4	Get up early or stay up late to make time.					
5	Sacrifice other activities for leisure-time physical activities.					
6	Reduce the amount of time I work.					
7	Plan my time for the week or month.					
8	Use my off-days and leaves to engage in leisure-time physical activity.					
<b>Interpersonal relations</b>						
9	Use an assistive device to help and guide me.					
10	Get friends or relatives with similar interests to assist me.					
11	Bring other people to make me feel safer.					
12	Organize events with my group.					
<b>Skills acquisition</b>						
13	Learn to perform new activities.					
14	Learn skills on my own.					
15	Ask friends and relatives to teach me.					
<b>Leisure aspirations</b>						
16	Go to less crowded areas.					
17	Go to areas where I feel comfortable.					
18	Improvise with what I have.					
19	Find an activity that is easier to perform.					
<b>Cognitive</b>						
20	Try to be positive and have fun.					
21	Think about the benefits of the activity.					
22	Just put up with the constraint.					
23	Think less of the constraint.					

**Section E: Characteristics of Respondents**

1. Sex
  - a. Male { }
  - b. Female { }
  - c. Others .....
2. Age.....
3. Marital status
  - a. Married { }
  - b. Single { }
  - c. Cohabitation { }
  - d. Divorced { }
4. Level of education
  - a. High school { }
  - b. Diploma/Degree { }
  - c. Masters { }
  - d. Ph.D. { }
5. Religion
  - a. Christianity { }
  - b. Islamic { }
  - c. Other, specify.....
6. Occupation .....
7. Country of Residence/Origin .....
8. Purpose of visit .....
9. Area of volunteering (If volunteering) .....

