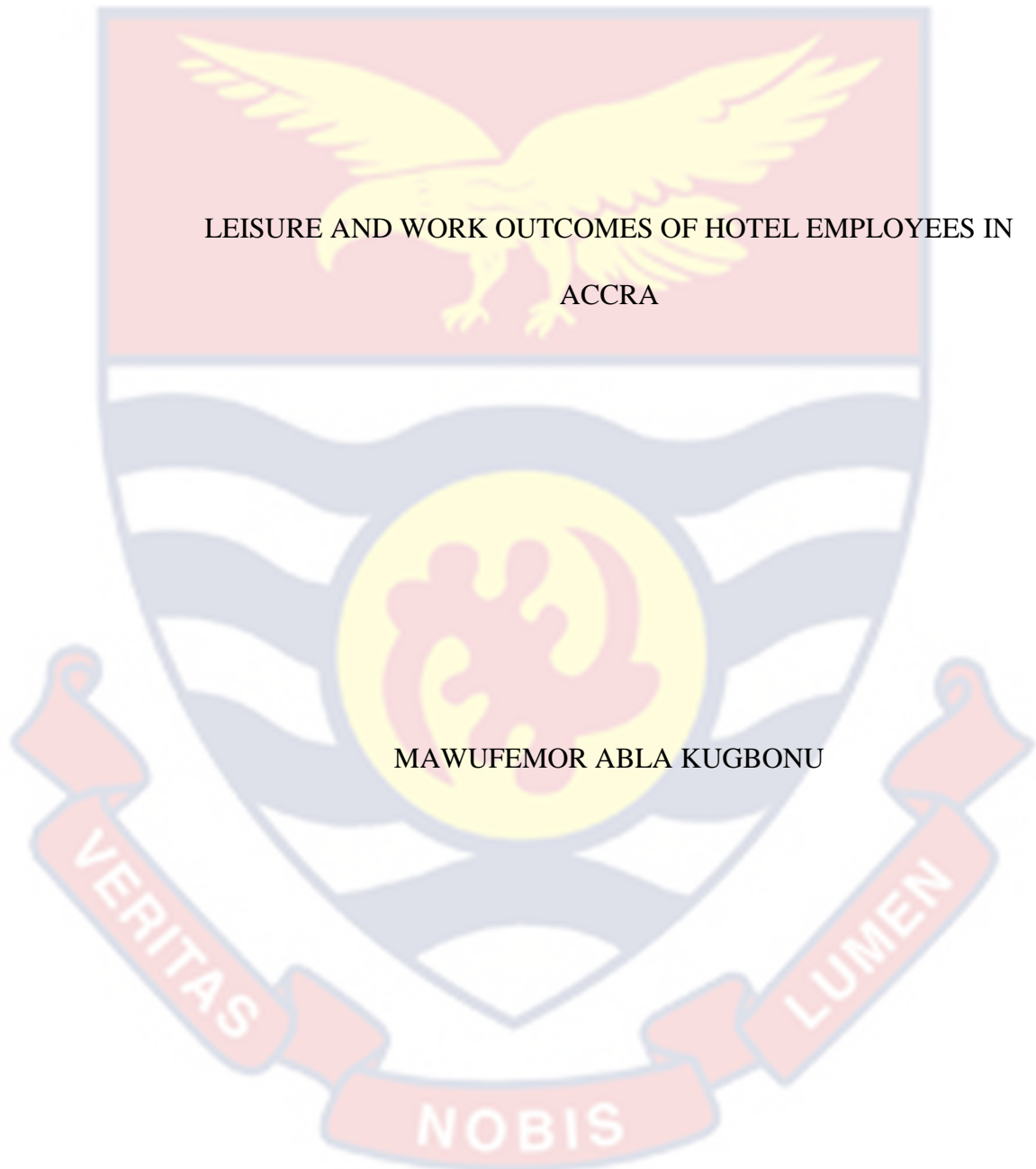


UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST



LEISURE AND WORK OUTCOMES OF HOTEL EMPLOYEES IN
ACCRA

MAWUFEMOR ABLA KUGBONU

VERITAS

LUMEN

NOBIS

2022



© Mawufemor Abla Kugbonu
University of Cape Coast

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

LEISURE AND WORK OUTCOMES OF HOTEL EMPLOYEES IN

ACCRA

BY

MAWUFEMOR ABLA KUGBONU

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 fulfillment of the requirements for the
award of Doctor of Philosophy degree in Tourism Management

DECEMBER 2022

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: Mawufemor Abla Kugbonu

Supervisors' Declaration

We 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.

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

Name: Prof. Issahaku Adam

Co-Supervisor's Signature..... Date.....

Name: Prof. Francis Eric Amuquandoh

Cognate's Signature..... Date.....

Name: Dr. Eunice Fay Amissah

ABSTRACT

Leisure participation has attracted research attention across diverse segments of the population. A neglected segment, however, is hotel employees who have attracted little attention despite the unique nature of their job and its contribution to the growth and sustenance of the tourism industry. This study sought to assess the leisure participation of hotel employees in Accra. The study adopted the positivist approach and a questionnaire was used to gather data from 330 hotel employees who were selected using the convenience sampling technique. The findings revealed that the leisure activity of the employees was largely sedentary with the main activities as watching Television and reading books. Furthermore, the main leisure motivation of the hotel employees was stimulus avoidance while the least was social motivation. In addition, the employees encountered four forms of leisure constraints. The foremost relates to hotel work characteristics such as long hours of work and working overtime while the least was structural constraints. These constraints were negotiated with both behavioural and cognitive strategies. The employees were satisfied with their leisure experiences and these experiences positively influenced the job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion of employees. Nonetheless, the type of leisure activity undertaken was not related to emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction which signify a disconnection between leisure activity choice and work outcome. The study recommends that the management of hotels should adopt strategies such as designing suitable and reasonable working hours and permitting free time to compensate for working extra hours to facilitate smooth co-existence between work and leisure.

KEY WORDS

Accra

Employees

Hotel

Leisure

Participation

Work outcomes



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Writing this thesis has been challenging and it would have been impossible without the help of some personalities. Firstly, I would like to express my sincere appreciation to my supervisors; Prof. Issahaku Adam, Prof. Francis Eric Amuquandoh and Dr. Eunice Fay Amissah for their guidance and support in writing this thesis. I extend my gratitude to all lecturers of the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, UCC, for their support and advice. I am also very grateful to the management and staff of the hotels in Accra and Ho for granting me access to their facilities to collect my data.

My special thanks go to my siblings; Pat, Edem, Hetie, Shelter, Gloria, and Elikplim for their love and encouragement. I also acknowledge the support of my husband; Mr Nana Kwesi Assandoh and members of his family. I appreciate the contribution and support of Prof. Ben Honyenuga (VC of HTU), Prof. Christopher Mensah (Pro VC of HTU), Mad. Lolonyo Letsa, Mad. Gifty Nti, Dr. Dickson Fiagbolor, Mr. Martin Abiemo and colleagues of the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, HTU. Worth mentioning is the contribution of Pst. and Mrs. Issac Aboagye, Prof. Attey from Nigeria, Dr. Elvis Asante, Nancy and colleagues on the PhD Programme. I appreciate all your support. Thank You.

DEDICATION

To Mr. Mac Kosi Nyavor-Kugbonu



TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
DECLARATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
KEY WORDS	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
DEDICATION	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xv
LIST OF ACRONYMS	xvi
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
Background to the Study	1
Ghana in Perspective	6
Statement of the Problem	8
Research Questions	10
Research Objectives	11
Significance of the Study	11
Organization of the Thesis	13
CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL REVIEW	
Introduction	15
The Concept of Leisure	15
Leisure Activity Types	19
Leisure Motivation	20
Theories of Motivation	21

Leisure Constraints	24
Leisure Constraint Model	25
Constraints Negotiation	30
Constraints Negotiation Efficacy	32
Leisure Satisfaction	33
Work Outcome (Emotional Exhaustion and Job Satisfaction)	35
Theories on Work and Leisure	37
Conceptual Framework	43
Chapter Summary	45
CHAPTER THREE: EMPIRICAL REVIEW ON LEISURE PARTICIPATION	
Introduction	46
Leisure Activity Preferences	46
Factors Influencing Leisure Participation	48
Work	48
Socio-demographic Characteristics	49
Leisure Motivation	53
Leisure Motivations and Socio-demographic Characteristics	54
Leisure Constraints	57
Leisure Constraints and Socio-demographic Characteristics	68
Constraints Negotiation	72
Negotiation Strategies and Socio-demographic Characteristics	76
Negotiation Efficacy	77
Leisure Satisfaction	78
Leisure and Work Outcome	78

Chapter Summary	79
CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	
Introduction	80
Study Area	80
Research Philosophy	82
Research Design	83
Sources of Data	84
Target Population	84
Sample Size and its Determination	85
Sampling Procedure	85
Research Instrument	87
Pre-testing of Research Instrument	89
Actual Field Work	90
Field Work Challenges	91
Data Processing and Analysis	91
Ethical Issues	94
Chapter Summary	95
CHAPTER FIVE: LEISURE PREFERENCES OF HOTEL EMPLOYEES	
Introduction	96
Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents	96
Work Characteristics	100
Leisure Preferences of Hotel Employees	101
Factors Predicting Choice of Leisure Activity of Hotel Employees	105
Chapter Summary	110

CHAPTER SIX: LEISURE MOTIVATION OF HOTEL EMPLOYEES

Introduction	111
Leisure Motivation of Hotel Employees	111
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Leisure Motivation	116
Socio-Demographic Characteristics by Leisure Motivations of Hotel Employees	120
Work Characteristics of Hotel Employees by Leisure Motivation	126
Leisure Activity Type by Leisure Motivations	128
Chapter Summary	129

CHAPTER SEVEN: LEISURE CONSTRAINTS OF HOTEL EMPLOYEES

Introduction	130
Leisure Constraints of Employees	130
Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) on Leisure Constraints of Employees	138
Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Leisure Constraints of Employees	143
Socio-Demographic Characteristics by Leisure Constraints	146
Work Characteristics by Leisure Constraints	150
Chapter Summary	152

CHAPTER EIGHT: EMPLOYEES' LEISURE CONSTRAINTS

NEGOTIATION STRATEGIES

Introduction	153
Constraints Negotiation Strategies	153
Constraints Negotiation Efficacy	159
Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Constraints Negotiation Strategies	161
Socio-Demographic Characteristics by Constraints Negotiation Strategies	164
Constraints Negotiation Strategies by Work Characteristics	168

Chapter Summary	169
CHAPTER NINE: LEISURE SATISFACTION AND WORK OUTCOMES OF EMPLOYEES	
Introduction	170
Leisure Satisfaction	170
Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Leisure Satisfaction of Hotel Employees	173
Work Outcome	174
Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Work Outcome of Hotel Employees	178
Leisure and Work Outcomes	180
Structural Model Assessment	182
Reliability and Convergent Validity Tests	182
Discriminant Validity Tests	186
Structural Model Assessment (Hypotheses Testing)	190
Chapter Summary	196
CHAPTER TEN: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
Introduction	197
Summary	197
Major Findings	198
Conclusions	200
Recommendations for Policy and Practice	201
Recommendations for Future Research	203
Contributions to Knowledge	204
BIBLIOGRAPHY	206
APPENDICES	252

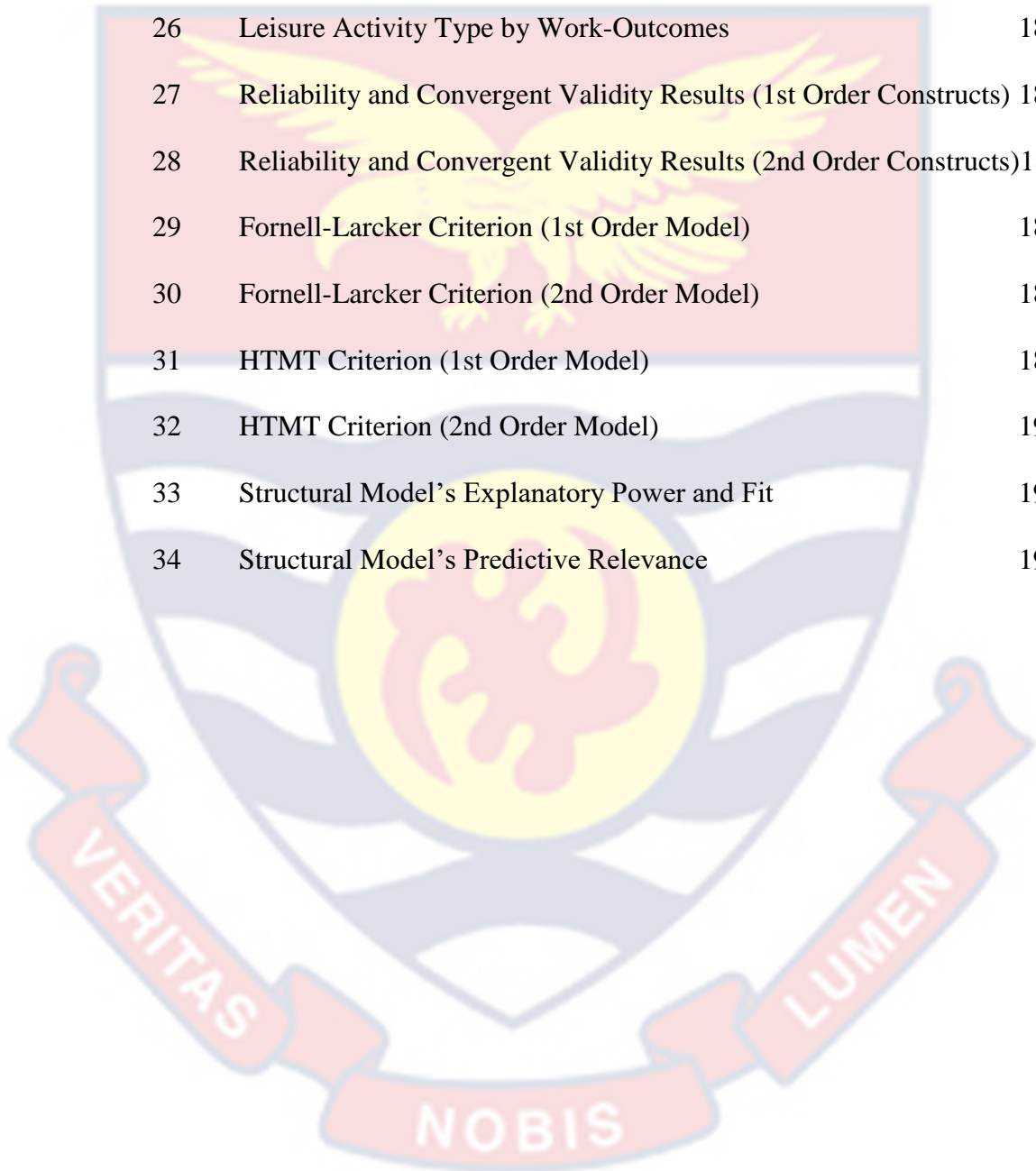
APPENDIX A: Questionnaire	252
APPENDIX B: Structures of the PLS-SEM Model	259
APPENDIX C: Ethical Clearance	261



LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1 Star-Rated Hotels in Accra	86
2 Allocation of Employees	87
3 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents (N = 330)	97
4 Work Characteristics of Respondents (N = 330)	101
5 Leisure Activities	104
6 Factors Predicting Choice of Leisure Activity	107
7 Leisure Motivation	113
8 Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Leisure Motivation	118
9 Socio-Demographic Characteristics by Leisure Motivations	122
10 Work Characteristics by Leisure Motivations	127
11 Leisure Motivation by Activity Type	129
12 Leisure Constraints	131
13 Exploratory Factor Analysis on Leisure Constraints	140
14 Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Leisure Constraints	144
15 Socio-Demographic Characteristics by Leisure Constraints	147
16 Work Characteristics by Leisure Constraints	151
17 Leisure Constraints Negotiation Strategies	154
18 Constraints Negotiation Efficacy	160
19 Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Leisure Constraints	
Negotiation	163
20 Constraints Negotiation Strategies by Socio-Demographic	
Characteristics	167
21 Work Characteristics by Constraints Negotiation Strategies	168

22	Leisure Satisfaction	171
23	Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Leisure Satisfaction	174
24	Work Outcome	176
25	Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Work Outcomes	179
26	Leisure Activity Type by Work-Outcomes	181
27	Reliability and Convergent Validity Results (1st Order Constructs)	183
28	Reliability and Convergent Validity Results (2nd Order Constructs)	185
29	Fornell-Larcker Criterion (1st Order Model)	187
30	Fornell-Larcker Criterion (2nd Order Model)	188
31	HTMT Criterion (1st Order Model)	189
32	HTMT Criterion (2nd Order Model)	190
33	Structural Model's Explanatory Power and Fit	191
34	Structural Model's Predictive Relevance	192



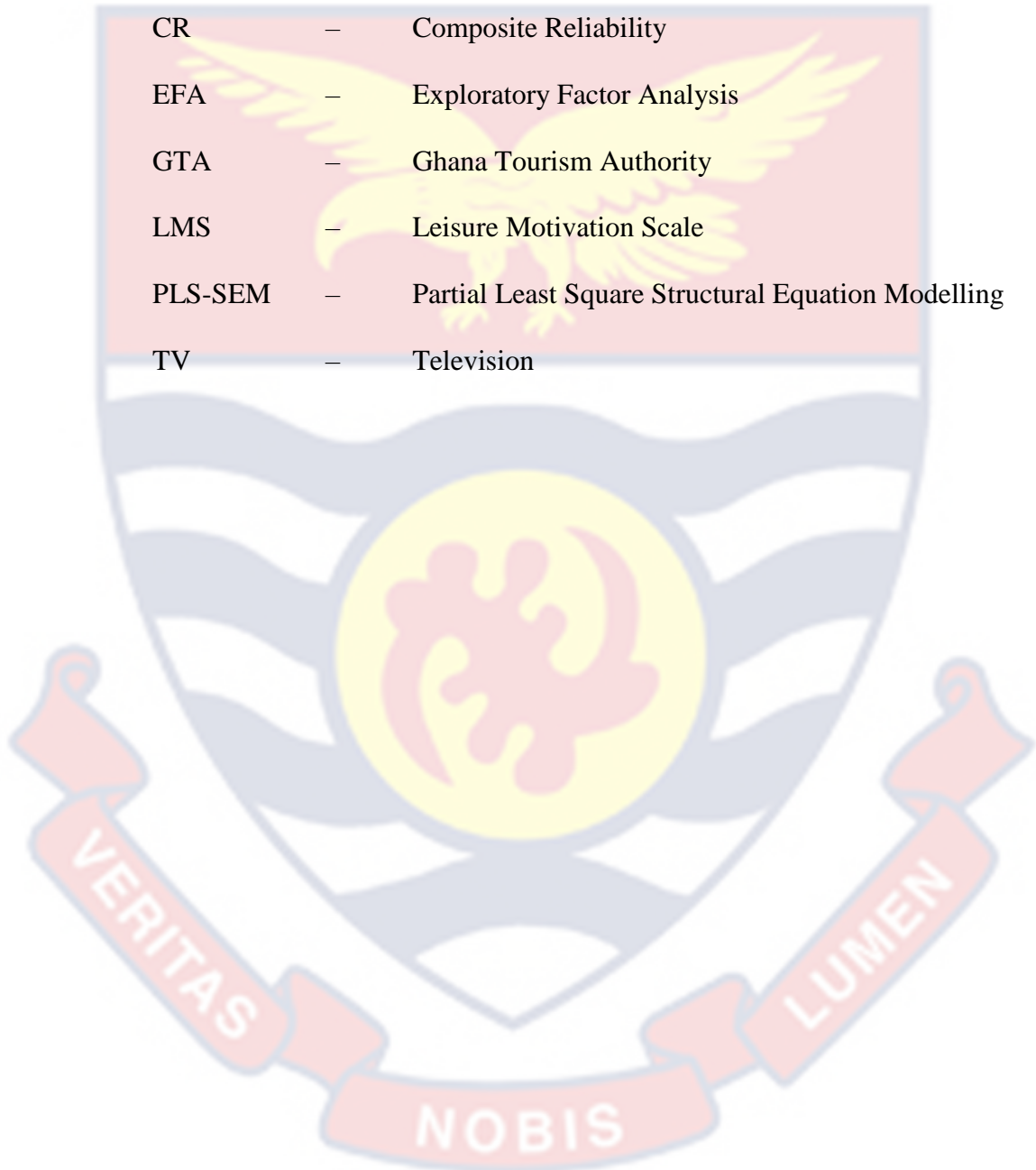
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1	Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints	26
2	Leisure Participation Framework	44
3	Map of the Study Area	81
4	Structural Model Estimates	193



LIST OF ACRONYMS

AMA	–	Accra Metropolitan Assembly
AVE	–	Average Variance Extracted
CFA	–	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CR	–	Composite Reliability
EFA	–	Exploratory Factor Analysis
GTA	–	Ghana Tourism Authority
LMS	–	Leisure Motivation Scale
PLS-SEM	–	Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modelling
TV	–	Television



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Leisure is a global phenomenon that is receiving much attention from academia, policymakers, and individuals due to increased awareness about the well-being of people (Adam, Boakye & Kumi-Kyereme, 2017). This is attributed to the fact that leisure has many positive utilities for individuals and society at large. Leisure is perceived as a crucial source of happiness which induces positive psychological states (Sandoval, 2017; Downward & Dawson, 2016; Liu & Yu, 2015).

Further, leisure ensures relaxation and promotes self-sufficiency, both of which enhance the quality of life (Lee, Sung, Zhou & Lee, 2018; You & Shin, 2017; Siddiquee, Sixsmith, Lawthom & Haworth, 2016). It supports the development of decision-making skills, the transmission of cultural values and the maintenance of group solidarity (Best, 2010; Lloyd & Little, 2010). These outcomes of leisure contribute to and improve the intellectual, social and psychological well-being of individuals which is needed for socio-economic development (Hodge, Bocarro, Henderson, Zabriskie, Parcel & Kanter, 2015).

Leisure is a highly contested concept with no consensus on its components, activities and processes. It has, thus, assumed a multi-dimensional and complex nature which embraces a multitude of activities (Kelly, 2012). However, in its simplest description, leisure is the experiences gained by people during their free time and from participating in a free-will activity (Torkildsen, 2011). Leisure experiences are gained during

discretionary time when people are free from economic, legal, moral or social obligations (Tsaur, Liang & Hsu, 2012; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2005).

Leisure participation entails all the actions and behaviours related to the involvement in a freely chosen activity (Watkins, 2000). The freedom in leisure allows people to choose and pursue intrinsically satisfying and pleasurable activities for their rewards; devoid of compulsion, restriction and supervision (Suhartanto, Dean, Sumarjan, Karitika & Setiawati, 2019; Przepiorka & Blanchnio, 2016; Lobo, 2006). Leisure thus represents all uncoerced, non-work, free-time social activities aimed at inducing individual satisfaction (Lee et al., 2018; Stebbins, 2005).

Engagement in leisure is spurred by subjective desires and an antecedent to leisure participation is leisure satisfaction. Although outcomes of leisure are tied to participation, satisfaction with leisure experiences is considered more consequential (Zhou, Zhang, Dong, Ryan & Li, 2021). It is an indication that a participant's leisure needs and expectations have been met (Choi & Fu, 2015). Leisure satisfaction is thus an essential function of leisure participation as it is the main influencer of its impacts on people's lives.

Further, continuity in a chosen activity or leisure in its entirety is based on participants' ability to meet expectations and needs in leisure (Ragheb, 1980). Leisure loses its value and attractiveness if it fails to meet the desired satisfaction. This heightens the role of leisure satisfaction as the main determinant of participants' personal, social and psychological well-being. Further, an understanding of leisure satisfaction forms the foundation for exploring the complexities of leisure (Zhou et al., 2021).

Leisure may take diverse forms as allowed by the individual's environment, however, participation in leisure is not independent of other life-domain activities. According to Choi and Yoo (2017), the real significance of leisure is measured in relation to productivity in other life aspects such as work and health. Of the non-work domains, leisure participation is mainly intertwined with the paid occupation of an individual (Suhartanto et al., 2019; Knecht, Wiese & Freund, 2016; Le Feuvre, 1994). Work is central to life as it is the earliest venture of man and the main preoccupation of the adult's life (Lin, Wong & Ho, 2013; Csikszentmihalyi & LeFevre, 1989).

In recent times, working is now individualistic with focus on building a career through an accumulation of work experience and an increasing preference for self-employment (van der Zwan, Hessels & Rietveld, 2018; Carrasco & Ejrnaes, 2012; Boon, 2006). As such, as put forward by the inter-role theory, the tasks of employees have both physical and psychological effects on their participation in non-work roles, an example being leisure (Kahn & Byosiere, 1992).

Work and leisure increasingly exist in a complementary rather than opposing relationship. Opposing relations exist when employees easily trade off leisure for work (Hilbrecht, 2007). This arises when employees place more value on work than leisure and are therefore willing to extend their work hours into their supposedly free time. Also, this may stem from cultures that hold negative prejudices about leisure (Kim, Brown & Yang, 2019; Pagliarin, 2017). The misconception translates into negative attitudes toward leisure participation. On the other hand, some employees pay more attention to their leisure than work which leads to unhealthy interferences (Hobfoll, 2002).

These employees bring leisure into work and this reduces their concentration and commitment to their job, leading to poor job performance (Wang, Qu, Yang & Yang, 2020).

Complementarily, participation in leisure moderates the impact of work strains and satisfies employees' emotional needs, which in turn, positively impacts their physical and mental health. This results in job satisfaction, commitment and enhanced employee performance (Suhartanto et al., 2019; Kim, Woo & Uysal, 2015; Snir & Harpaz, 2002). Leisure, further, serves as a break from work and its obligatory routines, refreshes and enriches the human resource and provides the energy to inspire work (Melton, Townsend & Hodge, 2018; Mansour & Tremblay, 2016; Hobfoll, 2014; Joudrey & Wallace, 2009; Boon, 2006). On other hand, the income from work facilitates participation in all forms of leisure while the stress, routine and boredom of work-life stimulate leisure participation (Mansour & Tremblay, 2016).

These work-leisure relationships however differ by occupation as the nature and design of some jobs encourage higher interference with non-work domain activities (Lobo, 1999). Notable is the hospitality industry which is accused of interfering with the leisure of its employees as compared to employees of other service industries (Lin, Wong & Ho, 2015; Wong & Lin, 2007). The evidence of the growth of the tourism industry is visible through huge investments in the hospitality industry across the globe mainly to cater for these tourists.

As tourists are away from home, the need for overnight accommodation facilities becomes the foundation of the hospitality industry,

around which other services of care, entertainment, meals, transport and health revolve (Tsaur et al., 2012). The accommodation sector is, therefore, perceived as the most crucial with its sub-section, hotels, commonly known across the world (Wong & Lin, 2007). The hotel, like all hospitality facilities, is highly labour-intensive and employs large numbers of people directly in its various departments and indirectly along its supply chain.

Hotel work is a 24-hour job, characterized by the irregular shift working hours including weekends and holidays (Wang, Lee & Wu, 2017; Wong & Lin, 2007). The work schedule thus encompasses the weekends and evenings which are known communal leisure periods (Qu & Zhao, 2012). These atypical, unusual and anti-social working hours of the hotel job do not reconcile with the regular leisure of employees of other sectors of the economy (Al-Balushi, 2018).

Also, hotel work is perceived as exhaustive of the energy of employees due to the perceived difficult working conditions from excessive workload, demands of customers, performing repetitive tasks coupled with low pay (Mansour & Tremblay, 2016; Tsaur et al., 2012). These stressors draw much energy and time from employees, which raises concerns for their well-being (Lin, Huang, Yang & Chang, 2014). Employees engulfed in these stressful environments employ leisure as a distraction and avoidance mechanism to divert attention from stress (Lin, Chen & Wang, 2022).

Additionally, unlike most jobs, working in a hotel comes with high levels of uncertainty in relation to the daily workloads. Employees are unsure of their workload as this is influenced by the number of guests received per shift (Lin et al., 2015). The high and low seasons of the hotel work have

physical and psychological effects on employees which influence planning for and participation in leisure. Finally, the work of hotel employees is linked to leisure and involves catering for people away from home and work, mainly either on vacation or enjoying free time activities. Employees of hotels function as service providers when customers are spending their leisure (Lin, Huang, Yang & Chiang, 2014; Wong & Lin, 2007).

This has psychological effects, as the work environment is leisure induced, which may influence the leisure decision of these employees in relation to how they perceive leisure and what becomes their leisure. Understanding the leisure of hotel employees would provide a new perspective to understanding the work-leisure discussion (Mansour & Tremblay, 2016; Stewart & Johnson, 2006) as the nature and design of this job differ from most mainstream occupations. Participation in leisure is a release from obligations while the psychological benefits of leisure are crucial to the hotel employees whose tasks place both physical and emotional demands on the employees (Zhao, Mattila & Ngan, 2014).

Ghana in Perspective

Ghana is a tourist destination with a variety of natural and artificial heritage which attracts tourists from across the globe. Hotels have become an integral aspect of the Ghanaian hospitality and tourism sector with manifestation across the geographical regions of the nation. The expansion in both multinational and Ghanaian-owned hotels is attributed to the diversification policy in 1985 which encouraged a private sector-led economy. The structural adjustment programme led to the privatisation of state-owned enterprises which birthed chain hotels like Golden Tulip, Movenpick and

Holiday Inn. In 2018, a total of 3,454 accommodation facilities were registered in Ghana; out of which 722 were located within the Greater Accra Region (Ghana Tourism Authority, GTA, 2018). Noted as a labour-intensive sector, these hotels have provided jobs for both Ghanaians and expatriates.

With regard to leisure, very little is known in the Ghanaian context as much of the discourse equates leisure to tourism. According to Amuquandoh (2018), the right to leisure has been enshrined in the 1992 constitution of Ghana, Article 24 and sub-section 2. However, the attitudes of Ghanaians, the absence of diverse leisure facilities and leisure role models restrict leisure participation in Ghana. Attitude towards leisure is ingrained in a long-held belief that misconstrued leisure participation as laziness (Yankholmes & Lin, 2012). To avoid being tagged as slothful, Ghanaians use their free time to either sleep or rest at home. As such the existing means for leisure are still seen as a luxury to be enjoyed by the affluent and educated (Adam et al. 2017; Adam, 2017). Hence, though leisure participation is a civic right, it is the least activity on the to-do list of most Ghanaians.

Nonetheless, this dormant attitude towards leisure is being altered mainly due to globalization and advancement in technology (Yankholmes, 2017). Basically, big towns and cities host diverse formal leisure facilities while folklore, poetry and storytelling are still predominant in rural areas. Leisure investment in Ghana is largely in the area of music, sports, shopping and tourism (Akyeampong, 2020). Public investment in leisure is mainly in the area of the provision of open spaces like the stadium and the jubilee parks (which exist in all the former ten regions of Ghana). Also, national and local events, like the 6th Independence March Parade held on holidays are leisure

activities meant for the consumption of all Ghanaians. Individuals have also made investments in leisure facilities ranging from tennis to golf facilities, pubs and discotheques, with gambling as an emerging trend. The sizes of these facilities are dependent on the preference of the investor, the number of potential clients and the location of facilities.

Notably, the leisure of Ghanaians revolves around the home environment with a low probability, especially among females, to travel outside their usual environment (Yankholmes, 2017). Leisure hours are confined to Friday and Saturday evenings. However, the leisure pursuits of hotel employees in Ghana have been unexplored, which presents a grey population for research consideration. This also provides an opportunity to assess the leisure of commercial leisure service providers (Mansour & Tremblay, 2016).

Statement of the Problem

The hospitality industry is labour-intensive and it is a major employer of labour especially in communities with fewer alternatives for livelihood. More importantly, this industry is a major driver of economic growth with an effect on diverse support sectors like agriculture and the manufacturing sectors among others (Li, Mai, Yang & Zhang, 2020). However, the all-around-the-clock and unsocial working hours such as weekends, evenings and holidays associated with hotel work have leisure implications (Gracia & Kalmijn, 2016; Simmons, Mahoney & Hambrick, 2016; Presser, 2003).

More importantly, the regular guest-employee interactions in the hotel environment present a high probability for demonstration effect where employees may imitate the leisure lifestyles displayed by their customers. This

phenomenon increases the propensity of hotel employees to engage in leisure activities that slightly deviate from the societal norm (Monterrubio & Mendoza-Ontiveros, 2014). Thus, these are likely to confine hotel employees to a form of special leisure which might not conform to that of employees in other sectors (Moon, Lee, Lee, Lee & Kim, 2015; Wong & Lin, 2007).

Further, research on work-leisure relationships in the hospitality sector approaches the issues from a conflict perspective with a focus on the negative work-leisure interferences (Gao, Chen, Huang & Lin, 2019; Suhartanto et al., 2019; Mansour & Mohanna, 2018; Mansour & Tremblay, 2016; Lin et al., 2015; Tsaur et al., 2012; Wong & Lin, 2007). The existing studies thus focused on developing models to reduce the interference. There is therefore a dearth of research that considers the facilitating relations between hotel work and the leisure of hotel employees (Knecht et al., 2016). To fill this gap, the border theory in conjunction with the Conservation of Resource Theory were adopted to provide a broader and more diverse perspective to the hotel job-leisure discourse.

Globally, hotel employees have received limited research attention in leisure research (Tsaur et al., 2012). Studies on hotel employees remain scanty while available studies were conducted in the developed economy (Mansour & Mohanna, 2018; Mansour & Tremblay, 2016). In Ghana, research on the leisure of hotel employees remain scanty in spite of the significant growth of the hotel business in the last two decades. Studies on the interaction of the job with other non-work domains are unbalanced, as they were skewed towards the effect of the hotel work on the family and not on leisure (Gamor, Amissah, Amissah & Nartey, 2018; Gamor, Amissah, Boakye, 2014).

Available leisure studies conducted in Ghana focused mostly on other segments of the population such as the physically and visually impaired (Adam, 2017; Adam et al., 2017; Adam, Kumi-Kyereme & Boakye, 2017; Adam, 2014), university students (Adam, Hiamey & Afenyo, 2015; Yankholmes & Lin, 2012) and inbound tourists (Adam, 2019). Also, the leisure lifestyle of residents in Accra, the capital city of Ghana has not been studied although it hosts most of the public and private leisure facilities in the country (Akyeampong, 2020). Additionally, Son and Chen (2018) proposed the use of a non-western study population to strengthen and extend the work-leisure literature. Given these, the study focused on a neglected segment of the population as well as an unexplored study area; hotel employees and Accra. This study situates hotel employees' leisure in the Ghanaian and African settings to provide a cross-cultural perspective to the discourse of hospitality work-leisure.

Conceptually, issues of leisure constraints negotiation, leisure satisfaction and work outcomes seem to be missing in the Ghanaian leisure literature. Theoretically, this study would test the leisure participation framework which is an amalgamation of the diverse theories applied in this study. This would validate the framework and models to assess their suitability within the developing countries' context as these models have a western underpinning. In line with the above arguments the study sought to answer the following questions.

Research Questions

1. What are the leisure activity preferences of hotel employees in Accra?
2. What are the leisure motivations of hotel employees in Accra?

3. What are the leisure constraints of hotel employees in Accra?
4. What are the leisure constraints negotiation strategies of hotel employees in Accra?
5. What is the leisure satisfaction of hotel employees in Accra?
6. What is the effect of leisure satisfaction on the work outcomes of hotel employees in Accra?

Research Objectives

The main objective of the study is to assess the leisure participation of employees of hotels in Accra.

Specifically, the study seeks to:

1. Explore the leisure activity preferences of hotel employees in Accra;
2. Explore leisure motivations of hotel employees in Accra;
3. Analyse leisure constraints of hotel employees in Accra;
4. Analyse leisure constraints negotiation strategies of hotel employees in Accra;
5. Examine the leisure satisfaction of hotel employees in Accra; and
6. Examine the effect of leisure satisfaction on the work outcomes of hotel employees in Accra.

Significance of the Study

Leisure participation is noted to yield diverse positive activity; however, recently, there are advocates for active leisure due to its immense benefits. Information on the leisure activity preferences of hotel employees would guide government agencies like the Ministry of Health and district assemblies like the Accra Metropolitan Assembly (AMA) to devise strategies to direct the choice of leisure activity to more advantageous alternative. This

study would contribute to the global concern of employee well-being as the information provided would be used by regulatory agencies to support and improve the leisure participation of employees.

Secondly, this study would provide information on the leisure motivations of hotel employees. This information is required by the town planning division of the AMA in choosing as well as investing in appropriate leisure facilities that match the leisure needs of the employees and by extension Ghanaians. Further, knowledge of the leisure constraints of employees would provide the information needed by the management of hotels to devise human resource policies and strategies that would enhance the existing leisure of employees. Through informed decisions, management would be able to effectively plan and integrate strategies in their employee welfare and human resource packages to help employees negotiate constraints to improve employee leisure engagement.

Also, information on the effect of leisure on work outcomes would arouse the interest of the management of hotels in the leisure of their employees. This interest would drive management to support the leisure participation of employees to accrue positive work behaviour to the facility. Additionally, this study envisages to contributing to knowledge on the diverse theories and models applied in leisure studies. Theories like the border and utility theories have not been applied in leisure studies in Ghana while others like the Beard and Ragheb (1983) leisure motivation model and the hierarchical leisure constraints model by Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991) were applied to other segments of the population and study areas. The use of these theories on hotel employees and in Accra would unearth

contextual issues that would test the efficacy of these theories on this segment of the population and this study area.

Finally, this study would provide useful information that would extend the literature on leisure as well as the work-leisure relationship by including the perspectives of hotel employees in Accra, Ghana. This would provide a cross-cultural perspective to the discourse on work-leisure relations in the hospitality industry. This may attract research into the concept among other employee categories in developing countries.

Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is in ten chapters. The first chapter introduces the entire thesis and presents the background information of the study, the statement of the problem, research questions and objectives and the significance of the study. Chapter two discusses the theoretical and conceptual frameworks guiding the study. The key concepts as well as the Beard and Ragheb (1983) leisure motivation model, the hierarchical leisure constraints model by Crawford et al. (1991), the utility theory and the border theory have also been discussed. Empirical evidence from the literature on leisure participation was reviewed in the third chapter. Methodological issues like the research philosophy, study design, data sources, target population, sample and sampling techniques, field work issues, ethical issues and data analysis techniques constituted the fourth chapter.

The fifth to ninth chapters present the findings from the data analysed based on the study's objectives. The fifth chapter analyses the leisure activity preferences while the sixth chapter examines the leisure motivations of the hotel employees. Chapter seven explores the leisure constraints of hotel

employees while the eighth chapter presents the constraint negotiation strategies of employees. The ninth chapter discusses leisure satisfaction as well as the leisure-work relationship of hotel employees. The last and tenth chapter presents the summary of the study, the main findings, conclusions, recommendations of the study and the contributions of the study to knowledge and practice.



CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter presents a review of concepts, theories and models that have guided leisure research and are relevant to this study. The concepts discussed include leisure, work, leisure motivation, constraints and negotiation. Models and theories that elucidate these concepts are also reviewed. The criticism of these theories and models and their application to this study were also outlined. The chapter ended with the conceptual framework guiding the study.

The Concept of Leisure

The understanding of leisure evolves across disciplines, political paradigms, dominant culture and generational ideologies. Recent discussions on leisure addressed the concept either from an objective or subjective perspective (Stebbins, 2012; Mannell & Kleiber, 1997) with no specified restraint. In spite of this, given that this study situates leisure in the context of work, much attention would be given to the objective explanations of leisure by time, activity and experience, as these interplay with occupational status and types.

Leisure as time is the earliest conceptualization which is summarized as freedom from work and other essential obligations (Locke, 1963). This ideology is traced to the industrialized era (dated from 1760) in which the manufacturing industries confined the nature of work by time and space. Employees were to be physically present in the factories or workplaces and assigned duties were to be rigorously performed within scheduled hours

(Godbey & Robinson, 1997). Also, productivity was measured in terms of the number of goods produced within a given period relative to their daily quota. This left employees with no or limited time for other activities at work, hence time was compartmentalized to accomplish diverse demands of life (Taneja, 2013).

In line with this, Kaplan (1979) designed four (4) time compartments for employees: employment or paid-work time, work-related time (travelling to or from work, lunch breaks), obligatory time (for physiological activities like bathing, eating and sleeping) and unobligated time (free time after work or school). This division of time implies the presence of free time to all individuals, which became a critical component of leisure definitions (Samara & Ioannidi, 2019; Lee et al., 2018; Beaton & Funk, 2008). Consequently, authors who align with this school of thought, synonymously use phrases such as 'spare time' (Nagy, Székely & Barbarics, 2017), 'time left over' (Weiss, 2009) and 'extra time' (Weiss, 1965) to refer to leisure.

Leisure is defined by Voss (1967) as *a period of time referred to as discretionary time when an individual feels no sense of economic, legal, moral or social compulsion and obligation* (p. 101). As a product of work, the American Occupational Therapy Association (2014) defined leisure *as time not committed to obligatory occupations of work, self-care and sleep* (p. 43). The perspectives of obligatory activities after which an individual is expected to have leisure, outlined by Voss (1967), seems generic whilst that of the American Occupational Therapy Association (2014) seems very insubstantial. The obligatory activities outlined by the Association are just a handful and fall short of obligations like school.

An elaborated activity was outlined by Deffner (2002) who defines leisure as *spare time remaining after time taken up by primary activities (e. g., sleeping, eating and bathing) and secondary activities (e.g. preparation to go out), transportation and employment* (p. 5). Other obligations include school and family responsibilities, house chores and duties associated with childbearing and raising (Blank, Leichtfried, Schobersberger & Möller, 2015).

A reduction in obligatory hours, which characterizes current societies and work life, translates into increased leisure time. As such, leisure time remains relevant in recent leisure studies and it is projected as more objective, value-free, easily measurable and subjected to a quantitative analysis (Lee, Cho, Kim & Hwang, 2019; Wei, Huang, Stodolska & Yu, 2015; Jacobs & Gerson, 2001).

In spite of this, the leisure time compartment has been defeated, though not entirely, in this current service-oriented and technological society. Information technology and communication devices enable people to render services and work from anywhere and at any time. The autonomy and flexibility offered by technology allow the use of devices that eliminates the confinement of work by time and space (du Gay, 1996). Also, breaks at work allow the incorporation of leisure in work which erodes the restriction posed by working hours (Parker, 1983). With this, people can switch between work and leisure as the strict boundaries of work time and leisure time are being eroded.

More importantly, critics of leisure time raised the question, “what do people use their free time for?” According to Neulinger (1982), free time in itself lacks intrinsic motives and may not produce the benefits and satisfaction

expected in leisure. It is argued that leisure is behavioural and should be accompanied by engaging in activities that are freely chosen (Watkins, 2000; Dumazedier, 1974). As a behaviour, work could, in certain situations be described as leisurely as outlined by Murphy (1975).

With these criticisms, attention was drawn to the activity components of leisure. Behavioural or activity-based leisure was fuelled by studies that situate leisure within the tourism context with aims to inform policy and the development of appropriate infrastructure (Ryan & Glendon, 1998). According to Murphy (1975), leisure is a wide range of possible meaningful activities of recreation, work (at times), family activities and volunteerism. This definition, like others, did not outline the specific activities in leisure but extends them beyond recreational activities to include some aspects of work. It is perceived that whatever the activity, it would be considered leisurely when it is freely chosen (Beaton & Funk, 2008; Godbey, 1994).

This, however, raises concerns about the benefits accrued from participating in these leisure activities. According to Neulinger (1982), leisure provides more restoration to humans than any other activity. Leisure activities are aimed at satisfaction either intrinsic or extrinsic (Lee et al., 2018; You & Shin, 2017), and are pursued for their own or other rewards (Tsaur et al., 2012; Lobo, 2006). Leisure, in the context of outcome represents pleasant experiences gained from participating in free-will activities which are inwardly satisfying (Kelly, 2012).

These dimensions of time, activity and experience have become the bedrock of leisure studies. Definitions of leisure have assumed an inclusive approach which presents a consolidated perspective of the three aspects.

According to Dumazedier (1962) as cited in Dumazedier (1974), leisure is defined as *a set of activities to which an individual can dedicate himself entirely according to his wishes either to recover, to have fun or to develop his intellect and formation according to his free will, after having completed his professional, familial and social tasks*. A related but recent version of leisure is an *un-coerced activity undertaken during free time where such activity is something people want to do and at a personally satisfying levels using their abilities and resources, they succeed in doing* (Stebbins, 2005, p. 350).

Time in the hotel sector is a valuable resource and employees may have to sacrifice to work overtime, especially in peak seasons. The 24/7 system in hotels implies employees working at any time of the day and within seven days a week. These inflexible working hours of hotel employees would more likely have implications for leisure. Also, the hotel is a leisure industry and the task at work, the working environment as well as attitude of customers would influence leisure activities engaged in by employees and their intended experience. These aspects of leisure time, activity and experience are of interest to this study in relation to the hotel work.

Leisure Activity Types

Several typologies of leisure activities have emerged over time. One of the earliest is the taxonomy of Scott and Willits (1998). Scott and Willits (1998) categorized leisure into four namely; sedentary/solitary activities, leisure-time physical activities, creative/artistic activities and socialization activities. Socialization involves activities that allow interaction with people in society; this is mainly through the attendance of social functions. Creative/artistic activities are connected to talent and artistic works such as

painting and playing musical instruments among others. Leisure-time physical activities demand the exertion of physical energy while sedentary/solitary activities did not require the exertion of physical energy. Sedentary/solitary activities are restful and quiet time-out activities that may require sole participation.

In 2001, Passmore and French categorized leisure into three: achievement leisure, social leisure and time-out leisure. Participants in achievement leisure aim at attaining a reward or excelling in a chosen field such as sports, hobbies or arts. Social leisure consists of activities that entail being in the company of others while time-out leisure activity is mainly engaged alone or targeted at breaking regular routines.

In its recent, Joudrey and Wallace (2009) classified leisure into two: passive and active leisure. Participation in active leisure activities requires physical exertion such as running and sports while passive leisure constitutes restful, static and quiet activities that require less or no physical exertion (Kim et al., 2019). The taxonomy of Joudrey and Wallace (2009) was employed in this study. Compared to the classification of Scott and Willits (1998) and Passmore and French (2001), Joudrey and Wallace's (2009) classification is mutually exclusive. Activity types are independent of each other with precise distinction. For Example, Scott and Willits' (1998) creative/artistic activities such as painting can also be described as sedentary/solitary.

Leisure Motivation

Leisure motivation has attracted research attention through which diverse theories and models have been formulated and re-formulated. Leisure motivation is conceptualized in relation to tourist motivation, as both do rely

on the same theories. According to Crandall (1980) motivation refers to the need, reason or satisfaction that stimulates involvement in leisure activity. It encompasses the forces that initiate, direct and sustain human behaviour (Iso-Ahola, 1999). This reveals that leisure participation is as important as any human activity, hence, participation is driven by reasons and needs.

Motivation has previously been restricted to intrinsic variables as evident in the definition by Murray (1964) who describes *motivation as an internal factor that arouses, directs and integrates a person's behaviour* (p. 9). However, research has established beyond doubt that motivation is also generated by external factors. This directs preference to definitions that provide broader perspectives on motivation. Mannell and Kleiber (1997) are of the view that forces of motivation, either innate or extrinsic exist through a multitude of needs, desires or expectations which serve as an engine that guides thoughts and behaviours. Leisure motivations thus emphasize both psychological and socio-cultural reasons for participating in leisure activities (Chen & Pang, 2012; Crandall, 1980).

Theories of Motivation

Motivation for tourism and leisure has been theorized in the studies of Dann (1977), Crompton (1979), Deci and Ryan (1985), Iso-Ahola (1989) and Beard and Ragheb (1983). The ideas of these authors form the foundation of leisure motivation research through which diverse scales of measuring leisure motivation were developed. These theories are intertwined and inclusively shaped leisure motivation studies. According to Dann (1977), travel is a response to the socio-psychological concepts of anomie. This states that man needs love; to love and be loved and seeks to go beyond the isolation

associated with daily activities. Travel is thus directed to activities that enrich, regenerate and recharge an individual's depleted state (Hill, 1965). The main motivations for travel were for social interaction to enhance one's ego and self-recognition (Dann, 1977).

These two motives feed into Crompton's (1979) socio-psychological theory which introduces the two concepts of Push and Pull. Crompton (1979), however, identified seven push motives which include escape, self-exploratory, relaxation, prestige, regression, kinship-enhancement and social interaction as well as two pull motives of novelty and education. According to Dann (1977) and Crompton (1979), push motives refer to the intrinsic, internal and psychological factors that drive tourists to pursue leisure activities. Push urges and inspires individuals to travel by initiating the longing to get away from usual life activities. On the other hand, pull motives are extrinsic and influenced by the external attributes of tourism and leisure resources. The pull draws individuals to a specified leisure resource based on its capacity to satisfy their push motives (Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

In the mid-80s, the self-determination theory was propounded by Deci and Ryan (1985) based on their discovery that leisure motivation is self-constructed in relation to an individual's willpower. The self-determination theory proposed three motivations for leisure participation: intrinsic, extrinsic and amotivation. On their degrees of determination, people with resilient willpower are mostly influenced by intrinsic factors whilst those with low self-efficacy are influenced mainly by extrinsic factors with the least being amotivation.

By the late 80s, a dichotomous motivation of tourism and leisure, namely: seeking and escaping was developed by Iso-Ahola (1989). Seeking signifies the desire to be away to discover an essential of life and this is made possible through exploration. Escaping focuses on the craving to be away from activities of life to have privacy and relief. According to Iso-Ahola (1999), both seeking and escaping can be experienced simultaneously and hence not mutually exclusive. Iso-Ahola, however, situated the motive of seeking and escaping in the domains of personal and interpersonal motivations: personal seeking, interpersonal seeking, personal escaping and interpersonal escaping.

However, a sole leisure-oriented motivation is one developed by Beard and Ragheb (1983) which is known as the Leisure Motivation Scale (LMS). The LMS classified leisure motivation into four: intellectual, social, competence/mastery and stimulus avoidance. The basis of classification is the intended outcomes of the chosen leisure activity. Intellectual motivation is stimulated by individuals' desire to develop their mental capabilities. Choice of activities is thus tailored towards learning, self-discovery and exploration among others, all of which revolve around the exercises of the mind.

On the other hand, social motivation focuses on developing interpersonal relationships which initiate the desire to interact with other people to seek friendship and relationships and enhance one's ego. These social relations in the context of socialization raises the need to be loved by others and being in the company of others. Thirdly, competence/mastery drives the individual to acquire the capabilities needed to compete and attain success in a chosen endeavour. It also entails the desire to sharpen one's skills and be a master in one's field. It, however, entails more physical activities

with visible evidence of outcomes. Finally, stimulus avoidance leads to escaping the usual environment and people as well as routines. It is a drive for time alone in order to relax and restore the body or to be in a calm and unusual environment.

Beard and Ragheb's (1983) leisure motivation model with its accompanying scale has been extensively adopted and adapted in leisure research in diverse cultures across the globe and it has been judged as valuable through its continuous validation (Kara & Mkwizu, 2020; Albayak & Caber, 2018; Choi & Fu, 2015). Also, as put forward by the authors, the model represents a more applied approach to assessing leisure motives by addressing both "psychological and sociological reasons for participation in leisure activities" (Beard & Ragheb, 1983, p. 219). This positions this model as a suitable option for a comprehensive assessment of the leisure motivation of hotel employees.

Leisure Constraints

According to Dong and Chick (2012), previous studies equate constraints to non-participation and synonymously use the word "barriers" to signify the concept. Jackson, Crawford and Godbey (1993), however, indicate that the presence of constraint does not only imply non-participation in leisure but is a pointer to the presence of restriction to continuous participation in leisure as well as a reduction in the intended benefits. Accordingly, Jackson (1988, p. 203) defines leisure constraints as *the factors or reasons that inhibit people's ability to participate in leisure activities, to spend more time doing so, to take advantage of leisure services or to achieve a desired level of satisfaction*. Leisure constraints thus distort the formation of leisure

preferences, minimize frequency and time of participation and reduce the expected satisfaction. These constraints coerce individuals to choose undesired alternatives if they desire to continue participation (Crawford & Godbey, 1987).

Leisure constraints could be emotional or physical, situational or permanent, affect all participants or are relative to some and may completely prevent or simply limit participation (Jackson, 2000; Crawford et al., 1991). The study of leisure constraints is based on the assumption that people have, and are willing to satisfy leisure needs, but the presence of constraints poses deficiencies that negatively affect leisure outcomes (Chick, Hsu, Yeh, Hsieh & Bae & Iarmolenko, 2016; Crawford et al., 1991). This assumption augments the relevance of constraints in current society as leisure has taken a central role in the lives of people, especially employees (Wang et al., 2020). More people are willing to participate in leisure, and constraints need to be identified to inform policies to help eradicate or reduce their impacts.

Leisure Constraint Model

Several studies sought to understand the factors that restrain participation and enjoyment of leisure. While some models outlined individual factors, others proposed typologies that present a holistic perspective. Of the existing models, the hierarchical leisure constraints model by Crawford et al. (1991) is the most widely used (Shyu & Hsu, 2012). Studies have either used this model in part or as a whole based on their topics and samples. The hierarchical leisure constraints model evolved as shaped by research and recently, there are still proposals for further modifications based on the

dynamics in current societies. In spite of this, the model remains a preferred alternative.

According to Jackson (2000), early research focused on structural constraints, which were presumed as the only factor that interferes with participation. The absence of certain resources in the environment be it man-made or natural resources was cited as a limitation to leisure participation and gratification. In the 80s, this belief was altered by Crawford and Godbey (1987), who extended the constraints to include the other two: interpersonal and intrapersonal. In 1991, Crawford et al. collectively built-in these constraints: structural, interpersonal and intrapersonal in a hierarchical model. This idea was subsequently confirmed in a study by Jackson et al. in 1993.

The hierarchical model was based on the assumption that the three constraints of leisure participation occur in a sequence and at three levels with each unique intended outcome (Jackson et al., 1993; Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Specifically, intrapersonal constraints directly affect the formation of leisure preferences while interpersonal constraints affect coordination and compatibility to engage in a preferred leisure activity.

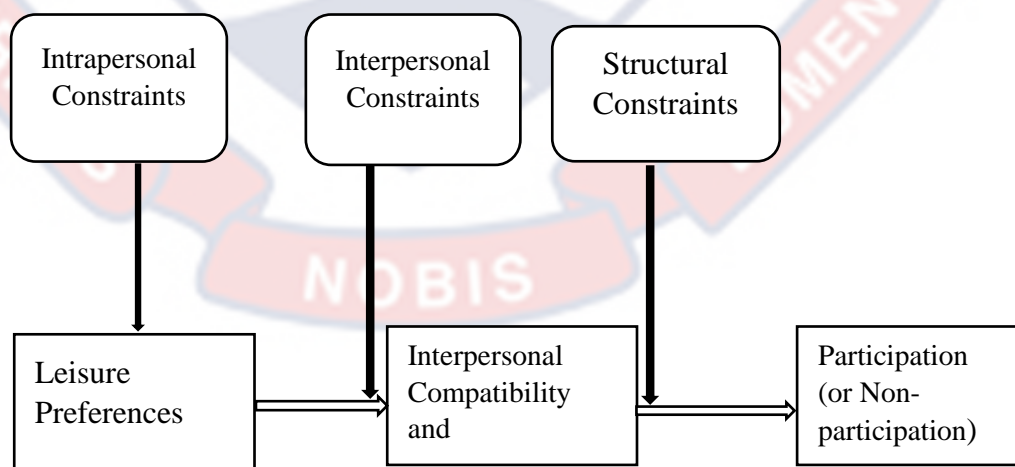


Figure 1: Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints
Source: Crawford et al. (1991)

Structural constraints mediate the participation or non-participation in preferred leisure activity (White, 2008; Crawford et al., 1991) as shown in Figure 1.

Firstly, intrapersonal constraints arise from an individual's assessment of his or her strengths and weaknesses which inspire their choice of preferred leisure activity. This analysis of self influences an individual's perception of the suitability of available leisure activities which may encourage or impede participation. A negative belief about the capability to engage in a leisure activity would impede participation and its outcomes (Emira & Thompson, 2011). Intrapersonal factors are within an individual but may be either temporal, like the mood of people, or permanent like traits, principles, attitudes and characters.

Kleiber and Dirkin (1985) assert that *participation in leisure are dictated by stable individual differences* (p. 17) through a subjective evaluation of the appropriateness of available leisure activities. Intrapersonal factors include health status, financial capability, competence and knowledge in the specific activity, prior socialization into specific leisure activities, perceived self-skill, previous experiences, desires and preferences (Crawford et al., 1991).

Also, interpersonal constraints are created by the impact of an individual's interaction with others on leisure participation. It focuses on an individual's relationship with others and how this affects leisure patterns (Mthembu, Abdurahman, Ferus, Langenhoven, Sablay & Sunday, 2015). Interpersonal constraints occur when unsuitable and incompatible relationships are established with people who need to aid in leisure

participation. It entails a negative societal perception of leisure activities and the absence of expected social support in leisure participation.

People in social networks may discourage others from participating in leisure activities by sharing negative stories and denying others the opportunities to ensure participation. Also, people may refuse to engage in activities chosen by their partners due to their perceptions of such activities which may deny the other party's participation. These constraints stem from the interaction with inappropriate dates, friends, members of family, colleagues and neighbours.

Finally, structural constraints are external non-human factors that impede leisure participation. These constraints are out of the control of the individual and intervene in the formation of leisure preference and participation. They encompass the unavailability of the appropriate transportation systems and leisure facilities and lack of time, financial resources and opportunity. Structural constraints could also be presented by climate, weather, work schedule and cost (White, 2008; Raymore, 2002).

Walker and Virden (2005) classified structural constraints into four; social environmental, territorial, institutional and natural environmental. Social environmental constraints focus on the physical carrying capacity of leisure facilities and include issues of crowding. It deals with the number of people that can effectively consume leisure resources without compromising the quality experience. Also, territorial constraints concern themselves with issues of accessibility; whether it is restricted or open access. Institutional constraints are set by regulatory agencies or managers of the resources and manifest themselves through the cost of accessing the facility and the time

within which access is granted. Finally, natural environmental constraints include issues of protected areas and laws on environmental protection and the presence of wild animals which delineate the extent of participation in leisure activity (White & Bustam, 2010).

Criticism of the Model

The hierarchical leisure constraints model by Crawford et al. (1991) assumes a linear relationship in which each constraint directly affects an aspect of leisure participation. In their study of constraints in leisure participation by older people in China, Shi and Li (2010) found that structural constraints were mediated by intrapersonal and interpersonal factors to affect participation. However, the constraints as presented by Crawford et al. (1991) were independent of each other, which implies that the hierarchical leisure constraints model is non-exhaustive of the links that are likely to exist among the three constraints.

Secondly, the hierarchical leisure constraints model by Crawford et al. (1991) is perceived as descriptive and not explanatory. According to Walker and Virden (2005), leisure constraints should be explained to enhance understanding of embedded, inexplicit and contextual issues. This allows constraints to be resolved from specific rather than general perspectives, which introduces the place of culture in fashioning constraints. To this, Chick and Dong (2003) proposed the inclusion of cultural issues in the leisure constraints model. Culture has become an important aspect of life and its influence extends beyond influencing people and their interactions (Kim, Suh & Kim, 2019). Chick and Dong (2003) therefore argued that in as much as a culture could be visible through intrapersonal, interpersonal or structural

constraints as its coverage is wider. An appreciation of culture would help assess its interplay with other constraints of leisure.

In its practicality, the inclusion of culture captures the diversities visible in human societies to address pertinent issues that do not exist in North America where the hierarchical leisure constraints model was designed. Finally, it has been argued that culture should be held constant in studies of human behaviour to reveal diversity that pertains across cultures (Kim et al., 2019; Chick & Dong, 2003). In line with these arguments, cultural constraints were highlighted although they were absorbed in structural constraints. Also, based on the assertions of Shi and Li (2010), the constraints would be studied independently based on their content.

Constraints Negotiation

Constraint in leisure is not entirely permanent; it is subjected to adjustment and in best cases, it is resolved, in line with negotiation. People react to hindrances by devising and implementing strategies to overcome constraints to allow participation and enhance positive outcomes. Crawford et al. (1991) alluded to the possibility of negotiating constraints in the hierarchical model to enhance leisure participation and experience. Negotiation promotes the formation of leisure preferences through the weakening or removal of constraints and their impacts (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001).

Therefore, participation in leisure does not depend on the absence of constraints but on an individual's ability to negotiate constraints in participation (Jackson & Rucks, 1995). Negotiation thus implies a constructive and active response to constraints through the adoption of diverse options and

tactics as well as the utilization of various resources to attenuate or overcome the influence of the limits (Jackson et al., 1993).

Leisure constraint negotiation is defined as *the effort of individuals to use behavioural and cognitive strategies to facilitate leisure participation despite constraints* (Schneider & Wilhelm Stanis, 2007, p. 392). This definition highlights the main and interrelated dimensions of negotiation strategies as cognitive and behavioural (Hebblethwaite & Norris, 2011). Cognitive strategies are developed by people to cope with the requirements for satisfying participation (Jackson & Rucks, 1995). Cognitive strategies are mainly psychological, facilitated by personal beliefs and linked mostly to intrapersonal constraints (MacCosham, 2017).

On the other hand, behavioural negotiation strategies aim at a change in attitude and action to enhance participation (Jackson & Rucks, 1995). It relates to the modification of non-leisure aspects of one's lifestyle such as work and family responsibility to reduce their adverse effect on leisure (Chung, Baik & Lee, 2017; Jackson & Rucks, 1995). This is directed at resolving some intrapersonal but more of structural and interpersonal constraints. Although these strategies may be jointly used, cognitive strategies mainly precede behavioural strategies (Kuykendall, Boerman & Zhu, 2018; MacCosham, 2017).

Notwithstanding, the application of these strategies is relative to the strength of the motivation which initiates the leisure negotiation efforts. The greater the strength of the motivation, the more extensive the negotiation efforts. In addition, the strength of the motivations and constraints should be relative to each other to allow the balance required for effective negotiation

(Jackson et al., 1993). A constraint perceived to be stronger than motivation would therefore imply a halt in the negotiation process.

Constraints Negotiation Efficacy

Constraint negotiation is generally assumed to improve participation by reducing the effect of constraints. However, studies have revealed that Constraint negotiation may have little or no effect on participation (Lee & Scott, 2009; White, 2008). The success or otherwise of negotiation strategies is dependent on the strength of the leisure motivation and constraints, and much more importantly the individuals' ability to effectively apply intended mitigation strategies.

Efficacy is people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives (Bandura, 1994, p. 71). According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy is dynamic and it is gained in diverse ways. First is mastery experience where an individual gains confidence in participation in an activity due to prior success in undertaking that activity. Secondly, vicarious experience is the efficacy acquired from observing people who succeeded or failed in completing a related activity. The individual learns from other people's success or failure and thus usually adopts the same approach if it was successful and an inverse approach if it was a failed attempt.

Thirdly is social persuasion which refers to inspiration from members of one's family and reference group to acquire skills and inject efforts needed to withstand challenges and pursue intended leisure activities. Lastly is the physiological and affective state which focuses on people's interpretations of their emotions which are symbolic of either success or failure. For Example,

positive moods are interpreted as success which boost self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

Captured from Bandura's (1994) definition, Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007) defined negotiation efficacy as *a person's confidence in his or her ability to negotiate strategies to overcome leisure constraints* (p. 20). The heterogeneity in humans is noticeable in their self-efficacy as some people are more confident about their abilities than others. White (2008) asserts that efficacy influences people's perception of their success potential which directly relates to motivation. This, in turn, mediates with negotiation to induce positive leisure participation.

According to Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007), a direct positive relationship exists between negotiation efficacy and negotiation; when there is higher confidence, constraints are effectively negotiated, leading to higher levels of participation. In sum, efficacious negotiation strategies positively relate to leisure participation. This positive leisure participation serves as an end or a means to other activities. As a labour-intensive sector, the leisure of hotel employees is expected to induce positive work outcomes.

Leisure Satisfaction

Benefits from leisure are directly proportional to levels of satisfaction as it remains the main precursor of leisure outcomes. Leisure satisfaction is the positive perceptions or feelings which an individual forms, elicits or gains as a result of engaging in leisure activities and choices (Beard & Ragheb, 1980, p. 22). It is the degree to which one is pleased or content with their leisure experiences and situations; positive contentment with leisure (Beard & Ragheb, 1980). On the whole, leisure satisfaction is a person's evaluation of

their degree of contentment with leisure experiences (Lu & Hu, 2005; Schipper, Clinch & Powell, 1990). Leisure satisfaction is an indication that a participant's leisure needs and expectations have been met (Choi & Fu, 2015).

Leisure satisfaction determines continuity or discontinuity of a leisure engagement or a specific activity. It thus presents itself as an antecedent of leisure participation (Ragheb, 1980). Leisure satisfaction is subjective and based on individuals' expectations, previous experiences with leisure, satisfaction derived from other spheres of life and satisfaction from other leisure activities (Francken & Raaij, 1981). Leisure satisfaction is critical to people's lives due to its connection with life satisfaction, quality of life, and subjective well-being (Rosa, Collado, Profice & Larson, 2019; Cheng, Stebbins & Packer, 2017).

Utility Theory

The utility theory originated in the field of psychology but was grafted into economics by Jevons in the eighteenth century (Juster, 1990). It is applied in economics to understand the consumption behaviour of consumers in their quest to achieve maximum returns from the purchase and use of goods and services (Juster, 1990; Becker, 1965). Utility theory is concerned with peoples' choices and decisions and their judgement of the worth of their outcomes (Fishburn, 1968). The utility is measured not only on the purchase of commodities but also on the time spent in choosing and using the commodities. Also, it measures psychological effects such as feelings and emotions either pleasurable or painful (Bentham, 1948) and it has been used to assess satisfaction with all consumables including leisure.

Leisure is a commodity from which consumers wish to find value after investing the required resources (Hsieh, 1998). Although this is the desire of all individuals, participation in leisure does not guarantee satisfying experiences (Muzindutsi & Masango, 2015). To achieve this goal, the decision on leisure is made with the ultimate utility of achieving pleasurable experiences in mind (Kuo, 2011; Ateca-Amestoy, Serrano-del-Rosal & Vera-Toscano, 2004). Hence, utility in leisure participation is achieved when individuals accrue pleasant experiences in leisure.

Work Outcome (Emotional Exhaustion and Job Satisfaction)

Work as a concept is used to largely represent every activity that is engaged in to earn a wage. Working has become a prerequisite for existence due to its remunerative ability to provide the income needed to maintain the essentials of life (Tsaur et al., 2012; Kelly, 1972). Working goes beyond earning a wage to include the acquisition of satisfaction inherent in work and the enhancement of societal status, which explains the preference for certain jobs (Boon, 2006). In recent times, the traditional, daylight working hours have also been altered as organizations seek to meet consumer demands across all times of the day.

This led to the emergence of 24/7 organizations managed by shift systems. Hotel employees work round the clock as they are in a 24/7 sector (Lin et al., 2015; Wong & Lin, 2007) and each shift would likely impact leisure differently; this is what this study seeks to unravel. Additionally, all forms of jobs place demands on the mental, time and physical resources of employees which results in diverse outcomes (Kim, Murmann & Lee, 2009).

Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion is a critical consequence of jobs with high face-to-face contact with customers, like hotels. Employees in hotels are expected to express positive emotions and alternate between emotions to ensure customer satisfaction. This coupled with the heavy workload, irregular working hours and seasonality in demand places high strains on the emotions of hotel employees. Emotional exhaustion represents a feeling of being overstressed emotionally, by work leading to physical weariness and a sense of being drained (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). It signifies a state of chronic depletion in the mental and physical state of employees (Cropanzano, Rupp & Byrne, 2003).

Thus, though the exhaustion is termed emotional, its effects are physically evident in the form of burnout, anxiety, frustration, weakness and loss of energy (Karatepe & Kilic, 2015; Wittmer & Martin, 2010). Also, emotional exhaustion reduces employees' passion for their jobs and this translates into negative work attitudes (Rathi & Lee, 2016; Grandey, 2003). It is, however worth noting that levels of exhaustion differ among employees in relation to their personality and customer characteristics, while not all employees experience it (Rathi & Lee, 2016).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the positive emotional state resulting from an appraisal of one's job (Locke, 1969). It is predicted by the variance between what an employee wants as opposed to what exists in the job (Locke, 1976). It is symbolic of an employee's attitude towards their job, as reflected by their perception of the different aspects of their jobs such as co-workers,

supervision or organization structure (Kong, Jiang, Chan & Zhou, 2018; Barnett, 2017; Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction is a positive state resulting from an individual's evaluation of his or her work or work experiences (Locke, 1976). Job satisfaction is an enjoyable and positive emotional state regarding the organization and the job perceived by a member of an organization (Locke, 1976). However, as a two-sided coin, Winarsih, Bachri and Yulianto (2019) define job satisfaction as a pleasant and unpleasant emotional state in the way employees view their work.

Satisfied employees display positive work attitudes crucial for organizational success; this is desire of every organization (Heimerl, Haid, Benedikt & Grisseemann, 2020; Abiyev, Saner, Eyupoglu & Sadikoglu, 2016). However, some inherent characteristics of the hotel job such as unsocial and long working hours, limited control over working hours, low wage and interference with other domains of life are precursors of job dissatisfaction (Lee, Back & Chan, 2015). The inconsistency in the work outcomes across employees presents a diverse intersection between work and leisure.

Theories on Work and Leisure

Scholars and theorists have diverse opinions on the interrelation or otherwise of work and leisure. However, research establishing links between work and leisure has mainly relied on the border theory either in part or as a whole (Gao et al., 2019; Naude, Kruger, de Beer, Saayman & Jonker, 2016; Lin et al., 2015; Wong & Lin, 2007). The border theory also known as the boundary theory, alludes to the works of Ashforth, Kreiner and Fugate (2000), Clark (2000) and Nippert-Eng (1996). It was developed based on the assumption that individuals' life is divided into different domains in which

people assume varied roles based on their responsibilities thereof. The theory thus sought to explain the actions undertaken by people to handle the requirements of the different life domains. The original theory, however, identified work and family as the core domains of life, hence the initial model was termed the border theory of work and family balance (Clark, 2000).

This assumption formed the basis of diverse research in the area of work and family life. However, the border theory faced diverse criticisms mainly on two grounds. Firstly, the naming of work and family as the core domains of life was described as too simplistic (Ransome, 2008). Ransome (2008) in his argument, made mention of the existence of equally important domains of life such as recreation and by extension, leisure. In view of this, reference is mostly made to work and non-work domains to include other aspects of life (Guest, 2002).

Also, the presumption of the existence of borders in life domains remains the main criticism of the border theory. This is because the realism of the existence of boundaries in spheres of life has been challenged (du Gay, 1996). Borders in work and other domains are becoming blurred due to the influx of technology which allows navigation between domains (Middleton, 2003). Though this is a reality, counter-critics believe that borders still exist between domains such as work and tourism (Rainoldi, Buhalis & Ladkin, 2022). They believe tourism relies on physical and mental resources which according to them, are different from what work relies on.

In spite of these, the border theory remains and still forms the theoretical foundation of most research that illumines the relationship between work and leisure (Gao et al., 2019; Naude et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2015). The

border theory, as revised by Guest (2002), identified five relationships: segmentation, spill-over, compensation, instrumental and conflict relations. In addition, the Conservation of Resources (COR) (Hobfoll, 1989) and the demonstration effect theory would also be used in this study since their dimensions of work-leisure intersect and differ from the premise of the border theory.

Segmentation Theory

This theory situates work and leisure in a no-relationship context in which work and leisure are perceived as separate and incompatible domains (Beatty & Torbert, 2003; Guerrier & Adib, 2003). This school of thought proposes that work and leisure are different constructs that exist in diverse settings with no connection in any form. Work and leisure are confined within different aspect of time and space and depends on different energy levels and resources of humans. Work and leisure differ both socially and psychologically and are met in unrelated spheres of life (Dubin, 1956). Work is hence, devoid of leisure attributes since the satisfaction gained from each activity differs. This creates a sense of disintegration which detangles work from leisure (Guerrier & Adib, 2003) and aligns with the conceptualization of leisure as time.

Spill Over Theory

This theory is built on the premise that the effect of an employee's task at work spills over into their non-work domain of leisure (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). The job design, constraints in work role, characteristics of the job and work environment influence participation in leisure (Lin, Wong & Ho, 2014a). Experiences of strain, satisfaction and association from work are carried into

leisure and this affects choices, preferences, attitudes and behaviours in leisure (Veal, 2019; Wilensky, 1960). This effect is directly related to choosing leisure activities with similar characteristics to their job (Kabanoff, 1982).

For example, employees whose tasks are routine, restrictive and undemanding would choose similar leisure activities. Employees choose leisure activities that make use of skills, knowledge and abilities that are similar to those that are brought to bear in their work. Work and leisure are integrated both psychologically and emotionally as emotions and behaviour needed in work are carried into leisure (Celen-Demirtas, Konstam & Tomek, 2015). This spill-over effect has, however, been assessed to have negative implications on an individual. According to the effort recovery model, when leisure and work are similar, they draw from the same human resources leading to depletion rather than the positive outcome of restoration that is associated with leisure (Kelly, Strauss, Arnold & Stride, 2020; Meijman & Mulder, 1998).

Compensation Theory

Snir and Harpaz (2002) are of the view that non-work activities are aimed at fulfilling needs deprived by work. As such, leisure is expected to compensate for losses at work, with highlights on the effects of leisure on work. Leisure formation depends on the eminent deficiencies in an individual's work experiences to which leisure serves as a buffer. This focuses on the complementary role where leisure reduces work strains and provides fun and other unmet needs that do not reside in work (Knecht et al., 2016). In essence, compensation theory depicts the choice of leisure in response to work features and outcomes (Kando & Summers, 1971).

The compensation role of work and leisure is in line with the self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) which states that people are determined to satisfy their innate needs either in work or leisure (Vallerand, 2000). This is further supported by the maintenance model which states that when a significant need is threatened in one life domain, it would be addressed in another (Heine, Proulx & Vohs, 2006).

Instrumental Theory

This theory assumes that activities of a domain result in excellent completion of activities in other domains (Clark, 2000). For example, participation in leisure gives the relief needed to finish a work task while stress at work motivates engagement in leisure. Work and leisure participation are mutually interdependent and inclusive.

Conflict Theory

This theory postulates that conflict arises when all aspects of life, both work and non-work domains, place high demands on an employee. High demands on the time, energy and emotions of an individual lead to stress, tensions (Lin et al., 2015) and inherent conflict. The accomplishment of activities in all domains becomes challenging due to activity overload which may reduce or halt participation in some activities based on an individual's scale of preference. Pressure and commitment attached to an activity would prevent the fulfilment of expectations of other roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The relationship between work and leisure becomes competitive, as arranging time and resources for leisure and work creates a dilemma and they both oppose each other (Beatty & Torbert, 2003).

Conflicts are influenced by the demands of a job, employees' level of control over issues of timing or schedule. A sense of freedom, control and support in work is critical for actual leisure involvement (Iso-Ahola & Wessinger, 1984), the absence of which adversely affects work-leisure interferences (Karasek & Theorell, 1990; Karasek 1979).

Demonstration Effect Theory

The demonstration effect in tourism alludes to the infiltration of tourists' lifestyles in the destination region. Residents in tourists region are mainly found to copy and imitate the life of tourists in relation to their dress, language, consumption and spending patterns. According to McElroy and Albuquerque (1986), the demonstration effect embraces the negative spill-over casually associated with tourist activity (p. 31). The change in habits of residents occurs when residents' and tourists' cultures differ and it is more rapid when tourists' culture is stronger than the destination's culture (Monterrubio & Mendoza-Ontiveros, 2014).

The hospitality industry is characterized by inseparability where the employee and customers both participate and are present in the service delivery process. The working environment in hotels encourages constant interaction between service providers and customers of diverse cultures, which presents a high probability for employees to imitate the leisure lifestyles displayed by their customers. The leisure activities and patterns of hotel customers are likely to be imitated by the employees. This increases the propensity of hotel employees to engage in leisure activities that are slightly alien to their culture.

Conservation of Resource Theory (COR)

Although the COR theory by Hobfoll (1989) is similar to conflict theory, COR assumes that leisure is central to an individual's life, relative to which people make decisions regarding other life issues of family and jobs. Leisure preferences, thus, influence the choice of job and play a significant role on an employee's work behaviour of retention, performance, discretionary work behaviour and commitment (Wang et al., 2020; De Hauw & Greenhaus, 2015). Work is thus chosen in relation to the leisure lifestyle of the individual (Hobfoll, 2002).

Hospitality work is perceived to place high demands on employees due to the irregular working schedule, unpredictable workload per shift, the performance of repetitive tasks as well as the demands on the emotions of employees through contact with customers (Lin et al., 2014a; Karatepe, 2013). This raises a high possibility of the hotel work's interference with leisure; like other previous studies, this phenomenon accounts for the critical focus of this research (Goa et al., 2019; Mansour & Mohanna 2018; Tsaur & Yen, 2018; Lin et al., 2014; Tsaur et al., 2012).

Conceptual Framework

The role of socio-demographic and work characteristics in predicting the leisure behaviour of individuals has been well-established in the literature (Chen, Xue & Shi, 2018; Gracia & Kalmijn, 2016). Individuals are heterogeneous and this diversity is based on variations in socio-demographic and work characteristics that affect leisure engagement. Analysing these inherent differences remains a focal aspect of this study. Leisure participation is initiated by reasons which vary by socio-demographic and work

characteristics (Molanorouzi, Khoo & Morris, 2015). These motives for leisure may, however, lead to non-participation or result in outcomes below expectation due to the presence of constraints (Crawford et al., 1991).

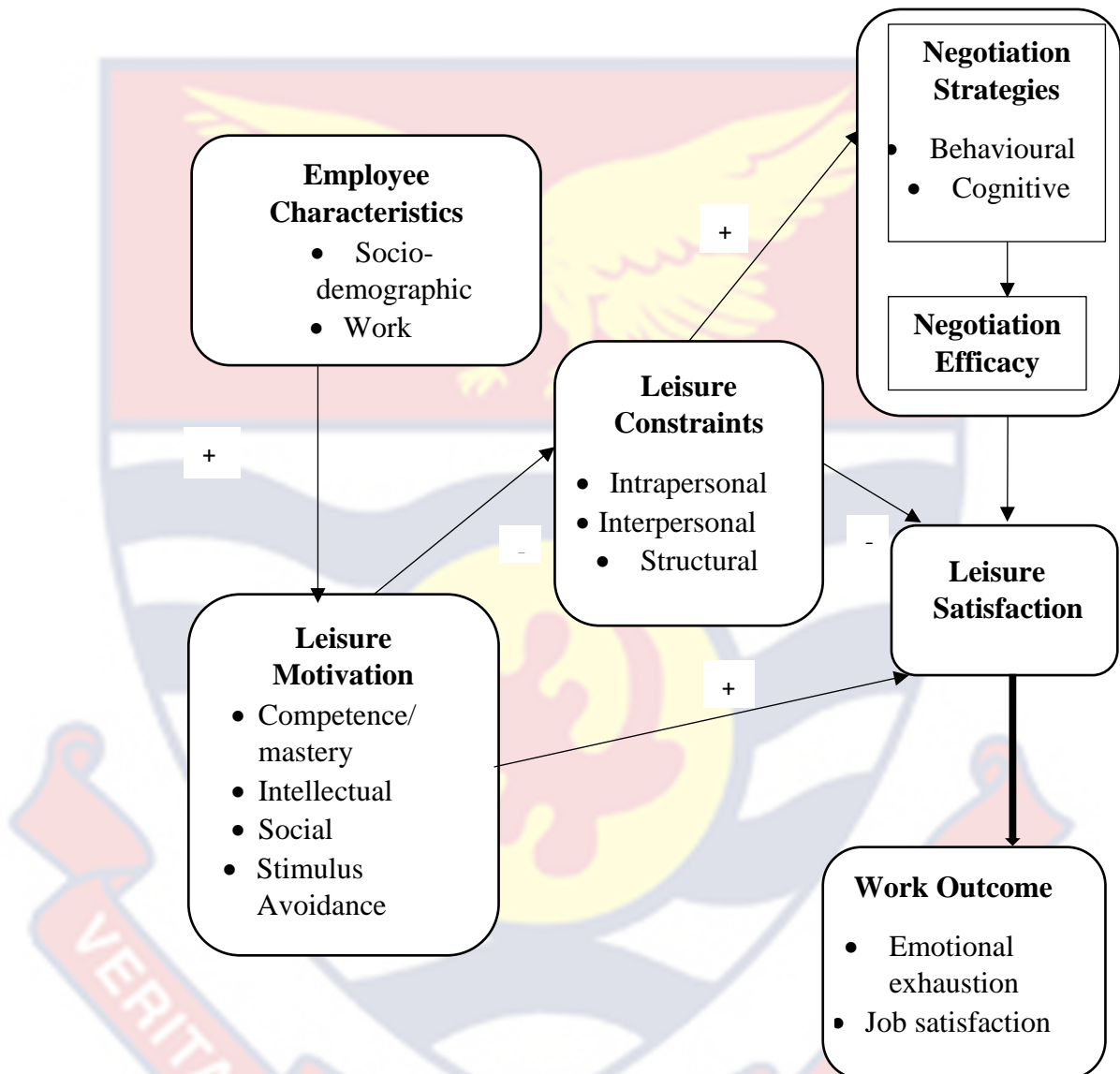


Figure 2: Leisure Participation Framework

Source: Schneider and Wilhelm Stanis (2007), Crawford et al. (1991) and Beard and Ragheb (1983)

Constraints are diverse and are encountered differently based on socio-demographic and work characteristics (Kuykendall et al., 2018). More importantly, the presence and effect of constraints can be negotiated to achieve optimum satisfaction in leisure (Jackson & Rucks, 1995). The application and effects of negotiation strategies are based on a person's confidence in his or

her ability to negotiate strategies to overcome leisure constraints (Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007). In this regard, constraint negotiation can be efficacious or not. Effective implementation of negotiation strategies leads to a pleasurable leisure experience which in turn affects the work outcomes of employees (Suhartanto et al., 2019). In sum, the leisure participation framework was constructed based on the studies of Beard and Ragheb (1983), Crawford et al. (1991) and Schneider and Wilhelm Stanis (2007) as evidenced in Figure 2.

Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed concepts, theories and models that underpin this study. The concepts discussed included leisure, work, leisure motivation, constraints, constraints negotiation, negotiation efficacy, leisure satisfaction and work outcome. Theories of leisure motivation by Dann (1977), Crompton (1979), Deci and Ryan (1985) and Iso-Ahola (1989) and Beard and Ragheb (1983) were assessed. The hierarchical model of leisure constraints and its criticisms as well as the utility theory of leisure satisfaction were also outlined. Guest's (2002) border theories of segmentation, spill over, compensation, instrumental and conflict relationships in addition to the demonstration effect theory and the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) were adopted to elucidate the work-leisure relationship. The interrelation among the leisure concepts were captured in a conceptual framework to guide this study. The subsequent chapter presents empirical evidence on leisure participation across diverse studies.

CHAPTER THREE

EMPIRICAL REVIEW ON LEISURE PARTICIPATION

Introduction

This chapter presents a review of empirical studies relating to leisure participation. Specifically, the review provides evidence on leisure preferences, motivations, constraints, constraint negotiation strategies, negotiation efficacies and leisure satisfaction. Also, linkages between these aspects of leisure and socio-demographic characteristics are discussed. Finally, this chapter highlights the relationship between leisure and employee work outcomes of emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction.

Leisure Activity Preferences

Leisure activities broadly include outdoor, cultural, socializing, intellectual and creative or artistic activities, sports and hobbies (Li, Luo, Huang & Wu, 2017; Lin et al., 2014). A study by Minhat and Mohd Amin (2012) in Malaysia revealed the most common leisure activities of the elderly as having conversation while relaxing (78.7%), watching Television (TV) (74.6%) and reading (63.4%). However, these activities were weakly correlated, signifying lack of diversity in leisure activities of respondents (Minhat & Mohd Amin, 2012). This implies that people have formed their leisure and were consistently engaging in virtually the same activity.

Similarly, Yankholmes and Lin (2012, p. 58) opinionated that the preferred leisure activities of Ghanaians are “customary in nature”. Individuals stick to activities they are accustomed to with little variation across diverse segments. Yankholmes and Lin (2012) in a study of the leisure of university students in Ghana, found activities to include chatting (31.6%), visiting friends

and relatives (14.7%), sleeping (12%), playing free computer games (11.6%) and cooking (11.1%). The least preferred activities were pleasure driving, playing musical instruments, painting/arts and drama/theatre/dance.

Also, a study of the leisure constraints of 1160 students who were randomly selected from the University of Cape Coast, found the main activities to include listening to music (13.8%), sleeping (13.2%), chatting with friends (12.2%) and watching TV (11.9%) (Adam et al., 2015). Additionally, Adam et al. (2017) found leisure activities of the physically and visually impaired persons to entail chatting (16.8%), listening to music (15.2%), watching TV, (14%) listening to radio (11.3%) and sleeping (6.6%).

Furthermore, Adam (2019) revealed that in the absence of a partner, the main digital leisure activities of inbound tourists to Ghana were chatting (35.6), playing games (20.7%), interacting over social media (20.3%), listening to music (13.1%) and watching movies (10.0%). Mensah, Kugbonu and Asimah (2019), in a study of the leisure preferences and constraints of urban dwellers of Ho, Ghana, revealed the main activities as listening to music, watching TV, reading novels and story books whilst the LTPA were running/jogging, playing football, cycling, mountaineering and climbing and swimming. As evident in the aforementioned studies, the leisure activities of Ghanaians were mainly sedentary.

Extending beyond the boundaries of Ghana, preference for passive leisure seems to be a global phenomenon. Basically, the increased desire to make wealth has led to working in multiple jobs which extends working hours and reduces free time (Ito, Kono & Walker, 2020; Andrade, Junior, Capistrano, Beltrame, Pelegrini, Crawford & Felden, 2019; Griffiths, 2010).

The unavailability of ample free time confines leisure in and around the home where leisure is mainly spent passively. Also, the influx and mass ownership of technological devices like TV, video game devices, smart phones and their associated applications contributed to the prevalence of passive leisure among people of all social classes (Loveday, Sherar, Sanders, Sanderson & Esliger, 2016). Notably, digital devices are addictive which keep people glued to a place and increases inactivity. In recent times, the outbreak of COVID-19 and its associated lockdown, restricted leisure activities to watching TV, Blue-ray or DVD, Streaming TV or videos, reading books, magazines and newspapers, playing games, computer games, hobbies and other indoor/online leisure activities (Roberts, 2020). Leisure is thus more increasingly inclined to sedentary activities than active ones.

Factors Influencing Leisure Participation

Leisure choices of employees are influenced by diverse factors both within the individual and in their work environment as presented as follows.

Work

According to Adler and Adler (1999), as much as people may decide to abandon the traditional jobs for alternatives in the 24-hour society, it does not imply a readiness to sacrifice their leisure. Leisure has been established as a domain in which employees are willing to invest their resources of time, money and energy (Gracia & Kalmijn, 2016; Brown, Bradley, Lingard, Townsend & Ling, 2011). Boon (2006) asserts that the life of an employee is a “slice” in which durations are assigned to diverse activities of life, including leisure. However, in situations where the boundaries are blur, employees combine work and leisure, though this may be incompatible in certain work

settings, even when properly planned (Lacanieta, Duerden & Widmer, 2018). Even in instances when employees are allowed to bring leisure into work, they still seek leisure outside the workplace (Young, 2005).

In a study of 105 Dutch employees of diverse occupations, Petrou, Bakker and Heuvel (2017) found that employees' leisure was fashioned in relation to the weekly work demands. These employees did not have a predefined time, activity and expected experiences for leisure, but they adopted a leisure lifestyle that would be compatible with their daily job outcomes. Fixing leisure thus becomes the option for employees with inflexible jobs as well as those in the 24-hour industry. As such, the intersection between work and leisure occurs at diverse levels as influenced by the work environment. Owing to this, work characteristics remain the key predictors of the leisure choices of employees. The working environment had subjective meanings for each employee, which in turn shapes their leisure preferences (Boon, 2006).

Socio-demographic Characteristics

Boon (2006) in a study of employees of tourist resorts in Queenstown, New Zealand, found that employees' leisure was influenced by the individual rather than work characteristics. The socio-demographic characteristics considered to have significant effect on leisure are gender, age, educational level, marital status and income.

Gender

Lenneis and Pfister (2017) are of the view that choices in leisure are not universal but they are intersections of gender. Gendered participation in leisure has been described as an act of society, in which culture and the family

are key influencers. Eminent restrictions are imposed on females which limits their intent and actual leisure participation (Jun & Kyle, 2012; de Bruyn & Cillessen, 2008). Firstly, the gendered role of females as the carer for the home and children have been acknowledged in diverse literature (Kloek, Peters & Sijtsma, 2013). The implied consequence is that females have little time to pursue personal ambitions and freely-chosen activities (Veal, 2011).

Also, the feminine gender is associated with the attribute of being calm and less aggressive in all aspects of life (Chen et al., 2018). This inherently defines activities that females can engage in for leisure. In line with societal expectation therefore, females were consistently found to be inactive in leisure and less likely to participate in LTPA than men (Evans & Gagnon, 2019; Kono, Kim, Gui & McDaniel, 2018; Demirel, Demirel & Serdar, 2017; Qiao, 2017; Öcal, 2014; Sun & Kawthur, 2013). Studies therefore mainly report statistically significant differences in the leisure activities of males and females (Kim et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2018; Adam, 2014; Veal, 2011).

In spite of the generally established perspectives, Koçak (2017) revealed that there is a thinning in the gap in gendered behaviours of working and educated women due to the assumption of masculine roles both in and out of work. This, coupled with modernity and the breakdown of cultural restrictions, allows and encourages females to freely engage in hitherto male-restricted activities such as sports among others, hence the emergence of an increasing similarity in choice of leisure as reiterated by Gurbuz and Henderson (2014). Gurbuz and Henderson (2014) revealed that both males and females preferred home-based, sports and social activities. Also, a study

by Jun and Kyle (2012) on golf participation in leisure found no significant influence of the feminine identity on golf participation.

Age

Most leisure studies explored age from five perspectives: youth (18 to 24 years), young adults (25 to 34 years), middle adults (35-44), adults (45-64) and old adults 65+ (Beggs, Kleparski, Elkins & Hurd, 2014). Relatively, young people are energetic and this is channelled to participating in physical activities in leisure (Altintas, Guerrien, Vivicorsi, Clément & Vallarend, 2018; Scott & Lee, 2018). Also, they prefer outdoor social activities which allow them to participate with friends and in groups (Orsega-Smith, Payne, Mowen, Ho & Godbey, 2007). Respondents aged between 25 and 34 years maintain their leisure activities or are more likely to stop participating in leisure. These adults are in the stage of building their careers and families with possibly young kids, which diverts attention from leisure (Beggs et al., 2014). Their preferences are neither for active nor passive leisure but they would choose activities that fit their schedule.

Older adults aged 65 years and more mainly transfer their work skills to benefit society through leisure (Liechty & Genoe, 2013). However, due to the weakening in strength associated with aging, they are less likely to participate in physical and outdoor leisure activities (Kono et al., 2018; Beggs et al., 2014). Thus, participation in LTPA decreases with increased age (Altintas et al., 2018; Scott & Lee, 2018; Orsega-Smith et al., 2007). Contrarily, Molanorouzi et al. (2015) found that older adults aged 65 years and above engage more in physical activity for extrinsic motivation than younger adults aged 41 years and less. On another hand, Chen, Li and Chen (2013)

found that people stick to leisure habits formed from childhood during elementary school. Leisure, in this regard, becomes a norm and may hold cultural and spiritual meanings to participants.

Educational Levels

Studies across diverse areas and among different populations revealed variations in leisure choices across educational levels (Li et al., 2017; Tsai & Zhou, 2015; Minhat & Mohd Amin, 2012). According to Beggs et al. (2014), highly educated people have preference for sedentary leisure activities. The character traits of an enlightened person include a calm demeanour and being less aggressive. This mirrored in the choice of leisure, as participation in LTPA decreased from high school (Öcal, 2014). However, Keshkar, Ehsani, Koozechian, Ghasemi and Mohammady (2012) found that more educated Iranian women participated in sports and LTPA than the least educated. Notwithstanding, a study of the leisure constraints and the psychological continuum model among mountain skiers, found educational level not to have any influence on leisure participation (Alexandris, Du, Funk & Theodorakis, 2017).

Income and Marital Status

High income has a dichotomous effect on leisure participation; high income allows the consumption of more leisure as restrictions posed by distance and cost/price is non-existent (Wang et al., 2020). On the other hand, the desire for high wages can result in the substitution of leisure for longer hours of work to make good money (Leon, 1962). Also, lack of income could lead to working in multiple jobs which reduces leisure time and participation (Ito et al., 2020). With regard to activity type, people in high-paid occupations

have preference for sedentary leisure (Andrade et al. 2019; Beggs et al., 2014). With marital status, Minhat and Mohd Amin (2012) found that the presence or absence of a partner affects participation time, frequency and preference.

Leisure Motivation

Understanding leisure motivation has practical implications for leisure investment and policy due to the fact that motivation predicts the leisure needs of people. Also, motivation influences the frequency of leisure participation (Ramos, Anderson & Lee, 2018). However, motivation is dynamic among individuals and within an individual as it is influenced by diverse physical, psychological and environmental forces (Iso-Ahola & Allen, 1982). In relation to the four-fold motivation by Beard and Ragheb (1983), Kanters and Forester (1997), in a study on participation in recreational sports programmes found that respondents were motivated by competence and social factors rather than intellectual and stimulus avoidance factors. Participants mainly reported the need to achieve, master certain skills, challenge themselves and compete against others. This was followed by the need to develop and maintain friendship and gain positive recognition from their peers.

Heintzman and Mannell (2003) found the main motivation for leisure to be intellectual, followed by social and stimulus avoidance while the least was competence/mastery. The study by Beggs, Stitt and Elkins (2004), revealed competence/mastery as the strongest motivation for leisure participation while the least was stimulus avoidance aimed at slowing down on some activities, being alone and resting. In descending order, Lloyd, King, McCarthy and Scanlan (2007) found respondents to be motivated by social, intellectual and stimulus avoidance factors. Walker (2009) is of the view that

in Asia, the need of competency is perceived as a tool for disharmony as it promotes individualism. There is a preference for social reasons as this encourages unionism through increased time with family and other members of society. Dillard and Bates (2011) found that the leisure motivation of 622 auto-motive, owners and lessors in the US was mainly situated in the social and intellectual domains of motivation with attention on the need to enhance relationships.

In a study of the leisure motivation of people with physical and visual disabilities in Ghana, the main motive was social, followed by competence/mastery, intellectual motivation and stimulus avoidance (Adam et al., 2017). Albayrak and Caber (2018) revealed the main leisure motivation as intellectual since respondents were driven by the desire to explore new ideas, learn about themselves and expand their knowledge. This was followed by social motives, where the tourists perceive their trips as an opportunity to be socially competent and gain a feeling of belonging. The third was competence/mastery while the least was stimulus avoidance. All these four motivations explained 74.46% of variance in reasons for undertaking tourism. Ramos et al. (2018) revealed social motives as the main motivational factors, followed by a desire for competence/mastery.

Leisure Motivations and Socio-demographic Characteristics

Gender

Evidence suggests differences between gender and leisure motivation; however, these differences existed in the individual dimensions and not the composite leisure motivation. Kanters and Forester (1997) revealed no difference in intellectual, competence/mastery and social motivations of males

and females. However, females reported a greater need for escape from stress than males, hence significant differences existed between stimulus avoidance and gender. Additionally, Beggs et al. (2004) revealed statistical differences in intellectual and social motivations by gender. Females had a preference for intellectual and social factors than men. However, no difference existed between males and females with regard to competence/mastery. Also, Molanorouzi et al. (2015) revealed that males were motivated by competence/mastery due to their desire to outshine their peers in varying activities of pursuit.

Adam et al. (2017) also found a difference in gender and some leisure motivations of the physically and visually impaired. Males were more motivated by stimulus avoidance and competence/mastery than females while females were more motivated by intellectual motives than their male counterparts. In a study of the leisure of university students, the MANOVA and its univariate analysis revealed significant differences with gender, as men were motivated by competition while women sought enjoyment in leisure (Sarol & Cimen, 2017). Social motivation thus exists as a common drive for female leisure engagement (Anaza, 2017). Evidence from these among the available literature revealed inconsistency in leisure motivations of males and females, though some degrees of variation were established.

Age

Beggs et al. (2014) in a study of the leisure motivation of adults found that young adults between the ages of 18 and 24 years were mainly motivated by competence/mastery factors while adults within the ages of 25 to 34 ranked competence/mastery as the least motivation. This is because young adults (18

and 24 years) seek activities that aid them to acquire the skills needed to build their ego through achievement in chosen leisure activities. Older adults above 65 years were influenced by social aspects of leisure as they prefer activities that promote building relationships with the social environment. Significant differences thus existed between age and social motives of leisure. Adam et al. (2017), however, did not find differences in leisure motivations by age.

Education and Marital status

The desire for social motives varied by marital status. People who were without partners; the single and ever married were not enthused to engage in leisure for social reasons like the married (Adam et al., 2017). This is unexpected as people without partners are alone, all things being equal, and expected to seek to interact with others for leisure. The married, on the other hand, have company but seek more of that in leisure. Further, no variation existed between leisure motivation by education (Adam et al., 2017).

Income

Levels of income influence the intended benefits of leisure; hence studies establish significant differences between income and leisure motivation. (Qiu, Tian, Zhou, Lin & Gao, 2020; Munusturlar, Munusturlar & Özçakır, 2016; Dillard & Bates, 2011). Adam et al. (2016) revealed variation in intellectual and competence/mastery motives by levels of income. Low-income earners were motivated by intellectual desires while high income earners were not. On the other hand, no difference existed between stimulus avoidance and social motivation by income levels.

Leisure Constraints

Studies on leisure constraints have reported the existence of three main constraints: intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural as identified by the Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints (Crawford et al., 1991). The hierarchical model assumes intrapersonal constraints to be the highest, followed by interpersonal and structural constraints. However, studies revealed the main and higher constraint to participation as structural constraints (Öcal, 2014; Keshkar et al., 2012). Boo, Carruthers and Busser (2014) found structural constraints to be the highest, followed by interpersonal and intrapersonal constraints.

Other studies found leisure participation to be affected by interpersonal, followed by structural and intrapersonal constraints (Kim & Park, 2010). Also, some authors found intrapersonal constraints to be the main constraints, however, this was followed by structural and not interpersonal constraints (Adam et al., 2015; Lai, Li & Harrill, 2013; Andronikidis, Vassiliadis, Priporas & Kamenidou, 2007). These dynamics deviate from the original model and support opponents who believe that the constraints should not be ranked but multi-dimensional.

Evidence suggests that each constraint affects an aspect of the leisure discourse. According to Liang and Walker (2011), interpersonal and structural constraints inhibit starting a new activity. On the other hand, intrapersonal constraint triggers structural constraint and also affects perception and capacity for negotiation. Hence, decreased intrapersonal constraint increases motivation and ability to negotiate structural constraints (Öcal, 2014; Kim & Park, 2010).

Intrapersonal Constraints

Firstly, is individuals' lack of interest in a specific or entire aspect of leisure. This arises from fatigue, depression, anxiety, frustration and other negative outcomes emanating from work, schooling or other life issues (Andrade et al., 2019; Sun & Kawthur, 2013; Tsaur et al., 2012). Work has an engaging influence on leisure and its constraining influence is obvious across all aspects of the employees' life. The nature of an individual's physical work environment in terms of duties, role and workload as well as the psychological work environment of strain, fatigue and attitude of colleagues may exert constraints on participation in leisure (Andrade et al., 2019; Tsaur et al., 2012). The hotel job is well-acknowledged as a major source of fatigue due to the work overload, long hours of work and performance of repetitive tasks among others (Mansour & Mohanna, 2018; Knecht et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2014; Lin et al., 2013; Sun & Kawthur, 2013; Tsaur et al., 2012). The continuous fatigue experienced by hotel employees may reduce their enthusiasm, especially for active leisure.

In addition, the lack of skills and knowledge in an activity, negative perceptions of activity and negative experiences with the activity can cause individuals to lack confidence in their ability to participate in the activity (Kowalski & Lankford, 2010). Also, participants lose their self-confidence when they feel unwelcome in certain leisure environments (Shores & Scott, 2005). Shifman, Moss, D'Andrade, Eichel and Forrester (2012) found that students who did not participate in intramural sports reported that they felt shy to participate in the activity. Lack of or low self-confidence reduces or halts leisure participation especially in the absence of support.

Furthermore, people who desire to participate in available or certain leisure activities may be hindered by lack of talent and skills to participate in leisure activities (Mensah et al., 2019; Kuykendall et al., 2018; Rintaugu, Mwangi & Bailasha, 2013; Yankholmes & Lin, 2012). Deficiency in techniques in golfing constrained participation (Choi et al., 2019) while lack of fishing skills limited participation in recreational fishing in Queensland, Australia, (Sutton, 2007). With activities, like singing, respondents raised issues of lack of voice (Palen Patrick, Gleeson, Caldwell, Smith, Wegner & Flisher, 2010). Adam et al. (2015) revealed that more than half (71.2%) of the university students in Ghana lacked participation skills. However, lack of skills is relative to activity as individuals may have different skills and knowledge, but would become handicapped because their existing skills do not match available leisure activities (Stanis, Schneider & Pereira, 2010). Lack of skills may raise safety concerns due to the fear of getting hurt especially when participating in active leisure (Andrade et al., 2019).

Closely related to this is lack of information and knowledge on available leisure resources. It has been established that residents may be unaware of available leisure resources in their environment (Andrade et al., 2019; Ayhan Ekinci, Yalçın & Yiğit, 2018; Celiki, Tercan & Yerlisu-Lapa, 2014). Shores and Scott (2005), in a study of the leisure of 716 military wives in Fort Hood Military Housing Post in Texas, found that these women lacked information on available leisure within their community. Students in a Canadian University in the province of Ontario who did not participate in intramural sports attributed it to lack of information about such activities

(Shifman, 2012). Also, Latinos reported that lack of knowledge is a constraint to their physical activity participation (Harrolle et al., 2013).

Furthermore, health status has been identified in the literature as an intrapersonal constraint. Poor health status makes it nearly impossible to engage in mainly active leisure activities (Palen et al., 2010). This restriction may be imposed medically or personally as the health condition makes it difficult to engage in such activities. Health status is a main challenge for the elderly as aging is mainly accompanied by deteriorating health (Li et al., 2017). Poor health leads to a reduced capacity to engage in physical activity due to insufficient energy (Hung, Bai & Lu, 2016). Declining health and bodily disability have a strong negative impact on participation (Adam, 2017; Yankholmes & Lin, 2012).

Finally, an individual may not enjoy leisure mainly due to the presence of constraints in leisure participation. Also, people may feel unworthy of happiness or engaging in leisure activities due to disabilities or frustration from other issues (Nimrod, Kleiber & Berdychevsky, 2012). Celiki et al. (2014) found that persons with disabilities in public institutions in Antalya, Turkey, felt worthless to engage in pleasurable activities. Also Palen et al. (2010) found that students dislike sports due to their competitive nature and the inherent possibility of losing. Competition intimidates participants, especially those who do not have the requisite skills, denying them of the enjoyment integral to leisure participation.

Interpersonal Constraints

Interpersonal constraint arises when friends and/or family members discourage individuals' leisure participation. Potential leisure participants may

seek the advice of friends and family on the choice of leisure activities. Lack of encouragement from friends and family may deter people from participating in leisure or an activity (Andrade et al., 2019; Yankholmes & Lin, 2012; Palen et al., 2010). In a study of constraints to sports participation, young Koreans in Australia were restricted and discouraged by their parents and family members from leisure participation. Parents focused on making their children attain a higher status than their neighbours' children and, thus, enrolled their children in after-school lessons for extra-curricular tutoring. Leisure was seen as playing and the children were encouraged to learn and achieve academic excellence (Palen et al., 2010).

Furthermore, when a partner is needed to participate in leisure, their absence leads to non-participation (Kim et al., 2019). According to Deelen, Ettema and Dijst (2016), the availability of companions not only boosts participation but it also enhances the perceptions of safety in sports facilities and other leisure environments. Absence of partners may occur when one party travels, lives in different environment or has a different work or study schedule (Boo et al., 2014; Kim & Park, 2010; Kowalski & Lankford, 2010; Silva & Correia, 2008). Professional caregivers felt isolated from their spouses as they spent more hours in the homes of others (Weinblatt & Navon, 1995). The unavailability of a partner leads to lack of emotional and physical support which induces isolation (Kuykendall et al., 2018; Li et al., 2017; Park, Yoh & Park, 2015). This is heightened for people who do not enjoy leisure in the company of unfamiliar people but prefer their co-partners to be from an ethnically or enclosed friendship network with similar language, culture and other preferences (Hung et al., 2016; Tsai & Coleman, 1999). This is basically

to avoid prejudices from others based on ethnicity and preference (Stanis et al., 2010).

Furthermore, interpersonal constraints arise when an individual's choice of leisure is deemed inferior. Companions do make mockery of the leisure choices of others by looking down on a leisure activity (Mensah et al., 2019; He, Li, Harrill & Cardon, 2014). In Ghana, university students were rejected by friends (63.5%) while some lost the respect of other students (61.2%) for participation in a preferred leisure activity (Adam et al., 2015). According to Palen et al. (2010), preferred leisure activities of high school students were criticised by their boy- or girlfriends, who further pressurized these individuals to participate in alternative activities. Adam et al. (2015) revealed that the preferred activities of their respondents were looked down upon (52.8%) as other colleagues had little interest in their preferred leisure.

Lastly, restraint may arise from the divergent leisure interest of people and their partners. Family and friends may not be interested in leisure or in the preferred activity of an individual (Albayrak, Caber & Crawford, 2007). Harrolle, Floyd, Casper, Kelley and Bruton (2013) revealed that more than a quarter of Latinos were restrained due to the fact that their partners and friends do not like sports (32.4%). Hudson and Gilbert (2000) found that partners of skiers were not interested in skiing. This dislike or little interests in the preferred leisure of a partner makes the other party criticise or not participate since the other party does not place value on it.

Structural Constraints

Structural constraints are restrictions posed by the individual's external environment, of which the person may have little or no control. The foremost

structural constraint is in relation to inadequacy of leisure time (Tsai & Coleman, 1999). Evidence suggests that inadequacy of free time is a constraint to leisure participation (Andrade et al., 2019; Choi et al., 2019; Mensah et al., 2019; Ayhan et al., 2018; Pagliarin, 2017; Chick et al., 2016; Adam et al., 2015; Park et al., 2015; Gürbüz & Henderson, 2014; Tsaour et al., 2012).

Andrade et al. (2019), in a study of the leisure-time physical activity of Brazilian workers, found that more than half of the respondents (60.3%) had insufficient leisure time due to long hours of work. Tsaour et al. (2012), specifically mentioned that the nature of the hotel job such as long working hours and irregular work schedule deprives employees of sufficient leisure time. Also, during peak seasons, employees in the hospitality sector have to work overtime, including off-time and have to postpone other activities, such as leisure (Pagliarin, 2017). The effect is evident in the unavailability of lump time needed to participate in leisure activities (Samdahl & Jekubovich, 1997). This tilted preference for some activities and hindered participation in others that require a significant amount of time.

Secondly is an insufficient amount of money to purchase preferred leisure (Andrade et al., 2019; Li et al., 2017; Gürbüz & Henderson, 2014; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008). Participation especially in active leisure requires money as there are cost implications (Choi, Yoo, Park & Greenwell, 2020). The cost incurred in leisure is mainly in the purchase or rent of equipment, transportation to access facilities, learning of skills and entrance tickets (Jun, Kyle & O'Leary, 2008; Sutton, 2007; Jackson, 1994).

Insufficient money mainly inhibited the leisure of Chinese senior citizens as they were out of active service and relied basically on retirement

benefits (Li et al., 2017; Kim & Cho, 2015). Similarly, Iranian women, especially single mothers and older women, lack financial resources as they are often not financially independent or are burdened (Keshkar et al., 2012). Also, some students do not have enough funds for leisure because most of them are not engaged in fulltime employment or are unemployed (Adam et al., 2015; Sun & Kawthur, 2013; Yankholmes & Lin, 2012).

Notwithstanding, employees in active service also acknowledged insufficient income as a constraint to leisure participation. Insufficient income is cited as a leisure constraint among Brazilian workers (Andrade et al., 2019). The hotel job is known as low paying, which in itself, presents a constraint to leisure engagement (Tsaur et al., 2012). On another hand, Kaimakamis, Mitatou and Mpalaska (2013) attributed the financial constraints in skiing to the worsening financial crises in Greece, the study area. Due to the economic crises, respondents were not able to purchase equipment for snowboarding and make payments for transportation services. It is, however, worth noting that insufficient funds for leisure may be due to the disproportional allocation of money to needs based on priorities (Tsai & Coleman, 1999).

Additionally, there are inherent characteristics of the hotel job that poses a limitation to leisure participation. The workload in hotels, besides being excessive is unpredictable and could become unbearable in peak seasons. This places much demand on the energy of the employees and it, as well, keeps them busy in their quest to accomplish daily tasks (Andrade et al., 2019; Tsaur et al., 2012). Being busy at work suggests a high probability of being unavailable for leisure engagement. A study by Kim and Cho (2015)

found that due to the work overload, 75% of employees in South Korea did not participate in leisure-time physical activity.

Furthermore, the customary leisure periods are the weekends, holidays and the evenings after regular work hours (Gracia & Kalmijn, 2016; Presser, 2003). Unfortunately, these periods are included in the hotel work schedule for employees. Consequently, being on duty during these seasons inevitably excludes such individuals from leisure. Also, working overtime is a feature common to the hotel work allowance (Gao et al., 2019; Simmons et al., 2016; Hsu & Hsu, 2012). Its implication is a depletion of employees' energy as well as a reduction in the free time needed for leisure participation. Finally, the irregular working hours typified by the shift system in hotels make it impossible for employees to regularly participate in leisure within same the periods of the day. Employees' daily work shift thus regulates likely free time which distorts continuous engagement in activities, especially those tied to certain times of the day.

A structural constraint to leisure participation is the absence of or inadequate leisure facilities and equipment (Gurbuz & Henderson, 2014). Tsai and Zhou (2015) are of the view that available leisure facilities and equipment relative to the number of people willing to use the resource may lead to overcrowding due to its inadequacy. Evidentially, overcrowding at recreational fishing centers in Queensland, Australia, led to inadequate equipment for fishing (Sutton, 2007). This constraint is stimulated by the inappropriate distribution of the state's resources which deprives certain regions in the nation or low investment relative to existing population (Kim et al., 2019; Ayhan et al., 2018; Harrolle et al., 2013). Palen et al. (2010) found

scarcity of equipment and apparel for soccer clubs, shooting pools and swimming pools as a constraint to participation.

Coupled with this is the unavailability of preferred leisure facilities and services (Yankholmes & Lin, 2012). This arises when available leisure resources are incompatible with the needs of the people or there is a change in the leisure tastes and preferences of people over time. Mensah et al. (2019) found that residents of Ho in the Volta Region of Ghana lacked preferred leisure facilities. However, in the absence of the preferred leisure facilities, residents still rely on the available leisure resources in their environment (Andrade et al., 2019).

Also, Li et al. (2017) assert that movement to access leisure facilities outside the home could be tiresome and stressful due to inconveniences in commuting caused by congestion in traffic. Traffic congestion increases the amount of time spent to and from accessing leisure facilities as well as the cost in terms of fuel purchased by users of private vehicles. However, the issue of traffic congestion is faced by people in big towns and urban areas such as Accra.

Another structural constraint is imposed by the family and its related commitments. The family is basic in the formation of cultural and moral values and the conduit for transmitting values of dos and don'ts (Katz-Gerro & Meier Jaeger, 2015). Certain ideologies and beliefs of the family restrain leisure participation entirely or with some activities (Li et al., 2017; Tsai & Zhou, 2015). Also, the concept of family revolves around caring for each other, which translates into commitments in terms of financial obligations and the housework of cleaning, shopping, preparing meals and caring for children

(Li et al., 2017; Liu, Li, Xu & Han, 2017; Nyaupane, McCabe & Andereck, 2008).

Andrade et al. (2019) studied family commitment differently from housework and revealed that more than half of the respondents identified both family commitment (58.1%) and housework (54.4%) as constraints to their leisure participation. Koca, Henderson, Asci and Bulgu (2009), in a study of Turkish women's participation in LTPA, found family responsibilities and ethics of care to be the main constraints except for the unmarried women. Also, duties of child care inhibited access to the leisure of breastfeeding mothers as their babies were too attached to them making it difficult for them to participate in outdoor leisure (Chow & Dong, 2013). These duties may extend to obligations such as attending funerals among other social events which place a demand on the time and energy resources of individuals. The effect of these obligations is obvious when individuals place much value on these social obligations (Kaimakamis et al., 2013; Liechty & Genoe, 2013; Kowalski & Lankford, 2010).

Leisure is to be freely chosen; however, this freedom is confined as aspects of leisure may be described by the society as inappropriate (Smith & Raymen, 2018). The laws and societal values, therefore, place restrictions on choice of activities and impose age limits on access to some facilities as entrenched in the constitution. Cultural constraints are situated within the context of identity construction and social relationships within an environment (Kim et al., 2019; Gurbuz & Henderson, 2014; Godbey, Crawford & Shen, 2010).

Consequently, the effect of culture on leisure is pronounced in certain societies. According to Chick and Dong (2003), cultural constraint in leisure cannot be underestimated in countries like China and Japan with embedded and valued traditional practices. Tsai and Zhou (2015), in a comparative study of female students from mainland China and Taiwan, revealed that the cultures of these respective countries constrained leisure in terms of the type of activities regarded as appropriate. Also, studies revealed that the cultural values of Iranian society restrict female participation in sports (Mirsafian, 2016; Keshkar et al., 2012).

Leisure Constraints and Socio-demographic Characteristics

According to Casper, Bocarro, Kanters and Floyd (2011), socio-demographic factors are significant predictors of the leisure constraints experienced.

Gender

In a study by Khan (2011) more than half (51.5%) of the females cited their gender as a major limitation while males did not perceive gender as a constraint. Women have long been disadvantaged while the position of males are strengthened by society. This is reinforced by cultures that transform and reproduce identities that promote unequal access to leisure resources (Chung et al., 2017; Durko, Stone & Petrick, 2014; Christin, 2012). As such, women experience more and unique constraints than men (Kuykendall et al., 2018). A study of Iranian and Hungarian students found that female students experienced all forms of constraints and in higher dimensions than their male counterparts (Mirsafian, 2016).

Pieces of evidence from extant literature suggest that females experience more intrapersonal constraints than males (Ayhan et al., 2018; Hoden, 2010; Sutton, 2007; Alexandris & Carroll, 1997). This is attributed to the fact that, females express a low self-esteem, are shy, want to keep religious and family principles, are self-conscious and lack requisite skills for participation (Raymore, Godbey & Crawford, 1994). Females tend to exhibit self-limiting and internal constraints which reduce confidence in participation (Park et al., 2015). On the other hand, Adam et al. (2015) found that males experienced more interpersonal constraints than females. Generally, studies found significant differences between gender and constraints faced in leisure (Ayhan et al., 2018; Gao & Kerstetter, 2016; Gurbuz & Henderson, 2014; Mirsafian, Mohamadinejad, Homaie & Hédi, 2013). Contrary, studies also revealed similar constraints for males and females (Scott & Lee, 2018; Mirsafian, 2016; Celiki et al., 2014).

Age

According to Andrade et al. (2019), constraints, especially with leisure time physical activities, increased by age. Specifically, intrapersonal constraints increased by age due to weakening of the strength attributed to mainly deteriorating health (Koçak, 2017; Chick et al., 2016; Molanorouzi et al., 2015). Also, older people face more interpersonal challenges mainly from loss of partners to death (Koçak, 2017; Gao & Kerstetter, 2016). This affects the support available for leisure participation as partners are a source of reliable support. On average, Koçak (2017) revealed that health and fitness club members in Ankara, Turkey, aged 18 to 35 years faced less constraints than those of the ages 36-45. Also, persons aged 35 to 44 years exhibited

significant intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints (Lee & Palakurthi, 2013). Adam et al. (2015) found older students to have experienced more interpersonal constraints. However, Jun et al. (2008) revealed that young persons experience more significant interpersonal constraints than older persons.

Available evidence suggests significant differences between age and the constraints in leisure (Kuykendall et al., 2018; Koçak, 2017; Li et al., 2017; Chick et al., 2016; Cho & Price, 2016; Adam et al., 2015; Celiki et al., 2014; Ghimire, Green, Poudyal & Cordell, 2014). Conversely, Casper and Harrolle (2013) and Nyaupane and Andereck (2008) found no difference by age, as constraint patterns are similar across all age categories.

Educational Level

Insights from extant literature indicate that leisure constraints vary by levels in education (Li et al., 2017; Tsai & Zhou, 2015; Alexandris & Carroll, 1997). According to Tsai and Zhou (2015) highly educated people used their knowledge of the benefits of leisure participation to debunk some of the cultural myths restricting leisure participation, thereby reducing culture's constraining effects on leisure. The less educated were found to be cultural tolerant and adhesive; hence they conform to the values which greatly restrict leisure participation. Thus, perceptions of leisure constraints increased with lower levels of education (Li et al., 2017; Deelen, Ettema, Dijst, 2016; Boo et al., 2014; Ghimire et al., 2014; Alexandris & Carroll, 1997). Specifically, Shores and Scott (2005) found that persons with professional or post-graduate training were less constrained than those with college certificates. However,

Cardenas, Henderson and Wilson (2009) found no difference in level of education and leisure constraints experienced.

Marital Status

Inadequate time is a less minor constraint to the unmarried while it is a major constraint to the married who have to fulfil marital obligations (Alexandris & Carroll, 1997). Also, working single mothers experience more constraints than working co-parents (Bakker & Karsten, 2013). On the other hand, married respondents were not constrained by lack of partners while it is a challenge for the unmarried (Kuykendall et al., 2018). Studies have, therefore, revealed significant differences in all dimensions of leisure constraints and marital status (Koçak, 2017; Li et al., 2017; Santos, Ball, Crawford & Teixeira, 2016).

Income

In a longitudinal study, Mowen, Payne and Scott (2005) found income to be the single predictor of perceived constraints in 1991 and 2001. Income has effect on the extent, scope and direction of constraints experienced (Crawford et al., 1991). Mowen et al. (2005) found that low-income earners faced constraints of lack of partners, poor health and lack of interest in recreation activities while high income earners were constrained by lack of time from being busy with other activities, family responsibilities and pursuing recreation elsewhere. Zou and Scott (2018) found that in the USA, low-income Americans were constrained in spite of being indigenes. On the whole, high-income earners are able to overcome most potential constraints; so they face fewer real constraints (Keshkar et al., 2012; Nyaupane &

Andereck, 2008). Consequently, changes in household income leads to a change in leisure constraints (Kim, Lee, Kim & Kim, 2015).

Specifically, Zhong, Luo and Zhang (2015) revealed that structural constraints differ by income levels. Also, students with less income faced more intrapersonal constraints than those with high income (Adam et al., 2015). Besides, Cardenas et al. (2009) who found no differences, existing studies mainly found significant differences between income and leisure constraints (Ayhan et al., 2018; Li et al., 2017; Boo et al., 2014; Ghimire et al., 2014).

Constraints Negotiation

Cognitive Strategies

A study by MacCosham (2017) on negotiation strategies reveals that people ignite interest in leisure by weighing the pros and cons of non-participation. Hence, when the negative impacts of non-participation outweigh the pros, it arouses the zeal to adopt the necessary behaviour needed to overcome limitations. Gaining awareness of the benefits of engaging in leisure activities induces commitment to reduce or eliminate constraints to leisure (Lyu & Oh, 2015; Nimrod et al., 2012). However, when constraints are beyond an individual's capacity, the existing activities are negotiated by replacing existing patterns with new ones (Nimrod et al., 2012). This modification could be done either through a reduction in participation frequency or a switch to alternative activities (Kuykendall et al., 2018; Kloek et al., 2013; Ma, Tan & Ma, 2012; Nimrod et al., 2012).

Furthermore, when leisure participation comes at the cost of foregoing other activities, potential participants are emotionally prepared to bear the

opportunity cost foregone (MacCosham, 2017). They initiate attitudes to reduce the outcomes of the alternatives forgone, assume autonomy in leisure decision making, push harder for engagement, take a step at a time and are willing to bear the consequences of their actions (Lyu & Oh, 2015; Ma et al., 2012; Nimrod et al., 2012). Culture-wise, participants ignore prejudices that hinder participation and as well change one's negative perception about the activity (Lyu & Oh, 2015; Stanis et al., 2010).

In situations when participants feel guilty of intended or actual leisure activity, they persuade themselves about the benefits of the activity to their wellbeing (Kuykendall et al., 2018; MacCosham, 2017; Lyu & Oh, 2015; Nimrod et al., 2012). In a study of the leisure of Muslim women in Netherlands, discrimination against women participation was negotiated by ignoring restrictions (Kloek et al., 2013; Ma et al., 2012). Also, children resist parental restriction by disobeying such orders and developing self-esteem to cover for lack of parental support (Palen et al., 2010; Stanis et al., 2010). Resisting cultural and religious restriction is now an increasing option as pre-conceived attitudes are continually changing through education and the influx of counter information (Stanis et al., 2010; Koca et al., 2009; Hudson & Gilbert, 2000).

Behavioural Strategies

The constraint of inadequate leisure time is overcome through planning of daily, weekly and yearly activities to allow for the allocation of time, and a significant amount of time at that, for leisure. Simmons et al. (2016) in a qualitative study, found that Ironmen resolved inadequacy in leisure time through one or a combination of the following: re-scheduling of other

activities, allocation of time to all activities, sacrificing other activities for leisure and staggering of working hours to allow for flexibility. These employees purposively carve time for all necessary life activities and also stick to such schedule. Kay and Jackson (1991) found that 29% of the respondents saved time from other activities of chores and work, to make time for leisure. Studies show that some people have assigned specific time periods strictly for leisure activities (Rintaugu et al., 2013; Son, Mowen & Kerstetter, 2008).

Boo et al. (2014) identified time management strategies to include adjusting work schedule, setting time for event and looking for easy ways to access event sites to avoid traffic congestion on the road and crowds at the leisure site. Additionally, people cut the time at work, at school and with family to engage in leisure (Ma et al., 2012; Elkins, Beggs & Choutka, 2007). People prioritize their activities to allow participation in a suitable leisure-time activity for maximum experiences (Wood & Danylchuk, 2015).

With financial constraints, Kay and Jackson (1991) found that insufficient money had no effect on the leisure participation of some residents of Stoke-on-Trent. This was due to the fact that these residents saved towards leisure activities (11%), opted for cheaper alternatives to participating in same activity (8%) and reduced spending on other goods and services (4%) in order to maintain the desired level of participation. There is ample evidence that saving money for leisure is the most mentioned strategy used to negotiate financial and cost constraints (Boo et al., 2014; Stanis et al., 2010). Also, people engage in less expensive activities (Ma et al., 2012; Elkins et al., 2007), have financial plan on how to use their money (Son et al., 2008), live within

their means and avoid excess cost through improvising with available equipment and clothing (Stanis et al., 2010; Hubbard & Mannell, 2001). With physical resources, people save and allocate money to acquire the gadget, equipment, items needed for intended leisure activity and the right clothing (MacCosham, 2017; Kennelly, Moyle & Lamont, 2013; Hubbard & Mannell, 2001).

With interpersonal constraints, MacCosham (2017) revealed that people who need partners and support to participate in leisure communicate their challenges in order to solicit the help of friends and family. Elkins et al. (2007) found that people encourage friends to participate with them and are willing to adjust their time and choose activities to fit the schedule and preferences of their friends. This is the pattern of most young adults and college students whose leisure revolves around friends (Rintaugu et al., 2013). Unmarried persons rely on other people to facilitate leisure while the married mainly take advantage of the presence of their spouse as companions in leisure (Kuykendall et al., 2018).

To reduce the challenges of having joint leisure with incompatible partners, people choose partners with similar leisure aspirations (Wood & Danylchuk, 2015; Son et al., 2008). Beside this, Boo et al. (2014) found that people participated in leisure with people of the same gender. However, in desperation to get company, Ma et al. (2012) found that people are sometimes willing to participate with unfamiliar people. These ensure interpersonal coordination and encourage, physical and other support needed to pursue a chosen leisure activity. However, in instances where it is impossible to find a partner, people engage in the leisure activity alone (Palen et al., 2010)

Furthermore, skills and knowledge deficiency in leisure is overcome through the acquisition of requisite knowledge and skills (Wood & Danylchuk, 2015). This is mainly through constant practicing to improve existing skills to accomplish leisure goals (Rintaugu et al., 2013). In an in-depth interview with 21 Australian triathletes, skills for triathlon were acquired progressively through continuous practice until the athletes achieved their ultimate aim (Kennelly et al., 2013). To acquire requisite skills, people claimed they swallowed their pride and asked for help from others (Stanis et al., 2010; Son et al., 2008; Hubbard & Mannell, 2001). When options for learning skills are non-existent, participants prefer to engage in activities that match their existing skills and in which they are good (Ma et al., 2012; Elkins et al., 2007).

Negotiation Strategies and Socio-demographic Characteristics

Lehto, Park, Fu and Lee (2014) are of the view that gender affected leisure coping strategies. According to Koçak (2017), females deploy interpersonal facilitators to negotiate constraints. Specifically, the intensity of leisure-work conflict was low for males who, through re-scheduling were able to balance leisure and work (MacCosham, 2017). Consequently, differences existed in gender and time negotiation as females were more likely to negotiate time than males. This is because females were more likely to be constrained with time since they have to deal with both work and household responsibilities (Boo et al., 2014).

In addition, differences existed between level of education and finance and coordination negotiation. People with low education are more likely to negotiate financial constraints and use coordination strategies than people with

high education (Boo et al., 2014). Similarly, differences existed in skill acquisition, coordination and marital status (Lee, Hwang & Stodolska, 2020). The married are more likely to rely on their partners for skills and social support while an unmarried person is likely to seek help from family, friends and colleagues.

Negotiation Efficacy

Constraint negotiation is generally assumed to improve participation by reducing the effect of constraints. However, a correlation test reveals that leisure negotiations are not significantly associated with leisure constraints and frequency of participation (Lee & Scott, 2009). In addition, White (2008) found that constraint negotiation is not significantly related to participation in leisure as it exhibited only a small positive impact. Thus, if negotiation does not play a significant role, participation does not increase (Choi et al., 2019). As such, crucial to adopting a negotiation strategy is the successful implementation of intended strategies (White, 2008; Scott, 1991).

Negotiation efficacy has a direct negative influence on constraints and a positive direct influence on negotiation, which in turn, positively influences participation. (Choi et al., 2019; Scott, 1991). Kay and Jackson (1991) found that insufficient money had an unequal diverse effect on residents of Stoke-on-Trent based on the efficacy of the negotiation strategies. Hence, confidence in one's ability to negotiate is a prime factor in ensuring successful leisure participation (Boo et al., 2014; White, 2008; Hubbard & Mannell, 2001). Negotiation efficacy was aroused by people's previous success in overcoming barriers, levels of delight in overcoming obstacles and patterning after others who have eliminated constraints (Ridinger, Funk, Jordan & Kaplanidou,

2012). Also, the amount of social support available to people influences the extent of self-efficacy to negotiate constraints (Laird, Fawkner & Niven, 2018).

Leisure Satisfaction

Leisure satisfaction is the main determinant of a participant's general well-being, and its knowledge is useful in predicting future leisure choices (Suhartanto et al., 2019). Leisure participation becomes more exciting and meaningful when individuals achieve expected pleasant satisfaction (Przepiorka & Blanchnio, 2017; Muzindutsi & Masango, 2015; Ateca-Amestoy et al., 2004). Leisure satisfaction is an indication that a participant's leisure needs and expectations have been met (Choi & Fu, 2015). Hence, equally important to leisure participation is the level of satisfaction gained from the participation (Zhou et al., 2021). With experience, Yankholmes and Lin (2012) revealed that slightly above a quarter of the respondents were very satisfied (26%), 48% were fairly satisfied, 20% were somewhat satisfied while 6% were not satisfied with the leisure activities they engaged in (Yankholmes & Lin, 2012).

Leisure and Work Outcome

Emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction are both emotional outcomes of an individual's job in which leisure can play a critical role. Leisure satisfies emotional needs by releasing stress and strains and causing happiness which in turn affects mental and physical states. It has been established that employees who engage in valued leisure have satisfaction with other life domains of work and family (Suhartanto et al., 2019). Positive association exists between involvement in leisure and satisfaction with job as leisure has a significant effect on job satisfaction.

However, hotel conditions give little opportunity to gain benefits in leisure with implications for emotional exhaustion (Wang et al., 2020; Mansour & Tremblay, 2016). Employees in strenuous jobs are less likely to benefit from leisure because the feeling of being drained leads to the depletion of personal resources needed for leisure (Gao et al., 2019; Xu, Martinez, Van Hoof, Estrella Duran, Maldonado Perez & Gavilanes, 2018). The psychological benefits of leisure mediate emotional exhaustion experienced at work to induce satisfaction with one's job. Leisure buffers the negative work outcomes by reducing work strains as well as providing the fun and other unmet needs that do not reside in work (Knecht et al., 2016).

In this regard, employees choose leisure that would enhance their satisfaction and restore their emotional energy. Thus, hotel employees that engage in leisure are more likely to be satisfied with their job as they are less or not emotionally exhausted (Suhartanto et al., 2019; Mansour & Tremblay, 2016). Leisure participation is thus crucial for labour efficiency (Wei, Qu & Ma, 2016).

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a review of the empirical findings on the various dimensions of leisure. The review started with a discussion on leisure participation preferences and factors influencing participation. This was followed by a review of findings relating to leisure motivations, types of constraints, constraint negotiation strategies and their interaction with socio-demographic characteristics. Other issues reviewed were in relation to negotiation efficacies and work outcomes of emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. The next chapter proceeds to look at methodological issues.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology guiding the study. The issues discussed are the study area, research philosophy, study design, sources of data, target population, sample and sampling technique, research instrument and data analysis.

Study Area

The study area is Accra, the capital city of Ghana. The land area of Accra as used in this study is based on the tourism demarcations of the Ghana Tourism Authority. GTA's Accra is bounded by Tema to the east, Amasaman to the north, Kasoa to the west and the Gulf of Guinea to the south. Accra is located within the coastal savannah ecological zones and the dry equatorial climatic region of Ghana. Accra is the commercial hub of Ghana and hosts virtually all the head offices of the administrative sectors in the public service of Ghana. Accra is a transportation hub for all inland movement and the only gateway for all international visitors who travel by air as it houses the only international airport in Ghana.

Accra hosts the highest proportion of tourism and hospitality facilities, especially in relation to lodging, food service establishment, event centres and entertainment facilities of nightclubs, pubs and stadia. The major meeting, events, exhibitions and conference facilities in Ghana such as the International Conference Centre, National Theatre, Independence Square, Accra Sports Stadium and Trade Fair Centre are all situated in Accra. Aside from these, the

largest retail shops and markets in Ghana are located in Accra which, positions the city as a shopping centre for tourists and residents.

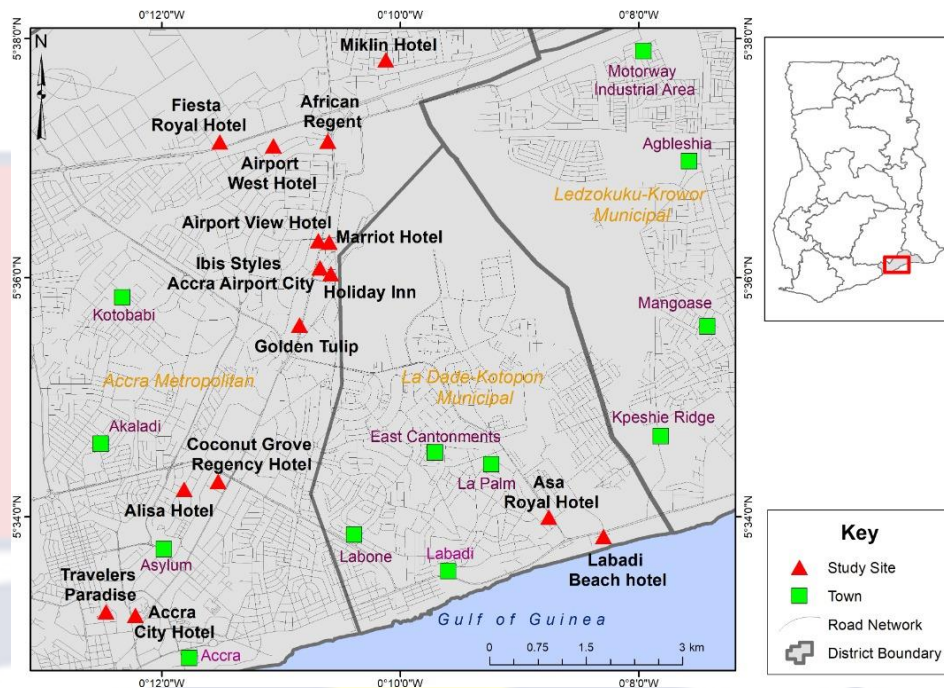


Figure 3: Map of the Study Area

Source: Cartography and Remote Sensing Unit of the Department of Geography and Regional Planning, University of Cape Coast, (2021)

The main tourist attractions are the National Museum, Kwame Nkrumah Mausoleum, (the resting place of Ghana's first President), Ussher Fort, James Fort, and the Osu Castle (Christiansborg Castle), which was the seat of government until 2012 when the seat of government was relocated to the Flag-Staff House. Also, the shore of the Gulf of Guinea serves as a beach that attracts both domestic and international tourists and pleasure seekers. In relation to accommodation facilities, a significant proportion is located in the city. On the whole, there are 184 star-rated hotels, including all three (3) 5-star rated hotels (Kempinski Gold Coast City Hotel, Labadi Beach Hotel and Movenpick Ambassador Hotel) in Ghana (GTA, 2018).

Accra was chosen for the study because compared to any geographic space in Ghana, it has the highest proportion of hotels in all the star-rated

categories. This diversity in hotel characteristics would translate into variation in work content, workload and working environments with implications for leisure. Also, the employee numbers from these numerous hotels would constitute an adequate study population to choose from. Additionally, Ayhan et al. (2018) assert that urban areas attract more recreational facilities, due to the high demand for these by a large number of residents. Thus, as an urban area and the most densely populated city in Ghana, Accra attracts more recreational facilities, both private and public-owned, than other areas in Ghana. Residents of Accra thus include hotel employees who have access to diverse leisure facilities for their consumption. Furthermore, the brusque, hustle and traffic congestion in Accra may have implications for leisure participation, constraints and negotiation strategies.

Research Philosophy

The study is strictly grounded in the positivist philosophy, with a focus on the quantitative approach. Positivism is a scientific method of research that presumes that social issues are real and stable and should be observed and described from an objective point without interfering with the phenomenon being studied (Creswell, 2007). Ontologically, positivists are realist, and their source of knowledge is based on the scientific method (Wahyuni, 2012). Positivists assume that the truth exists and has to be discovered through empirical enquires by asking direct questions to which specific answers are provided.

It allows for the collection of quantitative data which are analysed using standardized tests and presented in numeric forms. Also, standard instruments of questionnaires, structured interviews and close-ended

observational checklists are adopted to ensure the validity and reliability of the data in order to make a realistic generalization. This allows for value-free studies independent of the researcher's bias (Creswell, 2007). Positivism is built on the principle of rigour and allows for the testing of hypotheses.

The critics of positivism argue that it is rigid and oversimplifies issues. This is because the use of numbers makes it impossible to capture explanations and subjective issues. In spite of these criticisms, the positivist philosophy remains the bedrock of most scholarly articles including leisure studies (Mansour & Mohanna, 2018; Petrou et al., 2017). The testing of relationships in hypotheses provides the opportunity to validate real issues which form the basis for making informed and objective judgement. In line with positivism, a questionnaire was used to collect the quantitative data and the findings were presented numerically in tables and figures for the purpose of describing and explaining the leisure of hotel employees.

Research Design

In reference to the scope of the study, a cross-sectional design was deemed appropriate. This design allows for the snapshot study of either a sub or the entire population (Olsen & George, 2004). Thus, given the limited time and financial constraints, the cross-sectional design allows a single study of the sample. Also, the cross-sectional design entails the collection of quantifiable data on a research problem at a specific period in time (Bryman, 2006). This current study explores the leisure participation of hotel employees in relation to work outcomes of emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction, with priority on quantitative data.

In addition, the objectives of the study are inherently descriptive. According to Creswell (2003), a descriptive design is concerned with conditions or inter-relationships that exist, opinions that are held, processes that are going on, effects that are evident, and trends that are developing. It describes the situation or the phenomenon as it exists with a focus on answering the question “what” (Creswell, 2005; Sarantakos, 2005). The objectives of this study basically seek to describe leisure participation, leisure motivation, leisure constraints, leisure constraints negotiation strategies and the negotiation efficacy of employees of hotels in Accra.

Sources of Data

The study principally made use of primary data. The primary data were obtained from hotel employees in Accra, through a field survey, using questionnaires. Also, secondary data were sourced from the GTA on licensed star-rated hotels in Accra. These data formed the basis for calculating the sample size as well as the frame for selecting hotels in the study.

Target Population

The target population comprised employees of star-rated hotels in Accra. Employees as used in this study, include all hotel workers, from managerial to operational levels. This segment was found suitable for the study due to the peculiar nature of their job. The employees in hotels work at all times of the day as outlined by their respective shift hours, including holidays and weekends which are acknowledged leisure times for employees in traditional jobs. Furthermore, as providers of leisure services, hotel employees may have a different understanding of and approach to leisure which this study seeks to explore.

Sample Size and its Determination

The sample size for the study comprised 330 hotel employees and 15 hotels. The Creative Research System sample size calculator was employed to determine the sample size for both the hotel and employees. At a confidence level of 95%, a confidence interval of 24.32 and a population of 184 hotels, the number of hotels selected for the study is 15.

$$ss = \frac{Z^2 * (p) * (1-p)}{C^2}$$

Where

Z = Z value (1.96 for 95% confidence level)

p = percentage picking a choice, expressed as decimal (0.5 for sample size needed)

c = confidence interval (expressed as a decimal)

Using the data from GTA's manpower survey in 2016, the population of hotel employees in Accra was estimated at 5, 115 employees. With regard to the employees, using the Creative Research System sample size calculator at a confidence level of 95%, a confidence interval of 5.22 and a population of 5115 employees, the number of employees to participate in the survey is 330. The number of hotels and employees selected for the study was influenced by the resistance of most hotels to allow researchers in their premise as part of their COVID-19 protocol. This reduced the population and restricted me to only a smaller number.

Sampling Procedure

A multi-stage sampling procedure, specifically stratified and convenience samplings, was adopted for this study. Firstly, hotels were

selected across the GTA's existing strata which is the star rating. Convenience sampling was employed to select hotels from each category of star rating. The number of hotels to be selected was however done disproportionately. This became necessary as some hotels had closed operations while others vehemently resisted the conduct of research in their facility due to the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. As such, the categories of hotels that were in operation and allowed for the collection of data on their premise were relied on to reach respondents to meet the sample size, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Star-Rated Hotels in Accra

Rating	Total number of hotels in each category	Allocation of hotels by sample size
5-star	3	1
4-star	8	5
3-star	6	2
2-star	65	5
1-star	102	2
Total	184	15

Source: Author's Construct, (2020)

On the other hand, Hotel employees were selected using convenience sampling. Although the existence of a sampling frame (number and names employees) would have made it appropriate to choose a probability sampling, hotels are known to deny researchers' access to employees' profile. Researchers therefore have no control over who participate in the study while the shift system enables researchers to have access to only the section of employees on duty at the time of data collection. Hence convenience sampling was adopted to select hotel employees as typified by previous studies (Blankson-Stiles-Ocran, Ammissah & Mensah, 2019; Mensah, 2019; Gamor et al., 2017). However, the number of employees to be selected was

proportionately allocated across all star-rated categories as made evident in Table 2.

Table 2: Allocation of Employees

Hotel's rating	Number of hotels selected from each category	Estimated number of employees in each star rated hotel	Estimated total employees in selected hotels	Total sample of employees to be selected in each category of hotel (Proportionate allocation)	Individuals sample of employees to be selected in each category of hotel
5-star	1	100	100	47	47
4-star	5	80 (80 * 5)	400	190	38
3-star	2	50 (50 * 2)	100	48	24
2-star	5	15 (15 * 5)	75	35	7
1-star	2	10 (10* 2)	20	10	5
Total	15		695	330	

Source: Author's construct, (2020)

Research Instrument

The questionnaire was the main instrument for the collection of data. Questionnaire provides an efficient means by which statistically quantifiable information can be collected, (Creswell, 2005). It allows multiple respondents to be reached within the shortest period, hence it is effective when dealing with large numbers. In addition, questionnaire offers the assurance of anonymity to respondents and ensures consistency (reliability) in research (Sarantakos, 2005). In this study, the questionnaire was semi-structured, comprising both open and close-ended questions. The close-ended questions were measured mainly on Likert scales. The questionnaire was divided into eight (8) sub-themes based on the research objectives.

The first section dealt with activities engaged in for leisure. This section requested employees to provide any ten (10) preferred leisure activities. Section B probed the motivations for leisure participation. The study

employed the short version of the four-fold LMS of Beard and Ragheb (1983), which consisted of 20 items, five (5) for each dimension. Constraints in leisure participation were captured in Section C. The items were categorized into the three leisure constraints identified by the Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints by Crawford et al. (1991). In all 25 items were used; seven (7) measured intrapersonal constraints, six (6) items for interpersonal constraints and structural constraints were measured with twelve (12) items.

The fourth section focused on the leisure constraints negotiation strategies. Items were measured in relation to behavioural strategies (time management, interpersonal coordination, financial management, physical strategies and skill acquisition) and cognitive strategies. In all, seventeen (17) statements measured behavioural strategies across all its dimensions while four (4) items measured cognitive strategies. The scale was adopted mainly from studies of Jackson and Rucks (1995), Hubbard and Mannell (2001) and Hebblethwaite and Norris (2011).

The fifth section dealt with issues on the efficacy of negotiation and the items were adopted from the study by White (2008). Section F assessed employees' satisfaction with their experiences and the statements were sourced from the diverse literature reviewed. Section G focused on the work outcomes of emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. The nine-items emotional exhaustion scale was adopted from Maslach and Jackson (1981) while a three-items job satisfaction scale was from Lee and Ok (2012).

The items included in Sections B to G were all measured on a five-point scale of 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree. These scales (from sections B through G) have been, and

remain the widely used measurement scales in related studies. These scales are comprehensive and have met or exceeded all statistical requirements mainly in relation to validity and reliability and are thus credible for use in any geographic area and on all segments of the population types, including the current study. The last section presented the socio-demographic and work characteristics of respondents. The factors considered were gender, age, educational level, marital status, religion, nationality, ethnicity, household size, monthly income, employment status, department, daily working hours, and star-rating of facilities.

Pre-testing of Research Instrument

The questionnaire was pre-tested in October 2021 in Ho, the capital city of the Volta Region. Ho is an urban area and in relation to the spread of hotels, it has the highest concentration in the region just as Accra has the highest concentration in Ghana. Besides five-star hotels, Ho has hotels within the other categories like Accra, hence a degree of similarity in the hotel industry. The need for pre-testing the questionnaire became relevant to assess the validity of the instrument, the clarity of questions as well as the adequacy or otherwise of the items being measured.

Issues that emerged after the pre-testing were mainly with regard to the volume of the questionnaire. Participants mostly described the questions as too many, hence completing the questionnaire was time-consuming. In response, the initial questions were revised to a more concise version. Secondly, the understanding of leisure differed among respondents, therefore, some provided responses that did not align with the researcher's expectations when they were asked to list their leisure activities. To resolve this a brief definition of leisure

was added to that section to ensure clarity and to guide respondents. In all thirty (30) employees from three (3) hotels partook in the pre-testing exercise.

Actual Field Work

Data were collected in the month of November 2021 and January 2022.

Due to the outbreak of COVID-19, some hotels had closed down; for this reason, there was a need to confirm whether the hotels were in operation. Introductory letters were then sent to the managers of the facilities in operation to seek their consent. An agreement was reached with the hotels that gave their consent on the date and time the research team should visit the facility. Two principal instructors at Ho Technical University were trained to help in the data collection. Once contact was established with the hotels, the team visited to commence the data collection.

Upon arrival, the managers of the facilities introduced the team to the employees on duty and informed them of our intent. We then proceeded to administer the questionnaire to employees who were willing to participate in the study. However, in order not to interfere with the work of the employees, we had to wait till they had ended their shift or had attended to their clients and were less busy. Some facilities were visited on more than one instance to gather the completed questionnaire and to also administer the questionnaire to a new set of employees in a different shift (that is when managers are unwilling to pick the questionnaire for employees not available at the time of visit). Finally, though the questionnaire was supposed to be self-administered, the team had to read out the questions for some respondents based on request.

Field Work Challenges

During the data collection, the following challenges were encountered. Firstly, since hotels were still coping with the outbreak of COVID-19, some banned the conduct of research in the facility as part of their protective protocol. The management of these facilities did not give their consent to the team. Secondly, some gave their consent to the team but with many restrictions. Specifically, the team was to contact the employees after their shift hours. As such the team had to wait and meet with these employees after their working hours. Finally, some of the employees were unwilling to partake in the survey, even though the team was accompanied and or introduced to them by their managers. Those that remained adamant after further explanation were replaced by others within their facility or in alternative facilities. These challenges encountered affected the choice of sample sizes or both hotels and their employees.

Data Processing and Analysis

Data processing commenced after the field survey basically to check the completeness of the questionnaire. The useable questionnaires were numbered, edited, coded and entered into the IBM Statistical Product for Service Solution (SPSS) version 25 for quantitative analysis. The data were subjected to both descriptive and inferential analysis. Firstly, descriptive statistics of frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations were run to describe the socio-demographic and work characteristics of employees as well as the issues across all objectives. Further, Probit Regression was run to ascertain the factors that predict the choice of leisure activity of employees.

This was to bring to light the predicted probability of employees engaging in active, compared to passive, leisure.

Additionally, to establish differences between socio-demographic/work characteristics and concepts such as leisure motivations, constraints, negotiation strategies and negotiation efficacy, the Independent Sample T-Test and the One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was employed. Independent-samples t-test is a technique used to compare the mean scores of two different groups of people while ANOVA compares the variance in scores between groups with different levels (Pallant, 2010). The essence of the established differences is to foreground the heterogeneity in human behaviour which is required in planning for the provision of public services.

Also, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was run on leisure constraints of employees. To situate leisure constraints in the context of the hotel job, author-constructed items were added to the scale developed by Crawford et al. (1991). EFA was employed to evaluate these items and explore their dimensionality. Additionally, the Chi-Square Test of Independence was used to assess the relationship between some constructs. This test was a preliminary analysis that was aimed to inform further in-depth analysis.

Finally, the path relationship of the study model, as represented by the conceptual framework, was tested using Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM). According to Anderson and Gerbing (1988), PLS-SEM is a two-step analysis, which proceeds with examining the validity and reliability of the measurement model. This is followed by the structural equation model analysis aimed to test the hypothesis and the path relations.

The foremost is termed Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) as it aims to evaluate the suitability of the rationale and logic behind the proposed model.

In PLS-SEM, CFA is the main criterion in testing the fit of the measurement model. Its main indicators are the variable or factor loading, Composite Reliability (CR), Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and the Discriminant Validity represented by either the Fornell-Larcker or Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio Criteria (Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015; Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). CR assesses the extent to which the variables are devoid of random error and hence estimates the consistency, stability and equivalence of a construct (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). A reliable construct has CR values greater than 0.70 (Hair et al., 2010). On the other hand, the AVE states how the variance explained by the latent variable is shared among its indicators (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The factor loading and AVE collectively measure the convergent validity which is a measure of the degree of similarity between measurement variables. An appropriate convergent validity has a factor loading greater than 0.60 and an AVE greater than 0.50 (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Hair et al., 2010).

Discriminant validity measures the degree of distinctiveness between the measurement variables. Represented by the inter-construct loading, the discriminant validity is deemed appropriate when the correlation between each construct is not equal to or exceeds one (1) (Ringle et al., 2015). Thus, the lower the correlation values, the more distinct the variables are from each other. Further, discriminant validity can be tested by comparing the AVE with the square of the correlation between constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

The next phase is to assess the structural model estimates to establish causality among the variables of interest and to verify the study's hypotheses. Each structural path is evaluated to ascertain whether it was meaningful and progressing as expected (Ringle, Sarstedt, Mitchell & Gudergan 2020; (Hair, Risher, Sarstedt & Ringle, 2019). The assessment includes the model's explanatory power, predictive relevance, fit (the SRMR), and path coefficients with their respective significance levels.

PLS-SEM was deemed appropriate to test the structure of this study's model because it is a prediction-oriented approach (Richter et al., 2016a). Also, PLS-SEM is suitable for formative constructs aimed at developing a theory. The study's framework was constructed by the author which raises the need to test the proposed anticipated path relationships. Hence, PLS-SEM would help to test and re-structure the inter-relationships to develop a more realistic model.

Finally, PLS-SEM is a composite-based approach that adopts a linear combination of indicator variables and is more efficient for very complex models (Hair, Matthews, Matthews & Sarstedt, 2017a). It also applies to all data types and is less sensitive to the normality or the size of the data (Ali, Rasoolimanesh, Sarstedt, Ringle & Ryu, 2018). Relatively, the study model can be described as complex while the sample size is also not so large enough. PLS-SEM was therefore, deemed suitable due to its ability to analyse the relationships in complex models and small samples like the study's.

Ethical Issues

In order to respect the rights and privacy of hotel employees, the researcher adhered to the three main ethical concerns of informed consent,

confidentiality and anonymity (Sarantakos, 2005). Firstly, an introductory letter from the department was sent to the management of hotels to seek permission to collect data on their premises. This was part of the entry protocol to the hotels and an opportunity to explain the objectives of the study in order to seek their consent. A verbal consent was also sought from employees.

With reference to anonymity, questions requesting names of employees and their hotels, residential address and information traceable to any employee were omitted from the questionnaire. Finally, respondents were assured that the data from the field would be kept privately and not be disclosed to any third party. In line with confidentiality, the data were used strictly for academic purposes.

Chapter Summary

This chapter described the methodology used for the study. The study area was Accra while positivism was the research philosophy. A cross-sectional study design was employed and the data were sourced from both primary and secondary sources. Employees in star-rated hotels constituted the target population while the convenience sampling technique was employed to select 330 employees. The research instrument was a questionnaire and both descriptive and inferential statistics were employed to analyse the data. The next chapter presents and discusses the results of the data collected.

CHAPTER FIVE

LEISURE PREFERENCES OF HOTEL EMPLOYEES

Introduction

Leisure is a common engagement for all persons, especially employees who deploy leisure as a buffer for work (Knecht et al., 2016). This chapter presents the leisure activity preferences of hotel employees. It further ascertains the factors that predict the leisure activity choices of the employees. The chapter, however, commences with a description of the socio-demographic and work characteristics of the respondents.

Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

These socio-demographic characteristics have been well-established as influencers of people's leisure choices and consequently have become a critical component of leisure research (Chen et al., 2018; Lenneis & Pfister, 2017; Petrou et al., 2017). To present a vivid description of the respondents in the study, the instruments sought information on their socio-demographic characteristics such as gender, age, marital status, educational level, religion, nationality, ethnicity and income. In Table 3, it is evident that about two-thirds of the respondents (62.4%) were males whilst the rest (37.6%) were females. This gender distribution is consistent with previous research which reported more male than female employees in hotels in Accra (Ampofo, Qwusu-Ansah & Owusu, 2021, Ampofo, 2020, Mensah, 2019). It further supports GTA's 2016 manpower report which revealed more male (57.2%) than female (33.8%) employees in hotels in Accra.

Table 3: Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents (N = 330)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	206	62.4
Female	124	37.6
Age		
18 – 27	86	26.1
28 – 37	204	61.8
38 – 55	40	12.1
Education		
High/Secondary/ Vocational	162	49.1
Tertiary	168	50.9
Marital Status		
Unmarried	220	66.6
Married	110	33.4
Religion		
Christian	301	91.2
Islam	29	8.8
Nationality		
Ghanaian	330	100
Ghanaian (Ethnicity)		
Akan	141	42.7
Ewe	94	28.5
Ga- Adangbe	65	19.7
Others	30	9.1
Household Size		
Alone	149	45.2
1 – 5	155	47.0
6 - 10	26	7.8
Monthly Net Income (GH¢)		
150 - 500	70	20.6
501-999	196	57.6
1000 - 3000	74	21.8

Source: Field survey, (2022)

With the age composition of the respondents, more than half (61.8%) of the respondents were between 28 and 37 years whereas a little over a tenth (12.1%) of them were between 38 and 55 years. The 2020 Housing and Population Census reported that 52.91% of Ghanaians were between the ages of 15 and 54 years (GSS, 2021). Constituting, a little above half of the

population and representing the active working categories, it is in place that the age composition of the respondents aligns with the report of the census data.

With regard to education, slightly above half (50.9%) of the respondents had attained tertiary education while the remaining (49.1%) had secondary/vocational level certificates. This supports the finding of Mensah (2019) who found a little over half (50.6%) of the respondents to have attained tertiary education. On the other hand, the significant number of employees with secondary/vocational/technical education reiterates an attribute of the hospitality industry as an employer of people with low levels of education (Spencer, Tsangu & Silo, 2017). Explicitly, Shereni (2020) asserted that people with secondary, vocational and technical education have become a major source of labour for the industry.

Additionally, Table 3 indicates that two-thirds (66.6%) of the respondents were unmarried while a third (33.4%) were married. The relatively young age of the respondents, 18 to 37 years (87.9%), mirrored the marital status, translating into mainly unmarried respondents. This was also evident in previous studies on hotel employees by Appaw-Agbola, Mensah, Azila-Gbettor and Abiemo (2020) and Mensah (2019) who found unmarried respondents to be in majority.

Furthermore, an overwhelming majority of the respondents were Christians (91.2%) whilst less than a tenth (8.8%) were Muslims. This religious division is a replication of religious affiliation in the country, as Christians constitute more than two-thirds (71.2%) of the Ghanaian population (GSS, 2021). Additionally, studies revealed that Muslims face diverse forms

of discrimination working in the hospitality industry. It has been established that the job tasks and policies such as serving alcoholic beverages and dress codes conflict with their religious ethics which deter them from taking employment in the industry (Aizan, Ahmad & Rahman, 2020; Ahmad, Rashid & Zainol, 2015).

By nationality, all the respondents (100%) were Ghanaians and the dominant ethnic groups represented in this study were the *Akan* (42.7%), followed by *Ewe* (28.5%) and *Ga-Adangbe* (19.7%). Slightly below a tenth (9.1%) of the respondents belonged to other ethnic groups like the *Dagomba*, *Frafra*, *Nzema*, *Hausa* and *Guan*. The convergence of these ethnic groups is because Accra, the capital city of Ghana, is known to host people of diverse ethnic groups due to immigration to explore the business potentials of the city. Also, the results about the dominant ethnic group reiterate the findings of the 2020 Population and Housing Census which reported the *Akan* tribe as the main ethnic group in Ghana.

In reference to household size, more than a third of the respondents either stayed alone (45.2%) or with between 1 and 5 people (47.0%). Since more than half of the respondents were unmarried, it is much expected that they would stay alone and in situations where they have company, it would be a few persons. In terms of the monthly net income, more than half (57.6%) of the respondents earned between GH¢ 501 and 999, followed by employees who earned within GH¢ 1000 to 3000 (21.8%) while about a fifth (20.6%) of the respondents earned between GH¢ 150 and 500. The hospitality industry is noted as a low-paying job (Pagliarin, 2017; Tsaur et al., 2012) and hence, it is

not far-fetched that more than three-quarters (78.2%) of the respondents earned a net income of less than GH¢ 1,000 monthly.

Work Characteristics

Leisure has been established as a domain in which employees are willing to invest their resources of time, money and energy (Kelly et al., 2020; Brown et al., 2011). The characteristics of the job therefore would likely have implied influences on the leisure participation of an employee. This study explores work characteristics such as employment status, department, working hours and hotel rating as shown in Table 4.

It is evident from Table 4 that more than three-quarters (83.3%) of the respondents were full-time employees whereas less than a fifth (16.7%) were casual staff, in line with the employment status composition in the study of Amissah, Gamor, Deri and Amissah (2016). Regarding departments, slightly more than half (53.7%) of the respondents worked in the departments in the front of the house such as food and beverage, front office and security. The remaining (46.3%) were in the back of the house, specifically housekeeping and administrative positions like accountants and clerks. This dual classification was to make it possible to run further statistical analysis without violating the assumptions of having many cells with no respondents.

Additionally, more than three-quarters (88.8%) of the respondents, worked between 8 and 10 hours per shift while slightly above a tenth (11.2%) worked for 11 to 15 hours per shift. It can be deduced from this distribution that a significant proportion of the respondents exceeded the eight (8) hours standard working hours which highlights the long working hour feature of the hotel job (Tsaur et al., 2012).

Table 4: Work Characteristics of Respondents (N = 330)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Employment status		
Full-time	275	83.3
Part-time/Casual	55	16.7
Department		
Front of the House	177	53.7
Back of the House	132	46.3
Daily working hours		
8-10	293	88.8
11 - 15	37	11.2
Hotel Rating		
5 to 4 Star	237	71.8
3 to 1 Star	93	28.2

Source: Field survey, (2022)

Finally, more than half of the respondents (71.8%) worked in 4- and 5-star hotels while less than a third (28.2%) were in 1 to 3-star hotels. The up-scale hotels had a higher number of employees than hotels on the lower scale. That a significant constituent of the respondents in the study worked in 4- and 5-star hotels is attributable to the fact that the top-notch hotels have a higher percentage of employees than their lower-scale counterpart.

Leisure Preferences of Hotel Employees

Leisure entails freely chosen activities which broadly include outdoor, cultural, sport, socializing, intellectual, creative or artistic activities and hobbies (Li et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2014). Following the classification of Joudrey and Wallace (2009), more than half (68%) of the employees participated in passive leisure activities while a little below a third (32%) engaged in active leisure activities (Table 5). The preference for passive leisure by hotel employees can be explained by the Effort Recovery Model.

This model is premised on the assumption that when leisure and work have similar characteristics, they draw from the same human resources, leading to a depletion rather than a positive outcome of restoration (Kelly et al., 2020; Meijman & Mulder, 1998).

As such, when an individual's job is stressful he/she is more likely to choose a less stressful activity in leisure as evident in this study. The hotel job is exhaustive and stressful, likewise the engagement in active leisure. Hence, hotel employees engaged in less-energy-demanding leisure activities which buttress the instrumental role of leisure to provide relief from work stress and replenish energy lost at work (Melton et al., 2018; Mansour & Tremblay, 2016; Hobfoll, 2014).

Additionally, Griffiths (2010) attributed employees' preference for passive leisure to long working hours. Hotel employees in Accra also work long hours, coupled with the shift system which decrease their free time. Unavailability of ample free time hinders participation in outdoor activities which are mainly active and tilt preference to passive activities which are mainly home-based. Finally, the influx and mass ownership of technological devices like the TV, video game devices, smart phones and their associated applications have also hugely contributed to the prevalence of passive leisure among people of all social classes (Loveday et al., 2016) including hotel employees in Accra. Despite these probable explanations for hotel employees' liking of passive leisure, empirical evidence suggests that other segments of the Ghanaian population incline to passive rather than active leisure activities (Mensah et al., 2019; Adam et al., 2017; Adam et al., 2015).

Specifically, the foremost passive activity preferred by the respondents was watching TV (15.4%) and the programmes mainly viewed were football matches, movies and the news. This was followed by the reading (13.0%) of books such as novels and the Bible among others. Since all the respondents had, at least, secondary education, it was possible for them to read. The hotel employees also surfed the internet (7.9%) by mainly interacting on social media platforms like WhatsApp, Instagram and Facebook, slept (6.1%), played video games (5.1%) and listened to music (4.4%) while the least activity was learning to play an instrument (0.6%).

Bao et al. (2020) collectively termed watching TV, surfing the internet and playing video games as screen-time activities. These activities are driven by advances in technology and their addictive features make people spend more time doing them (Loveday et al., 2016; Minhat & Amin, 2012; Griffiths, 2010). These have thus overridden the current leisure pursuit of people in all spheres, including hotel employees. On the other hand, the active leisure activity preferences of the respondents were related to exercises (6.8%) such as visiting the gym and jogging, swimming (5.6%), engaging in sporting activities such as playing football, volley, tennis and basketball (4.4%), hanging out with friends (4.2%), walking (3.9%), with the least activity being cycling (0.9%) as evident in Table 5.

Most of the active activities are aimed to maintain physical fitness and promote healthy living. According to Nuwere, Barone Gibss, Toto and Taverno-Ross (2022), the prolonged adoption of passive leisure behaviour especially in adults such as hotel employees, contributes to deleterious health.

Hence, a blend of active with passive activities as evident in this study is a healthier leisure behaviour.

Table 5: Leisure Activities

Leisure	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Rank
Passive Leisure			
Watching TV	228	15.4	1
Reading	193	13.0	2
Internet surfing	117	7.9	3
Sleeping	90	6.1	4
Play video games	75	5.1	5
Listening to music	65	4.4	6
Visiting friends	50	3.4	7
Singing	44	3.0	8
Phone calls	30	2.0	9
Relaxing	23	1.5	10
Time with family	22	1.5	11
Travelling Sightseeing	20	1.3	12
Painting	17	1.1	13
Shopping	13	0.9	14
Play cards/oware	12	0.8	15
Learning to play an instrument	9	0.6	16
<i>Total</i>	<i>1008</i>	<i>68</i>	
Active Leisure			
Exercising (Jogging/ visiting the gym)	101	6.8	1
Swimming	84	5.6	2
Sports (playing football, volleyball, tennis, golf and basketball)	66	4.4	3
Hang out	62	4.2	4
Walking	58	3.9	5
Dancing	40	2.7	6
Travelling	34	2.3	7
Cleaning	18	1.2	9
Cycling	13	0.9	10
<i>Total</i>	<i>476</i>	<i>32.0</i>	
Total	1484		

Source: Field survey, (2022)

*Frequency exceeds 330 due to multiple responses

Evidentially, in spite of the differences in study population and area, the leisure activity preference of the hotel employees presented in Table 5 are

consistent with findings of previous leisure studies in Ghana (Adam, 2019; Mensah et al., 2019; Adam et al., 2017; Adam et al., 2015; Yankholmes & Lin, 2012).

This aligns with the assertion of Yankholmes and Lin (2012, p. 58) that the leisure activity preference of Ghanaians is “customary in nature”, hence the choice of leisure activities would be similar among its residents. This trend is observable because leisure participation has a socio-cultural underpinning and an individual’s environment prescribe possible and available leisure resources (Kim et al., 2019; Pagliarin, 2017; Chick et al., 2016; Wei et al., 2016). Notwithstanding, this current study revealed preference for activities like travelling, sightseeing and hangouts which hitherto had not been mentioned in past research.

Factors Predicting Choice of Leisure Activity of Hotel Employees

Leisure research has been situated within the context of demographic and work profiles (Chen et al., 2018; Petrou et al., 2017). Binary Probit Regression was employed to assess the effects of socio-demographic and work characteristics on the dominant type of leisure activity undertaken by the hotel employees. The type of leisure, passive and active, were recoded as 0 = passive and 1 = active. Studies on leisure in Ghana, including this current study revealed respondents’ preference for passive leisure; hence the model sought to predict participation in active leisure which is less preferred.

This is to assess the probability of deviating from the usual passive leisure. From Table 6, the likelihood ratio Chi-square value ($\chi^2 = 78.36$; p-value = 0.000) indicates that the regression model is statistically significant and fits significantly better than a model with no predictors. This implies that

all the work/demographic profiles existing in the model are important in predicting the leisure choices of hotel employees. These demographic/work profiles explained 94% (Pseudo $R^2 = 0.94$) of variance in factors predicting employees' choice of active leisure.

By gender, being a male as compared to being a female has no effect ($\beta = 0.113$) on the choice of active than passive leisure, all things being equal. According to Koçak (2017) there is a thinning in the gap in gendered behaviours among working and educated women due to the assumption of roles both in and out of work that defy existing social predisposition. Coupled with modernity and the breakdown of cultural restrictions, this allows and encourages females to freely engage in hitherto male-restricted activities such as sports among others, hence an increasing similarity in choice of leisure as reiterated by Gurbuz and Henderson (2014). The finding therefore contradicts studies that found variance in leisure activity preference by gender (Evans & Gagnon, 2019; Kim et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2018; Kono et al., 2018; Demirel et al., 2017; Lenneis & Pfister, 2017; Qiao, 2017).

Age-wise, being within 18 to 27 years ($\beta = -2.670^{***}$) and 28 to 37 years ($\beta = -1.845^{***}$) compared to being within 38 to 55 years decreases the predicted probability of participating in active leisure compared to passive leisure. This signifies much liking for active leisure by older employees compared to their younger counterparts. This may be because the older adult compared to the young adults are much more health-conscious and would undertake active activities in leisure to burn calories and maintain physical fitness.

Table 6: Factors Predicting Choice of Leisure Activity

Variable	Row coefficient (β)	Marginal eff.
Gender	Female Reference	
Male	0.113 (0.283)	0.00220 (0.00548)
Age	38-55 Reference	
18-27	-2.670*** (0.760)	-0.0521*** (0.0116)
28-37	-1.845*** (0.531)	-0.0360*** (0.00930)
Education	SHS Reference	
Tertiary	-0.899*** (0.332)	-0.0176*** (0.00574)
Marital status	Never married Reference	
Married	-0.272 (0.339)	-0.00532 (0.00662)
Ethnicity	Others Reference	
Akan	-0.884 (0.691)	-0.0173 (0.0133)
Ewe	-2.275*** (0.702)	-0.0444*** (0.0137)
Ga	-1.806** (0.712)	-0.0352** (0.0140)
Household size	Alone Reference	
1-5 members	0.872** (0.348)	0.0170** (0.00741)
6 or more members	-1.135** (0.561)	-0.0222** (0.0103)
Income (GH¢)	501-999 Reference	
150-500	-0.0213 (0.362)	-0.000416 (0.00707)
1000-3000	1.352*** (0.422)	0.0264*** (0.00672)
Type of job	Full-time Reference	
Part-time	-0.413 (0.462)	-0.00805 (0.00902)
Department	Front of the house Reference	
Back of the house	1.722*** (0.525)	0.0336*** (0.00866)
Hours at work	8-10 hours Reference	
11-15 hours	1.366*** (0.345)	0.0267*** (0.00731)
Constant	-9.363*** (1.764)	
Observations	1,290	1,290
Pseudo R ²	0.94	
Likelihood ratio chi-square	78.36 (0.000)*	

Robust standard errors in parentheses *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1**
Source: Field survey, (2022)

However, this finding contradicts previous studies which found older respondents to engage in less active leisure pursuits due to the inherent weakening in strength associated with aging while younger respondents engage in more active leisure (Altintas et al., 2018; Kono et al., 2018; Scott & Lee, 2018; Molanorouzi et al., 2015).

With education, being a tertiary graduate compared to graduates from second-cycle institutions decreases ($\beta = -0.899^{***}$) the predicted probability of engaging in active rather than passive leisure, all other factors being held constant. High levels of comportsment and being less aggressive are inherent traits of an enlightened person. Hence, the highly educated employees would opt for less active leisure than the less educated as observed in previous studies (Beggs et al., 2014; Öcal, 2014). Further, being married as compared to being unmarried does not predict participation in active than passive leisure ($\beta = -0.332$).

By ethnicity, being an *Ewe* ($\beta = -2.275^{***}$) or a *Ga* ($\beta = -1.806$) compared to being in the other ethnic groups decreases the predicted probability to participate more in active than in passive leisure. Cultural interpretation of leisure may hinder, restrict or promote participation in certain leisure (Kim et al., 2019; Pagliarin, 2017). Hence peoples' culture and socialization may influence leisure choices. Additionally, being in households of 1 to 5 members compared to employees being in unmarried households increases ($\beta = 0.872^{**}$) the predicted probability of engaging in active rather than passive leisure.

Most of the active activities such as sports are mainly undertaken by groups, hence, employees with companies would opt for such activities.

However, being in a household with 6 or more members compared to being alone decreases ($\beta = -1.135^{**}$) the predicted probability of engaging in active rather than passive leisure. Larger households may constitute people of diverse age categories to whom passive leisure, e.g., watching TV, may be more appropriate since it is mainly home-based and loved by all persons.

Furthermore, all other things being equal, being in the income category of between GH¢ 1000 and 3000 compared to earning between GH¢ 501 and 999 a month increased ($\beta = 1.352^{***}$) the predicted probability of undertaking active rather than passive leisure. Partaking in active leisure comes at a cost of purchasing equipment such as a golf cart or bag and appropriate clothing like jerseys. This can be easily acquired by high-income earners, which explains their preference for active leisure like golf, tennis and basketball. These findings, however, contradict previous studies which revealed high-paid employees to have preference for sedentary leisure (Andrade et al. 2019; Beggs et al., 2014).

However, being a part-time employee compared to being a full-time employee does not predict ($\beta = -0.413$) engagement in active than passive leisure. By department, being in the back of the house compared to being in the front of the house increases ($\beta = 1.722^{***}$) the predicted probability to engage in active rather than passive leisure. Jobs in the back of the house department like housekeeping and the kitchen are described as tedious, repetitive and energy-draining. Thus, the employees have to maintain physical fitness probably through engagement in active leisure to ensure quality service delivery.

Finally, working between 11 and 15 hours compared to working between 8 to 10 hours ($\beta = 1.366^{***}$) increases the predicted probability to engage in active than passive leisure. Long hours of work lead to exhaustion and it is expected that these employees would engage in passive leisure to replenish the lost energy (Knecht et al., 2016). Notwithstanding, they still preferred active leisure possibly to stay healthy to accomplish their tasks within their long work duration.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the leisure participation of hotel employees in Accra. The results revealed that the employees had an inclination for passive leisure and the main activities were watching TV, reading of books and surfing the internet to interact on social media platforms. Also, leisure choices were predicted by characteristics such as age, education, ethnicity, household size, income, department and hours of work. The next chapter explores the leisure motivation of hotel employees.

CHAPTER SIX

LEISURE MOTIVATION OF HOTEL EMPLOYEES

Introduction

Leisure motivation influences participation in relation to activity preference and frequency of engagement (Ramos et al., 2018). This chapter discusses employees' motivations for leisure. It describes the dimensionality of leisure motivations and proceeds to establish differences between these dimensions and the socio-demographic and work characteristics of the employees.

Leisure Motivation of Hotel Employees

Leisure motivation refers to the need, reason or satisfaction that stimulates involvement in leisure activity (Crandall, 1980). Thus, the knowledge of leisure motivation has practical implications for leisure investment and policy as it helps to envisage the leisure needs of people. The leisure motivation dimensions of Beard and Ragheb (1983) which includes intellectual, social, competence/mastery and stimulus avoidance were included in the study.

Table 7 presents the percentage in agreement, mean, standard deviation and the reliability (Cronbach Alpha) scores of the leisure motivation items. Pallant (2010) prescribed the ideal Cronbach Alpha values to exceed 0.70 and from Table 7, it is evident that the values have met the benchmark. Precisely, intellectual motivation had the highest reliability score (0.877), followed by competence/mastery (0.802) and social motivation (0.802) while stimulus avoidance (0.782) had the least score.

On the whole, employees were mainly inspired to engage in leisure by intellectual motivation (84.0%). This was followed by competence/mastery (78.1%), social motivation (72.6%) and stimulus avoidance (53.7%). Intellectual motivation aims to improve knowledge and agility which have been established as key traits required by employees in the hotel industry (Sardo, Serrasqueiro & Alves, 2018; Smriti & Das, 2018; Jonoševi & Dženopoljac, 2015). This is because the employee-guest interaction in hotels is characterized by high levels of uncertainty, variations and unpredictability and employees have to be mentally prepared to deal with diverse guest (Lin et al., 2014a).

To acquire intellectual capabilities needed at work and for personal uses, hotel employees mainly engaged in leisure to explore new ideas and things (87.0%). Also, employees learned about things around them (86.1%) and enhanced their creativity (84.8%). The least intellectual driver was the quest of employees to learn about themselves (78.2%). It is also worth noting that the desire to enhance creativity in leisure (84.8%) can be directly tied to the discharge of duties in hotels. Creative employees are appraised to perform their tasks better and faster, enhance guest satisfaction and do have a competitive urge over their colleagues (González & García-Almeida, 2021; Nasifoglu Elidemir, Ozturen & Bayighomog, 2020). The mean responses across all the issues implied that respondents were affirmative of all the issues measuring intellectual motivation.

Table 7: Leisure Motivation

Leisure Motivation	% in agreement	mean	SD	Cronbach alpha
Intellectual Motivation				0.877
To explore new ideas and things	87.0	4.23	0.89	
To learn about things around me	86.1	4.19	0.98	
To enhance my creativity	84.8	4.23	0.80	
To expand my knowledge on issues of life	83.9	4.19	0.86	
To learn about myself	78.2	4.06	0.99	
<i>Overall Agreement</i>	84.0	4.18	0.90	
Competence/Mastery Motivation				0.859
To improve my skills and abilities needed to effectively perform my job	80.0	4.24	0.96	
To develop physical skills and abilities	79.7	4.12	0.88	
To challenge my abilities	77.9	4.19	0.86	
To nurture other talents and potentials of mine	77.3	4.02	0.92	
To develop physical fitness	75.5	4.03	0.92	
<i>Overall Agreement</i>	78.1	4.12	0.91	
Social Motivation				0.802
To meet and interact with new people of similar interest	77.6	4.04	0.94	
To build friendship with others	76.7	4.03	0.94	
To gain a feeling of belonging	72.7	4.02	0.90	
To spend time with family and friends	72.7	3.74	1.09	
To use choice of leisure to gain the respect of colleagues and friends	63.3	3.43	0.94	
<i>Overall Agreement</i>	72.6	3.95	0.96	
Stimulus Avoidance Motivation				0.782
To relieve the stress associated with my task in the hotel	72.4	4.09	0.87	
To make time to engage in other activities	71.2	4.01	0.93	
To do something simple	63.0	3.98	0.93	
To enjoy the flexibility not existing in my work schedule	61.8	3.91	0.96	
To avoid contact with customers and colleagues and be alone	0.0	2.40	1.02	
<i>Overall Agreement</i>	53.7	3.68	0.94	

Source: Field survey, (2022)

The scale for interpreting the mean is: Strongly Disagree = 1.00 to 1.49, Disagree = 1.50 to 2.49, Neutral = 2.50 to 3.49 Agree = 3.50 to 4.49 and 5 = Strongly Agree = 4.50 to 5.00

Intellectual motivation had a spill-over on competence/mastery as an increase in knowledge is most likely coupled with acquisition or improvement in skills and abilities. Competence/mastery is an intellectual asset and thus accrues the same benefits as intellectual gains (Alvino, Di Vaio, Hassan & Palladino, 2020). Generally, the mean scores show that the respondents agreed to have been stimulated by all the competence/mastery items in their leisure participation.

The desire for competence/mastery inspired hotel employees to participate in leisure to improve the skills and abilities needed to effectively perform their job (80.0%), develop their physical skills and abilities (79.7%), challenge their abilities (77.3%) and develop physical fitness (75.5%). The foremost statement suggests that the zeal to perform assigned tasks satisfactorily seems to be paramount to employees. This could be an indication that the employees are committed to their duties.

Also, the least impetus for developing and maintaining physical fitness (75.5%) is crucial to employees working in housekeeping who have to move and/or lift heavy fixtures and assume diverse postures such as bending, in the discharge of their duties. Likewise, all the other members of staff have to be physically fit to cope with the long hours of standing (kitchen and frontline staff) and excessive workload which characterizes their job. Consistent with previous findings, intellectual (Chen et al., 2018; Heintzman & Mannell, 2003) and competence/mastery (Albayrak & Caber, 2018; Ramos et al., 2018; Beggs, Nicholson, Elkins & Dunleavy, 2014) gains remain key drivers in leisure participation.

Further, social motivation as the third stimulus for leisure participation could be attributed to continuous human interaction in hotels, mainly among employees to ensure coordination between departments and with guests during service delivery. In leisure, these employees desired reduced inter-personal relations in leisure as compared to respondents in other segments who sought to mainly socialize in leisure (Adam et al., 2017; Lloyd et al., 2007). Specifically, besides the assertion 'to gain the respect of colleagues and friends (mean = 3.43), the mean scores revealed that the hotel employees agreed to being stimulated by the other social drives.

Employees were mainly driven by the desire to interact with new people of similar interest (77.6%), build friendship (76.7%), gain a feeling of belonging and spend time with family and friends (72.7%, respectively). The least social stimulus was to gain the respect of colleagues and friends (63.3%), which suggests that the employees basically sought to express themselves in leisure rather than to do the bidding of others which is the underlying principle of leisure; freedom.

Lastly, the hotel employees were driven by stimulus avoidance in leisure. This confirms the finding of Adam et al. (2017) who revealed stimulus avoidance as the least stimulus for leisure participation among people with physical and visual disabilities in Ghana, of whom more than half (51.4%) were employed. The low enthusiasm for stimulus avoidance in leisure by hotel employees reiterates outcomes of other leisure studies (Albayrak & Caber, 2018; Chen et al., 2018; Beggs et al., 2014; Beggs et al., 2004). Evident from Table 7, all the mean scores imply an agreement with the issues measuring stimulus avoidance, except the assertion to avoid contact with customers and

colleagues (mean = 2.40) which signifies a disagreement. Stimulus avoidance mainly inspired hotel employees to engage in leisure to relieve stress associated with their work tasks (72.4%). This was followed by the desire to make time for other activities (71.2%), do something simple (63%) and enjoy the flexibility not existing in their work schedule (61.8%).

The leading inspiration of stimulus avoidance highlights the role of leisure as a buffer to relieve work stress (Knecht et al., 2016). Also, the need to make time for other activities stems from the fact that the irregular, unsocial and long hours of hotel work deprive employees of opportunity to engage in other non-work related activities, unless in leisure (Goa et al., 2019; Mansour & Mohanna 2018; Tsaur & Yen, 2018; Lin et al., 2014; Karatepe, 2013; Tsaur et al., 2012). Contrarily, in spite of the eminent uncertainties in the employee-guest contact, none of the respondents wanted to avoid contact with customers and colleagues (mean = 2.40). This is a likely indication that employees have probably accepted to continue the human interaction that characterize their jobs.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Leisure Motivation

According to Anderson and Gerbing (1988), the foremost analysis to evaluate the suitability of a proposed model in PLS-SEM is the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). CFA was run to examine the fitness of the leisure motivation construct in the proposed structural model. From Table 6, the CR values were between 0.878 and 0.925 which indicates that leisure motivation dimensions have high internal consistency and are reliable. The AVE values ranged from 0.645 to 0.804 while all the factor loadings were greater than 0.60 which suggest an appropriate convergent validity of the leisure motivation

scale. Of the twenty (20) items subjected to CFA, three (3); specifically two (2) for stimulus avoidance and one (1) for social motivation, did not meet the minimum load value and were deleted to attain accuracy in the model fit indicators.

From Table 8, the leading factor was stimulus avoidance (CR = 0.923; AVE = 0.852), followed by intellectual (CR = 0.921; AVE = 0.700), competence/mastery (CR = 0.920; AVE = 0.698) and social motivations (CR = 0.878; AVE = 0.645). This points to the fact that the employees were inspired by all the dimensions of leisure motivation as proposed in the Beard and Ragheb (1983) model. However, the variation in study population distorted the arrangement of motives; while stimulus avoidance was the least in the original model it was the first in this study. Although intellectual, competence/mastery and social motivations preceded each other, as in the original model, their positions were not the same.

The leading factor labelled *Stimulus Avoidance* had a CR of 0.925 and explained about 80% (AVE = 0.804) of the average variance explained. This factor loaded three (3) items with the foremost as “to make time to engage in other activities” (0.923). This was followed by the assertion “to relieve stress associated with my task in the hotel” (0.913) and “to enjoy flexibility not existing in my work schedule” (0.852). Leisure in its earliest conceptualization is described as freedom from work and other essential obligations (Locke, 1963).

Table 8: Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Leisure Motivation

Factor	Variables in loadings	Factor Loading	CR	AVE
I	Stimulus Avoidance		0.925	0.804
	To make time to engage in other activities	0.923		
	To relieve stress associated with my task in the hotel	0.913		
	To enjoy flexibility not existing in my work schedule	0.852		
II	Intellectual Motivation		0.921	0.700
	To explore new ideas and things	0.894		
	To enhance my creativity	0.866		
	To learn about things around me	0.832		
	To learn about myself	0.799		
	To expand my knowledge on issues of life	0.788		
III	Competence/Mastery Motivation		0.920	0.698
	To nurture other talents and potentials of mine	0.881		
	To develop physical skills and abilities	0.857		
	To challenge my abilities	0.839		
	To improve my skill and ability needed to effectively perform my job	0.838		
	To develop physical fitness	0.758		
IV	Social Motivation		0.878	0.645
	To meet and interact with new people of similar interest	0.899		
	To build friendship with others	0.831		
	To gain a feeling of belonging	0.811		
	To spend time with family and friends	0.651		

Source: Field survey, (2022)

Work in any form places a high demand on the mental, time and physical resources of employees which positions work as a prominent source of stress and a push for leisure (Wong & Ho, 2015; Kim et al., 2009). The

hotel employees, therefore, desired a break from work which explains the high spur for stimulus avoidance. This is to allow for freedom for self-expression which is the core attribute of leisure (Shin & You, 2017; Downward & Dawson, 2016; Siddiquee et al., 2016).

The second leading factor in explaining the leisure of hotel employees was *intellectual motivation*. All five (5) indicators of intellectual motivation were loaded in the measurement model as made evident in Table 8. These accounted for a CR of 0.921 and 70% (AVE = 0.700) of variance explained. Intellectual motives mainly drive employees to “explore new ideas and things” (0.894), “enhance their creativity” (0.866), “learn about things around them” (0.832), “learn about themselves” (0.799) and “expand their knowledge of the issues of life” (0.788). This brings to the fore the idea that the need to broaden one’s intellectual horizon remained crucial to the employees and they sought to use the time away from work to accrue knowledge.

The expansion in knowledge was followed by the desire for *competence/mastery* in chosen endeavours which was the third factor. Competence/mastery motives, also loaded all five (5) factors, had a CR of 0.920 and explained almost 70% (AVE = 0.69.8) of variation explained. This factor aroused the desire to “nurture talents and potentials” (0.881), “develop physical skills and abilities” (0.857), “challenge one’s abilities” (0.857), “improve skill and ability needed to effectively perform their job” (0.838) and “develop physical fitness” (0.758).

Additionally, options for socialization eminent in leisure accounted for the last factor, *social motivation*. This factor loaded four (4) items which collectively explained 60% (AVE = 0.645) of the average variance explained

and had a CR of 0.878. Precisely, employees were stimulated to “meet and interact with new people of similar interest” (0.899), “build friendship” (0.831), “gain a feeling of belonging” (0.811) and “spend time with family and friends” (0.651). This reiterates the fact that leisure provides opportunities for socialization with acquaintances and unfamiliar people (Hodge et al., 2015). From Table 8, the diversity in motives affirms the assertion that freedom in leisure allows people to choose and pursue varied intrinsic desires for their rewards (Przepiorka & Blanchnio, 2017; Lobo, 2006; Roberts, 1981; Iso-Ahola, 1980).

Socio-Demographic Characteristics by Leisure Motivations of Hotel Employees

Previous studies have acknowledged the links between socio-demographic characteristics and leisure motivation (Chen et al., 2018; Adam et al., 2017; Anaza, 2017; Munusturlar et al., 2016; Molanorouzi et al., 2015). As indicated by the conceptual framework, this study intends to ascertain the relationship between hotel employees’ socio-demographic characteristics and their leisure motivation. To achieve this, an independent Samples T-Test and a One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were employed. The motivation construct used for this inferential statistic was based on the dimensions loaded by the CFA.

From Table 9, it is evident that there were no variations in the leisure motivations; stimulus avoidance ($t = -1.310$; $p = 0.191$), intellectual ($t = 0.663$; $p = 0.508$), competence/mastery ($t = 1.008$; $p = 0.314$) and social ($t = 1.835$; $p = 0.068$) of males and females. This contradicts studies that found differences in the leisure motivations of males and females (Anaza, 2017; Sarol & Cimen,

2017; Molanorouzi et al., 2015; Beggs et al., 2004). The mean scores across all indicators imply an agreement to being motivated by all the leisure motives.

Likewise, no statistically significant difference existed in leisure motivations: stimulus avoidance ($t = 1.797$; $p = 0.167$), intellectual ($t = 0.659$; $p = 0.518$), competence/mastery needs ($t = 0.892$ $p = 0.411$) and social ($t = 2.320$; $p = 0.100$) among the three age categories. This finding confirms similar studies conducted in Ghana by Adam et al. (2017). It, however, contradicts past research that established differences in leisure motivation by age (Kim et al., 2019; Munusturlar et al., 2016; Beggs et al., 2014; Liechty & Genoe, 2013).

Furthermore, employees with certificates from SHS and their counterparts from tertiary schools do not vary in their desire for stimulus avoidance ($t = 1.686$; $p = 0.093$) and intellectual ($t = 1.689$; $p = 0.091$) desires. On the other hand, significant differences existed between competence/mastery ($\chi^2 = 14.773$; $p = 0.002^*$) and social ($\chi^2 = 13.015$; $p = 0.05^*$) motivations among employees in the two education groups. These variations are evident as employees with second cycle certificates reported higher drive for competence/mastery (mean = 4.15) and social motivation (mean = 3.96) than their counterparts with tertiary education certificates.

Comparatively and all things being equal, tertiary graduates possess more in-depth knowledge and skills than their counterparts from high schools. To close this gap, high school leavers sought opportunities to acquire requisite skills and competencies that would keep them at par with their colleagues.

Table 9: Socio-Demographic Characteristics by Leisure Motivations

Socio-Demographic Characteristics	N	Leisure		Motivation	
		Stimulus Avoidance	Intellectual Motivation	Competence/Mastery	Social Motivation
		Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Gender					
Male	206	3.82	4.20	4.09	4.04
Female	124	3.95	4.14	4.00	3.88
t		-1.310	0.663	1.008	1.835
p value		0.191	0.508	0.314	0.068
Age					
18 – 27	86	3.91	4.22	4.09	4.08
28 – 37	204	3.81	4.14	4.01	3.91
38 – 55	40	4.08	4.28	4.17	4.12
F		1.797	0.659	0.892	2.320
p-value		0.167	0.518	0.411	0.100
Education					
High/Secondary/Vocational	162	3.95	4.25	4.15	4.06
Tertiary	168	3.79	4.11	3.96	3.90
T		1.686	1.689	2.388	1.999
p-value		0.093	0.091	0.018*	0.046*
Marital Status					
Unmarried	220	3.90	4.24	4.09	4.00
Married	110	3.80	4.07	3.97	3.96
T		0.998	1.909	1.300	0.336
p-value		0.319	0.057	0.194	0.737
Religion					
Christian	301	3.83	4.17	4.03	3.96
Islam	39	4.31	4.23	4.23	4.14
T		-2.876	-0.396	-1.307	-1.177

Table 9 continued

p-value		0.004*	0.692	0.192	0.240
Ethnicity					
Akan	141	3.76acd	4.17	3.99ad	3.92ad
Ewe	94	3.75bd	4.01bd	3.90bcd	3.84bd
Ga	65	4.10	4.30	4.24	4.11
Others	30	4.25	4.51	4.45	4.39
F		4.989	3.895	6.081	5.046
p-value		0.002*	0.009*	0.000*	0.002*
Household Size					
Alone	149	3.99	4.21	4.09	4.00ac
1 – 5	155	3.78	4.19	4.06	4.02bc
6 – 10	26	3.69	3.95	3.79	3.62
F		2.935	1.327	1.733	3.232
p-value		0.055	0.267	0.178	0.041*
Monthly Net Income (GH¢)					
150 – 500	63	3.96	4.15	4.13	4.04
501-999	198	3.83	4.17	4.04	3.93
1000 – 3000	69	3.90	4.22	4.03	4.06
F		0.586	0.170	0.382	0.969
p-value		0.557	0.844	0.683	0.381

Source: Field survey, (2022)
p-value is significant at $\leq .05$

Additionally, the Independent Sample T-Test revealed no statistically significant variation in leisure motivations: stimulus avoidance ($t = 0.998$; $p = 0.319$), intellectual ($t = 1.909$; $p = 0.057$), competence/mastery ($t = 1.300$; $p = 0.194$) and social ($t = 0.336$; $p = 0.737$) of the unmarried and the married employees. This finding, however, somehow contradicts that of Adam et al. (2017) who found differences in social motivation between the unmarried and the married.

Table 9 also revealed that beside stimulus avoidance ($t = -2.876$; $p = 0.004^*$), religion had no statistically significant relationship with intellectual ($t = -0.396$; $p = 0.692$), competence/mastery ($t = -1.307$; $p = 0.192$) and social ($t = -1.177$; $p = 0.240$) motivations. Predominantly, the hotel environment has been established not to be so conducive for employees of the Islamic religion due to diverse forms of discrimination (Aizan et al., 2020). Hence in line with stimulus avoidance, these employees have a greater desire to deploy leisure as a tool for escape from the job-related issues (mean = 4.31) than their Christian colleagues (mean = 3.84).

Further, the ANOVA revealed statistically significant differences in leisure motivations: stimulus avoidance ($t = 4.989$; $p = 0.002^*$), intellectual ($t = 3.895$; $p = 0.009^*$), competence/mastery ($t = 6.081$; $p = 0.000^*$) and social motivation ($t = 5.046$; $p = 0.002^*$) across all the four ethnic groups. Leisure participation is acknowledged as a social activity with cultural underpinning (Christin, 2012). A person's original culture translates into desires that drive leisure participation based on values and norms (Kim et al., 2019; Pagliarin, 2017; Chick et al., 2016). With regard to stimulus avoidance, the Tukey Post Hoc analysis revealed differences between *Akans* (mean = 3.76) and *Gas*

(mean = 4.10), *Akans* (mean = 3.76) and employees from the other ethnic groups (mean = 4.25) as well as *Ewes* (mean = 3.75) and employees from the other ethnic groups (mean = 4.25).

Intellectually, while *Ewes* agreed (mean = 4.01), their colleagues from the other ethnic groups strongly agreed (mean = 4.51) to being influenced by this drive. In relation to competence/mastery, differences were between *Akans* (mean = 3.99) and their counterparts from the other ethnic groups (mean = 4.45). On the other hand, variances existed between *Ewes* (mean = 3.90) and *Gas* (mean = 4.24) as well as those from the other ethnic groups (mean = 4.45). With social motivations, differences were between *Akans* (mean = 3.92) and *Ewes* (mean = 3.84) on one side and their counterparts from the other ethnic groups (mean = 4.39). Of significance is the finding that employees from other ethnic groups reported higher scores across all leisure motivation dimensions, followed by the *Ga* respondents. This sends a signal which is worth giving attention to in leisure research in Ghana.

Furthermore, there was a statistically significant difference in social motivation ($\chi^2 = 15.946$; $p = 0.014^*$) among employees of the three household categories. The Tuckey Post Hoc analysis revealed a difference between employees who stayed alone (mean = 4.00) and those with 6 to 10 persons (mean = 3.62) and, as well as, employees with 1 to 5 persons (mean = 4.02) and their counterparts with 6 to 10 persons. This was expected as employees with the largest household size probably have enough company at home and would rather desire reduced interaction with people in leisure.

Lastly, the ANOVA revealed no statistically significant differences in leisure motivations: stimulus avoidance ($t = 0.586$; $p = 0.557$), intellectual ($t = 0.170$; $p = 0.844$), competence/mastery ($t = 0.382$; $p = 0.683$) and social motivation ($t = 0.969$; $p = 0.381^*$) among employees of the three income categories. The mean scores signify an agreement to being driven by all motives of leisure. Levels of income is known to have effects on the intended benefits in leisure, hence accounting for differences in motivations for participation (Qiu et al., 2020; Munusturlar, 2016; Dillard & Bates, 2011). Contrary to these findings, hotel employees pursue leisure with same motives due to the similarities in work.

To sum up, education, religion and household size had statistically significant differences with some leisure motivations while only ethnicity had differences with all leisure motivations. Thus, the proposed link between the socio-demographic characteristics and leisure motivation, as established by the conceptual framework existed among some of the characteristics.

Work Characteristics of Hotel Employees by Leisure Motivation

Existing literature acknowledged the effect of work on leisure participation and preferences (Petrou et al., 2017; Brown et al., 2011). However, these pieces of research did not explore the links between work characteristics and leisure motivations and the current study seeks to fill this gap in knowledge. From Table 10, no variation existed in leisure motivations in relation to employment status, department and daily working hours. These characteristics rather became an identical leverage that spurred same desires in leisure.

Nonetheless, the Independent Sample T-Test revealed that employees in 4- to 5-star hotels and their counterparts in 1- to 3-star hotels vary in some of their leisure motivations: stimulus avoidance ($t = 2.603$; $p = 0.010^*$), competence/mastery ($t = 2.219$; $p = 0.027^*$) and social ($t = 2.946$; $p = 0.003^*$) motivations.

Table 10: Work Characteristics by Leisure Motivations

Work Characteristics	N	Leisure Motivation			
		Stimulus Avoidance	Intellectual Motivation	Competence /Mastery	Social Motivation
		Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Employment status					
Full-time	275	3.88	4.15	4.06	3.97
Part-time/Casual	55	3.82	4.30	3.99	4.05
T		-0.433	1.280	-0.645	0.744
p-value		0.666	0.201	0.519	0.457
Department					
Front of the house	176	3.88	4.22	4.06	4.04
Back of the house	154	3.85	4.13	4.04	3.92
T		0.306	1.130	0.251	1.445
p-value		0.760	0.259	0.802	0.149
Daily working hours					
8-10	246	3.87	4.17	4.04	3.97
11 – 15	84	3.87	4.20	4.10	4.01
T		0.020	-0.339	-0.630	-0.393
p-value		0.984	0.735	0.529	0.695
Hotel Rating					
4 to 5 Star	237	3.96	4.21	4.12	4.07
1 to 3 Star	93	3.70	4.12	3.93	3.82
T		2.603	1.050	2.219	2.946
p-value		0.010*	0.295	0.027*	0.003*

Source: Field survey, (2022)

Specifically, respondents in 4- to 5-star hotels dominated all leisure dimensions, which indicates that these employees acknowledge the benefit of leisure and were willing to experience all aspects of it.

Leisure Activity Type by Leisure Motivations

Leisure motivations initiate and stimulates involvement in leisure which in turn influence activity choice and preference (Kim, Brown & Yang, 2018; Ramos, Anderson & Lee, 2018; Crandall, 1980). The relationship between leisure motivation and activity choice is explored using the Chi-square test of independence. Generally, there was no statistically significant relationship between leisure motivations: intellectual ($\chi^2 = 3.350$; $p = 0.764$), competence/mastery ($\chi^2 = 10.279$; $p = 0.113$) and social motivation ($\chi^2 = 8.706$; $p = 0.191$) and activity choice as shown in Table 11.

On the other hand, stimulus avoidance ($\chi^2 = 13.025$; $p = 0.043$) was statistically related to the choice of either active or passive leisure. Specifically, a slightly higher proportion of the respondents who engaged in active leisure (67.1%) were spurred by stimulus avoidance compared to their counterparts who engaged in passive leisure (66.5%).

Notwithstanding, the lack of diversity in leisure activities across three motivations implies that the employees have formed their leisure patterns and would consistently engage in virtually the same activity (Minhat & Amin, 2012). This could also be due to the fact that the options are limited and in spite of the motivation, respondents have to rely on the same activity to fulfil their diverse need or probably these were the preferred activities.

Table 11: Leisure Motivation by Activity Type

Leisure Motivation	Leisure Activity Type		χ^2 Statistics (p-value)
	Passive (%)	Active (%)	
Stimulus Avoidance			13.025
Disagree	9.1	8.3	(0.043)*
Neutral	24.4	24.7	
Agree	66.5	67.1	
Intellectual Motivation			3.350
Disagree	11.7	12.3	(0.764)
Neutral	33.4	32.4	
Agree	54.9	55.3	
Competence/Mastery			10.279
Disagree	9.2	9.8	(0.113)
Neutral	19.7	19.7	
Agree	71.1	70.5	
Social Motivation			8.706
Disagree	8.3	7.9	(0.191)
Neutral	21.1	22.1	
Agree	70.6	70.0	

Source: Field survey, (2022)

Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the leisure motivations of hotel employees. The findings revealed that the employees' leisure participation were inspired by all four motives of leisure, namely intellectual, competence/mastery, social motivations and stimulus avoidance. CFA was run to assess the validity and reliability of the motivation indicators to fit the study model. Of the twenty (20) indicators subjected to the CFA, seventeen (17) were loaded under four factors. Stimulus avoidance was the leading factor while social motivation was the least. Further, statistically significant differences existed in some leisure motivations with regard to education, religion, ethnicity, household size and hotel rating. Beside, stimulus avoidance, leisure motivations, was not statistically related to leisure activity preference. The ensuing chapter analyses the leisure constraints of the employees.

CHAPTER SEVEN

LEISURE CONSTRAINTS OF HOTEL EMPLOYEES

Introduction

Leisure participation is inhibited by factors that limit the attainment of the employee's desired satisfaction. Guided by the Hierarchical Leisure Constraints Model of Crawford et al. (1991), this chapter presents the leisure constraints of hotel employees.

Leisure Constraints of Employees

The leisure constraint models assume that people are willing to participate in leisure, but the presence of constraints negatively affect their ability to engage in leisure (Chick, Hsu, Yeh & Hsieh, 2015). Table 12 presents the description and the reliability values of the leisure constraint items. Specifically, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was 0.916 for intrapersonal constraint, 0.898 for interpersonal constraint while structural constraint had a value of 0.939. These values were above the acceptable threshold of 0.7, which suggests that the leisure constraint constructs had very good internal consistency (Pallant, 2010).

Generally, more than a third of the employees agreed to have been inhibited by intrapersonal (39.9%), interpersonal (33.9%) and structural (43.6%) constraints. Specifically, the leading intrapersonal constraint in leisure was a lack of interest due to fatigue from work (53.0%). This supports the assertion by Andrade et al. (2019) and Kim and Cho (2015) that workers across all sectors of the economy encounter work-induced stresses which result in low energy, mild pain and uneasiness that reduces the urge to engage in non-work activities like leisure.

Table 12: Leisure Constraints

Leisure Constraints	% in agreement	Mean	SD	Cronbach alpha
Intrapersonal Constraints				.916
Lack of interest due to fatigue from work	53.0	3.35	1.29	
No physical abilities/health related problems	40.6	2.94	1.36	
Fear of physical injuries	39.7	2.98	1.35	
Lack of participation skills	38.2	2.93	1.31	
Lack of confidence to participate in available activities	37.9	2.93	1.33	
Lack of knowledge in existing activity	37.0	2.88	1.31	
I do not enjoy leisure	32.7	2.71	1.38	
<i>Overall Agreement</i>	39.9	2.96	1.33	
Interpersonal Constraints				.898
Partners have different work schedule	47.0	3.20	1.33	
Low levels of interest in leisure by friends	38.5	2.95	1.33	
Lack of partners to participate with in leisure activity	32.7	2.77	1.32	
Activity is looked down upon by others	30.3	2.73	1.32	
My friends discourage me from participating in preferred activities	28.5	2.55	1.31	
People will not respect me for participating in available activity	26.7	2.58	1.33	
<i>Overall Agreement</i>	33.9	2.80	1.32	
Structural Constraints				.939
The long working hours lead to inadequate time for leisure	54.5	3.35	1.33	
The irregular working hours (changing shifts) at the hotel makes my leisure participation inconsistent	49.7	3.24	1.37	
The too much workload at the hotel makes me busy	48.8	3.22	1.28	
The unsocial working days (weekends and holidays) at the hotel limits leisure participation	48.8	3.27	1.37	
Working overtime	48.3	3.27	1.29	
Low income leads to insufficient funds for leisure	45.8	3.16	1.34	
Inadequate leisure equipment	42.7	3.04	1.31	
Unavailability of preferred leisure facilities/activities	40.3	2.96	1.32	

Table 12 continued

Social commitment (religious and social activities)	39.1	3.05	1.26
The traffic congestion in Accra makes access to leisure facilities tiresome	38.5	2.98	1.35
Too much family responsibilities	34.0	2.95	1.28
Available leisure activities are not appropriate to my cultural and religious beliefs	32.4	2.80	1.35
<i>Overall Agreement</i>	<i>43.6</i>	<i>3.11</i>	<i>1.32</i>

Source: Field survey, (2022)

The scale for interpreting the mean is: Strongly Disagree = 1.00 to 1.49, Disagree = 1.50 to 2.49, Neutral = 2.50 to 3.49 Agree = 3.50 to 4.49 and 5 = Strongly Agree = 4.50 to 5.00

Precisely, the hotel job is well-acknowledged as a major source of fatigue, due to the work overload, long hours of work and performance of repetitive tasks, among others. The continuous fatigue experienced by hotel employees led to a trade-off of leisure, triggered by a lack of interest as observed in previous studies (Mansour & Mohanna, 2018; Knecht et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2014; Lin et al., 2013).

Secondly, employees' leisure participation was hindered by a lack of physical abilities, or the presence of health-related problems (40.6%) as asserted by (Palen et al., 2010). Hotel employees' health challenges may stem from personal sources or the job. The hotel task, specifically in housekeeping and the kitchen are highly-risky which makes the employees susceptible to devastating health effects (Xie, Zhang, Chen, Morrison & Lin, 2020; International Labour Organization, 2019). Generally, poor health has been noted to weaken the physical ability required to engage mainly in active leisure across all ages and segments of people (Adam, 2017; Hung et al., 2016; Yankholmes & Lin, 2012; Stanis et al., 2010).

Furthermore, employees were limited by fear of physical injuries (39.7%) and lack of participation skills (38.2%). These are intertwined as the deficiency in skills needed to participate competently in active leisure increases the probability of the occurrence of injuries (Mensah et al., 2019; Kuykendall et al., 2018; Rintaugu et al., 2013; Yankholmes & Lin, 2012). Table 12 further indicates that over a third of employees lacked confidence (37.9%) and knowledge (37.0%) in existing activity as acknowledged in other studies (Park et al., 2015; Lee & Palakurthi, 2013). Lastly, slightly below a third of employees did not enjoy leisure (32.7%). Dislike for leisure could result from the existence of the aforementioned constraints like lack of interest or just an individual inclination. On average, the mean statistics indicate that employees were uncertain (2.71 to 3.35) of whether they encountered intrapersonal constraints in leisure.

Concerning interpersonal constraints, employees were restricted mainly by variations in the work schedules of their partners (47.0%), as revealed by Boo et al. (2014). The 24/7 work system in hotels does not exist in most traditional jobs which mainly revolve around daylight hours and weekdays. Employees whose partners work in daylight jobs would more likely have conflicting work schedules which reduce the likelihood of joint participation in leisure. Additionally, more than a third (38.5%) of the employees agreed that their friends exhibited a low interest in leisure as evident in Table 12. This dislike may not necessarily be for leisure in its entirety but only tied to specific activities as established by Harrolle, Floyd, Casper, Kelley and Bruton (2013) and Hudson and Gilbert (2000) who revealed partners' dislike for sports and skiing, respectively.

Furthermore, slightly below a third of the employees mentioned the unavailability of partners to participate in leisure (32.7%) similar to evidence from past research (Kuykendall et al., 2018; Li et al., 2017; Park et al., 2015). With reference to employees, this may be caused by differences in work schedules or their partners residing outside Accra. Coupled with this, the leisure activities of the employees were looked down upon by others (30.3%), which consequently led to attempts to discourage them from participating in preferred activities (28.5%). This ignited a psychological state where employees felt people would disrespect them for participating in their chosen activity (26.7%). Friends and families are known to dissuade employees from engaging in their preferred leisure activities (Andrade et al., 2019). Nevertheless, if the employees disregard such persuasions, they are likely to be disrespected by others, which in itself is not only perceptual but real as revealed by Adam (2014).

Notably, the interpersonal constraints seem less pronounced among the employees than studies done with segments of the population like students (Adam et al., 2015). This may be attributed to the fact that workers are usually both physically, mentally and financially independent and possibly out of the direct control of family and friends. These increase their control over decision-making in issues of life, including leisure which explains why the attitude of other people had only little impact on hotel employees as compared to dependants like students. As such, the mean scores across all the items suggest that the employees were in doubt about the existence of such interpersonal constraints in their leisure pursuit.

With regard to structural constraints, over half of the employees were inhibited by inadequate time due to long hours of work (54.5%). Generally, inadequacy in leisure time presents itself as a major constraint for employees, as indicated in studies on Taiwanese employees (Gao et al., 2019), Brazilian workers (Andrade et al., 2019) and Indonesian professional caregivers in Taiwan (Hsu & Hsu, 2012). Commonly, the extended working hours ascribed to the hotel job reduced employees' time for leisure (Mansour & Tremblay, 2016; Lin et al., 2015; Tsaur et al., 2012). This implies that hotel employees spend fewer hours on leisure than it is desired, which may hinder participation in activities that require ample hours.

In addition, almost half (49.7%) of the employees attributed their inconsistent leisure participation to the irregular working hours at the hotel. The shift working system typical of hotels makes it impossible for employees to have regular free time within the same period of the day. The daily work shift regulates likely free times, which distorts continuous engagement in activities, especially those tied to specified periods of the day; e.g., playing golf.

Also, close to half of the employees (48.8%) were inhibited by substantial workload and the unsocial working days, respectively. Besides being excessive, the workload in hotels is unpredictable and could become unbearable in peak seasons. This places much demand on the energy of the employees and keeps them busy in their quest to accomplish daily tasks (Andrade et al., 2019; Tsaur et al., 2012). Being busy at work suggests a high probability of being unavailable for leisure engagement as noted in a study by Kim and Cho (2015) on employees in South Korea. Additionally, the

customary leisure periods such as the weekends, holidays and evenings are working hours for hotel employees (Gracia & Kalmijn, 2016; Presser, 2003). Consequently, being on duty during these seasons inevitably excludes such individuals from leisure.

Also, employees were constrained by working overtime (48.3%) and insufficient funds for leisure due to low income (40.3%). Working overtime may be imposed by the job as unique to the hotel work or the employees in their bid to earn extra allowance (Gao et al., 2019; Simmons et al., 2016). Whatever its source, working overtime depletes the employees' energy and takes away the free time needed for leisure participation. Likewise, the finding about insufficient funds is consistent with a previous study that acknowledged insufficient income as a constraint to employee leisure participation (Andrade et al., 2019). This could be attributed to the low pay that characterized the hotel job, unlike Kaimakamis et al. (2013) who attributed the financial constraints in skiing to the worsening financial crises in Greece.

Participation, especially in active leisure, requires money because there are cost implications (Choi et al., 2020). The cost incurred in leisure is mainly in the purchase or rent of equipment, transportation to access facilities, learning of skills and entrance tickets (Jun et al., 2008; Sutton, 2007; Jackson, 1994). Nonetheless, the absence of funds as a constraint was less pronounced among hotel employees as compared to the unemployed such as the elderly, students and adolescents (Adam et al., 2015; Palen et al., 2010).

Also, evidence from Table 12 shows that employees were constrained by inadequate leisure equipment (42.7%) and the unavailability of preferred leisure facilities/activities (40.3%). Inadequate leisure equipment is an

indication that the number of people willing to use the facilities exceeds the capacity of the available equipment. This hinders access to the equipment needed to partake in intended activities as exhibited in recreational fishing centers in Queensland, Australia (Sutton, 2007). This finding reiterates earlier observations made by Kim et al. (2019), Ayhan et al. (2018) and Tsai and Zhou (2015) that inadequate leisure facilities hindered leisure participation. Furthermore, Ayhan et al. (2018) assert that urban areas attract more recreational facilities due to the large number of people residing in these areas. Contrary to expectation, employees in Accra, an urban area and capital city of Ghana, still acknowledged the unavailability of preferred leisure facilities.

Similarly, above a third of the respondents agreed to being hindered by other social commitments (39.1%) and traffic congestion in Accra which made access to leisure facilities tiresome (38.5%). Participation in social obligations such as attending church and funeral among others compete with and/or occupy the free time that hitherto should be spent on leisure. Thus, hotel employees split the scanty time left after work between leisure and social commitment, which further reduces leisure time.

Aside from this, the vehicular congestion in urban areas like Accra made employees' movement to access outdoor leisure facilities tiresome and stressful (38.5%) which is a deterrent to leisure participation. This observation supports the finding of Li et al. (2017) that traffic congestion is a constraint faced by urban dwellers. However, the preferred leisure of the employees was mainly passive and home-based (see Table 5) devoid of the hustle of traffic congestion that characterizes Accra, which explains the seemingly low response.

Likewise, too many family responsibilities restricted the leisure participation of employees (34.0%). Family obligations include financial, social and home duties of cleaning, preparing meals and caring for children (Li et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2017; Nyaupane et al., 2008). A study by Andrade et al. (2019) revealed that more than half of the respondents identified both family commitment (58.1%) and housework (54.4%) as constraints to their leisure participation. Unlike, Andrade et al. (2019), only a little over a third of the hotel employees (34%) in the present study were hindered by family responsibilities and this can be explained by the fact that the majority (66.6%) of the respondents were unmarried as shown in Table 3. Being alone reduces the duty of care and house chores which lessens the probability to constitute a constraint to leisure participation (Koca et al., 2009).

Lastly, slightly below a third (32.4%) of the respondents agreed that the available leisure activities were not appropriate with their cultural and religious beliefs. Cultural constraints are situated within the context of identity construction and relationships within the social environment (Kim et al., 2019; Gurbuz & Henderson, 2014; Godbey et al., 2010). Consequently, the effect of culture on leisure is more obvious in certain societies. In this study, employees' preferred leisure activities (Table 5) were not abhorred by any religion, hence the least structural constraints. On the whole, the mean scores revealed that employees were unsure of whether these items constituted structural constraints to leisure engagement.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) on Leisure Constraints of Employees

To situate leisure constraints in the context of the hotel job, new items were added to the scale developed by Crawford et al. (1991). To evaluate

these items, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was employed to explore the dimensionality of these items. A data is considered suitable for EFA if the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant at $p \leq 0.05$ and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sample adequacy has a minimum score of 0.60 (Pallant, 2010; Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). This data set meets these criteria as the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is (approx. chi-square) = 7428.507 and $p = 0.000$ and KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.945. Additionally, the Cronbach alpha values exceeded the minimum threshold of 0.70 while the factor loadings were above 0.40 as indicated in Table 13 (Pallant, 2010).

Twenty-five (25) items were subjected to the EFA, out of which twenty-two (22) were extracted under four (4) factors. These factors explained 74.1% of variance in hotel employees' leisure constraints. This implies that although these factors explained almost three-quarters of leisure constraints, there, exist other constraints which were not captured by the instrument.

The first factor labelled *interpersonal constraints* had a reliability value of 0.911, an Eigen value of 13.148 and explained 52.7% (VE= 0.782) of leisure constraints faced by employees. Five (5) items were loaded for interpersonal constraints with the main being 'activity is looked down upon by others' (0.827). This was followed by the assertions 'my friends discourage me from participating in preferred activities' (0.803), 'lack of partners to participate in leisure activity' (0.767) and 'people will not respect me for participating in available activity' (0.755). The last item was that 'partners have different work schedule' (0.588).

Table 13: Exploratory Factor Analysis on Leisure Constraints

Factor	Factor loading	Eigen values	% of variance explained (VE)	Cronbach's alpha
<i>Interpersonal Constraints</i>		13.182	52.730	0.911
Activity is looked down upon by others	0.827			
My friends discourage me from participating in preferred activities	0.803			
Lack of partners to participate with in leisure activity	0.767			
People will not respect me for participating in available activity	0.755			
Partners have different work schedule	0.588			
<i>Work Constraints</i>		2.708	10.830	0.934
The long working hours leads to inadequate time for leisure	0.812			
The too much workload at the hotel makes me too tired to participate in leisure	0.750			
The irregular working hours (changing shifts) at the hotel makes my leisure participation inconsistent	0.743			
Working overtime	0.722			
The unsocial working days (weekends and holidays) at the hotel limits leisure participation	0.689			
Low income	0.507			
<i>Structural Constraints</i>		1.425	5.702	0.902
Too much family responsibilities	0.873			
Available leisure activities are not appropriate to my cultural and religious beliefs	0.802			
The traffic congestion in Accra makes access to leisure facilities tiresome	0.801			
Social commitment (religious and social activities)	0.761			
<i>Intrapersonal constraints</i>		1.216	4.865	0.930
Lack of confidence to participate in available activities	0.873			
Lack of participation skills	0.815			
No physical abilities/health related problems	0.813			
Lack of knowledge on existing leisure activity	0.764			
I do not enjoy leisure	0.721			
Fear of physical injuries	0.721			
Lack of interest due to fatigue from work	0.684			
Total variance explained			74.127	

Source: Field survey, (2022)

Bartlett's test of sphericity (Approx. Chi-Square) = 7428.507; p-value = 0.000

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.945

The essence of other people in leisure stems from the fact that people seek support and acceptance in leisure participation. The availability of companions does not only boosts participation but enhances the perceptions of safety at outdoor facilities and helps in skills acquisition through tutelage (Koçak, 2017; Deelen et al., 2016; Gao & Kerstetter, 2016). Consequently, a lack of emotional and physical support in leisure participation duly poses a limit (Kuykendall et al., 2018; Li et al., 2017; Park et al., 2015). The glaring existence of interpersonal constraints in this study may be tied to the fact that the respondents were relatively young (Table 3) and thus seek to mingle with other people.

The second factor in explaining the leisure constraints of hotel employees is *work constraints*. This factor explained 10.8% (VE = 10.830) of the factors inhibiting employees' leisure. It has a reliability score of 0.934, an Eigen value of 2.708 and loaded six (6) items. The main work constraint extracted was 'the long working hours lead to inadequate time for leisure' (0.812). This was followed by the statements 'the too much workload at the hotel makes me too tired to participate in leisure' (0.750) and 'the irregular working hours (changing shifts) at the hotel makes my leisure participation inconsistent' (0.743). Others include 'working overtime' (0.722), 'the unsocial working days (weekends and holidays) at the hotel limits leisure participation' (0.689) and 'low income' (0.507).

The border theory presumes that the life of an adult exists in two domains: work and non-work (Guest, 2002; O'Driscoll, 1996; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). However, Tsaur et al. (2012) assert that employees largely

invest their time and energy in work since it provides the income needed to satisfy the necessities of life. This triggers a competitive relationship where work opposes leisure engagement (Beatty & Torbert, 2003). The hotel job due to its peculiar nature, has consistently been acknowledged to mainly conflict with the leisure participation of employees as evident in Table 13 (Mansour & Tremblay, 2016; Lin et al., 2015; Tsaur et al., 2012; Wong & Lin, 2007).

Factor three encapsulates *structural constraints* to leisure participation. Four (4) items were loaded, with a reliability value of 0.902, an Eigen value of 1.425 and accounted for 5.7% (VE = 5.702) of factors explaining leisure constraints. The items include ‘too much family responsibilities’ (0.873), ‘available leisure activities are not appropriate to my cultural and religious belief’ (0.802), ‘the traffic congestion in Accra makes access to leisure facilities tiresome’ (0.801), and ‘social commitment’ (0.761). These structural constraints are known to mediate leisure participation and may lead to non-participation if not effectively negotiated (White, 2008; Crawford et al., 1991).

The last factor captured *intrapersonal constraints* explained 4.9% (VE = 4.865) of constructs explaining leisure constraints of employees with an Eigen value of 1.216. Seven (7) items were loaded, all of which had a reliability score of 0.930. The variables extracted include ‘lack of confidence to participate in available activities’ (0.873), ‘lack of participation skills’ (0.815) and ‘no physical abilities/health-related problems’ (0.813). Others were ‘lack of knowledge on existing leisure activity’ (0.764), ‘I do not enjoy leisure’ (0.721) while the least was ‘lack of interest due to fatigue from work’ (0.684).

This basically implies that employees had inherent deficiencies that limited their leisure participation. This directly affects the formation of leisure preferences and decreases motivation to negotiate structural constraints (Öcal, 2014; Liang & Walker, 2011; Kim & Park, 2010; White, 2008; Crawford et al., 1991). Generally, it is obvious from Table 13 that the main and bulk of the employees' constraints (interpersonal, work and structural) in leisure were generated by external factors which are out of the control of the employees. Also, a fourth dimension of leisure constraint, which is work constraints, was revealed in addition to the three identified hierarchical leisure constraints model of Crawford et al. (1991).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Leisure Constraints of Employees

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted to explore the fit of the measurement indicators in the model as represented by the conceptual framework. The twenty-two (22) items extracted in the EFA were subjected to the CFA, out of which twenty-one (21) were extracted under four (4) factors. From Table 14, the CR values were between 0.924 and 0.947, which denotes that the dimensions of leisure constraints have high internal consistency and are reliable (Hair et al., 2010). Also, the AVE values and the factor loadings suggest an appropriate convergent validity of the leisure constraints construct (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Hair et al., 2010).

The first factor which encapsulates *work constraints* had a CR value of 0.947 and accounted for 78% (AVE = 0.782) of the average variance explained. Five (5) items were loaded for work constraints with the main being "inadequate time for leisure due to long working hours" (0.902). This was followed by the assertions 'working overtime' (0.890), 'too much work-

load at the hotel makes me too tired to participate in leisure' (0.883), 'irregular working hours at the hotel makes my leisure participation inconsistent' (0.875)

Table 14: Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Leisure Constraints

Fa	Variables in loadings	Factor	CR	AVE
1	Work constraints		0.947	0.782
	The long working hours leads to inadequate time for leisure	0.902		
	Working overtime	0.890		
	The too much workload at the hotel makes me too tired to participate in leisure	0.883		
	The irregular working hours (changing shifts) at the hotel makes my leisure participation inconsistent	0.875		
	The unsocial working days (weekends and holidays) at the hotel limits leisure participation	0.850		
II	Interpersonal Constraints		0.935	0.708
	My friends discourage me from participating in preferred activities	0.889		
	Activity is looked down upon by others	0.876		
	People will not respect me for participating in available activity	0.867		
	Lack of partners to participate with in leisure activity	0.860		
	Partners have different work schedule	0.771		
II	Intrapersonal Constraints		0.943	0.704
	Fear of physical injuries	0.867		
	Lack of knowledge on existing leisure activity	0.863		
	I do not enjoy leisure	0.862		
	Lack of confidence to participate in available activities	0.861		
	Lack of participation skills	0.860		
	No physical abilities/health related problems	0.827		
	Lack of interest due to fatigue from work	0.727		
1V	Structural Constraints		0.924	0.636
	Too much family responsibilities	0.833		
	The traffic congestion in Accra makes access to leisure facilities tiresome	0.815		
	Social commitment (religious and social activities)	0.801		
	Available leisure activities are not appropriate to my cultural and religious beliefs	0.798		

Source: Field survey, (2022)

and the least was that ‘the unsocial working days at the hotel limits leisure participation’ (0.850). Work features seem more pronounced, and this can be traced to the fact that the life of an adult revolves around work which shapes their engagement in other activities.

The second factor in explaining the leisure constraints of hotel employees is *interpersonal constraints*. This factor explained 70% (AVE = 0.708) of the variance of the construct, had a CR of 0.935 and loaded four (4) items. The main interpersonal constraint extracted was that ‘my friends discourage me from participating in preferred activities’ (0.889). This was followed by the statements ‘activity is looked down upon by others’ (0.876) and ‘people will not respect me for participating in available activity’ (0.867) while the least was that ‘partners have different work schedule’ (0.771).

The third factor captured *intrapersonal constraints* which accounted for 70% (AVE = 0.704) of variance extracted. Six (6) items were loaded, all of which had a CR score of 0.943. The variables observed include ‘fear of physical injuries’ (0.867), ‘lack of knowledge on existing leisure activity’ (0.863) and ‘I do not enjoy leisure’ (0.862). Others were ‘lack of confidence to participate in available activities’ (0.861), ‘lack of participation skills’ (0.860) and ‘no physical abilities/health-related problems’ (0.827).

The last factor was labelled *structural constraints* to leisure participation. Four (4) items were loaded, with a CR value of 0.924 and accounted for 63% (AVE = 0.636) of variance explained. The items include ‘too much family responsibilities’ (0.833), ‘the traffic congestion in Accra makes access to leisure facilities tiresome’ (0.815), ‘inadequate leisure equipment’ (0.801) and ‘social commitment’ (0.801).

Socio-Demographic Characteristics by Leisure Constraints

Individual characteristics as represented by socio-demographic characteristics have been acknowledged as significant predictors of perceptions of leisure constraints (Casper et al., 2011). The frequently mentioned demographic factors were gender, age, education, marital status and income (Kuykendall et al., 2018; Zou & Scott, 2018; Chung et al., 2017; Li et al., 2017; Deelen et al., 2016; Gao & Kerstetter, 2016; Santos et al., 2016; Molanorouzi et al., 2015). To establish differences in leisure constraints between socio-demographic/work characteristics, the four leisure constraint factors extracted from the CFA were subjected to an independent Samples T-Test and an ANOVA Test.

From Table 15, the independent Samples T-Test statistics revealed no statistically significant differences in the leisure constraints: work ($t = -0.188$; $p = 0.859$), interpersonal ($t = -1.257$; $p = 0.210$), intrapersonal ($t = -1.296$; $p = 0.196$) and structural ($t = -0.803$; $p = 0.423$) of males and females. The mean scores were similar across all constraint dimensions as employees were uncertain of whether these features posed limitations to leisure. The similarity in constraints reiterates previous studies which found no variation between leisure constraints by gender (Scott & Lee, 2018; Mirsafian, 2016; Celiki et al., 2014) and contradicts studies that found variance in constraints by gender (Ayhan et al., 2018; Gao & Kerstetter, 2016; Adam et al., 2015).

Further, the ANOVA shows statistically significant differences in the interpersonal ($F = 3.091$; $p = 0.047^*$) and intrapersonal constraints ($F = 6.973$; 0.001^*) among the three age categories, in line with previous research (Koçak, 2017; Gao & Kerstetter, 2016; Lee & Palakurthi, 2013).

Table 15: Socio-Demographic Characteristics by Leisure Constraints

Socio-Demographic Characteristics	N	Leisure		Motivation	
		Work Mean	Interpersonal Mean	Intrapersonal Mean	Structural Mean
Gender					
Male	206	3.27	2.74	2.90	2.93
Female	124	3.29	2.90	3.06	3.03
t		- 0.188	- 1.257	- 1.296	- 0.803
p value		0.859	0.210	0.196	0.423
Age					
18 - 27	86	3.08	2.54 ^{ac}	2.61 ^{abc}	2.76
28 - 37	204	3.31	2.84	3.04	3.02
38 - 55	40	3.50	3.05	3.31	3.12
F		2.063	3.091	6.973	2.277
p-value		0.129	0.047*	0.001*	0.104
Education					
High/Secondary/Vocational	162	3.25	2.90	3.07	3.04
Tertiary	168	3.29	2.70	2.85	2.89
T		-0.298	1.620	1.802	1.246
p-value		0.766	0.106	0.072	0.214
Marital Status					
Unmarried	220	3.20	2.73	2.87	2.86
Married	110	3.41	2.94	3.13	3.17
T		1.546	- 1.680	- 1.983	2.500
p-value		0.123	0.091	0.048*	0.013*
Religion					
Christian	301	3.31	2.81	2.97	3.00
Islam	39	2.94	2.62	2.85	2.63
T		1.588	0.746	0.546	1.778
p-value		0.113	0.461	0.585	0.076
Ethnicity					
Akan	141	3.29 ^{ad}	2.72	2.93	2.98
Ewe	94	3.50	3.02	3.23	3.17
Ga	65	3.04	2.72	2.74 ^{bc}	2.71 ^{bc}
Others	30	2.99	2.63	2.72	2.82
F		2.733	1.879	3.174	2.748
p-value		0.044*	0.133	0.024*	0.043*
Household Size					
Alone	149	3.10 ^{ac}	2.78	2.93	2.83
1 – 5	155	3.39	2.76	2.95	3.05
6 – 10	26	3.53	3.12	3.20	3.24
F		3.070	1.220	0.675	2.616
p-value		0.048*	0.296	0.510	0.075
Monthly Net Income (GH¢)					
150 - 500	63	3.74	2.93	3.35	3.17
501-999	198	3.21 ^{ab}	2.80	2.89 ^{ab}	2.96
1000 - 3000	69	3.03 ^{ac}	2.67	2.81 ^{ac}	2.80
F		6.943	0.916	4.894	2.073
p-value		0.001*	0.401	0.008*	0.127

Source: Field survey, (2022)

p-value is significant at $\leq .05$

The Tukey Post Hoc analysis revealed differences between the interpersonal constraints of employees within 18 to 27 years (mean = 2.54) and their counterparts aged between 38 and 55 years (mean = 3.05). A main reason for lack of partners among the elderly is the loss of a partner through death (Alexandris et al., 2017; Koçak, 2017; Gao & Kerstetter, 2016). Also, older people are less engrossed in and attached to friends compared to young people. Hence, older employees may face more interpersonal constraints compared to their counterparts aged 18 to 27 years.

With regard to intrapersonal constraints, the Post Hoc analysis revealed variation between employees between the ages of 18 and 27 and their colleagues in the other age groups. Ageing is associated with reduced physical abilities and deteriorating health due to the weakening in strength (Koçak, 2017; Chick, Hsu, Yeh & Hsieh, 2015; Molanorouzi et al., 2015). This, coupled with the work stress in hotels largely triggers intrapersonal constraints among employees in the older age categories. The young employees, on the other hand, are energetic and more likely to put up with the excessive demand of the hotel job. They are thus able to maintain positive postures and enthusiasm which reduces the probability of the existence of intrapersonal constraints.

Further, there was no statistical variation in constraints faced by employees with second cycle education and their colleagues with tertiary education across all dimensions. However, there was significant differences in the perceptions of unmarried and married employees with regard to intrapersonal ($t = -1.983$; $p = 0.048^*$) and structural ($t = 2.500$; $p = 0.013^*$) constraints. These observed differences in intrapersonal and structural

constraints partially contradict past studies which reported significant differences among all dimensions of leisure constraints with marital status (Koçak, 2017; Li et al., 2017; Santos et al., 2016). Though the mean scores are the same across the measurement indicators, the values revealed that the unmarried respondents experienced lower intrapersonal (unmarried = 2.87; married = 3.13) and structural (unmarried = 2.86; married = 3.17) constraints than their married counterparts. Structural constraints are inevitable for the married due to the inescapable commitments at home and duties to members of their first and second families.

On the other hand, the leisure constraints of Christians did not differ from those of Muslims. This may be explained by the fact that the work constraints faced by employees, fairly pose the same challenge to all, with disregard for religion. Furthermore, the one-way analysis of variance revealed significant differences in work ($F = 2.733$; $p = 0.044^*$), intrapersonal ($F = 3.174$; $p = 0.024^*$) and structural ($F = 2.748$; $p = 0.043^*$) constraints across the four (4) ethnic groups. The Tukey Post Hoc analysis revealed differences in the work constraints of *Akans* (mean = 3.29) and their counterparts from other ethnic groups (mean = 2.99). With regard to intrapersonal and structural constraints, differences existed between *Ewes* and their *Ga-Adangbe* counterparts. Notwithstanding, the mean scores show that employees from all ethnic groups were ambivalent on whether they experienced these three constraints.

By size of household, statistically significant differences existed among work ($F = 3.070$; $p = 0.048^*$) constraints of the three household categories. The mean statistics revealed that employees staying alone were

indecisive (mean = 3.10) about being constrained by work while those with 6 to 10 people agreed (mean = 3.53) to have encountered such constraints. Employees with 6 to 10 persons are likely to be burdened with responsibilities to members. This worsens the effect of work features like long hours of work time and workload as these induce an overwhelming stress due to intense pressures.

Finally, significant variances existed in work ($F = 6.943$; $p = 0001$) and intrapersonal ($F = 4.894$; $p = 0.008^*$) constraints of employees regarding to the three income categories. In hotels, high-income earners are likely to be in managerial position with varying job descriptions than those at the operational level. Also, being in higher position increases an employee's probability to enjoy flexibility at work due to their influence over work schedule and workload among others. Consequently, while employees who earned GH¢ 150 to 500 a month agreed to have faced work constraints (mean = 3.74), those in much higher income categories were unsure (mean = 3.21 and 3.03, respectively) of facing such restraints in leisure. In terms of intrapersonal constraints, insufficient income increases inability to meet basic needs such as good health (Mowen et al., 2005) which may trigger other personal constraints like no physical ability. Employees' intrapersonal constraints thus reduced with increasing income as made evident from the mean scores.

Work Characteristics by Leisure Constraints

It is obvious from Table 16 that besides hotel rating, there were no statistically significant differences in leisure constraints with regard to type of employment, department and daily working hours. By hotel rating, the independent T-Test analysis revealed statistically significant differences in

leisure constraints: work ($t = -4.204$; $p = 0.000^*$), interpersonal ($t = -2.260$; $p = 0.021^*$), intrapersonal ($t = -2.418$; $p = 0.013^*$) and structural ($t = 3.214$; $p = 0.001^*$) of employees in 4- to 5- star hotels and their counterparts in 1- to 3- star hotels. These variations point to the fact that features in the work environment do have quite a significant impact on employees' lives and behaviour in other spheres of life.

Table 16: Work Characteristics by Leisure Constraints

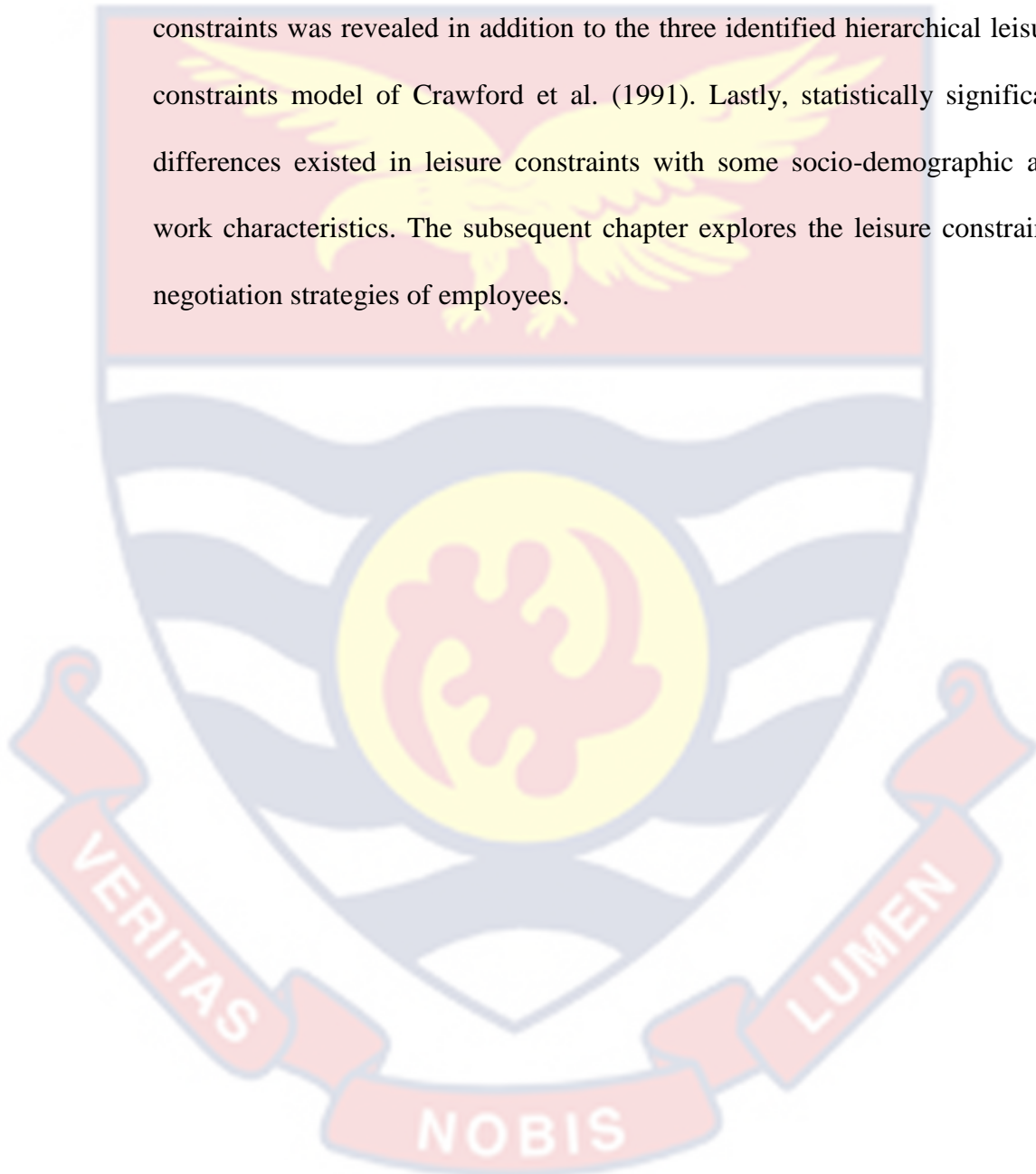
Work Characteristics	N	Leisure Constraints			
		Work Mean	Interpersonal Mean	Intrapersonal Mean	Structural Mean
Employment status					
Full-time	275	3.30	2.78	2.97	2.97
Part-time	55	3.13	2.87	2.93	2.96
T		- 0.967	0.451	- 0.177	- 0.030
p-value		0.333	0.653	0.860	0.976
Department					
Front of the house	176	3.24	2.87	3.05	2.98
Back of the house	154	3.31	2.72	2.86	2.95
T		-0.566	1.190	1.533	0.205
p-value		0.572	0.235	0.126	0.838
Daily working hours					
8-10	246	3.25	2.80	2.97	2.94
11 - 15	84	3.33	2.79	2.95	3.04
T		- 0.516	0.036	0.126	- 0.766
p-value		0.605	0.971	0.898	0.444
Hotel Rating					
4 to 5 Star	237	3.10	2.70	2.85	2.84
1 to 3 Star	93	3.59	2.98	3.16	3.20
T		- 4.204	- 2.260	- 2.418	3.214
p-value		0.000*	0.021*	0.013*	0.001*

Source: Field survey, (2022)

p-value is significant at $\leq .05$

Chapter Summary

This chapter explored the leisure constraints of hotel employees. The findings revealed that the employees' leisure was hindered by diverse dimensions of leisure constraints. Also, a new dimension of constraints; work constraints was revealed in addition to the three identified hierarchical leisure constraints model of Crawford et al. (1991). Lastly, statistically significant differences existed in leisure constraints with some socio-demographic and work characteristics. The subsequent chapter explores the leisure constraints negotiation strategies of employees.



CHAPTER EIGHT

EMPLOYEES' LEISURE CONSTRAINTS NEGOTIATION STRATEGIES

Introduction

The consciousness of the presence of constraints in leisure participation drives people to adopt mechanisms to either reduce or eliminate the impediments to achieving desired satisfaction (Kay & Jackson, 1991). This chapter addresses employees' leisure constraint negotiation strategies and their efficacy. It further explores the dimensions of negotiation strategies in relation to socio-demographic/work characteristics.

Constraints Negotiation Strategies

Leisure constraint negotiation refers to *the effort of individuals to use behavioural and cognitive strategies to facilitate leisure participation despite constraints* (Schneider & Stanis, 2007, p. 392). From Table 17, the Cronbach alpha statistics indicated that behavioural strategies had a reliability value of 0.890 while cognitive strategies had a score of 0.800. The overall and specific mean scores implied that employees agreed to have adopted all the negotiation strategies. On the whole, more than half (58.3%) of the employees agreed to have implemented cognitive strategies to resolve constraints. Among the four sub-dimensions of behavioural strategy, skill acquisition (74.1%) was the highest, followed by financial management (66.3%), time management (62.6%) and interpersonal coordination (60.2%).

Precisely, skill deficiency was addressed mainly through the learning of required skills (75.8%). This was followed by constant practice till one reaches perfection (75.5%) and asking for help with required skills (73.3%).

Table 17: Leisure Constraints Negotiation Strategies

Negotiation Strategies	% in agreement	Mean	SD	Cronbach alpha
Behavioural Strategies				.890
Skill Acquisition				
I acquire (learn) skills to engage in new activities	75.8	3.91	0.91	
I practice activity till I become perfect	75.5	4.00	0.70	
I ask for help with the required skills	73.3	3.88	0.90	
I participate in activities that I am good at	71.2	3.86	0.96	
<i>Overall Agreement</i>	<i>74.1</i>	<i>3.91</i>	<i>0.87</i>	
Financial Management				
I try to budget my money	71.2	3.85	1.01	
I choose the leisure activities/facilities I can afford	69.4	3.80	1.04	
I engage in other ventures to improve my financial situation	66.4	3.75	1.01	
I save money for leisure participation	58.2	3.52	1.13	
<i>Overall Agreement</i>	<i>66.3</i>	<i>3.73</i>	<i>1.05</i>	
Time Management				
I try to organize work responsibilities better to make time for leisure	70.3	3.75	1.10	
I devise ways to easily access facilities to avoid traffic and save time	66.9	3.73	1.00	
I adjust my work shift (time) to fit my leisure schedule	64.5	3.73	1.16	
I get a colleague to cover up for me to make time for leisure	48.8	3.25	1.32	
<i>Overall Agreement</i>	<i>62.6</i>	<i>3.62</i>	<i>1.15</i>	
Interpersonal Coordination				
I try to find people with similar leisure interests	62.7	3.66	1.01	
I participate in leisure alone in the absence of a partner	62.7	3.70	1.04	
I willingly participate in leisure with people I do not know	59.4	3.57	1.10	
I participate in leisure with my colleagues	58.2	3.52	1.15	
I participate in activities with people of the same gender	57.9	3.43	1.19	
<i>Overall Agreement</i>	<i>60.2</i>	<i>3.56</i>	<i>1.10</i>	
Cognitive Strategies				.800
I am emotionally prepared to bear the consequences of leisure choices	64.2	3.69	0.97	
I persuade myself with benefits of participation	62.4	3.70	1.04	
I ignore cultural beliefs and restrictions	54.8	3.50	1.14	
I change my leisure aspirations	51.8	3.39	1.16	
<i>Overall Agreement</i>	<i>58.3</i>	<i>3.57</i>	<i>1.07</i>	

Source: Field survey, (2022)

The hotel set-up is fused with diverse leisure facilities like a swimming pool, snooker and gym. Employees can ask colleagues in charge of these facilities to tutor them and they can also practice using the available facilities in the hotel, if permitted by policy.

An alternative is for employees to ask for help from tutors or friends outside their work environment. Nonetheless, more than half of the employees were glued to activities they were good at (71.2%) instead of exploring other options in line with the findings of previous studies (Ma et al., 2012; Elkins et al., 2007). Though this is not a comprehensive approach, it allows for participation in usual activities till requisite skills are acquired in new activities. Skills acquisition as the main behavioural strategy contradicts studies that report financial management as the main strategy (Boo et al., 2014; Stanis et al., 2010; Kay & Jackson, 1991).

Furthermore, the low wages received by hotel employees necessitated the deployment of stratagems to make money available for leisure (Mansour & Tremblay, 2016; Lin et al., 2015; Tsaur et al., 2012). Principally, employees budgeted their money (71.2%) to make allocation for leisure participation, similar to the finding of MacCosham (2017). Preparing a budget that takes into account one's leisure needs is an indication that the employees were intentional about leisure participation and sought to avoid being financially constrained in leisure. Also, over two-thirds of the employees selected the leisure activities/facilities they could afford (69.4%) while two-thirds engaged in other ventures to improve their financial situation (66.4%) to cater to their leisure needs.

Engaging in leisure based on purchasing ability seems like a more relaxed option (Ma et al., 2012). However, this may inhibit participating in a preferred leisure when the cost exceeds one's affordability. Likewise, taking on a side business, coupled with the long hours of work at the hotel, would reduce free time and deplete the energy needed by employees for leisure, though it would make money available for leisure. This may in-turn heighten the time constraints of the employees. Lastly, employees saved for their leisure pursuits (58.2%). This observation reiterates reports by Boo et al. (2014) and Stanis et al. (2010) that participants saved towards their leisure pursuits. Saving provides the opportunity to accumulate money over a period until employees have enough money for intended leisure.

Further, free time is invariably a scarce resource for hotel employees due to prolonged working hours. Foremost, hotel employees created free time through re-organising their work responsibilities better (70.3%). The work system in hotels is inflexible, which questions the feasibility of re-organizing work tasks. Notwithstanding, employees in housekeeping and kitchen can easily re-organize their tasks to probably complete them faster or within schedule to avoid working overtime. This, however, might be impossible for front-line staff whose daily tasks are highly unpredictable and dependent on guest arrivals.

Also, employees' devised ways to easily access facilities to avoid traffic and save time (66.9%), similar to the findings of Boo et al. (2014). As an urban area, employees in Accra had to deal with traffic issues to and from work and would wish to avoid such hustle when accessing leisure facilities. This could be by visiting facilities on the outskirts of the city or visiting during

unsocial hours to escape the congestion that comes with the rush periods. Coupled with this, employees adjusted their working period to fit their leisure schedule (64.5%). Adjusting the inflexible work schedules in hotels could be through swapping shifts with colleagues (48.8%), as evident in Table 17. Beyond this, employees may sometimes lobby their supervisor to assign them to seemingly suitable shifts that align with their leisure time. It is worth noting that re-scheduling of work time has been successfully applied by other employees like Ironmen (Simmons et al., 2016), however, its attainment in hotels is mainly a policy or managerial issue.

With regard to interpersonal coordination, below two-thirds (62.6%) of the employees sought people with similar leisure interests or participated in leisure alone in the absence of a partner, respectively. In leisure, incompatibility may occur when variation exists in the preferences of people. Individuals thus look for others with similar leisure aspirations (Wood & Danylchuk, 2015; Son et al., 2008); an example is by joining clubs. This helps to promote tutelage, mastery and support in leisure. Conversely, the unavailability of partners due to variations in work schedules among others was negotiated through solitary leisure participation (Palen et al., 2010). This strategy might not be effective for activities that require group participation, and it also denies participants the physical support they may need in leisure.

Under such circumstances, when it is impossible to participate in the activity alone, e.g. playing volleyball, more than half of the employees were willing to participate in leisure with people they do not know (59.4%) as revealed by Ma et al. (2012). Engaging in leisure with unfamiliar people provide an opportunity for the employees to form new ties, resulting in social

cohesion (Hodge et al., 2015). Furthermore, the social relations at work continued in leisure as more than half (58.2%) of the employees participated in leisure with their colleagues. The supposedly formal interactions among employees may lead to informal ties which drive joint participation among co-workers.

A somewhat rigid coordination strategy was participation in leisure with people of the same gender (57.9%). This may stem from compatibility issues or be culturally driven as some activities are stereotyped by gender. For example, playing snooker is more male-dominated and participation with a male may be more effective than with a female. Likewise, shopping may be more effective with females than males.

Cognitive-wise, a little below two-thirds (64.2%) of the employees were emotionally prepared to bear the consequences of leisure choices. Leisure participation is a choice from alternative activities; thus potential participants must be willing to bear the cost of the alternative foregone (MacCosham, 2017). This willingness to deal with inherent consequences, ignites the zeal to assume autonomy in leisure decision-making (Lyu & Oh, 2015). Also, more than two-quarters of the employees persuaded themselves with the benefits of participation (62.4%) and ignored cultural beliefs and restrictions (54.8%).

As leisure service providers, hotel employees' knowledge of the benefits of leisure engagement would induce a commitment to push for and provide the impetus to ignore cultural beliefs that counter participation in certain leisure activities (Kuykendall et al., 2018; MacCosham, 2017; Lyu & Oh, 2015; Nimrod et al., 2012). In a study of the leisure of Muslims in the

Netherlands, discrimination against women's participation was negotiated by ignoring restrictions (Kloek et al., 2013; Ma et al., 2012). Resisting cultural and religious limits is now an increasing option as pre-conceived stances are continually changed through education and the influx of counter-information (Stanis et al., 2010; Koca et al., 2009; Hudson & Gilbert, 2000).

Lastly, slightly over half (51.8%) of the employees changed their leisure aspirations in the face of challenges. In instances when constraints cannot be negotiated, employees may opt for leisure activities that would be compatible with existing constraints. This modification could either be through a reduction in participation frequency or a switch to alternative activities (Kuykendall et al., 2018; Kloek et al., 2013; Ma et al., 2012; Nimrod et al., 2012). Hence, in-as-much as this strategy does not seek to address the constraint, it may be the only or best option in some instances.

Constraints Negotiation Efficacy

The level of effectiveness in implementing a negotiation strategy remains a key determinant of its impact on leisure constraints (Choi et al., 2019; White, 2008). Employees' negotiation efficacy items had a reliability score of 0.903 while the mean scores indicate an agreement with all the statements measuring negotiation efficacy. On the whole, more than half (60.4%) of the employees agreed to have effectively implemented their negotiation strategies as shown in Table 18.

Specifically, slightly below two-thirds of the employees had confidence in their ability to successfully negotiate all the barriers in leisure (65.5%). This is significant as the foundation of efficacy is 'the individual's confidence in his/her ability to take an action' (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001).

Hence, the positive perception of their negotiation abilities is an indication that most, if not all, leisure constraints would be effectively addressed. Consequently, the employees successfully adopted strategies to escape being psychologically disrupted in leisure (63.9%). The presence of diverse constraints could be burdensome, leading to emotional instability. Attaining psychological stability in leisure denotes that the cognitive negotiation strategies have been efficacious.

Table 18: Constraints Negotiation Efficacy

Negotiation Efficacy	% in agreement	mean	SD	Cronbach alpha
Overall, I can say I have the ability to successfully negotiate all the barriers to my leisure participation.	65.5	3.72	1.00	0.903
I have been able to adopt strategies to avoid being psychologically disrupted from pursuing my leisure aspirations.	63.9	3.69	1.10	
I have been able to effectively manage my finances to increase my funds for leisure.	63.0	3.63	1.08	
I have been able to effectively apply strategies to increase my leisure time.	62.7	3.62	1.08	
I am able to confidently justify reasons for leisure in the absence of societal approval.	59.7	3.63	1.06	
I have successfully persuaded others to join me in leisure.	56.4	3.51	1.10	
I have confidently applied negotiation strategies to ensure my participation in preferred leisure.	51.8	3.52	1.11	
<i>Overall Agreement</i>	<i>60.4</i>	<i>3.62</i>	<i>1.07</i>	

Source: Field survey, (2022)

Likewise, the negotiation strategies resulted in increased funds (63.0%) and time (62.7%) for leisure. Despite protracted working hours, the earnings from the hotel job are low. Employees' ability to have funds and time for leisure suggests that the major inherent constraints of the job have been

resolved. In addition, above half of the employees confidently justified leisure in spite of the lack of societal approval (59.7%) and successfully persuaded others to join in their leisure (56.4%). Having justification for leisure ensures continuous engagement in a preferred leisure whilst the presence of others provides support in leisure.

Lastly, employees agreed that their negotiation strategies led to participation in preferred leisure (51.8%). Constraint negotiation aims to ensure participation in preferred leisure and slightly above half of the employees achieved this, despite the rigid nature of their job. This is a pointer that employees can sustain participation in preferred leisure through the effective adoption of negotiation strategies. Even so, this finding infers that a little below half of the employees were not able to participate in their preferred leisure, despite applying negotiation strategies. This can be attributed to the fact that the inflexibility that characterizes the hotel work processes can weaken the effectiveness of the chosen negotiation strategies. Consequently, the efforts of the employees resulted in the participation in preferred leisure.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Constraints Negotiation Strategies

This section explores the structure of leisure constraint negotiation using CFA. A total of twenty-one (21) negotiation strategy items were subjected to CFA and eight (8) were loaded under two factors: behavioural and cognitive. From Table 19, the basic indicators of CFA that connote a fit in the measurement variables were not violated. Bagozzi and Yi (2012) suggested an appropriate convergent validity of factor loadings greater than 0.60 and an AVE greater than 0.50 while Hair et al. (2010) pegged the CR values to be greater than 0.70. The results revealed that all factor loadings

exceeded 0.60, the AVE values were between 0.651 and 0.696 while CR values ranged from 0.881 to 0.901.

The foremost factor labelled *behavioural strategy* accounted for 69% (AVE = 0.696) of the variance explained and had a CR of 0.901. The four items loaded under this factor include 'I try to organize work responsibilities better to make time for leisure' (0.887), 'I devise easy ways to easily access facilities to avoid traffic and save time' (0.836), 'I adjust my work shift (time) to fit my leisure schedule' (0.817) and 'I try to find people with similar leisure interests' (0.790). It is obvious from the results that the first three behavioural strategies were mainly time management strategies. Scarcity of time is a real concern for hotel employees due to the long and irregular working hours. As such, the main quest of these employees is to create free time to engage in leisure. The last item was an interpersonal coordination strategy, which highlights the need for support from others in leisure.

The second factor termed *cognitive strategy* also loaded four (4) items. It had a CR value of 0.881 and accounted for 65% (AVE = 0.651) of the average variance explained. The items loaded comprised 'I am emotionally prepared to bear the consequences of leisure choices' (0.881), 'I persuade myself with benefits of participation' (0.861), 'I ignore cultural beliefs and restrictions' (0.762) and 'I change my leisure aspirations' (0.723). The crucial role of cognitive strategies signifies that the employees had a strong will to participate in leisure. This may be due to the fact that leisure provides a break from the monotony existing in the performance of repetitive tasks at the hotel. Thus, the desire for flexibility, drives employees' psychological readiness to overcome constraints.

Table 19: Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Leisure Constraints Negotiation

Factor	Variables in loadings	Factor Loading	CR	AVE		
I	Behavioural Strategy		0.901	0.696		
	I try to organize work responsibilities better to make time for leisure	0.887				
	I devise easy ways to easily access facilities to avoid traffic and save time	0.836				
	I adjust my work shift (time) to fit my leisure schedule	0.817				
	I try to find people with similar leisure interests	0.790				
II	Cognitive Strategy		0.881	0.651		
	I am emotionally prepared to bear the consequences of leisure choices	0.872				
	I persuade myself with benefits of participation	0.861				
	I ignore cultural beliefs and restrictions	0.762				
	I change my leisure aspirations	0.723				
	Negotiation Efficacy				0.936	0.677
	I have confidently applied negotiation strategies to ensure my participation in preferred leisure.	0.873				
	I am confident in my ability to avoid being psychologically disrupted from pursuing my leisure aspirations.	0.856				
	Overall, I have the ability to successfully negotiate all the barriers to my leisure participation.	0.822				
	I have been able to effectively manage my finances to increase my funds for leisure.	0.808				
	I am able to confidently justify reasons for leisure in the absence of societal approval.	0.817				
I have been able to effectively apply strategies to increase my leisure time.	0.791					
I have successfully persuaded others to join me in leisure.	0.790					

Source: Field survey, (2022)

As observed from Table 19, the use of both strategies by employees confirms the basic notion that the strategies are mutually inclusive, hence jointly used (MacCosham, 2017). Nevertheless, while cognitive strategies are intended to mainly precede behavioural strategies the findings indicate a reversal (Kuykendall et al., 2018; MacCosham, 2017). The contradiction may stem from the fact that the constraints faced by employees were mainly

imposed by their work and interpersonal factors (Table 12). A change in behaviour, rather than thought, is much needed to appropriately curb these constraints.

Additionally, the seven (7) efficacy items subjected to the CFA analysis, were all loaded under one factor: *negotiation efficacy*. From Table 18, the item loadings ranged from 0.790 to 0.873 while the CR value and variance explained were 0.936 and 67% (AVE = 0.677), respectively. These values are in line with the fit criteria suggested by Bagozzi and Yi (2012) and Hair et al. (2010). The main item was 'I have confidently applied negotiation strategies to ensure my participation in preferred leisure' (0.873). This foremost item constitutes the summation of the reasons for constraints negotiation. Successful attainment of this goal suggests that all the negotiation strategies have been effective.

This was followed by the assertions that 'I am confident in my ability to avoid being psychologically disrupted from pursuing my leisure aspirations' (0.856) and 'overall, I can say I have the ability to successfully negotiate all the barriers to my leisure participation' (0.822). Others include 'I have been able to effectively manage my finances to increase my funds for leisure' (0.808), and 'I am able to confidently justify reasons for leisure in the absence of societal approval' (0.817). The least item was 'I have successfully persuaded others to join me in leisure' (0.790).

Socio-Demographic Characteristics by Constraints Negotiation Strategies

Demographic characteristics like gender, education level, income and marital status have been known to affect people's choice of leisure coping mechanism (Boo et al., 2014; Lehto et al., 2014). These among other profile

factors were subjected to an independent T-Test and ANOVA to establish the differences in choice of constraints negotiation strategies as deduced in the CFA. From Table 20, the independent T-Test revealed no statistically significant differences between male and female employees' choice of negotiation strategies: behavioural ($t = 1.556$; $p = 0.121$) and cognitive ($t = -1.504$; $p = 0.133$). The mean scores show that both male and female employees agreed to have used both behavioural (mean = 3.77 and 3.62) and cognitive (mean = 3.52 and 3.67) strategies to negotiate leisure constraints. This similarity corroborates, the finding in Table 12, where there existed no variation in employees' leisure constraints. Employees would thus respond to the same constraints through the use of similar behavioural and cognitive negotiation strategies.

Similarly, there was no statistical differences in choice of behavioural ($F = 0.479$; $p = 0.620$) and cognitive ($F = 1.308$; $p = 0.272$) negotiation strategies with regard to age. Further, significant differences existed in the adoption of behavioural strategies ($t = 3.121$; $p = 0.002^*$) between employees with second cycle certificates and the tertiary institution graduates. The mean scores all implied an agreement to have applied the behavioural strategies, but it was noted that employees with second cycle certificates (mean = 3.87) used the strategy more than their counterparts with tertiary educational level certificates (mean = 3.57).

Level of education predicts employees' job position and description in the hotel, with its implicit constraints and accompanying negotiation strategies. Thus, though both employees in both categories had the same mental strategy, the behavioural aspects had to be tailored to resolve unique

constraints as defined by position in hotel, either supervisory or operational. In addition, there was no statically significant difference in negotiation strategies and negotiation efficacy with regard to marital status and religion. Besides these, the ANOVA revealed significant differences in the adoption of behavioural strategy ($F = 4.870$; $p = 0.003^*$) among employees within the four ethnic groupings.

With the behavioural strategy (mean = 4.30), employees from other ethnic groups indicated higher levels of agreement than colleagues in the other three categories. According to Brett (2017), cultural ideologies define problem- solving techniques as well as the importance attached to resolving specific challenges. By this, people of different cultures adopt diverse behaviours in constraints resolution which explains variation in behavioural strategies.

Additionally, there was significant difference in the use of behavioural strategies ($F = 3.864$; $p = 0.022^*$) among the three household groupings. The mean score shows that employees that lived alone had the highest score (mean = 3.86) to behavioural strategy, followed by those in the company of 1 to 5 people (mean = 3.63) and 6 to 10 (mean = 3.44) persons. Employees who stay alone may not have support in leisure, thus they have to deploy much behavioural strategies to overcome their constraints.

Lastly, the ANOVA revealed no variation in constraints negotiation strategies among employees in all three income categories. This may be due to the fact that the application of both behavioural and cognitive strategies does not require the use of money but rather the deployment of appropriate action.

Table 20: Constraints Negotiation Strategies by Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Socio-Demographic Characteristics	N	BNS	CNS
		Mean	Mean
Gender			
Male	206	3.77	3.52
Female	124	3.62	3.67
T		1.556	- 1.504
p-value		0.121	0.133
Age			
18 – 27	86	3.76	3.50
28 – 37	204	3.73	3.57
38 – 55	40	3.59	3.77
F		0.479	1.308
p-value		0.620	0.272
Education			
High/Secondary/Vocational	162	3.87	3.60
Tertiary	168	3.57	3.56
T		3.121	0.442
p-value		0.002*	0.659
Marital Status			
Unmarried	220	3.70	3.57
Married	110	3.76	3.60
T		- 0.477	0.335
p-value		0.637	0.738
Religion			
Christian	301	3.71	3.58
Islam	39	3.82	3.53
T		- 0.634	0.335
p-value		0.526	0.738
Ethnicity			
Akan	141	3.66	3.51
Ewe	94	3.65 ^{ab}	3.57
Ga	65	3.67 ^{ac}	3.63
Others	30	4.30 ^{ad}	3.78
F		4.870	0.899
p-value		0.003*	0.442
Household Size			
Alone	149	3.86	3.59
1 – 5	155	3.63	3.56
6 – 10	26	3.44	3.61
F		3.864	0.038
p-value		0.022*	0.963
Monthly Net Income (GH¢)			
150 - 500	63	3.69	3.74
501-999	198	3.68	3.54
1000 - 3000	69	3.85	3.54
F		0.972	1.352
p-value		0.379	0.260

Source: Field survey, (2022)

p-value is significant at $\leq .05$

For this reason, the role of money is limited and had no effect in the choice and application of negotiation strategies.

Constraints Negotiation Strategies by Work Characteristics

Similar to leisure constraints, there was no statistically significant difference in leisure constraints negotiation strategies with regard to type of employment, department and daily working hours. Employees in these categories agreed to have adopted the two constraint negotiation strategies. Nonetheless, significant differences existed between employees in 4 to 5 star and 1- to 3-star hotels with the implementation of behavioural ($t = 5.318$; $p = 0.000^*$) strategies.

Table 21: Work Characteristics by Constraints Negotiation Strategies

Work Characteristics	N	BNS	CNS
		Mean	Mean
Type of Employment			
Full-time	275	3.72	3.63
Part-time/Casual	55	3.73	3.57
T		0.118	0.512
p-value		0.906	0.609
Department			
Front of the house	176	3.78	3.61
Back of the house	154	3.65	3.54
T		1.300	0.753
p-value		0.195	0.452
Daily working hours			
8-10	246	3.70	3.59
11 – 15	84	3.78	3.53
T		- 0.691	0.546
p-value		0.490	0.585
Hotel Rating			
4 to 5 Star	237	3.90	3.62
1 to 3 Star	93	3.38	3.50
T		5.318	1.238
p-value		0.000*	0.217

Source: Field survey, (2022)
p-value is significant at $\leq .05$

Employees in 4- to 5-star hotels agreed to behavioural strategy (mean = 3.90) while those in 1- to 3-star hotels were indifferent about the use of behavioural strategy (mean = 3.38). On average, employees in 4- to 5-star hotels adopted behavioural strategies while those in 1- to 3- star hotels, on the other hand, somehow did not adopt behavioural strategies or give them the needed attention. Employees in upscale hotels attached higher levels of importance to implementing behavioural strategies, hence, high levels of efficacy are inevitable.

Chapter Summary

This chapter analysed the leisure constraint negotiation strategies used by hotel employees and the efficacy of these strategies. It was observed that both behavioural and cognitive strategies were employed in resolving constraints. The CFA revealed that the behavioural strategies were mainly related to time management and interpersonal coordination. Generally, the employees perceived the application of these strategies as efficacious. Largely, variation did not exist between socio-demographic and work characteristics (gender, age, marital status, religion, type of employment, department and daily working hours) with regard to negotiation strategies. The next chapter discusses leisure satisfaction and work outcomes of employees.

CHAPTER NINE

LEISURE SATISFACTION AND WORK OUTCOMES OF EMPLOYEES

Introduction

Leisure satisfaction is the main determinant of a participant's general well-being and its knowledge is useful in predicting future leisure choices (Suhartanto et al., 2019). This chapter examines employees' satisfaction with leisure participation. It further establishes the relationships between the leisure activity types and work outcomes of job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion of hotel employees. The chapter ends with the structural measurement of the study's framework.

Leisure Satisfaction

Leisure participation becomes more exciting and meaningful when individuals achieve expected satisfaction. Leisure satisfaction is an indication that a participant's leisure needs and expectations have been met (Choi & Fu, 2015). Hence, equally important to leisure participation is the level of satisfaction gained from the participation (Zhou et al., 2021). From Table 22, the leisure satisfaction items had a reliability score of 0.941. Generally, two-thirds of the employees (66.7%) were satisfied with leisure while the overall mean score (3.78) signifies an agreement with the leisure satisfaction indicators. In line with the utility theory, this finding signals that the employees had achieved their aspirations since their experiences in leisure were pleasant (Muzindutsi & Masango, 2015; Ateca-Amestoy et al., 2004).

Table 22: Leisure Satisfaction

Leisure Satisfaction	% in agreement	Mean	SD	Cronbach alpha
My leisure activities provides me opportunities to try new things	73.0	3.90	1.03	0.941
My leisure activities increase my knowledge of things around me	70.9	3.87	0.98	
My leisure restores me physically	70.9	3.87	0.99	
My leisure contributes to my emotional well-being	70.0	3.85	1.02	
My leisure activities helped me develop a close relationship with others	69.7	3.87	0.99	
I am satisfied with my choice of leisure activity	67.6	3.78	1.02	
The leisure activities are well-designed	66.1	3.82	1.02	
My leisure activities are interesting	65.2	3.79	1.00	
My leisure gives me a sense of accomplishment	63.6	3.70	1.03	
I am satisfied with experiences gained from participating in leisure activities	63.3	3.75	1.00	
I am satisfied with the time I spent in leisure	60.0	3.56	1.11	
I am satisfied with available leisure facilities and services	59.7	3.61	1.06	
<i>Overall Agreement</i>	<i>66.7</i>	<i>3.78</i>	<i>1.02</i>	

Source: Field survey, (2022)

The scale for interpreting the mean is: Strongly Disagree =1.00 to 1.49, Disagree = 1.50 to 2.49, Neutral = 2.50 to 3.49 Agree = 3.50 to 4.49 and 5 = Strongly Agree = 4.50 to 5.00

Mainly, leisure provided the employees an opportunity to try new things (73%) and increased their knowledge of things around them (70.9%). This implies that more than half of the employees were able to satisfy their intellectual needs which was a motivation for leisure engagement. Also, leisure contributed to the physical restoration (70.9%) and emotional well-being (70.0%) of employees. This implies that leisure successfully played its complementary role as a buffer to strains and depletion in strenuous industries

like hotels (Gao et al., 2019; Knecht et al., 2016; Naude et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2015).

Socially, leisure aided employees to develop close relationships with people (69.7%) despite the unsocial and long hours of work at the hotel. This aligns with the claim that leisure allows for socialization, which helps to maintain group solidarity (Li et al., 2017). Activity-wise, slightly above a third (67.6%) of employees were satisfied with their choice of activities. Leisure is a freely chosen activity, hence it was expected that an overwhelming majority of the employees should be pleased with their choices. However, almost a third of the employees perceived otherwise, which is a likely indication that the activities were chosen due to other reasons like availability rather than preference. Notwithstanding, a little below two-thirds of the employees perceived leisure activities to be well-designed (66.1%) and interesting (65.2%).

With intended outcomes, leisure gave the employees a sense of accomplishment (63.6%) and satisfying experiences (63.3%). Engagement in leisure is spurred by subjective desires; however, more than half of the employees achieved their intrinsically satisfying needs leading to a sense of accomplishment (Przepiorka & Blanchnio, 2017). Finally, employees were least satisfied with the time spent in leisure (60%) and available leisure facilities and services (59.7%).

Although time spent in leisure was one of the least indicators, it is apparent that the long and irregular working hours at the hotels did not have a significant negative effect on the time for leisure. More than half (60%) of the hotel employees were contented with the time spent in leisure. To sum up, the

mean responses between 3.90 and 3.56 indicate that the employees agreed to all the items measuring leisure satisfaction.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Leisure Satisfaction of Hotel Employees

From Table 23, all the twelve (12) items subjected to the CFA were extracted under a factor, labelled *leisure satisfaction*. Leisure satisfaction had a CR value of 0.959 and accounted for 66% (AVE = 0.659) of the variance explained. The CR, AVE and factor loadings between 0.851 and 0.761 suggest that the leisure satisfaction construct had high internal consistency and an appropriate convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Hair et al., 2010). The main item loaded was ‘my leisure activities helped employees to develop a close relationship with others’ (0.851). This highlights leisure as a tool to foster social cohesion and unity as it serves as a critical domain to socialize.

This was followed by the assertions ‘my leisure contributes to my emotional well-being’ (0.846), ‘my leisure activities are interesting’ (0.842), ‘the leisure activities are well-designed’ (0.838) and ‘my leisure restores me physically (0.828)’. The last statement was ‘I am satisfied with the time I spent in leisure’ (0.761). Leisure is a discretionary activity mainly undertaken after all obligatory duties, such as work, had been addressed. The stringent work hours at the hotel would negatively affect the time for leisure, which explains why it is the least satisfactory indicator.

Table 23: Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Leisure Satisfaction

Leisure Satisfaction	Factor Loading	CR	AVE
		0.959	0.659
My leisure activities helped me develop a close relationship with others	0.851		
My leisure contributes to my emotional well-being	0.846		
My leisure activities are interesting	0.842		
The leisure activities are well-designed	0.838		
My leisure restores me physically	0.828		
My leisure gives me a sense of accomplishment	0.823		
My leisure activities provides me opportunities to try new things	0.808		
I am satisfied with my choice of leisure activity	0.805		
I am satisfied with experiences gained from participating in leisure activities	0.785		
My leisure activities increase my knowledge of things around me	0.778		
I am satisfied with available leisure facilities and services	0.768		
I am satisfied with the time I spent in leisure	0.761		

Source: Field survey, (2022)

Work Outcome

The high intensity of contact with customers in the hotel's environment positions it as a conducive hub for emotional depletion (Grobelna, 2021; Li et al., 2020; Li, Wong & Kim, 2017). The hotel job remains emotion-intensive due to the constant regulation of emotions by employees in service delivery (Li et al., 2020; Chen, Chang & Wang, 2019). This study in examining perceptions of emotional exhaustion found that less than half (46.6%) of the employees were emotionally exhausted from work. This is reflected in the overall mean score (3.28) which indicated that the employees were unsure of whether they were emotionally exhausted by the job. This slightly deviates

from previous research that tagged hotel employees to be highly prone to being emotionally exhausted (Grobelna, 2021; Li et al., 2020, Chen et al., 2019; Karatepe, Kim & Lee, 2019). This may be due to the fact that employees have adopted emotional management strategies such as opting for surface acting instead of attaching deep emotions in the guest interaction (Rafiq, Abbasi, Sair & Mehta, 2020).

Specifically, slightly above half (51.5%) of the employees felt fatigued when they got up in the morning and had to face another day at work. The thought of having to perform the same stressful task on a new day induces negative psychological states; a feeling of depletion even before employees commence the daily tasks. Hence, the exhaustion from the previous day is spilled over into another day's work.

Secondly, exactly, half (50%) of the employees felt they were working too hard on their job. The excessive and unpredictable workload in hotels places much demand on the energy of the employees (Andrade et al., 2019). As such employees have to push in much effort and perform relatively many tasks per shift. Consequently, slightly below half of the employees (49.1%) felt used up at the end of the day's shift while above a third (46.7%) felt like they were at the end of a rope. This supposes that the employees were left with little or no energy in line with the view of Li et al. (2017), that emotional exhaustion also entails a state of physical depletion. Additionally, the excessive workload caused strain (46.4%) while the long hours led to frustration (45.2%). Performing a strenuous task over a long period depletes the body and mind and this induces pain and frustration.

Table 24: Work Outcome

Work Outcome	% in agreement	Mean	SD	Cronbach alpha
Emotional Exhaustion				0.942
I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day at job	51.5	3.43	1.20	
I feel I am working too hard on my job	50.0	3.38	1.21	
I feel used up at the end of the day's shift	49.1	3.28	1.26	
Working in the hotel makes me feel like I am at the end of my rope	46.7	3.22	1.27	
The too much work load within the hotel is really a strain for me	46.4	3.32	1.20	
I feel frustrated from working for long hours at my job	45.2	3.30	1.23	
I feel burned-out from repeating the same tasks at work	44.5	3.27	1.24	
I feel emotionally drained from performing my tasks in the hotel	43.9	3.19	1.26	
Working directly with customers puts too much stress on me	42.1	3.17	1.32	
<i>Overall Agreement</i>	<i>46.6</i>	<i>3.28</i>	<i>1.24</i>	
Job Satisfaction				0.844
I feel satisfied with working at the hotel	67.3	3.75	1.07	
I find real enjoyment in discharging my duties at the work	65.8	3.75	1.07	
My job gives me a sense of accomplishment	65.7	3.67	1.09	
<i>Overall Agreement</i>	<i>66.3</i>	<i>3.72</i>	<i>1.08</i>	

Source: Field survey, (2022)

The scale for interpreting the mean is: Strongly Disagree = 1.00 to 1.49, Disagree = 1.50 to 2.49, Neutral = 2.50 to 3.49 Agree = 3.50 to 4.49 and 5 = Strongly Agree = 4.50 to 5.00

Furthermore, the monotony in the hotel job from the performance of repetitive tasks induces burnout (44.5%). Performing the same stressful job is not only boring but can lead to a weakening in strength as the same amount of energy is being exerted to get the task accomplished. With time, the employee

is left with little or no energy to carry out the assigned activity. Also, employees felt emotionally drained from performing their tasks in the hotel (43.9%). Hotel employees in the discharge of their duties are known to deploy not only intellectual and physical but also emotional resources. To ensure customer satisfaction, employees need to display real, appropriate and sincere emotions (Hwa, 2012) even when they are not in the mood.

The constant regulation of emotions despite the prevailing personal or organizational situation leads to emotional exhaustion (Chen et al., 2019). In this regard, quite a significant proportion of employees (42.1%) accrued much stress working directly with customers. It is, however worthy of note that the least source of emotional exhaustion was from contact with the guest. This reveals that other job facets like the workload, the task itself and working hours mainly contributed to emotional exhaustion rather than contact with the customer as stipulated by previous research (Gobelna, 2021; Li et al., 2020; Li et al., 2017). In sum, the mean scores of 3.17 to 3.43 show that respondents were uncertain of whether they were emotionally exhausted from the job.

With regard to job satisfaction, two-thirds (66.3%) of the employees were generally satisfied with the hotel job. The employees mainly felt satisfied with working at the hotel (67.3%), found real enjoyment in discharging their duties on the job (65.8%) and their job gave them a sense of accomplishment (65.7%). The mean responses (3.75 and 3.67) show an agreement with the statement measuring job satisfaction. The benefits of having employees who loved their job are enormous. As such, it is the desire of management that all employees are satisfied in their work environment (Rivaldo, 2021). However, hotel job features such as low pay, long working hours, unsocial working

periods and 24-hours work systems among others induce job dissatisfaction. These disincentives, however, seem to have little effect as the employees were satisfied with all indicators, including the job itself.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Work Outcome of Hotel Employees

Altogether, the twelve (12) items measuring work outcome were extracted under four (2) factors; *job satisfaction* and *emotional exhaustion* as shown in Table 25. The CR and AVE scores as well as the factor loadings indicate that the measurement indicators are reliable and have an appropriate convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Hair et al., 2010). The first factor labelled *job satisfaction* had a CR value of 0.899 and accounted for 75% (AVE = 0.748) of average variance explained. Three (3) items were loaded for job satisfaction with the main being 'I feel satisfied with working at the hotel' (0.921). This was followed by the assertions 'I find real enjoyment in discharging my duties at work' (0.838) and the least was that 'my job gives me a sense of accomplishment' (0.834).

The second factor in explaining the work outcome of hotel employees was *emotional exhaustion*. This factor explained 68% (AVE = 0.681) of the variance of the construct, had a CR of 0.950 and loaded nine (9) items. The main item extracted was 'I feel used up at the end of the day's shift' (0.885). This was followed by the statements 'the too much workload within the hotel is really a strain for me' (0.877), 'I feel frustrated from working for long hours at my job' (0.873), 'I feel burned-out from repeating the same tasks at work' (0.862) while the least was that 'working in the hotel makes me feel like I am at the end of my rope' (0.694).

Table 25: Confirmatory Factor Analysis on Work Outcomes

Factor	Variables in loadings	Factor Loading	CR	AVE
	Work Outcome			
I	Job Satisfaction		0.899	0.748
	I feel satisfied with working at the hotel	0.921		
	I find real enjoyment in discharging my duties at the work	0.838		
	My job gives me a sense of accomplishment	0.834		
II	Emotional Exhaustion		0.950	0.681
	I feel used up at the end of the day's shift	0.885		
	The too much work load within the hotel is really a strain for me	0.877		
	I feel frustrated from working for long hours at my job	0.873		
	I feel burned-out from repeating the same tasks at work	0.862		
	I feel emotionally drained from performing my tasks in the hotel	0.850		
	I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day at job	0.833		
	Working directly with customers puts too much stress on me	0.786		
	I feel I am working too hard on my job	0.748		
	Working in the hotel makes me feel like I am at the end of my rope	0.694		

Source: Field survey, (2022)

The findings revealed that the employees in this study exhibited two inverse work outcomes: in as much as they were highly satisfied with the hotel work, they also felt emotionally exhausted from the work. However, levels of job satisfaction were high, which signals that employees can be satisfied with their jobs, despite experiencing exhaustion.

Leisure and Work Outcomes

The nature of a job presents diverse intersections with leisure as theorized. However, research establishing the links between work and leisure mainly relied on the border theory either in part or as a whole (Gao et al., 2019; Naude et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2015; Wong & Lin, 2007). From Table 26, the Chi-square analysis revealed that the activity preferences were not related to work outcomes; emotional exhaustion ($\chi^2 = 7.609$; $p = 0.268$) and job satisfaction ($\chi^2 = 11.719$; $p = 0.069$). This aligns with the segmentation theory which situates work and leisure in a no-relationship context (Beatty & Torbert, 2003; Guerrier & Adib, 2003). The segmentation theory postulates that work and leisure exist in separate and incompatible domains with no inter-relations of any form. This disintegrates work from leisure as shown in Table 26 (Guerrier & Adib, 2003). Leisure activities were not chosen in response to work outcomes but rather as an activity of life existing in a different domain in life.

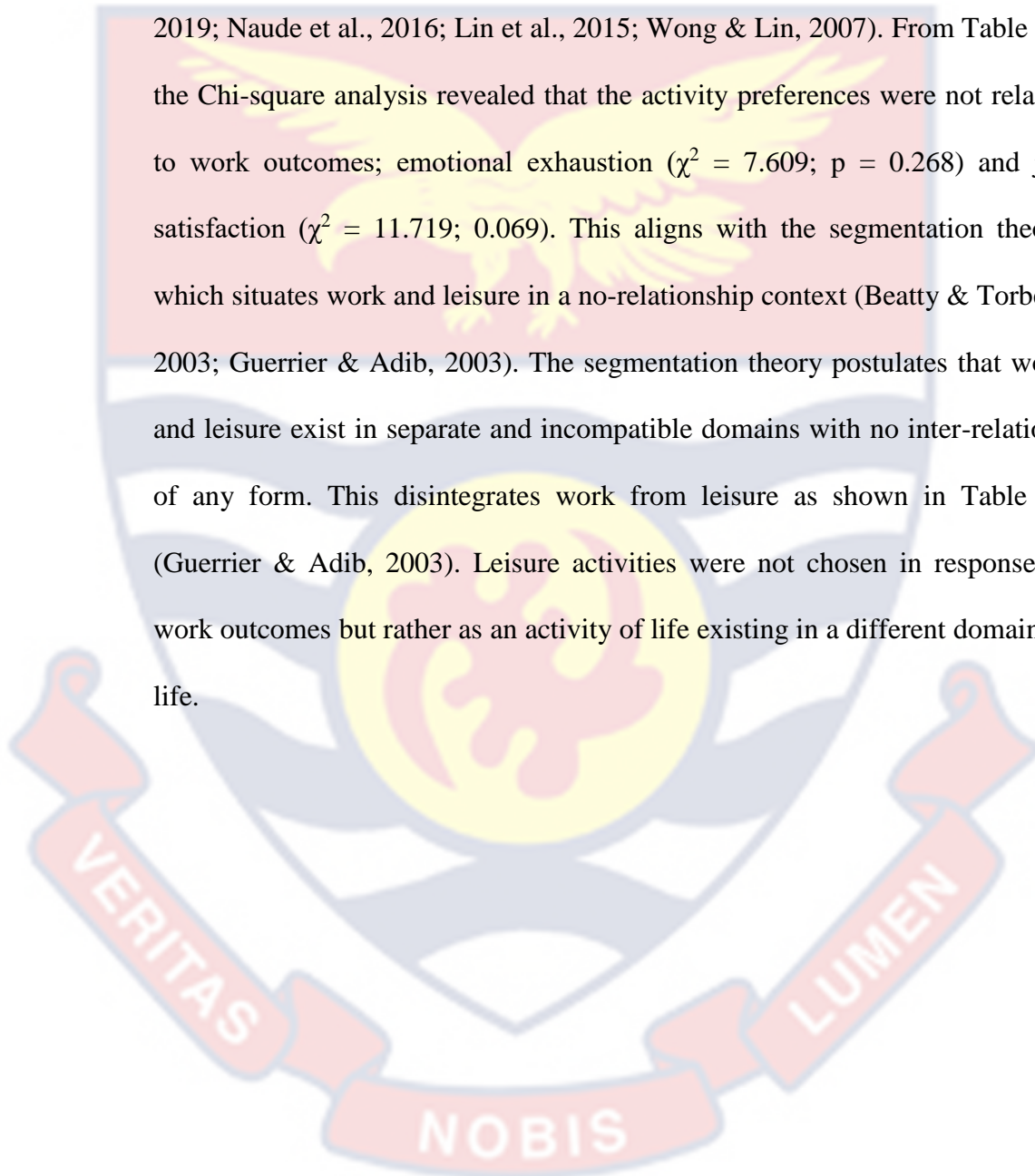


Table 26: Leisure Activity Type by Work-Outcomes

Leisure Activity Type	Work Outcomes												
	Emotional Exhaustion					Job Satisfaction					χ^2 (p-value)		
	Disagree	%	Neutral	%	Agree	%	Disagree	%	Neutral	%		Agree	%
Passive	28.6		25.2		46.2		14.1		19.8		66.0		7.609 (0.268)
Active	32.1		5.4		62.5		23.5		-		76.2		(0.069)

Source: Field survey, (2022)

Structural Model Assessment

The section tests the path relations of the leisure participation model as presented by the conceptual framework. The framework assumes that the leisure motivation is constrained by diverse factors which can be negotiated to result in a satisfying leisure experience. The experiences, however, are expected to affect activities in other domains of life including, work. In this section, the validity and reliability of latent variables are examined and discussed (Hair et al., 2019; Shmueli, Sarstedt, Hair, Cheah, Ting, Vaithilingam, & Ringle, 2019). Because of the existence of second-order constructs like leisure motivations and constraints, the analyses were performed at both the first- and second-order levels.

Reliability and Convergent Validity Tests

In this part, an analysis of the reliability and convergent validity of the measures at the first and second-order levels was carried out. This encompasses the item loadings together with the significance of those loadings, the construct reliability, and the average variance extracted (AVEs) (Hair et al., 2019; Usakli & Kucukergin, 2018) as presented in Tables 27 and 28. (Figures attached in Appendix B).

Table 27: Reliability and Convergent Validity Results (1st Order Constructs)

Items	Loadings	SE	<i>t</i> - statistics	<i>p</i> - values	VIF	CA	CR	AVE
LC_Inter1	0.776	0.034	22.745	0.000	2.032			
LC_Inter2	0.876	0.016	53.931	0.000	3.371			
LC_Inter3	0.867	0.025	35.164	0.000	3.543	0.917	0.935	0.708
LC_Inter4	0.889	0.015	57.466	0.000	4.342			
LC_Inter5	0.860	0.021	40.071	0.000	2.886			
LC_Inter6	0.771	0.039	19.842	0.000	1.929			
LC_Intra1	0.727	0.040	18.357	0.000	1.761			
LC_Intra2	0.861	0.017	50.684	0.000	3.208			
LC_Intra3	0.860	0.020	43.054	0.000	3.329			
LC_Intra4	0.863	0.017	50.127	0.000	3.115	0.929	0.943	0.704
LC_Intra5	0.827	0.024	34.910	0.000	2.582			
LC_Intra6	0.867	0.019	46.548	0.000	3.402			
LC_Intra7	0.862	0.017	49.575	0.000	3.127			
LC_ST1	0.739	0.075	9.817	0.000	2.303			
LC_ST2	0.801	0.060	13.314	0.000	2.668			
LC_ST3	0.801	0.045	17.898	0.000	2.058			
LC_ST4	0.833	0.046	18.136	0.000	2.893	0.906	0.924	0.636
LC_ST5	0.815	0.053	15.317	0.000	3.046			
LC_ST6	0.798	0.048	16.640	0.000	2.657			
LC_ST7	0.794	0.054	14.686	0.000	2.696			
LC_WK1	0.875	0.019	45.134	0.000	3.210			
LC_WK2	0.920	0.010	88.219	0.000	4.408			
LC_WK3	0.890	0.018	48.138	0.000	3.304	0.930	0.947	0.782
LC_WK4	0.883	0.018	50.434	0.000	3.372			
LC_WK5	0.850	0.025	33.865	0.000	2.794			
LM_CM1	0.839	0.030	28.138	0.000	2.475			
LM_CM2	0.838	0.034	24.907	0.000	2.356			
LM_CM3	0.881	0.023	38.513	0.000	2.518	0.892	0.920	0.698
LM_CM4	0.857	0.034	25.207	0.000	2.609			
LM_CM5	0.758	0.054	13.936	0.000	1.930			
LM_IM1	0.832	0.112	7.400	0.000	3.272			
LM_IM2	0.894	0.105	8.499	0.000	2.640			
LM_IM3	0.799	0.109	7.297	0.000	2.818	0.903	0.921	0.700
LM_IM4	0.788	0.110	7.193	0.000	2.355			
LM_IM5	0.866	0.112	7.707	0.000	2.035			
LM_SA1	0.852	0.043	19.594	0.000	2.120			
LM_SA2	0.913	0.043	21.486	0.000	3.194	0.880	0.925	0.804
LM_SA3	0.923	0.041	22.758	0.000	2.611			
LM_SM1	0.831	0.062	13.359	0.000	2.118			
LM_SM2	0.899	0.044	20.238	0.000	2.047	0.820	0.878	0.645
LM_SM3	0.811	0.056	14.583	0.000	1.853			
LM_SM5	0.651	0.099	6.559	0.000	1.358			
LS1	0.761	0.030	25.095	0.000	2.404			
LS2	0.842	0.021	40.143	0.000	3.611			
LS3	0.823	0.022	37.123	0.000	3.584	0.953	0.959	0.659
LS4	0.778	0.026	29.937	0.000	2.866			
LS5	0.808	0.023	34.484	0.000	3.186			
LS6	0.851	0.018	46.496	0.000	3.646			

Table 27 continued

Items	Loadings	SE	t-statistics	p-values	VIF	CA	CR	AVE
LS7	0.846	0.020	42.922	0.000	3.816			
LS8	0.828	0.024	34.501	0.000	3.508			
LS9	0.838	0.024	35.381	0.000	3.355			
LS10	0.805	0.027	29.692	0.000	3.004			
LS11	0.785	0.032	24.806	0.000	2.952			
LS12	0.768	0.034	22.711	0.000	2.592			
NS_BS1	0.817	0.027	29.955	0.000	1.847			
NS_BS3	0.887	0.016	54.317	0.000	2.558	0.852	0.901	0.694
NS_BS4	0.836	0.024	34.644	0.000	2.088			
NS_BS5	0.790	0.028	28.348	0.000	1.690			
NS_CS1	0.723	0.054	13.431	0.000	1.405			
NS_CS2	0.861	0.023	37.354	0.000	2.116	0.820	0.881	0.651
NS_CS3	0.872	0.024	36.793	0.000	2.436			
NS_CS4	0.762	0.041	18.506	0.000	1.699			
Neg_Eff1	0.791	0.027	28.837	0.000	2.422			
Neg_Eff2	0.808	0.025	32.942	0.000	2.482			
Neg_Eff3	0.791	0.029	27.348	0.000	2.397			
Neg_Eff4	0.873	0.016	53.559	0.000	3.284	0.920	0.936	0.677
Neg_Eff5	0.856	0.019	45.048	0.000	3.243			
Neg_Eff6	0.817	0.022	37.508	0.000	2.625			
Neg_Eff7	0.822	0.020	40.734	0.000	2.509			
WO_EE1	0.850	0.133	6.371	0.000	2.752			
WO_EE2	0.885	0.117	7.533	0.000	4.169			
WO_EE3	0.833	0.118	7.050	0.000	3.537			
WO_EE4	0.877	0.119	7.379	0.000	4.051			
WO_EE5	0.862	0.119	7.224	0.000	3.048	0.945	0.950	0.681
WO_EE6	0.873	0.121	7.198	0.000	3.400			
WO_EE7	0.786	0.135	5.813	0.000	3.105			
WO_EE8	0.748	0.150	4.998	0.000	3.467			
WO_EE9	0.694	0.163	4.242	0.000	3.022			
WO_JS1	0.834	0.039	21.549	0.000	1.824			
WO_JS2	0.838	0.046	18.268	0.000	1.944	0.835	0.899	0.748
WO_JS3	0.921	0.013	72.806	0.000	2.146			

SE = Standard Error; VIF = Variance Inflation Factor; CA = Cronbach's Alpha; CR = Composite Reliability

Source: Field survey, (2022)

LC_Inter –interpersonal constraints; LC_Intra - intrapersonal constraints; LC_ST – structural constraints; LC_WK – work constraints; LM_CM-competence mastery; LM_IM – intellectual motivation; LM_SA – stimulus avoidance; LM_SM – social motivation; NS_BS - Negotiation Strategies (Behavioural Strategies); NS_CS - Negotiation Strategies (Cognitive Strategies); Neg_Eff - Negotiation Efficacy; LS - Leisure Satisfaction ; WO-EE - Work Outcome (Emotional Exhaustion); WO-JS - Work Outcome (Job Satisfaction)

The findings as shown in Table 28 demonstrate that all of the measures for the constructs have sufficient levels of construct reliability as well as convergent validity. To be more explicit, each of the items has a significant loading ($p < 0.001$), the AVEs are more than the threshold value of 0.50, and each of the composite reliabilities is greater than 0.70 (Hair et al., 2019; Shmueli et al., 2019). As a result, it was shown that each of the latent variables present at the first-order level had high levels of construct reliability as well as convergent validity.

Table 28: Reliability and Convergent Validity Results (2nd Order Constructs)

Items	Loadings	SE	<i>t</i> - statistics	<i>p</i> - values	VIF	CA	CR	AVE
LC_Inter	0.880	0.022	39.437	0.000	2.765			
LC_Intra	0.838	0.037	22.752	0.000	2.449	0.890	0.924	0.753
LC_ST	0.908	0.029	31.516	0.000	3.609			
LC_WK	0.842	0.049	17.196	0.000	2.621			
LM_CM	0.856	0.076	11.206	0.000	2.091			
LM_IM	0.778	0.105	7.407	0.000	1.901	0.812	0.873	0.635
LM_SA	0.638	0.138	4.640	0.000	1.332			
LM_SM	0.892	0.064	13.866	0.000	1.907			

Source: Field survey, (2022)

Again, the results in Table 29 show that the measures' construct reliability and convergent validity are satisfactory for both second-order constructs (i.e., LC and LM). The AVEs are all more than 0.50, and the composite reliabilities are all greater than 0.70, indicating that all of the components have substantial loadings (Hair et al., 2019; Shmueli et al., 2019). Thus, all second-order latent variables are reliable and valid.

Discriminant Validity Tests

The final models are examined for discriminant validity once construct reliability and convergent validity have been established for both first- and second-order constructs. To conduct this distinctiveness evaluation, the Fornell and Larcker and the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio methods are used (Hair (Jr.) et al., 2017; Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Tables 29 to 31 show the outcome of these tests.

Results of the Fornell-Larcker criteria for testing the discriminant validity of a first-order model are shown in Table 29. Evidently, the inter-construct correlations were lower than the square root of AVE (diagonal and italics) for all latent variables (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). It means that the first-order latent constructs have achieved discriminant validity.

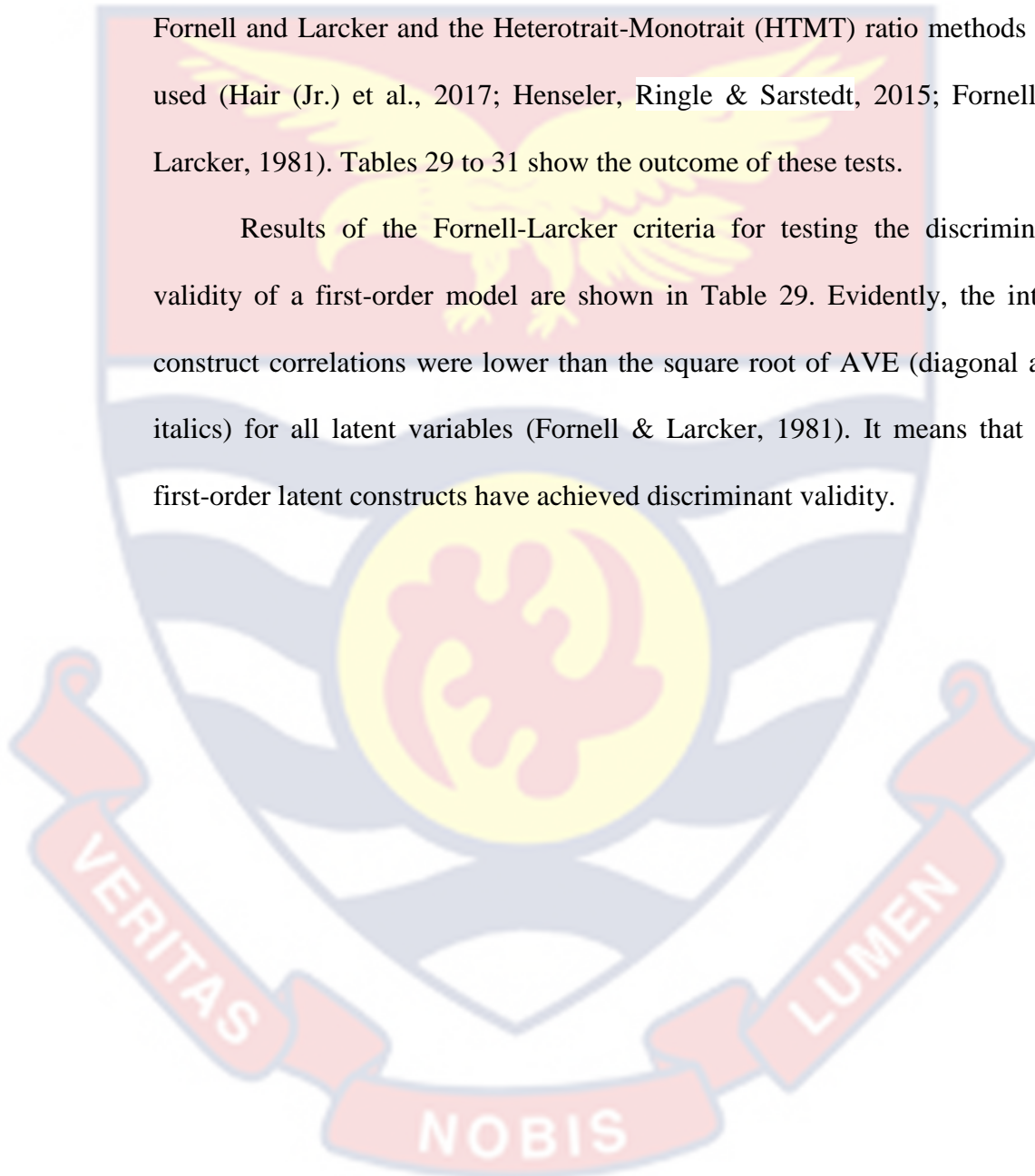


Table 29: Fornell-Larcker Criterion (1st Order Model)

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
LC_Inter	0.841													
LC_Intra	0.746	0.839												
LC_ST	0.706	0.660	0.798											
LC_WK	0.584	0.538	0.785	0.884										
LM_CM	-0.168	-0.082	-0.172	-0.084	0.836									
LM_IM	-0.127	-0.124	-0.070	0.010	0.632	0.837								
LM_SA	-0.083	0.050	-0.126	-0.139	0.470	0.366	0.897							
LM_SM	-0.199	-0.151	-0.197	-0.170	0.621	0.606	0.422	0.803						
LS	-0.262	-0.213	-0.132	-0.210	0.360	0.312	0.279	0.402	0.812					
. NS_BS	-0.171	-0.106	-0.129	-0.261	0.346	0.292	0.342	0.421	0.624	0.833				
. NS_CS	0.112	0.206	0.110	0.022	0.302	0.243	0.282	0.235	0.316	0.367	0.807			
. Neg_Eff	-0.076	-0.043	-0.038	-0.170	0.378	0.281	0.353	0.472	0.630	0.667	0.459	0.823		
. WO_EE	0.173	0.217	0.151	0.087	0.205	0.172	0.317	0.203	0.154	0.170	0.291	0.278	0.825	
. WO_JS	-0.034	-0.068	-0.083	-0.087	0.335	0.271	0.257	0.305	0.373	0.295	0.306	0.401	0.376	0.865

Source: Field survey, (2022)

Table 30: Fornell-Larcker Criterion (2nd Order Model)

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
LC	0.868							
LM	-0.185	0.797						
LS	-0.237	0.433	1.000					
NS_BS	-0.195	0.446	0.624	1.000				
NS_CS	0.126	0.321	0.316	0.367	1.000			
Neg_Eff	-0.097	0.481	0.630	0.667	0.459	1.000		
WO-EE	0.179	0.265	0.154	0.170	0.291	0.278	1.000	
WO-JS	-0.077	0.365	0.373	0.295	0.306	0.401	0.376	1.000

Source: Field survey, (2022)

LC - Leisure constraints; LM - Leisure motivation

Fornell-Larcker criterion results for establishing discriminant validity of the second-order model are shown in Table 30. The results showed that the square root of the AVE for all latent variables exceeded the inter-construct correlations (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). For the second-order model, this represents the actualization of discriminant validity.

Table 31: HTMT Criterion (1st Order Model)

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
LC_Inter														
LC_Intra	0.815													
LC_ST	0.763	0.720												
LC_WK	0.621	0.574	0.838											
LM_CM	0.178	0.090	0.186	0.092										
LM_IM	0.114	0.120	0.087	0.044	0.706									
LM_SA	0.102	0.072	0.126	0.148	0.540	0.426								
LM_SM	0.207	0.149	0.208	0.186	0.731	0.697	0.516							
LS	0.277	0.226	0.146	0.221	0.390	0.352	0.310	0.459						
NS_BS	0.186	0.116	0.144	0.291	0.398	0.331	0.393	0.516	0.690					
NS_CS	0.176	0.251	0.188	0.100	0.338	0.279	0.326	0.285	0.342	0.428				
Neg_Eff	0.087	0.074	0.096	0.182	0.417	0.329	0.398	0.554	0.669	0.754	0.516			
WO_EE	0.203	0.247	0.161	0.104	0.210	0.185	0.346	0.231	0.141	0.181	0.319	0.269		
WO_JS	0.063	0.077	0.090	0.097	0.384	0.318	0.308	0.346	0.398	0.338	0.349	0.443	0.435	

Source: Field survey, (2022)

To establish the discriminant validity of the constructs, the HTMT values which are reported in Table 32 should be less than 0.85. Obviously, all of the HTMT values are less than the theoretical maximum of 0.85 (HTMT_{0.85}). Thus, it has been shown that every construct in the first-order model is discriminantly valid (Saari, Damberg, Frömbling & Ringle, 2021; Hair et al., 2019; Henseler et al., 2015).

Table 32: HTMT Criterion (2nd Order Model)

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
LC								
LM	0.207							
LS	0.249	0.470						
NS_BS	0.204	0.486	0.624					
NS_CS	0.138	0.369	0.316	0.367				
Neg_Eff	0.100	0.515	0.630	0.667	0.459			
WO-EE	0.192	0.311	0.154	0.170	0.291	0.278		
WO-JS	0.083	0.405	0.373	0.295	0.306	0.401	0.376	

Source: Field survey, (2022)

Table 32 reports the HTMT values for the second order or final model. As presented, all the values were under the 0.85 threshold considered optimal. This proves that the final, second-order model has discriminant validity (Saari et al., 2021; Hair et al., 2019; Henseler et al., 2015).

Structural Model Assessment (Hypotheses Testing)

After establishing the reliability and validity of the first- and second-order measurement models, the structural model was tested to establish causality among the variables of interest and to verify the study's hypotheses. Each structural path was evaluated to see whether it was meaningful and progressing as expected (Ringle et al., 2020; Hair et al., 2019). The assessment includes the model's explanatory power, predictive relevance, fit (the SRMR),

and path coefficients with their respective significance levels. The results are shown in Tables 33, 34 and 35.

Table 33: Structural Model's Explanatory Power and Fit

Construct	R ²	Adjusted R ²	SRMR
LC	0.034	0.031	
LS	0.472	0.467	
NS_BS	0.038	0.035	
NS_CS	0.016	0.013	0.056
Neg_Eff	0.498	0.495	
WO-EE	0.024	0.021	
WO-JS	0.139	0.137	

Source: Field survey, (2022)

As shown in Table 33, the findings indicate that the model has a satisfactory fit since the SRMR was 0.056, which is below the 0.08 criterion (Hu & Bentler, 1998), allowing for the examination of the path relations. Besides, the statistics in Table 34 indicates that the structural model has a tolerable level of explanatory power (Hair et al., 2019; Usakli & Kucukergin, 2018). Precisely, the R² values show that the LM explained 3.4% of the variation in LC. LC accounted for only 3.8% and 1.6% variation in NS_BS and NS_CS, respectively. Both NS_BS and NS_CS explained 49.8% of the variance in Neg_Eff. A further 47.2% of LS variation was due to NS_BS, NS_CS and Neg_Eff. LS accounted for 13.9% and 2.4% of variation in WO-JS and WO-EE, respectively.

Table 34: Structural Model's Predictive Relevance

Constructs	SSO	SSE	Q ² (=1-SSE/SSO)
LC	1320.000	1289.613	0.023
LS	330.000	182.164	0.448
NS_BS	330.000	319.962	0.030
NS_CS	330.000	328.792	0.004
Neg_Eff	330.000	168.963	0.488
WO-EE	330.000	324.013	0.018
WO-JS	330.000	285.597	0.135

Source: Field survey, (2022)

All Q² values are larger than 0.0, indicating that the structural model has an appropriate degree of predictive relevance, as shown in Table 34 from the blindfolding technique (Hair et al., 2019; Usakli & Kucukergin, 2018). The model's Q² values are precisely 0.004 to 0.488, all of which are greater than 0.0. The PLS structural model, therefore, has small/weak to medium predictive significance (Hair et al., 2019; Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974).

All the VIF values are below 3 ranging from 1.000 to 1.990; this indicates that there are no multicollinearity concerns (Hair et al., 2019; Rosen & Hochwarter, 2014). (in Appendix B). The direct effects' results in Figure 4 revealed that LM had significant negative influence on LC ($\beta = -0.185$; $SE = 0.051$; $t = 3.603$; $p = 0.000$; $f^2 = 0.035$; CI [-0.268; -0.084]). Leisure motivation drives the formation of leisure preferences. However, as indicated by the Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints (Crawford et al. 1991), leisure preferences are intercepted by diverse leisure constraints which inhibit the fulfilment of leisure motives. Hence, as stipulated by the inverse relationship, an increase in leisure constraints reduces the possibility to satisfy the motives for leisure.

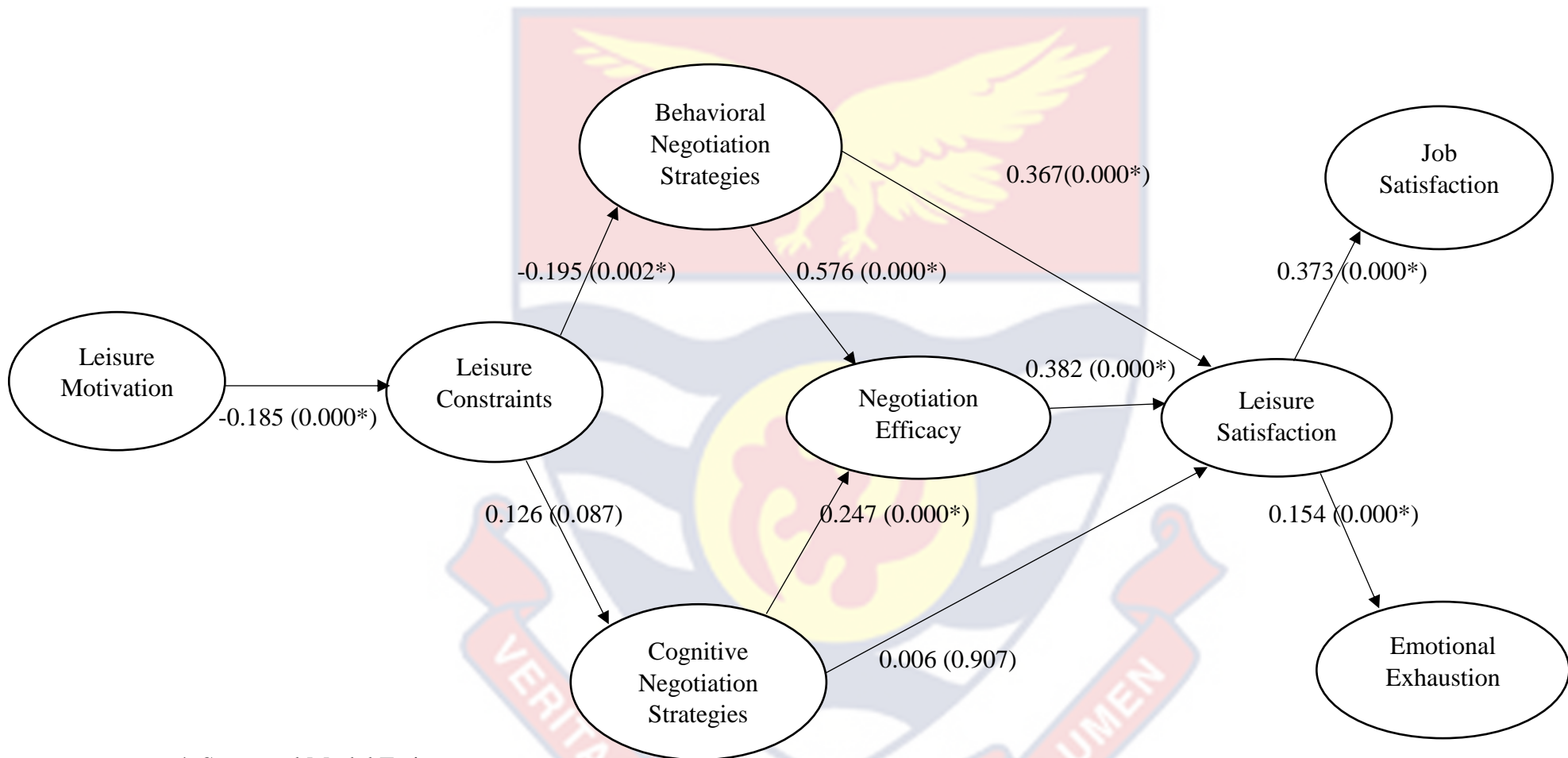


Figure 4: Structural Model Estimates
Source: Field survey, (2022)

Similarly, LC had significant negative influence on NS_BS ($\beta = -0.195$; $SE = 0.062$; $t = 3.165$; $p = 0.002$; $f^2 = 0.040$; CI [-0.296; -0.051]), but insignificant positive direct effect on NS_CS ($\beta = 0.126$; $SE = 0.074$; $t = 1.712$; $p = 0.087$; $f^2 = 0.013$; CI [-0.220; -0.036]). According to Hubbard and Mannell (2001), negotiation strategies are mainly applied in response to prevailing constraints. The constraints in the study are mainly work and interpersonal to which behaviour modification is required. However, the employees' leisure constraints also sought to restrict the choice and application of behavioural strategies by posing barriers.

Neg_Eff was significantly positively influenced by NS_BS ($\beta = 0.576$; $SE = 0.063$; $t = 9.110$; $p = 0.000$; $f^2 = 0.572$; CI [0.433; 0.688]) and NS_CS ($\beta = 0.247$; $SE = 0.062$; $t = 3.965$; $p = 0.000$; $f^2 = 0.106$; CI [0.133; 0.375]). This is in line with the Structural Model of Leisure Constraints Negotiation (White, 2008; Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007) which establishes a direct positive relationship between negotiation efficacy and negotiation strategies; when there is higher confidence, negotiation strategies are effectively applied. An effective application of constraints negotiation strategies leads to higher levels of participation which improves leisure satisfaction (Appendix B). In line with this, Neg_Eff significantly positively affected LS ($\beta = 0.382$; $SE = 0.080$; $t = 4.751$; $p = 0.000$; $f^2 = 0.139$; CI [0.221; 0.529]).

Also, LS was significantly positively influenced by NS_BS ($\beta = 0.367$; $SE = 0.084$; $t = 4.359$; $p = 0.000$; $f^2 = 0.140$; CI [0.212; 0.539]), but insignificantly positively affected by NS_CS ($\beta = 0.006$; $SE = 0.055$; $t = 0.116$; $p = 0.907$; $f^2 = 0.000$; CI [-0.092; 0.119]). Cognitive negotiation strategies had no relationship with leisure constraints as it was not deployed to

address leisure constraints. This consequently translated into a no effect on leisure satisfaction. Further, the effects of LS on WO-EE ($\beta = 0.154$; $SE = 0.066$; $t = 2.321$; $p = 0.020$; $f^2 = 0.024$; CI [0.022; 0.286]) and WO-JS ($\beta = 0.373$; $SE = 0.066$; $t = 5.615$; $p = 0.000$; $f^2 = 0.162$; CI [0.235; 0.495]) were found to be significantly positive.

The finding in relation to job satisfaction and work outcomes aligns with the compensation and instrumental theories of work and leisure (Snir & Harpaz, 2002). The compensation theory explains the complementary role where leisure reduces work strains and provides fun and other unmet needs that do not reside in work (Knecht et al., 2016). This increases and/or sustains employees' interest in their job as leisure provides the balance needed to function well on the job. Additionally, the instrumental theory is premised on the belief that activities of a domain result in excellent completion of activities in other domains (Guest, 2002).

Hence, a satisfying experience in leisure would ensure satisfaction with one's job, as both are mutually interdependent and inclusive. Relative to emotional exhaustion, the results imply that leisure satisfaction translates into a reduction in emotional exhaustion. This was expected as leisure is seen as a buffer to the work stress of employees (Suhartanto et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2015). This implied that satisfying leisure experiences had an impact on work outcomes. This signifies that leisure served as a tool for achieving fulfilment in another domain of life as stipulated by the utility theory (Suhartanto et al., 2019; Muzindutsi & Masango, 2015).

Choi et al. (2019) asserted that the application of negotiation strategies may not necessarily result in successful leisure participation. As such, crucial to adopting a negotiation strategy is the successful implementation of intended strategies (White, 2008; Scott, 1991). For the indirect effects, NS_CS ($\beta = 0.095$; $SE = 0.028$; $t = 3.343$; $p = 0.001$; CI [0.049; 0.161]), and NS_BS ($\beta = 0.220$; $SE = 0.058$; $t = 3.798$; $p = 0.000$; CI [0.113; 0.336]) emerged to have significant positive indirect effects on LS through Neg_Eff. Thus, Neg_Eff. mediated the influence of NS_CS and NS_BS on LS. This finding confirms the studies of Choi et al. (2019) and Scott (1991) who found negotiation efficacy to have a direct influence on negotiation strategies. Hence, confidence in one's ability to negotiate remains a prime factor in successful constraints negotiation (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001).

Chapter Summary

The chapter examines employees' leisure satisfaction and work outcomes of job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion of hotel employees. From the findings, employees were satisfied with their leisure and job while they were ambivalent on whether they were emotionally exhausted from their job. Further, the Chi-square analysis revealed no significant relationship between leisure activity type and work outcomes. Finally, the PLS-SEM analysis found significant relationship between all the paths except for two: leisure constraints and cognitive negotiation strategies as well as cognitive negotiation strategies and leisure satisfaction. The subsequent chapter concludes the thesis.

CHAPTER TEN

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This is the concluding chapter of the study. It presents a summary of the study's main findings, conclusions and recommendations as well as contributions to knowledge.

Summary

Leisure participation has attracted research attention across diverse segments of the population. A neglected segment, however, is hotel employees who have attracted little attention in spite of the unique nature of the job as well as its contribution to the growth and sustenance of the tourism and hospitality industry. This study sought to assess the leisure participation of hotel employees in Accra, to fill the imbalance in research. Specifically, this study sought to:

- Explore the leisure activity preferences of hotel employees in Accra;
- Explore leisure motivations of hotel employees in Accra;
- Analyse leisure constraints of hotel employees in Accra;
- Analyse leisure constraints negotiation strategies of hotel employees in Accra;
- Examine the leisure satisfaction of hotel employees in Accra; and
- Examine the effect of leisure satisfaction on the work outcomes of hotel employees in Accra.

The Conceptual Framework underpinning the study was based on the theories of motivation by Beard and Ragheb (1983), the hierarchical leisure constraints model by Crawford et al. (1991) and the leisure constraint negotiation concepts of Schneider and Stanis (2007). These models in addition to the border and utility theories formed the theoretical foundation of the study. The study was grounded in the positivist philosophy and adopted the cross-sectional design of research. A questionnaire was used to solicit data from 330 employees who were sampled from 15 hotels in Accra, using the convenience sampling technique. The questionnaire was pre-tested in the month of October 2021 while with the help of two field assistants, data were collected from the month of November 2021 to January 2022. The data were analysed using SPSS and PLS-SEM software while the statistical tools deployed were EFA, CFA, Independent Samples T-Test, ANOVA, Probit Regression and Structural Equation Modelling.

Major Findings

The leisure of hotel employees was largely sedentary with the main activities being watching TV, reading books, internet surfing, sleeping, playing video games and listening to music. The hotel environment and the profession of the respondents as leisure service providers did not influence the choice of leisure activity as these were common to related studies in another social context. Choice of leisure was, however, predicted by socio-demographic/work characteristics such as age, education, ethnicity, household size, income, department and hours at work.

Concerning the second objective, the leisure motivation of the hotel employees included all four identified by Beard and Ragheb (1983). The CFA

revealed that the main motivation was stimulus avoidance while the least was social motivation. Of the work characteristics, only hotels' star ratings influenced motives in leisure. Statistically, besides stimulus avoidance, the type of leisure motivations were not related to the type of leisure activity.

With regard to the third objective, the CFA revealed that employees encountered four forms of leisure constraints; work, interpersonal, intrapersonal and structural instead of the three propounded by the hierarchical leisure constraints model by Crawford et al. (1991). Of these, the main was generated by the hotel work characteristics such as long hours of work and working overtime. This was followed by interpersonal and intrapersonal constraints while the least was structural constraints. Variations existed in these constraints across some socio-demographic/work characteristics.

With constraints negotiation, employees deployed behavioural and cognitive strategies in resolving their constraints. The behavioural strategies mainly sought to resolve or minimize the effect of work constraints and thus were targeted at managing time and promoting interpersonal coordination as noted in Table 16. Also, the negotiation strategies were efficacious and thus minimized the impacts of the constraints. Some of the socio-demographic/work characteristics influenced the choice of constraint negotiation strategies as well as the perceptions of the efficacy of these strategies.

As far as the fourth and fifth objectives are concerned, employees were satisfied with their leisure experiences. The satisfying leisure experiences in turn were positively associated with job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion. Nonetheless, the type of leisure activity was not related to emotional

exhaustion and job satisfaction which signify a disconnection between leisure activity choice and work outcome.

With the conceptual framework, the findings show that no significant relationship existed between leisure constraints and cognitive negotiation strategies as well as between cognitive negotiation strategies and leisure satisfaction. Besides these, all the conceptual paths were significantly related. For this reason, the leisure participation framework provided a valuable guide in examining the leisure of hotel employees.

Conclusions

Based on the objectives and ensuing findings of the study, it is concluded that the hotel employees were inclined to passive leisure. The leisure activity preference was similar to those observed in similar studies in Ghana. The preferred activity was influenced by some socio-demographic/work characteristics.

Secondly, employees' leisure participation was initiated by multidimensional motives; namely stimulus avoidance, interpersonal, intrapersonal and social motivations. However, there was no significant relationship between the leisure activity preference and leisure motivations. Employees' leisure motivations were rather related to socio-demographic/work characteristics and not activity type.

Additionally, a fourth dimension of constraints was revealed in addition to the three proposed by the hierarchical leisure constraints model by Crawford et al. (1991). The study concludes that the constraints to employees' leisure stemmed from the characteristics of the hotel job and adversely impacted mainly the time available to engage in leisure. Also, the work

constraints were combined with interpersonal, intrapersonal and structural constraints; owing to this, the employees encountered varied leisure constraints. The variation was mainly influenced by some socio-demographic/work characteristics.

Further, employees deployed behavioural, rather than cognitive strategies to negotiate the constraints in leisure. The behaviours were mainly to manage the time constraint imposed by the hotel job. It was also noted from the study that the chosen behavioural and cognitive strategies were efficacious.

Finally, employees were satisfied with their leisure experiences and chosen activities. The satisfying experience had positive effects on work outcomes, emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Conclusively, there was a segmentation between the chosen type of leisure activity and work outcomes.

Recommendations for Policy and Practice

Based on the main findings and conclusions drawn from the study, the following recommendations for policy and practice are made to enhance the leisure participation of hotel employees in Accra and across Ghana.

Drawing from the fact that the leisure preferences of hotel employees are mainly passive, this study recommends that the GTA, Ministry of Health and the District Assemblies should take up the campaign of educating and encouraging participation in active leisure. This is because the prolonged adoption of passive leisure behaviour, especially in adults such as hotel employees, has been found to contribute to deleterious health. Hence participating in active leisure has become paramount, in line with the need to

modify behaviour towards healthier options. With consistent sensitization campaigns, hotel employees and Ghanaians as a whole would tilt leisure preference to active leisure in order to accrue the inherent health and other benefits.

The study revealed no relationship between leisure motivation and type of activity. This could, in the long term, translate into a loss of desire to use existing facilities as they do not commensurate with the motive driving participation. As such, the town planning division of the district assemblies, example AMA should conduct consumer research to ascertain the leisure drivers of employees and Ghanaians as well as facilities and resources that could meet these needs. This would ensure a match between leisure motives and facilities which may result in consistent and continuous use of leisure facilities and services.

Also, given the fact that the leisure constraints were mainly work-related, the management of hotels and the hotelier association should devise and implement policies that seek to reduce the job's inflexibility which conflicts with the leisure of its employees. The quest to facilitate smooth co-existence between work and leisure should be initiated by these stakeholders and backed by policy. Management strategies could include designing suitable and reasonable working hours, permitting free time to compensate for working extra hours and releasing control over annual leave to empower employees to decide when and how to use this time. These initiatives would go a long way to augment the behavioural efforts of employees to negotiate work constraints.

Also, the role of interpersonal constraints as found in the study underscores the need for leisure support. Management of the hotels and the

employees' association can promote the formation of clubs whose membership is restricted to the employees, e.g., Golden Tulip employees' tennis club. This would ensure that the employees segregate into groups based on similar leisure interests which, in turn would provide an opportunity for and an assurance of leisure support among co-workers. This would support the behavioural negotiation strategies of the employees.

Additionally, given that leisure satisfaction positively correlates with employees' job satisfaction, it is recommended that management of the hotels through the earlier mentioned strategies should support their employees' leisure participation in order to sustain the positive spill-over on the job satisfaction and reduced emotional exhaustion. This is of essence as the satisfied employees would in reciprocation exhibit positive behaviours that contributes to the growth and sustenance of the hotels. Finally, management could influence activity choice by offering subsidized incentive packages that would allow employees to spend their leisure in the hotel environment or form activity-tailored clubs which could reduce the gap between activity choice and work outcomes.

Recommendations for Future Research

From the findings the following recommendations are made for future research.

The study's concentration on a unique segment of the population revealed the existence of the fourth dimension to leisure constraints. This is a pointer to the existence of inherent leisure constraints and other features confined to other unexplored segments. As such, instead of focusing on the broader unit of inquiry, future studies should be narrowed to specific units

based on the same employment features and age, among others. Also, a similar study should be extended to other employee categories, such as tour guides, in the leisure industry to explore pertinent issues affecting the leisure service provider. This may unfold relevant solutions needed to inform practice and policy.

Also, the study revealed variation in ethnicity with regard to all the key concepts examined. This highlights the cultural embeddedness of leisure participation. However, there is a dearth of knowledge on leisure behaviour among the ethnic groups in Ghana. This grey area needs to be explored to unearth leisure in the Ghanaian ethnic context.

Additionally, the self-constructed model of leisure participation was valuable in studying the leisure of hotel employees. However, since this was its first usage, it needs to be validated in other studies to become a reliable model in leisure-related discourse. Finally, it would also be crucial to adopt a qualitative approach in exploring the leisure of hotel employees. This would augment the quantitative findings and expand an understanding of the issue.

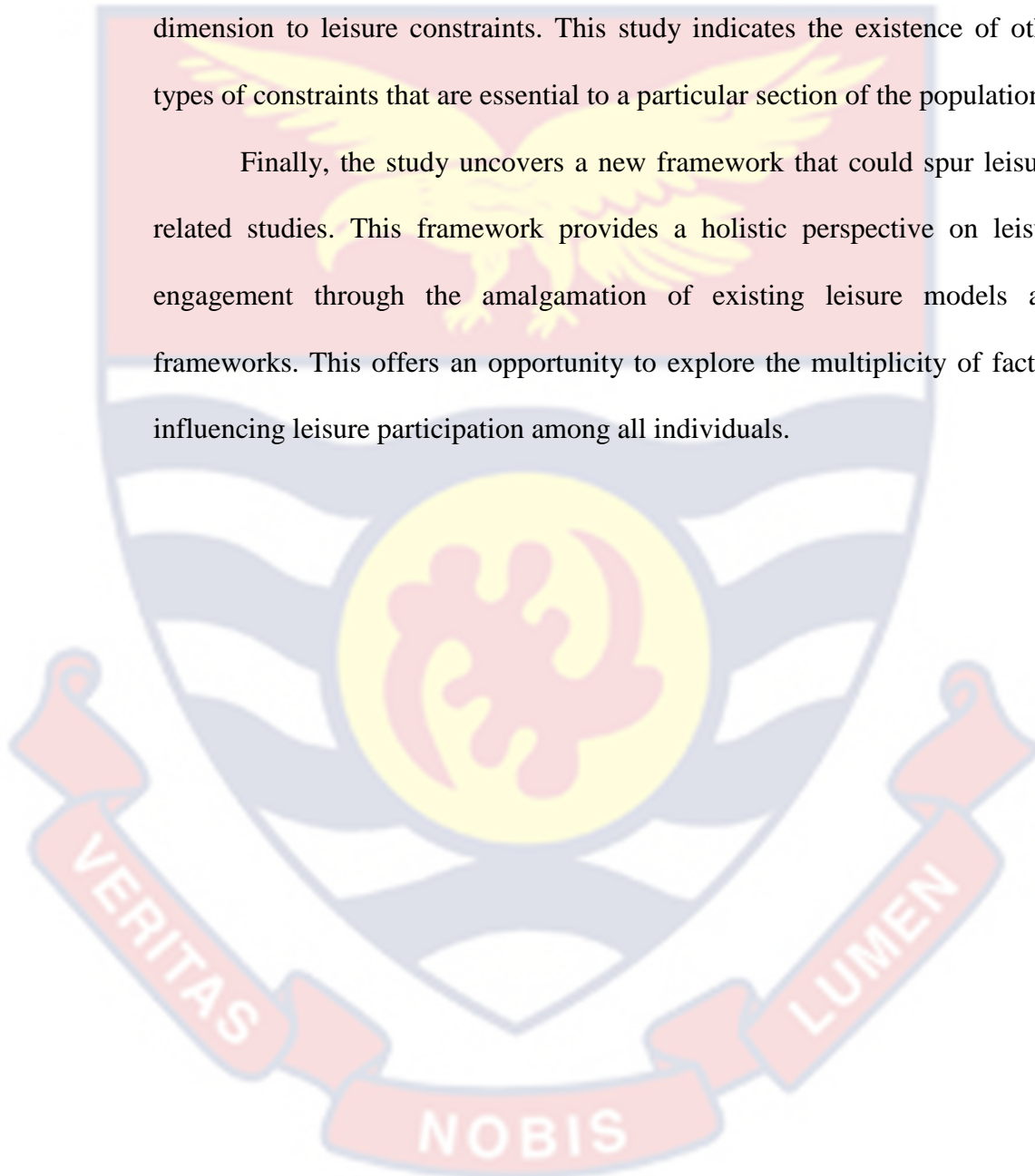
Contributions to Knowledge

This study adopted a more fixated perspective in assessing leisure participation within the Ghanaian context. It explored the leisure of a leisure service provider; hotel employees, a segment that has been neglected in the existing literature. This study revealed that the service provider is also an important consumer of the leisure services and products that they offer. This study also established a link between leisure and work outcomes which hitherto was non-existent, especially in the Ghanaian context. This study thus filled a gap in the literature by providing empirical evidence on the leisure of

hotel employees as well as the relationship between leisure and work outcomes.

Secondly, the exploration of the hierarchical leisure constraints model by Crawford et al. (1991) among employees, led to the emergence of a new dimension to leisure constraints. This study indicates the existence of other types of constraints that are essential to a particular section of the population.

Finally, the study uncovers a new framework that could spur leisure-related studies. This framework provides a holistic perspective on leisure engagement through the amalgamation of existing leisure models and frameworks. This offers an opportunity to explore the multiplicity of factors influencing leisure participation among all individuals.



BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abiyev, R. H., Saner, T., Eyupoglu, S., & Sadikoglu, G. (2016). Measurement of job satisfaction using fuzzy sets. *Procedia Computer Science*, 102, 294-301.
- Adam, I. (2019). Digital leisure engagement and concerns among inbound tourists in Ghana. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, 26, 13-22.
- Adam, I. (2017). Leisure aspirations of people with visual impairment in the Kumasi Metropolis, Ghana. *Annals of Leisure Research*, 1-17.
- Adam, I. (2014). Gendered perspectives of leisure patterns and constraints of university students in Ghana. *Leisure*, 38(2), 181-198.
- Adam, I., Boakye, K. A., & Kumi-Kyereme, A. (2017). Are we our own enemies? Leisure constraints of physically and visually disabled people in Ghana. *World Leisure Journal*, 59(4), 272-293.
- Adam, I., Hiamey, E. S., & Afenyo, A. E. (2015). Leisure constraints in the university setting in Ghana. *Annals of Leisure Research*, 18(1), 145-158.
- Adam, I., Kumi-Kyereme, A., & Boakye, K. A. (2017). Leisure motivation of people with physical and visual disabilities in Ghana. *Leisure Studies*, 36(3), 315-328.
- Ahmad, R., Rashid, B., & Zainol, N. A. (2015). Career performance of Muslim female bachelor of hospitality management graduates. *Academic Research International*, 6(3), 75-85.

Aizan, M. A., Ahmad, R., & Rahman, R. A. (2020). Is career in the hospitality industry suitable for the Muslim student in community college. *International Journal of Scientific and Technical Research in Engineering*, 5(2), 1-7.

Akyeampong, E. (2020). Highlife music, hiplife, and leisure in Ghana. *African Studies Review*, 63(2), 436-440.

Al-Balushi, M. (2018). Issues Affecting Omanization of the Hotel Sector. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Management*, 6(2), 164-177.

Albayrak, T., & Caber, M. (2018). Examining the relationship between tourist motivation and satisfaction by two competing methods. *Tourism Management*, 69, 201-213.

Alexandris, K., & Carroll, B. (1997). An analysis of leisure constraints based on different recreational sport participation levels: Results from a study in Greece. *Leisure Sciences*, 19(1), 1-15.

Alexandris, K., Du, J., Funk, D., & Theodorakis, N. D. (2017). Leisure constraints and the psychological continuum model: a study among recreational mountain skiers. *Leisure Studies*, 36(5), 670-683.

Altintas, E., Guerrien, A., Vivicorsi, B., Clément, E., & Vallerand, R. J. (2018). Leisure activities and motivational profiles in adaptation to nursing homes. *Canadian Journal on Aging/La Revue Canadienne du Vieillissement*, 37(3), 333-344.

Alvino, F., Di Vaio, A., Hassan, R., & Palladino, R. (2020). Intellectual capital and sustainable development: A systematic literature review. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 22(1), 76-94.

- American Occupational Therapy Association. (2014). Occupational therapy practice framework: Domain and process (3rd ed.). *The American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 68(Suppl. 1), 1-48.
- Amissah, E. F., Gamor, E., Deri, M. N., & Amissah, A. (2016). Factors influencing employee job satisfaction in Ghana's hotel industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 15(2), 166-183.
- Ampofo, E. T. (2020). Mediation effects of job satisfaction and work engagement on the relationship between organisational embeddedness and affective commitment among frontline employees of star-rated hotels in Accra. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 44, 253-262.
- Ampofo, E. T., Owusu-Ansah, W., & Owusu, J. (2021). Organizational embeddedness and life satisfaction among star-rated hotel employees in Accra: The role of perceptions of organizational politics and job satisfaction. *Anatolia*, 1-15.
- Amuquandoh, F. (2018). *Integrate leisure into development plans*. Retrieved May 2021, from <https://sgs.ucc.edu.gh>.
- Anaza, E. (2017). Benefits derived from recreation and sport leisure that motivate participation. *AFRREV IJAH: An International Journal of Arts and Humanities*, 6(3), 51-64.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: a review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103(3), 411-423.

- Andrade, R. D., Junior, G. J. F., Capistrano, R., Beltrame, T. S., Pelegrini, A., Crawford, D. W., & Gomes Felden, É. P. (2019). Constraints to leisure-time physical activity among Brazilian workers. *Annals of Leisure Research*, 22(2), 202-214.
- Andronikidis, A., Vassiliadis, C. A., Priporas, C., & Kamenidou, I. (2007). Examining leisure constraints for ski centre visitors: implications for services marketing. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 15(4), 69-86.
- Appaw-Agbola, E. T., Mensah, C., Azila-Gbettor, E. M., & Abiemo, M. K. (2021). Justice perceptions and job outcomes among family-owned hotel workers in Accra, Ghana. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 22(1), 82-108.
- Ashforth, B. E., Kreiner, G. E., & Fugate, M. (2000). All in a day's work: Boundaries and micro role transitions. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(3), 472-491.
- Ateca-Amestoy, V., Serrano-del-Rosal, R., & Vera-Toscano, E. (2004). *The leisure experience: me and the others* (No. 0418). Institute for Social Studies of Andalusia-Higher Council for Scientific Research.
- Ayhan, C., Ekinci, N. E., Yalçın, İ., & Yiğit, Ş. (2018). Investigation of constraints that occur during participation in leisure activities by high school students: A sample of Turkey. *Education Sciences*, 8(2), 86-94.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (2012). Specification, evaluation, and interpretation of structural equation models. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 40(1), 8-34.

- Bakker, W., & Karsten, L. (2013). Balancing paid work, care and leisure in post-separation households: A comparison of single parents with co-parents. *Acta sociologica*, 56(2), 173-187.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Macmillan.
- Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of human behavior* (Vol. 4, pp. 71-81). New York: Academic Press. (Reprinted in H. Friedman [Ed.], *Encyclopedia of mental health*. San Diego: Academic Press, 1998).
- Barnett, D. (2017). Leadership and job satisfaction: Adjunct faculty at a for-profit university. *International Journal of Psychology and Educational Studies*, 4(3), 53-63.
- Beard, J. G., & Ragheb, M. G. (1983). Measuring leisure motivation. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 15(3), 219-228.
- Beard, J. G., & Ragheb, M. G. (1980). Measuring leisure satisfaction. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 12(1), 20-33.
- Beaton, A. A., & Funk, D. C. (2008). An evaluation of theoretical frameworks for studying physically active leisure. *Leisure Sciences*, 30(1), 53-70.
- Beatty, J. E., & Torbert, W. R. (2003). The false duality of work and leisure. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 12(3), 239-252.
- Becker, G. S. (1965). A Theory of the Allocation of Time. *The Economic Journal*, 75(299), 493-517.
- Beggs, B., Kleparski, T., Elkins, D., & Hurd, A. (2014). Leisure motivation of older adults in relation to other adult life stages. *Activities, Adaptation & Aging*, 38(3), 175-187.

- Beggs, B., Nicholson, L., Elkins, D., & Dunleavy, S. (2014). Motivation for participation in campus recreation based on activity type. *Recreational Sports Journal*, 38(2), 163-174.
- Beggs, B. A., Stitt, J. E., & Elkins, D. J. (2004). Leisure motivation of participants and nonparticipants in campus recreational sports programs. *Recreational Sports Journal*, 28(1), 65-77.
- Bentham, J. (1948). *An introduction to the principles of morals and legislation*. New York: Hafner.
- Best, S. (2010). *Leisure studies: Themes and perspectives*. London: Sage.
- Blank, C., Leichtfried, V., Schobersberger, W., & Möller, C. (2015). Does leisure time negatively affect personal health?, *World Leisure Journal*, 57(2), 152-157.
- Boon, B. (2006). When leisure and work are allies: The case of skiers and tourist resort hotels. *Career Development International*, 11(7), 594-608.
- Boo, S., Carruthers, C. P., & Busser, J. A. (2014). The constraints experienced and negotiation strategies attempted by nonparticipants of a festival event. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 31(2), 269-285.
- Brett, J. (2017). Intercultural challenges in managing workplace conflict—a call for research. *Cross Cultural & Strategic Management*, 25(1), 32-52.
- Brown, K., Bradley, L., Lingard, H., Townsend, K., & Ling, S. (2011). Labouring for leisure? Achieving work-life balance through compressed working weeks. *Annals of Leisure Research*, 14(1), 43-59.
- Bryman, A. (2006). Integrating quantitative and qualitative research: How is it done?. *Qualitative Research*, 6(1), 97-113.

- Cardenas, D., Henderson, K. A., & Wilson, B. E. (2009). Physical activity and senior games participation: Benefits, constraints, and behaviors. *Journal of Aging and Physical Activity, 17*(2), 135-153.
- Carrasco, R., & Ejrnaes, M. (2012). Labor market conditions and self-employment: A Denmark-Spain comparison. *ZA Journal of Labor Policy, 1*(13), 1-16.
- Casper, J. M., Bocarro, J. N., Kanters, M. A., & Floyd, M. F. (2011). Measurement properties of constraints to sport participation: A psychometric examination with adolescents. *Leisure Sciences, 33*(2), 127-146.
- Casper, J. M., & Harrolle, M. G. (2013). Perceptions of constraints to leisure time physical activity among Latinos in Wake County, North Carolina. *American Journal of Health Promotion, 27*(3), 139-142.
- Celen-Demirtas, S., Konstam, V., & Tomek, S. (2015). Leisure activities in unemployed emerging adults: Links to career adaptability and subjective well-being. *The Career Development Quarterly, 63*(3), 209-222.
- Celik, G., Tercan, E., & Yerlisu-Lapa, T. (2014). Leisure constraints and leisure satisfaction in the recreational activities of employees with disabilities. *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation, 36*(2), 33-46.
- Chen, K. Y., Chang, C. W., & Wang, C. H. (2019). Frontline employees' passion and emotional exhaustion: The mediating role of emotional labor strategies. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 76*, 163-172.

- Chen, M., & Pang, X. (2012). Leisure motivation: An integrative review. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 40(7), 1075-1081.
- Chen, M., Xue, S., & Shi, Y. (2018). Leisure activities and leisure motivations of Chinese residents. *PloS one*, 13(11), 1-12.
- Chick, G., & Dong, E. (2003). Possibility of refining the hierarchical model of leisure constraints through cross-cultural research. *Proceedings of the 2003 North American Recreation Research Symposium, GTR-NE-317*, 338-344.
- Chick, G., Hsu, Y. C., Yeh, C. K., Hsieh, C. M., Bae, S. Y., & Iarmolenko, S. (2016). Cultural consonance in leisure, leisure satisfaction, life satisfaction, and self-rated health in urban Taiwan. *Leisure Sciences*, 38(5), 402-423.
- Chen, Y. C., Li, R. H., & Chen, S. H. (2013). Relationships among adolescents' leisure motivation, leisure involvement, and leisure satisfaction: A structural equation model. *Social indicators research*, 110(3), 1187-1199.
- Cheng, E., Stebbins, R., & Packer, J. (2017). Serious leisure among older gardeners in Australia. *Leisure Studies*, 36(4), 505-518.
- Cho, D., & Price, T. (2016). Examining the leisure constraints affecting international collegiate students' participation in intramural sport programs. *International Journal of Sport Management, Recreation, & Tourism*, 24, 22-41.

- Choi, S. H., & Fu, X. (2015). Re-Examining the dimensionality of leisure motivation and leisure satisfaction in a multicultural context: Evidence from Macau. *Humanities & Social Sciences Reviews*, 3(1), 6-10.
- Choi, S-H., & Yoo, Y-J. (2017). Leisure attitude and satisfaction with leisure and life: Proposing leisure prioritization and justification. *World Leisure Journal*, 59(2), 140-155.
- Choi, C., Yoo, S. W., Park, J., & Greenwell, T. C. (2020). Virtual reality and consumer behavior: constraints, negotiation, negotiation-efficacy, and participation in virtual golf. *Physical Culture and Sport. Studies and Research*, 88(1), 1-10.
- Chow, H. W., & Dong, Y. H. (2013). Relationship between participation in leisure activities and constraints on Taiwanese breastfeeding mothers during leisure activities. *BMC Public Health*, 13(1), 1-12.
- Christin, A. (2012). Gender and highbrow cultural participation in the United States. *Poetics*, 40(5), 423-443.
- Chung, J. Y., Baik, H. J., & Lee, C. K. (2017). The role of perceived behavioural control in the constraint-negotiation process: The case of solo travel. *Leisure Studies*, 36(4), 481-492.
- Clark, S. C. (2000). Work/family border theory: A new theory of work/family balance. *Human Relations*, 53(6), 747-770.
- Crandall, R. (1980). Motivations for leisure. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 12(1), 45-54.
- Crawford, D. W., Jackson, E. L., & Godbey, G. (1991). A hierarchical model of leisure constraints. *Leisure Sciences*, 13, 309-320.

- Crawford, D. W., & Godbey, G. (1987). Reconceptualizing barriers to family leisure. *Leisure Sciences*, 9(2), 119-127.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *An introduction to mixed methods research*. Lincoln, Nebraska, USA: University of Nebraska.
- Creswell, J. W. (2005). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative approaches to research* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Pearson Education.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6(4), 408-424.
- Cropanzano, R., Rupp, D. E., & Byrne, Z. S. (2003). The relationship of emotional exhaustion to work attitudes, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(1), 160.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M., & LeFevre, J. (1989). Optimal experience in work and leisure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 56(5), 815-822.
- Dann, G. (1977). Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 4(4), 184-194.
- de Bruyn, E. H., & Cillessen, A. H. (2008). Leisure activity preferences and perceived popularity in early adolescence. *Journal of Leisure research*, 40(3), 442.
- De Hauw, S., & Greenhaus, J. H. (2015). *Building a sustainable career: The role of work-home balance in career decision making*. In *Handbook of research on sustainable careers*. UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.

- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985) *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behavior*. New York: Plenum.
- Deelen, I., Ettema, D., & Dijst, M. (2016). Too busy or too far away? The importance of subjective constraints and spatial factors for sports frequency. *Managing Sport and Leisure*, 21(4), 239-264.
- Deffner A. (2002). *Leisure planning (tourism-culture-sport)*. Volos, Greek: University Lectures University of Thessaly Publications.
- Demirel, D. H., Demirel, M., & Serdar, E. (2017). University students' opinions of the meaning of leisure and their perceived freedom in leisure. *Journal of Human Sciences*, 14(1), 796-802.
- Dillard, J. E., & Bates, D. L. (2011). Leisure motivation revisited: why people recreate. *Managing Leisure*, 16(4), 253-268.
- Dong, E., & Chick, G. (2012). Leisure constraints in six Chinese cities. *Leisure Sciences*, 34(5), 417-435.
- Downward, P., & Dawson, P. (2016). Is it pleasure or health from leisure that we benefit from most? An analysis of well-being alternatives and implications for policy. *Social Indicators Research*, 126(1), 443-465.
- du Gay, P. (1996). *Consumption and identity at work*. London: Sage.
- Dubin, R. (1956). Industrial workers' worlds: A study of the "central life interests" of industrial workers. *Social Problems*, 3(3), 131-142.
- Dumazedier, J. (1974). *Sociology of leisure*. New York: Elsevier.
- Durko, A. M., Stone, M. J., & Petrick, J. F. (2014, June). Even lovers need a holiday: Toward an understanding of women travelling without their partners. *Paper presented at the 45th Travel and Tourism Research Association Annual Conference, Brugge, Belgium*.

- Elkins, D. J., Beggs, B. A., & Choutka, E. (2007). The contribution of constraint negotiation to the leisure satisfaction of college students in campus recreational sports. *Recreational Sports Journal*, 31(2), 107-118.
- Nasifoglu Elidemir, S. N., Ozturen, A., & Bayighomog, S. W. (2020). Innovative behaviors, employee creativity, and sustainable competitive advantage: A moderated mediation. *Sustainability*, 12(8), 3295.
- Emira, M., & Thompson, D. (2011). In the quest for their trust: the perceptions of families on accessing leisure services for disabled children. *Leisure Studies*, 30(1), 33-48.
- Evans, K., & Gagnon, R. J. (2019). A structural model exploring gender differences in perceived constraints to competition climbing. *Annals of Leisure Research*, 22(4), 444-462.
- Fishburn, P. C. (1968). Utility theory. *Management Science*, 14(5), 335-378.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39-50.
- Francken, D. A., & Van Raaij, W. F. (1981). Satisfaction with leisure time activities. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 13(4), 337-352.
- Fritz, C., & Sonnentag, S. (2005). Recovery, health, and job performance: Effects of weekend experiences. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 10, 187-199.
- Gamor, E., Amissah, E. F., Amissah, A., & Nartey, E. (2018). Factors of work-family conflict in the hospitality industry in Ghana. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 17(4), 482-501.

- Gamor, E., Amissah, E. F., & Boakye, K. A. (2014). Work-family conflict among hotel employees in Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis, Ghana. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 12, 1–8.
- Gao, M., Chen, C-C., Huang, Y-C., & Lin, Y-H. (2019). Work and leisure in Taiwan: examining the antecedents and consequences of work-leisure conflicts. *Leisure Studies*, 38(1), 128-143.
- Gao, J., & Kerstetter, D. L. (2016). Using an intersectionality perspective to uncover older Chinese female's perceived travel constraints and negotiation strategies. *Tourism Management*, 57, 128-138.
- Geisser, S. (1974). A predictive approach to the random effect model. *Biometrika*, 61(1), 101-107.
- Ghana Statistical Service. (2021). *Ghana 2021 Population and Housing Census*. Retrieved January 2022, from [http://www. statsghana.gov.gh](http://www.statsghana.gov.gh).
- Ghana Tourism Authority. (2018). *Catering and hotel directory*. Accra: GTA.
- Ghana Tourism Authority. (2016). *Manpower survey*. Accra: GTA.
- Ghimire, R., Green, G. T., Poudyal, N. C., & Cordell, H. K. (2014). An analysis of perceived constraints to outdoor recreation. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 32(4), 52-67.
- Godbey, G., Crawford, D. W., & Shen, X. S. (2010). Assessing hierarchical leisure constraints theory after two decades. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 42(1), 111-134.
- Godbey, G., & Robinson, J. (1997). The increasing prospects of leisure. *Parks & Recreation*, 32(6), 74-82.

- González-González, T., & García-Almeida, D. J. (2021). Frontline employee-driven innovation through suggestions in hospitality firms: The role of the employee's creativity, knowledge, and motivation. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 94, 102877.
- Gracia, P., & Kalmijn, M. (2016). Parents' family time and work schedules: The split-shift schedule in Spain. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 78(2), 401–415.
- Grandey, A. A. (2003). When “the show must go on”: Surface acting and deep acting as determinants of emotional exhaustion and peer-rated service delivery. *Academy of Management Journal*, 46(1), 86-96.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, 10(1), 76-88.
- Griffiths, M. D. (2010). Trends in technological advance: Implications for sedentary behaviour and obesity in screenagers. *Education and Health*, 28(2), 35-38.
- Grobelna, A. (2021). Emotional exhaustion and its consequences for hotel service quality: the critical role of workload and supervisor support. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 30(4), 395-418.
- Guerrier, Y., & Adib, A. (2003). Work at leisure and leisure at work: A study of the emotional labour of tour reps. *Human Relations*, 56(11), 1399-1417.
- Guest, D. E. (2002). Perspectives on the study of work-life balance. *Social Science Information*, 41(2), 255-279.

- Gürbüz, B., & Henderson, K. A. (2014). Leisure activity preferences and constraints: Perspectives from Turkey. *World Leisure Journal*, 56(4), 300-316.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, A., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *RE and Tatham, RL (2006), multivariate data analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Hair Jr, J. F., Matthews, L. M., Matthews, R. L., & Sarstedt, M. (2017a). PLS-SEM or CB-SEM: updated guidelines on which method to use. *International Journal of Multivariate Data Analysis*, 1(2), 107-123.
- Hair, J. F., Risher, J. J., Sarstedt, M., & Ringle, C. M. (2019). When to use and how to report the results of PLS-SEM. *European Business Review*, 31(1), 2-24.
- Harrolle, M. G., Floyd, M. F., Casper, J. M., Kelley, K. E., & Bruton, C. M. (2013). Physical activity constraints among Latinos: Identifying clusters and acculturation differences. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 45(1), 74-90.
- He, L., Li, X., Harrill, R., & Cardon, P. W. (2014). Examining Japanese tourists' US-bound travel constraints. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 17(8), 705-722.
- Hebblethwaite, S., & Norris, J. (2011). Expressions of generativity through family leisure: Experiences of grandparents and adult grandchildren. *Family Relations*, 60(1), 121-133.
- Heimerl, P., Haid, M., Benedikt, L., & Scholl-Grissemann, U. (2020). Factors influencing job satisfaction in hospitality industry. *SAGE Open*, 10(4), 1-12.

- Heine, S. J., Proulx, T., & Vohs, K. D. (2006). The meaning maintenance model: On the coherence of social motivations. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 10*(2), 88-110.
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 43*(1), 115-135.
- Heintzman, P., & Mannell, R. C. (2003). Spiritual functions of leisure and spiritual well-being: Coping with time pressure. *Leisure Sciences, 25*(2-3), 207-230.
- Hilbrecht, M. (2007). Changing perspectives on the work–leisure relationship. *Annals of Leisure Research, 10*(3-4), 368-390.
- Hills, J. M. M. (1965). *The holiday: A study of social and psychological aspects with special reference to Ireland*. London: The Tavistock Institute of Human Relations.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (2014). *Stress, social support and women*. London: Routledge.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (2002). Social and psychological resources and adaptation. *Review of General Psychology, 6*, 307-324.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist, 44*(3), 513-524.
- Hoden, M. (2010). *Constraints to participation in an outdoor orientation program*. USA: West Virginia University.
- Hodge, C., Bocarro, N. J., Henderson, A. K., Zabriskie, R., Parcel, L. T., & Kanters, A. M. (2015). Family Leisure: An Integrative Review of Research from Select Journals. *Journal of Leisure, 47*(5), 577-600.

- Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1998). Fit indices in covariance structure modeling: Sensitivity to underparameterized model misspecification. *Psychological Methods, 3*(4), 424-453.
- Hudson, S., & Gilbert, D. (2000). Tourism constraints: The neglected dimension in consumer behaviour research. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 8*(4), 69-78.
- Hung, K., Bai, X., & Lu, J. (2016). Understanding travel constraints among the elderly in Hong Kong: A comparative study of the elderly living in private and in public housing. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 33*(7), 1051-1070.
- Hsieh, C. M. (1998). *Leisure attitudes, motivation, participation, and satisfaction: Test of model of leisure behavior*. Doctoral dissertation, Bloomington: Indiana University.
- Hubbard, J., & Mannell, R. C. (2001). Testing competing models of the leisure constraint negotiation process in a corporate employee recreation setting. *Leisure Sciences, 23*(3), 145-163.
- Hwa, M. A. C. (2012). Emotional labor and emotional exhaustion: does co-worker support matter? *Journal of Management Research, 12*(3), 115-127.
- Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1999). Motivational foundations of leisure. In E. L. Jackson & T. L. Burton (Eds.), *Leisure studies: Prospects for the twenty-first century* (pp. 35-51). State College, PA: Venture Publishing.
- Iso-Ahola, S. (1989). Motivation for leisure. In E. Jackson & T. Burton (Eds.), *Understanding leisure and recreation: mapping the past, charting the future* (pp. 247-280). State College, PA: Venture Publishing.

- Iso-Ahola, S. E., & Allen, J. R. (1982). The dynamics of leisure motivation: The effects of outcome on leisure needs. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 53(2), 141-149.
- Iso-Ahola, S. E., & Wessinger, E. (1984). Leisure and well-being: Is there a connection? *Parks and Recreation*, 19(6), 40-44.
- Ito, E., Kono, S., & Walker, G. J. (2020). Development of cross-culturally informed leisure-time physical activity constraint and constraint negotiation typologies: The case of Japanese and Euro-Canadian adults. *Leisure Sciences*, 42(5-6), 411-429.
- Jackson, E. L. (2000). Will research on leisure constraints still be relevant in the twenty-first century?. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 32(1), 62-68.
- Jackson, E. L. (1994). Geographical aspects of constraints on leisure and recreation. *Canadian Geographer*, 38(2), 110-121.
- Jackson, E. L. (1988). Leisure constraints: A survey of past research. *Leisure Sciences*, 10(3), 203-215.
- Jackson, E. L., Crawford, D. W., & Godbey, G. (1993). Negotiation of leisure constraints. *Leisure Sciences*, 15(1), 1-11.
- Jackson, E. L., & Rucks, V. C. (1995). Negotiation of leisure constraints by junior-high and high-school students: An exploratory study. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 27(1), 85-105.
- Jacobs, A. J., & Gerson, K. (2001). Overworked individuals or overworked families?: Explaining trends in work, leisure, and family time. *Work and Occupations*, 28(1), 40-63.

- Joudrey, A. D., & Wallace, J. E. (2009). Leisure as a coping resource: A test of the job demand-control-support model. *Human Relations*, 62(2), 195-217.
- Jun, J., & Kyle, G. T. (2012). Gender identity, leisure identity, and leisure participation. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 44(3), 353-378.
- Jun, J., Kyle, G., & O'leary, J. (2008). Constraints to art museum attendance. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 26(1), 40-61.
- Juster, F. T. (1990). Rethinking utility theory. *The Journal of Behavioral Economics*, 19, 155-179.
- Kabanoff, B. (1982). Occupational and sex differences in leisure needs and leisure satisfaction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 3(3), 233-245.
- Kahn, R. L., & Byosiore, P. (1992). Stress in organizations. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 571–650). Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Kaimakamis, D., Mitatou, O., & Mpalaska, P. (2013). Consumer behavior suspects of snowboarding in Greece: an examination of participants' motives, constraints and attachment to the skiing resort. *Stud. Phys. Cult. Tour.* 20(1), 41–46.
- Kando, T. M., & Summers, W. C. (1971). The impact of work on leisure: Toward a paradigm and research strategy. *Pacific Sociological Review*, 14(3), 310-327.
- Kanters, M. A., & Forester, S. (1997). The motivations and self-esteem of intramural sports participants. *Recreational Sports Journal*, 21(3), 3-7.

Kaplan, M. (1979). *Leisure: Lifestyle and lifespan – perspective for gerontology*. Philadelphia, USA: W.B. Saunders.

Kara, N. S., & Mkwizu, K. H. (2020). Demographic factors and travel motivation among leisure tourists in Tanzania. *International Hospitality Review*, 34(1), 81-103.

Karasek, R. A. (1979). Job demands, job decision latitude, and mental strain: Implications for job redesign. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24(2), 285-308.

Karasek, R. A., & Theorell, T. (1990). *Healthy work: Stress, productivity and the reconstruction of working life*. New York: Basic Books.

Karatepe, O. M. (2013). High-performance work practices and hotel employee performance: The mediation of work engagement. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 32, 132-140.

Karatepe, O. M., & Kilic, H. (2015). Does manager support reduce the effect of work–family conflict on emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions?. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 14(3), 267-289.

Karatepe, O. M., Kim, T. T., & Lee, G. (2019). Is political skill really an antidote in the workplace incivility-emotional exhaustion and outcome relationship in the hotel industry?. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 40, 40-49.

Katz-Gerro, T., & Meier Jæger, M. (2015). Does women's preference for highbrow leisure begin in the family? Comparing leisure participation among brothers and sisters. *Leisure Sciences*, 37(5), 415-430.

- Kay, T., & Jackson, G. (1991). Leisure despite constraint: The impact of leisure constraints on leisure participation. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 23(4), 301-313.
- Kelly, J. R. (2012). *Leisure* (4th ed.). USA: Sagamore Publishing.
- Kelly, J. R. (1972). Work and leisure: A simplified paradigm. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 4(1), 50-62.
- Kelly, C. M., Strauss, K., Arnold, J., & Stride, C. (2020). The relationship between leisure activities and psychological resources that support a sustainable career: The role of leisure seriousness and work-leisure similarity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 117, 103340.
- Kennelly, M., Moyle, B., & Lamont, M. (2013). Constraint negotiation in serious leisure: A study of amateur triathletes. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 45(4), 466-484.
- Keshkar, S., Ehsani, M., Koozechian, H., Ghasemi, H., & Mohammadi, S. (2012). Examining the hierarchical model of leisure constraints among women in Tehran regarding sports participation. *Annals of "Dunarea de Jos" University of Galati. Fascicle XV, Physical Education and Sport Management*, 2, 176-185.
- Khan, S. (2011). Gendered leisure: are women more constrained in travel for leisure?. *Tourismos*, 6(1), 105-121.
- Kim, J. H., Brown, S. L., & Yang, H. (2019). Types of leisure, leisure motivation, and well-being in university students. *World Leisure Journal*, 61(1), 43-57.

- Kim, C., & Cho, Y. (2015). Working conditions and leisure-time physical activity among waged workers in South Korea: A cross-sectional study. *Journal of Occupational Health*, 14-0028.
- Kim, M. K., Lee, D., Kim, S. K., & Kim, M. (2015). Leisure constraints affecting experienced martial arts participants. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 20(9), 1063-1079.
- Kim, B. P., Murmann, S. K., & Lee, G. (2009). Moderating effects of gender and organizational level between role stress and job satisfaction among hotel employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 28, 612–619.
- Kim, K. S., & Park, Y. M. (2010). Hierarchical leisure constraints on leisure motivation and participation among security agent. *International Journal of Contents*, 6(2), 59-68.
- Kim, J., Suh, Y. I., & Kim, J. (2019). Identifying leisure constraints associated with acculturation among older Korean immigrants. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-being*, 14(1), 1655378.
- Kim, H., Woo, E., & Uysal, M. (2015). Tourism experience and quality of life among elderly tourists. *Tourism Management*, 46, 465-476.
- Kleiber, D. A., & Dirkin, G. R. (1985). *Intrapersonal constraints to leisure*. In *Constraints on Leisure*, edited by M. Wade, 17–42. Springfield, IL: Thomas.
- Kloek, M. E., Peters, K., & Sijtsma, M. (2013). How Muslim women in the Netherlands negotiate discrimination during leisure activities. *Leisure Sciences*, 35(5), 405-421.

- Knecht, M., Wiese, S. B., & Freund, M. A. (2016). Going beyond work and family: A longitudinal study on the role of leisure in the work–life interplay. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 37, 1061–1077.
- Koca, C., Henderson, K. A., Asci, F. H., & Bulgu, N. (2009). Constraints to leisure-time physical activity and negotiation strategies in Turkish women. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 41(2), 225-251.
- Koçak, F. (2017). Leisure constraints and facilitators: Perspectives from Turkey. *European Journal of Physical Education and Sport Science*, 3(10), 32-47.
- Kong, H., Jiang, X., Chan, W., & Zhou, X. (2018). Job satisfaction research in the field of hospitality and tourism. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 30(5), 2178-2194.
- Kono, S., Kim, J., Gui, J., & McDaniel, J. T. (2018). Social-demographic correlates of leisure-time physical activities: A secondary data analysis of a large-scale survey in the US. *International Journal of the Sociology of Leisure*, 1(3), 261-282.
- Kono, S., Ito, E., & Gui, J. (2020). Empirical investigation of the relationship between serious leisure and meaning in life among Japanese and Euro-Canadians. *Leisure Studies*, 39(1), 131-145.
- Kowalski, C. L., & Lankford, S. V. (2010). A comparative study examining constraints to leisure and recreation opportunities for youth living in remote and isolated communities. *World Leisure Journal*, 52(2), 135-147.

- Kuo, C. T. (2011). A study on leisure satisfaction and quality of life –Based on badminton participants. *Journal of Global Business Management*, 7(2), 1-9.
- Kuykendall, L., Boemerman, L., & Zhu, Z. (2018). *The importance of leisure for subjective well-being. Handbook of well-being*. Salt Lake City, UT: DEF Publishers.
- Lacanienta, A., Duerden, M. D., & Widmer, M. A. (2018). Leisure at work and employee flourishing. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 49(3-5), 311-332.
- Lai, C., Li, X. R., & Harrill, R. (2013). Chinese outbound tourists' perceived constraints to visiting the United States. *Tourism Management*, 37, 136-146.
- Laird, Y., Fawkner, S., & Niven, A. (2018). A grounded theory of how social support influences physical activity in adolescent girls. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-Being*, 13(1), 1435099.
- Le Feuvre, N. (1994). Leisure, work and gender: A sociological study of women's time in France. *Time and Society*, 3(2), 151-178.
- Lee, J. S., Back, K. J., & Chan, E. S. (2015). Quality of work life and job satisfaction among frontline hotel employees: A self-determination and need satisfaction theory approach. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(5), 768-789.
- Lee, J. J. K., Cho, S., Kim, K. E., & Hwang, S. (2019). Do more leisure time and leisure repertoire make us happier? An investigation of the curvilinear relationships. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 21, 1727-1747.

- Lee, K. J., Hwang, S., & Stodolska, M. (2020). Leisure and subjective well-being of parents of Korean transnational-split families. *Current Psychology*, 1-12.
- Lee, J. J., & Ok, C. (2012). Reducing burnout and enhancing job satisfaction: Critical role of hotel employees' emotional intelligence and emotional labor. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(4), 1101-1112.
- Lee, D. P., & Palakurthi, R. (2013). Marketing strategy to increase exhibition attendance through controlling and eliminating leisure constraints. *Event Management*, 17, 323-336.
- Lee, S., & Scott, D. (2009). The process of celebrity fan's constraint negotiation. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 41(2), 137-156.
- Lee, C., Sung, Y-T., Zhou, Y., & Lee, S. (2018). The relationships between the seriousness of leisure activities, social support and school adaptation among Asian international students in the U.S. *Leisure Studies*, 37(2), 197-210.
- Lehto, X. Y., Park, O., Fu, X., & Lee, G. (2014). Student life stress and leisure participation. *Annals of Leisure Research*, 17(2), 200-217.
- Lenneis, V., & Pfister, G. (2017). Too tired for exercise? The work and leisure of female cleaners in Denmark. *Leisure Studies*, 36(4), 530-541.
- Leon, N. M. (1962). Income, leisure, and wage pressure. *The Economic Journal*, 72(286), 320-334.
- Liechty, T., & Genoe, M. R. (2013). Older men's perceptions of leisure and aging. *Leisure Sciences*, 35(5), 438-454.

- Lin, W-R., Chen, H-M., & Wang, Y-C. (2022). Work-family conflict and psychological well-being of tour leaders: The moderating effect of leisure coping styles. *Leisure Sciences*, 44(7), 786-807.
- Lin, Y-S., Huang, W-S., Yang, C-T., & Chiang, M-J. (2014). Work-leisure conflict and its associations with well-being: The roles of social support, leisure participation and job burnout. *Tourism Management*, 45, 244-252.
- Liu, H., Li, F., Xu, L., & Han, B. (2017). The impact of socio-demographic, environmental, and individual factors on urban park visitation in Beijing, China. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 163, 181-188.
- Li, Y., Luo, B., Huang, C., & Wu, J. (2017). Chinese seniors' leisure participation and constraints in five cities. *Asian Social Science*, 13(11), 24-33.
- Li, X., Mai, Z., Yang, L., & Zhang, J. (2020). Human resource management practices, emotional exhaustion, and organizational commitment—with the example of the hotel industry. *Journal of China Tourism Research*, 16(3), 472-486.
- Li, J. J., Wong, I. A., & Kim, W. G. (2017). Does mindfulness reduce emotional exhaustion? A multilevel analysis of emotional labor among casino employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 64, 21-30.
- Liang, H., & Walker, G. J. (2011). Does “face” constrain Mainland Chinese people from starting new leisure activities?. *Leisure*, 35(2), 211-225.

- Lin, J-H., Wong, J-Y., & Ho, C-H. (2015). The role of work-to-leisure conflict in promoting frontline employees' leisure satisfaction. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(7), 1539-1555.
- Lin, J. H., Wong, J. Y., & Ho, C. H. (2014a). Beyond the work-to-leisure conflict: A high road through social support for tourism employees. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 16(6), 614-624.
- Lin, J-H., Wong, J-Y., & Ho, C-H. (2013). Promoting frontline employees' quality of life: Leisure benefit systems and work-to-leisure conflicts. *Tourism Management*, 36, 178-187.
- Liu, H., & Yu, B. (2015). Serious leisure, leisure satisfaction and subjective well-being of Chinese university students. *Social Indicators Research*, 122, 159-174.
- Lloyd, C., King, R., McCarthy, M., & Scanlan, M. (2007). The association between leisure motivation and recovery: A pilot study. *Australian Occupational Therapy Journal*, 54(1), 33-41.
- Lloyd, K., & Little, E. D. (2010). Self-Determination theory as a framework for understanding women's psychological well-being outcomes from leisure-time physical activity. *Leisure Sciences*, 32, 369-385.
- Lobo, F. (2006). The work-leisure paradigm: the stresses and strains of maintaining a balanced lifestyle. *World Leisure Journal*, 48(3), 22-32.
- Lobo, F (1999). The leisure and work occupations of young people: A review. *Journal of Occupational Science*, 6(1), 27-33.
- Locke, E. A. (1969). What is job satisfaction? *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 4(4), 309-336.

- Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1297-1349). Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Locke, J. (1963). *Some thoughts concerning education*, in the works of John Locke, vol 9. Aalen, Germany: Scientia Verlag.
- Loucks-Atkinson, A., & Mannell, R. C. (2007). Role of self-efficacy in the constraints negotiation process: The case of individuals with fibromyalgia syndrome. *Leisure Sciences*, 29(1), 19-36.
- Loveday, A., Sherar, L. B., Sanders, J. P., Sanderson, P. W., & Esliger, D. W. (2016). Novel technology to help understand the context of physical activity and sedentary behaviour. *Physiological Measurement*, 37(10), 1834.
- Lu, L., & Hu, C. H. (2005). Personality, leisure experiences and happiness. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 6(3), 325-342.
- Lyu, S. O., & Oh, C. O. (2015). Bridging the conceptual frameworks of constraints negotiation and serious leisure to understand leisure benefit realization. *Leisure Sciences*, 37(2), 176-193.
- Ma, S. M., Tan, Y., & Ma, S. C. (2012). Testing a structural model of psychological well-being, leisure negotiation, and leisure participation with Taiwanese college students. *Leisure Sciences*, 34(1), 55-71.
- MacCosham, B. (2017). Negotiating leisure constraints: The case of an amateur musician with epilepsy. *Leisure Studies*, 36(6), 825-837.
- Mannell, R.C., & Kleiber, D. A. (1997). *A social psychology of leisure*. USA: Venture Publishing Inc.

- Mansour, S., & Mohanna, D. (2018). Mediating role of job stress between work-family conflict, work-leisure conflict, and employees' perception of service quality in the hotel industry in France. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 17*(2), 154-174.
- Mansour, S., & Tremblay, D-G. (2016). How the need for “leisure benefit systems” as a “resource passageways” moderates the effect of work-leisure conflict on job burnout and intention to leave: A study in the hotel industry in Quebec. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 27*, 4-11.
- Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 2*(2), 99-113.
- Mcelroy, J. L., & De Albuquerque, K. (1986). The tourism demonstration effect in the Caribbean. *Journal of Travel Research, 25*(2), 31-34.
- Meijman, T. F., & Mulder, G. (1998). Psychological aspects of workload. In P. J. Drenth, H. Thierry, & C. J. de Wolff (Eds.), *Handbook of work and organizational psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 5–33). Hove: Psychology Press.
- Melton, K. K., Townsend, J. N., & Hodge, C. J. (2018). Creation of military family leisure experiences. *Journal of Family Theory & Review, 10*, 602-619.
- Mensah, C. (2019). Dependence on tips and sexual harassment vulnerability of hotel employees in Accra, Ghana. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights, 2*(4), 451-68.

Mensah, C., Kugbonu, M. A., & Asimah, V. K. (2019). Leisure preferences and constraints of urban dwellers of Ho, Ghana. In *the China-Africa Urban Development Forum (CAUDF) University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast, Ghana 3rd–4th October, 2019* (p. 19).

Middleton, C. A. (2003). Do mobile technologies enable work-life balance? In Donald Hislop, *Mobility and Technology in the Workplace*. UK: Routledge.

Minhat, H. S., & Amin, R. M. (2012). Social support and leisure participation of elderly in Malaysia. *The Internet Journal of Geriatrics and Gerontology*, 7(1), 1-8.

Minhat, H. S., & Mohd Amin, R. (2012). Sociodemographic determinants of leisure participation among elderly in Malaysia. *Journal of Community Health*, 37(4), 840-847.

Mirsafian, H. (2016). Perceived constraints to physical activity and sport: a cross-cultural study between Iranian and Hungarian university students. *World Leisure Journal*, 58(3), 193-206.

Mirsafian, H., Mohamadinejad, A., Homaei, R., & Hédi, C. (2013). Motivations of Iranian University students for participation in sporting activities. *Physical Culture and Sport*, 59(1), 42.

Mowen, A. J., Payne, L. L., & Scott, D. (2005). Change and stability in park visitation constraints revisited. *Leisure Sciences*, 27(2), 191-204.

Molanorouzi, K., Khoo, S., & Morris, T. (2015). Motives for adult participation in physical activity: type of activity, age, and gender. *BMC Public Health*, 15(1), 1-12.

- Monterrubio, J. C., & Mendoza-Ontiveros, M. M. (2014). Tourism and the demonstration effect: Empirical evidence. *Tourism & Management Studies, 10*(1), 97-103.
- Moon, J. H., Lee, H. S., Lee, S. H., Lee, K.-J., & Kim, J. J. (2015). The association between shift work and depression in hotel workers. *Annals of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, 27*, 29-39.
- Mthembu, T. G., Abdurahman, I., Ferus, L., Langenhoven, A., Sablay, S., & Sondag, R. (2015). Older adults' perceptions and experiences regarding leisure participation and leisure. *African Journal for Physical Health Education, Recreation and Dance, 21*(1), 215-235.
- Munusturlar, S., Munusturlar, M. A., & Özçakır, S. (2016). Analysis of individuals' leisure time motivation and leisure time attitudes: Bolu and Duzce cities sample. *Pamukkale Journal of Sport Sciences, 7*(3), 76-90.
- Murphy, J. F. (1975). *Recreation and leisure service: A humanistic perspective*. Dubuque, Iowa: W.C. Brown.
- Murray, E. J. (1964). *Motivation and emotion*. NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Muzindutsi, P. F., & Masango, Z. (2015). Determinants of leisure satisfaction among undergraduate students at a South African University. *International Journal of Business and Management Studies, 7*(2), 1-15.
- Nagy, Á., Székely, L., & Barbarics, M. (2017). Youth and Leisure Time. In: Benkő, Z., Modi, I., Tarkó, K. (eds) *Leisure, Health and Well-Being. Leisure Studies in a Global Era*. Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.

- Naude, R., Kruger, S., De Beer, L. T., Saayman, M., & Jonker, C. (2016). The relationship between personality types and leisure time activities amongst Casino employees' workplace expectations. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 14*(1), 1-11.
- Neulinger, J. (1982). Leisure lack and the quality of life: the broadening scope of the leisure professional. *Leisure Studies, 1*(1), 53-63.
- Nimrod, G., Kleiber, D. A., & Berdychevsky, L. (2012). Leisure in coping with depression. *Journal of Leisure Research, 44*(4), 419-449.
- Nippert-Eng, C. (1996, September). Calendars and keys: The classification of “home” and “work”. In *Sociological forum* (Vol. 11, No. 3, pp. 563-582). Kluwer Academic Publishers-Plenum Publishers.
- Nuwere, E., Barone Gibbs, B., Toto, P. E., & Taverno-Ross, S. E. (2022). Planning for a healthy aging program to reduce sedentary behavior: perceptions among diverse older adults. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 19*(10), 60-68.
- Nyaupane, G. P., & Andereck, K. L. (2008). Understanding travel constraints: Application and extension of a leisure constraints model. *Journal of Travel Research, 46*(4), 433-439.
- Nyaupane, G. P., McCabe, J. T., & Andereck, K. L. (2008). Seniors' travel constraints: Stepwise logistic regression analysis. *Tourism Analysis, 13*(4), 341-354.
- Öcal, K. (2014). Constraints on leisure time physical activity at a public university. *Journal of Human Sciences, 11*(2), 648-660.

- Olsen, C., & St George, D. M. M. (2004). *Cross-sectional study design and data analysis*. The Young Epidemiology Scholars Program, Walden University- Chicago, Illinois.
- Orsega-Smith, E. M., Payne, L. L., Mowen, A. J., Ho, C. H., & Godbey, G. C. (2007). The role of social support and self-efficacy in shaping the leisure time physical activity of older adults. *Journal of Leisure Research, 39*(4), 705-727.
- Pagliarin, S. (2017). Working leisure: entertaining guests in gated tourist resorts. *Leisure Studies, 36*(6), 752-763.
- Palen, L. A., Patrick, M. E., Gleeson, S. L., Caldwell, L. L., Smith, E. A., Wegner, L., & Flisher, A. J. (2010). Leisure constraints for adolescents in Cape Town, South Africa: A qualitative study. *Leisure Sciences, 32*(5), 434-452.
- Pallant, J. (2010). *A step by step guide to data analysis using the SPSS program: SPSS survival manual*. England: McGraw Hill Education and Open University Press.
- Park, Y., Yoh, T., & Park, M. (2015). Testing a leisure constraints model in the context of Asian international students. *International Journal of Sport Management, Recreation and Tourism, 20*, 58-83.
- Parker, S. (1983). *Leisure and work*. London: Allen & Unwin.
- Passmore, A., & French, D. (2001). Development and administration of a measure to assess adolescents' participation in leisure activities. *Adolescence, 36*(141), 67-75.

- Petrou, P., Bakker, A. B., & van den Heuvel, M. (2017). Weekly job crafting and leisure crafting: Implications for meaning-making and work engagement. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 90(2), 129-152.
- Presser, H. (2003). Race-ethnic and gender differences in nonstandard work shifts. *Work and Occupations*, 30, 412-439.
- Przepiorka, A., & Blanchnio, A. (2016). Time perspective in internet and Facebook addiction. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 60, 13-18.
- Qiao, G. H. (2017). Comparison of Chinese and Korean Students Understanding Their Constraints on Participation of Leisure Activities context of Environmental education. *Eurasia Journal of Mathematics, Science and Technology Education*, 13(7), 4281-4290.
- Qiao, F. (2017). The Embodiment and Creation of Urban Leisure Culture in the Public Space. *Journal of Simulation*, 5(4), 17.
- Qiu, Y., Tian, H., Zhou, W., Lin, Y., & Gao, J. (2020). 'Why do people commit to long distance running': serious leisure qualities and leisure motivation of marathon runners. *Sport in Society*, 23(7), 1256-1272.
- Qu, H., & Zhao, R. X. (2012). Employees' work-family conflict moderating life and job satisfaction. *Journal of Business Research*, 65(1), 22-28.
- Rafiq, N., Abbasi, A. S., Sair, S. A., & Mehta, A. M. (2020). Impact of emotional labor strategies on emotional exhaustion: Mediating effect of anxiety in Pakistani hotel industry. *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal*, 24(3), 1-23.

- Ragheb, G. M. (1980). Interrelationships among leisure participation leisure satisfaction and leisure attitudes. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 12(2), 138-149.
- Rainoldi, M., Buhalis, D., & Ladkin, A. (2022). Work–Life Balance: Border Theory in Tourism. In *Encyclopedia of Tourism Management and Marketing* (pp. 791-793). Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Ramos, W. D., Anderson, A. R., & Lee, D. (2018). Collegiate club swimming: An examination of leisure motivations. *Recreational Sports Journal*, 42(1), 75-89.
- Ransome, P. (2008). The Boundary Problem in Work-Life Balance Studies: Theorising the Total Responsibility Burden (pp.62-79). In: Warhurst, C et al. (eds) *Work Less, Live More? Critical Analysis of the Work-Life Boundary*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Rathi, N., & Lee, K. (2016). Emotional exhaustion and work attitudes: Moderating effect of personality among frontline hospitality employees. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 15(3), 231-251.
- Raymore, L. A. (2002). Facilitators to leisure. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 34(1), 37-51.
- Raymore, L. A., Godbey, G. C., & Crawford, D. W. (1994). Self-esteem, gender, and socioeconomic status: Their relation to perceptions of constraint on leisure among adolescents. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 26(2), 99-118.

- Ridinger, L. L., Funk, D. C., Jordan, J. S., & Kaplanidou, K. (2012). Marathons for the masses: Exploring the role of negotiation-efficacy and involvement on running commitment. *Journal of Leisure Research, 44*(2), 155-178.
- Ringle, C. M., Sarstedt, M., Mitchell, R., & Gudergan, S. P. (2020). Partial least squares structural equation modeling in HRM research. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 31*(12), 1617-1643.
- Ringle, C. M., Wende, S., & Becker, J.-M. (2015). SmartPLS 3. Bönningstedt. *SmartPLS GmbH*.
- Rintaugu, E. G., Mwangi, F. M., & Bailasha, N. K. (2013). Negotiating constraints to sport participation of university soccer players. *Journal of Education and Practice, 2*(23), 146-153.
- Rivaldo, Y. (2021). Leadership and motivation to performance through job satisfaction of hotel employees at D'Merlion Batam. *The Winners, 22*(1), 25-30.
- Roberts, K. (2020). Locked down leisure in Britain. *Leisure Studies, 39*(5), 617-628.
- Rosa, C. D., Collado, S., Profice, C. C., & Larson, L. R. (2019). Nature-based recreation associated with connectedness to nature and leisure satisfaction among students in Brazil. *Leisure Studies, 38*(5), 682-691.
- Rosen, C. C., & Hochwarter, W. A. (2014). Looking back and falling further behind: The moderating role of rumination on the relationship between organizational politics and employee attitudes, well-being, and

performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 124(2), 177-189.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55, 68-78.

Ryan, C., & Glendon, I. (1998). Application of leisure motivation scale to tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(1), 169-184.

Saari, U. A., Damberg, S., Frömbing, L., & Ringle, C. M. (2021). Sustainable consumption behavior of Europeans: The influence of environmental knowledge and risk perception on environmental concern and behavioral intention. *Ecological Economics*, 189, 107155.

Samara, E., & Ioannidi, V. (2019). Practicing diversity through a leisure time education program: an educational and learning experience. *European Journal of Special Education Research*, 4(1), 106-113.

Samdahl, D. M., & Jekubovich, N. J. (1997). A critique of leisure constraints: Comparative analyses and understandings. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 29(4), 430-452.

Sandoval, N. (2017). Diagnosis about the use of leisure and free time among the students of the Universidad Nacional Experimental Del Táchira. *Journal of Research in Social Pedagogy*, 30, 163-180.

Santos, I., Ball, K., Crawford, D., & Teixeira, P. J. (2016). Motivation and barriers for leisure-time physical activity in socioeconomically disadvantaged women. *PLoS One*, 11(1), e0147735.

Sarantakos, S. (2005). *Social Research* (3rd ed.). Basingstoke Melbourne: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Sardo, F., Serrasqueiro, Z., & Alves, H. (2018). On the relationship between intellectual capital and financial performance: A panel data analysis on SME hotels. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 75, 67-74.
- Sarol, H., & Çimen, Z. (2017). Why people participate leisure time physical activity: a Turkish perspective. *Pamukkale Journal of Sport Sciences*, 8(1), 63-72.
- Schneider, I. E., & Wilhelm Stanis, S. A. (2007). Coping: An alternative conceptualization for constraint negotiation and accommodation. *Leisure Sciences*, 29(4), 391-401.
- Schipper, H., Clinch, J., & Powell, V. (1990). Definitions and conceptual issues. *Quality of Life Assessments in Clinical Trials* (pp. 11-24). Spilker B, Ed. New York: Raven.
- Scott, D. (1991). The problematic nature of participation in contract bridge: A qualitative study of group-related constraints. *Leisure Sciences*, 13(4), 321-336.
- Scott, D., & Lee, K. J. J. (2018, January). People of color and their constraints to national parks visitation. In *The George Wright Forum* (Vol. 35, No. 1, pp. 73-82). George Wright Society.
- Scott, D., & Willits, F. K. (1998). Adolescent and adult leisure patterns: A reassessment. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 30(3), 319-330.
- Shereni, N. C. (2020). The role of technical and vocational education and training (TVET) in restoring hospitality sector specific skills in Zimbabwe: a students' perspective. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 32(3), 133-141.

- Shmueli, G., Sarstedt, M., Hair, J. F., Cheah, J. H., Ting, H., Vaithilingam, S., & Ringle, C. M. (2019). Predictive model assessment in PLS-SEM: guidelines for using PLSpredict. *European Journal of Marketing*, 53(11), 2322-2347.
- Shi, S., & Li, X. (2010, September). Beijing older hierarchical model of leisure constraints analysis. In *Proceedings of 2010 International Symposium on Tourism Resources and Management* (Vol. 318, p. 322).
- Shifman, R., Moss, K., D'Andrade, G., Eichel, J., & Forrester, S. (2012). A comparison of constraints to participation in intramural sports between international and non-international students. *Recreational Sports Journal*, 36(1), 2-12.
- Shores, K. A., & Scott, D. (2005). Leisure constraints among military wives. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 23(3), 1-24.
- Shyu, C. S., & Hsu, C. P. (2012). A study on the relationship among free-time management, leisure constraints and leisure benefits of employees in resort hotel. *Journal of Global Business Management*, 8(1), 166.
- Siddiquee, A., Sixsmith, J., Lawthom, R., & Haworth, J. (2016). Paid work, life-work and leisure: A study of wellbeing in the context of academic lives in higher education. *Leisure Studies*, 35(1), 36-45.
- Silva, O., & Correia, A. (2008). Facilitators and constraints in leisure travel participation: the case of the southeast of Portugal. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 2(1), 25-43.

- Simmons, M. J., Mahoney, Q. T., & Hambrick, E. M. (2016). Leisure, work, and family: How IronMEN balance the demands of three resource-intensive roles. *Leisure Sciences*, 38(3), 232-248.
- Smith, O., & Raymen, T. (2018). Deviant leisure: A criminological perspective. *Theoretical Criminology*, 22(1), 63-82.
- Smriti, N., & Das, N. (2018). The impact of intellectual capital on firm performance: a study of Indian firms listed in COSPI. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 19(5), 935-964.
- Snir, R., & Harpaz, I. (2002). Work-leisure relations: Leisure orientation and the meaning of work. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 34(2), 178-203.
- Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences* (Vol. 3). Thousand Oaks, CA, USA: Sage Publications.
- Spencer, J. P., Tsangu, L., & Silo, M. (2017). South African tourism graduates' perceptions of decent work in the Western Cape tourism industry. *African Journal for Physical Activity and Health Sciences (AJPHEs)*, 23(Supplement 1), 54-65.
- Son, S. J., & Chen, C-C. (2018). Does using a smartphone for work purposes “ruin” your leisure? Examining the role of smartphone use in work–leisure conflict and life satisfaction. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 49(3-5), 236-257.
- Son, J. S., Mowen, A. J., & Kerstetter, D. L. (2008). Testing alternative leisure constraint negotiation models: An extension of Hubbard and Mannell's study. *Leisure Sciences*, 30(3), 198-216.

- Stanis, S. A. W., Schneider, I. E., & Pereira, M. A. (2010). Parks and health: Differences in constraints and negotiation strategies for park-based leisure time physical activity by stage of change. *Journal of Physical Activity and Health*, 7(2), 273-284.
- Stebbins, R. A. (2012). *The idea of leisure: First principles* (1st ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Stebbins, R. A. (2005). Choice and experiential definitions of leisure. *Leisure Sciences*, 27(4), 349-352.
- Stewart, S. I., & Johnson, K. M. (2006). Balancing leisure and work: evidence from the seasonal home. Peden, John G.; Schuster, Rudy M., comps., eds. *Proceedings of the 2005 northeastern recreation research symposium*; 2005 April 10-12; Bolton Landing, NY. Gen. Tech. Rep. NE-341. Newtown Square, PA: U.S. Forest Service, Northeastern Research Station. pp 144-150.
- Stone, M. (1974). Cross-validation and multinomial prediction. *Biometrika*, 61(3), 509-515.
- Suhartanto, D., Dean, D., Sumarjan, N., Kartika, S. O., & Setiawati, L. (2019). Leisure involvement, job satisfaction, and service performance among frontline restaurant employees. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 20(4), 387-404.
- Sutton, S. G. (2007). Constraints on recreational fishing participation in Queensland, Australia. *Fisheries*, 32(2), 73-83.
- Sun, M. C., & Kawthur, B. A. (2013). Leisure-time physical activity among university students in Mauritius. *Am J Health Res*, 1(1), 1-8.

- Tabachnik, B. G., & Fidell, S. L. (2007). *Multivariate normality. Using multivariate statistics* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Allyn & Bacon.
- Taneja, S. (2013). Sustaining work schedules: balancing leisure and work. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal*, 12(2), 113-122.
- Torkildsen, G. (2011). *Torkildsen's sport and leisure management* (P. Taylor Ed. 6th ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Tsai, E. H., & Coleman, D. J. (1999). Leisure constraints of Chinese immigrants: An exploratory study. *Society and Leisure*, 22(1), 243-264.
- Tsai, C. T. L., & Zhou, L. (2015). A cultural confrontation: Western impacts on female college students' leisure opportunities in Taiwan and China. *Social Indicators Research*, 120(1), 261-276.
- Tsaur, S-H., Liang, Y-W., & Hsu, H-J. (2012). A multidimensional measurement of work-leisure conflict. *Leisure Sciences*, 34(5), 395-416.
- Tsaur, S-H., & Yen, C-H. (2018). Work-leisure conflict and its consequences: Do generational differences matter? *Tourism Management*, 69, 121-131.
- Usakli, A., & Kucukergin, K. G. (2018). Using partial least squares structural equation modeling in hospitality and tourism: Do researchers follow practical guidelines?. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 30(11), 3462-3512.

- Vallerand, R. J. (2000). Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory: A view from the hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Psychological Inquiry, 11*(4), 312-318.
- van der Zwan, P., Hessels, J., & Rietveld, C. A. (2018). Self-employment and satisfaction with life, work, and leisure. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 64*, 73-88.
- Veal, A. J. (2019). *Leisure and the Future*. UK: Routledge.
- Veal, A. J. (2011). Leisure participation patterns and gender: The survey evidence on Australian adults. *Annals of Leisure Research, 14*(2-3), 120-142.
- Voss, J. (1967). The definition of leisure. *Journal of Economic Issues, 1*(1-2), 91-106.
- Wahyuni, D. (2012). The research design maze: Understanding paradigms, cases, methods and methodologies. *Journal of Applied Management Accounting Research, 10*(1), 69-80.
- Walker, G. J. (2009). Culture, self-construal, and leisure motivations. *Leisure Sciences, 31*(4), 347-363.
- Walker, G. J., & Virden, R. J. (2005). Constraints on outdoor recreation. In E. L. Jackson (Ed.), *Constraints to leisure* (pp. 201-219). State College, PA: Venture.
- Wang, I-A., Lee, B-W., & Wu, S-T. (2017). The relationships among work-family conflict, turnover intention and organizational citizenship behavior in the hospitality industry of Taiwan. *International Journal of Manpower, 38*(8), 1130-1142.

- Wang, Y-C., Qu, H., Yang, J., & Yang C-E. (2020). Leisure-work preference and hotel employees' perceived subjective well-being. *The Service Industries Journal*, 40(1-2), 110-132.
- Watkins, M. (2000). Ways of learning about leisure meanings. *Leisure Sciences*, 22(2), 93-107.
- Wei, X., Huang, S. M., Stodolska, M., & Yu, Y. (2015). Leisure time, leisure activities, and happiness in China: Evidence from a national survey. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 47(5), 556-576.
- Wei, X., Qu, H., & Ma, E. (2016). How does leisure time affect production efficiency? Evidence from China, Japan, and the US. *Social Indicators Research*, 127(1), 101-122.
- Weinblatt, N., & Navon, L. (1995). Flight from leisure: A neglected phenomenon in leisure studies. *Leisure Sciences*, 17(4), 309-325.
- Weiss, Y. (2009). Work and leisure: A history of ideas. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 27(1), 1-20.
- Weiss, P. (1965). A philosophical definition of leisure. *Quest*, 5(1), 1-7.
- White, D. D. (2008). A structural model of leisure constraints negotiation in outdoor recreation. *Leisure Sciences*, 30(4), 342-359.
- White, H. R., & Bustam, T. D. (2010). Using leisure constraints research to inform outdoor recreation research and natural resource management decisions. *Park Break Perspectives*.
- Wilensky, H. L. (1960). Work, careers and social integration. *International Social Science Journal*, 12, 543-560.
- Winarsih, S., Bachri, A. A., & Yulianto, A. (2018). Pengaruh motivasi dan kepuasan kerja terhadap kinerja karyawan (Studi pada Bank Kalsel

- Syariah Kandangan). *JWM (Jurnal Wawasan Manajemen)*, 6(2), 197-208.
- Wittmer, J. L., & Martin, J. E. (2010). Emotional exhaustion among employees without social or client contact: The key role of nonstandard work schedules. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25(4), 607-623.
- Wong, J-J., & Lin, J-H. (2007). The role of job control and job support in adjusting service employee's work-to-leisure conflict. *Tourism Management*, 28, 726-735.
- Wood, L., & Danylchuk, K. (2015). The impact of constraints and negotiation strategies on involvement in intramural sport. *Managing Sport and Leisure*, 20(3), 157-173.
- Wright, T. A., & Cropanzano, R. (1998). Emotional exhaustion as a predictor of job performance and voluntary turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(3), 486.
- Xie, C., Zhang, J., Chen, Y., Morrison, A. M., & Lin, Z. (2020). Measuring hotel employee perceived job risk: dimensions and scale development. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 32(2), 730-748.
- Xu, S., Martinez, L. R., Van Hoof, H., Estrella Duran, M., Maldonado Perez, G., & Gavilanes, J. (2018). Emotional exhaustion among hotel employees: The interactive effects of affective dispositions and positive work reflection. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 59(3), 285-295.

- Yankholmes, A. K. B. (2017). *Leisure in Ghana: Whence and Whither?*
Retrieved May 2021, from eprints.bournemouth.ac.uk.
- Yankholmes, A. K. B., & Lin, S. (2012). Leisure and education in Ghana: an exploratory study of university students' leisure lifestyles. *World Leisure Journal*, 54(1), 58-68.
- You, S., & Shin, K. (2017). Relationships among exercise beliefs, physical exercise, and subjective well-being: Evidence from Korean middle-aged adults. *Health Care for Women International*, 38(12), 1263–1274.
- Yoon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2005). An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: A structural model. *Tourism Management*, 26(1), 45-56.
- Zedeck, S., & Mosier, K. L. (1990). Work in the family and employing organization. *American Psychologist*, 45(2), 240.
- Zhao, R. X., Mattila, S. A., & Ngan, N. N. (2014). The impact of frontline employees' work–family conflict on customer satisfaction: The mediating role of exhaustion and emotional displays. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 1–11.
- Zhou, B., Zhang, Y., Dong, E., Ryan, C., & Li, P. (2021). Leisure satisfaction and quality of life of residents in Ningbo, China. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 52(4), 469-486.
- Zhong, Z., Luo, J., & Zhang, M. (2015). Analysis of tourist leisure activities in integrated resorts based on the constraint negotiation strategies. *Journal of Service Science and Management*, 8(03), 339-348.
- Zou, S., & Scott, D. (2018). Constraints to pickup basketball participation among Chinese American women. *Leisure Sciences*, 40(5), 307-325.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

DEPARTMENT OF HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT

Dear Sir/Madam

This questionnaire seeks to solicit information on the leisure participation of employees of hotels in Accra, Ghana. It would be appreciated if you could take part in the survey by completing this questionnaire. Information provided would be used for academic purpose only. Your confidentiality is assured.

Thank You.

Mawufemor, Abla Kugbonu

(0200351913)

Instruction: Please fill the spaces provided by ticking $\sqrt{\quad}$ where applicable and writing where necessary.

SECTION A: LEISURE ACTIVITIES

1. Please list the **ten (10) preferred leisure activities** that you **f engage** in.

S/N	Leisure Activity (Free will or free time activity)
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	
7.	
8.	
9.	
10.	

SECTION B: LEISURE MOTIVATION

2. Please indicate the extent to which the following serve as motivations to your participation in leisure using the scale of: (1) *Strongly Disagree*, (2) *Disagree*, (3) *Neutral*, (4) *Agree*, (5) *Strongly Agree*

	LEISURE MOTIVATION	1	2	3	4	5
		SD	D	N	A	SA
	Intellectual Motivation					
a.	To learn about things around me					
b.	To explore new ideas and things					
c.	To learn about myself					
d.	To expand my knowledge on issues of life					
e.	To enhance my creativity					
	Social Motivation					
a.	To build friendship with others					
b.	To meet and interact with new people of similar interest					
c.	To gain a feeling of belonging					
d.	To use choice of leisure to gain the respect of colleagues or friends					
e.	To spend time with family and friends					
	Competence/Mastery Motivation					
a.	To challenge my abilities					
b.	To improve my skill and ability needed to effectively perform my job					
c.	To nurture other talents and potentials of mine					
d.	To develop physical skills and abilities					
e.	To develop physical fitness					
	Stimulus Avoidance Motivation					
a.	To avoid contact with customers and colleagues and be alone					
b.	To do something simple					
c.	To enjoy flexibility not existing in my work schedule					
d.	To relieve stress associated with my task in the hotel					
e.	To make time to engage in other activities					
	Please state any other motivations for leisure and extent of agreement					
f.						
g.						
h.						

SECTION C: LEISURE CONSTRAINTS

3. Please indicate the extent to which the following serve as a barrier to your participation in leisure activities using the scale of: (1) *Strongly Disagree*, (2) *Disagree*, (3) *Neutral*, (4) *Agree*, (5) *Strongly Agree*

	LEISURE CONSTRAINTS	1	2	3	4	5
		SD	D	N	A	SA
	Intrapersonal Constraints					
a.	Lack of interest due to fatigue from work					
b.	Lack of confidence to participate in available activities					
c.	Lack of participation skills					
d.	Lack of knowledge on existing leisure activity					
e.	No physical abilities/health related problems					
f.	Fear of physical injuries					
g.	I do not enjoy leisure					
	Interpersonal Constraints					
a.	Low levels of interest in leisure by friends and family members					
b.	Activity is looked down upon by others					
c.	People will not respect me for participating in available activity					
d.	My friends discourage me from participating in preferred activities					
e.	Lack of partners to participate with in leisure activity					
f.	Partners have different work schedule					
	Structural Constraints					
a.	Unavailability of preferred leisure facilities/activities					
b.	Inadequate leisure equipment					
c.	The irregular working hours (changing shifts) at the hotel makes my leisure participation inconsistent					
d.	The long working hours lead to inadequate time for leisure					
e.	Working overtime					
f.	The too much work-load at the hotel makes me too tired to participate in leisure					
g.	The unsocial working days (weekends and holidays) at the hotel limits leisure participation					
h.	Low income leads to insufficient funds for leisure					

i.	Social commitment (religious and social activities)						
j.	Too much family responsibilities						
k.	The traffic congestion in Accra makes access to leisure facilities tiresome						
k.	Available leisure activities are not appropriate to my cultural and religious beliefs						
	Please state any other leisure constraints and extent of agreement						
a.							
b.							
c.							

SECTION D: LEISURE CONSTRAINTS NEGOTIATION STRATEGIES

4. Please indicate the extent to which you apply the following to negotiate leisure constraints using the scale: (1) *Strongly Disagree*, (2) *Disagree*, (3) *Neutral*, (4) *Agree*, (5) *Strongly Agree*

	NEGOTIATION STRATEGIES	1 SD	2 D	3 N	4 A	5 SA
	Behavioural Strategies					
	<i>Time Management</i>					
a.	I adjust my work shift (time) to fit my leisure schedule					
b.	I get a colleague to cover up for me to make time for leisure					
c.	I try to organize work responsibilities better to make time for leisure					
d.	I devise easy ways to easily access facilities to avoid traffic and save time					
	<i>Interpersonal Coordination</i>					
a.	I try to find people with similar leisure interests					
b.	I participate in activities with people of the same gender					
c.	I participate in leisure with my colleagues					
d.	I willingly participate in leisure with people I do not know					
e.	I participate in leisure alone in the absence of a partner					
	<i>Financial Management</i>					
a.	I save money for leisure participation					

b.	I try to budget my money					
c.	I choose the leisure activities/facilities I can afford					
d.	I engage in other ventures to improve my financial situation					
	<i>Skill Acquisition</i>					
a.	I acquire (learn) skills to engage in new activities					
b.	I ask for help with the required skills					
c.	I practice activity till I become perfect					
d.	I participate in activities that I am good at					
	<i>Cognitive Strategies</i>					
a.	I change my leisure aspirations					
b.	I persuade myself with benefits of participation					
c.	I am emotionally prepared to bear the consequences of leisure choices					
e.	I ignore cultural beliefs and restrictions					

SECTION E: LEISURE NEGOTIATION EFFICACY

5. Please indicate the extent to which you agree to the following statement using the scale of: (1) *Strongly Disagree*, (2) *Disagree*, (3) *Neutral*, (4) *Agree*, (5) *Strongly Agree*

	NEGOTIATION EFFICACY	1 SD	2 D	3 N	4 A	5 SA
a.	I have been able to effectively apply strategies to increase my leisure time.					
b.	I have been able to effectively manage my finances to increase my funds for leisure.					
c.	I have successfully persuaded others to join me in leisure.					
d.	I have confidently applied negotiation strategies to ensure my participation in preferred leisure.					
e.	I am confident in my ability to avoid being psychologically disrupted from pursuing my leisure aspirations.					
f.	I am able to confidently justify reasons for leisure in the absence of societal approval.					
g.	Overall, I can say I have the ability to successfully negotiate all the barriers to my leisure participation.					

SECTION F: SATISFACTION WITH LEISURE

6. Please indicate the extent to which you agree to the following statement using the scale: (1) *Strongly Disagree*, (2) *Disagree*, (3) *Neutral*, (4) *Agree*, (5) *Strongly Agree*

	STATEMENT	1 SD	2 D	3 N	4 A	5 SA
a.	I am satisfied with the time I spent in leisure					
b.	I am satisfied with my choice of leisure activity					
c.	I am satisfied with experiences gained from participating in leisure activities					
d.	I am satisfied with available leisure facilities and services					
e.	My leisure activities are interesting					
f.	My leisure activities gives a sense of accomplishment					
g.	My leisure activities increase my knowledge about things around me.					
h.	My leisure activities provides me opportunities to try new things.					
i.	My leisure activities have helped me to develop a close relationships with others.					
j.	My leisure activities contribute to my emotional well-being					
k.	My leisure activities restores me physically.					
l.	The leisure activities are well designed.					

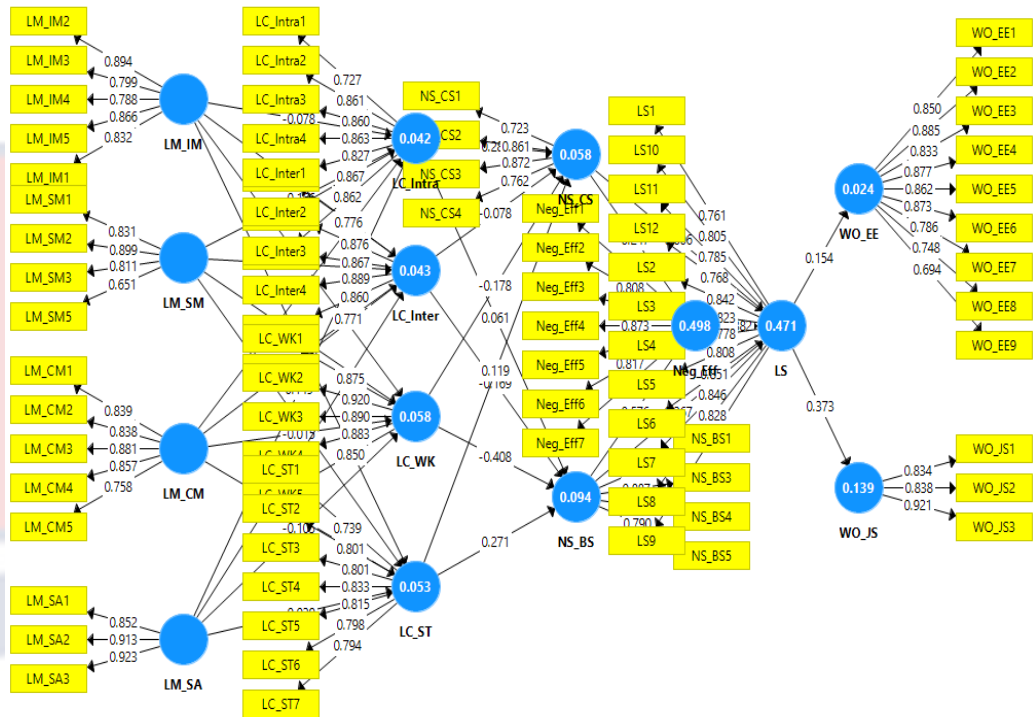
SECTION G: WORK OUTCOME

7. Please indicate the extent of agreement to the following statement using the scale (1) *Strongly Disagree*, (2) *Disagree*, (3) *Neutral*, (4) *Agree*, (5) *Strongly Agree*

	WORK OUTCOME	1 SD	2 D	3 N	4 A	5 SA
	Emotional Exhaustion					
a.	I feel emotionally drained from performing my tasks in the hotel					
b.	I feel used up at the end of the day's shift					
c.	I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day at job					
d.	The too much work load within the hotel is really a strain for me					
e.	I feel burned-out from repeating the same tasks at work					
f.	I feel frustrated from working for long hours at my job					
g.	Working directly with customers puts too much stress on me					

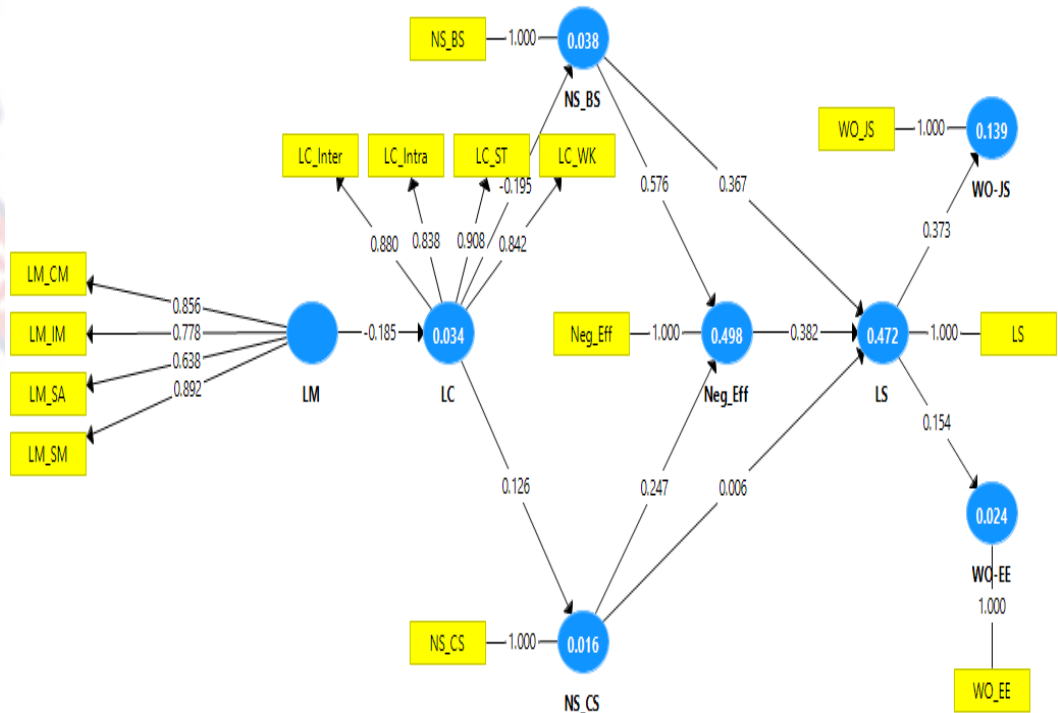
APPENDIX B

STRUCTURES OF THE PLS-SEM MODEL



Measurement Model (1st Order)

Source: Field survey, (2022)



Measurement model (2nd Order)

Source: Field survey, (2022)

Hypotheses Assessment Results

Paths	VIF	β	SE	t-statistics	p-values	f^2	Bias Corrected Confidence Interval	
							LL (2.5%)	UL (97.5%)
Direct Effects								
LM => LC	1.000	-0.185	0.051	3.603	0.000	0.035	-0.268	-0.084
LC => NS_BS	1.000	-0.195	0.062	3.165	0.002	0.040	-0.296	-0.051
LC => NS_CS	1.000	0.126	0.074	1.712	0.087	0.016	-0.021	0.265
NS_BS => Neg_Eff	1.155	0.576	0.063	9.110	0.000	0.572	0.443	0.688
NS_CS => Neg_Eff	1.155	0.247	0.062	3.965	0.000	0.106	0.133	0.375
Neg_Eff => LS	1.990	0.382	0.080	4.751	0.000	0.139	0.221	0.529
LS => WO-EE	1.000	0.154	0.066	2.321	0.020	0.024	0.022	0.286
LS => WO-JS	1.000	0.373	0.066	5.615	0.000	0.162	0.235	0.495
NS_BS => LS	1.816	0.367	0.084	4.359	0.000	0.140	0.212	0.539
NS_CS => LS	1.277	0.006	0.055	0.116	0.907	0.000	-0.092	0.119
Indirect Effects (Mediating Effects of Neg_Eff)								
NS_CS=>Neg_Eff=>LS	-	0.095	0.028	3.343	0.001	-	0.049	0.161
NS_BS=>Neg_Eff=>LS	-	0.220	0.058	3.798	0.000	-	0.113	0.336

Source: Field survey, (2022)

APPENDIX C

ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD SECRETARIAT

TEL: 0558093143 / 0508878309

E-MAIL: irb@ucc.edu.gh

OUR REF: UCC/IRB/A/2016/1131

YOUR REF:

OMB NO: 0990-0279

IORG #: IORG0009096

15TH OCTOBER 2021

Ms. Mawufemor Abla Kugbonu
Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management
University of Cape Coast

Dear Ms. Kugbonu,

ETHICAL CLEARANCE – ID (UCCIRB/CHLS/2021/46)

The University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board (UCCIRB) has granted Provisional Approval for the implementation of your research titled *Leisure and Work Outcome: A Study of Hotel Employees in Accra*. This approval is valid from 15th October 2021 to 14th October, 2022. You may apply for a renewal subject to submission of all the required documents that will be prescribed by the UCCIRB.

Please note that any modification to the project must be submitted to the UCCIRB for review and approval before its implementation. You are required to submit periodic review of the protocol to the Board and a final full review to the UCCIRB on completion of the research. The UCCIRB may observe or cause to be observed procedures and records of the research during and after implementation.

You are also required to report all serious adverse events related to this study to the UCCIRB within seven days verbally and fourteen days in writing.

Always quote the protocol identification number in all future correspondence with us in relation to this protocol.

Yours faithfully,

Samuel Aseidu Owusu, PhD
UCCIRB Administrator

ADMINISTRATOR
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST