

# University of Alberta

Older Adults and Their Spare-time Activity Participation:

A Comparison of Older Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and

British Canadian People

By

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## **Abstract**

By comparing and contrasting three different ethnic/cultural groups (i.e., British Canadian, Mainland Chinese, and Chinese Canadian), this cross-cultural study explored how age, gender, ethnicity, and acculturation affect older adults' motivations, constraints, and constraint negotiation when participating in spare-time activities. Eighteen research questions were tested based on the data collected from a snowball sample of 15 semi-structured interviews ( $N = 5$  for each of the three ethnic/cultural groups) and a convenience sample of 450 self-administered questionnaires ( $N = 150$  for each of the three ethnic/cultural groups). The researcher found that: (1) Walker and Virden's (2005) leisure constraints model appears cross-culturally applicable, suggesting that the perception of the variables examined in this study is largely similar across cultures but important differences exist; (2) compared to age and gender, ethnicity and acculturation are significant in explaining older adults' leisure participation. Results indicated that: (a) despite the levels of acculturation, younger Chinese Canadian older adults were always more likely to employ negotiation strategies. Additionally, among the various negotiation strategies examined, acquiring skills was more important for both Mainland Chinese and Chinese Canadians; (b) constraints might not critically affect older adults' leisure behaviours and instead constraints could be potential motivations for participation; and (c) including a face scale to study a Chinese population proved to be informative. This study's

value rests with not only enhancing the leisure and gerontology theories, but also bridging the gap between academic and practical worlds. Future research directions are also recommended.

## **Acknowledgement**

January 2<sup>nd</sup>, 2002, I got on a plane and flew over 10,216km to a country I had never really known too much about it. Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada. Minus 30 Celsius, alone!

June 2005, I obtained my first degree, Bachelor of Recreation Management and Community Development at the University of Manitoba. Alone!

June 2007, I finished my second degree, Master of Arts at the University of Manitoba, and already received a Letter of Admission from University of Alberta for my PhD. Still Alone!

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## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **My Journey of Research in Gerontology**

Inherited from my parents' language talents (they both graduated from Peking University in the late 1960s with Russian as their major), I have been very interested in learning new languages (e.g., English, different Chinese dialects) since I was a child. But after two years of Chinese university education as an English major, I realized that I could not master my favourite foreign language by knowing only how to read it. Therefore, along with my lifelong interest in sports, I decided to pursue a degree that combines both language and sports in an English-speaking country. As a result, I began my undergraduate degree in the Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation at the University of Manitoba in Canada in 2002.

In order to support me, my parents have spent most of their savings and have been working extremely hard since then. As the only son in my family, I understood my responsibilities and tried to take care of them in a different way by using my knowledge. Coincidentally, the University of Manitoba opened a new gerontology minor for undergraduate students in 2003. By taking courses in this area, I noticed that the combination of leisure and gerontology is an underappreciated area that could greatly benefit older adults like my parents. My Master's degree with its focus on older adults' information technology (IT) usage and their travel behaviours further assured me that older people's leisure needs are socially and academically underestimated. In practice, I bought my parents a laptop and smart phones, taught them how to search for useful information and chat with me online, and educated them about the latest leisure trends across the world. As a consequence, they started appreciating the convenience brought by new ITs to their leisure lives.

In 2007, I came to the University of Alberta to pursue my doctoral degree.

Dr. Walker, my current supervisor, has led me into a new area of leisure studies in terms of leisure constraints, leisure motivations, and constraint negotiation, which broadens my horizon to rethink the combination of leisure and gerontology. Reflecting on my parents' complaints about their lack of leisure opportunities due to various reasons such as babysitting grandchildren, I was aware that many Mainland Chinese older people are facing similar issues that prevent them from leisure participation. Furthermore, associating with my working experience in different Canadian senior centres, I was conscious that Chinese Canadians and British Canadians are also seeking more high-quality leisure opportunities. Therefore, how to detect, address, and possibly overcome all the leisure-related issues for older people in both China and Canada (and possibly for other countries) became not only my personal expression of filial piety to my parents, but also my motive for carrying out this dissertation research.

### **Current Journey**

This chapter provides a brief introduction to: (a) the aging and minority population in Canada, (b) the aging population in China, (c) the significance of this study, (d) Walker and Virden's (2005) leisure constraints model, (e) basic definitions (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity, acculturation, motivations, leisure constraints, and constraint negotiation) used in this study, and (f) a list of this study's research questions.

### **Aging and Minority Population in Canada**

According to the 2011 Census, Canada had approximately 4.9 million Canadians aged 65 years and over, representing nearly 14.77% of the total population (Statistics Canada, 2013a). That is, approximately one out of every seven Canadians is now a senior citizen. The number of aging population is expected to continue to rise because the first wave of baby-boomers (i.e., people who were born between 1946 and 1955) began to turn age 65 in 2011 (Statistics

Canada, 2006a). Even though the city of Edmonton (Alberta) has one of the lowest proportion of senior citizens in Canada, mainly because its recent economic boom has attracted younger workers from other parts of Canada, it still has over 100,000 people who are 65 years old or over, representing 11.7% of the city's total population (Statistics Canada, 2012).

Canada's socio-demographic composition is not only changing because of the aging population, but also because of a trend toward increasing ethnic diversity. Gramann and Allison (1999) have stated that: "the increase in the ethnic diversity of North America is one of the most powerful demographic forces shaping U.S. and Canadian society today" (p. 283). It is anticipated that one of every five people in Canada could be a visible minority group member by 2017. Among all the visible minority groups, Chinese is the second largest, representing 21.1% of the total visible minority population in Canada (Statistics Canada, 2011). According to the 2011 Census, 39,625 individuals in Edmonton identified their mother tongues as either Chinese or one of the Chinese dialects (e.g., Cantonese, Shanghainese, Taiwanese), accounting for 18.46% of the languages other than the official languages of English and French (Statistics Canada, 2012).

More than one-quarter of all older adults in Canada are immigrants. As the second largest visible minority group, more than one hundred thousand Chinese immigrants (i.e., 121,950) are 65 years old and over, accounting for 14.82% of the total Chinese population in Canada (Statistics Canada, 2013b).

### **Aging Population in China**

The population in China has doubled from approximately 600 million to 1.3 billion since 1952 (as cited in Su, 2008). In the late 1970s, the Chinese government realized the severe consequences of population growth and launched the "one-child" policy. As a result, the rapid increase in the Chinese population has been under control to a certain extent. This fertility decline combined with

massive public health programs (and thus a decreased mortality rate and prolonged life expectancy) has contributed to a rapidly aging population (Su, Shen, & Wei, 2006). Riley (2004) reported that the proportion of the Chinese population age 60 and above accounted for over 10% in 2000 and will reach 27% in 2050.

### **Significance of Study**

This study corresponded to the above demographic shift by filling three major research gaps—lack of cross-cultural research in leisure studies, lack of cross-cultural studies in the field of leisure and gerontology, and lack of leisure research in immigrants' source countries.

#### **Lack of cross-cultural research in leisure studies.**

Current leisure research suggests a need to include diverse ethnic groups into study samples because “a comprehensive understanding of the nature and meaning of leisure in the lives of racial and ethnic populations is still lacking” (Gramann & Allison, 1999, p. 289). In 1999, Valentine, Allison, and Schneider conducted a systematic review of cross-national research in three major journals (i.e., *Journal of Leisure Research*, *Leisure Sciences*, and *Leisure Studies*) and identified only 20 (1.5%) germane articles. Based on this result, they concluded that it was “abundantly clear that cross-national research is almost nonexistent in the leisure field” (p. 243), and they subsequently added that “we know very little about the leisure behaviour, policies and practices of non-Western countries” (p. 244). Gramann and Allison (1999) supported this contention by pointing out that past research mainly focused on recreational differences between African Americans and Whites, while more recent research has focused on the Hispanic population. As a result, there is a lack of research paying attention to non-western populations, especially Asian groups (Gramann & Allison, 1999). A small number of scholars have responded to calls for more research on Asian people, with a few

studies specifically focusing on Chinese people in terms of culture and leisure constraints (Walker, Jackson, & Deng, 2007), ethnicity, gender, and leisure activity such as gambling (Walker, Courneya, & Deng, 2006), and ethnicity, acculturation, self-construal, motivation, and outdoor recreation (Walker, Deng, & Dieser, 2001). However, our current understanding of leisure in non-Western countries is still extremely limited. For example, after reviewing non-Western and cross-cultural/national research published in five major leisure studies journals between 1990 and 2009, Ito, Walker, and Liang (2014) reported that of 1,891 total articles, only 4.1% were non-Western and cross-cultural/national in nature. Although articles on this topic increased fivefold over 20 years, over 90% of recent leisure articles still focused, in whole or in part, on only slightly more than 10% of the world's population (e.g., North American, European, Australasian).

#### **Lack of cross-cultural research in leisure and gerontology.**

In 2000, McGuire criticized the leisure field by noting that not much work relating leisure to aging and older adults has been done so as to allow leisure researchers to “make bold statements supported by compelling evidence” (p. 97). A number of leisure researchers responded to this challenge. For example, Nimrod (2007) examined the benefits of leisure activities to retirees' life satisfaction. Janke, Nimrod, and Kleiber (2008) investigated how leisure involvement changes with spousal loss. Dionigi and Lyons (2010) explored that leisure contributes to older adults' connection to the community.

Also, Gibson (2006) urged leisure researcher to move beyond borrowing activity theory (Hendricks & Hendricks, 1981), disengagement theory (Cumming & Henry, 1961), and continuity theory (Atchley, 1977) that have been criticized for their limiting behaviour predicting ability in both the leisure field and gerontology. Correspondingly, Burnett-Wolle and Godbey (2007) introduced leisure researchers to two theories of successful aging developed from Lifespan

Development Psychology, including selective optimization with compensation (SOC; Baltes, 2003; Baltes & Carstensen, 1999) and socioemotional selectivity (Baltes & Carstensen, 1999). These two theories provide a “unique perspective on later life that may enhance the explanation and prediction of older adults’ leisure pursuits and related relationships” (Burnett-Wolle & Godbey, 2007, p. 498). Subsequently, some researchers used the SOC to study leisure constraints’ positive impact in later life (Kleiber, McGuire, Aybar-Damali, & Norman, 2008), leisure constraints for retirees involving in a “learning in Retirement” programme (Kleiber & Nimrod, 2009), and innovation among older adults with chronic health conditions (Nimrod & Hutchinson, 2010).

Unfortunately, these studies again neglected 90% of the world’s population. More specifically for Asian people especially Chinese, as mentioned above, although Walker and his colleagues’ studies responded to calls for more research on Asian people and have “[made] their greatest contribution to our thinking about the cross-cultural dimensions of leisure” (Mannell, 2005, p. 101), their studies only included samples such as British/Canadians or Chinese/Canadians in general, and Canadian Students or Mainland Chinese students in particular. Therefore, there is a lack of research studying Chinese older adults and their leisure behaviours in Canada.

#### **Lack of leisure research in immigrants’ source countries.**

For Mainland China, the increasing aging population has posed a major challenge for the Chinese government. As Su (2008) pointed out

Such a demographic shift combined with the other two social economic changes, namely, increased living standard as the result of 1980s economic reform in general and an extended period of post-work life for older adults living in cities because of the institutionalization of retirement in particular, have made aged person’s lives, especially their leisure life an increasingly

important topic of social conversations in China. (p. 100)

Similarly, few studies have examined Mainland Chinese older adults' leisure behaviours. As Floyd, Walker, Stodolska, and Shinew (2014) identified in their last chapter of *Race, Ethnicity, and Leisure*, one of the emerging issues is that there is a lack of leisure research in immigrants' source countries in order to better understand how they adjust and adapt to new cultures.

In addition to filling the above research gaps, this study provided “a rare opportunity for expanding theory applicable to human leisure experience in general” (Stodolska, 2000, p. 158). Thus, using Walker and Virden's (2005) leisure constraints model (see Figure 1) as the framework to guide this study, the main purpose of this study was to test its cross-cultural applicability by comparing and contrasting three different ethnic/cultural groups (i.e., British Canadian, Mainland Chinese, and Chinese Canadian).

### **Leisure Constraints Model**

The left side of the model includes both macro level (e.g., ethnicity, gender, cultural/national forces, and socioeconomic forces) and meso level factors (e.g., self-construal, previously conceptualized as being at the micro level) that “have a cumulative effect on leisure preferences” along with intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints, and motivations (Walker & Virden, 2005, p. 202). The right side of the model (now reconceptualised as being at the micro level) includes interpersonal and structural constraints as intervening factors between leisure preferences and actual participation as well as introduces “constraint negotiation” as “a two-stage process which initially occurs as part of the decision-making process (thus mitigating intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints), and then occurs once again after structural constraints come into play (thus mitigating interpersonal and structural constraints)” (Walker & Virden, 2005, p. 202).

Unfortunately, Walker and Virden (2005) overlooked the potential impact of a key macro level factor in their model: age. Thus, by focusing on certain factors of their model (i.e., gender, ethnicity, acculturation, motivation, constraints as a whole, constraint negotiation, and actual participation) and adding age as an additional construct, I developed a new study to investigate what factors affect older adults' general leisure participation. A succinct definition of each factor is presented below, with each to be further discussed in Chapter 2.

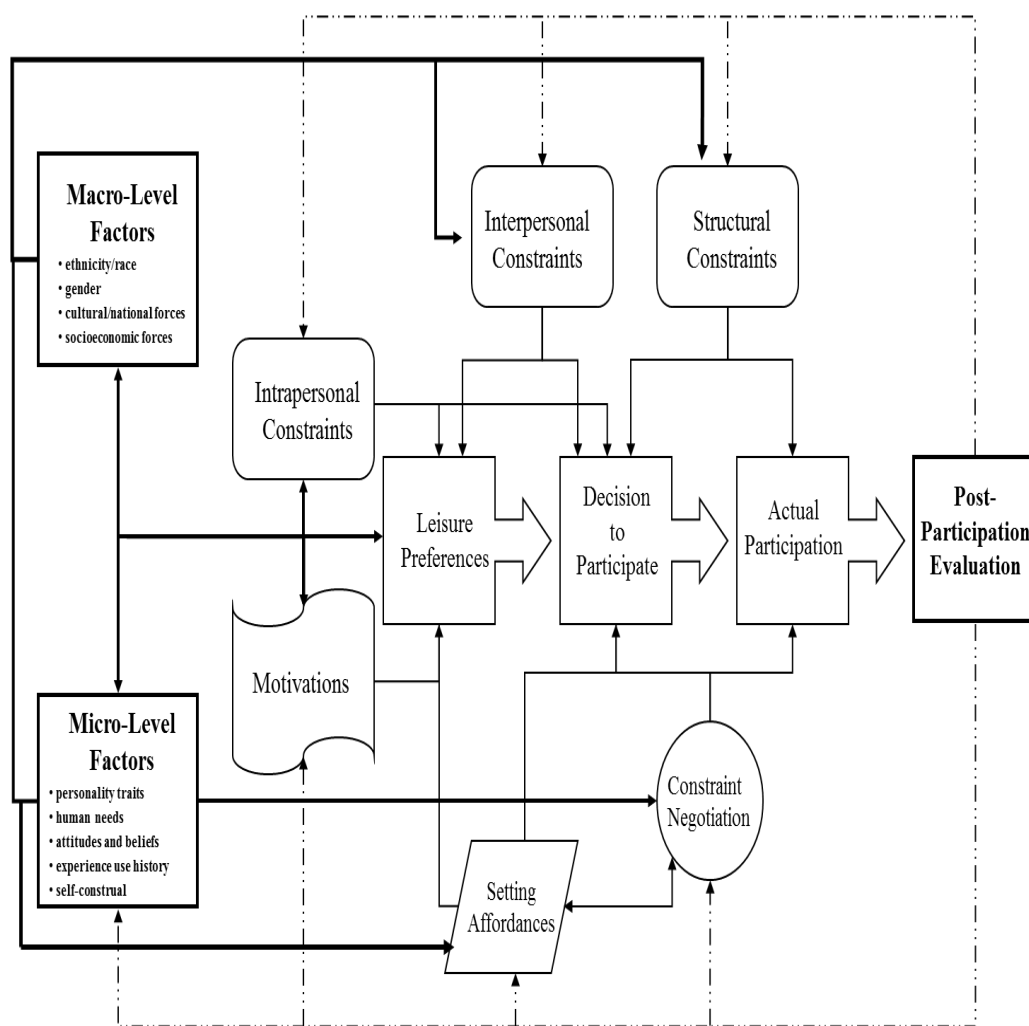


Figure 1. Revised leisure constraints model. Adapted from "Constraints on Outdoor Recreation," by G. J. Walker and R. J. Virden, 2005, *Constraints to Leisure*, p. 202.



## **Definitions**

### **Age.**

Older people are often described as “adults age 65 years and older (unless otherwise specified)” (A-Z Glossary, 2009). Also, because different researchers use different terms—such as “seniors” (Czaja & Lee, 2003; Van Harssel, 1995) and “older adults”—interchangeably as well as employ a variety of cut-off points to define “older adults” or “seniors”—such as “50 +” (Leavengood, 2001), “55 +” (Wang & Fesenmaier, 2004), “60 +” (Selwyn, 2004) and “65 +” (Czaja & Lee, 2003; Van Harssel, 1995)—the literature reflects enormous variability and inconsistency. In this study, the term “older adult” refers to a starting age of 55 and up (i.e., 55+), as Statistics Canada (2006b) generally uses age 55 as a cut off point.

### **Gender.**

Scott (1986) defined gender as “a constitutive element of social relationships based on perceived differences between the sexes, and ...a primary way of signifying relationships of power” (p. 1067). Henderson (1994) interpreted gender as “a set of socially constructed relationships which are produced and reproduced through people’s action” (p. 121). Both definitions reflect this construct’s sociality (e.g., social relationship, power structure, and people’s action).

### **Ethnicity.**

Ethnicity is defined as “identity with or membership in a particular racial, national, or cultural group and observance of that group’s customs, beliefs, and language” (Ethnicity, n.d.). As Floyd, Bocarro, and Thompson (2008) pointed out, based on this definition it is not surprising to learn that most researchers in the leisure studies field either employed ethnicity or race as their research construct, and some have even used these two terms interchangeably (e.g., Gramann &

Allison, 1999).

Because differentiating between race and ethnicity is an extremely difficult task (one that is beyond the scope of this study), Berry, Poortinga, Segall, and Dasen (2002) provided an alternative by introducing the construct of cultural identity to measure ethnicity in a multicultural context. These researchers contended that how one thinks of oneself is also constructed along two dimensions: identification with one's heritage or ethnocultural group and identification with the larger or dominant society. Furthermore, Kalin and Berry (1995) referred these two dimensions to ethnic identity and civic identity; whereas Salazar and Salazar (1998) suggested heritage identity and national identity. Finally, Berry et al. (2002) stressed that these two dimensions can be either independent of each other (e.g., Chinese, Canadian) or nested (e.g., Chinese Canadian). In the case of a Chinese Canadian, for example, ethnic/heritage identity refers to his/her knowledge of, and attachment to, Chinese membership in terms of Chinese history, traditions, values, and languages; whereas civic/national identity refers to his/her knowledge of, and attachment to, Canadian membership in terms of Canadian history, traditions, values, and languages.

This study also recruited participants from Mainland China in order to compare and contrast Chinese, Chinese Canadians, and British Canadians (According to Statistics Canada, 1998, British Islanders includes English, English-Canadian, Irish, Irish-Canadian, Scottish, Scottish-Canadian, Welsh, and Welsh-Canadian. Statistics Canada, 1998, also contends that much of the increase in those reporting solely "Canadian" was a result of British Islanders changing their self-identification. Thus, British Canadians is a combination of both groups.) The construct of social identity is not applicable to Mainland Chinese people because the two types of identity (i.e., ethnic and cultural) measure the same thing. In order to avoid confusion, I reserved the term "ethnic group" for discussions of

British Canadians and Chinese Canadians, while reserving the term “ethnic/cultural group” for discussions of these two groups and Mainland Chinese.

### **Acculturation.**

In this study, I only used the concept of acculturation for Chinese Canadians. Based on Gordon’s (1964) definition, acculturation refers to changing one’s cultural patterns to those of the host society in terms of diet, religion, and language. Other researchers such as Antshel (2002) and Marin and Marin (1991) have provided a slightly different definition with the focus being on behavioural and attitudinal changes from the original culture to the new culture (e.g., engage or disengage in local activities, like or dislike the new lifestyle). But still other researchers (e.g., Buriel, 1993; Marin & Gamba, 1996) have disagreed with definitions that are based on assimilation theory by arguing that individuals do not have to completely change from their original cultural characteristics to those of the new culture. In other words, people can keep both of their cultural characteristics. It is the latter approach that was used in this study.

Although the ongoing trend of globalization is not the focus of this study, it is important to bear in mind that it has an underlying influence on people’s acculturation process. For example, a Mainland Chinese person who has never been to any Western countries might still have been highly acculturated to Western culture (e.g., speaking English, listening to Hip Hop music, eating Western food, and playing American football), because he or she can even experience virtual migrations by using modern communication technologies (Urry, 2000). As Williams (2002) suggested:

What characterizes modern forms of dwelling, working, and playing is that they increasingly involve circulating through geographically extended networks of social relations spread across a multiplicity of places and

regions. With circulation no longer the disruption of normal settled life, as it is sometimes presumed, globalization effectively deterritorializes or dislodges what have long been geographically bounded conceptions of culture, home, and identity. This makes increasingly problematic our assumptions of singular place identities and geographic rootedness as starting points from which to build social theories to explain tourism, leisure, and identity. (p. 356)

### **Motivations.**

Ryan and Deci (2000) defined motivation as “energy, direction, persistence and equifinality—all aspects of activation and intention” (p. 69). Based on self-determination theory, Deci and Ryan (1985) developed a continuum that suggests individuals’ motivation can vary from intrinsic motivation (i.e., doing something voluntarily without any external rewards) to extrinsic motivation (i.e., doing something for external rewards), to amotivation (i.e., doing something without intrinsic or extrinsic motivation). As a result, people’s self-determination, which was “characterized by awareness of internal needs, and a strong desire to make free choices based on these needs” (Weissinger & Bandalos, 1995, p. 383), can move from a higher level to a lower level and vice versa.

### **Constraints.**

Jackson (1991) defined leisure constraints as “factors that are assumed by researchers and/or perceived or experienced by individuals to limit the formation of leisure preferences and/or to inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure” (p. 279). There are three types of constraints: (a) *intrapersonal*, which are individual psychological qualities that affect the formation of leisure preferences; (b) *interpersonal*, which are social factors that affect the formation of leisure preferences; and (c) *structural*, which are factors such as time and money occur after leisure preferences are formed but before actual leisure participation takes

place (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Because these three types of leisure constraints are arranged hierarchically, intrapersonal constraints are considered to be the most powerful (Crawford et al., 1991).

### **Constraint negotiation.**

Mannell and Kleiber (1997) described constraint negotiation as the “strategies people use to avoid or reduce the impact of the constraints and barriers to leisure participation and enjoyment” (p. 341). Jackson et al. (1993) further categorized negotiation strategies into either cognitive or behavioural. Cognitive strategies are the strategies people can use to reduce their cognitive dissonance (e.g., having an uncomfortable feeling by holding two contradictory ideas simultaneously) through devaluing an unchosen or constrained activity. Behavioural strategies are the methods people may use to actually change their behaviours. Jackson et al. (1993) further divided these strategies into two categories: modification of leisure aspects of life and modification of non-leisure aspects of life. The former indeed has changed the leisure activity already, whereas the latter involves changes in people’s lifestyles to meet their leisure needs.

### **Research Questions**

In order to answer the main concerns of this study—that is, how do the aforementioned factors (i.e., age, gender, ethnicity, acculturation, motivations, leisure constraints, and constraint negotiation) affect older adults’ general leisure participation —17 research questions have been developed including:

- *R1: Do the associations among average leisure motivation, average leisure constraint, and average constraint negotiation differ by age, gender, ethnicity, or, in the case of Chinese Canadians, acculturation?*

The next set of research questions investigates whether leisure participation overall differs by (a) age, ethnicity, or the interaction between the

two; and (b) gender, ethnicity, or the interactions between the two. It is important to note that because the main focus of this cross-cultural study is on detecting cultural differences, the potential interaction of age and gender is not examined:

- *R2: Does leisure participation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R3: Does leisure participation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

In addition, two research questions relating to acculturation are put forth only for Chinese Canadians:

- *R4: Does leisure participation overall differ by age, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R5: Does leisure participation overall differ by gender, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*

The following three sets of questions further explore whether leisure motivation overall, leisure constraint overall, and constraint negotiation overall differ by: (a) age, ethnicity, or the interaction between the two; and (b) gender, ethnicity, or the interactions between the two, respectively. Similar to Research Questions Four and Five, six questions involving acculturation (two for each set of questions) are put forward specifically for Chinese Canadians.

(1) This list of research questions examines motivation overall:

- *R6: Does leisure motivation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R7: Does leisure motivation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

For Chinese Canadians only:

- *R8: Does leisure motivation overall differ by age, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*

- *R9: Does leisure motivation overall differ by gender, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*

(2) The following research questions examine leisure constraints overall:

- *R10: Does leisure constraint overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R11: Does leisure constraint overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

For Chinese Canadians only:

- *R12: Does leisure constraint overall differ by age, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R13: Does leisure constraint overall differ by gender, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*

(3) The following list of research questions examines constraint negotiation overall:

- *R14: Does leisure constraint negotiation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R15: Does leisure constraint negotiation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

For Chinese Canadians only:

- *R16: Does leisure constraint negotiation overall differ by age, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R17: Does leisure constraint negotiation overall differ by gender, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*

In conclusion, the results of this study will help Canadian and Chinese researchers better understand older adults' leisure behaviour, and Canadian and Chinese professionals provide better recreation programs and services to older adults.

## Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter discusses what leisure is from different perspectives followed by three major themes: 1) micro level factors (i.e., motivations, constraints, and constraint negotiation) affecting leisure and especially leisure participation; 2) macro level factors (i.e., age, gender, ethnicity, acculturation) affecting leisure and especially leisure participation; and 3) interrelationships between these micro and macro level factors. In addition, research gaps and specific research questions were identified in corresponding sections.

### Leisure

Before going into the detailed discussion about the main themes (i.e., micro and macro factors affecting leisure and especially leisure participation), it is important to articulate the meaning of leisure clearly. Ironically, answering the question (i.e., What is leisure?) is one of the oldest problems for leisure researchers because of its complexity (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). Researchers have defined it in a variety of ways. For example, leisure has traditionally been interpreted as free time, as activity, and as a state of mind (e.g., Kelly, 1996; Kraus, 2001; Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). Moreover, after a comprehensive literature review, Mannell and Kleiber (1997) primarily associated leisure with freedom and intrinsic motivation. Other researchers have criticized these traditional conceptions and instead related leisure to emancipatory action (Hemingway, 1999), participatory democracy (Stormann, 1993), and community development (Arai & Pedlar, 1997).

To better define and measure the construct of leisure, Mannell and Kleiber (1997) developed a matrix consisting of two criteria: the type of phenomena and the definitional vantage point (see Figure 1). The type of phenomena can be either objective or subjective (Ellis & Witt, 1990), while the definitional vantage point can be either external (i.e., the viewpoint from the researcher) or internal (i.e., the



viewpoint from the research participants). Objectively, leisure can be defined as activities, free time, and settings/environment. Subjectively, leisure can be interpreted as a “mental experience while engaged in leisure activities and the satisfactions or meanings derived from these involvements” (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997, p. 55). Externally, researchers predetermine a definition based on their own understanding and previous research. Internally, researchers allow participants to decide, perceive, and define their own leisure on a personal basis. These criteria can be used either separately or collectively. For example, researchers can study people playing soccer from both an objective aspect (e.g., playing soccer on a Sunday afternoon at the University) and a subjective aspect (e.g., the meaning associated with a soccer match). More specifically, by using a predetermined definition of leisure (e.g., playing soccer is an enjoyable leisure activity that can be played in any place and at any time) through close-ended questions, or by asking participants to decide whether playing soccer is a leisure activity for them (e.g., participants might considered playing soccer as a profession rather than a leisure activity) through open-ended questions, or both.

Type of Phenomena	Definitional Vantage Point	
	External	Internal
Objective	<i>Activity, setting or time period</i> is defined by the <i>researcher</i> as leisure or nonleisure.	<i>Activity, setting or time period</i> is defined by the <i>participant</i> as leisure or nonleisure.
Subjective	<i>Experience, satisfaction or meaning</i> associated with involvement is defined by the <i>researcher</i> as leisure or nonleisure.	<i>Experience, satisfaction or meaning</i> associated with involvement is defined by the <i>participant</i> as leisure or nonleisure.

Figure 2. Research approaches to defining leisure. Adapted from “Leisure as Behaviour, Setting and Time,” by R. C. Mannell and D. A. Kleiber, 1997, *A Social Psychology of Leisure*, p. 54.

In addition to developing the above matrix, Mannell and Kleiber (1997) suggested that “activities that constitute leisure are likely to differ by culture and subculture, gender, age, and perhaps even personality” (p. 72). For example, Henderson, Bialeschki, Shaw, and Freysinger (1989) described types of activities, social settings, and physical locations as “containers” for women’s leisure, suggesting that although women who have worked hard both at work and at home feel that they have little or no leisure, they still have leisure-like experiences in those work and family obligations. Here, “containers” stand for the capacity (i.e., “fitting in” leisure) for women to experience leisure that is positively associated with opportunities and negatively associated with constraints (Henderson, 1994a). Parr and Lashua (2004) supported Mannell and Kleiber’s (1997) notions by recommending that future research should take race/ethnicity and gender into account. However, Parr and Lashua (2004) also found that both public recreation practitioners and others outside the leisure field did not perceive the “culturally correct” definitions of leisure differently and actually shared a few traditional views of leisure such as free time, activity, and state of mind.

For the purpose of this study, I still used the traditional definition of leisure, that is: “enjoyable, relaxing, freely chosen activities that occur during free time” (Parr & Lashua, 2005, p. 23). In this case, the external definition is both objective and subjective based on Mannell and Kleiber’s (2007) matrix. However, leisure constraints, one of the important variables in this study, were assessed from the participants’ point of view (i.e., internally).

Parr and Lashua (2005) also stated that “if leisure is defined as an activity, typically engaged in during free-time, the provision of programmes and services becomes the endpoint and participation the desired outcome” (p. 23). Since participation is the desired outcome for leisure programs and services, which factors affect leisure and especially leisure participation is also a crucial question

for leisure researchers and practitioners. The following three sections correspondingly discussed these factors in greater detail by adopting Walker and Virden's (2005) leisure constraints model (see Figure 1).

To facilitate readers' understanding, the following sections divided all of the variables examined in this study that affect leisure and leisure participation into two main levels: micro level (i.e., motivations, constraints, and constraint negotiation) and macro level (i.e., age, gender, ethnicity, and acculturation).

### **Micro Level Factors**

#### **Motivations.**

Ryan and Deci (2000) defined motivation as “energy, direction, persistence and equifinality—all aspects of activation and intention” (p. 69). Based on self-determination theory (SDT), Deci and Ryan (1985, 2000) developed a continuum (see Figure 3) that suggests individuals' motivation can vary from intrinsic motivation (i.e., doing something voluntarily without any external rewards) to extrinsic motivation (i.e., doing something for external rewards), to amotivation (i.e., doing something without intrinsic or extrinsic motivation). As a result, people's self-determination, which was “characterized by awareness of internal needs, and a strong desire to make free choices based on these needs” (Weissinger & Bandalos, 1995, p. 383), can move from a higher level to a lower level and vice versa.

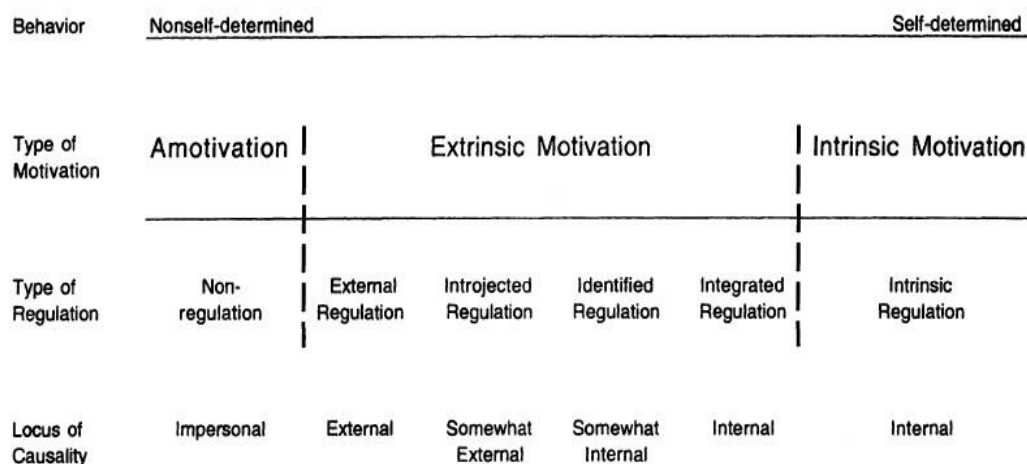


Figure 3. The self-determination continuum. Adapted from “The ‘what’ and ‘why’ of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behaviour,” by L. Deci and M. Ryan, 2000, *Psychological Inquiry*, 11, p. 237.

Intrinsic motivation, the highest level of self-determination, has been defined as “a tendency to seek intrinsic rewards in leisure behaviour” (Weissinger & Bandalos, 1995, p. 383). Intrinsic motivation involves interest, enjoyment, and doing something for its own sake (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000).

Extrinsic motivation is a multidimensional construct, which is usually divided into four types: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). External regulation, which is the least self-determined form of extrinsic motivation, involves people performing certain behaviours to either receive external rewards or avoid external punishments. For example, a person gambles to make money (external reward), or he or she practices his or her gambling skills to avoid losing money (external punishment). Introjected regulation involves “should” and “must” types of activities that are motivated by internal pressure. For instance, a person who has a regular exercise plan believes that he or she must go to the gym because he or she will feel guilty if he or she does not. Identified regulation involves behaviours or goals being personally important. For example, a person feels that he or she wants

to go to the gym because he or she has noticed the benefits of doing so. In this case, he or she will also enjoy doing so in the future regardless of the existence of external rewards or pressure. Integrated regulation, the most self-determined type of extrinsic motivation, involves activities or behaviours being evaluated and assimilated into the self. Mannell and Kleiber (1997) believed that people who engage in serious leisure (e.g., Stebbins, 1992) are usually integrated motivated.

Amotivation, which involves the lowest level of self-determination, reflects “the relative absence of motivation” (Vallerand & Losier, 1999, p. 154). An example could be a person plays a soccer match neither because he or she likes the sport nor because he or she believes he or she can gain something (e.g., improved fitness) from that match. Instead, he or she may have participated just because he or she happened to be there and because one team was down a player. In this case, the person may either drop out of the activity during the match or he or she will not play any future soccer matches.

Other research has supported this classification of motivations. For example, Amabile et al. (1994) found that intrinsic motivation contains several major elements, including self-determination, competence, task involvement, curiosity, enjoyment, and interest. Correspondingly, extrinsic motivation features a number of key elements such as concern with competition, evaluation, recognition, money or other tangible incentives, and constraint by others.

### **Constraints.**

As a distinct sub-field within leisure studies, systematic research on leisure constraints has been carried out for almost three decades (Jackson, 2005). To better understand leisure constraints, many researchers have tried to define this concept. For example, Henderson et al. (1989) defined leisure constraints as “any factor which intervenes between the preference for an activity and participation in it” (p. 117). Although this definition was commonly used at one time, it has since

been criticized as outdated (Jackson, 1997). Jackson (1991) made an important advancement by defining leisure constraints as “factors that are assumed by researchers and/or perceived or experienced by individuals to limit the formation of leisure preferences and/or to inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure” (p. 279). This definition is better because it not only recognizes different types of constraints besides intervening constraints (therefore causing various outcomes besides nonparticipation), but also proposes that people’s perception is not always associated with reality (e.g., people might not consider certain constraints as the factors that prevent them from leisure participation, although they are actually affected by those constraints) (Jackson, 1997).

Building on better definitions like this, past research has progressed considerably to develop a variety of theories and models (Crawford & Jackson, 2005). As one of the most important models in leisure research, Crawford et al. (1991) developed a model of leisure constraints, which further differentiated constraints into three different types (i.e., intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural), arranged hierarchically. Intrapersonal constraints were defined as “individual psychological states and attributes which interact with leisure preferences rather than intervening between preferences and participation”; while interpersonal and structural constraints were defined as “a result of interaction or the relationships between individuals’ characteristics” and “intervening factors between leisure preferences and participation” respectively (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000, pp. 910-911). This hierarchical model suggests that people must overcome each level to face the subsequent level of constraints. Although empirical research has general supported this hierarchy, there are some studies that have not done so (e.g., Gilbert & Hudson, 2000; Hawkins et al., 1999).

However, while Walker, Jackson, and Deng (2007) found that this Western-based leisure constraints model (Crawford et al., 1991) itself was

cross-culturally applicable, they acknowledged that certain types of intrapersonal constraint might be more important for Chinese people than for Westerners. One such constraint, Liang and Walker (2011) suggested, is the Chinese concept of “face”.

Although “face” is a universal concept pervasive in both Western and Eastern cultures (Gilbert & Tsao, 2000; Ho, 1976; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998), it is considered to be the most significant factor in understanding Chinese interpersonal behaviour (Gilbert & Tsao, 2000). Ting-Toomey and Kurogi (1998) defined face as “a claimed sense of favourable social self-worth that a person wants others to have of her or him” which “can be enhanced or threatened in any uncertain social situation” (p. 187). Face in Chinese culture can be construed in terms of *lian* (lien) and *mianzi* (mien-tzu) (Gao, 1998; Ho, 1976). *Lian* “represents the confidence of society in the integrity of ego’s moral character, the loss of which makes it impossible for him to function properly within the community,” whereas *mianzi* “stands for the kind of prestige that is emphasized in this country [America]: a reputation achieved through getting on in life, through success and ostentation” (Hu, 1944, p. 45). It is worth noting that these two types of face are often used interchangeably in the real world (Gao, 1998). Finally, face can be lost, maintained, or gained (Ho, 1976); but for Chinese people, protecting oneself from losing face is more important than maintaining or gaining face because the first can lead to negative consequences ranging from shame to loss of social status (Ho, 1976; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998).

To better understand this concept, Zane and Yeh (2002) developed the Loss of Face Scale (LOF) to evaluate individuals’ level of face concern (i.e., self- and other- face) in the area of Psychology. They found that Asian Americans have much higher levels of LOF than European Americans. Later, Liang and Walker (2011) used a modified LOF to explore how self- and other-face constrain

Mainland Chinese people's leisure behaviour. Thirty five percent of participants reported that self-face would not constrain them from starting a new leisure activity while an equal percentage (i.e., 35%) reported that it would do so. Comparably, 45% of participants indicated that other-face would not constrain them from starting a new leisure activity while 24% indicated that it would do so.

### **Constraint negotiation.**

Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (1993) pointed out that past constraints research considered constraints as insurmountable obstacles, which result in nonparticipation in leisure activities. But Kay and Jackson (1991) noted that constraints do not always prevent participation; that is, people will participate in leisure activities "despite constraint" (p. 301). Crawford et al. (1991) and Scott (1991) partially explained this finding by suggesting that people usually negotiate through leisure constraints in order to participate in, or continue to participate in, leisure activities. As a result, the concept of constraint negotiation was integrated into constraints theory. Jackson et al. (1993) incorporated this concept into the hierarchical model of leisure constraints (Crawford et al., 1991) and suggested that leisure participation "is dependent not on the absence of constraints (although this may be true for some people) but on negotiation through them. Such negotiation may modify rather than foreclose participation" (p. 4). Mannell and Kleiber (1997) thereby described constraint negotiation as the "strategies people use to avoid or reduce the impact of the constraints and barriers to leisure participation and enjoyment" (p. 341).

Because constraint negotiation involves different strategies, Jackson et al. (1993) believed that in most occasions, people adopt certain type of negotiation strategy to overcome the specific problem people may encounter. For example, if the problem is time related, the strategies people will use therefore involve more efficient time management. Jackson et al. (1993) further categorized negotiation



strategies into either cognitive or behavioural. Cognitive strategies are the strategies people can use to reduce their cognitive dissonance (i.e., having an uncomfortable feeling by holding two contradictory ideas simultaneously) through devaluing an unchosen or constrained activity. For instance, people who chose skating in the rink located at the mall during a holiday instead of going to well-known resorts to ski could stress the benefits of skating (e.g., cheaper, closer, safer) and costs of skiing (e.g., expensive, far away, dangerous). The positive side of this kind of strategy is that people can still enjoy their holiday by choosing alternative leisure activities. The negative side is reduced interest (or even nonparticipation) in constrained activities. The last, in fact, could be better overcome/negotiated through different strategies (e.g., go skiing with a group of experienced skiers to share the expense and lower the risks by learning skills from these people).

Behavioural strategies are the methods people may use to actually change their behaviours. Jackson et al. (1993) further divided these strategies into two categories: modification of leisure aspects of life and modification of non-leisure aspects of life. The former indeed has changed the leisure activity already. For example, people may either spend more or less time in participating in certain leisure activities; people could start new leisure activities; and people may change their levels of specialization. The latter involves changes in people's lifestyles to meet their leisure needs. For instance, people may choose to retire from work earlier to enjoy their favorite leisure activities such as traveling around the world.

No matter which type of strategy people use, participation in leisure activities remains the desired outcome. But Jackson et al. (1993) argued that the outcome resulting from constraint negotiation and the outcome resulting from the absence of constraints are likely to be different. The above examples partially support this argument.

**Associations.**

Research has found that these three micro level factors are closely interconnected, thereby suggesting three pairs of associations: (a) motivations and constraints, (b) negotiation and constraints, and (c) motivations and negotiation.

***Motivations and constraints.***

Although the concept of motivation has been used widely to study leisure behaviours (Iso-Ahola, 1999), it has not received enough attention in the leisure constraints literature (Alexandris, Torbatzoudis, & Grouios, 2002). Jackson et al. (1993) first introduced it by incorporating the negotiation proposition into the hierarchical model of leisure constraints (Crawford et al., 1991), suggesting that “both the initiation and outcome of the negotiation process are dependent on the relative strength of, and interactions between, constraints on participating in an activity and motivations for such participation” (p. 9). Therefore, based on Crawford and colleagues’ contention (1991), a number of leisure researchers have examined this relationship between motivations and constraints (e.g., Alexandris et al., 2002; Carroll & Alexandris, 1997; Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Stoldoska, 2000).

However, mixed results have been reported in these studies. Alexandris et al. (2002) found that intrapersonal constraints are partially and negatively related to individuals’ intrinsic motivation and amotivation, while interpersonal constraints and structural constraints are not relevant with any types of motivations. Furthermore, these results indicated that intrapersonal constraints, acting as psychological mediators, are able to predict intrinsic motivation and amotivation, suggesting that “some types of constraints enter early in the individual’s decision-making process and affect motivation” (Alexandris et al., 2002, p. 236). Hubbard and Mannell (2001) supported this suggestion by pointing out that “a higher level of motivation to participate does not lead to a reduction in

perception of constraint” (p. 159). But, interestingly, Hubbard and Mannell (2001) did not detect any significant relationships between motivations and constraints in their study. These researchers shared a similar hypothesis with Carroll and Alexandris (1997), which was that motivations are antecedent to constraints. Nevertheless, because of the cross-sectional nature of their study, Carroll and Alexandris’ (1997) results only supported that motivations are correlated with constraints, and not which concept precedes the other. To further complicate the above, Stoldolska (2000) even argued that, from a multi-period perspective, constraints could be potential motivators for participation. For example, a new immigrant to Canada might experience language difficulties at the time of pursuing leisure experience. However, lack of language skills might also stimulate the new immigrant to improve his or her English/French by participating in more leisure activities. Cohen-Mansfield, Marx, and Guralnik (2003) supported this proposition by stating that barriers for older people usually reflected their motivation. For example, they found that older people who mentioned that their health situations were barriers to exercising also reported that feeling healthy motivated them to exercise. This finding suggests that constraints can also be enabling factors.

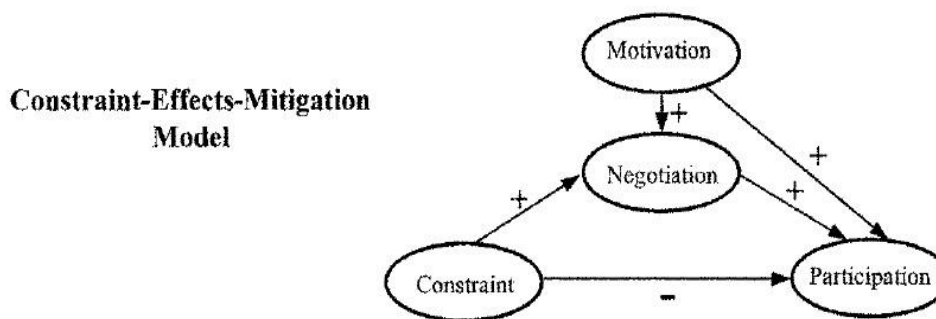
In addition, the relationship between motivations and constraints can be explored from the aforementioned “face” perspective. Because the researchers in leisure studies seldom adopted this concept in previous studies, Wang’s (2009) research seems to be the first one to examine “face” in terms of Mainland Chinese and British-Canadian university students being motivated to gain face when traveling (e.g., by buying souvenirs for themselves and others). By employing Ting-Toomey’s (2005) face concern measures (i.e., self-face, other-face, and mutual-face), Wang (2009) indicated that only self-face concern is related to motivation. Given that leisure motivations and leisure constraints are theorized to

be in balance (Crawford et al., 1991), and that gaining face is the antithesis of losing face, then it follows that the fear of losing face (both self- and other-) might not only constrain leisure participation but, because of its importance in Chinese culture (Ho, 1976), this effect could be quite powerful. For example, Liang and Walker (2011) reported that self- and other-face concerns are important intrapersonal leisure constraints for some Mainland Chinese people.

### *Negotiation and constraints.*

To test the relationship between negotiation and constraints, Hubbard and Mannell (2001) examined four models (i.e., independence model, negotiation-buffer, constraint-effects-mitigation, and perceived constraint-reduction). They found that only the constraint-effects-mitigation model (see Figure 4) was well-supported, suggesting that constraints positively and “directly trigger negotiation efforts that can mitigate the negative effects of the constraints” (p. 158). Many studies (e.g., Frederick & Shaw, 1995; Henderson, Bedini, Hecht, & Schuler, 1995; Jackson & Rucks, 1995) supported this model and detected a variety of negotiation strategies to counteract the negative influence of constraints for different populations within different contexts. A few studies, for example, have looked specifically at women’s constraints. Henderson et al. (1995) studied women with disabilities who employed negotiation strategies to respond constraints positively and actively. Frederick and Shaw (1995) studied young women in aerobic exercise class using negotiation strategies to reduce the emphasis on body image concerns. With high-school students, Jackson and Rucks (1995) found that both cognitive strategies (e.g., become more assured, ignore these problems) and behavioural strategies (e.g., modify time, acquire skills, change interpersonal relations) were used to negotiate through their leisure constraints. Other researchers have focused on older adults. Kleiber et al. (2008) found that older people achieve successful aging by adopting a selective

optimization with compensation strategy (Baltes & Carstensen, 1996), which means “being selective about activities of choice, abandoning those that are less personally meaningful, and compensating in whatever way necessary to optimize the more restricted number of alternatives” (p. 346). Therefore, accepting and making use of constraints once again suggests that constraints can be enabling factors to optimize older people’s leisure experience.



*Figure 4.* Constraint-Effects-Mitigation Model. Adapted from “Testing Competing Models of the Leisure Constraint Negotiation Process in a Corporate Employee Recreation Setting,” by J. Hubbard and R. C. Mannell, 2001, *Leisure Sciences*, 23, p. 148.

All of the above studies supported the relationship between constraints and negotiation; however, a study conducted by Son et al. (2008) with older (aged 50 and over) volunteers and visitors to a Midwestern metropolitan park was an exception. Son et al. (2008) found that negotiation was not significantly related to constraints and explained that older people might have learned relevant negotiation strategies in earlier stages of their lives. If these researchers are correct it would seem worthwhile to determine if this process continues to occur with older adults, such that differences might exist between, for example, those 55 to 64 years of age, those 65 to 74 years of age, and those more than 75 years of age.

Although most studies have detected a relationship between constraints and negotiation, researchers still debate whether or not all types of constraints are related to negotiation. In their leisure constraints study for people with mental retardation, for example, Hawkins et al. (1999) suggested that structural and interpersonal constraints are more salient reasons than intrapersonal constraints for nonparticipation, and therefore these two types of constraints are more in need of negotiation. Although their population was unique, the results indicated that different groups of people (in terms of age, gender, race/ethnicity, and culture) may perceive and negotiate different types of constraints diversely.

#### ***Motivations and negotiation.***

Among the studies mentioned in the above sections, many researchers have also discussed the relationship between motivation and negotiation (e.g., Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Jackson et al., 1993). Hubbard and Mannell (2001) indicated that motivation was found to be an important factor in relation to negotiation in the mitigation model; that is, people who are more highly motivated to participate in leisure activities are those who have made the most use of negotiation strategies. Interestingly, in their study, motivation was found to interact more with negotiation than directly with participation, which was also supported by Son et al.'s (2008) study. Meanwhile, White (2008) had similar results concerning the relationship between motivation and negotiation except that motivation had a stronger relationship with participation, while negotiation did not have a significant relationship with participation.

Following Hubbard and Mannell's (2001) study, Alexandris, Kouthouris, and Girgolas (2007) employed a two-dimensional motivation model (including both extrinsic and intrinsic factors) developed by Pelletier et al. (1995) to study the relationship between motivation and negotiation. Results showed that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations significantly predict negotiation strategies.

More specifically, negotiation acts as a mediator “between intrinsic motivation and intention to participate in recreation skiing” (p. 665).

It is also worthwhile to note that most of the models that have been discussed in these three sections (e.g., Alexandris et al., 2002; Hubbard & Mannell, 2001, Son et al., 2008) were cross-sectional in design. Thus, interrelationships among these three constructs are often mixed and researchers are left unclear about which variable affects which.

***Research gaps and research question.***

Based on how constraints, negotiation and motivation have been conceptualized, and the results of the empirical studies that have examined these concepts, the first research question identified in this study is: *R1: Do the associations among average leisure motivation, average leisure constraint, and average constraint negotiation differ by age, gender, ethnicity, or, in the case of Chinese Canadians, acculturation?*

**Macro Level Factors**

**Age.**

An “older adult” cohort is difficult to define. Older adults are often defined as those over 65 years chronologically; however, some people who are 80 years old might seem young and some people who are 50 years old appear very old depending on their personal emotions, adjustment, and attitude towards their age (Hooyman & Asuman Kiyak, 1999). In addition, because different researchers use different terms—such as “seniors” (Czaja & Lee, 2003; Van Harssel, 1995) and “older adults”—interchangeably as well as employ a variety of cut-off points to define “older adults” or “seniors”—such as “50 +” (Leavengood, 2001), “55 +” (Wang & Fesenmaier, 2004), “60 +” (Selwyn, 2004) and “65 +” (Czaja & Lee, 2003; Van Harssel, 1995)—the literature reflects enormous variability and inconsistency. In fact, Faranda and Schmidt (1999) have suggested that a starting

age for defining older adults could range from a low of 50 to a high of 65 years.

For the purposes of this study, I used the term “older adults” with a starting age of 55. The rationale for this decision is fourfold. First, Faranda and Schmidt (1999) argued that the cut-off points higher than 55 years (e.g., 65+) are too restrictive because they limit researchers’ ability to compare older participants with their younger counterparts in terms of leisure (e.g., travel) interest, attitudes, activities, etc. Second, the 55+ cut-off point allows researchers to assess the dynamic changes in those going-to-be-older- people’s leisure behaviours. For example, Statistics Canada (2006a) suggested that Canada’s first-wave of baby boomers (born in 1946-1955) will reach 61-70 years old by 2016. Third, using a lower cut-off point will help the researcher recruit enough participants (especially older Chinese participants). Finally, Statistics Canada (2006b) generally uses age 55 as a cut-off point.

### **Gender.**

Henderson (1994) found that researchers are now more likely to use the term “gender” than “sex”. However, these two terms should not be used interchangeably because of their different underlying meanings. Sex, which is a biologically-based construct, can only be divided into two categories: male or female. Gender, which is culturally-associated with sex, contains certain expectations that people learn to become masculine or feminine through socialization (Andersen, 1993). Scott (1986) defined gender as “a constitutive element of social relationships based on perceived differences between the sexes, and ...a primary way of signifying relationships of power” (p. 1067). Similarly, Henderson (1994) defined gender as “a set of socially constructed relationships which are produced and reproduced through people’s action” (p. 121). No matter which definition is used, however, they both reflect this construct’s sociality (e.g., social relationship, power structure, and people’s action). Therefore, because this



study focuses on people in different cultures, it is more appropriate to use the concept “gender” rather than “sex”.

### **Ethnicity.**

Floyd et al. (2008) conducted a systematic review of five leisure studies journals (i.e., *Leisure Sciences*, *Leisure Studies*, *Journal of Leisure Research*, *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, and *Loisir et Societe*) and identified 150 articles that focused on race and ethnicity. Although the increasing amount of research in this area reflects a significant maturation of research on race and ethnicity in leisure studies (Shinew et al., 2006), this subfield has been criticized for its limited quantity in the literature as a whole (Floyd et al., 2008), absence of theory, and measurement ambiguity (Floyd, 1998). Among those three limitations, measurement ambiguity is the main factor that has hindered the development of this field. Floyd (1998) pointed out that past research has not been careful in conceptualizing and operationalizing race and ethnicity. For example, in Floyd et al.’s (2008) review, most papers either employed ethnicity or race as their research construct, and some articles even used these two terms interchangeably (e.g., Gramann & Allison, 1999).

Because differentiating between race and ethnicity is an extremely difficult task (one that is beyond the scope of this study), Berry, Poortinga, Segall, and Dasen (2002) provided an alternative by introducing the construct of cultural identity to measure ethnicity under a multicultural context. These researchers contended that how one thinks of oneself is also constructed along two dimensions: identification with one’s heritage or ethnocultural group and identification with the larger or dominant society. Furthermore, Kalin and Berry (1995) referred these two dimensions to ethnic identity and civic identity; whereas Salazar and Salazar (1998) suggested heritage identity and national identity. Finally, Berry et al. (2002) stressed that these two dimensions can be either

independent of each other (e.g., Chinese, Canadian) or nested (e.g., Chinese Canadian). In the case of a Chinese Canadian, for example, ethnic/heritage identity refers to his/her knowledge of, and attachment to, Chinese membership in terms of Chinese history, traditions, values, and languages; whereas civic/national identity refers to his/her knowledge of, and attachment to, Canadian membership in terms of Canadian history, traditions, values, and languages.

It is also important to add that I recruited some participants from Mainland China in order to compare and contrast Chinese, Chinese Canadians, and British Canadians. China officially recognizes 56 distinct ethnic groups, the largest group of which is the Han, which makes up about 92% of the total population (“Ethnic Minorities,” n.d.). The Han civilization is usually considered as being the basis of “Chinese Culture” (“Ethnic Minorities,” n.d.). Therefore, the construct of cultural identity is not applicable to Mainland Chinese people because the two types of identity (i.e., ethnic/heritage and civic/national) measure the same thing: a Chinese individual’s knowledge of, and attachment to, Chinese membership in terms of Chinese history, traditions, values and languages. In order to avoid confusion, I reserved the term “ethnic group” for discussions of British Canadians and Chinese Canadians, while reserving the term “ethnic/cultural group” for discussions of these two groups and Mainland Chinese.

### **Acculturation.**

The construct of acculturation has been studied using a variety of frameworks over a number of decades. One of the most important frameworks is the assimilation theory, which was originally developed by Gordon (1964) in his seven-subprocesses model. Based on Gordon’s (1964) definition, acculturation refers to changing one’s cultural patterns to those of the host society in terms of diet, religion, and language. Other researchers such as Antshel (2002) and Marin and Marin (1991) have provided a slightly different definition with the focus

being on behavioural and attitudinal changes from the original culture to the new culture (e.g., engage or disengage in local activities, like or dislike the new life style). But still other researchers (e.g., Buriel, 1993; Marin & Gamba, 1996) have disagreed with definitions that are based on assimilation theory by arguing that individuals do not have to completely change from their original cultural characteristics completely to those of the new culture. In other words, people can keep both of their cultural characteristics. Furthermore, Buriel (1993) and Marin and Gamba (1996) divided acculturation into three levels: low acculturation (i.e., maintaining one's original culture with little or no acculturation into the mainstream culture), high acculturation (i.e., forgoing one's culture of origin to assimilate into the dominant culture), and biculturalism (i.e., retaining one's original culture and acculturating to the mainstream culture synchronously).

It is important to note that the level of acculturation should not be evaluated simply by the length of time in a country or generational status because the amount of first-hand contact between an immigrant and the dominant culture plays a bigger role in influencing his or her acculturation level (Dumka & Roosa, 1997).

Berry (1997) summarized these ideas into his "acculturation strategies framework", arguing that people who are undergoing the acculturation process usually need to consider two main issues simultaneously: *cultural maintenance* (i.e., the extent to which a person strives for and maintains his/her cultural identity<sup>1</sup>) and *contact and participation* (i.e., the extent to which members of a cultural group either become more involved in other cultural groups or remain primarily among themselves). As a result, four acculturation strategies were generated when people answer "yes" or "no" to these two issues (see Figure 5); namely, *assimilation* (i.e., giving up one's cultural identity and seeking daily interaction with the host culture), *separation* (i.e., maintaining one's cultural identity and

avoiding daily interaction with the host culture), *integration* (i.e., maintaining one's cultural identity and seeking daily interaction with the host culture), and *marginalization* (i.e., neither being interested in maintaining one's cultural identity nor in seeking daily interaction with the host culture).

Berry's (1997) four acculturation strategies share certain similarities with Buriel (1993) and Marin and Gamba's (1996) frameworks. For example, *assimilation* is associated with high acculturation, whereas *separation* and *integration* are associated with low acculturation and biculturalism, respectively. However, neither Buriel (1993) nor Marin and Gamba (1996) describe a level of acculturation that corresponds with Berry's (1997) description of *marginalization*.

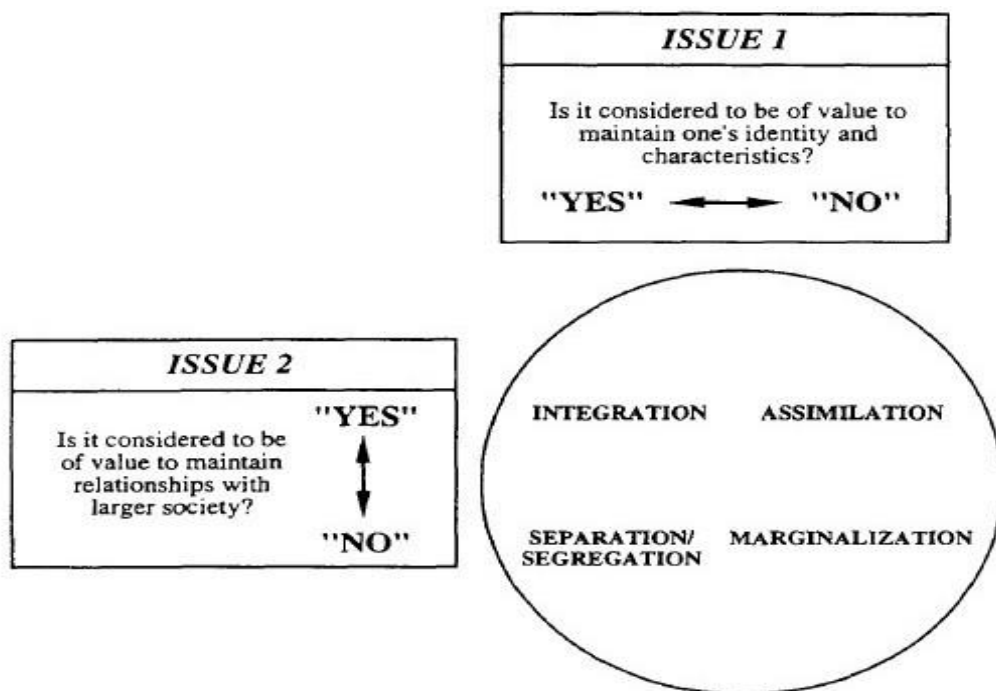


Figure 5. Acculturation strategies. ISSUE 1 = cultural maintenance; ISSUE 2 = contact and participation. Adapted from "Immigration, Acculturation, and Adaptation," by J. W. Berry, 1997, *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 46, p. 10.

Berry (1997) further introduced the construct of psychological acculturation (i.e., "changes in the psychological features of a person as a result of

their contact with another cultural group” (Berry et al., 2002, p. 481), suggesting that the social and psychological outcomes of acculturation are more variable. According to this construct, people who are undergoing the acculturation process might experience three different levels of difficulty (i.e., little, moderate, and serious), each of which corresponds with three different kinds of psychological changes, respectively: (1) accomplishing the changes easily by simply learning the appropriate new-cultural behavioural repertoire, (2) encountering moderate cultural conflict/stress due to incompatible behaviours, and (3) experiencing serious psychological disturbance due to overwhelming changes that exceed the individual’s capability to cope.

#### **Associations.**

Research has found that these four macro level factors are closely interconnected, thereby suggesting six pairs of associations: (a) age and gender, (b) age and ethnicity, (c) age and acculturation, (d) gender and ethnicity, (e) gender and acculturation, and (f) ethnicity and acculturation.

#### ***Age and gender.***

Age and gender are two of the most common socio-demographic variables in leisure research (e.g., Jackson, 2000; Shaw & Henderson, 2005). Research has consistently shown that males report higher levels of leisure activity involvement than females and that the leisure activity participation generally declines with age (e.g., Jackson & Henderson, 1995; Shaw & Henderson, 2005). That is, older adults and women are more likely to encounter leisure constraints compared to their younger and male counterparts. Among these studies, age was usually identified as a predictor of leisure participation and gender as the differentiating factor. However, Alexandris, Barkoukis, Tsorbatzoudis, and Groulos (2003) did not find any gender differences in terms of constraints for older Greeks to participate in a physical activity program. Furthermore, Son et al. (2008) did not

discover any gender and age differences in relation to leisure constraints. Therefore, as Son et al. (2008) suggested, “the relationships between gender, age and leisure constraints are less clear” (p. 270).

### ***Age and ethnicity.***

Age and ethnicity are two frequently included socio-demographic variables in the field of gerontology. For example, when entering these two keywords in the *Journal of Gerontology*, about 92 articles (from 1995 to 2009) are displayed. However, in leisure studies, only a few articles specifically focus on older ethnic adults' leisure activities (e.g., Floyd et al., 2006; Shores, Scott, & Floyd, 2007; Tinsley, Tinsley, & Croskeys, 2002). For example, Shores et al. (2007) adopted the multiple hierarchy stratification perspective developed in social gerontology, which holds that every person has his or her own position or status in society. Shores and colleagues reported that older female minority (i.e., Black and Hispanic) respondents with low socioeconomic status were the most likely to experience seven of nine constraints to outdoor recreation when considering the combined effect of age, gender, race/ethnicity, and socio-economic status (SES) on leisure constraints. That is, the interaction effects of these variables suggested that the probability of encountering leisure constraints for those people who have more than one of these statuses is multiplied.

Similarly, using the same multiple hierarchy stratification perspective, Floyd et al. (2006) conducted a study on recreational fishing by examining the combined effects of age, gender, race/ethnicity, and SES variables. Age and gender were statistically significant in predicting fishing participation across the three time periods (i.e., fishing participation ever, fishing participation in the past 5 years, and fishing participation in the past 12 months). But race/ethnicity (i.e., Hispanic, African American, and other groups) was only significant in predicting

fishing participation. Floyd et al. (2006) attributed this mixed finding to the association of minority status and limited opportunities to get involved in leisure activities.

In contrast, in a study conducted by Tinsley et al. (2002) that included three socio-demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, and ethnicity), only ethnicity (i.e., African-American, Hispanic-American, Asian-American, and Caucasian-American) significantly influenced park usage, the social milieu, and perceived psychological benefits of park use.

***Age and acculturation.***

As the various definitions of acculturation (e.g., Antshel, 2002; Gordon, 1964; Marin & Marin, 1991) suggest, this process is multidimensional, and includes attitudinal and behavioural changes from the original culture to the new culture. This process therefore can be very stressful for older immigrants because fewer resources (e.g., income, education, and language proficiency) are available for them to acculturate to the new culture (Casado & Leung, 2001). For instance, a study focusing on Chinese-American older adults reported that immigrants with higher levels of acculturation are more likely to have better mental health status than their less acculturated counterparts (Stokes et al., 2001).

Another study also found that the main barriers that prevent Asian older adults from better acculturating are lack of financial resources, lack of language proficiency, stressful life events (e.g., racial discrimination, prejudice, separation from children), and perceived cultural gap (Mui & Kang, 2006). It is worthwhile to note that the perceived intergenerational acculturation gap between the older immigrants and their adult children may affect their cultural values in “a sense of ethnic identity, communication style, family values, family role and gender role expectations, or lifestyle choices” (p. 253). Mui and Kang even found that the intergenerational acculturation gap is much wider for older people who have lived

in the host country for a longer period of time, potentially because the longer an older person has lived in the host country the more likely he or she is to have host-country-born children and grandchildren whose cultural values and lifestyle choice (e.g., leisure activity preferences) are closer to that of the host culture.

#### ***Gender and ethnicity.***

Including gender in the leisure research on race and ethnicity (e.g., Bialeschki & Walbert, 1998; Henderson & Ainsworth, 2001) is considered to be a sign of this subfield's maturation (Floyd, 2007). For example, in their lottery play study, Walker, Courneya, and Deng (2006) found that ethnicity and gender did play a "differentiating" role in that, "injunctive norm was an important predictor only for Chinese/Canadian males, while descriptive norm was an important predictor only for British/Canadian males" (p. 224). In another study, Walker (2008) also included ethnicity and gender to test these two variables' effects on facilitation of intrinsic motivation during leisure. Among his results was that relatedness facilitated intrinsic motivation more for British/Canadian females than members of three other groups (i.e., British/Canadian males, Chinese/Canadian males and females). In summary, these results support Walker and Virden's (1997) contention that "the possibility of an interaction effect between gender and ethnicity/race may be an area ripe for future inquiry" (Walker & Virden, 2005, p. 215).

#### ***Gender and acculturation.***

Research has provided evidence that gender differences in the process of acculturation are quite pronounced. For example, Stodolska and Alexandris (2004) found that during the period after arrival in the host country, female immigrants are more likely to encounter difficulty in acculturating to the new culture because they have to enter the job market for the first time. Though it might seem like entering the job market would facilitate immigrants' acculturation process, the



types of job they are often doing (e.g., physically demanding) and the lower level of income they often receive make it even harder for them. However, Tang and Dion (1999) found that Chinese male university students studying in Toronto, Canada acculturated much more slowly than Chinese female university students with respect to beliefs about gender roles and family hierarchy. Therefore, there are mixed results regarding whether “men and women experience the acculturation process differently” (Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004, p. 394).

### ***Ethnicity and acculturation.***

It is obvious that ethnicity should be closely related to acculturation because one of the challenges for people with diverse ethnic backgrounds (especially immigrants) is how to assimilate into the mainstream culture. Corresponding with the three levels of acculturation (i.e., low, high, and biculturalism) discussed in the earlier acculturation section, three different acculturation paths were proposed by Stodolska and Alexandris (2004): “(a) acculturate[d] to the culture of the White American mainstream; (b) assimilate[d] to the sub-culture of their own ethnic community; (c) preserve[d] their ethnic values and promoted their ethnic group solidarity” (p. 379). Stodolska and Alexandris (2004) also indicated that immigrants’ ethnic group and their socio-economic status affected their choices of acculturation paths.

In terms of the first acculturation path (which corresponds with having a high acculturation level), Stodolska and Alexandris (2004) suggested that both middle-class Korean and Polish immigrants were more likely to acculturate to the White American mainstream compared with their working class counterparts. These middle class immigrants usually made use of leisure or sport opportunities to acculturate regardless of their ethnic identity. These researchers also found that, while middle class Polish parents watched their children’s sports and events and interacted with parents from different ethnic backgrounds, working class Polish

and Korean parents did not.

For immigrants who choose the second acculturation path (which corresponds with biculturalism), they usually acculturated to the sub-culture of their own ethnic community to maintain connections and assimilate into the local culture. The term *subculture* suggests that immigrants participate in certain kinds of leisure/sport activities (e.g., golf, hockey, and fishing) that are “not necessarily popular in the home countries of immigrants, but they had become a focus of interest among ethnic immigrant populations in the host country” (p. 403). Stodolska (2000) thought a good example of this was that Polish immigrants in Canada often took up fishing because this activity was popular in the local Polish community.

In terms of the last acculturation path (which corresponds with having a low acculturation level), Stodolska and Alexandris (2004) found that people (regardless of their socioeconomic status) were most likely to participate in traditional sports from their home country in an attempt to retain their ethnic identities as well as to solidify their connections with their ethnic communities. However, a low acculturation level sometimes inhibits immigrants’ assimilation into mainstream culture. For example, some soccer clubs in Milwaukee limited their players to being from specific ethnic groups, which subsequently prevented those individuals from acculturating to the White American culture (Pooley, 1976).

### ***Research gaps and research questions.***

A review of the literature suggests that there is a lack of research on whether leisure participation overall differs by (a) age, ethnicity, or the interaction between the two, and (b) gender, ethnicity, or the interactions between the two. Again, because the main focus of this cross-cultural study is on detecting cultural differences, the potential interaction of age and gender is not examined. The

following list of research questions examines leisure participation overall:

- *R2: Does leisure participation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R3: Does leisure participation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

In addition, two research questions relating to acculturation are put forth only for Chinese Canadians:

- *R4: Does leisure participation overall differ by age, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R5: Does leisure participation overall differ by gender, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*

### **Associations between Micro and Macro Level Factors**

This section compares each micro level factor with each macro level factor, thereby forming three large groups of associations (i.e., motivations and macro level factors, leisure constraints and macro level factors, and constraint negotiation and macro level factors) followed by a summary.

#### **Motivations and macro level factors.**

##### ***Age and motivations.***

Orsega-Smith et al. (2004) stressed that leisure experiences are very important to successful aging. Therefore, it is crucial to detect what factors motivate older adults to engage in leisure activities and which kind of motivation (e.g., intrinsic, extrinsic, or amotivation) plays a more important role in their later lives.

Research has mainly focused on how health-related benefits motivate older adults to participate in leisure activities. For example, Lenartsson and Silverstein (2001) found that older adults increased their solitary activities such as reading and crossword puzzles because they felt these activities would prolong

their lives. Orsega-Smith et al. (2004) also showed that older adults (aged 50 and above) who engaged in park-based leisure reduced their stress levels and had better perceived physical health. Although Dionigi's (2006) study of older (i.e., 60 to 89 years of age) Australian Masters Games athletes found that continued participation in competitive sport helped them resist the stereotype of ageism, these individuals' major motivations were still maintaining their health, fitness, and physical ability. Other researchers (e.g., Fisher et al., 2004; Kaczynski et al., 2009) have explored the relationships among the number of parks, total area of parks, park proximity, and park-based physical activities, finding that the closer distance and availability of parklands motivated older adults (aged 55 and older) to engage in more park-based physical activities.

Unfortunately, most studies have only examined extrinsic motivation (e.g., participating in leisure activities for better health: that is, SDT's external or introjected regulations). One exception is that in Dionigi's (2006) study an 87-year-old athlete reported experiencing pleasure from continued training and competing in track and field. Another study (Guinn, 1999) in the gerontological field detected a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation (e.g., participation in leisure activities that provide novel stimuli) and older adults' (aged 57 to 92 years old) life satisfaction. Besides these two studies, however, little research in the leisure field has studied how intrinsic motivation stimulates older adults to pursue leisure activities. The possible explanation might be that certain kinds of leisure activities (e.g., physical exercise) are less intrinsically-motivated than other types of leisure activities such as cultural activities (Mobily et al., 1993). Finally, it should be noted that constraints could also be potential motivations for leisure participation (Stoldolska, 2000). For example, Cohen-Mansfield et al. (2003) found that older people who mentioned that their health situations were barriers to exercising felt that feeling healthy

would also motivate them to exercise.

***Gender and motivations.***

Compared to the last section, a number of studies have included gender in their analysis of leisure motivation. Although some studies (e.g., Lee, Graefe, & Li, 2007; Walker, Hinch, & Weighill, 2005) did not use Ryan and Deci's (1985) classification of motivations to study specific leisure activities (e.g., canoeing, casino gambling), their findings can still be categorized into intrinsic and extrinsic motivations based on Amabile et al.'s (1994) conceptualization of motivational orientation (as mentioned in the earlier "Motivations" section). For example, using gender as the independent variable and motivation as the dependent variable, Lee et al. (2007) found that women who liked canoeing were more motivated than men to want to experience nature (which can be considered intrinsic motivation) and to relax and have social contact (which can be considered extrinsic motivation). Another study conducted by Walker et al. (2005) tested whether casino gambling motivations vary between genders. They suggested that experiencing risk-taking/gambling as a "rush" (which can be considered intrinsic motivation) and learning/cognitive self-classification (which can be considered extrinsic motivation) motivated more males than females to go to casino gambling.

Because the relationship between gender and motivation is complex, placing too much attention on intrinsic motivation may prevent researchers from recognizing the role of extrinsic motivation. As Ryan and Deci (2000) suggested, an individual could be more or less intrinsically and extrinsically motivated at the same time. For example, Little (2000) found that many women were both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to participate in adventure recreation not only because they enjoyed the adventure as much as the men did but also because they wanted to demonstrate their resistance to gender stereotyping. This result

again suggests that leisure constraints could sometimes facilitate leisure motivations.

*Ethnicity and motivations.*

Research results on whether motivations vary across cultural and ethnic groups are also mixed. For example, a study by Tinsley et al. (2002) partially supported ethnic differences in motivation to visit a local park. They found that the African Americans were more motivated to seek pleasure from park visits than other three groups (i.e., Hispanics, Caucasians, and Asian participants).

In contrast, Walker and Wang (2008) found that Canadian students were not different from Chinese students in regard to intrinsic motivation for leisure activities, likely because “people’s sense of interest and engagement in their personal goals as well as the enjoyment associated with those goals, should tend to be beneficial in every culture” (as per Sheldon et al., 2004, p. 211).

In terms of extrinsic motivations, Walker and Wang (2008) indicated that although integrated and external motivations were not different between the two cultural groups, identified and introjected motivations were rated higher by Canadian students than by Chinese students. Additionally, Tinsley et al. (2002) found that African American and Caucasian respondents placed more emphasis on getting exercise than their Hispanic and Asian counterparts. Caucasian respondents also rated escaping duty significantly lower than the other three groups.

It seems reasonable to say that in most cases motivations do vary across cultures. Walker et al.’s (2001) study lent support to this proposition by even adopting different measurements—Social Independence (SI) motivational scales identified by Walker and Dunn (2000) and Recreation Experience Preference (REP) scales developed by Driver (1977, 1983) and Manfredi, Driver, and Tarrant (1996)—to assess outdoor recreation motivations. Their study results

suggested that ethnicity (i.e., Chinese and Euro-North American) directly affected REP Nature/Tranquility, SI Group Membership, SI Humble/Modest, and REP Autonomy/Independence.

Similar to the previous two sections, many leisure constraints encountered by people with different ethnic backgrounds could sometimes be potential motivations (Stoldolska, 2000). For example, a new immigrant to Canada might experience language difficulties during leisure activities. However, lack of language skills might also stimulate the new immigrant to improve his or her English/French by participating in more leisure activities. This, in turn, could demonstrate resistance to the dominant group as well as resulting in a sense of empowerment, personal control, and autonomy (all of which might motivate them to participate further in leisure activities).

#### ***Acculturation and motivations.***

Compared with the three sections discussed above, research on acculturation and motivation has received very little attention. Only one relevant article (Walker et al., 2001), in fact, was found and these researchers concluded that: “the basis for acculturation’s inclusion is somewhat weaker” than that of another variable (i.e., self-construal) (p. 278). Because acculturation is a somewhat hard-to-measure construct such that researchers cannot simply associate certain levels of it with certain types of motivations, I explored it from three perspectives that have been touched on earlier in the literature review: ethnic (e.g., the concept of resistance), three levels of acculturation, and intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of motivation.

Recall from the section entitled “Acculturation and constraint negotiation”, the level of participating in mainstream leisure activities (i.e., high to medium to low) is a way minority people can express their resistance to the dominant culture (Shinew & Floyd, 2005). Therefore, it seems reasonable to state that minority

people's acculturation levels are negatively associated with their levels of motivations to engage in mainstream leisure activity. However, Stodolska and Alexandris (2004) have informed us that people's socio-economic status plays a more important role than acculturation levels. For instance, they found that middle-class immigrants can choose whatever levels of acculturation they prefer and can either choose to participate in more mainstream leisure activities to assimilate or get involved in their own ethnic leisure activities to maintain their ethnic identities. Therefore, not only do leisure researchers need to clarify the nature of the leisure activity (e.g., dominant such as hockey, ethnic specific such as table tennis, or global such as soccer), but they also need to take people's socio-economic status into account.

In terms of intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of motivations, it seems likely that minority people are more extrinsically-motivated to engage in leisure activities. For example, Stodolska and Alexandris (2004) found that low-acculturated Korean immigrants made use of their limited social network by participating in ethnic-specific leisure activities to find useful housing and employment information. However, participating in ethnic-specific leisure activities could also be intrinsically-motivated because the enjoyment resulting from these activities could bring satisfaction to low-acculturated immigrants. Therefore, the relationship between acculturation and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation is still not clear.

Finally, the constraints encountered by people with different levels of acculturation may also act as motivations. For instance, low-acculturated immigrants might be constrained to get involved in mainstream leisure activities, but this could act as a motive for them to participate in more ethnic-specific leisure activities.



***Summary.***

In conclusion, these four sections share two similarities. Firstly, resistance to the dominant culture/power could be an underlying motivation for older people, women, and ethnic people with different levels of acculturation. Secondly, constraints could act as motivations in some situations. As a result, leisure researchers should not hold that constraints always inhibit leisure participation.

The sections on gender and ethnicity also have one thing in common, which is that research in both sub-fields seems to stress more intrinsic than extrinsic motivation. However, because an individual could be more or less intrinsically and extrinsically motivated at the same time (Ryan & Deci, 2000), leisure researchers should also pay more attention to extrinsic motivations, especially for those ethnic group members having different acculturation levels.

***Research gaps and research questions.***

A review of the literature suggests that there is a lack of research on whether leisure motivation overall differs by (a) age, ethnicity, or the interaction between the two, and (b) gender, ethnicity, or the interactions between the two. Again, it is important to note that because the main focus of this cross-cultural study is on detecting cultural differences, the potential interaction of age and gender is not examined. The following list of research questions examines leisure motivation overall:

- *R6: Does leisure motivation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R7: Does leisure motivation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

Similar to Research Question Four and Five, two questions involving acculturation are put forward specifically for Chinese Canadians:

- *R8: Does leisure motivation overall differ by age, acculturation, and*

*the interaction between the two?*

- *R9: Does leisure motivation overall differ by gender, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*

### **Constraints and macro level factors.**

#### ***Age and constraints.***

There has been a large amount of research examining leisure constraints and aging. Some early work included older people in their samples (e.g., McGuire, 1984), while more recent work examined leisure constraints in later life (e.g., Jackson, 1993; Jackson & Witt, 1994; Rogers, Meyer, Walker & Fisk, 1998). A number of constraints were thereby detected, including lack of money, health-related factors, lack of companionship (Administration on Aging, 2002; Jackson, 1993), fear of falling (Murphy, Williams, & Gill, 2002), inadequate transportation, and housekeeping (Rogers et al., 1998). While most of these studies focused on populations in North America, one study conducted in China did provide some valuable findings that might resemble the situation for Chinese immigrants in Canada. Su et al. (2006) indicated that Chinese urban older residents were less likely to experience leisure constraints than rural older residents in terms of levels of education, levels of steady income, and sources of income. But these two groups did not have any differences in terms of such constraints as less availability of recreational resources, lower mobility level, and reliance on family or relatives for care in later life. In sum, the most universal constraint found in these studies was lack of physical ability.

However, these studies were later criticized for being too engagement- or activity-oriented (McGuire & Norman, 2005). That is, earlier research simply assumed that engagement in leisure activities is always better than disengagement, and therefore, constraints associated with old age are always inhibiting/damaging. But some researchers (e.g., Kleiber et al., 2008; McGuire & Norman, 2005) have

also suggested that constraints could contribute to successful aging in some situations. For example, Phelan and Larson (2002) found that older people sometimes associated successful aging with retention of remaining abilities rather than with participation of some activities that might challenge their abilities and decrease their self-confidence. A few gerontological theories support this perspective. For example, disengagement theory suggests that older adults can maintain a sense of self-worth through severing previously participated activities (Hooyman & Asuman Kiyak, 1999). Thus, older adults “may welcome constraints because they limit involvement at the point in life when involvement needs to be limited” (McGuire & Norman, 2005, p. 95).

#### ***Gender and constraints.***

Research on gender and leisure has indicated that gender has “a substantial impact on leisure practices, opportunities, and experience, affecting the quantity and quality of leisure” (Shaw & Henderson, 2005, p. 23). Although gender has not been a major focus of attention for constraints researchers, gender research (mainly conducted by feminist researchers) has provided valuable information for constraints researchers that demonstrates the linkage between gender and leisure constraints (Shaw & Henderson, 2005).

For example, some constraints identified in feminist literature can be conceptualized as structural constraints experienced by women, including lack of income (especially for older women living on their own), lack of transportation (Ng, Northcott, & McIrvin Abu-Laban, 2007), lack of leisure opportunities and programs (Robinson & Godbey, 1993), and most importantly, lack of time (Green, Hebron, & Woodward, 1990).

In terms of intrapersonal constraints, women’s caring behaviour (i.e., or internalized “ethic of care”) has been considered a major constraint to their leisure (Henderson, Bialeschki, Shaw, & Freysinger, 1996), even though this kind of

behaviour can facilitate social relationships, especially for women of color (Henderson & Ainsworth, 2001). However, Anderson, Fitzgerald, and Laidler (1995) suggested that as women age and their children leave home, while they will have more personal leisure time, at least some of this additional time will be used for new caring responsibilities. This finding might be more applicable for Western women than African and Asian women, however, because the latter will spend a considerable amount of time attending to grandchildren (Henderson & Ainsworth, 2001; Su et al., 2006). Interestingly, these two contrary findings for different ethnic groups have a similar positive impact. For Western women, they will have more personal time to pursue their own leisure, while for African and Asian women, attending and playing with grandchildren is often considered leisure rather than an obligatory activity (Su et al., 2006).

Beside internalized ethic of care, two other main intrapersonal constraints are peer and family expectation about appropriate behaviours for women (Tirone & Shaw, 1997), and fear of violence (Bialeschki, 2005; Hung, n.d.). The former is more culturally-based; for example, Indo-Canadian women considered their personal leisure to be neither positive nor desirable (Tirone & Shaw, 1997). The latter is more universal; for instance, women might not like to go walking on their own because of their fear of crime (Bialeschki, 2005).

In terms of interpersonal constraints, researchers have found that men are more likely to experience this type of constraints than women, likely because women usually have more social relationships than men (Henderson & Ainsworth, 2000). Although research has not identified other interpersonal constraints experienced primarily by women, most studies suggested that women in general experience more leisure constraints than men, which is “a function of cultural interpretations of gender and not just biological sex” (Jackson & Henderson, 1995, p. 31).

Because gender research has primarily focused on women's leisure constraints, constraints on men's leisure have been largely overlooked. Some researchers have even argued that gender constraints may only be encountered by women; that is, gender is "an enabling factor for men rather than a constraint" (Shaw & Henderson, 2005, p. 26). However, Lee and Xiao (1998) found that older Chinese women received more monetary support from their children than older Chinese men, suggesting that gender could be a factor that both enables and constrains leisure. Finally, although most studies have supported that gender constraints do exist, some studies (e.g., Alexandris et al., 2003; Son et al., 2008) found no gender differences in constraints among older adults.

#### ***Ethnicity and constraints.***

The rapid growth of the ethnic minority populations in Canada has had "a profound influence on the racial and ethnic makeup of the countries' schools, workplaces, and neighbourhoods," which in turn has garnered leisure researchers' attention (Stodolska & Yi-Kook, 2005, p. 54). Stodolska (1998) divided leisure constraints related to different ethnic minority populations into two different categories: static (e.g., discrimination) and dynamic (e.g., lack of language skills). Stodolska (1998) further stressed that the dynamic nature of constraints can change with the passage of time. For example, immigrants can improve their language skills once they have been in the same place for a long period of time.

To study the dynamic nature of leisure constraints, researchers have used different adaptation theories (Stodolska & Yi-Kook, 2005). Among these theories, the assimilation framework has been the most dominant theory to study intra-ethnic differences in recreation participation (Floyd & Gramann, 1993; Stodolska, 1998). As mentioned above, the term *assimilation* was used synonymously with *acculturation*, which was defined as the process of reducing cultural differences and boundaries between minorities and the mainstream

societies (Stodolska, 1998). Floyd and Gramann (1993) assumed that minorities' assimilation levels are negatively related to their leisure behaviours, such as motivations for and constraints to leisure. For example, one study on recreation participation and perceived barriers to recreation among recent adolescent immigrants from China reported that Chinese adolescent immigrants' self-esteem levels were negatively related to constraints such as poor language skills, inability to find leisure partners, lack of money, and lack of awareness of existing opportunities (Yu & Berryman, 1996).

However, recent research has shown that minorities often try to retain at least some of their cultural elements such as language, traditions, and leisure activities rather than simply assimilate into the mainstream culture (Stodolska & Yi-Kook, 2005). In his boundary maintenance theory, Barth (1998) suggested that some immigrants can retain their cultural differences by maintaining their own particular language, dress, and leisure traditions no matter how often they interact with the mainstream society or other ethnic groups (as cited in Stodolska & Yi-Kook, 2005). For example, if Chinese people play mah-jong (a traditional Chinese tile game with a variety of rules) in Canada, in most cases Canadian people might not be able to understand and join in because of language and tradition issues. Stodolska and Yi-Kook (2005) further addressed this situation by pointing out that although these immigrants might experience fewer constraints within their own social networks, they would still be affected by some kinds of leisure constraints when they tried to participate in mainstream leisure activities.

To study the static nature of leisure constraints, researchers have usually employed the marginality/ethnicity (e.g., Washburne, 1978) and discrimination (e.g., Floyd & Gramann, 1995) frameworks. Research on marginality has focused on how higher poverty rates, lower levels of income associated with lack of time (Stodolska & Yi-Kook, 2005), transportation problems (Gobster, 2002), and

residential segregation associated safety issues (Crespo, 2000), may prevent minorities from participating in leisure activities. Additionally, research has found that minority group members' low participation rates in physically active activities during leisure time may be because the types of jobs they do often require higher energy expenditures (Crespo, 2000).

Research on ethnicity has discovered that cultural traditions themselves may create or reinforce constraints on leisure (Washburne, 1978). For example, Gobster (2002) reported that Hispanics preferred family-oriented recreation activities, and this can create space and service problems for leisure facilities such as campgrounds. Stodolska and Alexandris (2004) also found that some middle and upper class Korean immigrants were affected by a traditional stereotype that held that strenuous physical activity is associated with a lack of intellectual capability, which could help explain people's choices of active and passive leisure patterns. This kind of constraint can be considered an intrapersonal constraint (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991).

Research on discrimination has shown that various forms of mistreatment such as physical and verbal assault prevented minority groups from participating in leisure activities and using recreation facilities (Gobster, 2002). Research on the effects of discrimination on leisure participation has been conducted with a variety of minority groups, including Asian Americans, African Americans, Mexican Americans, and Latinos (Gobster, 2002; Stodolska & Yi-Kook, 2005), and has generally been supported.

Immigration itself might also pose certain kinds of constraints for immigrants, including their minority status, post-arrival adaptation (Stodolska & Yi-Kook, 2005), lack of language skills, social isolations, and lack of money and time (Stodolska, 1998, 2000). However, sometimes immigration can eliminate constraints to certain leisure activities. For example, some Korean immigrants in

Stodolska and Alexandris' (2004) study increased their participation in golf and tennis even though they had previously been constrained not only by the high prices but also by the earlier mentioned traditional stereotype that physical ability was indicative of cognitive inability.

Research on leisure constraints and ethnicity faces a few problems. One of these is the implicit assumption of the homogeneity of minority population (Sasidharan, 2002). For example, people labelled as Asian can be from China, Korea, Japan, India, and so on. These countries are different from each other in various aspects such as language, tradition, religion, and so forth. Stodolska and Yi-Kook (2005) also argued that assumption of homogeneity for the "White" mainstream population is a problem in leisure research.

#### ***Acculturation and constraints.***

Research on acculturation and constraints has shown that, under most conditions, the level of acculturation is negatively related to leisure constraints in terms of mainstream leisure activities (Stodolska, 1998; Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004; Yu & Berryman, 1996). As discussed above, Stodolska and Alexandris (2004) detected a relationship between immigrants' socio-economic status and choices of acculturation path. However, during the initial post-arrival period, regardless of immigrants' social status, low levels of voluntary leisure activity participation associated with low levels of acculturation are the case for most immigrants (Stodolska, 1998; Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004). Most frequently reported constraints were low income, lack of time, and doing physically demanding jobs. It is worth noting that the initial time of adjustment after arrival associated with both financial and physical difficulties could be four to five years long. Yu and Berryman's (1996) work also supported this finding by indicating that most Chinese immigrant adolescents were still at a low level of acculturation even though they had been in United States for four to five years. These less



acculturated adolescents reported some other leisure constraints as well, including lack of English proficiency, opportunity, partners, money, and knowledge about sites or information about activities. Finally, lack of language proficiency is generally the most inhibiting factor on immigrants' acculturation level, and it has been found to be directly related to certain leisure constraints such as perceived discrimination (Floyd & Gramann, 1995; Yu & Berryman, 1996).

Once immigrants have better adjusted to the host country after the first few difficult years, they are more likely to have higher levels of acculturation and, therefore, potentially higher levels of leisure participation. However, Stodolska and Alexandris (2004) argued that immigrants' socio-economic status will make a difference. For example, middle-class immigrants can choose whatever levels of acculturation they prefer and can either participate in more mainstream leisure activities to assimilate or still get involved in their own ethnic leisure activities to maintain their ethnic identity. In contrast, working-class immigrants (normally a low acculturated group) can only either participate in some leisure activities within their ethnic groups or suffer from low participation rate of leisure activities because of low income, lack of time, lack of physical strength (due to physical demanding jobs), and inequality to access to leisure facilities. This finding is consistent with those of Yu and Berryman (1996), who found that, Chinese immigrant youths' most frequently reported leisure activities were in home/indoor activities with their Chinese family members or friends (e.g., watching Chinese programs, listening to Chinese music, reading Chinese newspapers, magazines, and books, etc.).

It is common for people to assume that low acculturated immigrants with lower social status will always have a difficult life in the host country and seldom have the luxury to enjoy leisure activities. Research has shown that this is not always the case, however. These people usually choose an acculturation that

“preserve[s] their ethnic values and promote[s] their ethnic group solidarity” (Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004, p. 379). Although these immigrants rarely get involved in any mainstream leisure activities (e.g., golf), they still try to participate in certain ethnic leisure activities to some extent. The reasons behind this type of leisure involvement are not just to maintain their own ethnic identity and solidify their social network by having “similar” people around them, but most importantly, so they can make use of these network to look for useful information (e.g., affordable housing) and to find employment opportunities (Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004). Waters (1994) even proposed that immigrants who make full use of their ethnic network are more likely to obtain tangible economic benefits, and consequently they have a better chance of moving up to the middle class. In this case, having a low acculturation level can be considered to be both enabling and inhibiting.

*Summary.*

In summary, research on ethnic-, acculturation-, and age-related constraints indicates certain similarities. Firstly, research suggests that people who have different ethnic backgrounds, or different acculturation levels, or who are older, are heterogeneous rather than homogeneous. Secondly, research suggests that people who have different ethnic backgrounds, or different acculturation levels, or who are older, may face many of the same leisure constraints, including lack of money, social isolation, marginality status (e.g., perceived discrimination), and so on. Finally, research suggests that people who have different ethnic backgrounds, or different acculturation levels, or who are older, may experience constraints as either enabling or inhibiting in terms of their leisure participation. Taken in total, these findings suggest that age, ethnicity, and acculturation levels may be interrelated.

Research on gender-related constraints also reflects two of the

aforementioned characteristics: their potential enabling or inhibiting nature and unequal access to leisure opportunities. Furthermore, Tirone and Shaw (1997) indicated that some gender-related intrapersonal constraints such as perceiving certain activities as appropriate or inappropriate did not vary across cultures. Walker and Virden (2005) also suggested that gender and ethnicity might have an interaction effect and included gender in their revised leisure constraints model (see Figure 2). Based on research such as the above, Shaw and Henderson (2005) thereby stressed that including gender and culture in future leisure constraints research would greatly enhance this research area.

***Research gaps and research questions.***

Based on a review of existing leisure constraints research, therefore, it appears that there is a lack of research on whether leisure constraint overall differs by: (a) age, ethnicity, or the interaction between the two, and (b) gender, ethnicity, or the interactions between the two. As well, it is worthwhile detecting, specifically on Chinese Canadians, whether leisure constraint overall differs by (c) age, acculturation, or the interaction between the two, and (d) gender, acculturation, or the interactions between the two. Correspondingly, four research questions are proposed:

- *R10: Does leisure constraint overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R11: Does leisure constraint overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

For Chinese Canadians only:

- *R12: Does leisure constraint overall differ by age, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R13: Does leisure constraint overall differ by gender, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*

## **Constraint negotiation and macro level factors.**

### ***Age and constraint negotiation.***

Beside the aforementioned constraints, one of the most influential constraints for older adults is ageist attitudes, including negative stereotypes regarding decreased health, productivity, and independence (Van Norman, 1995). Once older people internalize these negative stereotypes, they are more likely to be seriously constrained in terms of their leisure activities regardless of how well or poorly they are actually aging. However, some older adults still get involved in all kinds of leisure activities by negotiating ageist attitudes. Grant (2001), for instance, found that 15 New Zealand Masters athletes who were all over 70 years old “located themselves in the discourse of good health and resisted the notion that aging could be described solely as a biomedical problem” (p. 792). Dionigi (2006) also found that 28 Australian Masters Games athletes who were 60 to 89 years old continued participating in competitive sport by negotiating “the negative stereotypes of aging through their talk, action, and expressed feelings of personal empowerment” and “the aging process by taking up the positive aging discourse and using competitive sport as strategy for resisting the aging body and the associated onset of deep old age” (p. 185).

Most of the constraint negotiation strategies described up to this point still resulted in participating in leisure activities. Thus, negotiation is often considered to be an enabling factor that facilitates more leisure involvement. Nevertheless, similar to the ideas discussed in the earlier “Age and constraints” section, some older adults do not necessarily need to participate in leisure activity to achieve successful aging. Instead, they retain their ability to maintain their self-confidence (Phelan & Larson, 2002). In this situation, as Samdahl (2005) criticized, “negotiating constraints is less attractive than accepting and living with them. Removing the constraint might bring about unwanted ramifications” (p. 342).

This viewpoint is similar to Dionigi's (2006) notion that acceptance of the natural progression of aging contributes to older people's well-being. Thus, constraint negotiation is not always enabling; that is, it can also be inhibiting.

***Gender and constraint negotiation.***

An implicit constraint that particularly affects females is the underlying power in favour of males, which reflects gender's sociality and serves as a structural constraint (Henderson, 1994; Samdahl, 2005). Samdahl (2005) contended that "until we study that element of power, we will miss an important resource central to leisure constraint negotiation" (p. 346). Little (2002) provided a great example of how women restructure power that serves as the leisure constraint to continued participation in adventure recreation. She found that although adventure recreation has been perceived to be a male dominated leisure activity in relation to physically and intellectually challenges in natural environments, many women employed a variety of negotiation skills to ensure their participation, including prioritization (e.g., switching themselves as the focus of their lives), compromise (e.g., seeking less physically intense alternatives to adapt to changing circumstances), creative adventure (e.g., reconstructing their definitions of adventure), and anticipation (e.g., planning for future adventure to maintain emotional connection with adventure recreation). No matter which strategies they used either independently or collaboratively, these women gained control over their lives. In other words, they had earned more personal power to demonstrate a conscious, active and creative resistance to the stereotype that may limit their opportunities.

While some constraints can be negotiated through different kinds of strategies, other constraints such as women's fear of crime (an intrapersonal constraint) are almost impossible to negotiate (Shores et al., 2007). Although some key negotiation strategies such as going to the park with a partner (Manning

et al., 2001) and visiting remote outdoor recreation sites with a dog (Bialeschki, 2005) have been suggested, the psychological fear of crime due to previous negative experiences might not be easily negotiated (i.e., continued participation after negotiation might bring the negative feeling back). As a result, non-participation may sometimes be a better choice. Thus, whether constraint negotiation is always enabling for females is questionable.

***Ethnicity and constraint negotiation.***

As mentioned above, although about 150 articles in five major leisure studies journals have studied race and ethnicity (Floyd et al., 2008), research specifically on ethnicity and constraint negotiation is surprisingly limited. Li and Stodolska (2007) conducted a study on leisure constraints and negotiation strategies among Chinese international graduate students. The main constraints they detected were lack of time, language being a barrier, cultural differences (e.g., different leisure choices and life styles), limited social networks (e.g., staying within the same ethnic social circle), and feelings of lack of entitlement to leisure (e.g., work-oriented lifestyle). Based on the negotiation strategy classification scheme developed by Jackson et al. (1993), Li and Stodolska (2007) concluded that the behavioural strategies Chinese graduate students usually adopted were substituting recreation activities (e.g., choosing “convenient” activities such as surfing the Internet), maintaining long-distance relationship with home communities (e.g., making use of information technologies such as MSN to chat with family and friends in China), using various time management strategies (e.g., doing grocery shopping with other Chinese friends to serve the purpose of relaxing and maintaining social network), learning English (e.g., using leisure activity as a tool to improve language skills that is also work-oriented), and pursuing mainly Chinese leisure activities to maintain ethnic identity and buffer against life pressure (e.g., watching Chinese DVD and listening to Chinese music).

For the cognitive strategies, these Chinese students tried to devalue the importance of leisure while highlighting the importance of work and study, and to emphasize positive aspects of their lives (e.g., perceiving their situation as temporary and focusing on the future).

The previous constraints encountered by Chinese students could be considered as reflecting the aforementioned static nature of leisure constraints and the corresponding research framework (i.e., marginality/ethnicity) adopted by Washburne (1978). While for the discrimination framework (e.g., Floyd & Gramann, 1995), Livengood and Stodolska (2006) provided a good example on how American Muslims experienced discrimination during their leisure activities and how they negotiated their leisure behaviour after the event of September 11, 2001. Many American Muslims reported experiencing various forms of mistreatment, ranging from “racist epithets, unpleasant looks, obscene gestures, and avoidance, to more serious acts of hatred such as threats, vandalism and physical attack” (p. 192). To negotiate these constraints, many American Muslims employed strategies that were “*short term, activity specific, and defensive in nature*”, ranging “from withdrawal, turning to faith, avoidance, and resigned acceptance, to mild verbal protests” (p. 198).

The situations encountered by Chinese students and American Muslims could also apply to other racial or ethnic groups. Shinew and Floyd (2005) specifically focused on African Americans and believed that the underlying reasons were inequality of social power and socioeconomic resources. To better understand these reasons, they introduced a resistance-based framework and reconceptualized constraint negotiation as a different construct: resistance (Shaw, 1994, 2001). By adopting different negotiation strategies to resist the dominant group (i.e., dominant power), those minority groups could achieve a sense of empowerment, personal control, and autonomy (Shaw, 2001).

In addition, studies on nonparticipation (e.g., Johnson, Bowker, & Cordell, 2001) and going to different recreation areas (e.g., Johnson et al., 1998) suggested that negotiating to these “White” leisure activities actually brought lower levels of enjoyment for minority group members (e.g., feeling unsafe and isolated). Therefore, the always-enabling perception of constraint negotiation is challenged once again.

***Acculturation and constraint negotiation.***

Similar to the last section, few researchers have directed their attention to exploring the relationship between acculturation and constraint negotiation. As mentioned above, Shinew and Floyd (2005) provided a resistance-based framework to study race, ethnicity, and constraint negotiation. Because ethnicity and acculturation are so closely correlated, it is reasonable to look at the relationship between acculturation and negotiation from an indirect, “ethnic” angle. For example, when they compared Washburne’s (1978) work to their resistance-based framework, Shinew and Floyd (2005) argued that resistance can take three different forms—*pioneers*, *parallel*, and *abstention*—which are highly similar to the three levels of acculturation (i.e., high-acculturation, biculturalism, and low-acculturation, respectively). For instance, with the intention of resisting conformity to the dominant culture (e.g., White American culture), minority people (e.g., African Americans) who are *pioneers* will participate in leisure activities despite constraints. Similarly, minority people who are highly acculturated usually assimilate to the dominant culture through leisure activities. For minority people who are participating in some *parallel* (to the dominant culture) activities such as skiing, golfing, and fishing, they will only do so within their own ethnicity/race with similar resistance intention to “create one’s own sphere of influence and control” (p. 45). While for minority people who are bicultural, they usually participate in some “White” activities to assimilate to the



sub-culture of their own ethnic communities. The third form of resistance is more extreme because minority people just intentionally avoid participating in certain type of perceived “White” leisure activities (e.g., camping, hiking), reflecting “an individual form of resistance and self-determination” (p. 45). In this way, minority people usually choose their own ethnic activities to retain their unique ethnic identities, which can also be seen in low-acculturated minority people. Although these presumed associations have not been empirically tested and people who hold those three forms of resistance do not necessarily match up exactly with the three levels of acculturation respectively, the number of similarities suggests further research would be worthwhile.

Another assumption that can be drawn from the existing literature (e.g., Christenson et al., 2006; Tang & Dion, 1999) is that being bi-acculturated can be considered as the ideal constraint negotiation strategy for minority people. Tang and Dion (1999) argued that “biculturalism includes both affective and behavioural components and functions on a continuum that can change over time and across situations” (p. 28). For example, in the language domain, Chinese people in Canada can switch from Chinese to English based on the situation; while in terms of the value domain, they can blend Chinese and Canadian values. Associating biculturalism’s affective and behavioural components and functions with Jackson et al.’s (1993) cognitive and behavioural negotiation strategies, it is reasonable to assume that minority people who are bi-acculturated are more capable of employing negotiation strategies to find a balance between participating in mainstream leisure activities to assimilate to the dominant culture and engaging in ethnic leisure activities to retain their ethnic identity. The literature, which partially supported this assumption, reported that biculturalism is beneficial in several aspects, including developing a broader knowledge base (Tang & Dion, 1999), better adaptation and coping skills (Christenson et al, 2006;

Tang & Dion, 1999), and greater family cohesion leading to a lower divorce rate compared with their low and high acculturated counterparts (Christenson et al., 2006).

Similar to the previous discussion in terms of negotiation's enabling nature, adopting negotiation strategies to participate in mainstream leisure activities is not always beneficial for people with low levels of acculturation. For example, Washburne (1978) pointed out that African American communities discourage their members from having contact with mainstream society to prevent discrimination. Stodolska and Alexandris (2004) suggested that instead of negotiating to engage in mainstream leisure activities, low-acculturation people (regardless of their socioeconomic status) can gain many beneficial outcomes from participating in minority traditional sports, including retaining their ethnic identities, solidifying their connections with their ethnic communities, and making use of their social network to look for useful information (e.g., affordable housing, employment opportunities). Therefore, negotiation strategies (in relation to mainstream leisure activities) for low-acculturated people could sometimes inhibit leisure participation.

### ***Summary.***

To sum up, research on these four sections shared some similarities. Firstly, the negotiation process can be considered as a way of resisting the dominant power (i.e., older adults against ageist attitudes, women against power in favour of men, ethnic groups against the dominant culture, and different levels of acculturation against the dominant culture). As a result, these people achieve a sense of empowerment, control, and autonomy. Secondly, negotiation strategies could be both enabling and inhibiting (i.e., older adults who want to retain their remaining abilities, women who are afraid of crime, minority people and low-acculturated people who do not engage in mainstream leisure activities),

resulting in nonparticipation being a preferable choice. Finally, similar negotiation strategies such as cognitive and behavioural strategies were employed by these people, including: (a) older adults ignoring ageist attitudes and acquiring new age-appropriate leisure skills; (b) women reconstructing their definition of leisure activities and seeking alternatives to compromise their leisure needs; (c) minority people devaluing the importance of leisure while highlighting the importance of work and study and improved language skills; and (d) bi-aculturated people devaluing the importance of participating in leisure activities with members of the host country while engaging in similar activities with members of their own ethnic group.

***Research gaps and research questions.***

Based on the limited research on constraint negotiation, it appears that there is a lack of research on whether leisure constraint negotiation overall differs by (a) age, ethnicity, or the interaction between the two, and (b) gender, ethnicity, or the interactions between the two. Specifically for Chinese Canadian, it is also worth exploring whether leisure constraint negotiation overall differs by (c) age, acculturation, or the interaction between the two, and (d) gender, acculturation, or the interactions between the two. Correspondingly, four research questions are put forth:

- *R14: Does leisure constraint negotiation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R15: Does leisure constraint negotiation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

For Chinese Canadians only:

- *R16: Does leisure constraint negotiation overall differ by age, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*

- *R17: Does leisure constraint negotiation overall differ by gender, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*

### **Conclusion**

This chapter has discussed the associations among seven factors (i.e., motivations, leisure constraints, constraint negotiation, age, gender, ethnicity, and acculturation) that affect leisure and leisure participation and has put forth 17 research questions. In the next chapter, I focused on the method used to address these research questions.

### **Note**

<sup>1</sup>In order to be consistent with the construct of cultural identity (which mainly contains two types of identities: ethnic/heritage and civic/national identities) mentioned in the section of “Ethnicity”, the concept of cultural identity discussed in the section of “Acculturation” should be equivalent to the concept of ethnic identity.

## Chapter 3: Method

Following a brief discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of cross-cultural research, the method chapter outlines the research paradigm, research design, sampling, and data collection as well as measures and data analyses that were used.

### Cross-Cultural Research

Various researchers (e.g., Benet-Martinez, 2007; Ho & Wu, 2001; Matsumoto & Juang, 2008; Takooshian, Mrinal, & Mrinal, 2001) have identified both advantages and disadvantages (or issues) with cross-cultural research, including:

#### Advantages.

- It tests possible limitations in current research by extending and examining whether that research can be applied to people with different cultural backgrounds (Berry et al., 2002; Matsumoto & Juang, 2008). Consequently, a number of traditional theories and paradigms have been challenged.
- Benet-Martinez (2007) and Ho and Wu (2001) pointed out that the majority of psychological studies relied solely or primarily on Western (e.g., emics or imposed etics; Berry, 1980) concepts. Berry et al. (2002) called this “disciplinary ethnocentrism”. The development of cross-cultural research manifests this issue and encourages researchers to pay greater attention to etics (i.e., cross-cultural concepts and behaviours) without ignoring emics (i.e., culture-specific concepts and behaviours). Because these two approaches complement each other, achieving a more complete understanding of a phenomenon is possible. For example, by doing both, fundamental questions such as “is leisure universal?” could be addressed.

- Differing from ethnography, which tells us what is distinctive about a particular culture, cross-cultural research tells us what is general for some or even all cultures (Ember & Ember, 2009). That is, cross-cultural comparison allows us to make generalized statements about similarities and differences between and among different cultures.
- The range of cultural variables is increased, resulting in a corresponding increase in the range of observed behaviours (Ho & Wu, 2001; Sue et al., 1979). For example, the concept of constraints can be expanded by adding the concept of “face” when studying Chinese people’s leisure behaviours (Liang & Walker, 2010).
- Many old concepts have been resurrected and re-developed (Brislin, 1983). As well, emphasis has been given to ethnic-cultural variables (Ho & Wu, 2001). For instance, although the concept of ethnicity has been criticized for its absence of theory and measurement ambiguity (Floyd, 1998), it has still received a great deal of attention over the past two decades (Shinew et al., 2006).
- Cross-cultural research encourages researchers to increasingly employ more sophisticated analytical techniques such as multivariate statistics and modeling analyses, and to frequently conduct “large-scale survey studies with data from thousands of participants” (p. 334).

**Disadvantages/issues.**

- The control of bias is the major threat in cross-cultural studies. Bias could be present in the “conceptualization of theoretical constructs relevant to the study and the formulation of research questions or hypotheses” (van de Vijver & Leung, 1997, p. 4). That is, one of the most crucial problems is the construct inequivalence that challenges

the validity of the cross-cultural comparisons (Brislin, 1980; Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006; van de Vijver & Leung, 1997).

- As mentioned above, bias threatens the validity of cross-cultural comparisons (Takooshian et al., 2001; van de Vijver & Leung, 1997). Bias could derive from issues such as poor item translations, inappropriate item content, and lack of standardization in administration procedures. Bias has three main types: construct, method, and item. *Construct bias* often occurs in some of the following situations: (a) when the construct measured is not identical across cultural groups; (b) there is lack of overlap in behaviours associated with the construct in the cultures studied; and (c) there is a poor sampling of a domain in the instrument (i.e., construct underrepresentation). *Method bias* usually arises from particular characteristics of the instrument or its administration. *Items bias* could appear when: (a) item formulation is inadequate (e.g., complex wording), (b) item translation is misleading, and (c) the item may invoke additional traits or abilities.
- Sample differences across cultures are usually ignored in many cross-cultural studies, and therefore results from these studies often differ after cross-validation (Benet-Martinez, 2007; van de Vijver & Leung, 1997). In terms of sampling, Matsumoto and Yoo (2006) cautioned researchers not to simply assume that their participants are representative of the cultures of interest, because some “non-cultural” variables (e.g., demographic characteristics) may account for the presumed “cultural” differences.
- Multilingual studies always face validity problems as well. For example, an inappropriately translated instrument will result in serious

construct bias/inequivalence (Benet-Martinez, 2007; Takooshian et al., 2001; van de Vijver & Leung, 1997).

- Benet-Martinez (2007) also pointed out some procedural issues: (a) researchers' characteristics (i.e., researchers' background may affect respondents' behaviour); (b) ethical issue (i.e., imbalanced standard and availability of ethical review board); (c) priming effects (i.e., instruction of questions may guide response to certain direction); and (d) reference-group issue (i.e., participants of different cultural backgrounds compare themselves with the standards of their study counterparts).

In short, cross-cultural research is still evolving (Matsumoto & Juang, 2008). Therefore, cross-cultural researchers should be aware of the above issues and follow recommended guidelines (e.g., van de Vijver & Leung, 1997).

### **Research Paradigm**

Because my study is based on the revised leisure constraints model developed by Walker and Virden (2005), I therefore followed the authors' suggestion that both qualitative and quantitative methodologies should be used to examine the relationships in this model. This approach is also consistent with Crawford and Jackson's (2005) recommendation that both qualitative and quantitative efforts should be made to develop constraint and constraint negotiation measures. In order to do so, I employed a post-positivist paradigm.

With a post-positivist paradigm, the main concern is trying to make "scientific" generalization to a larger population. Post-positivists also promote qualitative research to include participants' meanings and purposes and to ground theories of certain behaviours/phenomena more firmly based on participants' views because they realize that linking the two types of data will "provide a more holistic understanding of the phenomenon being studied" (Markula, Grant, &



Denison, 2001, p. 247). Finally, because I collected both types of data, one major data linking approach—antecedent or sequential linkages—was employed. That is, qualitative data is collected first to develop quantitative instruments later on (Fielding & Fielding, 1986). More specifically, in this case participants' qualitative responses were used to add to or modify the existing constraint and constraint negotiation scales that were included in the questionnaire.

### **Research Design**

A two-stage research design with in-depth interviews at the first stage and a self-administered questionnaire at the second stage was used for this study.

#### **Stage 1: qualitative research.**

Post-positivism's modified dualist/objectivist methodology suggests that collecting emic viewpoints from participants through qualitative methods such as open-ended, face-to-face, semi-structured interviews or focus groups (Markula et al., 2001), facilitates understanding about the variety of meanings behind people's actions (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In this way, qualitative data assist researchers in falsifying hypotheses (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). For this study, five in-depth interviews were conducted with members of each of the three ethnic/cultural groups (i.e., British Canadians, Chinese Canadians, and Mainland Chinese). Interviews took place in Edmonton, Canada and Zhongshan City, Mainland China. Questions in relation to leisure constraints, power, and negotiation strategies followed a semi-structured approach, and interviews were taped, transcribed, and translated for analysis.

#### **Stage 2: quantitative research.**

Self-administered questionnaires enable respondents to complete questions at their own pace and ensure confidentiality, both important aspects of data collection (Dillman, 2000). This stage also followed procedures recommended by Dillman (2000), such as using incentive prizes and postage-paid return envelopes

if some participants cannot complete their questionnaires on site. Nevertheless, one drawback with using a self-administered questionnaire is that some respondents try to complete the survey as quickly as possible without thinking about which answer they really want to choose, which potentially leads a researcher to make an incorrect/inaccurate judgment (Dillman, 2000). For this study, I developed a questionnaire that all of the respondents should be able to complete within 15 minutes, which may offset this negative aspect of the self-administered questionnaire.

Because this study involved participants from three different ethnic/cultural backgrounds in two countries, it was also necessary to develop four different questionnaire versions. Specifically: (a) English- and simplified Chinese-language questionnaires that did not include the acculturation items for, respectively, British Canadians and Mainland Chinese; and (b) English- and simplified Chinese-language questionnaires that did include the acculturation items for Chinese Canadians, based on their language preference.

### **Sample**

The target populations for this study were Chinese from Zhongshan City, Guangdong province, Mainland China, and Chinese Canadians and British Canadians from Edmonton, Alberta, Canada. The reasons for choosing Zhongshan City to recruit Mainland Chinese older adults were: (a) it is my hometown, and so the process of collecting data is more convenient; and (b) this city won the Habitat Scroll of Honour Award issued by United Nations in 1997 and the Urban Land Institute Excellence Award in 2009, thereby attracting Chinese older people from different Chinese provinces to spend their later lives there (Zhongshan, 2009).

The sampling procedure depends largely on the purpose of a study and the availability of resources such as money, time, and personnel (Fowler, 1993). For stage 1 (qualitative), I used the purposive sampling technique, which is the most

common sampling technique for a qualitative study (Marshall, 1996). More specifically, this study employed a snowball sampling technique so that participants may be able to recommend other potential candidates (Marshall, 1996). This technique was preferable for this study because it was not easy to recruit people who are 55 years old or over among those three groups, especially the Chinese Canadian group (this issue will be discussed in greater detail in the data collection section).

For stage 2 (quantitative), although the main goal of conducting a post-positivist study is to make “scientific” generalization to the larger population, it was not realistic for my study to employ a random sampling method due to limited resources (e.g., money, time, and personnel) available. Thus, a convenience sample of 450 participants (150 for each of the three ethnic/cultural groups) was recruited. This sample size is sufficiently large to represent the populations being studied and to provide sufficient statistical power for the planned data analysis (Kelloway, 1998).

### **Data Collection**

Before collecting data for both stages of this study, I obtained ethics approval from the PER/ALES/NS Research Ethics Board (“Ethics Information,” 2010). As part of this procedure, the informed consent, which outlines the nature of the research (e.g., purpose of the research, research procedure, compensation, confidentiality, and voluntary participation), was prepared.

As mentioned in the research design section, I used open-ended, face-to-face, semi-structured interviews to collect data for the first stage of the study. Five individual interviews for each of the three ethnic/cultural groups (i.e., Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadians, and British Canadians) were conducted. Interviews took place in English and Mandarin (I speak both of these languages). To thank them for taking time for the interview, I remunerated each participant

with a \$10 gift card (e.g., Tim Hortons) or 20 Chinese Yuan (approximately \$3 Canadian) as an incentive to take part.

Later, I used self-administered questionnaires to collect the data for the second stage of the study. Questionnaires were administered in English and Mandarin. Based on the participants' location, I remunerated each with a \$5 gift card (e.g., Tim Hortons) or 10 Chinese yuan (approximately \$1.6 Canadian) for completing the survey.

The amount of remuneration in stages one and two was based on Dillman's (2007) recommendation that including a token financial incentive (e.g., one to five dollars) with a request to fill out a questionnaire has demonstrated significant response rate improvement.

Because this study involved three different ethnic/cultural groups, the questions in both stages one and two were back-translated into simplified Chinese versions based on Brislin's (1970) recommendations. Specifically, this process involved two stages: first, I translated the questionnaire from English into simplified Chinese, and then a second Chinese scholar who had not seen the original English-language questionnaire translated it back. However, because translators may impose English (or Chinese) grammar on the Chinese (English) translation, which may lead to incomprehension or miscommunication of original ideas (Marin & Marin, 1991), both translators decentred the constructs (e.g., motivations, constraints, and constraint negotiation) by removing words and concepts that were difficult to translate or were specific to one culture (Brislin, 1970).

A potential problem regarding data collection was the difficulty recruiting participants, especially Chinese Canadian individuals aged 55 and over. A comparable study conducted in a similar context (i.e., Edmonton, Alberta, Canada) suggested that researchers can use public and commercial settings (e.g., Chinese

community center, Chinese supermarkets) as well as public and commercial media (e.g., local newspapers, Internet bulletin boards) to recruit participants (Walker & Wang, 2007). I thereby contacted the ASSIST Community Services Centre (one of major services centre targeting Chinese immigrants; ASSIST, 2008) and successfully recruited 150 Chinese Canadian participants from its government-funded seniors' programs such as computer literacy classes, exercise groups, and handicraft groups. For both British Canadian and Mainland Chinese samples, I was able to recruit enough participants from seniors' recreation centres in Edmonton (e.g., Westend Seniors Activity Centre; WSAC, 2012) and in Zhongshan City by volunteering for recreation programs (e.g., walking groups, fitness groups, and workshops).

## **Measures**

### **Stage 1: qualitative research.**

Participants who agreed to the in-depth interviews were asked questions about their leisure constraints, which were later grouped to identify recurring patterns and themes (mainly based on the three types of leisure constraints). For example, a general constraint question was: *What constraints prevent older adults from participating spare-time/leisure activities?* The results of these interviews were a valuable resource for development of the questionnaire, because I was able to compare responses with one of the existing leisure constraints items developed and modified by Walker et al. (2007), and then could make adjustments accordingly. Also, because the literature suggests that the concept of power may be a structural constraint, the relevant stereotyping questions were incorporated into the interview process. A general question, for example, was: *Is stereotyping in terms of ageism, sexism, and ethnicity (not for Mainland Chinese participants) a constraint on leisure participation? If so, how do older adults negotiate this constraint?*

Similar to the development of the constraints scales, questions about constraint negotiation strategies were asked in order to better evaluate and modify the existing negotiation strategies items. A general interview question was: *What strategies do older adults employ to negotiate this constraint?*

A list of specific questions regarding the above concepts is included in Appendix A.

### **Stage 2: quantitative research.**

The questionnaire focused on the macro (i.e., age, gender, ethnicity, and acculturation) and micro level factors (i.e., motivations, constraints, and constraint negotiation) described in the literature review, particularly in regard to how to address the research questions I developed. All of the versions of the questionnaire consisted of five parts, including participation, motivations, constraints, constraint negotiation and socio-demographic background (e.g., age, gender, and ethnicity/culture). For the version specific to Chinese Canadians, an additional section focused specifically on the construct of acculturation.

#### ***Spare-time activity participation.***

This introductory section of the questionnaire asked respondents about the frequency of participating in different types of activities in their spare time. A 12-item scale developed by Walker, Deng, and Spiers (2009) was employed. The themes of these items were measured on a 6-point uni-polar scale (1 = Never; 6 = Extremely Often), and ranged from outdoor recreation activities to sports/exercising, from daily social activities to individual activities, and from more relaxed leisure activities such as having a nap to potentially more serious leisure activities such as volunteering. The main purpose of using these items in the introduction was to give participants a general idea about the concept of leisure activity. It is necessary to note that the following three sections (i.e., motivations, constraints, and constraint negotiation) were also directly related to

the above leisure activities. Also worth noting is that I used “spare-time activities” rather than “leisure” throughout my questionnaire based on Iwasaki, Nishino, Onda, and Bowling’s (2007) recommendation when conducting research with non-Western populations.

### ***Motivations.***

Based on Deci and Ryan’s (1985, 2000) self-determination continuum, motivation is divided into six categories, including intrinsic, integrated regulation, identified regulation, introjected regulation, external regulation, and amotivation. This study thereby used the 15 motivational items that were tested in Walker and Wang’s (2008) cross-cultural study based on the following reasons: (1) their study compared Canadian and Mainland Chinese university students’ leisure motivations, which was similar to my study of comparing older adults from these two countries; (2) their study examined the reliability and explanatory ability of the self-determination theory (SDT), showing that not only the reliability of these motivation scales was consistent for both Chinese and Canadian students (except for the integrated motivation due to construct inequivalence), but also the proposed ordering of the five motivations (except amotivation) was confirmed again for both ethnic groups; (3) these items were originally borrowed and slightly modified from pre-existing scales (e.g., Baldwin & Caldwell, 2003; Mullan, Markland, & Ingledew, 1997; Self-Regulation Questionnaires, 2003), further supporting the applicability of these scales; (4) these 15 items shared the same stem: “I do what I do in my spare time...”, which is a good follow-up from the introductory “participation” section. These items were measured on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree).

### ***Constraints.***

This section measured perceptions of intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints on general spare-time activity participation. Constraints

were measured using 15 items. I used four intrapersonal constraint items from Walker et al.'s (2007) seventeen-item scale. Among these, three items were developed using Ajzen's (1991) TPB (i.e., Theory of Planned Behaviour) variables concerning affective and instrumental attitude, and one was developed by Courneya, Plotnikoff, Hotz, and Birkett (2000) to examine injunctive norm. More specifically, according to Nunnally's (1967) criteria, two instrumental attitude items (forming a multi-item scale) and one affective attitude item (from a three-item scale) were found to have acceptable standardized Cronbach coefficient alpha levels (Walker et al., 2007). Furthermore, Walker et al.'s (2007) confirmatory factor analysis provided statistical support for the entire scale by exhibiting satisfactory discriminant validity. As well, I included five interpersonal and six structural constraint items from Raymore, Godbey, Crawford, and von Eye's (1993) leisure constraints scale, which has also been supported using confirmatory factor analysis.

In addition, because Liang and Walker (2010) suggested that self- and other-face concerns are important intrapersonal leisure constraints for some Mainland Chinese people, I selected and modified three self-face and three other-face items from Zane and Yeh's (2002) Loss of Face Scale (LOF) to better fit into a spare-time activity context. For example, for both Mainland Chinese and Chinese Canadians, "During a discussion, I try not to ask questions because I may appear ignorant to others" was changed to "I am less likely to participate in spare time activities because I might lose face if I had to ask questions". For British Canadians, the phrase "lose face" was adjusted to "feel embarrassed". The original LOF scale, which was used to investigate Asian American and European American college students' face, has shown concurrent validity with public and private self-consciousness, and other-directedness as well as discriminant validity with social desirability, social anxiety, and response acquiescence (Zane & Yeh,



2002). Mak and Chen's (2006) work on stress-distress relationships further supported that this scale is sensitive to ethnic differences and acculturative variation and has incremental validity above and beyond important personality variables. Participants' responses to the 21 items described above were measured using 6-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree).

### ***Constraint Negotiation.***

As previously noted, research on constraint negotiation is very limited, resulting in a lack of negotiation scales. Alexandris et al. (2007) stated that only two published negotiation scales currently exist (e.g., Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Jackson & Rucks, 1995). After a careful comparison, Jackson and Rucks' (1995) negotiation scales are more consistent with my literature review in terms of negotiation strategy classification (i.e., cognitive and behavioural strategies). However, one concern is that all of their negotiation strategies were grouped conceptually, rather than through the use of any statistical technique (Alexandris et al., 2007). This is a potential issue because Jackson and Rucks (1995) suggested that future studies should validate any quantitative negotiation scales they might use.

Jackson and Rucks (1995) also pointed out that their scales should be replicated beyond adolescents "because other categories of constraints and strategies may be more appropriate for, and other patterns may emerge in, adult populations" (p. 104). Therefore, this study followed their recommendation to "develop items and scales for quantitative research using the categories developed in the present paper as a starting-point" (p. 104). That is, because my study focused on an older population, I developed a new scale based on the interview results (i.e., stage 1) and Jackson and Rucks' negotiation categories, which includes: cognitive strategies, time management, skills acquisition, changing interpersonal relations, improving finances, physical therapy, and changing

leisure aspirations. Participants' responses to the 21 constraint negotiation items described above were measured using 6-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree).

### ***Acculturation.***

For Chinese Canadians, I used a modified version of the Vancouver Index of Acculturation (VIA) (Ryder, Alden, & Paulhus, 2000) to measure their "acculturation" levels. The original VIA is a 20-item scale that assesses three acculturation domains: values, social relationships, and adherence to traditions. Because, however, Roberts and Chick (2007) have voiced concerns with using leisure items to measure culture and then using culture to measure leisure (i.e., a tautology) I used eight non-leisure items to measure acculturation in terms of "mainstream" Canadian culture and Chinese culture. After doing so, I then used this information on acculturation to examine whether differences exist in leisure motivations, leisure constraints, and constraint negotiation. Participants' responses to the eight acculturation items described above were measured using 6-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree).

The Vancouver Index of Acculturation was selected for four reasons. First, the sample used for development of the VIA consisted of participants who had a Chinese ethnic/cultural background, which is consistent with one of the samples in my study. Second, after reviewing multiple articles, Huynh, Howell, and Benet-Martinez (2009) found that the VIA "yielded robust reliability estimates on both the non-dominant (.63 - .92) and dominant (.70 - .89) culture scales across a wide range of samples" (p. 266). Third, Huynh et al. (2009) recommended the use of VIA to measure acculturation because of its popularity and applicability across different ethnic groups in a variety of locations. Fourth, this non-dominant (e.g., Chinese) and dominant (e.g., Canadian) culture scales correspond to Berry's (1997) acculturation strategies very well. As mentioned in the literature review,

individual members and their cultural groups must decide which acculturation strategies they will employ under both the dominant and non-dominant situations. Depending on their levels of cultural maintenance and contact and participation in both situations, these strategies could be defined as assimilation, separation, integration, and marginalization (Berry, 1997).

***Socio-demographic information.***

This section included ethnicity, age, gender, and other information such as education level, income level, marital status, etc. The three variables of interest are explained in more detail.

To measure ethnicity, my study followed Walker's (2008) method of obtaining participants' ethnic background information because his study also involved the same ethnic groups (i.e., Chinese Canadians and British Canadians). Specifically, at the beginning of the survey, participants were asked: "Which ethnic group do you most closely identify with? Would you say English, English-Canadian, Chinese, Chinese-Canadian, Irish, Irish-Canadian, Scottish, Scottish-Canadian, Welsh, Welsh-Canadian, Canadian, none of the above?" (p. 296). Respondents who selected Chinese or Chinese-Canadian were considered to be Chinese Canadians, while respondents who selected other choices (except for "none of the above") were considered to be British Canadians. People who answered "none of the above" or did not know their ethnicity were told that the quota for their group was already filled and would not be given the questionnaire, whereas "qualified" respondents were asked to complete a questionnaire. This ethnicity question was not included in the questionnaire given to Mainland Chinese participants.

In terms of age, because the cut-off age for this study was 55, participants who were eligible simply circled the age group they belong to (e.g., 55-64, 65-74, 75-84, and 85 or above). These groupings were based on Statistics Canada's

(2006e) criteria.

Lastly, gender was reported by having participants circle either male or female.

## **Data Analysis**

### **Qualitative data.**

For the qualitative data, given the extant literature on leisure constraints (e.g., Bialeschki, 2005; Dionigi, 2006; Liang & Walker, 2011), constraint negotiation (e.g., Jackson et al., 1993) and the existence of a theoretical framework (i.e., Walker & Virden, 2005), I used directed content analysis to code and evaluate my participants' responses. Directed content analysis uses existing theory or research to identify key concepts or variables as initial coding categories (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999), "with data that cannot be coded [being] identified and analyzed later to determine if they represent a new category or subcategory of an existing code" (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1282). In my case, I began with nine predetermined constraints and constraints negotiation coding categories followed by: (a) developing operational definitions for each category, (b) reviewing all transcripts, (c) highlighting identified text, (d) coding all highlighted text based on predetermined categories wherever possible, and (e) determining the need for subcategories or a new category when encountering ambiguous data (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

Because directed content analysis does not result in meaningful interpretation of coded data by using statistical tests of difference, I used rank order comparisons (Curtis et al., 2001) to calculate two different frequency distributions to analyze the constraints and constraints negotiation categories; specifically the: (a) frequency of times a response was mentioned (and what percentage of total reports this represented) and (b) frequency of participants who mentioned a response (and what percentage of total reports this represented).

Finally, to complement the frequency analyses, exemplars of participants' responses were identified and are included as quotations (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

### **Quantitative data.**

Quantitative data from close-ended questions were analyzed using SPSS 16.0 to answer the research questions.

Quantitative data analyses consisted of four stages, including: (a) calculating descriptive statistics, (b) calculating scale reliabilities, (c) calculating average mean scores for the key variables (i.e., leisure motivations, constraints, and constraint negotiation overall) to examine inter-relationships (i.e., in order to address *RI*), and (d) performing two-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests and two-factor multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) tests to assess differences between groups (i.e., in order to address the remaining questions accordingly). Within this stage, Li et al. (2007) cautioned that leisure researchers should avoid making a Type I error (i.e., rejecting null hypotheses when they are true) when conducting multiple comparison tests. One method to deal with this issue is to follow the Bonferroni procedure, which involves simply dividing the alpha level by the number of tests. For example, the customary alpha level for each of the motivation types (i.e., intrinsic, integrated, identified, introjected, and external) is  $p < .05$ , then the Bonferroni adjusted level for leisure motivation overall is  $p < .05/5 = .01$ . However, Li et al. also pointed out that using this type of correction for multiple tests might lead to a higher risk of making a Type II error (i.e., accepting null hypotheses when they are false). Below is a detailed description about each stage.

Firstly, descriptive statistical analyses were performed on all of the measures, including demographic variables and the variables of interest (i.e., spare-time activity participation, motivations, constraints, negotiation, and

acculturation). Frequencies were calculated to show the distribution of these responses and to obtain a brief profile of respondents, while means and standard deviations provided descriptive information on the scales.

Secondly, for both constraints and negotiation strategies, I compared the interview results with the pre-existing leisure constraints items (Walker et al., 2007) and negotiation strategy items (Jackson & Rucks, 1995) and had made necessary adjustments (see “Questionnaire Adjustment” section in Chapter 4). Next, based on the procedure developed by van de Vijver and Leung (1997), standardized Cronbach coefficient alphas and equality of these coefficients were calculated for different scales of interest (e.g., spare-time activity participation, motivations, constraints, negotiation, and acculturation) by the three ethnic/cultural groups (i.e., Chinese Canadian, British Canadians, and Mainland Chinese). The purpose of examining the equality of these coefficients was to determine if the corresponding scales’ psychometric properties were similar (van de Vijver & Leung, 1997).

Thirdly, average mean scores for the key variables of interest were calculated for the first research question. For example, (a) *average leisure motivation* was operationalized using a modified version of Ryan and Connell’s (1989) Relative Autonomy index scoring (i.e.,  $RAI = 2 \times \text{intrinsic} + 1.5 \times \text{integrated} + \text{identified} - \text{introjected} - 2 \times \text{external}$ ); (b) *average leisure constraint* was operationalized as an average of the intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints; and (c) *average constraint negotiation* was operationalized as an average of cognitive and behavioural strategies.

Finally, the specific statistical tests that were conducted for each of the research questions developed earlier are described below:

*R1: Do the associations among average leisure motivation, average leisure constraint, and average constraint negotiation differ by age, gender,*

*ethnicity, or, in the case of Chinese Canadians, acculturation?* Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to test the correlations among these variables.

The next set of research questions investigated whether leisure participation overall<sup>2</sup> differs by (a) age, ethnicity, or the interaction between the two; and (b) gender, ethnicity, or the interactions between the two. Again, because the main focus of this cross-cultural study is on detecting cultural differences, the potential interaction of age and gender was not examined:

- *R2: Does leisure participation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R3: Does leisure participation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

In addition, two research questions relating to acculturation were put forth only for Chinese Canadians:

- *R4: Does leisure participation overall differ by age, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R5: Does leisure participation overall differ by gender, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*

Accordingly, four two-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were carried out to examine the individual and joint effect of two independent variables (i.e., age and ethnicity; gender and ethnicity; age and acculturation; gender and acculturation) on one dependent variable (i.e., leisure participation overall).

The following three sets of questions further explored whether leisure motivation overall, leisure constraint overall, and constraint negotiation overall differ by (a) age, ethnicity, or the interaction between the two; and (b) gender, ethnicity, or the interactions between the two, respectively. Similar to Research Questions Four and Five, six questions involving acculturation (two for each set

of questions) were put forward specifically for Chinese Canadians.

(1) This list of research questions examined motivation overall:

- *R6: Does leisure motivation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R7: Does leisure motivation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

For Chinese Canadians only:

- *R8: Does leisure motivation overall differ by age, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R9: Does leisure motivation overall differ by gender, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*

Four two-factor multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) tests were performed to examine whether leisure motivation overall differs, using ethnicity, age, gender, and acculturation as the independent variables. If the MANOVA tests' results indicated significant differences exist, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to investigate the sources of those differences.

(2) The following research questions examined leisure constraints overall:

- *R10: Does leisure constraint overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R11: Does leisure constraint overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

For Chinese Canadians only:

- *R12: Does leisure constraint overall differ by age, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R13: Does leisure constraint overall differ by gender, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*



Four two-factor multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) tests were performed to examine whether leisure constraint overall differs, using ethnicity, age, gender, and acculturation as the independent variables. If the MANOVA tests' results indicated significant differences exist, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to investigate the sources of those differences.

(3) The following list of research questions examined constraint negotiation overall:

- *R14: Does leisure constraint negotiation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R15: Does leisure constraint negotiation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

For Chinese Canadians only:

- *R16: Does leisure constraint negotiation overall differ by age, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R17: Does leisure constraint negotiation overall differ by gender, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*

Once again, four two-factor multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) tests were carried out to examine whether constraint negotiation overall differs, using ethnicity, age, gender, and acculturation as the independent variables. If the MANOVA tests' results indicate significant differences exist, ANOVA was used to investigate the sources of those differences.

#### **Note**

<sup>2</sup>In order to be consistent with the construct of "leisure" discussed in Chapter 2, the term "leisure participation overall" mentioned in the research questions should be equivalent to the term "spare-time activity participation" used throughout my interview and questionnaire.

## Chapter 4: Results

Because this study employed a two-stage research design with in-depth interviews at the first stage and a self-administered questionnaire at the second stage, this chapter is divided into two major sections: qualitative and quantitative findings.

### **Qualitative Findings**

Five individual interviews for each of the three ethnic/cultural groups (i.e., Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadians, and British Canadians) were conducted in either English or Mandarin.

Results and discussion of these interviews are reported as follows:

#### **Mainland Chinese.**

##### *Constraints.*

Table 1 reports the constraints that prevented Mainland Chinese older adults' spare-time activity participation.

Table 1  
*Constraints Preventing Mainland Chinese Older Adults' Spare-time Activity Participation*

Factor	Frequency of Times Mentioned (%)	Frequency of Respondents Who Mentioned (%)
<b><i>Structural Constraints ---Total</i></b>	<b><i>15 (41.67)</i></b>	
Time (participants)	3 (8.33)	3 (60.00)
Health	3 (8.33)	3 (60.00)
Facility (far away)	2 (5.56)	2 (40.00)
Transportation	2 (5.56)	2 (40.00)
Money	2 (5.56)	2 (40.00)
Weather	2 (5.56)	2 (40.00)
Politics	1 (2.78)	1 (20.00)
<b><i>Intrapersonal Constraints --- Total</i></b>	<b><i>13 (36.11)</i></b>	
Babysitting grandchildren	5 (13.89)	4 (80.00)
No interest/boring	3 (8.33)	3 (60.00)
Safety	2 (5.56)	2 (40.00)
Reluctant to ask for help	1 (2.78)	1 (20.00)
Self-face	1 (2.78)	1 (20.00)
Other-face	1 (2.78)	1 (20.00)
<b><i>Interpersonal Constraints --- Total</i></b>	<b><i>8 (22.22)</i></b>	
Alone (different hobbies & interests)	3 (8.33)	2 (40.00)
Interpersonal conflict	2 (5.56)	2 (40.00)
Time (significant others)	1 (2.78)	1 (20.00)
Live far away	1 (2.78)	1 (20.00)
Health (significant others)	1 (2.78)	1 (20.00)
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>---</b>

*Note.* Percentage calculated based on the TOTAL number of all responses.

As indicated above, seven predetermined constraint categories (i.e., structural, interpersonal, intrapersonal, self-face, other-face, ageism, and sexism) were used to guide the coding process. After carefully reviewing the highlighted text, two categories in relation to the concept of power (i.e., ageism and sexism) were removed because none of the Mainland Chinese participants considered them to be constraints. Although one person did mention ageism and sexism existed to some extent (e.g., being an older male fashion model), it was not a constraint to him because “they are just social phenomena, which do not really influence what [he wants] to do.” Also, because Liang and Walker (2011) found that both self-face and other-face are new types of intrapersonal constraints, three major categories with 16 subcategories were identified. The structural constraints category (with seven subcategories) and the intrapersonal constraints category (with four subcategories and two face categories) accounted for 41.67% and 36.11% of the responses, respectively, while the interpersonal constraints category (with five subcategories) only consisted of approximately a fifth of responses (22.22%). Among these categories, babysitting grandchildren under the intrapersonal constraints category was the most frequently mentioned response (13.89%), and was mentioned by the most respondents (80%). Participant reported, for example, that:

Sometimes, I can't make it because I need to attend my grandchildren. Especially in August, summer holiday, I can't practice Tai Chi every morning. (2, female)

Objectively, there are some constraints. For example, if my grandchildren are on holiday, their parents are tied up with their work, so we have to help our kids to attend those grandchildren. So this situation will become a constraint for our current activities. (3, male)

When I lived in my hometown, I needed to look after my daughter's child, so I didn't have time to participate, only my husband went. (4, female)

This type of response is not surprising when it is associated with women's internalized ethic of care, particularly in an Asian context. Women's caring behaviour (i.e., or internalized "ethic of care") has been considered a major constraint to their leisure (Henderson et al., 1996), even though this kind of behaviour can facilitate social relationships, especially for women of color (Henderson & Ainsworth, 2001). It is important to note that in my study, however, two male participants also mentioned their obligations to babysit despite playing with grandchildren often being considered leisure (Su et al., 2006). This finding suggests that this constraint might be applicable to both genders.

Next were time and health under the structural constraints category, being alone (i.e., partners or friends having different hobbies & interests) under the interpersonal constraints category, and no interest/boring under the intrapersonal constraints category, with equal percentages of total mentions (8.33%) and near equal frequent mentions by participants (60%, 40%, and 60%, respectively). An example of each of these four is listed below:

I'm too busy with so many things in my life, I don't have time to do exercises. (1, Male)

Also, because I had encephalohemia before, I have balancing problem while Tai Chi requires a lot of balance. (3, male)

For example, my wife likes practising Tai Chi, which is something I don't like. So I'll go to the gym just by myself. (1, male)

Yes, for some activities, for example, Tai Chi. It's a very good activity, but personally, I just don't like it because of its slow motions. But I'm the kind of person who likes the quick and active movements. The rhythm is too slow. (3, male)

Past research has documented universal constraints for older adults such as health-related factors, lack of companionship (Administration on Aging, 2002; Jackson, 1993), and lack of time (Green, Hebron, & Woodward, 1990). Lack of

interest has also been documented across cultures (Ajzen, 1991).

In addition to these common constraints, two uncommon barriers were also mentioned by participants. For example, weather and politics under the structural constraints category have seldom been discussed in the literature. In terms of the former, it could be associated with fear of falling (Murphy et al., 2002); while for the later, because it is so region specific (i.e., the relationship between Taiwan and Mainland China), it might only be valuable to include when assessing Mainland Chinese people's travel behaviours. Examples of these two are listed below:

Except something like bad weather, raining, so we can't practice Tai Chi in the park. (5, male)

When I was a child, I thought Taiwan is part of our country, I really wanna visit it at least once, but still can't make it. .... but not in my province, only the people from Beijing or Shanghai can go. (4, female)

Because the Chinese concept of "face" was introduced earlier in this study, participants were specifically asked to respond to questions about this potential barrier. Only one person believed self- and other-face were constraints to his spare-time activity participation, however, which is consistent with Liang and Walker's (2011) findings. The same participant in my study also talked about his reluctance of asking his friends for a regular ride when participating in the same activity. This can be also associated with self-face to some extent, because the more he asked his friends for help, the more likely he felt embarrassed by his lack of financial capability. Below are three examples of this constraint:

Because face is like people's self-esteem, if I can't do that activity well, I'm afraid that other people will laugh at me. (3, male)

Because if I can't do something well, it will not only influence myself, but also my family. If I can do it well, other people will say: "See, how well your husband has done!" So face definitely is a factor. (3, male)

A few friends of mine do have cars, and they can definitely come and pick me up, but I don't feel good by asking them to do that, because it's not just occasionally, it's every day, I don't feel comfortable to ask them give me a ride every single day. (3, male)

Lastly, safety (5.56% and 40%, respectively) was mentioned by two female participants. Examples of this constraint are provided below:

Taking the plane is more expensive, and because of my psychological shadow after watching all those air crash disasters, I prefer not to take it. (2, female)

I think transportation is a big constraint for us. It's not so convenient here and it takes so much time back and forth [to the senior centre in downtown area]. So sometimes I'd rather just find a place nearby and do some activities. Also it is related to our personal safety. (4, female)

The former example, which is not necessary a barrier only for women, is often discussed in tourism-oriented research. For example, Reisinger (2005) found that travellers' anxiety level is a function of type of perceived risk. The latter example, which represents a constraint often perceived by women, has been well-documented in previous leisure research. For instance, researchers have reported women's fear of natural threats such as wild animals, weather, and remoteness (e.g., Virden & Walker, 1999), and fear of crime/violence (e.g., Bialeschki, 2005; Shores et al., 2007; Whyte & Shaw, 1994) being major constraints.

### ***Constraint negotiation.***

Table 2 reports the negotiation strategies Mainland Chinese older adults may employ when encountering constraints for their spare-time activity participation. According to Jackson et al. (1993) and Mannell and Kleiber (1997), there are two main types of negotiation strategies: behavioural (i.e., where the person changes the way he/she participates in the activity) and cognitive (i.e., where the person changes the way he/she thinks about the constraint).

Table 2

*Negotiation Strategies to Mainland Chinese Older Adults' Constraints*

Factor	Frequency of Times Mentioned (%)	Frequency of Respondents Who Mentioned (%)
<b><i>Behavioural Strategies---Total</i></b>	<b>22 (75.86)</b>	
Improve health through exercising	5 (17.24)	5 (100.00)
Change leisure aspirations	5 (17.24)	4 (80.00)
Time management	4 (13.79)	3 (60.00)
Find people with similar interests	3 (10.34)	2 (40.00)
Improve finances	2 (6.90)	2 (40.00)
Acquire skills	1 (3.45)	1 (20.00)
Find people with similar ages	1 (3.45)	1 (20.00)
Choose different means of transport	1 (3.45)	1 (20.00)
<b><i>Cognitive Strategies --- Total</i></b>	<b>7 (24.13)</b>	
Be positive, be optimistic	4 (13.79)	4 (80.00)
Ignore	2 (6.90)	2 (40.00)
Be open-minded – adjust to the Changing world	1 (3.45)	1 (20.00)
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>---</b>

*Note.* Percentage calculated based on the TOTAL number of all responses.

Behavioural strategies with eight subcategories and cognitive strategies with three subcategories accounted for 75.86% and 24.13% of the responses, respectively. Nevertheless, these numbers did not suggest that participants will employ more behavioural than cognitive strategies; therefore, it would be more informative to look at specific items. It is obvious to see that many of them were corresponding to the aforementioned constraints, especially for those behavioural strategies. For example, strategies that are the most frequently mentioned response and mentioned by the most respondents include: improve health through exercising (17.24% and 100%, respectively), change leisure aspirations (17.24%



and 80%, respectively), time management (13.79% and 60%, respectively), and find people with similar interests (10.34% and 40%, respectively). Just as Jackson et al. (1993) believed, in most occasions, people adopt certain type of negotiation strategy to overcome the specific problem people may encounter. Respective examples of each of the above are provided below:

Because exercising is for my health. If I can maintain good health, it'll make my family feel relieved to see me being healthy. I have improved my health significantly after practicing Tai Chi, so I want to continue. (2, female)

Like I'm going to Sanya pretty soon, and the community there doesn't have the facility like we have here, so I have to figure out something to do instead. So I have recorded the instructions of certain Tai Chi styles in my MP3 so that I can practice there by myself. And the community there doesn't have the choir, so I might just practice singing at home or learn how to play the musical instrument. So just find something interesting to make up for it. (4, female)

I don't have to do Tai Chi in the morning. My daughter's community also has a lot of activities in the evening, some people practice Tai Chi in the evening. (2, female)

I always do exercises with other people who share the same interests. (3, male)

For cognitive strategies, being positive (13.79% and 80%, respectively) and ignoring constraints (6.9% and 40%, respectively) were the two major responses, probably because respondents can use these simple strategies to reduce their cognitive dissonance (Jackson & Rucks, 1995).

In terms of former, for example:

If the goal or objective of certain leisure activities is beyond my capability, I'll lower my expectation. And even when you are doing some kind of exercise, you might do well this time, and fail next time, you just gotta be positive, be very optimistic. Attitude is very important. Sometimes you can't push yourself too hard, don't always aim for perfection, because the end goal of leisure activities is to achieve the physical and psychological

health. (1, male)

In regard to ignoring:

I only do these activities for my own sake, and my friends and I won't really make fun of each other. Among us, face is not a concern. Sometimes, some people might make comment on something, but we don't really care about that. (5, male)

Some constraints such as safety concerns can be negotiated by both types of negotiation strategies. For example, one of the female participants felt that she can negotiate her travel anxiety towards taking the plane through choosing different means of transport (e.g., trains, private cars, buses) or being positive to conquer the psychological barrier. But for women's fear of crime/violence, behavioural strategies such as going to the park with a partner (Manning et al., 2001) and visiting remote outdoor recreation sites with a dog (Bialeschki, 2005) may not be so effective that non-participation sometimes becomes a better choice.

### **British Canadians.**

#### ***Constraints.***

Table 3 reports the constraints that prevented British Canadian older adults' spare-time activity participation.

Table 3

*Constraints Preventing British Canadian Older Adults' Spare-time Activity Participation*

Factor	Frequency of Times Mentioned (%)	Frequency of Respondents Who Mentioned (%)
<b><i>Interpersonal Constraints --- Total</i></b>	<b>7 (38.89)</b>	
Interpersonal conflict	3 (16.67)	2 (40.00)
Alone (different hobbies & interests or loss of spouse)	2 (11.11)	2 (40.00)
Time (significant others)	1 (5.56)	1 (20.00)
Live far away	1 (5.56)	1 (20.00)
<b><i>Structural Constraints ---Total</i></b>	<b>6 (33.33)</b>	
Health	4 (22.22)	4 (80.00)
Obligation (look after sick child)	1 (5.56)	1 (40.00)
Time (participants)	1 (5.56)	1 (20.00)
<b><i>Intrapersonal Constraints --- Total</i></b>	<b>4 (22.22)</b>	
No interest/boring	3 (16.67)	3 (60.00)
Babysitting grandchildren	1 (5.56)	1 (20.00)
Feel embarrassed - shyness	1 (5.56)	1 (20.00)
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>---</b>

*Note.* Percentage calculated based on the TOTAL number of all responses.

Based on the criteria indicated in the last section, three major categories were identified: structural (three subcategories) and interpersonal (four subcategories) constraints, each having near equal frequency of total mentions (6 vs. 7; 33.33% vs. 38.89%), and intrapersonal constraints (two subcategories and one “feel embarrassed” category) accounting for over one-fifth of the total mentions (22.22%). Among these constraints, health under the structural constraints category was the most frequently mentioned response and was also mentioned by the most respondents (22.22% and 80%, respectively). For

example:

It'd be physical. Er, and that, I had a rotator cuff injury, last fall. And it just starts to heal now, and when I first got it, I couldn't throw anything, I couldn't swing, it was hurting when I walked because arms are swing. But now I'm start getting back into it again. That's the only reason that I wouldn't do that [activity]. (7, male)

Physically, I had a serious surgery about 5 years ago, now every morning when I get up, I exercise for 15 minutes, because I have to keep my back from rotating, and I walk. (10, female)

Responses on Interpersonal conflict under the interpersonal constraints category and no interest/boring under the intrapersonal constraints category had equal percentages of total mentions (16.67%) and near equal frequent mentions by participants (40% and 60%, respectively). Regarding interpersonal conflict, three different responses fell into three predetermined categories, including interpersonal constraints, ageism, and sexism. Both ageism and sexism have been conceptualized as structural constraints (Henderson, 1994; Samdahl, 2005); however, in my interview, these two concepts were manifested in the form of interpersonal constraints. For example, in terms of ageism:

Her: Leisure, well any time, when people try to get along together or make decision together, "old people are opinionated, they have opinions because they have so much life experience, but they often have opposing opinions, and that makes it harder."

I: so you think that's kind of ageism comment?

Her: Yes.

I: So would, is that kind of comment a constraint for you? Would that influence your participation?

Her: Oh, yes, I can be bothered by people like that, yep, I guess it would,

I: It would influence your participation?

Her: Yes, I don't do some activities anymore because too many very opinionated people, loud and opinionated, which means they're very hard to deal with cos they won't negotiate or won't look at the other side of things. (8, female)

With respect to sexism, another female participant said:

Okay, I had physically, I have quite large breasts, I overheard comments. It hasn't been an easy go in that respect. People don't realize, it's I look good, but I have to work hard to look good. Yeah, I had a bit of hard time here, from some people, even in the walking group. (10, female)

The same participant also reported being involved in another interpersonal conflict:

Ok. I see. I have to tell you, I'm a great gardener. Last year, I had looked after every plant in this place, inside, outside, the deck, everywhere, but I didn't have the help, so I won't do it again this year. So I felt I had a constraint in that. It was just too much.

It is important to note that 80% of British Canadian participants clearly stated that ageism and ageist comments existed in every aspect of social life, including leisure, even though they did not consider themselves to be constrained by those comments.

In terms of no interest/boring as an intrapersonal constraint, an example is provided below:

Like golfing, I don't golf, a lot of people do golfing, after they retire, they do that every day. But I'm never interested in golfing, never been so interested in get started in it. I don't have time when I was working, now I have time, but I don't have the interest, so I just ... (9, male)

Finally, it is interesting to note that one female British Canadian participant also mentioned babysitting grandchildren. Specifically:

I have a lot of grandchildren, so I babysit grandchildren. (8, female)

Anderson et al. (1995) suggested that as women age and their children leave home, while they will have more personal leisure time, at least some of this additional time is taken up by new caring responsibilities. This finding might be more applicable for Western women than African and Asian women, however, because the latter spend a considerably greater amount of time attending to grandchildren (Henderson & Ainsworth, 2001; Su et al., 2006).

*Constraint negotiation.*

Table 4 reports the negotiation strategies British Canadian older adults employed when encountering constraints for their spare-time activity participation.

Table 4

*Negotiation Strategies to British Canadian Older Adults' Constraints*

Factor	Frequency of Times Mentioned (%)	Frequency of Respondents Who Mentioned (%)
<b><i>Behavioural Strategies---Total</i></b>	<b>9 (47.37)</b>	
Find people with similar interests	2 (10.53)	2 (40.00)
Acquire skills	2 (10.53)	2 (40.00)
Improve health through exercising	1 (5.26)	1 (20.00)
Change Leisure Aspirations	1 (5.26)	1 (20.00)
Time Management	1 (5.26)	1 (20.00)
Find people with similar ages	1 (5.26)	1 (20.00)
Inform other people of his or her physical limitation	1 (5.26)	1 (20.00)
<b><i>Cognitive Strategies --- Total</i></b>	<b>10 (52.63)</b>	
Ignore	5 (26.31)	4 (80.00)
Be positive, be optimistic	2 (10.53)	2 (40.00)
Accept physical limitations	1 (5.26)	1 (20.00)
Allow for difference	1 (5.26)	1 (20.00)
Go with the flow (sexism)	1 (5.26)	1 (20.00)
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>---</b>

*Note.* Percentage calculated based on the TOTAL number of all responses.

Behavioural strategies with seven subcategories and cognitive strategies with five subcategories accounted for 47.37% and 52.63% of the responses, respectively. Among these strategies, “ignore” under cognitive strategies was the most frequently mentioned response (26.32%) and mentioned by the most

participants (80%). For example:

If you're interested in this subject, then you'd do it. You don't care about what other people think. (9, male)

I just ignore it. (8, female)

Although there was not any particular strategies corresponding to the main constraint—health—many behavioural and cognitive strategies such as acquire skills (10.53%), inform other people of his/her physical limitation (5.26%), improve health through exercising (5.26%), and accept physical limitation (5.26%) touched upon health-related issues. An example of each of these four, respectively, follows:

I'll, and I have done is I'll get on my computer and do some research, learn what I care about, the activities, whatever happens to be. If I didn't get the help where I'm at, I'll go and try to ask other people. To get on the computer and research, try to help me gain confidence. (6, female)

Well, first of all, I knew that my shoulder was bad, and I made sure that everybody, they knew that my shoulder was bad, so I can't throw it away like I normally could. Or I can't hit the ball. And if they know that, they'd have to accept the fact like I would, accept the fact that you can't be doing it one hundred percent. (7, male)

Physically, I had a serious surgery about 5 years ago (structural-health), now every morning when I get up, I exercise for 15 minutes, because I have to keep my back from rotating, and I walk. (10, female)

Actually, for me, I think, you have to accept your limitations, and you do the best you can, and. I think, if you're doing something, if you're trying to win, you're doing something for yourself. (7, male)

Finally, the participant who identified her situation as sexism also developed her own negotiation strategies:

I will go with the flow, and do whatever I wanna do. It doesn't matter to me. (10, female).

**Chinese Canadians.*****Constraints.***

Table 5 reports the constraints that prevented Chinese Canadian older adults' spare-time activity participation.

Table 5

*Constraints Preventing Chinese Canadian Older Adults' Spare-time Activity Participation*

Factor	Frequency of Times Mentioned (%)	Frequency of Respondents Who Mentioned (%)
<b><i>Interpersonal Constraints --- Total</i></b>	<b><i>11 (39.29)</i></b>	
Alone (different hobbies & interests)	2 (7.14)	2 (40.00)
Interpersonal conflict	2 (7.14)	2 (40.00)
Health (significant others)	2 (7.14)	2 (40.00)
Limited social network	2 (7.14)	2 (20.00)
Time (significant others)	1 (3.57)	1 (20.00)
Money (significant others)	1 (3.57)	1 (20.00)
Obligations (significant others babysitting)	1 (3.57)	1 (20.00)
<b><i>Structural Constraints --- Total</i></b>	<b><i>10 (35.71)</i></b>	
Health	3 (10.71)	3 (60.00)
Language	3 (10.71)	3 (60.00)
Facility (too crowded)	2 (7.14)	2 (40.00)
Money	1 (3.57)	1 (20.00)
Time (participants)	1 (3.57)	1 (20.00)
<b><i>Intrapersonal Constraints --- Total</i></b>	<b><i>7 (25.00)</i></b>	
No interest/boring	5 (17.86)	4 (80.00)
Perceived cultural gap	1 (3.57)	1 (20.00)
Technology	1 (3.57)	1 (20.00)
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>---</b>

*Note.* Percentage calculated based on the TOTAL number of all responses.



Unlike previous two groups, Chinese Canadians have to face one unique factor that is closely relevant to their spare-time activity participation—ethnicity (Shores et al., 2007; Tinsley et al., 2002). As a result, ethnicity along with seven predetermined constraints categories (i.e., structural, interpersonal, intrapersonal, self-face, other-face, ageism, and sexism) was used to guide the coding process. After carefully reviewing the highlighted text, two face-related categories were deleted because none of the Chinese Canadian participants considered them to be constraints. Similarly, three categories in relation to the concept of power (i.e., ageism, sexism, and ethnicity being associated with discrimination) were removed. Although one male participant did mention discrimination existed to some extent (e.g., “sometimes you might hear people use the word like Chinaman”, 14), it was not a constraint to him because “it doesn’t bother [him] at all.” In the end, three major categories with 15 subcategories were identified. The interpersonal constraints category (with seven subcategories) and the structural constraints category (with five subcategories) accounted for 39.29% and 35.71% of the responses, respectively, while the intrapersonal constraints category (with five subcategories) consisted of a quarter of responses (25%). Among these categories, having no interest/boring under the intrapersonal constraints category was the most frequently mentioned response (17.86%), and was mentioned by the most respondents (80%). Participant reported, for example, that:

No, I’m not really interested in card games. (11, female)

For fishing, I’m just not really interested in it cos I don’t have the patience to sit still for a couple of hours. (13, male)

Similar to the above response, two kinds of health concern were mentioned five times in both structural and interpersonal constraints categories: participants’ own health (10.71%) and their partner’s health (7.14%). An example of each of these two is listed below:

I used to do a lot of knitting, but one time after I injured my hand at work, some of my fingers can't bend anymore. (15, female)

It's mainly because I'm concerned about my wife's physical situation because she has gained a lot of weight for the past few years. I'm afraid that she might fall. (13, male)

Not surprisingly, language barrier under the structural constraints category was one of the major leisure constraints for immigrants (Stodolska, 1998, 2000). Mui and Kang (2006) even pointed out that for older Asian immigrants, lack of language proficiency is closely related to another intrapersonal constraint—perceived cultural gap (3.57%). For example, a participant mentioned:

In those [Canadian] senior centres, they're doing the Western Style dance, like cowboy dance, I don't know how to dance at all. Our cultures are different, then I ended up not being very interested in that dance. Plus, my English is not very good, I can handle simple things like saying hi, or talking about weather, but if the topic goes deeper, I'm gonna have difficulty in understanding what they are talking about. (12, female)

This lack of language proficiency can also be associated with another interpersonal constraint—limited social network (7.14%). For instance:

It's a really good deal, I'm thinking of going but I have to find someone cos I don't have anyone to go with me. (11, female)

My network is very limited and I don't know that much English. (15, female)

It is worth noting that all three participants who reported the language-related constraints are females. Zhang (2006) posited that Chinese older women are more disadvantaged in terms of their socioeconomic status and social network, and they have fewer leisure opportunities, than their male counterparts. Therefore, even though many older Asian immigrants (especially women) have been in Canada for over a few decades, because they mainly stay within the same

ethnic social circle, their language proficiency is not likely to improve significantly.

One interesting intrapersonal constraint involves uncomfortableness with using technology. Specifically:

A lot of time, people said you can do this online, you can go on a trip very cheap. But I'm not very comfortable to do things online, you know, and I think this is for young people, not for us. (11, female)

Although all five Chinese Canadian participants mentioned that they usually used computers to browse news or watch online drama, technology-related (especially Information Technology) concerns have the potential to become a growing constraint for older adults' spare-time activity participation. This is not only because the diffusion of information technology is immediate and influences everybody's daily life (Buhalis, 2003), but also because older adults tend to encounter more technical (e.g., inconsistency of website design; Czaja & Lee, 2003), biophysical (e.g., difficulty seeing the screen clearly due to visual problems; Filipczak, 1998), psychosocial (e.g., frustration from technical difficulties; Selwyn, 2004), and socioeconomic barriers (e.g., high expense of buying a computer and accessing the Internet; Selwyn, 2004). Czaja et al. (2006) also found that older age is associated with lower computer self-efficacy and higher computer anxiety.

Finally, even though "babysitting grandchildren" was not a significant response (3.57%) mentioned by Chinese Canadian participants, it was indicated to be both leisure (Su et al., 2006) and a leisure constraint (Henderson et al., 1996).

For example, in terms of leisure:

Actually I really want my kids to get married and have grandkids so that we can babysit those grandkids. But they just don't wanna get married that early, then I just have to wait. (15, female)

Now I'm waiting for my youngest son to get married, at that time, we will babysit his kids. (13, male)

In regard to constraints, the same male participant also said:

Sometimes it's hard to find friends to join us because they have to babysit their grandchildren. (13, male)

This mixed finding again suggests that Asian older people, especially women will spend a considerably greater amount of time attending to their grandchildren than their Western counterparts (Henderson & Ainsworth, 2001; Su et al., 2006).

### *Constraint negotiation.*

Table 6 reports the negotiation strategies Chinese Canadian older adults employed when encountering constraints for their spare-time activity participation.

Table 6

#### *Negotiation Strategies to Chinese Canadian Older Adults' Constraints*

Factor	Frequency of Times Mentioned (%)	Frequency of Respondents Who Mentioned (%)
<b><i>Behavioural Strategies---Total</i></b>	<b><i>11 (64.71)</i></b>	
Acquire skills	4 (23.53)	4 (80.00)
Time Management	3 (17.65)	2 (40.00)
Find people with similar interests	2 (11.76)	2 (40.00)
Improve finances	1 (5.88)	1 (20.00)
Change Leisure Aspirations	1 (5.88)	1 (20.00)
<b><i>Cognitive Strategies --- Total</i></b>	<b><i>6 (35.29)</i></b>	
Ignore	2 (11.76)	2 (40.00)
Accept physical limitations	2 (11.76)	2 (40.00)
Less devoted	1 (5.88)	1 (20.00)
Be open-minded	1 (5.88)	1 (20.00)
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>---</b>

*Note.* Percentage calculated based on the TOTAL number of all responses.

Behavioural strategies with five subcategories and cognitive strategies with four subcategories accounted for 64.71% and 35.29% of the responses, respectively. Among these strategies, acquire skills under behavioural strategies was the most frequently mentioned response (23.53%) and mentioned by the most participants (80%). For example:

I'll try to learn it, give a shot and see how it goes. (12, female)

But something like volunteering my time to make dumplings for the charity events, I don't know how to make dumplings, but I'll ask somebody to teach me. Probably I can't make it perfect for the first few times, but eventually I'll master the technique. (13, male)

Better time management is another main behavioural strategy that was corresponding to the aforementioned constraints. Examples of this constraint are provided below:

Sometimes, it's very crowded, for example, a lot of people will go swimming after they finished their work, so we try to avoid the peak time cos we don't have to work. (12, female)

I'd negotiate it with schedule change, to see is it going to change your schedule or is it going to change mine. For instance, if this job doesn't have to be done right away, then he or I can switch the schedule around. (14, male)

Similar to British Canadian participants, Chinese Canadian participants did not specifically indicate a lot of strategies to address their health concerns. However, cognitive and behavioural strategies such as accept physical limitations (11.76%) and change leisure aspirations (5.88%) tended to at least maintain their health. Respective examples of each of the above are provided below:

Before I go to any activities, I'll know whether my limitation will prevent me from enjoying that activity or not. I won't force myself to do anything that's beyond my levels. If that's not for me, then I just don't go, right? (13, male)

So instead of biking in the park, we now just bike in the area surrounding our house. (13, male)

Finally, a common cognitive strategy across three ethnic/cultural groups was “ignore” (11.76%). For instance:

Just ignore them and walk away because they are not saying that in front of me. (14, male)

I just ignore them. (15, female)

Although none of the Chinese Canadian participants specifically reported any strategies addressing language-related issues, their answers about their spare-time activity participation suggested that staying within their own ethnic social network (Stodolska & Yi-Kook, 2005), being bi-acculturated (Shinew & Floyd, 2005), and pursuing mainly Chinese leisure activities (Li & Stodolska, 2007; Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004) were three indirect strategies to negotiate mainstream-activity-related constraints (Stodolska & Yi-Kook, 2005). An example of each of these three, respectively, follows:

Well, we dine out quite often, always with those old friends. All of us are about the same age, so we have a lot of things in common. And it’s good to have a group of people so that we can talk about our kids, our grandkids. (13, male)

If you wanna feel welcome, you have to put yourself in the position that is not being isolated by them (Canadian). I just go there (Canadian Senior Centre) and say hi to other people. (11, female)

I only look at news on the computer, or watch Chinese movies and drama series online. (12, female)

It might seem like these people were usually low-acculturated immigrants, Stodolska and Alexandris (2004) argued that immigrants usually choose an acculturation path that “preserve[s] their ethnic values and promote[s] their ethnic group solidarity” (p. 379). However, because my Chinese Canadian participants

were mainly middle-class immigrants, they can choose whatever levels of acculturation they prefer and can either participate in more mainstream leisure activities to assimilate or still get involved in their own ethnic leisure activities to maintain their ethnic identity (Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004). For those who are participating in some “White” spare-time activities such as skiing, golfing, and fishing, they usually only do so within the same ethnicity to assimilate to the sub-culture of their own ethnic communities (Shinew & Floyd, 2005).

### Summary.

Table 7 summarizes similar constraints and negotiation strategies that were reported either across these three ethnic/cultural groups or between any two groups.

Table 7

#### *Similar Constraints and Negotiation Strategies*

	<b>Mainland Chinese</b>	<b>British Canadian</b>	<b>Chinese Canadian</b>
<b>Intrapersonal Constraints</b>	No interest/boring (3)	No interest/boring (3)	No interest/boring (5)
	Babysitting (5)	Babysitting (1)	
<b>Interpersonal Constraints</b>	Alone (3)	Alone (2)	Alone (2)
	Interpersonal conflict (2)	Interpersonal conflict (3)	Interpersonal conflict (2)
	Time (significant others) (1)	Time (significant others) (1)	Time (significant others) (1)
	Live far away (1)	Live far away (1)	
	Health (significant others) (1)		Health (significant others) (2)
<b>Structural Constraints</b>	Health (3)	Health (4)	Health (3)
	Time (3)	Time (1)	Time (1)
	Money (2)		Money (1)

<b>Cognitive Strategies</b>	Ignore (2)	Ignore (5)	Ignore (2)
	Be positive, be optimistic (4)	Be positive, be optimistic (2)	
	Be open-minded (1)		Be open-minded (1)
		Accept physical limitations (1)	Accept physical limitations (2)
<b>Behavioural Strategies</b>	Change leisure aspirations (5)	Change leisure aspirations (1)	Change leisure aspirations (1)
	Time management (4)	Time management (1)	Time management (3)
	Find people with similar interests (3)	Find people with similar interests (2)	Find people with similar interests (2)
	Acquire skills (1)	Acquire skills (2)	Acquire skills (4)
	Improve health through exercising (5)	Improve health through exercising (1)	
	Improve finances (2)		Improve finances (1)
	Find people with similar ages (1)	Find people with similar ages (1)	

*Note.* Numbers in the parentheses indicate the frequency of times a response was mentioned.

According to Table 7, although these three ethnic/cultural groups were similar in four constraining aspects of their spare-time engagement (i.e., no interest/boring, alone, interpersonal conflict, and their own health) and two negotiation strategies (i.e., ignore and find people with similar interests), they were quite different in a variety of areas. For example, compared to their two groups of Canadian counterparts, Mainland Chinese older adults were: (a) more structurally constrained by such barriers as lack of money, time, and transportation, (b) less interpersonally constrained by such barriers as ageism or sexism related interpersonal conflicts, and (c) more intrapersonally constrained by such factor as babysitting grandchildren and self- and other-face concerns. Also,



Mainland Chinese older adults were more likely to employ cognitive strategies such as be more positive and optimistic and behavioural strategies such as change leisure aspirations and improve health through exercising.

Furthermore, when comparing Mainland Chinese older adults with their British Canadian counterparts, in addition to the aforementioned negotiation strategies, Mainland Chinese older adults employed more time management strategies due to lack of time. When comparing Mainland Chinese older adults with their Chinese Canadian counterparts, they showed similar behavioural negotiation strategies in time management but obvious differences in acquiring skills (i.e., 1 vs. 4). This difference might be because Mainland Chinese older adults did not have enough time and money to take lessons. Lastly, Chinese Canadian older adults and their British Canadian counterparts were quite similar in most constraint aspects except that they were more limited in their own ethnic social networks. However, as discussed in the previous section, when facing mainstream-activity-related constraints, limited network sometimes can even serve as an indirect negotiation strategy for Chinese Canadian older adults. In addition, Chinese Canadian older adults were more likely to take lessons to improve their skills, which might be because they were involved in more unfamiliar mainstream activities (e.g., golf).

#### **Questionnaire adjustment.**

As mentioned in Chapter 3, qualitative data is often collected as a first step in the development of quantitative instruments (Fielding & Fielding, 1986). More specifically, in this case participants' qualitative responses were used to add to or modify the existing constraint and constraint negotiation scales that were later included in the questionnaire. According to the above similarities and differences, although the existing constraint and constraint negotiation scales have covered most aspects these two constructs, a few modifications and additions need to be

specified.

First, because “babysitting” was mentioned across three ethnic/cultural groups, one item “Caring for family members such as babysitting, attending to children/older people” was added to the first section of the questionnaire—Spare Time Activity Participation.

Second, after consulting with my British Canadian participants, another intrapersonal constraint —“feel embarrassed”— was considered to be interchangeable with the Chinese concept of “losing face”. One example is presented below:

Well, somebody might avoid doing something because they don't want to feel embarrassed. If you feel embarrassed, then it's like you're losing face. Because if you're embarrassed, that means you're concerned what other people think of you. If it's nobody around, you'll not feel embarrassed, only if somebody sees you, make a fool of yourself, then you feel embarrassed. . . . . that constraint is shyness. Another word is like if I have more confidence about myself, then I can do it quicker and easier. Self-confidence is important, but that's slightly different from face. (9, male)

As a result, this expression was adopted in composing constraint items for British Canadian older adults. For instance, the original item “I am less likely to participate in spare time activities because I might look bad if I had to ask questions” was adjusted to “I am less likely to participate in spare time activities because I might feel embarrassed if I had to ask questions”.

Third, because lack of language proficiency was obviously a constraint for Chinese Canadian, two constraint items and one negotiation item were added to their original sections, respectively. These three items are listed below:

- I sometimes am not aware of spare time activity opportunities because of my English-language skills.
- I sometimes am not able to participate fully in spare time activities because of my English-language skills.

- I try to improve my English-language skills.

In conclusion, the information gathered from the qualitative part of my dissertation was subsequently used to guide the quantitative research discussed in the following section.

### **Quantitative Findings**

This section is divided into five sub-sections: (1) data screening, (2) respondent characteristics, (3) descriptive analysis of responses to the questionnaire, (4) scale reliabilities, and (5) results of the research questions.

#### **Data screening.**

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), data screening is fundamental to conducting an accurate analysis. Therefore, by using SPSS, I followed their recommended procedures for checking the accuracy of data entry, dealing with missing data, examining correlations among variables, testing multivariate assumptions, and finding outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

First, with all 450 questionnaires, I conducted descriptive analytical statistical analyses and checked the frequency table to find and correct errors (e.g., values that fall outside the range of possible values for a variable). In the section on “Constraints” (21 items for British Canadian and Mainland Chinese, 23 items for Chinese Canadian), I realized that a very small number of people chose many “1”s (i.e., “Strongly Disagree” on a 6-point Likert scale) in a row. However, after comparing three ethnic/cultural groups’ mean differences in this section, I found that most respondents reported they disagreed with most constraints statements (i.e., they mainly chose 1 – 3 on the scale), suggesting that it was still possible that they simply thought none of these items were constraints to their spare-time activity participation. Thus, I decided to retain all 450 respondents in the remaining data analyses.

Second, a very small number of missing values (5% or less; Tabachnick &

Fidell, 2007) on constraints and negotiation were replaced by the mean for all cases, while income (which was not an analytical variable in this study), with missing values on more than 5% of the cases, was deleted.

Third, for five other categorical variables (i.e., ethnicity, gender, age, marital status, and education level), a number of two-variable chi-square tests were performed to check if these variables are independent of each other. Table 8 shows that three pairs of variables (i.e., ethnicity and gender, gender and age, gender and education) were independent of each other, while the remaining pairs of variables (i.e., ethnicity and age, ethnicity and marital status, ethnicity and education, gender and marital status, age and marital status, age and education, marital status and education) indicated different levels of significant associations.

Table 8

*Chi-square Test for Independence among Categorical Variables*

	<b>Ethnicity</b>	<b>Gender</b>	<b>Age</b>	<b>Marital</b>	<b>Education</b>
<b>Ethnicity</b>	---	.56 (450)	95.20*** (450)	32.73*** (448)	1.21*** (441)
<b>Gender</b>		---	2.00 (450)	18.21*** (448)	7.77 (441)
<b>Age</b>			---	32.21*** (448)	31.12*** (441)
<b>Marital</b>				---	24.37*** (440)
<b>Education</b>					---

*Note.* \*\*\*  $p < .001$ . () indicates number of valid cases.

After examining the residuals (i.e., the observed value minus the expected value) for each pair of significant variables, the following list reveals which actual counts were the most different from the expected counts (i.e., major sources of significant differences).

- *Ethnicity and age*: both “55-64” (40.00) and “75 and over” (-30.30) groups for Mainland Chinese.
- *Ethnicity and marital status*: both “single” (18.50) and “married/partner” (-22.90) groups for British Canadian.
- *Ethnicity and education*: “elementary school graduate or less” (25.00) for Chinese Canadian and “graduate school degree or less” (22.30) under British Canadian.
- *Gender and marital status*: “married/partner” for both male (15.50) and female (-15.50).
- *Age and marital status*: “married/partner” (-22.30) for “75 and over”.
- *Age and education*: “high school graduate or less” (-15.20) for “75 and over”.
- *Marital status and education*: “high school graduate or less” (8.60) for “married/partner”.

Fourth, three common assumptions underlying multivariate analysis (e.g., MANOVA) include multivariate normality, linearity, and homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices. In regard to multivariate normality, after checking kurtosis (i.e., the peakedness of a distribution) and skewness (i.e., the symmetry of the distribution), most values of these two measures fell between +1.0 and -1.0. According to George and Mallery (2009), a value between +2.0 and -2.0 in many cases is also acceptable. Also, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) noted that when a study’s sample size is large, graphic distribution representations (i.e., frequency histograms) are preferable to formal statistical tests. In terms of linearity (i.e., the

presence of a straight-line relationship between each pair of dependent variables), bivariate scatterplots produced in SPSS can easily be produced to evaluate it (Pallant, 2010). The last assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices (i.e., the variability in the dependent variables is the same at all levels of the grouping variable) is met when multivariate normality exists (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Sometimes these assumptions might be violated; however, multivariate statistics are quite robust in most situations when there is a large and equal sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Finally, after visually and statistically (e.g., frequency) exploring the data, outliers (i.e., data points or scores that are different from the remainder of the scores; Pallant, 2010) were identified and still retained in the data set due to a reasonable large sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

#### **Respondent characteristics.**

Table 9 summarizes the three ethnic/cultural groups' basic demographic information (after deletion of the income category). More than half of the respondents were female, and most of them were married/partner except for almost one third of British Canadian older adults who reported being single (30%). In terms of age, over half of the Mainland Chinese older adults (52%) were between 55 to 64 years old, while for both British Canadian and Chinese Canadian older adults, almost half of the respondents were in the 75 and over (46.70%) and 65-74 (47.30%) categories, respectively. It is important to note that because only two Mainland Chinese respondents were in the 85 or above category, I combined them with "75-84" category and named it "75 and over". With respect to the education level, it is evident that British Canadian older adults were considerably more highly-educated than their Chinese counterparts.

Table 9

*Respondent Characteristics*

Variables	% of British (N) Canadian	% of Mainland (N) Chinese	% of Chinese (N) Canadian
<b>Gender</b>			
Male	45.30 (68)	44.70 (67)	41.30 (62)
Female	54.70 (82)	55.30 (83)	58.70 (88)
Total	100.00 (150)	100.00 (150)	100.00 (150)
<b>Age</b>			
55-64	10.70 (16)	52.00 (78)	13.30 (20)
65-74	42.70 (64)	35.30 (53)	47.30 (71)
75 and over	46.70 (70)	12.70 (19)	39.30 (59)
Total	100.00 (150)	100.00 (150)	100.00 (150)
<b>Marital Situation</b>			
Single	30.00 (45)	8.80 (13)	14.00 (21)
Married/Partner	62.70 (94)	89.20 (132)	82.00 (123)
Other	7.30 (11)	2.00 (3)	4.00 (6)
Total	100.00 (150)	100.00 (148)	100.00 (150)
<b>Education Level</b>			
Elementary school graduate or less	2.10 (3)	14.10 (21)	33.60 (50)
High school graduate or less	32.20 (46)	48.30 (72)	30.90 (46)
University degree or less	42.70 (61)	37.60 (56)	35.60 (53)
Graduate school degree or less	23.10 (33)		
Total	100.00 (143)	100.00 (149)	100.00 (149)

### **Descriptive analysis of responses to the questionnaire.**

Descriptive statistical analyses were performed on all of the measures, including the demographic variables and the variables of interest (i.e., spare-time activity participation, motivations, constraints, negotiation, and acculturation). Means and standard deviations were calculated to provide descriptive information on the scales.

Respondents from the three ethnic/cultural groups were asked to rate their levels of participation in 13 spare-time activities during the past 12 months. As shown in Table 10, British Canadian older adults only rated *social activities*, *games*, and *traveling* more frequently than their Chinese counterparts, while Mainland Chinese older adults, who were relatively younger than two other groups in this study, participated more often in activities such as *outdoor activities*, *sports*, *exercising*, *attending sports events*, and *caring for family members*. Chinese Canadian older adults might be the least “active” group, because they almost participated in every activity less frequently than two other groups except that they spent slightly more time in *caring for family members* than British Canadian older adults. For all three groups, *media activities* and *artistic or creative activities* received similar higher rating, while *gambling* and *volunteering* had similar lower rating.



Table 10

*Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Spare-time Activities among Three Groups*

<i>Spare-time Activities</i>	Groups					
	British Canadian		Mainland Chinese		Chinese Canadian	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Outdoor activities	2.77	1.24	3.89	1.28	2.45	1.22
Sports	1.93	1.32	3.24	1.47	2.29	1.49
Social activities	4.22	1.14	3.47	1.21	3.00	1.12
Gambling	1.74	.92	2.01	1.31	1.54	.86
Games	3.43	1.58	2.49	1.39	2.45	1.62
Exercising	4.00	1.40	4.64	1.18	3.73	1.14
Media activities	4.46	1.10	4.76	1.11	3.99	1.14
Volunteering	2.75	1.63	2.68	1.44	2.50	1.41
Attending sports events	2.19	1.20	3.10	1.47	2.05	1.19
Artistic or creative activities	3.40	1.62	3.28	1.32	3.01	1.27
Traveling	3.87	1.18	3.13	1.08	2.92	1.07
Resting and relaxing	2.89	.98	3.12	1.37	2.51	1.23
Caring for family members	2.77	1.55	3.71	1.57	3.03	1.43

*Note.* 1 = Never, 2 = Seldom, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Often, 5 = Very Often, 6 = Extremely Often.

N = 150 for each ethnic/cultural group.

Next, respondents were asked to rate their levels of agreement/disagreement on motivations for participating in aforementioned spare-time activities. As shown in Table 11, all three ethnic/cultural groups agreed that *intrinsic* and *identified* motivations, rather than *introjected* and *external* motivations, were the two major types of motivations for their spare-time activity participation. One exception is that Mainland Chinese older adults slightly agreed that “make others feel good about me” was an important external motivation for their participation. Mixed results were found for *integrated motivation*: British Canadian older adults did agree all three statements were motivations for them, while their Chinese counterparts (both Mainland Chinese and Chinese Canadian older adults) did not think one of the statements (i.e., “reflect who I am”) was a major reason for their participation.

Table 11

*Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Motivations among Three Groups*

<i>Motivations</i>	Groups					
	British Canadian		Mainland Chinese		Chinese Canadian	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
<b>Intrinsic motivation</b>						
Interesting	5.01	1.11	5.42	.66	4.68	1.04
Enjoyable	5.31	.98	5.40	1.08	4.94	.96
Fun	5.11	1.14	5.59	.86	5.03	.91
<b>Integrated motivation</b>						
Part of personal identity	4.53	1.27	4.05	1.74	4.13	1.40
Part of who I am as a person	4.75	1.35	4.29	1.60	3.91	1.44
Reflect who I am	4.71	1.19	3.59	1.74	3.60	1.41
<b>Identified motivation</b>						
Important to me	5.07	.86	5.11	1.28	4.77	1.08
Worthwhile to me	5.23	.82	5.24	1.00	4.65	1.06
Reflect my personal values	4.69	1.31	4.28	1.60	4.18	1.33
<b>Introjected motivation</b>						
The pressure I put on myself	3.26	1.44	2.75	1.80	2.73	1.46
Feel guilty if I don't do it	2.48	1.60	3.72	1.81	2.81	1.66
Rewards I give myself afterwards	3.07	1.66	3.83	1.82	3.80	1.50
<b>External motivation</b>						
The pressure others put on me	2.25	1.40	2.56	1.72	2.43	1.59
Rewards others give myself afterwards	2.36	1.60	3.17	1.77	3.42	1.63
Make others feel good about me	2.95	1.68	4.26	1.67	3.89	1.39

*Note.* 1= Strongly Disagree, 2 = Moderately Disagree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 4 = Slightly Agree, 5 = Moderately Agree, 6 = Strongly Agree.

N = 150 for each ethnic/cultural group.

Table 12 shows the mean ratings for respondents' levels of agreement/disagreement on constraints that may prevent them from spare-time activity participation. In general, all three ethnic/cultural groups did not consider *intrapersonal constraints* and two kinds of *face concerns* (self and other) to be constraints for their spare-time activity participation. In terms of *interpersonal constraints*, although all three groups also did not think this kind of constraint will prevent their participation, both Mainland Chinese and Chinese Canadian older adults had more concerns (mean values were above 3 on a 6-point Likert scale) on interpersonal relationship than their British Canadian counterparts. With regard to *structural constraints*, Chinese Canadian older adults usually experienced more constraints than the other two groups, especially when facing transportation and language-related barriers.

Table 12

*Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Constraints among Three Groups*

<i>Constraints</i>	Groups					
	British Canadian		Mainland Chinese		Chinese Canadian	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
<b>Intrapersonal constraints</b>						
Bad for me	1.33	.89	1.87	1.55	2.01	1.44
Others do not approve of me	1.40	1.04	2.29	1.73	2.40	1.50
Boring for me	1.70	1.39	1.60	1.20	1.79	1.21
Foolish for me	1.29	.85	1.99	1.55	1.78	1.27
<b>Interpersonal constraints</b>						
Others live too far away	2.32	1.48	3.77	1.69	3.93	1.35
Others have no time	2.53	1.49	3.63	1.67	3.05	1.40
Others have no transportation	1.71	1.15	3.52	1.84	3.12	1.49
Others have other obligations	2.23	1.35	3.92	1.68	3.60	1.56
Others have no money	1.81	1.04	3.33	1.82	2.91	1.59
<b>Structural constraints</b>						
I have no transportation	3.07	1.68	3.55	1.73	4.20	1.35
I have no money	2.77	1.70	2.85	1.83	3.17	1.76
Facilities too crowded	3.28	1.72	3.79	1.89	3.27	1.47
I have other obligations	3.07	1.63	3.46	1.72	3.80	1.54
I have no time	2.97	1.58	3.76	1.67	3.74	1.66
Facilities too far away	3.27	1.74	3.74	1.78	4.12	1.63
Not aware of opportunities because of English level					4.11	1.70
Not participate fully in activities because of English level					4.26	1.57

Table 12 (continued)

<i>Constraints</i>	Groups					
	British Canadian		Mainland Chinese		Chinese Canadian	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
<b>Self-face/Feel embarrassed</b>						
I had to ask questions	1.84	1.09	2.46	1.71	2.31	1.37
I made mistakes	1.85	1.19	2.27	1.66	2.47	1.63
I call attention to myself	1.71	1.21	2.95	1.82	2.59	1.55
<b>Other-face/Feel embarrassed</b>						
Others had to ask questions	1.66	1.18	2.46	1.87	2.65	1.81
Others made mistakes	1.82	1.24	2.15	1.49	1.97	1.26
Others call attention to themselves	1.69	.98	2.59	1.68	2.21	1.36

*Note.* 1= Strongly Disagree, 2 = Moderately Disagree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 4 = Slightly Agree, 5 = Moderately Agree, 6 = Strongly Agree.

N = 150 for each ethnic/cultural group.

Respondents from the three ethnic/cultural groups were also asked to rate their level of agreement based on a list of twenty-one or twenty-two (with one extra item specifically for Chinese Canadians) strategies (see Table 13) for overcoming the abovementioned constraints. In terms of *cognitive strategies* (one category), instead of “ignoring” the constraints, all three groups thought “be positive and have fun” followed by “put up with it” were important strategies. In regard to *behavioural strategies* (six categories), all three groups agreed that *[modifying] time* and *[acquiring] skills* were practical strategies. For the remaining categories, mixed results were reported. For example, under *change interpersonal relations* category, all three groups did not want to “get rides from other people”. Similarly, under *improve finances* category, all three groups did not prefer “[getting] a job to have enough money” and “[doing] it less often”. Under both *physical therapy* and *change leisure aspirations* categories, unlike their British Canadian counterparts, both Mainland Chinese and Chinese Canadian older adults considered certain items to be strategies, including “get medical treatment”, “take physical therapy”, and “find people with similar skill levels”.

Table 13

*Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Negotiations among Three Groups*

<i>Negotiations</i>	Groups					
	British Canadian		Mainland Chinese		Chinese Canadian	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
<b>Cognitive strategies</b>						
Ignore	3.33	1.58	3.28	1.57	3.50	1.60
Put up with it	3.94	1.24	4.51	1.44	4.13	1.41
Be positive and have fun	5.36	.85	5.37	.89	5.15	.85
<b>Modify time</b>						
Budget my time	4.45	1.17	4.99	1.11	4.52	1.31
Go whenever possible	4.80	1.27	4.94	1.25	4.72	1.26
Plan ahead	5.04	1.09	5.09	1.25	5.05	.93
<b>Acquire skills</b>						
Practice more	4.53	1.23	5.18	1.05	4.61	1.32
Take lessons	3.90	1.69	4.43	1.68	4.41	1.29
Ask other people for help	4.49	1.39	5.08	1.25	4.79	1.22
Improve English skills					5.07	1.12
<b>Change interpersonal relations</b>						
Find people with similar interests	4.79	1.19	5.43	.98	4.84	.96
Get rides from other people	2.45	1.52	3.55	1.67	3.53	1.62
Invite friends to do it with me	4.39	1.22	4.99	1.40	4.69	1.21



Table 13 (continued)

*Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Negotiations among Three Groups*

<i>Negotiations</i>	Groups					
	British Canadian		Mainland Chinese		Chinese Canadian	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
<b>Improve finances</b>						
Budget my money	4.56	1.21	5.09	1.28	4.57	1.24
Get a job to have enough money	1.63	1.16	2.86	1.96	2.70	1.44
Do it less often	2.91	1.53	3.53	1.72	3.94	1.55
<b>Physical therapy</b>						
Get medical treatment	3.33	1.88	5.11	1.31	4.80	1.45
Take medicine for my disease	3.72	1.97	3.83	1.90	4.16	1.55
Taking physical therapy	3.02	1.87	4.58	1.66	4.80	1.36
<b>Change leisure aspirations</b>						
Improvise with what I have	4.19	1.37	4.79	1.37	4.24	1.58
Find people w/ similar skill levels	3.85	1.59	4.80	1.44	4.78	1.00
Buy the equipment & do it at home	2.07	1.38	2.69	1.82	3.30	1.54

*Note.* 1= Strongly Disagree, 2 = Moderately Disagree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 4 = Slightly Agree, 5 = Moderately Agree, 6 = Strongly Agree.

N = 150 for each ethnic/cultural group.

Finally, Chinese Canadian respondents were asked to rate their levels of agreement on eight acculturation items. As shown in Table 14, except for one item (i.e., behave like typical Canadians) under the *dominant culture* (Canada) category, all of the remaining seven items showed that Chinese Canadian older adults in this study appeared to be largely bi-acculturated.

Table 14

*Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Acculturation in Chinese Canadian*

<i>Acculturation</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<b>Dominant culture (Canada)</b>			
Behave like typical Canadians	150	3.45	1.26
Maintain or develop Canadian cultural practice	150	4.59	.96
Believe in Canadian values	150	4.73	1.06
Have Canadian friends	150	4.54	1.09
<b>Non-dominant culture (China)</b>			
Behave like typical Chinese	150	4.07	1.41
Maintain or develop Chinese cultural practice	150	4.86	1.20
Believe in Chinese values	150	4.81	1.09
Have Chinese friends	150	4.92	.88

*Note.* 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Moderately Disagree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 4 = Slightly Agree, 5 = Moderately Agree, 6 = Strongly Agree.

### **Scale reliabilities.**

Based on the procedure developed by van de Vijver and Leung (1997), standardized Cronbach coefficient alphas and equality of these coefficients were calculated for different scales of interest (e.g., spare-time activity participation, motivations, constraints, negotiation, and acculturation) by three ethnic/cultural groups (i.e., Chinese Canadian, British Canadians, and Mainland Chinese). Because Cronbach alphas values are sensitive to the number of items in a scale, it is not uncommon to find low values (e.g., .5) for shorter scales (e.g., scales with fewer than ten items) (Pallant, 2010). This study, thereby, examined inter-item reliabilities using Cronbach's alpha greater than .60 (.50 for extremely short scales such as two-item scales). The purpose of examining the equality of these coefficients was to determine if the corresponding scales' psychometric properties are similar (van de Vijver & Leung, 1997). The statistic to test the equality of two independent reliability coefficients is  $(1 - \alpha_1)/(1 - \alpha_2)$ , in which  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  represent the reliabilities of an instrument in two cultural groups. For large samples, the statistic follows an  $F$  distribution with  $N_1 - 1$  and  $N_2 - 1$  degrees of freedom ( $N_1$  and  $N_2$  are the sample sizes).

For the spare-time activity participation scale, the standardized Cronbach coefficient alphas for three ethnic/cultural group were calculated (see Table 15).

Table 15  
*Standardized Cronbach Coefficient Alphas for Three Ethnic/Cultural Groups on the Spare-time activity Scales*

Items	British Canadian	Mainland Chinese	Chinese Canadian
13 Items <sup>a</sup>	.60	.57	.79

*Note.* <sup>a</sup>See a full list in Appendix B and Table 10.

N = 150 for each ethnic/cultural group.

Accordingly, three equality tests were performed:

- $F = (1 - .60)/(1 - .57) = .93 < \text{critical } F = 1.47$  at .01 level, with 149 and 149 degrees of freedom. The difference in reliability between the British Canadian group and the Mainland Chinese group is not significant.
- $F = (1 - .60)/(1 - .79) = 1.90 > \text{critical } F = 1.47$  at .01 level, with 149 and 149 degrees of freedom. This reliability is significantly higher for the Chinese Canadian group than for the British Canadian group.
- $F = (1 - .57)/(1 - .79) = 2.05 > \text{critical } F = 1.47$  at .01 level, with 149 and 149 degrees of freedom. This reliability is significantly higher for the Chinese Canadian group than for the Mainland Chinese group.

This significance indicates that the spare-time activity scales may work better for Chinese Canadian older adults.

For original motivation scales (see Table 11), many of them had unacceptable low inter-item reliability ( $<.50$ ) for certain ethnic/cultural groups, which might be partially due to sample differences and shorter scales (Pallant, 2010). However, after dropping one particular item for each of the three motivation scales (i.e., *identified*, *introjected*, and *external motivations*), inter-item

reliabilities (two-item scales) became more comparable for all three groups. As a result, a modified list of motivation scales with their standardized Cronbach coefficient alphas is presented in Table 16.

Table 16

*Standardized Cronbach Coefficient Alphas for the Three Ethnic/Cultural Groups on the Motivation Scales*

Category	Item	British Canadian	Mainland Chinese	Chinese Canadian
<b>Intrinsic Motivation</b>	Interesting			
	Enjoyable	.80	.56	.84
	Fun			
<b>Integrated Motivation</b>	Part of personal identity			
	Part of who I am as person	.83	.71	.85
	Reflect who I am			
<b>Identified Motivation<sup>a</sup></b>	Important to me			
	Worthwhile to me	.72	.52	.68
<b>Introjected Motivation<sup>b</sup></b>	Feel guilty if I don't do it			
	Rewards I give myself afterwards	.67	.65	.65
<b>External Motivation<sup>c</sup></b>	Rewards others give myself afterwards			
	Make others feel good about me	.78	.70	.56

*Note.* <sup>a</sup>The dropped item was "Reflect my personal values." <sup>b</sup>The dropped item was "The pressure I put on myself." <sup>c</sup>The dropped item was "The pressure others put on me."

Accordingly, three equality tests for each of these five scales were performed and the final results are shown in Table 17:

Table 17

*Equality of Motivation Scales for the Three Ethnic/Cultural Groups*

<b>Motivation Scales</b>	<b>Equality</b>
Intrinsic	Significant differences suggest that this scale may work better for British Canadian and Chinese Canadian older adults than Mainland Chinese.
Integrated	Although significant differences indicate that this scale may work better for British Canadian and Chinese Canadian older adults than Mainland Chinese, all three alpha values were .71 and higher, suggesting that this scale worked equally well for all three ethnic/cultural groups.
Identified	Significant differences indicate that this scale may work better for British Canadian and Chinese Canadian older adults than Mainland Chinese.
Introjected	This scale worked equally well for all three ethnic/cultural groups.
External	Significant differences suggest that this scale may work better for British Canadian and Mainland Chinese older adults than Chinese Canadian.

*Note.* Critical  $F = 1.47$  at .01 level, with 149 and 149 degrees of freedom.

Although I had carefully designed and translated the scales to build construct equivalence across cultures, differences in reliability coefficients still existed. This result, according to Van de Vijver and Leung (1997), may be due to: “lack of appropriateness of the instrument (e.g., construct inequivalence), administration problems (e.g., substantial interviewer effects or low interrater reliability), subject characteristics (e.g., cross-cultural differences in test-wisness), and differential response styles (e.g., acquiescence or social desirability)” (p. 61).

For the constraint scales, I decided to separate the two *face* scales from the *intrapersonal constraint* scale because: (1) only one Mainland Chinese person in

the qualitative stage of this study believed self- and other-face were constraints to his spare-time activity participation; and (2) Liang and Walker's (2011) work is one of the few exploratory studies that include the concept of face in leisure research. Therefore, it is more valuable for researchers to study this concept's separate components. Almost all of the original constraint scales (see Table 12) had acceptable inter-item reliability ( $>.60$ ) for all three ethnic/cultural groups except the other-face scale for Chinese Canadians (.59). After deleting one item for each of the two face scales, inter-item reliabilities became more comparable among three groups. Finally, a modified list of constraint scales with their standardized Cronbach coefficient alphas is reported in Table 18.



Table 18

*Standardized Cronbach Coefficient Alphas for the Three Ethnic/Cultural Groups on the Constraint Scales*

Category	Item	British Canadian	Mainland Chinese	Chinese Canadian
	Bad for me			
<b>Intrapersonal</b>	Others do not approve of me	.60	.63	.72
<b>Constraints</b>	Boring for me			
	Foolish for me			
	Others live too far away			
	Others have no time			
<b>Interpersonal</b>	Others have no transportation	.73	.75	.70
<b>Constraints</b>	Others have other obligations			
	Others have no money			
	I have no transportation			
	I have no money			
<b>Structural</b>	Facilities too crowded			
<b>Constraints</b>	I have other obligations	.86	.75	.77
	I have no time			
	Facilities too far away			

Table 18 (continued)

Category	Item	British Canadian	Mainland Chinese	Chinese Canadian
<b>Self-face/</b>	I had to ask questions			
		.71	.74	.73
<b>Feel embarrassed<sup>a</sup></b>	I made mistakes			
<b>Other-face/</b>	Others made mistakes			
		.76	.68	.62
<b>Feel embarrassed<sup>b</sup></b>	Others called attention to themselves			

*Note.* <sup>a</sup>The dropped item was “I called attention to myself.”

<sup>b</sup>The dropped item was “Others had to ask questions.”

Accordingly, three equality tests for each of these five scales were carried out and the final results are presented in Table 19:

Table 19

*Equality of Constraint Scales for Three Ethnic/Cultural Groups*

<b>Constraint Scales</b>	<b>Equality</b>
Intrapersonal	This scale worked equally well for all three ethnic/cultural groups.
Interpersonal	This scale worked equally well for all three ethnic/cultural groups.
Structural	Although significant differences indicate that this scale may work better for British Canadian older adults than their Chinese counterparts, all three alpha values were .75 and higher, suggesting that this scale worked equally well for all three ethnic/cultural groups.
Self-face/ Feel embarrassed	This scale worked equally well for all three ethnic/cultural groups.
Other-face/ Feel embarrassed	The only significant difference appeared to be between British Canadian and Chinese Canadian groups, indicating that this scale may work better for the former. Also, this scale worked equally well when either comparing British Canadian with Mainland Chinese groups or comparing Mainland Chinese with Chinese Canadian groups.

*Note.* Critical  $F = 1.47$  at .01 level, with 149 and 149 degrees of freedom.

In general, these scales have shown very high construct equivalence among three ethnic/cultural groups. However, during the data screening stage, I found that most respondents disagreed with most of the constraints statements (i.e., they mainly chose 1 to 3 on a 6-point Likert scale), suggesting that they may simply not consider these items to be constraints for their spare-time activity participation. A question is thereby raised: “If these scales did not reflect the actual constraints older adults may experience, should researchers consider redesigning new constraint scales specific for this population?” I will return to

this issue in my Discussion Chapter.

With regard to original negotiation scales (see Table 13), many of them had unacceptably low inter-item reliability ( $<.50$ ) for certain ethnic/cultural groups. After dropping one particular item for each of the two negotiation scales (i.e., *cognitive strategies* and *physical therapy*), the inter-item reliabilities of these two-item scales became more similar for all three groups. However, three other scales (i.e., *change interpersonal relations*, *improve finances*, and *change leisure aspirations*) were deleted due to low alpha values ( $<.50$ , even after item deduction). Consequently, a modified list of motivation scales with their standardized Cronbach coefficient alphas is shown in Table 20.

Table 20

*Standardized Cronbach Coefficient Alphas for the Three Ethnic/Cultural Groups on the Negotiation Scales*

Category	Item	British Canadian	Mainland Chinese	Chinese Canadian
<b>Cognitive Strategies<sup>a</sup></b>	Ignore			
	Put up with it	.68	.51	.66
<b>Modify Time</b>	Budget my time			
	Go whenever possible	.55	.66	.72
	Plan ahead			
<b>Acquire Skills</b>	Practice more			
	Take lessons	.66	.65	.73
	Ask other people for help			
<b>Physical Therapy<sup>b</sup></b>	Get medical treatment			
	Take physical therapy	.77	.69	.82

*Note.* <sup>a</sup>The dropped item was “Be positive and have fun.”

<sup>b</sup>The dropped item was “Taking medicine for my disease.”

Again, three equality tests for each of these four scales were carried out and the final results are listed in Table 21:

Table 21

*Equality of Negotiation Scales for the Three Ethnic/Cultural Groups*

<b>Negotiation Scales</b>	<b>Equality</b>
Cognitive strategies	Significant differences indicate that this scale may work better for British Canadian and Chinese Canadian older adults than Mainland Chinese.
Modify time	The only significant difference appeared to be between British Canadian and Chinese Canadian groups, indicating that this scale may work better for the latter. Also, this scale worked equally well when either comparing British Canadian with Mainland Chinese groups or comparing Mainland Chinese with Chinese Canadian groups.
Acquire skills	This scale worked equally well for all three ethnic/cultural groups.
Physical therapy	The only significant difference appeared to be between Mainland Chinese and Chinese Canadian groups, indicating that this scale may work better for the latter. Also, this scale worked equally well when either comparing British Canadian with Mainland Chinese groups or comparing British Canadian with Chinese Canadian groups.

*Note.* Critical  $F = 1.47$  at .01 level, with 149 and 149 degrees of freedom.

Finally, Table 22 reports the results of the acculturation scales for Chinese Canadian older adults:

Table 22

*Standardized Cronbach Coefficient Alphas for the Chinese Canadian group on the Acculturation Scales*

Category	Item	Chinese Canadian
<b>Dominant culture (Canada)</b>		
	Behave like typical Canadians	
	Maintain or develop Canadian cultural practice	.74
	Believe in Canadian values	
	Have Canadian friends	
<b>Non-dominant culture (China)</b>		
	Behave like typical Chinese	
	Maintain or develop Chinese cultural practice	.83
	Believe in Chinese values	
	Have Chinese friends	

As mentioned in the Method chapter, Huynh et al. (2009) found that the VIA “yielded robust reliability estimates on both the non-dominant (.63 - .92) and dominant (.70 - .89) culture scales across a wide range of samples” (p. 266). Similarly, the two scales in my study also had robust reliability values.

Also, for Chinese Canadian older adults, two *structural constraints* items and one *acquire skills* item were include in their respective scales.

Correspondingly, the standardized Cronbach's alphas are .80 and .76.

### **Research question results.**

In this section, the results of the data analyses for each of my research questions are reported.

*R1: Do the associations among average leisure motivation, average leisure constraint, and average constraint negotiation differ by age, gender, ethnicity, or, in the case of Chinese Canadians, acculturation?*

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to test the correlations among these variables for all three ethnic/cultural groups (see Table 23 to 25). For Chinese Canadians, "acculturation" was included in the analysis. To determine the strength of the relationship, Cohen (1988) suggested the following guidelines:  $r = .10$  to  $.29$  or  $r = -.10$  to  $-.29$  indicates small correlations;  $r = .30$  to  $.49$  or  $r = -.30$  to  $-.49$  indicates medium correlations; and  $r = .50$  to  $1.0$  or  $r = -.50$  to  $-1.0$  indicates large correlations.

As shown in these tables, cultural differences are evident among these correlations. For example, as opposed to Mainland Chinese older adults, British Canadian older adults' "motivation" was related to their "constraint" ( $-.31$ ), "negotiation" ( $.38$ ), "age" ( $-.25$ ), and "gender" ( $.30$ ), which might be because the motivation scales in general worked better for the British Canadian group (see Table 17). For Chinese Canadians, most variables had positive or negative relationships between each other, especially "acculturation" being almost correlated to all of the variables but "age". It is interesting to see that the higher acculturated Chinese Canadian older men (coded as 1, women coded as 2) were associated with a lower level of motivation, a higher level of constraint, and a higher chance of employing negotiation strategies.



Table 23

*Pearson Product-moment Correlations for British Canadians*

<b>Scale</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
1. Average leisure motivation	---	-.31**	.38**	-.25**	.30**
2. Average leisure constraint		---	-.03	.10	-.18*
3. Average constraint negotiation			---	-.05	.06
4. Age				---	-.05
5. Gender					---

*Note.* \*\*  $p < .01$ , two-tailed. \*  $p < .05$ , two-tailed.  $N = 150$ .

Table 24

*Pearson Product-moment Correlations for Mainland Chinese*

<b>Scale</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
1. Average leisure motivation	---	-.03	-.06	.12	.13
2. Average leisure constraint		---	.30**	-.05	.06
3. Average constraint negotiation			---	-.13	.17*
4. Age				---	-.12
5. Gender					---

*Note.* \*\*  $p < .01$ , two-tailed. \*  $p < .05$ , two-tailed.  $N = 150$ .

Table 25

*Pearson Product-moment Correlations for Chinese Canadians*

<b>Scale</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>
1. Average leisure motivation	---	-.14	.17*	-.27**	.11	-.16*
2. Average leisure constraint		---	.39**	.06	-.29**	.29**
3. Average constraint negotiation			---	-.25**	-.01	.55**
4. Age				---	-.04	.01
5. Gender					---	-.20*
6. Acculturation						---

*Note.* \*\*  $p < .01$ , two-tailed. \*  $p < .05$ , two-tailed.  $N = 150$ .

The next set of research questions investigated whether leisure participation overall differs by (a) age, ethnicity, or the interaction between the two; and (b) gender, ethnicity, or the interactions between the two. It is important to note that because the main focus of this cross-cultural study is on detecting cultural differences, the potential interaction of age and gender was not examined:

- *R2: Does leisure participation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R3: Does leisure participation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

Two two-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were carried out to examine the individual and joint effect of two independent variables (i.e., age and ethnicity; gender and ethnicity) on one dependent variable (i.e., leisure participation overall).

For Research Question 2, Table 26 shows that the interaction effect between age and ethnicity was not statistically significant,  $F(4, 441) = 1.12, p = .35$ . There was a statistically significant main effect for age,  $F(2, 441) = 24.81, p < .001$ . However, based on Cohen's (1988) guideline (i.e., a partial eta squared value with .01 indicating a small effect, .06 a medium effect, and .14 a large effect), the effect size, which indicates whether a practical difference exists, was small to medium in size ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for all three age groups ("55-64",  $M = 3.32, SD = .61$ ; "65-74",  $M = 3.10, SD = .61$ ; "75 and over",  $M = 2.81, SD = .59$ ) were significantly different from each other. However, due to age's small to medium effect size, the difference between the groups appeared to be of smaller practical significance.

The main effect for ethnicity,  $F(2, 441) = 8.08, p < .001$ , also reached statistical significance. Similarly, post-hoc tests indicated that the mean scores for

all three ethnic/cultural groups (British Canadian,  $M = 3.11$ ,  $SD = .55$ ; Mainland Chinese,  $M = 3.35$ ,  $SD = .53$ ; Chinese Canadian,  $M = 2.73$ ,  $SD = .65$ ) were also significantly different from each other. With ethnicity's medium effect size ( $\eta^2 = .10$ ), the difference between the groups appeared to be of greater practical significance than age.

Table 26

*ANOVA Results for Main and Interaction Effect of Age and Ethnicity on Leisure Participation Overall (R2)*

Source	<i>Df</i>	<i>F</i>	$\eta^2$	<i>p</i>
(A) Ethnicity	2	8.08	.10	.001
(B) Age	2	24.81	.04	.001
A x B (Interaction)	4	1.12	.01	.348
Error (within groups)	441			

For Research Question 3, Table 27 shows that the interaction effect between gender and ethnicity was statistically significant,  $F(2, 444) = 8.19$ ,  $p < .001$ . In order to explore this relationship further, I conducted an analysis of simple effect by splitting the data into groups according to one of the independent variables and running separate one-way ANOVAs to explore the effect of the other variable. In this case, I split the data by gender and looked at the effect of ethnicity on leisure participation overall for males and females. Final results indicated that for males, only the mean score for Mainland Chinese ( $M = 3.32$ ,  $SD = .53$ ) was significantly different from both the British Canadians ( $M = 2.97$ ,  $SD = .52$ ) and Chinese Canadians ( $M = 2.89$ ,  $SD = .65$ ); while for females, only the

mean score for Chinese Canadians ( $M = 2.61$ ,  $SD = .63$ ) was significantly different from both the British Canadians ( $M = 3.22$ ,  $SD = .55$ ) and Mainland Chinese ( $M = 3.37$ ,  $SD = .54$ ). Worth noting is that there was also a statistically significant main effect for ethnicity,  $F(2, 444) = 29.64$ ,  $p = .001$ . Its large effect size ( $\eta^2 = .15$ ) also suggested that ethnicity played a dominant role in differentiating older adults' levels of spare-time activity participation, especially when compared with interaction's small effect size ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ).

Table 27

*ANOVA Results for Main and Interaction Effect of Gender and Ethnicity on Leisure Participation Overall (R3)*

Source	<i>Df</i>	<i>F</i>	$\eta^2$	<i>p</i>
(A) Ethnicity	2	39.64	.15	.001
(B) Gender	1	.004	.00	.947
A x B (Interaction)	2	8.19	.04	.001
Error (within groups)	444			

In addition, two research questions relating to acculturation were put forth only for Chinese Canadians:

- *R4: Does leisure participation overall differ by age, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R5: Does leisure participation overall differ by gender, acculturation, and the interaction between the two?*

In this study, by employing Dona and Berry's (1994) categorization and using the neutral point (i.e., 3.5) of the VIA as the cut-off point, respondents whose mean scores fell below or were equal to 3.5 were classified "low" on both non-dominant (i.e., Chinese) and dominant (i.e., Canadian) culture scales, and those whose mean scores fell above 3.5 were classified as "high". Accordingly, four categories of respondents were identified: (a) *assimilated* (i.e., responses above 3.5 on the Canadian culture scale and below or equal to 3.5 on the Chinese culture scale); (b) *separated* (i.e., responses below or equal to 3.5 on the Canadian culture scale and above 3.5 on the Chinese culture scale); (c) *integrated* (i.e., responses above 3.5 on both scales); and (d) *marginalized* (i.e., responses below or equal to 3.5 on both scales). Nevertheless, as shown in Table 14, except for one item (i.e., behave like typical Canadians) under the *dominant culture* (Canada) category having a mean score slightly below 3.5, all of the remaining seven items reported mean scores above 4.07. As a result, extremely few respondents were categorized to be *marginalized* (i.e., responses below or equal to 3.5 on both scales). This situation caused two problems: (1) small cell sizes lead to a decrease of statistical power (Cohen, 1988); and (2) dichotomizing continuous predictor variables into two groups with a median split before performing data analysis substantially reduces the chances of statistical significance and again the power of statistical analysis (Irwin & McClelland, 2003).

As a consequence, instead of conducting two separate two-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests, I chose to enter only the continuous variables on dominant and non-dominant into a hierarchical multiple regression. Given Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) statement that with hierarchical or sequential multiple regression: "The researcher normally assigns order of entry of variables according to logical or theoretical considerations. For example, IV's that are presumed or (manipulated) to be causally prior are given higher priority of entry"

(p. 138), I decided that age and gender should be entered first, followed by non-dominant, and then dominant. The rationale for separating non-dominant and dominant cultures was that the former is distal to the latter (meaning an immigrant arrives with this and then may or may not begin endorsing dominant cultural beliefs, traditions, etc.). Aligned with the changes in statistical tests, I also converted the original Research Questions 4 and 5 to the new Research Questions 4 (subsequent research questions' numbers were changed accordingly) to investigate the relationship between one continuous dependent variable (i.e., leisure participation overall) and a number of independent variables (i.e., age, gender, and acculturation).

- *R4: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' leisure participation overall?*

Before constructing the multivariate model, bivariate analyses were used to detect the correlations between each explanatory/independent variable (i.e., age, gender, and acculturation) and leisure participation overall. To determine the strength of the relationships, the aforementioned Cohen's (1988) guideline was used again. Results (see Table 28) only showed a small, negative correlation with age ( $r = -.26, n = 150, p < .01$ ), with older age associated with lower levels of spare-time activity participation; and a small, negative correlation with gender ( $r = -.22, n = 150, p < .01$ ), with men (coded as 1, women coded as 2) associated with higher levels of spare-time activity participation. The remaining two acculturation variables showed no correlation with respondents' activity participation.

Table 28

*Correlations among Leisure Participation Overall, Gender, Age, Dominant Culture, and Non-dominant Culture*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1. Leisure participation overall	---	-.22**	-.26**	-.12	-.01
2. Gender		---	-.04	-.24***	-.10
3. Age			---	.09	-.06
4. Dominant culture				---	.35***
5. Non-dominant culture					---

*Note.* \*\*  $p < .01$ , 1-tailed. \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , 1-tailed.  $N = 150$ .

To meet the assumption of multiple regression that correlations between independent variables are low, correlations was used to test the relationships among the four independent variables (i.e., age, gender, dominant culture, and non-dominant culture). Table 28 shows that all the correlations among these variables were small or medium based on Cohen's (1988) benchmarks. Because Field (2000) pointed out that if any independent variables correlate very highly (above .8 or .9), multicollinearity might exist. In this study, the correlations were so low that all variables were retained for future analysis. Moreover, after running the hierarchical regression on SPSS, the table labelled "Coefficients" provided collinearity statistics to detect multicollinearity, including "Tolerance" and "VIF" (Variance Inflation Factor). Gaur and Gaur (2006) suggested that "a value of VIF higher than five (or Tolerance less than .2) indicates the presence of multicollinearity" (p. 116). The tolerance values for the four variables in this question ranged from .83 to .98; thus, no multicollinearity was detected.



As displayed in Table 29, age and gender were entered at step 1, explaining 12% of the variance in leisure participation overall,  $F(2, 147) = 9.80$ ,  $p < .001$ . After entry of non-dominant culture (i.e., Chinese culture) at step 2 the total variance explained by the model as a whole stayed almost the same (12%),  $F(3, 146) = 6.64$ ,  $p < .001$ . Finally, after entering dominant culture (i.e., Canadian culture) at step 3, the total variance explained by the model as a whole only reached 14%,  $F(4, 145) = 5.98$ ,  $p < .001$ . Dominant culture explained an additional 2% of the variance in leisure participation overall, after controlling for age, gender, and non-dominant culture,  $R$  squared change = .02,  $F$  change (1, 145) = 3.63,  $p < .059$ . In the final model, only age and gender were statistically significant, with gender recording a slightly higher beta value ( $\beta = -.27$ ,  $p < .001$ ) than age ( $\beta = -.25$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Table 29

*Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Leisure Participation Overall (R4)*

Regressor and predictor variable(s)	B	$\beta$	$R^2$	F Change
<b>Model 1</b>			.12	9.80***
Age	-.26***	-.27***		
Gender	-.30**	-.23**		
<b>Model 2</b>			.12	.40
Age	-.26***	-.27***		
Gender	-.31**	-.23**		
Non-dominant culture	-.04	-.05		
<b>Model 3</b>			.14	3.63
Age	-.24***	-.25***		
Gender	-.35***	-.27***		
Non-dominant culture	.003	.005		
Dominant culture	-.13	-.16		

Note. \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

The following three sets of questions further explored whether leisure motivation overall, leisure constraint overall, and constraint negotiation overall differ by (a) age, ethnicity, or the interaction between the two; and (b) gender, ethnicity, or the interactions between the two, respectively. Because six original questions involving acculturation (i.e., Research Questions 8 and 9, 12 and 13, and 16 and 17) also faced the same issues (e.g., loss of power due to small cell sizes and dichotomizing continuous predictor variables), I converted the three pairs of questions to three new ones (i.e., Research Questions 7, 10, and 13) and switched the initial statistical tests (i.e., MANOVA) to the hierarchical multiple regression.

(1) This list of research questions examined motivation overall:

- *R5: Does leisure motivation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R6: Does leisure motivation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

Two two-factor multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) tests were carried out to explore the “main” and “interaction” effect of two sets of independent variables (i.e., age and ethnicity; gender and ethnicity) on leisure motivation overall. If the MANOVA tests’ results indicated significant differences exist, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to investigate the sources of those differences.

For Research Question 5, Table 30 indicates that there was a statistically significant interaction effect between age and ethnicity,  $F(20, 874) = 2.79$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Wilks’  $\Lambda = .88$ ;  $\eta^2 = .03$ . Also, there were a statistically significant main effect for age,  $F(10, 874) = 2.30$ ,  $p < .01$ ; Wilks’  $\Lambda = .95$ ;  $\eta^2 = .03$  and a statistically significant main effect for ethnicity,  $F(10, 874) = 14.87$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Wilks’  $\Lambda = .73$ ;  $\eta^2 = .15$ . By using the Bonferroni alpha level adjustment (i.e.,

dividing the original alpha level of .05 by the number of dependent variables to reduce the chance of a Type I error; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), univariate analyses detected (a) a statistically significant interaction between age and ethnicity on intrinsic motivation,  $F(4, 441) = 3.55, p < .001, \eta^2 = .03$ , on introjected motivation,  $F(4, 441) = 3.45, p < .01, \eta^2 = .03$ , and on external motivation,  $F(4, 441) = 3.71, p < .01, \eta^2 = .03$ ; and (b) a statistically significant main effect for ethnicity on integrated motivation,  $F(2, 441) = 16.01, p < .001, \eta^2 = .07$ , and on identified motivation,  $F(2, 441) = 7.15, p < .001, \eta^2 = .03$ .

Table 30

*Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance for Leisure Motivation Overall (R5)*

Source	Multivariate		Univariate					
	df	F	df	Intrinsic F	Integrated F	Identified F	Introjected F	External F
Age	10, 874	2.30**	2, 441	4.75**	1.23	.39	.20	.87
Ethnicity	10, 874	14.87***	2, 441	12.37***	16.01***	7.15***	9.01***	13.87***
Age x Ethnicity	20, 874	2.79***	4, 441	3.55**	2.95	.77	3.45**	3.71**

*Note.* F ratio are Wilks' approximation of Fs. \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .001$ . By using Bonferroni adjustment, the alpha level of .05 was divided by number of dependent variables (5 in this case), giving a new alpha level of .01.

Because univariate analyses detected three interactions between age and ethnicity, I decided to use plots (see Figure 6 to 8) and simple effect analysis (as well as the Tukey HSD test) to decompose these complex effects. First, in terms of intrinsic motivation (see Figure 6 and Table 30a), final results indicated that for the “65 to 74” group, Chinese Canadian older adults ( $M = 4.86$ ,  $SD = .96$ ) were less motivated than their British Canadian ( $M = 5.42$ ,  $SD = .67$ ) and Mainland Chinese ( $M = 5.50$ ,  $SD = .54$ ) counterparts. As well, for the “75 and over” group, Mainland Chinese ( $M = 5.49$ ,  $SD = .68$ ) were more intrinsic-motivated than their Canadian Counterparts (British Canadian,  $M = 4.80$ ,  $SD = 1.03$ ; Chinese Canadian,  $M = 4.81$ ,  $SD = .76$ ). These results, collectively, produced the significant interaction effect.

Table 30a

*Intrinsic Motivation Mean Score as a Function of Age and Ethnicity*

Age	Ethnicity								
	British Canadian			Mainland Chinese			Chinese Canadian		
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>
55 – 64	5.52	.57	16	5.45	.69	78	5.18	.60	20
65 – 74	5.42	.67	64	5.50	.54	53	4.86	.96	71
75 and over	4.80	1.03	70	5.49	.68	19	4.81	.76	59

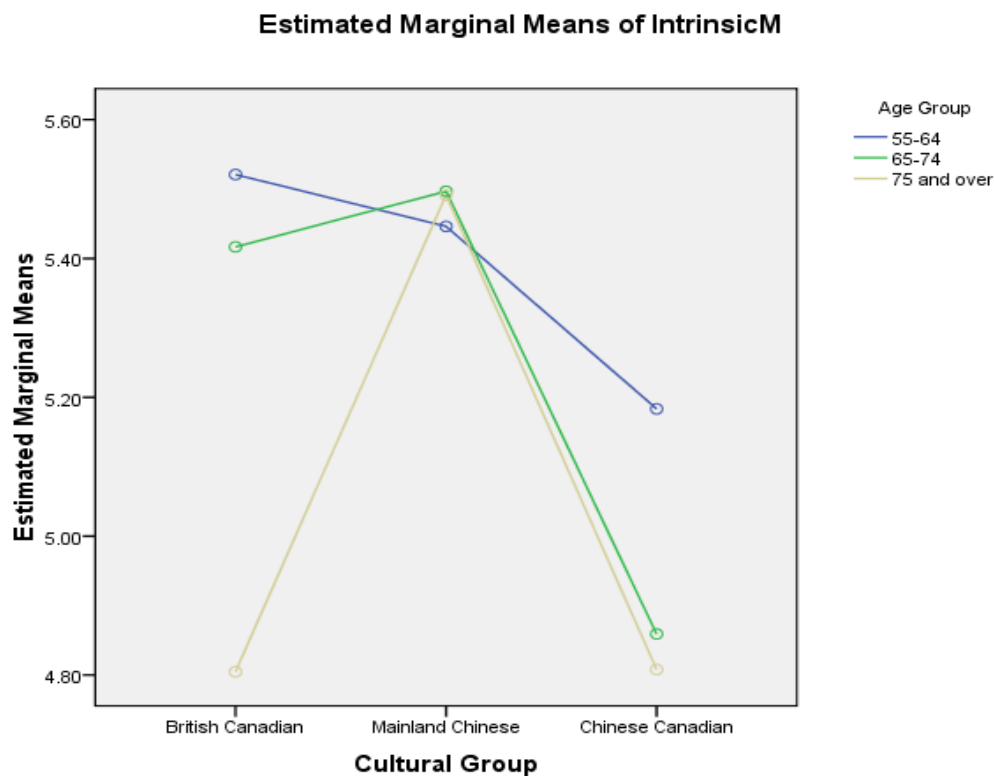


Figure 6. Estimated marginal means for intrinsic motivation.

Second, in regard to introjected motivation (see Figure 7 and Table 30b), final results showed that for the “55 to 64” group, Mainland Chinese older adults ( $M = 3.92$ ,  $SD = 1.41$ ) were more motivated than their Canadian Counterparts (British Canadian,  $M = 2.66$ ,  $SD = 1.00$ ; Chinese Canadian,  $M = 2.80$ ,  $SD = 1.40$ ). For the “65 to 74” group, British Canadian older adults ( $M = 2.58$ ,  $SD = 1.47$ ) were less motivated than their Chinese Counterparts (Mainland Chinese,  $M = 3.86$ ,  $SD = 1.61$ ; Chinese Canadian,  $M = 3.27$ ,  $SD = 1.16$ ). These results, together, produced the significant interaction effect.

Finally, with regards to external motivation (see Figure 8 and Table 30c), the statistically significant interaction was a function of (a) British Canadian older adults ( $M = 2.69$ ,  $SD = .93$ ) being less motivated than Mainland Chinese older adults ( $M = 3.95$ ,  $SD = 1.36$ ) for the “55 to 64” group, (b) British Canadian older adults ( $M = 2.26$ ,  $SD = 1.47$ ) being less motivated than their Mainland Chinese ( $M = 3.61$ ,  $SD = 1.52$ ) and Chinese Canadian ( $M = 3.50$ ,  $SD = 1.17$ ) counterparts for the “65 to 74” group, and (c) Chinese Canadian older adults ( $M = 3.98$ ,  $SD = 1.22$ ) being more motivated than British Canadian ( $M = 3.01$ ,  $SD = 1.52$ ) and Mainland Chinese ( $M = 3.00$ ,  $SD = 1.86$ ) older adults for the “75 and over” group.

With respect to the main effect, Tukey HSD post hoc tests suggested that British Canadian older adults ( $M = 4.65$ ,  $SE = .12$ ) had significantly higher integrated motivation than did their Mainland Chinese ( $M = 3.78$ ,  $SE = .12$ ) and Chinese Canadian counterparts ( $M = 3.85$ ,  $SE = .12$ ). As to identified motivation, Tukey HSD post hoc tests reported that Chinese Canadian older adults ( $M = 4.78$ ,  $SE = .08$ ) were significantly less motivated than their British Canadian ( $M = 5.13$ ,  $SE = .09$ ) and Mainland Chinese ( $M = 5.20$ ,  $SE = .09$ ) counterparts.

Table 30b

*Introjected Motivation Mean Score as a Function of Age and Ethnicity*

Age	Ethnicity								
	British Canadian			Mainland Chinese			Chinese Canadian		
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	N	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>
55 – 64	2.66	1.00	16	3.92	1.43	78	2.80	1.40	20
65 – 74	2.58	1.47	64	3.86	1.61	53	3.27	1.16	71
75 and over	2.99	1.43	70	2.95	1.77	19	3.53	1.32	59

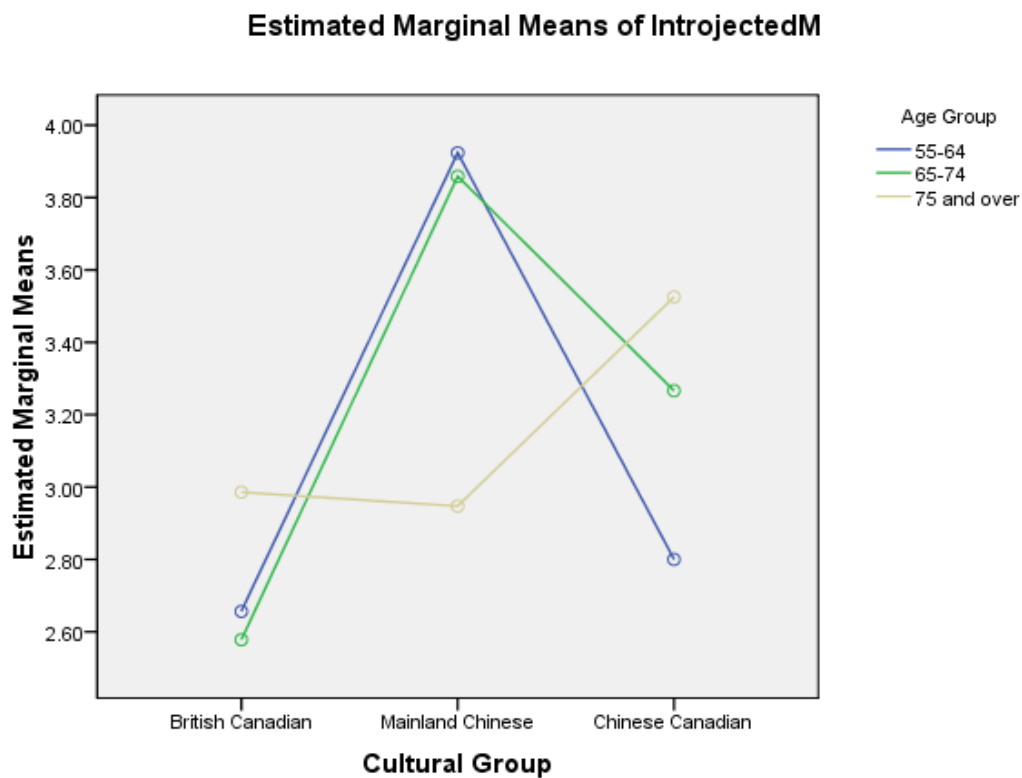


Figure 7. Estimated marginal means for introjected motivation.



Table 30c

*External Motivation Mean Score as a Function of Age and Ethnicity*

Age	Ethnicity								
	British Canadian			Mainland Chinese			Chinese Canadian		
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	N	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>
55 – 64	2.69	.93	16	3.95	1.36	78	3.23	1.47	20
65 – 74	2.26	1.47	64	3.61	1.52	53	3.50	1.17	71
75 and over	3.01	1.52	70	3.00	1.86	19	3.98	1.22	59

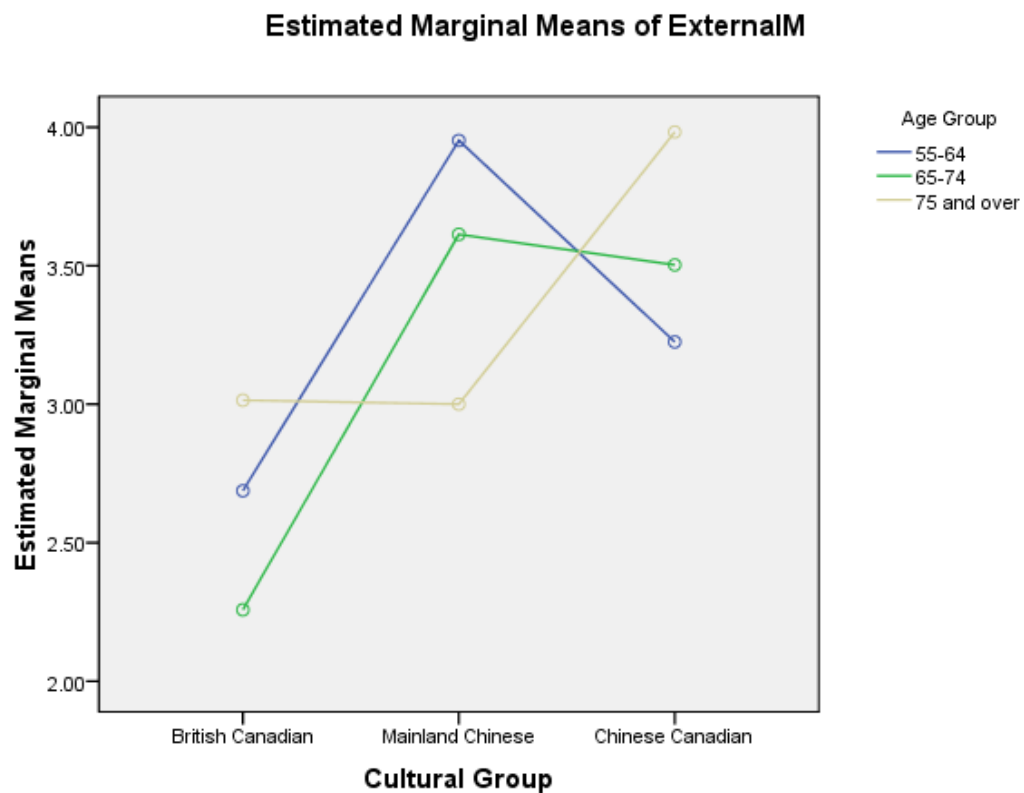


Figure 8. Estimated marginal means for external motivation.

For Research Question 6, Table 31 indicates that there were a statistically significant main effect for gender,  $F(5, 440) = 5.81, p < .001$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .94$ ;  $\eta^2 = .06$  and a statistically significant main effect for ethnicity,  $F(10, 880) = 21.52, p < .001$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .65$ ;  $\eta^2 = .20$ . By using the Bonferroni alpha level adjustment (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), univariate analyses detected (a) a statistically significant main effect for gender on intrinsic motivation,  $F(1, 444) = 12.37, p < .001, \eta^2 = .03$ , on integrated motivation,  $F(1, 444) = 9.25, p < .01, \eta^2 = .02$ , and on identified motivation,  $F(1, 444) = 6.86, p < .01, \eta^2 = .02$ ; and (b) a statistically significant main effect for ethnicity on intrinsic motivation,  $F(2, 444) = 19.63, p < .001, \eta^2 = .08$ , on integrated motivation,  $F(2, 444) = 18.13, p < .001, \eta^2 = .08$ , on identified motivation,  $F(2, 444) = 12.73, p < .001, \eta^2 = .05$ , on introjected motivation,  $F(2, 444) = 18.72, p < .001, \eta^2 = .08$ , and on external motivation,  $F(2, 444) = 24.51, p < .001, \eta^2 = .10$ .

The main effect of gender showed that female older adults were more motivated to participate in spare-time activities than their male counterparts in terms of intrinsic motivation (Female:  $M = 5.28, SE = .05$  vs. Male:  $M = 5.02, SE = .06$ ), integrated motivation (Female:  $M = 4.33, SE = .08$  vs. Male:  $M = 3.98, SE = .09$ ), and identified motivation (Female:  $M = 5.11, SE = .06$  vs. Male:  $M = 4.89, SE = .06$ ).

The main effect of ethnicity was assessed using the Tukey HSD multiple comparison test. Three kinds of results (see Table 32) were manifested: (1) these three ethnic/cultural groups were significantly different from each other in terms of intrinsic motivation and introjected motivation; (2) British Canadian older adults rated integrated motivation significantly higher but rated external motivation significantly lower than their Chinese counterparts; and (3) Chinese Canadian older adults had significantly lower identified motivation than their British Canadian and Mainland Chinese counterparts.

Table 31

*Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance for Leisure Motivation Overall (R6)*

Source	Multivariate		Univariate					
	df	F	df	Intrinsic F	Integrated F	Identified F	Introjected F	External F
Gender	5, 440	5.81***	1, 444	12.37**	9.25**	6.86**	2.20	.09
Ethnicity	10, 880	21.52***	2, 444	19.63***	18.13***	12.73***	18.72***	24.51***
Gender x Ethnicity	10, 880	1.41	2, 444	1.58	.86	1.29	.08	3.59

*Note.* F ratio are Wilks' approximation of Fs. \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .001$ . By using Bonferroni adjustment, the alpha level of .05 was divided by number of dependent variables (5 in this case), giving a new alpha level of .01.

Table 32

*Estimated Marginal Mean and Standard Error for the Three Ethnic/Cultural Groups*

	<b>Intrinsic Motivation</b>	<b>Integrated Motivation</b>	<b>Identified Motivation</b>	<b>Introjected Motivation</b>	<b>External Motivation</b>
<b>British Canadian</b>	$M = 5.12$ $SE = .07$	$M = 4.64$ $SE = .10$	$M = 5.13$ $SE = .07$	$M = 2.78$ $SE = .12$	$M = 2.68$ $SE = .12$
<b>Mainland Chinese</b>	$M = 5.45$ $SE = .07$	$M = 3.97$ $SE = .10$	$M = 5.17$ $SE = .07$	$M = 3.79$ $SE = .12$	$M = 3.70$ $SE = .12$
<b>Chinese Canadian</b>	$M = 4.88$ $SE = .07$	$M = 3.85$ $SE = .10$	$M = 4.71$ $SE = .07$	$M = 3.33$ $SE = .12$	$M = 3.64$ $SE = .10$

For Chinese Canadians only:

- *R7: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' leisure motivation overall?*

Similar to Research Question 4, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to investigate the relationship between one continuous dependent variable (i.e., leisure motivation overall) and three independent variables (i.e., age, gender, and acculturation). Again, both age and gender were entered in the first step; while non-dominant culture and dominant culture were entered in steps 2 and 3, respectively.

Before constructing the multivariate model, bivariate analyses were used to detect the correlations between each explanatory/independent variable (i.e., age, gender, and acculturation) and leisure motivation overall (RAI). To determine the strength of the relationships, the aforementioned Cohen's (1988) guideline was used again. Results (see Table 33) showed a small, negative correlation with age ( $r = -.27, n = 150, p < .01$ ), with older age associated with lower levels of motivation; and a small, negative correlation with non-dominant culture ( $r = -.17, n = 150, p < .05$ ), with being less influenced by non-dominant culture associated with higher levels of motivation. Gender and dominant culture showed no correlation with respondents' leisure motivation.

Table 33

*Correlations among Leisure Motivation Overall, Gender, Age, Dominant Culture, and Non-dominant Culture*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1. leisure motivation overall	---	.11	-.27**	-.09	-.17*
2. Gender		---	-.04	-.24***	-.10
3. Age			---	.09	-.06
4. Dominant culture				---	.35***
5. Non-dominant culture					---

*Note.* \*  $p < .05$ , 1-tailed. \*\*  $p < .01$ , 1-tailed. \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , 1-tailed.  $N = 150$ .

To meet the multiple regression's requirement that correlations between independent variables are low, relationships among the four independent variables (i.e., age, gender, dominant culture, and non-dominant culture) were examined. Table 33 shows that all the correlations among these variables were small or medium based on Cohen's (1988) benchmarks.

As shown in Table 34, age and gender were entered in the hierarchical regression at step 1, explaining about 8% of the variance in leisure motivation overall,  $F(2, 147) = 6.73$ ,  $p < .01$ . At step 2, with the entry of non-dominant culture, the total variance explained by the model as a whole increased to 12%,  $F(3, 146) = 6.34$ ,  $p < .001$ . Non-dominant culture explained an additional 4% of the variance in leisure motivation overall, after controlling for age and gender,  $R$  squared change = .03,  $F$  change (1, 146) = 5.19,  $p < .024$ . Finally, dominant culture was entered at step 3, the total variance explained by the model as a whole stay about the same (12%),  $F(4, 145) = 4.74$ ,  $p < .001$ . In the final model, only

age and non-dominant culture were statistically significant, with age recording a higher beta value ( $\beta = -.28, p < .001$ ) than non-dominant culture ( $\beta = -.19, p < .05$ ).

Table 34

*Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Leisure Motivation Overall (R7)*

Regressor and predictor variable(s)	B	$\beta$	$R^2$	F Change
<b>Model 1</b>			.08	6.73**
Age	-1.32***	-.27***		
Gender	.66	-.10		
<b>Model 2</b>			.12	5.19*
Age	-1.38***	-.28***		
Gender	.54	.08		
Non-dominant culture	-.65*	-.18*		
<b>Model 3</b>			.12	.05
Age	-1.39***	-.28***		
Gender	.57	.08		
Non-dominant culture	-.67*	-.19*		
Dominant culture	.08	.02		

Note. \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

(2) The following research questions examined leisure constraints overall:

- *R8: Does leisure constraint overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R9: Does leisure constraint overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

Two two-factor multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) tests were performed to examine whether leisure constraint overall differs, using ethnicity, age, and gender as the independent variables. If the MANOVA tests' results indicated significant differences exist, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to investigate the sources of those differences.

As mentioned above, two face scales were investigated separately.

Therefore, two sub-questions for each of the above were developed.

- *R8a: Does face overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R8b: Does leisure constraint overall (including intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R9a: Does face overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R9b: Does leisure constraint overall (including intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

In terms of Research Question 8a, Table 35 indicates that there was a statistically significant interaction effect between age and ethnicity,  $F(8, 880) = 2.96, p < .01$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .95$ ;  $\eta^2 = .03$ . Also, there was a statistically significant main effect for ethnicity,  $F(4, 880) = 2.92, p < .05$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .97$ ;  $\eta^2 = .01$ . By using the Bonferroni alpha level adjustment (i.e., dividing the original alpha level of .05 by the number of dependent variables to reduce the chance of a Type I error;

Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), univariate analysis detected (a) a statistically significant interaction between age and ethnicity on other-face,  $F(4, 441) = 4.82$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .04$ ; (b) a statistically significant main effect for ethnicity on other-face,  $F(2, 441) = 4.91$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ ; and (c) a nearly significant main effect for ethnicity on self-face,  $F(2, 441) = 3.56$ ,  $p = .029$ ,  $\eta^2 = .02$ .

Table 35

*Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance for Face Overall (R8a)*

Source	Multivariate		Univariate			
	df	F	Self-face		Other-face	
			df	F	df	F
Age	4, 880	1.52	2, 441	1.61	2, 441	.84
Ethnicity	4, 880	2.92*	2, 441	3.56	2, 441	4.91**
Age x Ethnicity	8, 880	2.96**	4, 441	1.92	4, 441	4.82***

*Note.* F ratio are Wilks' approximation of Fs. \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .001$ . By using Bonferroni adjustment, the alpha level of .05 was divided by number of dependent variables (2 in this case), giving a new alpha level of .025.

Because univariate analyses detected one interaction between age and ethnicity on other-face, I again used plots (see Figure 9) and simple effect analysis (as well as the Tukey HSD test; see Table 35a) to explicate this complex effect. The statistically significant interaction was a function of British Canadian older adults ( $M = 1.37$ ,  $SD = .59$ ) being less concerned about other-face than their Mainland Chinese ( $M = 2.19$ ,  $SD = 1.30$ ) and Chinese Canadian ( $M = 2.34$ ,  $SD = 1.02$ ) counterparts under the “65 to 74” group.



Table 35a

*Other-Face Mean Score as a Function of Age and Ethnicity*

Age	Ethnicity								
	British Canadian			Mainland Chinese			Chinese Canadian		
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	N	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>
55 – 64	2.06	1.24	16	2.52	1.44	78	1.93	1.03	20
65 – 74	1.37	.59	64	2.19	1.30	53	2.34	1.02	71
75 and over	2.04	1.12	70	2.26	1.34	19	1.84	1.19	59

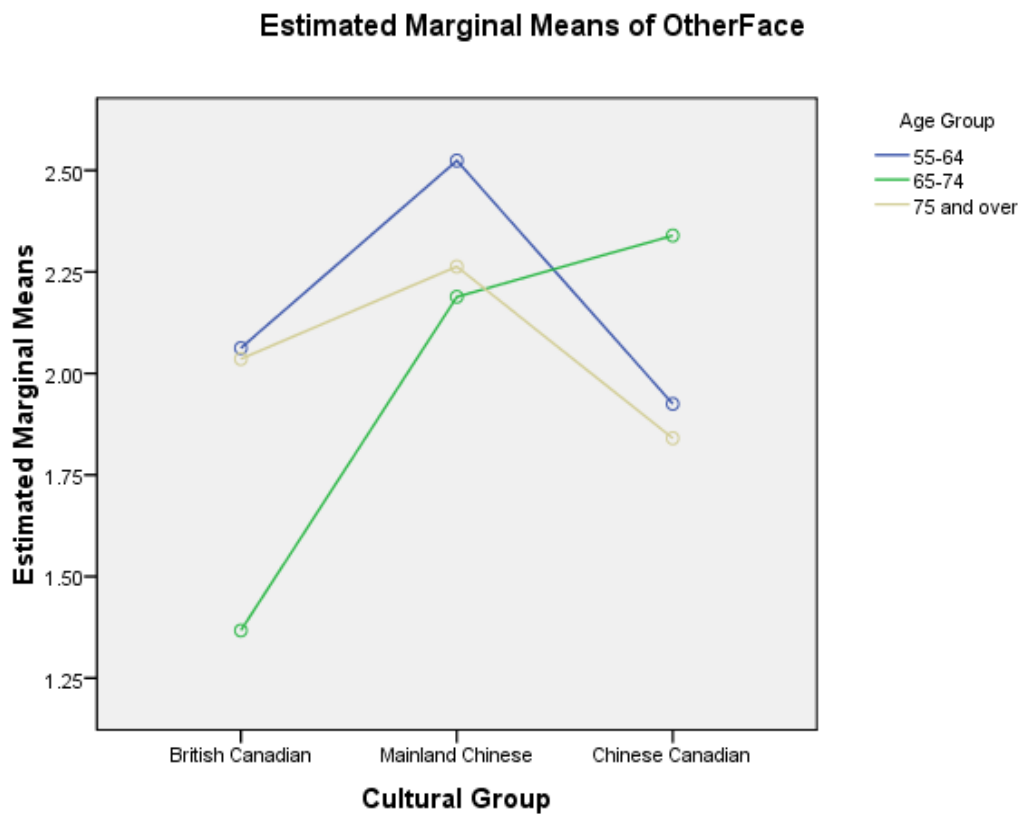


Figure 9. Estimated marginal means for other-face.

In terms of Research Question 9a, Table 36 indicates that there was a statistically significant interaction effect between gender and ethnicity,  $F(4, 888) = 3.24, p < .05$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .97$ ;  $\eta^2 = .01$ . Also, there were a statistically significant main effect for gender  $F(2, 443) = 7.35, p < .001$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .97$ ;  $\eta^2 = .03$  and a statistically significant main effect for ethnicity,  $F(4, 886) = 7.53, p < .001$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .94$ ;  $\eta^2 = .03$ . By using the Bonferroni alpha level adjustment, univariate analysis again detected (a) a statistically significant interaction between gender and ethnicity on self-face,  $F(2, 444) = 6.07, p < .01, \eta^2 = .03$ ; (b) a statistically significant main effect for gender on both self-face,  $F(1, 444) = 10.08, p < .01, \eta^2 = .02$  and other-face,  $F(1, 444) = 12.94, p < .001, \eta^2 = .03$ ; and (c) a statistically significant main effect for ethnicity on both self-face,  $F(2, 444) = 9.70, p < .001, \eta^2 = .04$  and other-face,  $F(2, 444) = 10.24, p < .001, \eta^2 = .04$ .

Table 36

*Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance for Face Overall (R9a)*

Source	Multivariate		Univariate			
	df	F	Self-face		Other-face	
	df	F	df	F	df	F
Gender	2, 443	7.35***	1, 444	10.08**	1, 444	12.94***
Ethnicity	4, 886	7.53***	2, 444	9.70***	2, 444	10.24***
Gender x Ethnicity	4, 886	3.24*	2, 444	6.07**	2, 444	2.98

*Note.* F ratio are Wilks' approximation of Fs. \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .001$ . By using Bonferroni adjustment, the alpha level of .05 was divided by number of dependent variables (2 in this case), giving a new alpha level of .025.

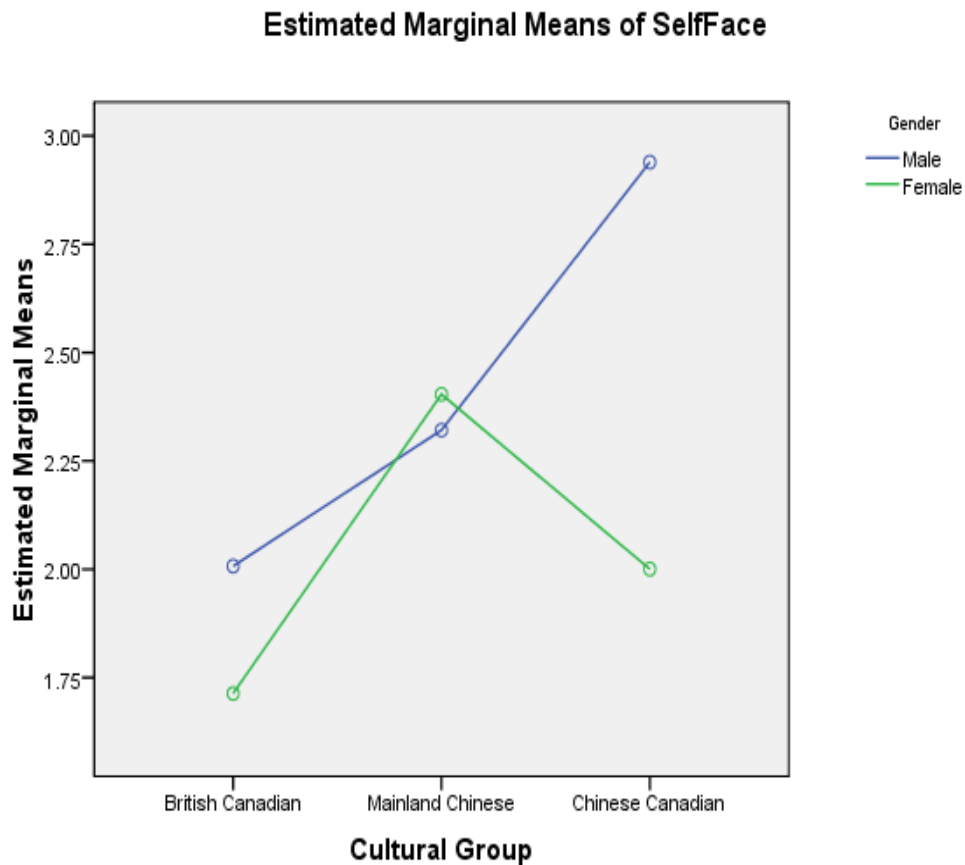
The interaction effect between gender and ethnicity on self-face was analyzed using plots (see Figure 10), simple effect analysis, and the Tukey HSD test (see Table 36a). The statistically significant interaction was a function of male Chinese Canadian older adults ( $M = 2.94$ ,  $SD = 1.28$ ) being more constrained by self-face than their Mainland Chinese ( $M = 2.32$ ,  $SD = 1.48$ ) and British Canadian ( $M = 2.01$ ,  $SD = .97$ ) counterparts. Conversely, female British Canadian older adults ( $M = 1.71$ ,  $SD = 1.02$ ) were only less concerned about self-face than their Mainland Chinese counterparts ( $M = 2.40$ ,  $SD = 1.53$ ). These results together produced the significant interaction effect.

With respect to the main effects on other-face, the main effect of gender showed that female older adults ( $M = 1.90$ ,  $SE = .07$ ) were less constrained than their male counterparts ( $M = 2.30$ ,  $SE = .08$ ). The main effect of ethnicity was assessed using the Tukey HSD multiple comparison test. Results showed that British Canadian older adults ( $M = 1.77$ ,  $SE = .10$ ) rated other-face significantly lower than their Chinese counterparts (Mainland Chinese:  $M = 2.38$ ,  $SE = .10$ ; Chinese Canadian:  $M = 2.15$ ,  $SE = .10$ ).

Table 36a

*Self-Face Mean Score as a Function of Gender and Ethnicity*

	Ethnicity								
	British Canadian			Mainland Chinese			Chinese Canadian		
Gender	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	N	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>
Male	2.01	.97	68	2.32	1.48	67	2.94	1.28	62
Female	1.71	1.02	82	2.40	1.53	83	2.00	1.23	88

*Figure 10.* Estimated marginal means for self-face.

In terms of Research Question 8b [*Does leisure constraint overall (including intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*], Table 37 reports that there was a statistically significant interaction effect between age and ethnicity,  $F(12, 640) = 3.37, p < .001$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .85$ ;  $\eta^2 = .05$ . Also, there was a statistically significant main effect for ethnicity,  $F(6, 484) = 14.88, p < .001$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .71$ ;  $\eta^2 = .16$ . This large effect size also suggested that ethnicity played a dominant role in differentiating older adults' levels of constraint for their spare-time activity participation. By using the Bonferroni alpha level adjustment, univariate analysis detected that: (a) a statistically significant interaction between age and ethnicity on structural constraints,  $F(4, 244) = 5.08, p < .001, \eta^2 = .08$ ; (b) a statistically significant main effect for ethnicity on intrapersonal constraints,  $F(2, 244) = 6.13, p < .01, \eta^2 = .01$  and on interpersonal constraints,  $F(2, 244) = 34.91, p < .001, \eta^2 = .22$ .

Table 37

*Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance for Leisure Constraint Overall (R8b)*

Source	Multivariate		Univariate			
	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>F</u>
Age	6, 484	1.31	2, 244	2.91	.14	.37
Ethnicity	6, 484	14.88***	2, 244	6.13**	34.91***	1.23
Age x Ethnicity	12, 640	3.37***	4, 244	2.98	.53	5.08***

*Note.* F ratio are Wilks' approximation of Fs. \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .001$ . By using Bonferroni adjustment, the alpha level of .05 was divided by number of dependent variables (3 in this case), giving a new alpha level of .017.

By using plots (see Figure 11), simple effect analysis, and the Tukey HSD test, I further explored the interaction effect between age and ethnicity on structural constraints (see Table 37a). In the end, I only detected a statistically significant result for the “65 to 74” group; that is, British Canadian older adults ( $M = 2.86$ ,  $SD = 1.23$ ) were less structurally constrained than their Mainland Chinese ( $M = 3.49$ ,  $SD = 1.07$ ) and Chinese Canadian ( $M = 3.96$ ,  $SD = 1.02$ ) counterparts.

As well, by using the Tukey HSD post hoc tests, I further assessed the main effect of ethnicity on intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints. In terms of the former, results showed that British Canadian older adults ( $M = 1.33$ ,  $SE = .12$ ) perceived/experienced significantly fewer intrapersonal constraints than did their Mainland Chinese ( $M = 1.95$ ,  $SE = .14$ ) and Chinese Canadian ( $M = 1.71$ ,  $SE = .10$ ) counterparts. In regard to the latter, results reported that these three ethnic/cultural groups were significantly different from each other. More specifically, Mainland Chinese older adults ( $M = 3.76$ ,  $SE = .16$ ) perceived/experienced significantly higher interpersonal constraints than Chinese Canadian ( $M = 3.24$ ,  $SE = .12$ ) and British Canadian ( $M = 2.08$ ,  $SE = .14$ ) older adults.

Table 37a

*Structural Constraints Mean Score as a Function of Age and Ethnicity*

Age	Ethnicity								
	British Canadian			Mainland Chinese			Chinese Canadian		
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>
55 – 64	3.73	1.10	16	3.48	1.24	78	3.58	1.16	20
65 – 74	2.86	1.23	64	3.49	1.07	53	3.96	1.02	71
75 and over	3.12	1.33	70	3.83	1.18	19	3.47	1.06	59

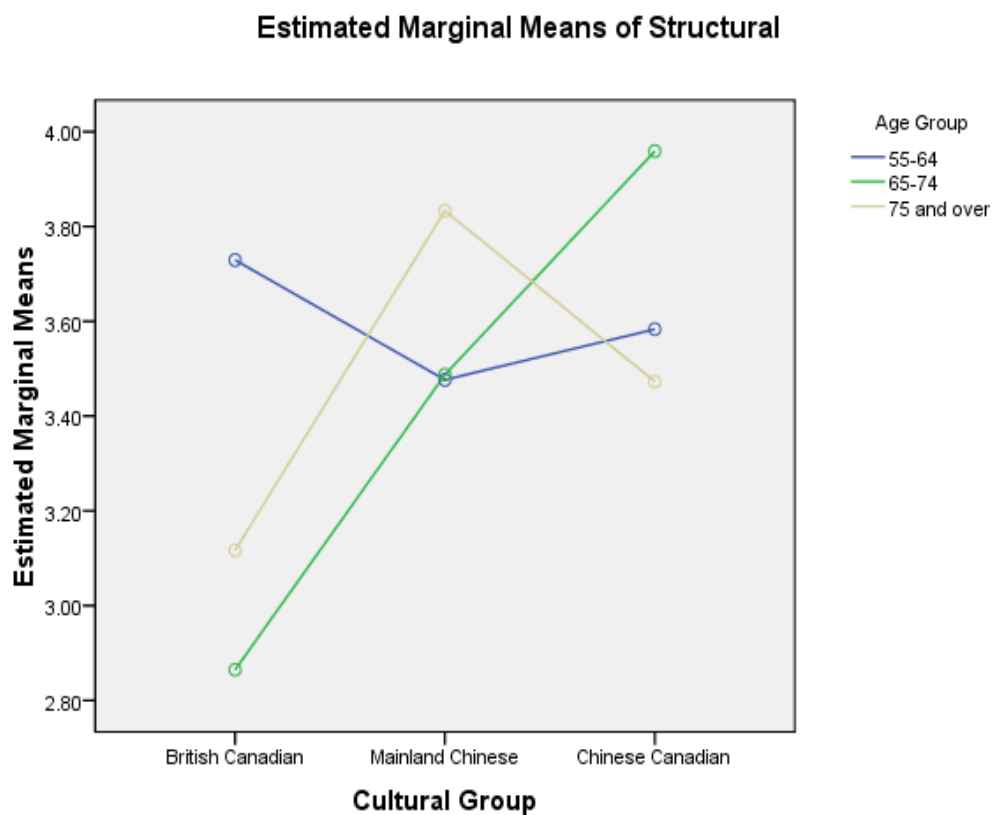


Figure 11. Estimated marginal means for structural constraints.

In terms of Research Question 9b [*Does leisure constraint overall (including intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*], Table 38 shows that there was a statistically significant interaction effect between gender and ethnicity,  $F(6, 884) = 2.21, p < .05$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .97$ ;  $\eta^2 = .02$ . Also, there were a statistically significant main effect for gender  $F(3, 442) = 3.05, p < .05$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .98$ ;  $\eta^2 = .02$  and a statistically significant main effect for ethnicity,  $F(6, 884) = 32.02, p < .001$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .68$ ;  $\eta^2 = .18$ . This large effect size again suggested that ethnicity played a dominant role in differentiating older adults' levels of constraint for their spare-time activity participation. By using the Bonferroni alpha level adjustment, univariate analysis, however, did not detect any statistically significant interaction between gender and ethnicity on all three types of constraints. Therefore, only two main effects were detected, including gender on intrapersonal constraints,  $F(1, 444) = 6.08, p < .05, \eta^2 = .01$ ; and ethnicity on all three types of constraints (intrapersonal:  $F(2, 444) = 17.35, p < .001, \eta^2 = .07$ ; interpersonal:  $F(2, 444) = 83.70, p < .001, \eta^2 = .27$ ; structural:  $F(2, 444) = 12.38, p < .001, \eta^2 = .05$ ).

The two main effects were assessed using the Tukey HSD multiple comparison tests. As to the main effects of gender, results showed that female older adults ( $M = 1.70, SE = .06$ ) were less intrapersonally-constrained than their male ( $M = 1.91, SE = .07$ ) counterparts. While for the main effect of ethnicity, in line with the above findings in Research Questions 8b, results showed that British Canadian older adults ( $M = 1.44, SE = .08$ ) perceived/experienced significantly fewer intrapersonal constraints than did their Mainland Chinese ( $M = 1.93, SE = .08$ ) and Chinese Canadian ( $M = 1.71, SE = .10$ ) counterparts. Also similar is that these three ethnic/cultural groups were significantly different from each other regarding interpersonal constraints. That is, Mainland Chinese older adults ( $M = 3.62, SE = .09$ ) perceived/experienced significantly more interpersonal constraints



than Chinese Canadian ( $M = 3.33$ ,  $SE = .09$ ) and British Canadian ( $M = 2.13$ ,  $SE = .09$ ) older adults. In addition, similar to the results in intrapersonal constraints, British Canadian older adults ( $M = 3.08$ ,  $SE = .10$ ) were also less structurally-constrained than their Chinese counterparts (Mainland Chinese:  $M = 3.52$ ,  $SE = .10$ ; Chinese Canadian:  $M = 3.75$ ,  $SE = .10$ ).

Table 38

*Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance for Leisure Constraint Overall (R9b)*

Source	Multivariate		Univariate			
	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>F</u>
Gender	3, 442	3.05*	1, 444	6.08*	.02	1.50
Ethnicity	6, 884	32.02***	2, 444	17.35***	83.70***	12.38***
Gender x Ethnicity	6, 884	2.21*	2, 444	3.68	2.94	1.28

*Note.* F ratio are Wilks' approximation of Fs. \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*\*  $p < .001$ . By using Bonferroni adjustment, the alpha level of .05 was divided by number of dependent variables (3 in this case), giving a new alpha level of .017.

A separate research question was also developed specifically for Chinese Canadians:

- *R10: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' leisure constraint overall?*

As with Research Question 4, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to investigate the relationship between one continuous dependent variable (i.e., leisure constraint overall) and three independent variables (i.e., age, gender, and acculturation). Again, both age and gender were entered in the first step; while non-dominant culture and dominant culture were entered in steps 2 and 3, respectively.

Before constructing the multivariate model, bivariate analyses were used to detect the correlations between each explanatory/independent variable (i.e., age, gender, and acculturation) and leisure constraint overall. To determine the strength of the relationships, the aforementioned Cohen's (1988) guideline was used once again. Results (see Table 39) showed a small, negative correlation with gender ( $r = -.29, n = 150, p < .001$ ), with men (coded as 1, women coded as 2) associated with higher levels of constraints; a small, positive correlation with non-dominant culture ( $r = .26, n = 150, p < .001$ ), with being more influenced by non-dominant culture associated with higher levels of constraints; and a small, positive correlation with dominant culture ( $r = .21, n = 150, p < .006$ ), with being more influenced by dominant culture associated with higher levels of constraints. The age variable showed no correlation with respondents' leisure constraints.

Table 39

*Correlations among Leisure Constraint Overall, Gender, Age, Dominant Culture, and Non-dominant Culture*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1. leisure constraint overall	---	-.29***	.06	.21**	.26***
2. Gender		---	-.04	-.24***	-.10
3. Age			---	.09	-.06
4. Dominant culture				---	.35***
5. Non-dominant culture					---

*Note.* \*\*  $p < .01$ , 1-tailed. \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , 1-tailed.  $N = 150$ .

To meet the assumption of multiple regression that correlations between independent variables are low, relationships among the four independent variables (i.e., age, gender, dominant culture, and non-dominant culture) were examined. Table 39 shows that all the correlations among these variables were small or medium based on Cohen's (1988) benchmarks.

As shown in Table 40, age and gender were entered at step 1, explaining about 9% of the variance in leisure constraint overall,  $F(2, 147) = 6.88, p < .001$ . At step 2, with the entry of non-dominant culture, the total variance explained by the model as a whole increased significantly to 14%,  $F(3, 146) = 8.11, p < .001$ . Non-dominant culture explained an additional 5% of the variance in leisure constraint overall, after controlling for age and gender,  $R^2$  change = .06,  $F$  change (1, 146) = 9.74,  $p < .01$ . Finally, dominant culture was entered at step 3, the total variance explained by the model as a whole only increased by 1% (15%),  $F(4, 145) = 6.20, p < .001$ . In the final model, only gender and non-dominant

culture were statistically significant, with gender recording a higher beta value ( $\beta = -.25, p < .01$ ) than non-dominant culture ( $\beta = .22, p < .01$ ).

Table 40

*Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Leisure Constraint Overall (R10)*

Regressor and predictor variable(s)	B	$\beta$	$R^2$	F Change
<b>Model 1</b>			.09	6.88***
Age	.06	-.05		
Gender	-.66***	-.29***		
<b>Model 2</b>			.14	9.74***
Age	.08	.07		
Gender	-.43***	-.26***		
Non-dominant culture	.21**	.24**		
<b>Model 3</b>			.15	.54
Age	.07	.06		
Gender	-.40**	-.25**		
Non-dominant culture	.19**	.22**		
Dominant culture	.06	.06		

Note. \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

(3) The following list of research questions examined constraint negotiation overall:

- *R11: Does leisure constraint negotiation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R12: Does leisure constraint negotiation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

Jackson et al. (1993) categorized negotiation into either cognitive or behavioural strategies. While the former is the strategies people can use to reduce their cognitive dissonance through devaluing an unchosen or constrained activity, the latter is the methods people may use to actually change their behaviours. Thus, it is more reasonable to inspect these two strategies separately. As a result, two sub-questions for each of the above were developed.

- *R11a: Do cognitive strategies differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R11b: Do behavioural strategies differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R12a: Do cognitive strategies differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*
- *R12b: Do behavioural strategies differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

In Jackson and Rucks' (1995) negotiation scales, cognitive strategies only accounted for one category. Therefore, for *R11a* and *R12a*, two two-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were run to explore the "main" and "interaction" effect of two independent variables (i.e., age and ethnicity; gender and ethnicity) on one dependent variable (i.e., cognitive strategies). For *R11b* and *R12b*, two two-factor multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) tests were carried out to examine whether behavioural strategies (six categories) differ, using

ethnicity, age, and gender as the independent variables. If the MANOVA tests' results indicated significant differences exist, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to investigate the sources of those differences.

For Research Question 11a, Table 41 indicates that the interaction effect between age and ethnicity was statistically significant,  $F(4, 441) = 2.53, p = .040$ . However, a significant result of the Levene's test of equality of error variance suggested that the variance of the dependent variables (cognitive strategies) is not equal. A more stringent significant level (e.g., .01) for evaluating the results was thereby used (Pallant, 2010). As a consequence, the interaction was not significant at .01 level. There was only a statistically significant main effect for age,  $F(2, 441) = 7.70, p < .001$ . However, the effect size was small ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the "75 and over" group ( $M = 3.44, SD = 1.45$ ) utilized cognitive strategies significantly less than did their "55-64" ( $M = 3.84, SD = 1.09$ ) and the "65-74" ( $M = 4.02, SD = 1.13$ ) counterparts. The main effect for ethnicity,  $F(2, 441) = 1.16, p = .314$ , did not reach statistical significance.

Table 41

*ANOVA Results for Main and Interaction Effect of Age and Ethnicity on Cognitive Strategies (R11a)*

Source	<i>Df</i>	<i>F</i>	$\eta^2$	<i>p</i>
(A) Ethnicity	2	1.16	.01	.314
(B) Age	2	7.70	.03	.001
A x B (Interaction)	4	2.53	.04	.040
Error (within groups)	441			

For research question 12a, according to Table 42, neither interaction effect between gender and ethnicity nor main effects of these two variables was detected. All three ethnic/cultural groups, regardless of gender, had very close mean scores ranging from 3.60 to 3.98.

Table 42

*ANOVA Results for Main and Interaction Effect of Gender and Ethnicity on Cognitive Strategies (R12a)*

Source	<i>Df</i>	<i>F</i>	$\eta^2$	<i>p</i>
(A) Ethnicity	2	1.61	.01	.202
(B) Gender	1	.52	.00	.472
A x B (Interaction)	2	.24	.00	.788
Error (within groups)	444			

In terms of Research Question 11b (*Do behavioural strategies differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*), Table 43 indicates that there was a statistically significant interaction effect between age and ethnicity,  $F(12, 878) = 2.09, p < .05$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .95$ ;  $\eta^2 = .02$ . Also, there were a statistically significant main effect for age,  $F(6, 878) = 5.35, p < .001$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .93$ ;  $\eta^2 = .04$  and a statistically significant main effect for ethnicity,  $F(6, 878) = 13.57, p < .001$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .84$ ;  $\eta^2 = .09$ . By using the Bonferroni alpha level adjustment, the univariate analysis, however, did not detect any statistically significant interaction between age and ethnicity on all three types of behavioural strategies. Therefore, only two main effects were detected, including age on the two types of behavioural strategies (modify time:  $F(2, 441) = 11.00, p < .001, \eta^2 = .05$ ; acquire skills:  $F(2, 441) = 13.85, p < .001, \eta^2 = .06$ ) and ethnicity on the two types of behavioural strategies (acquire skills:  $F(2, 441) = 5.07, p < .01, \eta^2 = .02$ ; physical therapy:  $F(2, 441) = 35.36, p < .001, \eta^2 = .14$ ).

The main effect of age was assessed using the Tukey HSD multiple comparison test. Results showed that for both “modify time” and “acquire skills”, the “75 and over” group ( $M = 4.52, SE = .09$  &  $M = 4.13, SE = .10$ , respectively) employed these strategies significantly less than did their “55-64” ( $M = 4.89, SE = .11$  &  $M = 4.68, SE = .12$ , respectively) and the “65-74” ( $M = 5.03, SE = .07$  &  $M = 4.78, SE = .08$ , respectively) counterparts.

As for ethnicity's main effect, Tukey HSD post hoc tests reported that for both “acquire skills” and “physical therapy”, British Canadian older adults ( $M = 4.27, SE = .10$  &  $M = 3.30, SE = .15$ , respectively) were significantly less likely to choose these strategies than their Mainland Chinese ( $M = 4.67, SE = .10$  &  $M = 4.83, SE = .14$ , respectively) and Chinese Canadian ( $M = 4.65, SE = .10$  &  $M = 4.70, SE = .14$ , respectively) counterparts.



Table 43

*Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance for Behavioural Strategies (R11b)*

Source	Multivariate		Univariate			
	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>df</u>	Modify Time <u>F</u>	Acquire Skills <u>F</u>	Physical Therapy <u>F</u>
Age	6, 878	5.35***	2, 441	11.00***	13.85***	2.35
Ethnicity	6, 878	13.57***	2, 441	1.02	5.07**	35.36***
Age x Ethnicity	12, 878	2.09*	4, 441	.78	2.55	1.14

*Note.* F ratio are Wilks' approximation of Fs. \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .001$ . By using Bonferroni adjustment, the alpha level of .05 was divided by number of dependent variables (3 in this case), giving a new alpha level of .017.

For Research Question 12b (*Do behavioural strategies differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*), Table 44 shows that there was not a statistically significant interaction effect between gender and ethnicity,  $F(6, 884) = 1.41, p = .208$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .98$ ;  $\eta^2 = .01$ . However, there was a statistically significant main effect for ethnicity,  $F(6, 884) = 25.95, p < .001$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .72$ ;  $\eta^2 = .15$ . Once again, this large effect size further emphasized that ethnicity played a dominant role in differentiating older adults' levels of employing behavioural strategies for their spare-time activity participation. Finally, there was a nearly statistically significant main effect for gender,  $F(3, 442) = 2.60, p = .052$ ; Wilks'  $\Lambda = .98$ ;  $\eta^2 = .02$ . By using the Bonferroni alpha level adjustment, univariate analysis did not detect any statistically significant interaction between gender and ethnicity on all three types of behavioural strategies. Thus, only two main effects were detected, including gender on "modify time",  $F(1, 444) = 7.66, p < .01, \eta^2 = .02$  and ethnicity on "acquire skills",  $F(2, 444) = 11.44, p < .001, \eta^2 = .05$  and "physical therapy",  $F(2, 444) = 64.64, p < .001, \eta^2 = .23$ .

The two main effects were assessed using the Tukey HSD multiple comparison tests. As to the main effects of gender, results showed that female older adults ( $M = 4.95, SE = .06$ ) were more likely to modify their time than their male ( $M = 4.71, SE = .06$ ) counterparts. While for the main effect of ethnicity, in consistent with the above findings in Research Questions 11b, results showed that for both "acquire skills" and "physical therapy", British Canadian older adults ( $M = 4.30, SE = .09$  &  $M = 3.17, SE = .12$ , respectively) were significantly less likely to use these strategies than their Mainland Chinese ( $M = 4.88, SE = .09$  &  $M = 4.81, SE = .12$ , respectively) and Chinese Canadian ( $M = 4.60, SE = .09$  &  $M = 4.81, SE = .12$ , respectively) counterparts.

Table 44

*Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance for Behavioural Strategies (R12b)*

Source	Multivariate		Univariate			
	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>F</u>
Gender	3, 442	2.60	1, 444	7.66**	1.97	2.02
Ethnicity	6, 884	25.95***	2, 444	3.40	11.44***	64.64***
Gender x Ethnicity	6, 884	1.41	2, 444	.41	.79	3.46

*Note.* F ratio are Wilks' approximation of Fs. \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .001$ . By using Bonferroni adjustment, the alpha level of .05 was divided by number of dependent variables (3 in this case), giving a new alpha level of .017.

For Chinese Canadians only:

- *R13: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese older adults' leisure constraint negotiation overall?*

Once again, cognitive and behavioural strategies were investigated separately. Consequently, two sub-questions were:

- *R13a: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' cognitive strategies?*
- *R13b: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' behavioural strategies?*

Similar to Research Question 4, two hierarchical multiple regression analyses were used to investigate the relationships between three independent variables (i.e., age, gender, and acculturation) and two different continuous dependent variables (i.e., cognitive and behavioural strategies), respectively. Once again, both age and gender were entered in the first step; while non-dominant culture and dominant culture were entered in steps 2 and 3, respectively.

In regard to Research Question 13a, before constructing the multivariate model, bivariate analyses were used to detect the correlations between each explanatory/independent variable (i.e., age, gender, and acculturation) and cognitive strategies. To determine the strength of the relationships, the aforementioned Cohen's (1988) guideline was used again. Results (see Table 45) showed a small, negative correlation with age ( $r = -.26, n = 150, p < .001$ ), with older age associated with less possibility of using cognitive strategies; a medium, positive correlation with non-dominant culture ( $r = .34, n = 150, p < .001$ ), with being more influenced by non-dominant culture associated with higher possibility of using cognitive strategies; and a medium, positive correlation with dominant culture ( $r = .30, n = 150, p < .001$ ), with being more influenced by dominant culture associated with higher possibility of using cognitive strategies. The gender

variable showed no correlation with respondents' cognitive strategies.

Table 45

*Correlations among Cognitive Strategies, Gender, Age, Dominant Culture, and Non-dominant Culture*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1. Cognitive strategies	---	-.003	-.26***	.34***	.30***
2. Gender		---	-.04	-.24***	-.10
3. Age			---	.09	-.06
4. Dominant culture				---	.35***
5. Non-dominant culture					---

*Note.* \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , 1-tailed.  $N = 150$ .

To meet the assumption of multiple regression that correlations between independent variables are low, relationships among the four independent variables (i.e., age, gender, dominant culture, and non-dominant culture) were tested. Table 45 shows that all the correlations among these variables were small or medium based on Cohen's (1988) benchmarks.

As shown in Table 46, age and gender were entered at step 1, explaining only 7% of the variance in cognitive strategies,  $F(2, 147) = 5.23$ ,  $p < .01$ . However, from step 2, with the entry of non-dominant culture, the total variance explained by the model as a whole increased significantly to 17%,  $F(3, 146) = 10.20$ ,  $p < .001$ . Non-dominant culture explained an additional 10% of the variance in cognitive strategies, after controlling for age and gender,  $R$  squared change = .11,  $F$  change (1, 146) = 18.87,  $p < .001$ . At step 3, dominant culture was entered and the total variance explained by the model as a whole increased

continuously to 23%,  $F(4, 145) = 10.74, p < .001$ . This time, dominant culture added 6% to the variance in cognitive strategies, after controlling for age, gender, and non-dominant culture,  $R$  squared change = .06,  $F$  change (1, 145) = 10.38,  $p < .01$ . In the final model, age, non-dominant culture, and dominant culture were statistically significant, with very close beta values (age:  $\beta = -.26, p < .001$ ; non-dominant culture:  $\beta = .24, p < .01$ ; dominant culture:  $\beta = .26, p < .01$ ).

Table 46

*Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Cognitive Strategies (13a)*

Regressor and predictor variable(s)	B	$\beta$	$R^2$	$F$ Change
<b>Model 1</b>			.07	5.23**
Age	-.49**	-.05**		
Gender	-.66	-.29		
<b>Model 2</b>			.17	18.87***
Age	-.45**	-.24**		
Gender	.05	.02		
Non-dominant culture	.46***	.33***		
<b>Model 3</b>			.23	10.38**
Age	-.50***	-.26***		
Gender	.19	.07		
Non-dominant culture	.34**	.24**		
Dominant culture	.41**	.26**		

Note. \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

With respect to Research Question 13b, before constructing the multivariate model, bivariate analyses were used to detect the correlations between each explanatory/independent variable (i.e., age, gender, and acculturation) and behavioural strategies. To determine the strength of the relationship, the abovementioned Cohen's (1988) guideline was used again. Results (see Table 47) showed a small, negative correlation with age ( $r = -.19$ ,  $n = 150$ ,  $p < .05$ ), with older age associated with less possibility of using behavioural strategies; a large, positive correlation with non-dominant culture ( $r = .60$ ,  $n = 150$ ,  $p < .001$ ), with being more influenced by non-dominant culture associated with higher possibility of using behavioural strategies; and a medium, positive correlation with dominant culture ( $r = .48$ ,  $n = 150$ ,  $p < .001$ ), with being more influenced by dominant culture associated with higher possibility of using behavioural strategies. The gender variable showed no correlation with respondents' behavioural strategies.

Table 47

*Correlations among Behavioural Strategies, Gender, Age, Dominant Culture, and Non-dominant Culture*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1. Behavioural strategies	---	-.004	-.19**	.60***	.46***
2. Gender		---	-.04	-.24***	-.10
3. Age			---	.09	-.06
4. Dominant culture				---	.35***
5. Non-dominant culture					---

*Note.* \*\*  $p < .01$ , 1-tailed. \*\*\*  $p < .001$ , 1-tailed.  $N = 150$ .

To meet the assumption of multiple regression that correlations between independent variables are low, relationships among the four independent variables (i.e., age, gender, dominant culture, and non-dominant culture) were tested. Table 47 shows that all the correlations among these variables were small or medium based on Cohen's (1988) benchmarks.

As displayed in Table 48, age and gender were entered at step 1, explaining only 4% of the variance in behavioural strategies,  $F(2, 147) = 2.70, p < .07$ . However, from step 2, with the entry of non-dominant culture, the total variance explained by the model as a whole increased dramatically to 39%,  $F(3, 146) = 30.41, p < .001$ . Non-dominant culture explained an additional 35% of the variance in cognitive strategies, after controlling for age and gender,  $R$  squared change = .35,  $F$  change  $(1, 146) = 82.82, p < .001$ . Again, at step 3, dominant culture was entered and the total variance explained by the model as a whole increased continuously to 49%,  $F(4, 145) = 34.63, p < .001$ . This time, dominant culture added another 10% to the variance in behavioural strategies, after controlling for age, gender, and non-dominant culture,  $R$  squared change = .10,  $F$  change  $(1, 145) = 29.50, p < .001$ . In the final model, age, non-dominant culture, and dominant culture were statistically significant, with non-dominant culture recording the highest beta values ( $\beta = .48, p < .001$ ) that was relatively higher than dominant culture ( $\beta = .36, p < .001$ ) and much higher than age ( $\beta = -.19, p < .01$ ).



Table 48  
*Hierarchical Regression Analyses Predicting Behavioural Strategies (13b)*

Regressor and predictor variable(s)	B	$\beta$	$R^2$	$F$ Change
<b>Model 1</b>			.04	2.70
Age	-.27*	-.19*		
Gender	-.02	-.01		
<b>Model 2</b>			.39	82.82***
Age	-.22*	-.15*		
Gender	.10	.05		
Non-dominant culture	.63***	.24***		
<b>Model 3</b>			.49	29.50***
Age	-.27**	-.19**		
Gender	.24	.12		
Non-dominant culture	.50***	.48***		
Dominant culture	.42***	.36***		

*Note.* \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

To summarize, this chapter has reported my sample's descriptive information as well as, and perhaps more importantly, the statistical results of my analyses in regard to each of my research questions. In the next chapter, the latter results were discussed in greater detail and context.

## Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of this cross-cultural study was to investigate what factors affect older adults' general leisure participation. More specifically, it explored how age, gender, ethnicity, and acculturation affect motivations, leisure constraints, and constraint negotiation. This chapter discusses the outcomes in relation to each of my research questions followed by theoretical and practical implications, study limitations, as well as future research directions.

### Research Questions

Because, after collecting my data, some alternative statistical tests were determined to be more appropriate, the 17 original research questions proposed in the first three chapters were changed to 18 final research questions. In order to facilitate understanding, these 18 questions along with their corresponding statistical tests are listed in Table 49. Also, these questions are divided into five sub-sections: (1) correlations among micro level factors (to address *R1*), (2) leisure participation (to address *R2* to *R4*), (3) motivations (to address *R5* to *R7*), (4) constraints (to address *R8a* to *R10*), and (5) constraint negotiation (to address *R11a* to *R13b*).

Table 49

#### *Final Research Questions and Statistical Tests*

Research Questions	Statistical Tests
<i>R1: Do the associations among average leisure motivation, average leisure constraint, and average constraint negotiation differ by age, gender, ethnicity, or, in the case of Chinese Canadians, acculturation?</i>	Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients
<i>R2: Does leisure participation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i>	Two-factor ANOVA tests

<i>R3: Does leisure participation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i>	
<i>R4: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' leisure participation overall?</i>	Hierarchical multiple regression tests
<i>R5: Does leisure motivation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i>	Two-factor MANOVA tests
<i>R6: Does leisure motivation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i>	
<i>R7: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' leisure motivation overall?</i>	Hierarchical multiple regression tests
<i>R8a: Does face overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i>	Two-factor MANOVA tests
<i>R8b: Does leisure constraint overall (including intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i>	
<i>R9a: Does face overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i>	
<i>R9b: Does leisure constraint overall (including intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i>	
<i>R10: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' leisure constraint overall?</i>	Hierarchical multiple regression tests
<i>R11a: Do cognitive strategies differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i>	Two-factor ANOVA tests
<i>R11b: Do behavioural strategies differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i>	Two-factor MANOVA tests
<i>R12a: Do cognitive strategies differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i>	Two-factor ANOVA tests
<i>R12b: Do behavioural strategies differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i>	Two-factor MANOVA tests
<i>R13a: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' cognitive strategies?</i>	Hierarchical multiple regression tests
<i>R13b: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' behavioural strategies?</i>	

### **Correlations among micro level factors.**

- *R1: Do the associations among average leisure motivation, average leisure constraint, and average constraint negotiation differ by age, gender, ethnicity, or, in the case of Chinese Canadians, acculturation?*

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to test the correlations among these variables for all three ethnic/cultural groups (see Table 23 to 25). For Chinese Canadians, “acculturation” was added to the analysis. To determine the strength of the relationship, Cohen (1988) suggested the following guidelines:  $r = .10$  to  $.29$  or  $r = -.10$  to  $-.29$  indicates small correlations;  $r = .30$  to  $.49$  or  $r = -.30$  to  $-.49$  indicates medium correlations; and  $r = .50$  to  $1.0$  or  $r = -.50$  to  $-1.0$  indicates large correlations. The following discussion is based on these three ethnic/cultural groups.

For British Canadian older adults, their “motivation” was moderately relevant to their “constraint” ( $-.31$ ), “negotiation” ( $.38$ ), “age” ( $-.25$ ), and “gender” ( $.30$ ). The negative correlation between “motivation” and “constraint” is generally supported by previous research (e.g., Alexandris et al., 2002; Carroll & Alexandris, 1997) although Hubbard and Mannell (2001) did not detect any significant relationships between these two in their study. Similarly, the positive correlation between “motivation” and “negotiation” in my study has been reported in many studies over the past decade (e.g., Alexandris et al., 2007; Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Son et al., 2008; White, 2008). The negative correlation between “motivation” and “age” suggested that the older a person is, the lower level of motivation the person manifests, which is consistent with previous research (e.g., Jackson & Henderson, 1995; Shaw & Henderson, 2005). However, this small correlation suggests to researchers that age might not be a critical indicator of motivation level because leisure experiences, regardless of people’s age, are very important to successful aging (Orsega-Smith et al., 2004). Finally, the positive

correlation between “motivation” and “gender” suggested that female British Canadian older adults were more motivated to participate in leisure activities than their male counterparts, which contradicts with Shaw and Henderson’s (2005) finding that males usually report higher levels of leisure activity involvement than females. This contradictory finding was found between “constraint” and “gender” (-.18) as well, with male British Canadian older adults being associated with a higher level of constraint. One possible explanation for this might be because men usually have fewer social relationships than women, they usually experience more interpersonal constraints (Henderson & Ainsworth, 2000). Nevertheless, the close to small and small correlations for the above two sets of variables also indicate that the gender difference might not be so significant among older populations. Results from Alexandris et al. (2003) and Son et al.’s (2008) studies partially supported this point.

As opposed to their British Canadian counterparts, Mainland Chinese older adults’ “motivation” was not relevant to the other four variables, which might be because the motivation scales in general worked better for the British Canadian group (see Table 17). Two statistically significant correlations were between “constraint” and “negotiation” (.30) and between “negotiation” and “gender” (.17). The former positive correlation reinforces previous studies (e.g., Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Jackson & Rucks, 1995) and is consistent with findings from my qualitative research: that is, compared to their two groups of Canadian counterparts, Mainland Chinese older adults experienced more structural and intrapersonal constraints and were more likely to employ certain cognitive and behavioural strategies (see details on pp. 230-231 in Chapter 4). With respect to the latter, female Mainland Chinese older adults tended to employ more negotiation strategies, which could be because they experienced not only global constraints such as internalized “ethic of care” (Henderson et al., 1996),

but also culturally-based barriers such as peer and family expectation about appropriate behaviours for women (Tirone & Shaw, 1997).

In regard to Chinese Canadian older adults, most variables had either positive or negative relationships between each other. More specifically:

- As with their British Canadian peers, Chinese Canadian older adults' "motivation" was positively correlated with "negotiation" (.17) and negatively associated with "age" (-.27). Surprisingly, their levels of "motivation" to participate in mainstream leisure activities declined with their increased levels of "acculturation" (-.16). This is understandable, however, because participating in their own ethnic leisure activities (instead of mainstream leisure activities) not only helps them maintain their ethnic identities (Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004), but is more intrinsically-motivated than mainstream leisure activities such as hockey (Mobily et al., 1993).
- As to "constraint", it was positively correlated with "negotiation" (.39) and "acculturation" (.29), but was negatively correlated with "gender" (-.29). Again, the correlation between "constraint" and "negotiation" is well supported in previous literature (e.g., Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Jackson & Rucks, 1995). But the correlation between "constraint" and "acculturation" is in contrast to previous finding that under most conditions, the level of acculturation is negatively related to leisure constraints in terms of mainstream leisure activities (Stodolska, 1998; Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004; Yu & Berryman, 1996). The above reason used to explain "motivation" and "acculturation" could be applied here as well. In addition, it might be because the higher level of acculturation a person possesses, the more opportunities the person will be exposed to mainstream leisure activities, the more likely the person needs to learn

new skills (which lead to more constraints). With reference to “gender”, the abovementioned reason used to explain their British Canadian peers (Henderson & Ainsworth, 2000) could possibly describe male Chinese Canadian older adults’ situation, too. Furthermore, the concept of face offers a potential underlying reason. For instance, after checking the mean scores regarding gender differences in self- and other-face (see Table 37), it is evident that male Chinese Canadian older adults were more concerned about both self- (Male:  $M = 2.94$ ,  $SD = 1.28$  vs. Female:  $M = 2.00$ ,  $SD = 1.23$ ) and other-face (Male:  $M = 2.49$ ,  $SD = 1.05$  vs. Female:  $M = 1.80$ ,  $SD = 1.07$ ) than their female counterparts.

- In terms of “negotiation”, except for the aforementioned correlations, it was negatively correlated with age (-.25) and positively correlated with “acculturation” (.55). The former could be explained from two different perspectives: (a) retaining remaining abilities to maintain self-confidence through non-participation (Phelan & Larson, 2002) and (b) having already mastered relevant negotiation strategies in earlier stages of lives (Son et al., 2008). The latter positive correlation lends support to the above positive correlation between “constraint” and “acculturation”; that is, in order to deal with the increasing constraints associated with higher levels of acculturation, Chinese Canadian older adults need to employ more negotiation strategies. The qualitative research results partially supported this large correlation (e.g., Chinese Canadian older adults indicated much greater desire to acquire skills).
- The last correlation was between “acculturation” and “gender” (-.20), with being male associated with higher levels of acculturation. This result is consistent with Stodolska and Alexandris’ (2004) finding that female immigrants are more likely to encounter difficulty in acculturating to the

new culture due to their lower level of income. As well, women's caring responsibilities (Henderson et al., 1996) and cultural expectation regarding appropriate behaviours for women (Tirone & Shaw, 1997) may also limit female Chinese Canadian older adults' ability to acculturate to the mainstream culture. Once again, the small correlation suggests that gender may not have a great deal of practical significance among older populations.

In sum, cultural differences are evident among these correlations.

However, based on Cohen's (1988) benchmarks, many of them only showed small and medium effects, suggesting that the associations among these variables are complex and, further, that understanding different ethnic/cultural groups' leisure behaviours is a complicated process.

### **Leisure participation.**

This section focuses on whether leisure participation overall differs by (a) age, ethnicity, or the interaction between the two; and (b) gender, ethnicity, or the interactions between the two. As well, specifically for Chinese Canadian older adults, this section investigates the relationship between leisure participation overall and a number of independent variables (i.e., age, gender, and acculturation). Each of these questions will be discussed separately.

- *R2: Does leisure participation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

Result of the ANOVA test showed that there were two statistically significant main effects for age ( $F(2, 441) = 24.81, p < .001$ ) and ethnicity ( $F(2, 441) = 8.08, p < .001$ ), respectively. Post-hoc comparisons further emphasized that all three age groups and three ethnic/cultural groups were significantly different from each other. By checking the mean scores of the three age groups (i.e., "55-64",  $M = 3.32, SD = .61$ ; "65-74",  $M = 3.10, SD = .61$ ; "75 and over",  $M$



= 2.81,  $SD = .59$ ), we can see that leisure activity participation generally declines with age (e.g., Jackson & Henderson, 1995; Shaw & Henderson, 2005). However, as Hooyman and Asuman Kiyak (1999) pointed out, we cannot define a person as an “older adult” simply by his or her chronological age because his or her personal emotions, adjustment, and attitude towards age also affect his or her actual physical conditions considerably. For example, in one of the senior centres where I collected data, it is not uncommon to see some people who are over 90 years old still participate in leisure programs actively, while some people who are in their early 60s always attribute their inactive lifestyles to their chronological age. This situation is reflected in age’s small to medium in size ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ) in my study, which suggests the difference between the three age groups appears be of smaller practical significance.

On the other hand, ethnicity, with its greater effect size ( $\eta^2 = .10$ ), plays a more important role in differentiating among these three ethnic/cultural groups. By checking the mean values (i.e., British Canadian,  $M = 3.11$ ,  $SD = .55$ ; Mainland Chinese,  $M = 3.35$ ,  $SD = .53$ ; Chinese Canadian,  $M = 2.73$ ,  $SD = .65$ ), we can conclude that Chinese Canadian older adults are the least “active” group, which is in line with results of the descriptive analyses on their spare-time activities (see Table 10). That is, compared to the other two ethnic/cultural groups, Chinese Canadian older adults almost participated in every activity less frequently except for caring for family members. Previous studies (e.g., Henderson & Ainsworth, 2001; Su et al., 2006) and my qualitative research both reinforce this point even though Chinese Canadian older adults considered attending to grandchildren to be both a leisure activity and a constraint to leisure participation.

At this point, we can already draw a rough conclusion that older adults’ leisure participation does vary across ethnicities. But recall from the Walker and Virden’s (2005) constraints model (see Figure 2), people’s actual participation is a

complex decision-making process that involves both the micro level (e.g., motivations, constraints, and constraint negotiation) and macro level (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity, and acculturation) factors. Thus, the next three sets of research questions (i.e., *R5* to *R13b*) attempt to discover more specific reasons for these participation differences among the three ethnic/cultural groups in terms of motivations, constraints, and constraint negotiation processes.

- *R3: Does leisure participation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

Result of the ANOVA test revealed that there was a statistically significant interaction effect between gender and ethnicity ( $F(2, 444) = 8.19, p < .001$ ); that is, the influence of ethnicity on a person's leisure participation depends on his or her gender. This outcome is in accord with Walker et al. (2006) and Walker's (2008) findings that ethnicity and gender play a differentiating role. In my study, for males, only the mean score for Mainland Chinese ( $M = 3.32, SD = .53$ ) was significantly different from both the British Canadian ( $M = 2.97, SD = .52$ ) and Chinese Canadian ( $M = 2.89, SD = .65$ ); while for females, only the mean score for Chinese Canadian ( $M = 2.61, SD = .63$ ) was significantly different from both the British Canadian ( $M = 3.22, SD = .55$ ) and Mainland Chinese ( $M = 3.37, SD = .54$ ). However, the actual differences in the mean scores of the groups were very small, which were evident in the small to medium effect size obtained ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ). As well, although only the interaction effect matters in my result, as opposed to gender's non-significant main effect and its extreme small effect size ( $\eta^2 = .00$ ), ethnicity's statistically significant main effect and its large effect size ( $\eta^2 = .15$ ) make me ponder "Is there really a gender difference?" Pallant (2010) warned researchers that "with a large enough sample (in this case,  $N = 450$ ) quite small differences can become statistically significant, even if the difference between the groups is of little practical importance" (p. 255). Therefore, she reminded

researchers to take into consideration all of the available information. Again, as mentioned above, because people's actual participation is a complex decision-making process involving both the micro and macro level factors, I felt that my uncertainty about the effect of gender might be clarified after examining participants' motivations, constraints, and constraint negotiation.

- *R4: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' leisure participation overall?*

By using a hierarchical multiple regression (with age and gender being entered first followed by non-dominant culture, and then dominant culture), this question investigated the relative amount of contribution of each of the explanatory variables (i.e., age, gender, and acculturation) to Chinese Canadian older adults' leisure participation overall.

In the final multivariate model, only age and gender were statistically significant, with gender recording a slightly higher beta value ( $\beta = -.27, p < .001$ ) than age ( $\beta = -.25, p < .001$ ). That is, for Chinese Canadian older adults, being older and/or women are associated with lower levels of leisure participation, whereas the acculturation level does not have any effect on leisure participation. This result again is congruent with previous research (e.g., Jackson & Henderson, 1995; Shaw & Henderson, 2005) that males report higher levels of leisure activity involvement than females and that the leisure activity participation generally declines with age.

With a beta value of only .01 for non-dominant culture and -.16 for dominant culture (see Table 29), acculturation had a marginal and non-significant effect on Chinese Canadian older adults' leisure participation. As noted in the literature, while there is support for positive relation between leisure participation and acculturation level (Kim, 2000), counter-findings also exist (Kim, Scott, & Oh, 2005). Thus, one possible explanation could be regardless of their

acculturation level, some older people choose non-participation to retain their remaining abilities for maintaining self-confidence (Phelan & Larson, 2002). Furthermore, it seems like that bi-acculturated people may have more opportunities/choices to participate in both mainstream and ethnic leisure activities. Based on the results from both descriptive analysis (see Table 14) and a significant medium, positive correlation between dominant and non-dominant cultures (i.e.,  $r = .35$ ; see Table 28), participants in this study appeared to be largely bi-acculturated and therefore they participated in spare-time activities regardless. Based on the above, the relationship between Chinese Canadian older adults' acculturation level and their leisure participation is not clear and once again urges me to look for answers using other perspectives (i.e., motivations, constraints, and constraint negotiation).

### **Motivations.**

This section consists of three questions. The first two focus on whether leisure motivation overall differs by: (a) age, ethnicity, or the interaction between the two; and (b) gender, ethnicity, or the interactions between the two. The third one, designed specifically for Chinese Canadian older adults, investigates how each of the explanatory variables (i.e., age, gender, and acculturation) contributes to the prediction of leisure motivation overall. Each of these questions will be discussed separately.

- *R5: Does leisure motivation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

In order to avoid repeating results stated in Chapter 4, I created a summary table (see Table 50) that only includes all the significant sources of variability.

Table 50

*Significant Sources of Variability as a Function of Age and/or Ethnicity*

Statistical Effect	Motivation Type	Significant Sources of Variability
<b>Interaction Effect (Age X Ethnicity)</b>	<b>Intrinsic</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- For the “65 to 74” group, <b>Chinese Canadian</b> older adults (<math>M = 4.86, SD = .96</math>) were less motivated than their <b>British Canadian</b> (<math>M = 5.42, SD = .67</math>) and <b>Mainland Chinese</b> (<math>M = 5.50, SD = .54</math>) counterparts.</li> <li>- For the “75 and over” group, <b>Mainland Chinese</b> (<math>M = 5.49, SD = .68</math>) were more motivated than their Canadian counterparts (<b>British Canadian</b>, <math>M = 4.80, SD = 1.03</math>; <b>Chinese Canadian</b>, <math>M = 4.81, SD = .76</math>).</li> </ul>
	<b>Introjected</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- For the “55 to 64” group, <b>Mainland Chinese</b> older adults (<math>M = 3.92, SD = 1.41</math>) were more motivated than their Canadian counterparts (<b>British Canadian</b>, <math>M = 2.66, SD = 1.00</math>; <b>Chinese Canadian</b>, <math>M = 2.80, SD = 1.40</math>).</li> <li>- For the “65 to 74” group, <b>British Canadian</b> older adults (<math>M = 2.58, SD = 1.47</math>) were less motivated than their Chinese counterparts (<b>Mainland Chinese</b>, <math>M = 3.86, SD = 1.61</math>; <b>Chinese Canadian</b>, <math>M = 3.27, SD = 1.16</math>).</li> </ul>
	<b>External</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- For the “55 to 64” group, <b>British Canadian</b> older adults (<math>M = 2.69, SD = .93</math>) being less motivated than <b>Mainland Chinese</b> older adults (<math>M = 3.95, SD = 1.36</math>).</li> <li>- For the “65 to 74” group, <b>British Canadian</b> older adults (<math>M = 2.26, SD = 1.47</math>) being less motivated than their <b>Mainland Chinese</b> (<math>M = 3.61, SD = 1.52</math>) and <b>Chinese Canadian</b> (<math>M = 3.50, SD = 1.17</math>) counterparts.</li> <li>- For the “75 and over” group, <b>Chinese Canadian</b> older adults (<math>M = 3.98, SD = 1.22</math>) being more motivated than <b>British Canadian</b> (<math>M = 3.01, SD = 1.52</math>) and <b>Mainland Chinese</b> (<math>M = 3.00, SD = 1.86</math>) older adults.</li> </ul>
<b>Main Effect (Ethnicity)</b>	<b>Integrated</b>	- <b>British Canadian</b> older adults ( $M = 4.65, SE = .12$ ) had significantly higher integrated motivation than did their <b>Mainland Chinese</b> ( $M = 3.78, SE = .12$ ) and <b>Chinese Canadian</b> counterparts ( $M = 3.85, SE = .12$ ).
	<b>Identified</b>	- <b>Chinese Canadian</b> older adults ( $M = 4.78, SE = .08$ ) were significantly less motivated than their <b>British Canadian</b> ( $M = 5.13, SE = .09$ ) and <b>Mainland Chinese</b> ( $M = 5.20, SE = .09$ ) counterparts.

### *Interaction effect.*

These three sets of interaction effect between age and ethnicity suggest that the influence of ethnicity on certain types of leisure motivation depends on a person's age.

*Intrinsic motivation.* Intrinsic motivation is usually found to be commonplace in all cultures' leisure as "people's sense of interest and engagement in their personal goals as well as the enjoyment associated with those goals, should tend to be beneficial in every culture" (Sheldon et al., 2004, p. 211). For example, in a study of Canadian and Mainland Chinese undergraduates' leisure motivations, Walker and Wang (2008) found that the two groups did not differ in their levels of intrinsic motivation. However, in my study, depending on their age (i.e., "65-74" and "75 and over"), either the Chinese Canadian group or the Mainland Chinese group was different from other two groups. By checking the mean scores, we can see that the actual differences among these three groups were very small (e.g., the smallest mean score is as high as 4.80 on a 6-point Likert scale), which were evident in the small to medium effect size obtained ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ). Again, as discussed in Research Question 3, Pallant (2010) alerted researchers that statistically significant results might be only caused by a large sample. Although I am not convinced that age played a significant role in differentiating people's intrinsic motivation, I provide the following possible interpretation.

- "65 to 74" group: For Chinese Canadians, because Diwan (2008) noted that Asian Americans who were 65 years old and over had the highest rates of limited English proficiency among the major racial and ethnic groups in the United States, I concluded this could also be the case in Canada. As noted in my qualitative research, the lack of language proficiency is closely associated with having a limited social network.

According to Deci and Ryan (2000), intrinsic motivation is fostered when three fundamental needs (i.e., autonomy, relatedness, and competence) are satisfied. In this case, Chinese Canadian older adults' competence was negatively affected by language barriers, whereas their need for relatedness was thwarted by having a limited social network. The above, in turn, resulted in the "65 to 74" Chinese Canadian group's intrinsic motivation being undermined.

- *"75 to over" group:* For Mainland Chinese older adults, in conjunction with the above reason, one additional explanation could be because their major leisure activities often involved their grandchildren (e.g., preparing meals, playing together, and dropping off and picking them up at the school; Su et al., 2006). Although it might initially seem that this reason would also apply to Chinese Canadians, Mui and Kang (2006) found that Chinese Canadian older adults who had lived in the host country for a long period of time were more likely to have host-country-born children and grandchildren whose cultural values and lifestyle choice (e.g., leisure activity preferences) were closer to that of the host culture—thereby posing more challenges to their intergenerational relationship.

*Introjected motivation.* Introjected regulation involves "should" and "must" types of activities that are motivated by internal pressure (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Contrary to Walker and Wang's (2008) findings that Canadians have higher introjected motivation than their Chinese counterparts, two age groups of Chinese participants (i.e., either only Mainland Chinese in the "55 to 64" group or both Mainland Chinese and Chinese Canadians in the "65 to 74" group) in my study had higher introjected motivation than British Canadian older adults. Albeit different age samples, both studies shared one thing in common—having a small to medium effect size on introjected motivation ( $\eta^2 = .03$ )—suggesting that these

cross-cultural differences in this type of motivation may be relatively unimportant from a practical perspective. As Walker, Dieser, and Deng (2005) also pointed out, researchers may have ignored the possibility of ethnic and cultural similarities while overemphasizing differences. For example, in their study of four different cultures' (i.e., Mainland Chinese, Taiwanese, American, and South Korean university students) self-concordance using SDT, Sheldon et al. (2004) did not find any difference on introjected motivation between Mainland Chinese and Americans. As well, whether there were any practical age differences remained questionable due to its non-significant main effect and extreme small effect size ( $\eta^2 = .00$ ) that contribute very little to the interaction effect. Again, because of these significant differences, I propose the following plausible reasons:

- *“55 to 64” group*: Chinese people have traditionally placed greater emphasis on a strong work ethic than on leisure (Wang & Stringer, 2000). Also, Deng, Walker, and Swinnerton's (2005) study on Mainland Chinese who immigrated to Canada and its follow-up study (Walker, Deng, & Chapman, 2007) on Mainland Chinese both suggested that Chinese people viewed leisure as being less important and worthwhile. It is important to point out that compared to Canada's normal retirement age (i.e., 65; Service Canada, 2013), the current retirement age in Mainland China is 60 for men, 55 for female civil servants and 50 for other female workers (Zhang, 2012). This 5 to 15 year difference further manifests that although Mainland Chinese people generally retire earlier than their Canadian counterparts, they have a less positive perspective on leisure. Initially, this explanation might sound contradictory to Walker and Wang's (2008) contentions that people's introjected motivations are usually emphasized more by independent than interdependent selves (i.e., Canadians and Chinese, respectively; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). However, compared to



the traditionally devalued intrinsic motivation (for leisure), introjected motivation for Mainland Chinese who recently retired and who still possess a strong work ethic seems to be the more effective motive for their leisure participation.

- “65 to 74” group: In addition to the above reason, Salili, Chiu, and Lai (2001) offered another possible explanation in that, for Chinese, extrinsic and intrinsic motivations tend to co-occur, whereas Westerners (such as British Canadians) are often either extrinsically or intrinsically motivated. More specifically for my study, when both Chinese and Canadians were intrinsically motivated, Chinese older adults were also motivated by other types of extrinsic motivation, suggesting that as external forces could be transformed into internal drives, the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations for Chinese becomes less obvious (Salili et al., 2001).

*External motivation.* External regulation, which is the least self-determined form of extrinsic motivation, involves people performing certain behaviours to either receive external rewards or avoid external punishments (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Among these three age groups, Chinese participants (i.e., either only Mainland Chinese in the “55 to 64” group or both Mainland Chinese and Chinese Canadians in the “65 to 74” group or only Chinese Canadians in the “75 and over” group) in my study were more externally-motivated than British Canadian older adults. These results are consistent with Markus and Kitayama’s (1991) contention that people’s external motivations are usually emphasized more by interdependent than independent selves (i.e., Chinese and Canadian, respectively). Particularly for the “75 and over” group, Chinese Canadian older adults were also more externally motivated than their Mainland Chinese counterparts. One possible reason might be that due to the abovementioned

constraints (e.g., language barriers and limited social network), Chinese Canadian older adults were less intrinsically-motivated to participate in mainstream leisure activities. Consequently, without external motivation, especially external reward (e.g., make others feel good about him/her), they were less likely to participate in mainstream leisure activities. Furthermore, even participating in ethnic-specific leisure activities could be extrinsically-motivated. For example, Stodolska and Alexandris (2004) found that low-aculturated Korean immigrants made use of their limited social network by participating in ethnic-specific leisure activities to find useful housing and employment information. I propose that this is also the case for Chinese Canadians. Again, similar to introjected motivation, whether there were any practical age differences remains open to debate as its non-significant main effect and extremely small effect size ( $\eta^2 = .00$ ) contribute very little to the significant interaction effect.

***Main effect.***

The statistical analyses detected that ethnicity had a significant main effect for on both integrated and identified motivations.

*Integrated motivation.* Integrated regulation, the most self-determined type of extrinsic motivation, involves activities or behaviours being evaluated and assimilated into the self (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Although very few leisure studies have examined integrated motivation, Mannell and Kleiber (1997) believed that people who engage in serious leisure (e.g., amateurism, hobbies, and volunteering; Stebbins, 1992) are integrated. Contrary to some studies' findings (e.g., Leung, Wu, Lue, & Tang, 2004; Walker & Wang, 2008) that Chinese are not different from other ethnic/cultural groups in terms of this motivation, my study revealed that British Canadian older adults were more integrated motivated than their Chinese counterparts. One possible explanation could be because behaviours regulated by integration are the most autonomous type of extrinsic motivation,

and thus shares two features with intrinsic motivation—that is, a sense of volition and choice (Deci & Ryan, 2008). In other words, similar to the rationale in introjected motivation, as a result of Chinese traditionally viewing leisure as less important and worthwhile, they were not as intrinsically- or integrated-motivated as their British Canadian counterparts. Moreover, the medium to large effect size ( $\eta^2 = .07$ ) lends some support to this ethnic/cultural difference.

*Identified motivation.* Identified regulation involves behaviours or goals being personally important (Ryan & Deci, 2000). For example, a person feels that he or she wants to go to the gym because he or she has noticed the benefits of doing so. In this case, he or she will also enjoy doing so in the future regardless of the existence of external rewards or pressure. My study is partially consistent with Sheldon et al.'s (2004) finding that Americans (British Canadians in my study) were not different from Mainland Chinese in this type of motivation. While Chinese Canadians being less identified than British Canadians might also be similar to Walker and Wang's (2008) finding, I tend to agree more with these researchers' contention that these cross-cultural differences in this type of motivation may be relatively unimportant from a practical perspective. This is because, in addition to the small to medium effect size on identified motivation ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ), a large enough sample could generate statistically significant results even if the mean scores differences among these three groups were very small (e.g., the smallest mean score is as high as 4.78 on a 6-point Likert scale) (Pallant, 2010). Again, as Walker et al. (2005) contended, researchers may have ignored the possibility of ethnic and cultural similarities while instead overemphasizing ethnic and cultural differences.

In summary, although the interaction effects between age and ethnicity suggest that the influence of the latter variable on a person's leisure motivation (i.e., intrinsic, introjected, and external) depends on his or her age, age's

contribution to differentiating among the three ethnic/cultural groups appears to be limited. On the other hand, ethnicity plays a dominant role in differentiating among these three ethnic/cultural groups in terms of different types of motivations. For example, according to Table 50, significant differences between British Canadians and their Chinese counterparts (i.e., either Mainland Chinese or Chinese Canadians or both) can be easily detected in terms of all five types of motivation.

- *R6: Does leisure motivation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

Two-factor MANOVA tests indicated that there were statistically significant main effects for both gender and ethnicity.

***Gender's main effect.***

The statistical analyses detected gender's main effect on intrinsic, integrated, and identified motivations.

*Intrinsic motivation.* In my study, female older adults were more motivated to participate in spare-time activities than their male counterparts. Previous research has both supported (e.g., Lee et al., 2007) and conflicted (e.g., Walker et al., 2005) with this findings. To further complicate the above, in a study of how ethnicity and gender may facilitate intrinsic motivation during leisure with a close friend, Walker (2008) reported that relatedness fostered intrinsic motivation more for British Canadian females than for British Canadian males or Chinese Canadian males and females. That is, for British Canadians, the result is consistent with my study; but for Chinese Canadians, no gender difference was found.

Again, although the statistical analysis turned out to be statistically significant, whether or not there was a practical gender difference among these three ethnic/cultural groups is still in question, especially when the actual

differences in the groups' mean scores were very small and the effect size was only in the small to medium range ( $\eta^2 = .03$ ). Therefore, instead of concluding that gender distinguishes older adults' intrinsic motivation for spare-time activities without taking into consideration of ethnicity's effect (*Note*, no interaction between gender and ethnicity was detected for this research question.), I put forward that, depending on specific types of spare-time activities (e.g., exercise, social, art), gender might have an impact on intrinsic motivation. For example, Warr, Butcher, and Robertson (2004) found that older women were more likely to undertake family and social activities, whereas older men were more likely to seek solitary and active activities. Additionally, in terms of physical activity, research found that older women tended to be less active than older men (Goggin & Morrow, 2001; Hughes, McDowell, & Brody, 2008; Lee, 2005) but more involved in household leisure activities (Lee, 2005).

*Integrated and identified motivations.* In a similar vein, the small mean score difference and small effect sizes ( $\eta^2 = .02$  for both types of motivations) discovered with these motives also calls into question gender's practical significance. Possible reasons for these statistically significant results include:

- According to Deci and Ryan (2000), people will "tend naturally to internalize the values and regulations of their social groups" (p. 238), which is "facilitated by feelings of relatedness to socializing others" (p. 238). That is, when one person's need for relatedness is fulfilled, these two types of extrinsic motivations (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000) will more likely be internalized to become more integral to one's self, and thus be associated with increased engagement and commitment to an activity (Dacey, Baltzell, & Zaichkowsky, 2008; Deci & Ryan, 2000). For example, Iwasaki and Smale (1998) found that compared to men, women who had

retired reported a significant increase in the importance they placed on the goal of socializing during leisure.

***Ethnicity's main effect.***

Statistical analyses indicated that ethnicity had a main effect on all five motivations. Although Research Question 6 does not involve any interaction effect, the results demonstrated a similar pattern as the outcomes reported in Table 50. That is, significant ethnic/cultural differences between British Canadians and their Chinese counterparts (i.e., either Mainland Chinese or Chinese Canadians or both) were quite prominent, which was also reflected in the medium effect sizes (ranging from  $\eta^2 = .05$  for identified motivation to  $\eta^2 = .10$  for external motivation) that were detected. Because these findings were already discussed in detail in terms of Research Question 5, the reader is referred back to this earlier section.

- *R7: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' leisure motivation overall?*

By using a hierarchical multiple regression (with age and gender being entered first followed by non-dominant culture, and then dominant culture), this question investigated the relative contribution of each of the explanatory variables (i.e., age, gender, and acculturation) on Chinese Canadian older adults' leisure motivation overall.

In the final multivariate model, only age and non-dominant culture (i.e., Chinese culture) were statistically significant, with age exhibiting a higher beta value ( $\beta = -.28, p < .001$ ) than non-dominant culture ( $\beta = -.19, p < .05$ ). This, in conjunction with the result of bivariate analyses, indicates that being older and/or being more influenced by the non-dominant culture are associated with lower levels of leisure motivation. Gender and dominant culture (i.e., Canadian culture), in contrast, do not show any impact.

Age had a stronger influence on Chinese Canadian older adults' overall

motivation, which is indirectly consistent with previous research that found that leisure activity participation generally declines with age (e.g., Jackson & Henderson, 1995; Shaw & Henderson, 2005). Because RAI (Relative Autonomy Index) was used to measure “leisure motivation overall”, which specific kind of motivation reflects this decline cannot be determined. However, as Research Question 5 has already addressed this relationship, it is reasonable to refer back to this discussion. Specifically, after re-examing Table 30a to Table 30c, it is interesting to note that when age increases, the mean scores for intrinsic motivation declines from 5.18 to 4.86 to 4.81, while the mean scores for introjected and external motivations increases from 2.80 to 3.27 to 3.53 and from 3.23 to 3.50 to 3.98, respectively. These results clearly show that limited English proficiency (Diwan, 2008), limited social networks (i.e., low competence and thwarted need for relatedness; Deci & Ryan, 2000), and challenging intergenerational relationships (Mui & Kang, 2006), could undermine Chinese Canadian older adults’ intrinsic motivation. Conversely, without being highly externally motivated, especially in terms of external reward, they are less inclined to participate in mainstream leisure activities. Overall, therefore, the older Chinese Canadians are, the less likely they appear to be motivated to participate in mainstream leisure activities.

Non-dominant culture had a relatively weaker influence on Chinese Canadian older adults’ overall motivation. As mentioned in the Results chapter, by employing Dona and Berry’s (1994) categorization and using the neutral point (i.e., 3.5) of the VIA as the cut-off point, respondents whose mean scores fell below or were equal to 3.5 were classified “low” on both non-dominant (i.e., Chinese) and dominant (i.e., Canadian) culture scales, and those whose mean scores fell above 3.5 were classified as “high”. Accordingly, Chinese Canadians who were more influenced by the non-dominant culture can only fall into one of

two categories: *separated* (i.e., responses below or equal to 3.5 on the Canadian culture scale and above 3.5 on the Chinese culture scale) or *integrated* (i.e., responses above 3.5 on both scales). For people who belong to the *separated* category, it is understandable that due to fewer available resources (e.g., income, education, and resources to improve language proficiency), older immigrants such as Chinese Canadians will face numerous challenges to acculturate to the dominant culture (Casado & Leung, 2001), and thus they are more likely to lack the motivation to engage in mainstream leisure activities. As for the *integrated* category, we should not hastily associate bi-acculturated Chinese Canadian older adults with lower levels of motivation (to mainstream activities) because Stodolska and Alexandris (2004) previously noted us that people's socio-economic status plays a more important role than their acculturation level. For instance, these researchers found that middle-class immigrants can choose whatever levels of acculturation they prefer and can either choose to participate in more mainstream leisure activities to assimilate or engage in their own ethnic leisure activities to maintain their ethnic identities. In addition, Stodolska and Alexandris (2004) pointed out that immigrants usually acculturate to the sub-culture of their own ethnic community to maintain connections and assimilate into the local culture. The term *subculture* suggests that immigrants participate in certain kinds of leisure/sport activities (e.g., golf, hockey, and fishing) that are “not necessarily popular in the home countries of immigrants, but they had become a focus of interest among ethnic immigrant populations in the host country” (p. 403). A good example of this is that Polish immigrants in Canada often took up fishing because this activity was popular in the local Polish community (Stodolska, 2000).

### **Constraints.**

This section consists of five questions, including both *R8a* and *R9a*



focusing on face, both *R8b* and *R9b* investigating the conventional constraints categories (i.e., intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints), and *R10* targeting Chinese Canadians by adding the acculturation construct. The discussion below also follows this order.

- *R8a: Does face overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

The statistical analyses indicated that a significant interaction existed between age and ethnicity in terms of other-face being a constraint to leisure. This finding suggests that the influence of ethnicity on a person's concern about other-face depends on his or her age. More specifically, with the "65 to 74" age group, British Canadian older adults were less concerned about other-face than their Mainland Chinese and Chinese Canadian counterparts. Again, I am not convinced that age played a significant role in differentiating different ethnic/cultural groups due to its non-significant main effect and its extreme small effect size ( $\eta^2 = .00$ ). However, older Chinese people do tend to be more concerned about face. For instance, Sun and Wang (2010) found that Shanghainese people aged 19-34 years were much less concerned about face because they are more individualistic and "likely to live according to their own lifestyles regardless of what others think" (p. 65) compared with those aged 35-50 and 51 years of age and older.

On the other hand, research has well documented ethnicity's effect. For example, by using the loss of face (LOF) scales, Zane and Yeh (2002) found that Asian Americans had much higher levels of LOF than did European Americans. In a more recent study, Mak, Chen, Lam, and Yiu (2009) also found that European Americans had lower levels of face concern than Chinese and Chinese Americans. Also, Liang and Walker (2011) reported that about 24% of Mainland Chinese people indicated that other-face constrained them from starting a new leisure

activity. Finally, gaining insights from research on individualism and collectivism (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), Wang (2009) explained that other-oriented Chinese are concerned more about other-face as opposed to their self-oriented Canadian counterparts.

In summary, because losing face is detrimental for Chinese people (Ho, 1976; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998), and maintaining harmony with others (Bond & Hwang, 1996) is crucial in Chinese culture, it is not surprising to find that Chinese older people placed greater emphasis on the barriers that significant others, rather than they themselves, have to overcome to participate in spare-time activities.

- *R9a: Does face overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

The statistical analyses reported a significant interaction between gender and ethnicity on self-face, suggesting that the influence of ethnicity on a person's concern about self-face depends on his or her gender. More specifically, for males, Chinese Canadian older adults were more constrained by self-face than their Mainland Chinese and British Canadian counterparts; whereas for females, British Canadian older adults cared less about their self-face than Mainland Chinese. Noteworthy here is that this interaction effect has not been detected in other similar studies (e.g., Wang & Walker, 2011). In regard to the former, we can now examine this outcome from three different perspectives:

- (1) Liang and Walker (2011) conceptualized self-face as a previously overlooked type of intrapersonal constraint that may be the most powerful barrier for certain Chinese people.
- (2) Chinese Canadians usually have to deal with some of the aforementioned constraints (e.g., limited English proficiency; Diwan, 2008) when participating mainstream leisure activities. More

specifically for males, Tsai, Ying, and Lee (2001) found that Chinese American men's self-esteem was mainly related to their English proficiency.

- (3) Because Chinese Canadians are influenced by more than one cultural belief system, "they may be more aware of cultural values, norms, and customs than individuals who are monocultural" (Tsai et al., 2001, p. 286). That is, cultural influences (e.g., face concern) may have a particularly strong influence on feelings about oneself in this group.

Thus, based on the above and the LOF scales (Zane & Yeh, 2002) used to measure self-face in my study, male Chinese Canadian older adults may be more concerned about losing self-face. With respect to the latter, I would argue that because both British women and Mainland Chinese Women are mainly influenced by their monoculture, ethnicity is the primary influence.

For other-face, the statistical analyses also indicated a significant main effect from gender and ethnicity, respectively. Specifically, female older adults were less constrained than their male counterparts; and British Canadian older adults cared less about other-face than their Chinese counterparts. In terms of the former, previous studies (Mak et al., 2009; Wang & Walker, 2011; Zane & Yeh, 2002) have found no gender difference, which is contradictory with my results. This inconsistency might be due to gender differences in different types of spare-time activities. For example, Warr et al. (2004) found that older women were more likely to undertake family and social activities, whereas older men were more likely to seek for solitary activities. That is, when participating in same types of family and social activities, because of their interdependent nature (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), women are more comfortable dealing with other-face concerns than men. As to the latter, I use the same explanation presented for Research Question 8a.

- *R8b: Does leisure constraint overall (including intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

The statistical analyses indicated a significant interaction between age and ethnicity on structural constraints, suggesting that the influence of ethnicity on a person's structural constraints depends on his or her age. More specifically, for the "65 to 74" group, British Canadian older adults were less structurally constrained than their Mainland Chinese and Chinese Canadian counterparts. Similarly, age did not play a significant role in differentiating different ethnic/cultural groups due to its non-significant main effect and its extremely small effect size ( $\eta^2 = .00$ ). But as already discussed in the motivation section, the high rates of limited English proficiency among Asian American older adults aged 65 years and older (Diwan, 2008) in conjunction with their limited social networks likely prevents Chinese Canadian older adults from participating in mainstream leisure activities. While for Mainland Chinese, also in line with my qualitative research findings, this group was more structurally constrained by such barriers as lack of money, time, and transportation. Noteworthy here is that Su et al. (2006) also reported similar structural constraints for Mainland Chinese older residents.

For both intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints, ethnicity again stood out as being the main factor. Specifically, with the former type of constraint, results showed that British Canadian older adults perceived/experienced fewer intrapersonal constraints than did their Mainland Chinese and Chinese Canadian counterparts, which concurs with Walker's et al. (2007) work. Walker et al. (2007) also suggested that certain Chinese values and beliefs—such as living up to others' expectation (Gao, 1998) and having a strong work/education ethic (Deng et al., 2005)—could potentially explain this finding. Additionally, the aforementioned face concern, if Liang and Walker (2011) are in fact correct about face being an

intrapersonal constraint, could give further credence to this finding. With the latter type of constraint, results indicated that these three ethnic/cultural groups were significantly different from each other, with Mainland Chinese older adults being the most interpersonally constrained followed by Chinese Canadians and then by British Canadians. It is not too unexpected to find that British Canadians to be the least interpersonally constrained group. Because Walker et al. (2007) proposed that, depending on the type of self-construal (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1995) a person held, unlike their Chinese counterparts, British Canadians may have placed greater emphasis on the barriers that they themselves, rather than significant others, had to overcome to participate in spare-time activities.

However, it is very difficult to explain why Mainland Chinese older adults were more interpersonally constrained than their Chinese Canadian counterparts. Given that the mean score differences were very minor ( $M = 3.76$ ,  $SE = .16$  for Mainland Chinese vs.  $M = 3.24$ ,  $SE = .12$  for Chinese Canadians), I believe this result may have been due to the large sample size (Pallant, 2010) and therefore is of little practical importance. Despite this, one possible explanation for this finding might be because Chinese Canadians are influenced by more than one cultural belief system (Tsai et al., 2001, p. 286) and therefore their interdependent self-construal (Markus & Kitayama, 1991) is relatively weaker compared with Mainland Chinese.

- *R9b: Does leisure constraint overall (including intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

The statistical analyses detected two significant main effects: gender on intrapersonal constraints, and ethnicity on all three types of constraints. In terms of gender, results showed that female older adults were less intrapersonally-constrained than their male counterparts. Previous research has

usually disagreed with this finding because women encounter some unique intrapersonal constraints that men usually do not experience, including women's internalized "ethic of care" (Henderson et al., 1996), peer and family expectations about appropriate behaviours (Tirone & Shaw, 1997), and fear of violence (Bialeschki, 2005). However, as women age, such intrapersonal constraints as "ethic of care" might actually become leisure for them. Research has lent some support to this proposition for both Western women (Anderson et al., 1995) and African and Asian women (Henderson & Ainsworth, 2001; Su et al., 2006). As well, it is important to note that the very small mean score differences along with the small effect size ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ) suggest that older male and female adults' intrapersonal constraints might be significantly but not practically different. Past research (e.g., Alexandris et al., 2003; Son et al., 2008) has also put forward this proposition.

Ethnicity once again played a dominant role in differentiating older adult's three different types of constraints to their spare-time activity participation. The results is not discussed further here as it was already addressed in Research Question 8b.

- *R10: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' leisure constraint overall?*

By using a hierarchical multiple regression (with age and gender being entered first followed by non-dominant culture, and then dominant culture), this question investigated the relative contribution of each of the explanatory variables (i.e., age, gender, and acculturation) to Chinese Canadian older adults' leisure constraint overall.

In the final multivariate model, only gender and non-dominant culture were statistically significant, with gender recording a higher beta value ( $\beta = -.25$ ,  $p < .01$ ) than non-dominant culture ( $\beta = .22$ ,  $p < .01$ ). As already reflected in

bivariate analyses, this result shows that being a male and/or being more influenced by non-dominant culture is/are associated with higher levels of leisure constraints.

With respect to gender, my results are not supported by Shaw and Henderson's (2005) contention that gender is "an enabling factor for men rather than a constraint" (p. 26). Nevertheless, Lee and Xiao's (1998) findings that older Chinese women received more monetary support from their children than older Chinese men remind us that gender might not always be in men's favour and therefore we should not overlook constraints on men's leisure.

With regard to non-dominant culture, Chinese Canadians who were more influenced by this variable were categorized as either *separated* (i.e., responses below or equal to 3.5 on the Canadian culture scale and above 3.5 on the Chinese culture scale) or *integrated* (i.e., responses above 3.5 on both scales). As a result of the many challenges (e.g., lack of income, education, and resources to improve language proficiency; Casado & Leung, 2001) older Chinese Canadian people might encounter, participants in the former category tended to be low-acculturated (i.e., avoid daily interaction with the host culture; Berry, 1997) and thus were more likely to experience constraints when participating in mainstream leisure activities (Stodolska, 1998; Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004; Yu & Berryman, 1996). As to the latter category, those who were bi-acculturated (i.e., maintaining one's cultural identity and seeking daily interaction with the host culture; Berry, 1997) would instead be less likely to undergo constraints when engaging in mainstream leisure activities. The potential reason for my inconsistent results could be, as previously discussed in Research Question 7, the relationship between bi-acculturation (i.e., integration) and motivation. That is, immigrants usually acculturate to the sub-culture of their own ethnic community to maintain connections and assimilate in to the local culture (Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004).

Although they are involved in many “mainstream” and “local” leisure/sport activities (e.g., golf, hockey, and fishing), they mainly interact with people from their own ethnic communities, which largely lessens major constraints such as limited language proficiency. However, when they have to participate in these mainstream activities with local people (e.g., British Canadians), the same kinds of constraints (especially language proficiency) still limit their leisure involvement.

In summary, gender contributed slightly more than non-dominant culture to the prediction of Chinese Canadian older adults’ leisure constraint overall.

*Special notes.*

In my Results chapter I mentioned that during the data screening stage, I observed that most respondents disagreed with most of the constraints statements, suggesting that they may simply not consider these items to be barriers for their spare-time activity participation. A question is thereby raised: If these scales did not reflect the actual constraints older adults may experience, should researchers consider redesigning new constraint scales specifically for this population? My responses to this question are:

As Walker et al. (2007) stated, the Western-based leisure constraints model (Crawford et al., 1991) itself does appear cross-culturally applicable. My qualitative research results lent major support to the constraint scales (see Method chapter) I adopted, except for requiring few modifications and additions. Moreover, to test their construct equivalence, equality tests for each of the five constraint scales were performed and indicated that except for other-face scale, the rest worked equally well for all three ethnic/cultural groups. Therefore, I argue that instead of questioning whether these constraint scales work or not, it would be more meaningful to reconsider whether constraint, compared with other factors (e.g., motivation, constraint negotiation, age, gender, ethnicity, and acculturation),



has a critical effect on older adults' leisure behaviours.

To further address this question, I revisited my Literature Review Chapter and now propose that constraints could also act as motivations for participation. Cohen-Mansfield's et al. (2003) work supported this proposition as they stated that barriers for older people usually reflected their motivation. For instance, they found that older people who mentioned that their health situations were barriers to exercising also reported that feeling healthy motivated them to exercise. As well, some studies (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Son et al., 2008) proposed that people who are more highly motivated to participate in leisure activities are those who have made the most use of constraint negotiation strategies. Thus, with the support of much higher mean scores (see Table 11), motivation scales seem to be more informative than constraint scales when trying to provide a more comprehensive picture of older adults' leisure behaviours.

Furthermore, Kleiber et al. (2008) found that older people achieve successful aging by adopting a selective optimization with compensation strategy (Baltes & Carstensen, 1996), which means "being selective about activities of choice, abandoning those that are less personally meaningful, and compensating in whatever way necessary to optimize the more restricted number of alternatives" (p. 346). Thus, for some older people, accepting and making use of constraints may be a common daily practice that helps them to optimize their leisure experience.

In conclusion, it is first important to state that I do not think investigating older adults' leisure constraints is unimportant. Instead, unique constraints such as immigrants' lack of language proficiency are important to communicate to policy makers and practitioners so they can make meaningful changes. Therefore, when conducting cross-ethnic and -cultural research, as per Crawford and Jackson's (2005) recommendation, both qualitative and quantitative efforts should be made

to develop more “realistic” and “practical” constraint measures that reflect actual constraints. Additionally, as Berry et al. (2002) suggested, researchers should pay greater attention to etics (i.e., cross-cultural concepts and behaviours) without ignoring emics (i.e., culture-specific concepts and behaviours). For instance, my study included the concept of face to expand the current constraint scale. Finally, if my interpretation about the effectiveness of these motivation scales is correct, then developing and including a better motivation scale might be an indirect way to uncover older populations’ leisure constraints. For example, intrinsic motivation (e.g., fun, enjoyable, and interesting activities) could be an indirect indicator of intrapersonal (e.g., “If it is fun, then why you do not want to participate?”), interpersonal (e.g., “You cannot join us, is it because of your family members?”), and structural (e.g., “Are there any financial issues?”) constraints.

### **Constraint negotiation.**

This section consists of six questions, including both *R11a* and *R12a* centering on cognitive strategies, both *R11b* and *R12b* investigating behavioural strategies, and *R13a* and *R13b* targeting Chinese Canadians by adding the acculturation construct. The discussion below also follows this order.

- *R11a: Do cognitive strategies differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

The statistical analyses only reported a significant main effect for age on cognitive strategies. More specifically, the “75 and over” group utilized cognitive strategies significantly less than did their “55-64” and the “65-74” counterparts. Two possible explanations are: (1) the older the person the more likely he or she might have learned relevant negotiation strategies in an earlier stage of his or her life (Son et al., 2008); and (2) by using selective optimization with compensation strategy (SOC) strategy to retain their ability to maintain their self-confidence,

some older adults do not necessarily need to negotiate leisure constraints to achieve successful aging (Kleiber & Nimrod, 2009; Phelan & Larson, 2002). For the second explanation, both Samdahl (2005) and Dionigi (2006) further stressed that accepting the natural progression of aging rather than removing the constraints does indeed contribute to some older people's well-being.

- *R12a: Do cognitive strategies differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

Neither an interaction effect between gender and ethnicity nor main effects of these two variables were detected. These results suggest that as long as it is beneficial to their well-being, cognitive strategies older people may employ such as ignoring the constraint, being positive and optimistic, and accepting physical limitations, may be universal. The results from my both qualitative (see Table 7) and quantitative research (see Table 13) reflected my interpretation.

- *R11b: Do behavioural strategies differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

The statistical analyses detected two significant main effects: age on "modify time" and "acquire skills", and ethnicity on "acquire skills" and "physical therapy". In terms of age, results showed that the "75 and over" group employed these strategies significantly less than their "55-64" and the "65-74" counterparts. In general, the two reasons outlined in Research Question 11a could possibly explain why the likelihood of using these behavioural negotiation strategies tended to decline with increasing age. More specifically, according to Jackson et al. (1993), behavioural strategies can be divided into two categories: modification of leisure aspects of life and modification of non-leisure aspect of life. In regard to time management, Jackson and Rucks (1995) recognized that the majority of people who modified their use of time would prefer reorganizing other aspects of their lives to cutting back on their leisure time. But when people

become older and when cutting back on their leisure time (e.g., using SOC strategies; Kleiber & Nimrod, 2009) or even non-participation (e.g., severing previously participated activities; Hooyman & Asuman Kiyak, 1999) turns out to be conducive to successful aging (Kleiber & Nimrod, 2009; Phelan & Larson, 2002), it is not so hard to understand why the oldest group in my study used fewer time management strategies. In the same vein, skills acquisition, which also modifies leisure, is not that attractive to the oldest group as “removing the constraint might bring about unwanted ramifications” (Samdahl, 2005). As McGuire and Norman (2005) concluded that: “we may welcome constraints because they limit involvement at the point in life when involvement needs to be limited” (p. 95).

With reference to ethnicity’s effect on “acquire skills” and “physical therapy”, results indicated that British Canadian older adults were significantly less likely to choose these strategies than their Mainland Chinese and Chinese Canadian counterparts. As to “acquire skills”, I look at this approach from an indirect angle: that is, Chinese people traditionally place greater emphasis on a strong work ethic than on leisure (Deng et al., 2005; Walker et al., 2007; Wang & Stringer, 2000). As a result, when they are exposed to leisure opportunities especially those that are new to them (e.g., golf), they have to learn necessary skills to be able to enjoy these activities. In addition, for Chinese Canadians, improving language skills is obvious more crucial for them to engage in unfamiliar mainstream leisure activities.

As for “physical therapy”, past research has documented health-related factors are universal constraints for older adults (Administration on Aging, 2002; Jackson, 1993). My qualitative research also indicated that health concern is one of the main constraints across all three ethnic/cultural groups. Therefore, the reason why British Canadians were less likely to use physical therapy to improve

their health (so that they can participate in leisure activities) is unclear. Given its large effect size ( $\eta^2 = .14$ ), I would speculate that it might be due to different understanding of the question items among these three groups, which again is tied to their attitudes towards leisure. For example, as British Canadians view leisure as being more important and worthwhile than Chinese, they will participate in leisure “despite constraint” (Kay & Jackson, 1991, p. 301). As a result, they might not even consider physical therapy to be one of the most important behavioural negotiation strategies. The mean scores (British Canadian:  $M = 3.30$ ,  $SE = .15$ ; Mainland Chinese:  $M = 4.83$ ,  $SE = .14$ ; Chinese Canadian  $M = 4.70$ ,  $SE = .14$ ) partially supported this explanation.

- *R12b: Do behavioural strategies differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

The statistical analyses detected two significant main effects: gender on “modify time”, and ethnicity on “acquire skills” and “physical therapy”. In terms of gender, results showed that female older adults were more likely to modify their time than their male counterparts. Previous research regarding women’s leisure constraints provided an easy answer for this finding. For example, it is well documented that one of the major structural constraints experienced by women is lack of time (Green et al., 1990). Intrapersonally, women’s caring behaviours (i.e., internalized “ethic of care”; Henderson et al., 1996) such as attending to grandchildren (Anderson et al., 1995; Henderson & Ainsworth, 2001; Su et al., 2006) take up a considerable amount of personal leisure time for older women.

In regard to the main effect of ethnicity, in accord with the findings in Research Questions 11b, results showed that for both “acquire skills” and “physical therapy”, British Canadian older adults significantly less likely to use these strategies than their Mainland Chinese and Chinese Canadian counterparts.

As a result, I will not duplicate the discussion provided in Research Question 11b.

- *R13a: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' cognitive strategies?*

By using a hierarchical multiple regression (with age and gender being entered first followed by non-dominant culture, and then dominant culture), this question investigated the relative contribution of each of the explanatory variables (i.e., age, gender, and acculturation) to Chinese Canadian older adults' usage of cognitive strategies.

In the final multivariate model, age, non-dominant culture, and dominant culture were statistically significant, with very close beta values (age:  $\beta = -.26, p < .001$ ; non-dominant culture:  $\beta = .24, p < .01$ ; dominant culture:  $\beta = .26, p < .01$ ). As already reflected in bivariate analyses, this result shows that being younger and/or being more influenced by both non-dominant and dominant cultures are associated with higher possibility of using cognitive strategies.

In terms of age, the result of this question basically replicated the results of Research Question 11a, so readers are asked to refer back to this discussion.

It seems like acculturation significantly affected Chinese Canadian older adults' usage of cognitive strategies. With regard to non-dominant culture, Chinese Canadians who were more influenced by their distal culture were categorized as either *separated* (i.e., responses below or equal to 3.5 on the Canadian culture scale and above 3.5 on the Chinese culture scale) or *integrated* (i.e., responses above 3.5 on both scales). As mentioned in the literature, under most conditions, a low acculturation level (i.e., *separated* Chinese Canadians) is related to more leisure constraints in terms of mainstream leisure activities (Lai & Chau, 2007; Stodolska, 1998; Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004; Yu & Berryman, 1996), and constraints positively and “directly trigger negotiation efforts that can mitigate the negative effects of the constraints” (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001).

Therefore, this finding for *separated* Chinese Canadians is well supported. With *integrated* Chinese Canadians, according to Christenson et al. (2006) and Tang and Dion (1999), bi-acculturated minority people are better capable of employing negotiation strategies to find a balance between participating in mainstream leisure activities to assimilate to the dominant culture and engaging in ethnic leisure activities to retain their ethnic identity. Thus, they have more opportunities to use cognitive strategies.

In terms of dominant culture, Chinese Canadians who were more influenced by Canadian culture fit into one of two categories: *assimilated* (i.e., responses above 3.5 on the Canadian culture scale and below or equal to 3.5 on the Chinese culture scale) or *integrated* (i.e., responses above 3.5 on both scales). As I already discussed the “*integrated*” group, I only need to discuss the *assimilated* Chinese Canadians. These people, who are giving up their cultural identity and seeking daily interaction with the host culture (Berry, 1997), are considered to be highly-acculturated individuals (Buriel, 1993; Marin & Gamba, 1996). When I went back to my Research Question 1 (*RI: Do the associations among average leisure motivation, average leisure constraint, and average constraint negotiation differ by age, gender, ethnicity, or, in the case of Chinese Canadians, acculturation?*) I developed the following potential explication:

- For Chinese Canadians, “negotiation” was positively correlated with “acculturation”, which is consistent with the positive correlation between “constraint” and “acculturation”. However, previous research (e.g., Lai & Chau, 2007; Stodolska, 1998; Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004; Yu & Berryman, 1996) found that under most conditions, the level of acculturation is negatively related to leisure constraints in terms of mainstream leisure activities. A possible reason for this might be because the higher level of acculturation a person has, the more he or she will be

exposed to new mainstream leisure activities, which in turn will lead to more constraints being faced and more negotiation strategies being employed.

In summary, although the levels of acculturation differ, younger Chinese Canadian older adults were more likely to employ negotiation strategies. Also, age, non-dominant culture, and dominant culture contributed evenly to predict Chinese Canadian older adults' usage of cognitive strategies.

- *R13b: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' behavioural strategies?*

By using a hierarchical multiple regression (with age and gender being entered first followed by non-dominant culture, and then dominant culture), this question investigated the relative contribution of each of the explanatory variables (i.e., age, gender, and acculturation) to Chinese Canadian older adults' behavioural strategies.

In the final model, age, non-dominant culture, and dominant culture again were statistically significant, with non-dominant culture recording the highest beta values ( $\beta = .48, p < .001$ ) that was relatively higher than dominant culture ( $\beta = .36, p < .001$ ) and much higher than age ( $\beta = -.19, p < .01$ ). In accordance with the results in bivariate analyses, being younger and/or being more influenced by both non-dominant and dominant cultures are associated with higher possibility of using behavioural strategies.

Because Jackson et al. (1993) suggested that depending on the problem encountered, an individual can adopt either cognitive or behavioural strategies, and Jackson and Rucks (1995) did not detect any significant difference in the choice of a cognitive versus behavioural strategy for activity-based leisure, I feel that the discussion provided in Research Question 13a is identical to and sufficient for this question. Having said this, I would like to stress one point



regarding the significant impact of acculturation towards Chinese Canadian older adults' usage of behavioural strategies. That is, immigrants' levels of acculturation differ by the amount of first-hand contact between them and the dominant culture (Dumka & Roosa, 1997); however, no matter what levels of acculturation immigrants have, the acculturation process is not an easy journey. Berry (1997) introduced the construct of psychological acculturation and held that immigrants will experience different levels of various psychological challenges. The worst situation could be that immigrants experience serious psychological disturbance due to overwhelming changes that exceed their capability to cope. Thus, leisure researchers should realize that given the extra culture-related constraints faced by immigrants, employing constraint negotiation strategies might be even more necessary for minority older adults to engage in leisure activities.

### **Conclusion**

This last section summarizes all of my study's results and is followed by a discussion of its theoretical and practical implications, limitations, and future research directions.

#### **Summary.**

Research Question 1, independent of other "sets" of questions, is summarized separately.

- *R1: Do the associations among average leisure motivation, average leisure constraint, and average constraint negotiation differ by age, gender, ethnicity, or, in the case of Chinese Canadians, acculturation?*

Table 51 reports only significant correlations, with two different symbols used to specify previously found results (✓) and new findings (+). It is very obvious that new findings mainly existed for both gender and acculturation. Specifically, female British Canadian and Chinese Canadian older adults perceived/experienced fewer constraints. In regard to acculturation, it is

interesting to see that the higher acculturated Chinese Canadian older men were associated with a lower level of motivation, a higher level of constraint, and a higher chance of employing negotiation strategies. Taken together, these new findings suggest that men's leisure constraints should not be overlooked. Worth noting here is that age and gender showed small correlations with other variables, suggesting to researchers that age, or gender, or both might not be a critical factor for differentiating older adults' leisure behaviours.

Table 51

*Well Supported Results and New Findings for Research Question 1*

		Constraint	Negotiation	Age	Gender	Acculturation
British Canadian	Motivation	✓	✓	✓	+	
	Constraint				+	
Mainland Chinese	Constraint		✓			
	Negotiation				✓	
Chinese Canadian	Motivation		✓	✓		+
	Constraint		✓		+	+
Canadian	Negotiation			✓		+
	Gender					✓

*Note.* ✓ refers to previous research that supports this result. + indicates new finding.

For the remaining four sets of questions, building on Table 49, I also listed results that are either consistent with previous research or new contributions to the leisure studies field.

Table 52

*Well Supported Results and New Findings for Research Question 2 to 13b*

<p><i>R2: Does leisure participation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i></p> <p>✓: This study reported two significant <b><u>main effects</u></b> for both age and ethnicity.          +: Compared to age's small to medium effect, <b><u>ethnicity</u></b> manifested to be the dominant effect.</p>
<p><i>R3: Does leisure participation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i></p> <p>✓: This study detected a significant <b><u>interaction effect</u></b> between gender and ethnicity.          +: Compared to gender's small effect, <b><u>ethnicity</u></b> manifested to be the dominant effect.</p>
<p><i>R4: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' leisure participation overall?</i></p> <p>✓: <b><u>Younger, male</u></b> Chinese Canadian older adults were <b><u>more</u></b> likely to participate in leisure activities.          +: <b><u>The acculturation level</u></b> does not have any effect on leisure participation.</p>
<p><i>R5: Does leisure motivation overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i></p> <p>✓: This study detected a significant <b><u>interaction effect</u></b> between age and ethnicity on <b><u>external motivation</u></b>.          ✓: This study detected ethnicity's <b><u>main effect</u></b> on <b><u>identified motivation</u></b>.          +: This study detected a significant <b><u>interaction effect</u></b> between age and ethnicity on <b><u>intrinsic</u></b> and <b><u>introjected motivation</u></b>.          +: This study detected ethnicity's <b><u>main effect</u></b> on <b><u>integrated motivation</u></b>.</p>
<p><i>R6: Does leisure motivation overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i></p> <p>✓: This study detected gender's <b><u>main effect</u></b> on <b><u>intrinsic, integrated, and identified motivations</u></b>.          +: This study detected ethnicity's <b><u>main effect</u></b> on <b><u>all five motivations</u></b>.</p>

<p><i>R7: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' leisure motivation overall?</i></p> <p>✓: <b><u>Younger</u></b> Chinese Canadian older adults were <b><u>more</u></b> motivated to participate in mainstream activities.</p> <p>✓: <b><u>Separated</u></b> (i.e., low-acculturated) Chinese Canadian older adults were <b><u>less</u></b> motivated to participate in mainstream activities.</p> <p>+: Mixed results (either <b><u>more</u></b> or <b><u>less</u></b> motivated) were reported for <b><u>Integrated</u></b> (i.e., bi-acculturated) Chinese Canadian older adults.</p>
<p><i>R8a: Does face overall differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i></p> <p>✓:</p> <p>+: This study detected a significant <b><u>interaction effect</u></b> between age and ethnicity on <b><u>other-face</u></b>.</p>
<p><i>R9a: Does face overall differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i></p> <p>✓: This study detected ethnicity's <b><u>main effect</u></b> on <b><u>other-face</u></b>, with British Canadian older adults being <b><u>less</u></b> constrained than their Chinese counterparts.</p> <p>+: This study detected a significant <b><u>interaction effect</u></b> between gender and ethnicity on <b><u>self-face</u></b>.</p> <p>+: This study detected gender's <b><u>main effect</u></b> on <b><u>other-face</u></b>, with female older adults being <b><u>less</u></b> constrained than their male counterparts.</p>
<p><i>R8b: Does leisure constraint overall (including intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i></p> <p>✓: This study detected a significant <b><u>interaction effect</u></b> between age and ethnicity on <b><u>structural constraints</u></b>.</p> <p>✓: This study detected ethnicity's <b><u>main effects</u></b> on both <b><u>intrapersonal</u></b> and <b><u>interpersonal constraints</u></b>.</p> <p>+: Mainland Chinese older adults were <b><u>more interpersonal constrained</u></b> than Chinese Canadians.</p>
<p><i>R9b: Does leisure constraint overall (including intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?</i></p> <p>✓: This study detected ethnicity's <b><u>main effects</u></b> on <b><u>all three types of constraints</u></b>.</p> <p>+: Female older adults were <b><u>less intrapersonal constrained</u></b> than their male counterparts.</p>
<p><i>R10: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' leisure constraint overall?</i></p> <p>✓: <b><u>Separated</u></b> (i.e., low-acculturated) Chinese Canadian older adults were <b><u>more</u></b> constrained to participate in mainstream activities.</p> <p>+: Male older adults were <b><u>more constrained</u></b> than their female counterparts.</p> <p>+: <b><u>Integrated</u></b> (i.e., bi-acculturated) Chinese Canadian older adults experienced more constraints when engaging in mainstream leisure activities.</p>

*R11a: Do cognitive strategies differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

✓:

+: This study detected a significant **main effect** for age on **cognitive strategies**.

*R11b: Do behavioural strategies differ by age, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

✓: This study detected a significant **main effect** for age on **behavioural strategies**: being older is negatively related to the possibility of employing “modify time” and “acquire skills”.

✓: British Canadian older adults were significantly **less** likely to choose “**acquire skills**” than their Mainland Chinese and Chinese Canadian counterparts.

+: The reason why British Canadians were **less** likely to use **physical therapy** to improve their health (so that they can participate in leisure activities) is unclear.

*R12a: Do cognitive strategies differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

✓:

+: **Neither an interaction effect** between gender and ethnicity **nor main effects** of these two variables was detected.

*R12b: Do behavioural strategies differ by gender, ethnicity, and the interaction between the two?*

✓: Female older adults were **more** likely to **modify their time** than their male counterparts.

✓: British Canadian older adults were significantly **less** likely to choose “**acquire skills**” than their Mainland Chinese and Chinese Canadian counterparts.

+: The reason why British Canadians were **less** likely to use **physical therapy** to improve their health (so that they can participate in leisure activities) is unclear.

*R13a: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' cognitive strategies?*

✓: Both **Separated** (i.e., low-acculturated) and **Integrated** (i.e., bi-acculturated) Chinese Canadian older adults were **more** likely to **employ cognitive strategies**.

+: Although the levels of acculturation **differ**, **younger** Chinese Canadian older adults were always **more** likely to employ **negotiation strategies**. Also, age, non-dominant culture, and dominant culture **contributed evenly** to predict Chinese Canadian older adults' usage of **cognitive strategies**.

*R13b: How are age, gender, and acculturation related to Chinese Canadian older adults' behavioural strategies?*

- ✓: Both *Separated* (i.e., low-acculturated) and *Integrated* (i.e., bi-acculturated) Chinese Canadian older adults were *more* likely to *employ behavioural strategies*.
- +: Although the levels of acculturation *differ, younger* Chinese Canadian older adults were always *more* likely to employ *negotiation strategies*. Also, compared to age, acculturation (i.e., non-dominant and dominant culture) *contributed significantly more* to predict Chinese Canadian older adults' usage of *behavioural strategies*.

*Note.* ✓ refers to previous research that supports this result. + indicates new finding.

To summarize, this dissertation's unique approach, which reflects the intersection among gerontology, leisure studies, and cross-cultural psychology, resulted in numerous heretofore unreported findings. Moreover, many of these outcomes challenge long-held perceptions of, and introduce diverse and even opposite perspectives to, researchers and practitioners in these areas. For example, compared with age and gender, ethnicity and acculturation play statistically and practically significant "differentiating" roles in explaining older adults' leisure participation. However, as Walker et al. (2005) pointed out, by over-emphasizing ethnic and cultural differences, researchers may have under-recognized ethnic and cultural similarities. Therefore, given Canada, China, and many other countries' growing ethnic and older adult populations, further overturning of conventional understanding seems not only inevitable but even essential.

## **Implications**

The above 18 research question results have both theoretical and practical implications.

### **Theoretical implications.**

In regard to the theoretical implications, the contributions of this cross-cultural study are sevenfold:

- (1) This study adopted Walker and Viriden's (2005) leisure constraints model (see Figure 1) and tested a number of micro (i.e., motivations, constraints,

and constraint negotiation) and macro (i.e., age gender, ethnicity, and acculturation) level variables. The results showed that the perception of these variables is largely similar across cultures but important differences can and do exist, further confirming the model's cross-cultural applicability.

- (2) Because Walker and Virden's (2005) model overlooked age's potential impact, by incorporating it as a macro-level factor, this model demonstrates its potential to be "integrative" (Crawford & Jackson, 2005). Because of this addition, leisure researchers now have a vehicle to help integrate many gerontological theories to investigate older population's leisure behaviours. More importantly, as both McGuire (2000) and Gibson (2006) held that leisure researchers are usually theory borrowers rather than owners, in return, this study provides gerontology researchers a leisure constraints model to apply in their own area of research.
- (3) Undertaking this type of cross-cultural research could prove highly beneficial. For example, Berry et al. (2002) held that researchers should pay more attention not only to etics (i.e., cross-cultural concepts and behaviours) but also to emics (i.e., culture-specific concepts and behaviours) because these two approaches complement each other and provide researchers with a more complete understanding of a phenomenon. As well, as the range of culture-specific variables increases, the range of observed behaviours increases correspondingly (Ho & Wu, 2001; Sue et al, 1979). For instance, I incorporated the concept of "face" into the concept of leisure constraints to study Chinese people's leisure behaviours. My study, built on Liang and Walker's (2011) work, also detected a number of significant differences (see Research Questions 8a and 9a) and further confirmed the necessity of including face scale when studying Chinese

population.

- (4) I raised a concern regarding whether the leisure constraint scale I adopted from previous studies (e.g., Walker et al., 2007) accurately reflects the actual constraints older adults may experience. As a result, I proposed that constraints might not critically affect older adults' leisure behaviours and instead constraints could be potential motivations for participation. This finding is in line with what some of the researchers (e.g., Kleiber et al., 2008; McGuire & Norman, 2005; Samdahl, 2005) have presented about the possible benefits of constraints to older adults and further supports the applicability of selective optimization with compensation theory (SOC, Baltes, 2003; Baltes & Carstensen, 1999) in refining research on older adults' leisure (Burnett-Wolle & Godbey, 2007).
- (5) This study facilitated leisure researchers in understanding successful aging not only through using SOC theory (one of the successful aging theories), but also through demonstrating the heterogeneous ways in which older adults define and measure success (Baltes & Carstensen, 2003). This again suggests that because older people's actual leisure participation is a complex decision-making process, by using our own leisure model (e.g., Walker & Virden, 2005), we may be better able to unveil the full and diverse picture of older adults' leisure behaviours and what the true successful aging means to them.
- (6) As indicated in my Literature Review chapter, very few researchers have directed their attention to explore the relationship between acculturation and motivation, and acculturation and constraint negotiation. My study addressed this research gap and revealed many interesting findings that have not been reported in previous research. For example, I found that despite the level of acculturation, younger Chinese Canadian older adults



were always more likely to employ negotiation strategies. Additionally, among the various negotiation strategies examined, acquiring skills was more important for both Mainland Chinese and Chinese Canadians.

(7) Based on my findings and Walker and Virden's (2005) leisure constraints model, I proposed a "Cross-Cultural Leisure Participation Framework for Older Adults" (see Figure 12).

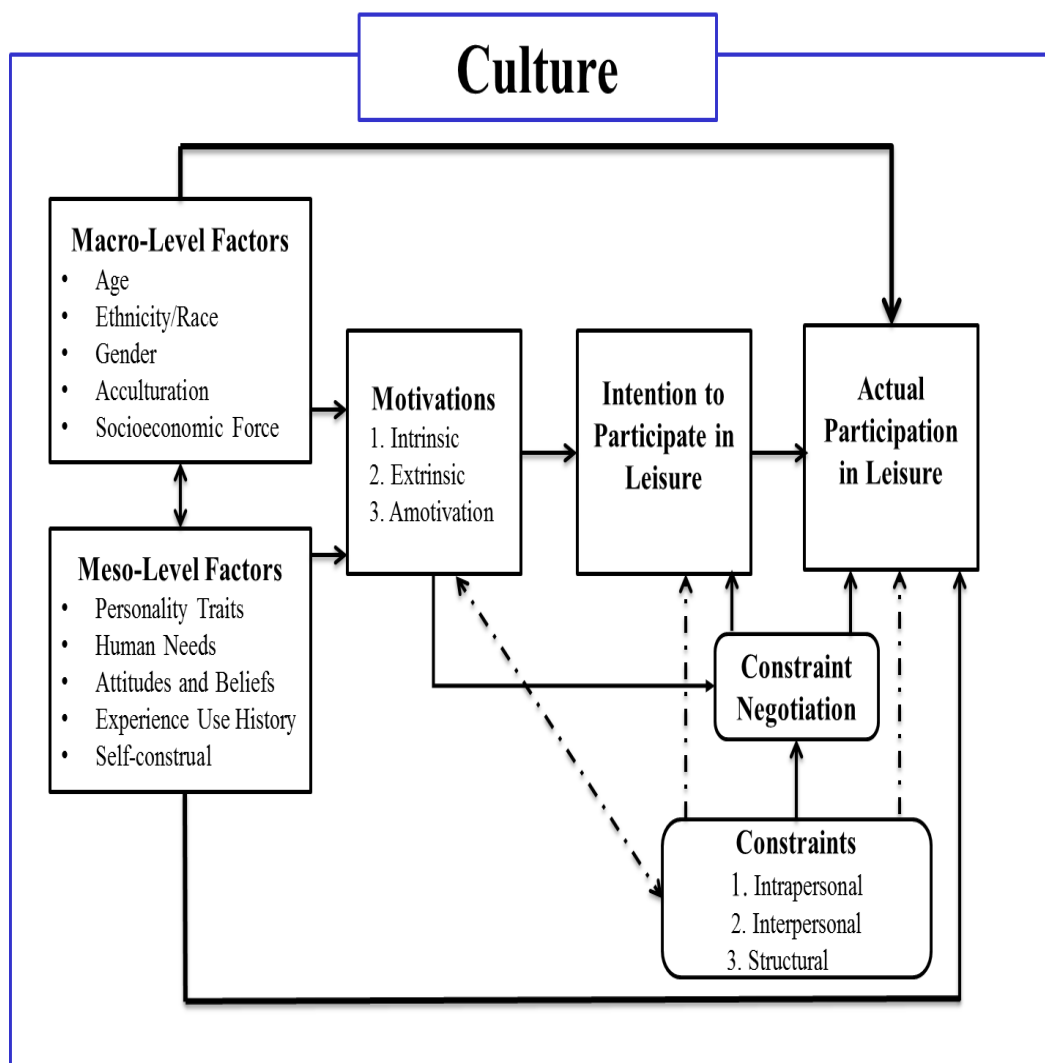


Figure 12. Cross-Cultural Leisure Participation Framework for Older Adults.

The framework modifies Walker and Virden's (2005) model (Figure 1) in five different ways: (1) emphasizing *constraints'* direct impact on triggering

*negotiation* efforts that can mitigate the negative effects of the constraints, which is similar to Hubbard and Mannell's (2001) Constraint-Effects-Mitigation Model; (2) stressing *motivations*' connection with *constraint negotiation*, suggesting that highly motivated people are more likely to employ negotiation strategies; (3) illustrating the potential interconversion possibility between *motivations* and *constraints* (with a double-arrow dotted line); (4) suggesting a less significant effect of *constraints* on both *intention to participate in leisure* and *actual participation in leisure* (with one way arrow dotted lines) compared to *motivations* and *constraints negotiation*; and (5) placing *culture* on top of the framework to encompass all the included factors and relationships, suggesting that these factors and relationships are construed to be largely similar across cultures but that important differences can and do exist.

To summarize, as Berry et al. (2002) stated: "by recognizing the limits of our current knowledge...and by seeking to extend our data and theory through the inclusion of other cultures...we can reduce the culture-bound nature of the discipline" (p. 9).

### **Practical implications.**

This study's value lies not only in that it showed that both the micro and macro levels of variables affect older adults' leisure behaviours, but also in what these findings imply for leisure practice for both China and Canada. In terms of the former, Xiao (2003) recommended that:

To adequately prepare for the emergence of China's leisure industry, and the subsequent coming of a leisure-oriented society, leisure related education and research should be emphasized, resulting in better qualified personnel who can manage the development of this promising future. (p. 274)

Thus, this study serves as an education tool for Chinese leisure researchers

and practitioners to not only understand the benefits of leisure and major micro and macro factors that influence leisure behaviours, but also to better prepare for the challenge of an aging population (Su, 2008).

Similarly, because of the growing number of immigrants to Canada (Statistics Canada, 2011), dealing with minority group (e.g., Chinese) customers becomes very common for many businesses and services providers. Although there might be numerous suggestions available (e.g., providing culturally appropriate services; Lai, 2001) for practitioners in the leisure studies and gerontology fields, I feel that it is necessary to first discuss the determinant that leads to the possibility and practicability of implementing any specific suggestions, which, according to McGuire (2000):

We continue to struggle with the tie between research and practice. The on-going discussion about translating research into applications useful to practitioners does not seem any closer to solutions than it was twenty years ago. Rather than interpreting findings after a project has been completed it may be more effective to directly involve practitioners in the research process. Many of the individuals writing for the *Gerontologist* and the *Journal of Gerontology* are either working for agencies such as the Veteran's Administration or have an affiliation with an agency directly involved in services to older people. These direct ties avoid the need to create links to agencies since the researcher is link. (p. 99)

My study and I both serve as the link to the real world. Specifically, this study recruited British Canadian participants from Westend Seniors Activity Centre (WSAC, 2012) and Chinese Canadian participants from ASSIST Community Services Centre (ASSIST, 2008). During the data collection, I was hired as the Multicultural/Project Coordinator for WSAC. Ever since I started this position, I have been continuously applying the knowledge I have gained from my

research and education into the actual programs. For example, I initiated a number of multicultural programs, including 2013 Chinese New Year Celebration partnered with ElderCare Day Program (ElderCare Edmonton, 2013) and Meadowlark School Bilingual Program (Meadowlark School, 2013), First Interagency Badminton Tournament in 2012 partnered with ASSIST (2008), and 2012 Multicultural Potluck partnered with ASSIST (2008) and International Buddhist Progress Society Edmonton (IBPSE, 2013). Beyond these special events for awareness of multiculturalism, I also introduced many traditional, authentic Chinese programs such as Chinese painting, Chinese beading to the mainstream-culture-dominated Westend Seniors Activity Centre (WSAC, 2012) through Confucius Institute in Edmonton (CIE, 2013). Because of all these multicultural initiatives for older adults, I was just granted the 2012-2013 New Horizons for Seniors Program funding (\$25,000; Human Resources and Skills Development Canada, 2013) and 2013 Alberta Culture Days funding (\$3,600; Alberta Culture, 2013). Among all these above examples, I addressed many leisure constraint issues faced by Chinese Canadian older adults such as lack of English proficiency, lack of transportation, lack of skills for mainstream leisure activities by employing various negotiation strategies such as introducing Chinese University students who can act as the interpreter, making use of the funding to cover the bus cost, and pairing Canadian older adults with Chinese older adults. Also, as I realized that the opportunity for a free meal (Lai, 2001) is one of the motivations for older adults (particular Chinese Canadians) to come to these programs, I made sure all of my programs included a nutritious meal for them.

Therefore, I firmly believe that my role as a researcher and practitioner linking with the seniors centre and other cultural organizations contributed significantly to the success of my events/programs and grant applications. However, as McGuire (2000) pointed out, “there are not that many people

examining the leisure and aging area” (p. 99). Not surprisingly, this is the reality in the real world. For example, among the 26 senior centres in Edmonton (Government of Alberta), I believe I am the only Chinese-descent staff member with a leisure studies and gerontology background. As well, unlike the Faculty of Kinesiology and Recreation Management (2013) at the University of Manitoba with its Interfaculty Option in Aging (i.e., similar to a minor in Aging), the Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation at the University of Alberta does not pay enough attention to this population. This neglect reflects not only in its undergraduate programs (e.g., Bachelor of Arts in Recreation, Sport, and Tourism; Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation, 2013b), but also in its graduate programs (Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation, 2013a) in that almost none of the researchers (e.g., professors) focuses his or her areas of research in aging. Consequently, it is not surprising to find that we “continue to struggle with the tie between research and practice” (McGuire, 2000, p. 99). Thus, designing and offering academic and professional certified programs tailored to this unavoidable growing segment of the aging population for researchers and practitioners in both leisure and gerontology fields should be a necessity rather than just an option.

In regard to specific suggestions, one example is that Lai (2001) recommended service providers to “adopt culturally appropriate methods to inform [Chinese older adults] of the nature and purposes of these support services” (p. 76) as counselling and consultation might be “new” and “foreign” for this group, especially the newer immigrants. Taking my abovementioned successful events/programs as examples, and recalling from my study that younger Chinese Canadian older adults were always more likely to employ negotiation strategies regardless of their levels of acculturation, I feel that minority older adults’ employment of negotiation strategies will work much better if services providers

can also take proactive actions to negotiate (e.g., hiring minority group staff) certain constraints (e.g., language barriers). Consequently, mutual benefits could result in both minority older adults' higher motivation to participate in leisure and service providers' increased multicultural profile.

Lastly, this study reminded both researchers and practitioners in both the leisure and gerontology fields that there is no clear consensus on the definition of successful aging. Therefore, both researchers and practitioners should bear in mind that they cannot always equate successful aging with "active" or "participation" (in any activities). If they do so, not only they will unintentionally marginalize a portion of older adults who are less active or even nonparticipating (in activities), but also implicitly put on an "unsuccessful aging" label, which indeed indirectly promotes ageism (George, 2012). Thus, promoting healthy aging and providing options in any kind of services are the key for facing the challenge of rapidly aging population worldwide.

#### **Limitations and future directions.**

As with any research, there are a number of limitations to this study. The primary issue is the use of a convenience sample. According to Visser, Krosnick, and Lavrakas (2000), convenience sampling can be problematic because: (a) the people who volunteer may be more interested in the survey topic than those who do not; and (b) the sample's potential lack of representativeness may affect the generalizability of its findings. Thus, future leisure research with Chinese, Canadian, and other ethnic (e.g., Korean, Japanese, South Asian) groups and possibly being replicated in other countries (e.g., Australia, European countries), ideally using random sampling methods, is recommended if the availability of resources such as money, time, and personnel (Fowler, 1993) is not a major concern.

Similarly, the second limitation is the sample's lack of representativeness

in terms of locations and criteria of recruiting participants. As indicated in the method section, I recruited “active” older adults that resided in cities (Zhongshan City and Edmonton) and participated in various leisure activities offered in recreation centre or seniors centres based on the availability of resources (Fowler, 1993). However, this sample cannot represent the less active older adults or the ones residing in rural areas. For example, both Su (2006) and Zhang (2006) revealed the huge differences between rural and urban Chinese older adults in terms of leisure perception and preferences, leisure opportunities, and leisure satisfaction. Thus, future cross-cultural research may also consider comparing and contrasting rural older adults’ leisure behaviours.

Furthermore, a third limitation is reflected in the small number of older adults aged “85 or above” being recruited for this study. This posed two issues: (1) this study excluded one of the fastest growing age group in Canada (The City of Edmonton, 2010) and Mainland China (Chen, Mu, Song, & Zheng, 2008) and therefore the results may have been biased in terms of my current sample being more “healthy” and active than the so called “oldest-old” group that is characterized by “dwindling social and financial resources, more serious and often disabling health problems, and general frailty” (George, 2012, p. 872); and (2) this exclusion may be one of the reasons for age, in comparison to ethnicity and acculturation, not being a significant factor for explaining older adults’ leisure participation. Therefore, future research should pay more attention to and include this growing age group.

The fourth limitation is that in cross-cultural studies, one of the most crucial problems is the construct inequivalence that challenges the validity of the cross-cultural comparisons (Brislin, 1980; Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006; van de Vijver & Leung, 1997). In my study, except for the constraint scale, the other three scales (i.e., spare-time activity, motivations, negotiation) more or less reflected the issue

of construct inequivalence. One possible reason for this might be that during data collection, because I only translated the questionnaire from English into simplified Chinese, some Chinese Canadian participants who only spoke Cantonese and only read traditional Chinese needed a great deal of assistance understanding the questions (which also led to participant fatigue; Dillman, 2000). Thus, future cross-cultural leisure research may want to: (a) take into consideration the dialect factor and involve interpreter if possible, and (b) simplify scale items with “lay language”, or providing practical examples, or both.

Finally, in my study, I selected and modified Zane and Yeh’s (2002) Loss of Face Scale (LOF) to explore face’s effect on older adults’ leisure behaviours. However, this scale only operationalized two face concern dimensions (i.e., self- and other-face), whereas Ting-Tommey and Oetzel (2001) added a third dimension: mutual face. Wang and Walker (2011) used this three-pronged approach in an examination of Mainland Chinese and British-Canadian university student travellers’ motivation to gain self-, other- and mutual-face. They found that Chinese students rated mutual- and other-face higher whereas Canadian students rated self-face higher. Therefore, future research on this topic should examine all three dimensions as well.

Beyond the above suggestions, there are at least six additional ways this cross-cultural study could be extended.

First, in Walker and Virden’s (2005) leisure constraints model (see Figure 2), self-construal, as one of the meso level factors, has “a cumulative effect on leisure preferences” (p. 202). Also, a number of previous studies used the concept of self-construal (i.e., Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis) to study leisure motivation (e.g., Walker & Wang, 2008), leisure constraints (e.g., Walker et al., 2008), and face (Ting-Toomey and Kurogi, 1998). Thus, it seems that including



self-construal in future cross-cultural studies would be a logical next step.

Second, built on my concern about the possibility of my constraint scale's (see "*Special notes*") not reflecting the actual constraints older adults may experience, and Crawford and Jackson's (2005) recommendation that both qualitative and quantitative efforts should be made to develop constraint and constraint negotiation measures, I propose that:

- Leisure researchers should collect qualitative data (e.g., interview) first to develop quantitative instruments later on (Fielding & Fielding, 1986),
- Given that cross-cultural research involving both leisure and gerontology is an understudied area, leisure researchers should continuously employ qualitative methods as they have "yielded in-depth understanding of leisure among a variety of different people and has the potential to contribute much more as populations become increasingly diverse" (Gibson, 2006, p. 399).
- Leisure researchers should also be more open-minded and innovative when employing concepts/scales from other disciplines. For example, the acculturative stress scale from the nursing field (i.e., language difficulties, not feeling at home, loss/nostalgia, and perceived discrimination; Aroian, Norris, Tran, & Schappler-Morris, 1998) can be incorporated into constraint scale when conducting cross-cultural studies. This integration can be extended to other leisure constructs. For instance, when study Chinese population, "the opportunity for a free meal" (Lai, 2001) and "satisfying the need for belongingness" (Walker & Liang, 2012) can be included in the motivation scale, whereas Lai and Chau's (2007) Chinese cultural value scale and Lai's (2001) living arrangement scale can be used to measure Chinese older adults' acculturation levels.

Third, research suggests that both physiological and psychological needs

vary across cultures and could affect leisure participation. For example, in regard to the former, Kleiber, Walker, and Mannell (2011) proposed that optimal arousal might be the most important physiological need for studying leisure behaviours. But arousal, along with valence (i.e., pleasant/unpleasant), actually compose another often identified leisure property: affect. Tsai, Knutson, and Fung (2006), for instance, proposed that Westerners would be more inclined to engage in leisure activities that produce high-arousal positive affect (or HAP, including elated, excited, and enthusiastic), while Asians would be more inclined to engage in leisure activities that produce low-arousal positive affect (or LAP, including calm, relaxed, and peaceful). With respect to the latter, Ryan and Deci (2000) held that there were three needs (i.e., autonomy, relatedness, and competence) essential for people's psychological growth and well-being. For example, Deci and Ryan (2000) found that intrinsic motivation is fostered when these three fundamental needs are satisfied. As already reported in my study, Chinese Canadian participants in the "65 to 74" age group were less intrinsically-motivated than their British Canadian and Mainland Chinese counterparts, which might be because Chinese Canadian older adults' competence was negatively affected by language barriers, and their need for relatedness was thwarted by having a limited social network. Thus, more attention on different ethnic/cultural groups' physiological and psychological "needs" is needed for future cross-cultural leisure studies.

Fourth, the exclusion of exploring how ageism, sexism, and discrimination affect older adults' leisure behaviours in this study does not mean these negative phenomena do not exist. For example, Walker and Deng (2011) reported that social, psychological, and aesthetic leisure satisfaction *mitigated*, while physiological leisure satisfaction *exacerbated*, perceived discrimination-based stress. Thus, future research should take these negative phenomena into

consideration.

Fifth, during the data screening process, I deleted the variable “income” (which was not an analytical variable in this study) due to its more than 5% of the missing cases. Nevertheless, as already discussed in Research Question 7, Stodolska and Alexandris (2004) held that people’s socio-economic status played a more important role than acculturation level in predicting immigrants’ leisure behaviours. Additionally, according to a report from the City of Edmonton (2010), older adults’ incomes decline with age; that is, “[as] financial security is threatened, so too is a person’s overall well-being, including their ability to continue living independently” (p. 5). Therefore, future studies should not overlook this important factor.

Finally, Gibson (2006) suggested that there is a need to use other approaches such as experimental design and longitudinal studies when studying aging population as “[engaging] in long-term enquiry in one area not only lends itself to new theory development, but can also be used to add to existing theories both in leisure studies and in the related parent disciplines” (p. 400). Unfortunately, as McGuire (2000) pointed out, unlike the large amount of funded research in the gerontology field, funding for conducting significant leisure and aging research is scarce. From my personal working experience at the Westend Seniors Activity Centre, I am aware that since Edmonton was officially accepted as “a member of the WHO Global Network of Age-Friendly Cities©” (Edmonton Seniors Coordinating Council [ESCC], 2011, p. 1) in late 2010, the City of Edmonton has identified nine key strategic areas and 18 goals to improve the quality of life of Edmonton older adults. Among these nine areas, the fourth one “Social and Recreation Participation” (ESCC, 2011, p. 4) encompasses two goals: “Seniors have access to a wide array of affordable and personally relevant activities” (p. 29) and “Opportunities for social engagement and recreation are

inclusive and welcome diversity” (p. 30). Therefore, just like the examples I listed in the “Practical Implications” section, different levels of government already realized the challenge of aging population and do have funding for short-term and long-term projects. For example, under both goals, a couple of projects will last about three to five years. So if leisure researchers can connect themselves with the “real life” projects, they can not only solve the funding issue, but also find the meaningful link between research and practice.

In closing, this cross-ethnic and -cultural study responded to Gramann and Allison’s (1999) call regarding the lack of leisure research in the lives of racial and ethnic populations generally, and Chinese people specifically. More importantly, in response to the global trend of aging population, this study, as one of the pioneer studies in both leisure and gerontology fields, paid greater attention to older adults’ leisure behaviours by comparing and contrasting three different ethnic/cultural groups (i.e., British Canadian, Mainland Chinese, and Chinese Canadian). Thus, its value rests with not only enhancing the leisure and gerontology theories, but also bridging the gap between academic and practical worlds.

*Finally, I began my dissertation by discussing that one of the reasons I became interested in this area was because of my personal expression of filial piety to my parents. It seems appropriate to conclude, therefore, by stating that: the journey to completing this dissertation not only has been helping me fulfill my personal responsibilities of being a good son through educating my parents to appreciate the value of leisure for their later lives and designing age-appropriate leisure programs for them, but also has made me realize that when facing the global trends of multiculturalism and aging population, I, being both a researcher and a practitioner, should carry out broader responsibilities to benefit this growing, diverse, and unique population.*

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## Appendix A (1)



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Appendix A (1) – British Canadians

### Participant Information Letter for Interview

**Title of Project:** Older Adults and Their Spare-Time Activity Participation: A Comparison of Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian People.

**Investigator:** Haidong Liang, PhD Candidate

**Affiliation:** Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation, University of Alberta,  
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

**Telephone:** 1.780.935.7625

**Email:** [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

**Study Purpose:** To learn more about older adults' spare-time activity participation by conducting a comprehensive comparison among older Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian people.

**Background:** Research suggests that we may not understand what factors affect older adults' spare-time activity participation cross-culturally. This study examines how different factors may influence older adults' decision to participate or not participate in spare-time activities.

**Procedures:** A 30 to 45 minutes interview will be tape-recorded to facilitate the collection of information. The tape recorder can be turned off at any time upon your request.

**Study Benefits:** As well as thinking about your spare-time activity participation, this study will help researchers better understand the impact of different factors on older adults' spare-time activity participation cross-culturally. Additionally, \$10 will be given to you after you have completed the interview.

**Study Risks:** Given the use of an interview to collect the information in this study, the risks associated with participation may include revealing personal or sensitive information. This may make some participants uncomfortable.

**Confidentiality:** To ensure participants remain anonymous, personal information will be coded and stored in a locked office. Only the investigator will have access to this office. Participants will **NOT** be identified in any future presentations or publications.

**Data Storage:** Normally, information is kept for a period of five years after publication. It is then destroyed.

**Freedom to Withdraw:** You may decline to continue or withdraw from the study at any time (up to when the data is included in my dissertation), without any consequence, and your information will be removed from the study upon your request. To do so, please indicate to the researcher, verbally or in writing, you wish to withdraw. It is important to note that you will still receive your remuneration after completing the interview even if you decide to withdraw at that time.

**Study Findings:** If you would like to learn more about the study's overall findings, please contact the Primary Investigator, Haidong Liang, at 1.780.935.7625 or [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca).

**Additional Contacts:** If you have concerns about this study, you may contact Dr. Kelvin Jones, Chair of the PER-ALES-NS Research Ethics Board, University of Alberta, Canada, at 1.780.492.0302 or [kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca](mailto:kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca). Dr. Jones has no direct involvement with this project. You may also contact Dr. Gordon Walker, the investigator's supervisor, at the University of Alberta, Canada, at 1.780.492.0581 or [gordon.walker@ualberta.ca](mailto:gordon.walker@ualberta.ca).

**Thank you for participating in this study!**

## Appendix A (2)



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Appendix A (2) – British Canadians

### Informed Consent for Interview

#### Part 1 (to be completed by the Principal Investigator)

**Title of Project:** Older Adults and their Spare-Time Activity Participation: A Comparison of Older Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian People.

**Investigator:** Haidong Liang, PhD Candidate

**Telephone:** 1.780.935.7625

**Email:** [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

**Advisor:** Gordon Walker, Professor

**Telephone:** 1.780.492.0581

**Email:** [gordon.walker@ualberta.ca](mailto:gordon.walker@ualberta.ca)

**Affiliation:** Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation, University of Alberta,  
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

#### Part 2 (to be completed by the research participant)

Do you understand that you have been asked to be in a research study	Yes	No
Have you received and read a copy of the attached Information Letter?	Yes	No
Do you understand the benefits and risks involved in participating in this study?	Yes	No
Have you had opportunities to ask questions and discuss this study?	Yes	No
Do you understand that you are free to refuse to participate, or to withdraw from the study at any time (up to when the data is included in my dissertation), without consequence, and that your information will be removed upon your request?	Yes	No
Do you understand that you will still receive your remuneration after completing the interview even if you decide to withdraw at that time?	Yes	No
Has the issue of confidentiality been explained to you? Do you understand who will have access to your information?	Yes	No

This study was explained to me by: \_\_\_\_\_

I agree to participate in this study:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of Research Participant

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Witness

\_\_\_\_\_  
Printed Name

\_\_\_\_\_  
Printed Name

*I believe that the person signing this form understands what is involved in the study and voluntarily agrees to participate.*

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of Investigator or Designee

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

**The Information Letter** must be attached to this consent form and a copy of both forms must be given to the participant.

## Appendix A (3)



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### Appendix A (3) – British Canadians

#### Interview Questions

##### Interview Questions and Probes

##### General Spare-Time Activity Participation

(1) *What kinds of SPARE-TIME ACTIVITY(IES) do you currently do the most often?*

Probe: *(the following are just prompts when respondents do not know how to answer).*

- Outdoor activities (e.g., camping, cycling, fishing, and visiting parks)
- Sports (e.g., table tennis, badminton, basketball)
- Social activities (e.g., chatting, karaoke, eating out)
- Gambling (e.g., mah-jong, poker, lottery, casinos)
- Games (e.g., chess, board games, computer or video games)
- Exercising (e.g., jogging, walking, swimming, aerobics)
- Media activities (e.g., listening to music, watching TV, reading)
- Volunteering (e.g., coach, instructor, church, cultural organization)
- Attending sports events (e.g., Olympics, community sports events, professional games)
- Artistic or creative activities (e.g., crafts, cooking, playing a musical instrument)
- Traveling (e.g., holidays, vacations, pleasure)
- Resting and relaxing (e.g., doing nothing or having a nap)
- Caring for family members (e.g., babysitting, attending children/older people)

*Who do you most prefer doing this activity with? (e.g., alone, friend, family, others)*

(2) *What a NEW SPARE-TIME ACTIVITY would you most likely to start in the future?*

Probe: *(the following are just prompts when respondents do not know how to answer).*

- Outdoor activities (e.g., camping, cycling, fishing, and visiting parks)
- Sports (e.g., table tennis, badminton, basketball)
- Social activities (e.g., chatting, karaoke, eating out)
- Gambling (e.g., mah-jong, poker, lottery, casinos)
- Games (e.g., chess, board games, computer or video games)
- Exercising (e.g., jogging, walking, swimming, aerobics)
- Media activities (e.g., listening to music, watching TV, reading)
- Volunteering (e.g., coach, instructor, church, cultural organization)
- Attending sports events (e.g., Olympics, community sports events, professional games)
- Artistic or creative activities (e.g., crafts, cooking, playing a musical instrument)
- Traveling (e.g., holidays, vacations, pleasure)
- Resting and relaxing (e.g., doing nothing or having a nap)



- Caring for family members (e.g., babysitting, attending children/older people)

*Who would you most prefer doing this activity with? (e.g., alone, friend, family, others)*

**Constraints (i.e., barriers that may stop your participation in aforementioned activities)**

*(1) What constraints prevent you from participating in SPARE-TIME activities? (Serves as a reminder to the researcher what this section is about)*

*(Always ask participants to think about possible extra constraints. The following are actual questions, but these questions are not set questions, they may differ depending on the situations for each participant. Also ask them to rate the top 3 constraints based on their own answer).*

- Intrapersonal constraints (e.g., bad, boring, foolish, not being approved by important people)
  - When you participate in certain spare-time activities, do you perceive any barriers/obstacles? For example, you just think this activity is (e.g., bad, boring, foolish) or your family members do not want you to get involved because they believe that some activities might be too physically demanding for you? And because of this, you are less likely to participate in those spare-time activities?
- Interpersonal constraints (e.g., the people who are important to you – live too far away, do not have time, do not have transportation, do not have enough money)
  - Have you ever experienced something such that you had to stop participating in spare-time activities because of those who are important to you (e.g., your family members, your friends, your previous teammates)? For example, they might be living too far from the place you live; they don't have time and/or money to go with you?
- Structural constraints (e.g., the interviewee - no time, no money, no transportation, other obligations; the facility – too far away, too crowded)
  - We have talked about other people who might not have time, money, transportation, etc to get involved in spare-time activities with you. How about you? Do you have this kind of concern? How about the facilities you have been to, will the facilities themselves be a constraint/barrier to you?
- Self-face (e.g., the interviewee – ask questions, make mistakes, call attention to himself/herself)
  - As you know, face is very important to Chinese people, do you think losing face is a barrier that might influence your participation? If so, in what way? For example, you might think before you participate in the activity: “Do I have to ask questions? Or I'm not familiar with the rules, am I going to make a lot of mistakes?” Can you think of any situations you feel that you might lose your own face?
- Other-face (e.g., the important people – ask questions, make mistakes, call attention to themselves)

- We just talked about our own faces. How about those people who are important to you? Is the possibility of their losing face during activity participation a concern for you? If so, why is that? Similar to the previous question, can you think of any situations you think those people who are important to you might lose their faces?

(Note: avoid giving detailed examples which might receive only *yes* or *no* answer.)

### **Constraint Negotiation (i.e., how you overcome the barriers that may stop your participation)**

(1) *What would help you overcome or negotiate these barriers/constraints?* (Serves as a reminder to the researcher what this section is about)

*(The following are actual questions, but these questions are not set questions, they vary depending on the constraints mentioned by participants. Always ask participants to think about possible extra ways of trying to overcome any barriers/obstacles for their participation.)*

- Cognitive strategies (e.g., ignore, put up with it, be positive)
  - How often do you just ignore or just put up with any difficulties in participating in an activity? For example, because you do not have other people or friends to pick you up, so you just think you might have to take a bus to get to the leisure centre yourself.
  - What is your attitude towards those barriers that you have mentioned above? Will you just try to be positive and have fun or will you be very negative? How does it work?
- Behavioural strategies (e.g., modify time, acquire skills, change interpersonal relations, improve finance, physical therapy, and change leisure aspirations)
  - You mentioned that time is one of the barriers that stop your participation. How often do you change your daily schedule to fit around your activity? Do you do some planning beforehand? And how?
  - You also mentioned learning new skills, what types of (e.g., sporting, musical, practical) skills have you learned to participate in? For example, in order to be able to play the game, you ask your son/daughter to help with the required skills.
  - You mentioned (e.g., friends, family members, people you meet in the centre), how will they help you overcome those barriers? For example, have you tried to ask friends to do the activity with you so that you can get a ride?
  - Money is another big issue, isn't it? How would you deal with this if you have to pay a large amount of money to participate each time? (Probe: do it less often, get a job, budget money better)
  - You talked about your (e.g., injury, disease), anyone may have to stop doing these activities in this situation. In what way you have gotten over it to continue your participation? (Probe: medicine, physical therapy)
  - What if you really want to participate in some activities, but you have been limited by something like equipment, clothes, or nobody with similar skill levels?
- Do you have any other ways of trying to overcome obstacles to your participation?

(2) Bias (*think about possible association with acculturation when interviewing Chinese Canadians – integration, assimilation, separation, and marginalization*)

*(The following example questions are actual questions, but these questions are not set questions, they may differ depending on the situations for each participant.)*

I. *Do you think people (i.e., yourself and/or other people) experience bias, in terms of ageism, when engaging in certain types of SPARE-TIME activities? Is this bias a constraint? If so, how do you negotiate this constraint?*

Example questions that will facilitate participants' understanding

- Ageism refers to certain comments or behaviours toward older people. For example, “these people are too old to participate in that kind of activity”. When you hear this kind of comment, does it influence your own participation? To what extent? If this kind of comment becomes a barrier in your life, how can you overcome it? Do you think it is something that you or other people cannot get away from? Why do you think so? Any suggestions on how to deal with ageism?

II. *Do you think people (i.e., yourself and/or other people) experience bias, in terms of sexism, when engaging in certain types of SPARE-TIME activities? Is this bias a constraint? If so, how do you negotiate this constraint?*

Example questions that will facilitate participants' understanding

- Sexism can be understood as certain comments or behaviours toward certain gender (in most occasions, against women). For example, “women shouldn't be allowed to play this kind of game”. When you hear this kind of comment, does it influence your own participation? To what extent? If this kind of comment becomes a barrier in your life, how can you overcome it? Do you think it is something that you or other people cannot get away from? Why do you think so? Any suggestions on how to deal with sexism?

(Note: if respondents do not understand the term “bias”, I will provide them with alternative terms such as prejudice, discrimination to facilitate their understanding)

## Appendix A (4)



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### Appendix A (4) – British Canadians

#### Name List for Interview

Thank you for participating in this study. If you have any further question, a Participant Information Letter is available. Once you have completed the interview, please sign this sheet and we will give you **\$10.00**. *The information provided below will only be used to ensure financial propriety. Because interviews are only identifiable by a numerical code, they cannot be linked to the information you give below.*

	Name (Please Print)	Email Address/ Phone Number	Signature	Date
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				

**Thank you for participating in this study!**

## Appendix A (5)



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Appendix A (5) – British Canadians

### Participant Information Letter for Questionnaire

**Title of Project:** Older Adults and Their Spare-Time Activity Participation: A Comparison of Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian People.

**Investigator:** Haidong Liang, PhD Candidate

**Affiliation:** Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation, University of Alberta,  
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

**Telephone:** 1.780.935.7625

**Email:** [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

**Study Purpose:** To learn more about older adults' spare-time activity participation by conducting a comprehensive comparison among older Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian people.

**Background:** Research suggests that we may not understand what factors affect older adults' spare-time activity participation cross-culturally. This study examines how different factors may influence older adults' decision to participate or not participate in spare-time activities.

**Procedures:** You will be asked to complete a short questionnaire (10 – 15 minutes). Your return of the questionnaire implies your consent to participate in this study.

**Study Benefits:** As well as thinking about your spare-time activity participation, this study will help researchers better understand the impact of different factors on older adults' spare-time activity participation cross-culturally. Additionally, \$5 will be given to you after you have completed the questionnaire.

**Study Risks:** Given the use of a questionnaire to collect information, the risks associated with participation may include revealing personal or sensitive information. This may make some participants uncomfortable.

**Confidentiality:** To ensure participants remain anonymous, personal information will be coded and stored in a locked office. Only the investigator will have access to this office. Participants will **NOT** be identified in any future presentations or publications.

**Data Storage:** Normally, information is kept for a period of five years after publication. It is then destroyed.

**Freedom to Withdraw:** You may decline to continue or withdraw from the study at any time (up to when the data is included in my dissertation), without any consequence, and your information will be removed from the study upon your request. To do so, please indicate to the researcher, verbally or in writing, you wish to withdraw. It is important to note that you will still receive your remuneration after completing the questionnaire even if you decide to withdraw at that time.

**Study Findings:** If you would like to learn more about the study's overall findings, please contact the Primary Investigator, Haidong Liang, at 1.780.935.7625 or [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca).

**Additional Contacts:** If you have concerns about this study, you may contact Dr. Kelvin Jones, Chair of the PER-ALES-NS Research Ethics Board, University of Alberta, Canada, at 1.780.492.0302 or [kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca](mailto:kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca). Dr. Jones has no direct involvement with this project. You may also contact Dr. Gordon Walker, the investigator's supervisor, at the University of Alberta, Canada, at 1.780.492.0581 or [gordon.walker@ualberta.ca](mailto:gordon.walker@ualberta.ca).

**Thank you for participating in this study!**

## Appendix A (6) British Canadians: Questionnaire



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Appendix A (6) – British Canadians

ID #: \_\_\_\_\_

### Older Adults and Their Spare-Time Activity Participation: A Comparison of Older Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian People

Gender: \_\_\_ Male \_\_\_ Female

Which age group do you belong to? (Please place a mark next to the answer)

\_\_\_ less than 55 \_\_\_ 55-64 \_\_\_ 65-74 \_\_\_ 75-84 \_\_\_ 85 or above

Which ***ethnic group*** do you most closely identify with? (Choose ***only one*** by placing a mark next to the answer)

\_\_\_ English \_\_\_ English-Canadian \_\_\_ Irish \_\_\_ Irish-Canadian  
\_\_\_ Scottish \_\_\_ Scottish-Canadian \_\_\_ Welsh \_\_\_ Welsh-Canadian  
\_\_\_ Chinese \_\_\_ Chinese-Canadian \_\_\_ Canadian \_\_\_ none of the above

This questionnaire has six sections, including (1) **Spare Time Activity Participation**, (2) **Motivations**, (3) **Constraints**, (4) **Negotiation**, (5) **Self-Construct**, and (6) **Demographic Information**. ***Spare time*** means things that you do when you're not at work, or doing housework. Please answer the following questions by circling the number next to the most appropriate answer or by writing your answer in the space provided. **By agreeing to complete this questionnaire, you are giving your consent.** Once you have completed the questionnaire, please sign the separate sheet and we will give you **\$5**. Thank you!

## SECTION 1: SPARE TIME ACTIVITY PARTICIPATION

Please tell me how frequently you participated in each of the following types of **spare time** activities during the past 12 months. Please indicate the extent to which you participate in each category of spare time activities by circling your response.

Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Extremely Often
1	2	3	4	5	6

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Outdoor recreation activities, such as camping, cycling, fishing or visiting parks.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. Playing sports, such as badminton, tennis, table tennis or basketball.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. Doing social activities, such as eating out, chatting, karaoke, entertaining, or spending time with family or friends.          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. Gambling, such as playing poker, mah-jong, the lottery, or going to casinos.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. Playing games, such as chess, board games, or video and computer games.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. Exercising, such as aerobics, jogging, walking, swimming, or attending fitness classes.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 7. Media activities, such as listening to music, listening to the radio, reading, or watching movies or television.                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 8. Volunteering, as a coach, instructor, or with a church or a cultural organization.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 9. Attending sports events, such as Olympics, FIFA World Cup, or high-school, university, or community sports events.              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 10. Doing artistic or creative activities, such as crafts, cooking, playing a musical instrument, or going to a museum or concert. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 11. Traveling for pleasure, on holidays, or vacation.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 12. Resting and relaxing, by doing nothing or having a nap.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 13. Caring for family members such as babysitting, attending children/older people.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

## SECTION 2: MOTIVATION

Listed below are statements about the different reasons or motivations a person might have for participating in spare time activities. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling your response.

<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Moderately Disagree</b>	<b>Slightly Disagree</b>	<b>Slightly Agree</b>	<b>Moderately Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>

*I do what I do in my spare time...*

1. Because it is interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Because it is part of my personal identity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Because the activities I do are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Because of the pressure I put on myself to do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Because of the pressure others put on me to do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Because the activities I do are enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Because the activities I do are part of who I am as a person.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Because the activities I do are worthwhile to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Because if I don't do it, I feel guilty.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Because of the rewards others give me afterwards.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Because it is fun.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Because the activities I do reflect who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Because it reflects my personal values.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Because of the rewards I give myself afterwards.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Because the activities I do make others feel good about me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

**SECTION 3: CONSTRAINTS**

Listed below are statements about the different reasons or constraints a person might have for **NOT** participating in spare time activities. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling your response.

<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Moderately Disagree</b>	<b>Slightly Disagree</b>	<b>Slightly Agree</b>	<b>Moderately Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>

1. It is bad for me to participate in spare time activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. The people who are important to me might lose face if they had to ask questions when participating in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if I do not have transportation to do them.	1	2	3	4	5	6



4. The people who are important to me live too far away to participate in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities because I might lose face if I had to ask questions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. The people who are important to me would not approve of me participating in spare time activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if I do not have enough money to do them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. The people who are important to me might lose face if they made mistakes when participating in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if the facilities are too crowded.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. The people who are important to me do not have enough time to participate in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. It is boring for me to participate in spare time activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities because I might lose face if I made mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. The people who are important to me do not have transportation to participate in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if I have too many other obligations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. The people who are important to me might lose face if they called attention to themselves when participating in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. It is foolish for me to participate in spare time activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if I do not have enough time to do them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. The people who are important to me do not have enough money to participate in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities because I might lose face if I called attention to myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if the facilities I need to do them are too far away.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. The people who are important to me have too many other obligations to participate in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

## SECTION 4: NEGOTIATION

Listed below are statements about the different ways a person uses to overcome the constraints he or she faces when trying to participate in spare time activities. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling your response.

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

*In order for me to participate in my spare time activities,*

- | 1. I just ignore the constraints I encounter.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2. I budget my time more effectively.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. I practice more to get better.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. I find people with similar interests.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. I budget my money.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. I get medical treatment to help me participate.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 7. I improvise with what I already have (e.g., clothes).   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 8. I just put up with any constraints.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 9. I still go whenever possible.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 10. I take lessons.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 11. I get rides from other people.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 12. I get a job to have enough money.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 13. I continue by taking medicine for my disease<br>(e.g., asthma).                                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 14. I find somebody else with similar skill levels.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 15. I just try to be positive and have fun.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 16. I plan ahead and am clear about my priorities.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 17. I ask other people (e.g., instructor, friends, & family)<br>for help with the required skills. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 18. I invite friends to do it with me.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 19. I do it less often.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 20. I continue by taking the physical therapy for my injury.                                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 21. I buy the equipment (e.g., fitness machine) and do it<br>at home instead.                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

## SECTION 5: SELF-CONSTRUAL

Listed below are statements about your perception of yourself and your relationships with others. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling your response.

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. The well-being of the people I am with is important to me.                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. I would rather depend on myself than on others.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required.           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. My personal identity independent from others is very important to me.                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. Winning is everything.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. If a friend or co-worker gets an award, I feel proud.                                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 7. It is important to me that I do my ACTIVITIES (work, school, sport) better than others. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 8. It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want.     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

## SECTION 6: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Which best describes your present situation? *(Please place a mark next to the single best answer)*

Single                       Married/partner                       Other

What is your annual household income? *(Please place a mark next to the single best answer)*

Under \$24,999       \$25,000 to \$49,999       \$50,000 to \$99,999       Over \$100,000

Which best describes your education level? *(Please place a mark next to the single best answer)*

Elementary school graduate or less                       High school graduate or less  
 University degree or less                       Graduate school degree or less

**Thank You for Participating in this Study!**

## Appendix A (7)



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Appendix A (7) – British Canadians

Name List for Questionnaire

### Older Adults and Their Spare-Time Activity Participation: A Comparison of Older Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian People

Thank you for participating in this study. If you have any further question, a Participant Information Letter is available. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please sign this sheet and we will give you \$5.00. *The information provided below will only be used to ensure financial propriety. Because questionnaires are only identifiable by a numerical code, they cannot be linked to the information you give below.*

	Name (Please Print)	Email Address/ Phone Number	Signature	Date
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				

**Thank you for participating in this study!**

## Appendix B (1)



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Appendix B (1) – Chinese Canadians

### Participant Information Letter for Interview

**Title of Project:** Older Adults and Their Spare-Time Activity Participation: A Comparison of Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian People.

**Investigator:** Haidong Liang, PhD Candidate

**Affiliation:** Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation, University of Alberta,  
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

**Telephone:** 1.780.935.7625

**Email:** [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

**Study Purpose:** To learn more about older adults' spare-time activity participation by conducting a comprehensive comparison among older Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian people.

**Background:** Research suggests that we may not understand what factors affect older adults' spare-time activity participation cross-culturally. This study examines how different factors may influence older adults' decision to participate or not participate in spare-time activities.

**Procedures:** A 30 to 45 minutes interview will be tape-recorded to facilitate the collection of information. The tape recorder can be turned off at any time upon your request.

**Study Benefits:** As well as thinking about your spare-time activity participation, this study will help researchers better understand the impact of different factors on older adults' spare-time activity participation cross-culturally. Additionally, \$10 will be given to you after you have completed the interview.

**Study Risks:** Given the use of an interview to collect the information in this study, the risks associated with participation may include revealing personal or sensitive information. This may make some participants uncomfortable.

**Confidentiality:** To ensure participants remain anonymous, personal information will be coded and stored in a locked office. Only the investigator will have access to this office. Participants will **NOT** be identified in any future presentations or publications.

**Data Storage:** Normally, information is kept for a period of five years after publication. It is then destroyed.

**Freedom to Withdraw:** You may decline to continue or withdraw from the study at any time (up to when the data is included in my dissertation), without any consequence, and your information will be removed from the study upon your request. To do so, please indicate to the researcher, verbally or in writing, you wish to withdraw. It is important to note that you will still receive your remuneration after completing the interview even if you decide to withdraw at that time.

**Study Findings:** If you would like to learn more about the study's overall findings, please contact the Primary Investigator, Haidong Liang, at 1.780.935.7625 or [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca).

**Additional Contacts:** If you have concerns about this study, you may contact Dr. Kelvin Jones, Chair of the PER-ALES-NS Research Ethics Board, University of Alberta, Canada, at 1.780.492.0302 or [kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca](mailto:kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca). Dr. Jones has no direct involvement with this project. You may also contact Dr. Gordon Walker, the investigator's supervisor, at the University of Alberta, Canada, at 1.780.492.0581 or [gordon.walker@ualberta.ca](mailto:gordon.walker@ualberta.ca).

**Thank you for participating in this study!**

## B (1) Simplified Chinese Version



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Appendix B (1) – Chinese Canadians

### 参与者情况通报函——个人访谈

**项目名称:** 中国大陆老年人, 华裔加拿大老年人和英裔加拿大老年人参与闲暇(休闲)活动情况之比较

**研究人员:** 梁海东 博士候选人

**所在单位:** 加拿大阿尔伯塔大学体育与娱乐休闲学院

**电话号码:** 1.780.935.7625

**电子邮件:** [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

**研究目的:** 本研究旨在通过对中国大陆老年人, 华裔加拿大老年人和英裔加拿大老年人进行全面详细地比较, 更好地了解老年人参与闲暇(休闲)活动的情况。

**研究背景:** 研究表明我们对什么因素影响了老年人决定参与或者不参与闲暇(休闲)活动知之甚少, 尤其是跨文化之间的研究更是少之又少。

**数据收集:** 整个访谈过程持续大概 30 到 45 分钟。为促进信息收集的精确与效率, 所有内容将会被磁带录音。您可以在数据收集的任何阶段要求研究人员停止录音。

**参与益处:** 除了可以帮助研究人员更好的了解那些影响两个国家的老年人参加闲暇(休闲)活动的因素外, 您也同时可以更好的思考您自己的闲暇(休闲)活动情况。此外, 您将领取 20 圆人民币作为完成个人访谈的酬劳。

**参与风险:** 鉴于本研究是用个人访谈的方式收集信息, 有关的参与风险大概为参与者可能会向研究人员透露个人及其他敏感信息, 而这可能会引起一些参与者的不快。

**研究保密:** 为确保匿名, 所有的个人信息将被编码并存放在一个上锁的, 只有研究人员才能出入的办公室里。而所有参与者的个人真实信息将确保不会出现在将来任何的学术性演讲及发表的文章里。

**数据储存:** 通常情况下, 所有收集的信息将在学术文章发表后的第六年被销毁。

**自由退出:** 您可以在数据收录进本人博士论文之前的任何阶段, 并且在不承担任何的风险与后果的情况下, 口头或书面通知研究人员(本人) 您不愿意继续或想退出这项研究, 您的所有信息也将随之删除。需要提醒的是在完成该访谈后, 即使您马上决定退出这项研究, 您依旧会获得 20 圆人民币作为完成访谈的酬劳。

**研究结果:** 如果您想了解本研究的大致结果, 请联系主要的研究人员, 加拿大阿尔伯塔大学的博士候选人梁海东。他的联系方式为: 电话: 1.780.935.7625 或电子邮件: [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

**其他联络:** 如果您想与没有直接涉及本研究的有关人士交谈, 请联系加拿大阿尔伯塔大学体育与娱乐休闲学院道德伦理委员会的凯文·琼斯博士。他的联系方式为: 电话: 1.780.492.0302 或电子邮件: [kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca](mailto:kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca)。您还可以与梁海东的博士导师, 加拿大阿尔伯塔大学体育与娱乐休闲学院的戈登·沃克博士联系。他的联系方式为: 电话: 1.780.492.0581 或电子邮件 [gordon.walker@ualberta.ca](mailto:gordon.walker@ualberta.ca)

**感谢您的参与!**

## Appendix B (2)



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Appendix B (2) – Chinese Canadians

### Informed Consent for Interview

#### Part 1 (to be completed by the Principal Investigator)

**Title of Project:** Older Adults and Their Spare-Time Activity Participation: A Comparison of Older Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian People.

**Investigator:** Haidong Liang, PhD Candidate

**Telephone:** 1.780.935.7625

**Email:** [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

**Advisor:** Gordon Walker, Professor

**Telephone:** 1.780.492.0581

**Email:** [gordon.walker@ualberta.ca](mailto:gordon.walker@ualberta.ca)

**Affiliation:** Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation, University of Alberta,  
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

#### Part 2 (to be completed by the research participant)

Do you understand that you have been asked to be in a research study	Yes	No
Have you received and read a copy of the attached Information Letter?	Yes	No
Do you understand the benefits and risks involved in participating in this study?	Yes	No
Have you had opportunities to ask questions and discuss this study?	Yes	No
Do you understand that you are free to refuse to participate, or to withdraw from the study at any time (up to when the data is included in my dissertation), without consequence, and that your information will be removed upon your request?	Yes	No
Do you understand that you will still receive your remuneration after completing the interview even if you decide to withdraw at that time?	Yes	No
Has the issue of confidentiality been explained to you? Do you understand who will have access to your information?	Yes	No

This study was explained to me by: \_\_\_\_\_

I agree to participate in this study:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of Research Participant

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Witness

\_\_\_\_\_  
Printed Name

\_\_\_\_\_  
Printed Name

*I believe that the person signing this form understands what is involved in the study and voluntarily agrees to participate.*

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of Investigator or Designee

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

**The Information Letter** must be attached to this consent form and a copy of both forms must be given to the participant.

## B (2) Simplified Chinese Version



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### Appendix B (2) – Chinese Canadians

#### 知情同意书——个人访谈

##### 第一部分 (由主要研究人员完成)

项目名称: 中国大陆老年人, 华裔加拿大老年人和英裔加拿大老年人参与闲暇 (休闲) 活动情况之比较

研究人员: 梁海东 博士候选人

电话号码: 1.780.935.7625

电子邮件: [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

博士生导师: 戈登·沃克 (教授)

电话号码: 1.780.492.0581

电子邮件: [gordon.walker@ualberta.ca](mailto:gordon.walker@ualberta.ca)

所在单位: 加拿大阿尔伯塔大学体育与娱乐休闲学院

##### 第二部分 (由参与者完成)

您明白您是在参与一项学术性调查研究吗?	是	否
您收到并阅读了附带的“参与者情况通报函”了吗?	是	否
您了解参与这项调查研究的益处和风险吗?	是	否
您有机会问问题并参与这项研究的讨论吗?	是	否
您被告知“您可以在数据收录进本人博士论文之前的任何阶段, 并且在不承担任何的风险与后果的情况下, 口头或书面通知研究人员 (本人) <u>您不愿意继续或想退出这项研究</u> , 您的所有信息也将随之删除”这个情况吗?	是	否
您被告知“在完成该访谈后, 即使您马上决定退出这项研究, 您依旧会获得 20 元人民币作为完成访谈的酬劳”这个情况吗?	是	否
研究人员向您解释“信息保密性”了吗? 您知道谁会接触到这些信息吗?	是	否

这项研究由 (姓名) \_\_\_\_\_ 向我做了解释。

我同意参与这项研究:

\_\_\_\_\_  
参与者签名

\_\_\_\_\_  
日期

\_\_\_\_\_  
证人

\_\_\_\_\_  
正楷姓名

\_\_\_\_\_  
正楷姓名

我相信签字人已了解这项研究所涉及的内容并自愿参与这项研究。

\_\_\_\_\_  
研究人员 (或指定人员) 签名

\_\_\_\_\_  
日期

“知情同意书”和“参与者情况通报函”的副本需一并交与参与者。



## Appendix B (3)



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### Appendix B (3) – Chinese Canadians

### 附录 B (3) – 华裔加拿大人

### Interview Questions 访谈问题

#### Interview Questions and Probes 访谈问题及深入性问题

#### General Spare-Time Activity Participation 一般性闲暇（休闲）活动参与（情况）

(1) *What SPARE-TIME ACTIVITY(IES) do you currently do the most often?*

您现在最经常参与的闲暇（休闲）活动是什么？

Probe: *(the following are just prompts when respondents do not know how to answer. Also ask them to rate the top 3 activities based on their own answer)*

深入性问题：（下列“活动类型”仅在受访者不知如何回答时起提示作用。同时让受访者根据他们自己的答案列出最喜欢参与的两项活动）

- Outdoor activities (e.g., camping, cycling, fishing, and visiting parks)  
户外娱乐运动（例如：野营，骑自行车/自行车，钓鱼，逛公园）
- Sports (e.g., table tennis, badminton, basketball)  
体育活动（例如：乒乓球，羽毛球，篮球）
- Social activities (e.g., chatting, karaoke, eating out)  
社交活动（例如：聊天，唱卡拉 ok，外出吃饭）
- Gambling (e.g., mah-jong, poker, lottery, casinos)  
赌博类活动（例如：麻将，扑克，彩票，赌场）
- Games (e.g., chess, board games, computer or video games)  
游戏类（例如：中国象棋，其他棋类活动，电脑或电子游戏）
- Exercising (e.g., jogging, walking, swimming, tai-chi, aerobics)  
锻炼身体类（例如：慢跑，散步，游泳，太极拳，有氧类运动—健身操）
- Media activities (e.g., listening to music, watching TV, reading)  
媒体类（例如：听音乐，看电视，阅读—读书看报）
- Volunteering (e.g., coach, instructor, church, cultural organization)  
义工类（例如：当教练或指导老师，帮助教堂或文化团体做事）
- Attending sports events (e.g., Olympics, community sports events, professional games)  
现场观看体育赛事（例如：看奥运，社区体育赛事，或职业比赛）
- Artistic or creative activities (e.g., crafts, cooking, playing a musical instrument)  
艺术类或创造性活动（例如：手工艺制作，烹饪，乐器弹奏）
- Traveling (e.g., holidays, vacations, pleasure)

- 旅行（例如：外出度假，游玩）
- Resting and relaxing (e.g., doing nothing or having a nap)  
休息和放松（例如：什么都不做或打盹）
- Caring for family members (e.g., babysitting, attending children/older people)  
照顾家里人（例如：幼儿看护，带小孩，照顾老人）

*Who do you most prefer doing this activity with? (e.g., alone, friend, family, others)*  
您最想与什么人一起参与这项休闲活动？（例如：独自一人，朋友，家人，或其他人）

(2) *What a NEW SPARE-TIME ACTIVITY would you most likely to start in the future?*

将来您最有可能开始哪一项新的闲暇（休闲）活动？

Probe: *(the following are just prompts when respondents do not know how to answer. Also ask them to rate the top 3 activities based on their own answer)*

深入性问题：（下列“活动类型”仅在受访者不知如何回答时起提示作用。同时让受访者根据他们自己的答案列出最喜欢参与的三项活动）

- Outdoor activities (e.g., camping, cycling, fishing, and visiting parks)  
户外娱乐运动（例如：野营，骑单车/自行车，钓鱼，逛公园）
- Sports (e.g., table tennis, badminton, basketball)  
体育活动（例如：乒乓球，羽毛球，篮球）
- Social activities (e.g., chatting, karaoke, eating out)  
社交活动（例如：聊天，唱卡拉ok，外出吃饭）
- Gambling (e.g., mah-jong, poker, lottery, casinos)  
赌博类活动（例如：麻将，扑克，彩票，赌场）
- Games (e.g., chess, board games, computer or video games)  
游戏类（例如：中国象棋，其他棋类活动，电脑或电子游戏）
- Exercising (e.g., jogging, walking, swimming, tai-chi, aerobics)  
锻炼身体类（例如：慢跑，散步，游泳，太极拳，有氧类运动—健身操）
- Media activities (e.g., listening to music, watching TV, reading)  
媒体类（例如：听音乐，看电视，阅读—读书看报）
- Volunteering (e.g., coach, instructor, church, cultural organization)  
义工类（例如：当教练或指导老师，帮助教堂或文化团体做事）
- Attending sports events (e.g., Olympics, community sports events, professional games)  
现场观看体育赛事（例如：看奥运，社区体育赛事，或职业比赛）
- Artistic or creative activities (e.g., crafts, cooking, playing a musical instrument)  
艺术类或创造性活动（例如：手工艺制作，烹饪，乐器弹奏）
- Traveling (e.g., holidays, vacations, pleasure)  
旅行（例如：外出度假，游玩）
- Resting and relaxing (e.g., doing nothing or having a nap)  
休息和放松（例如：什么都不做或打盹）
- Caring for family members (e.g., babysitting, attending children/older people)  
照顾家里人（例如：幼儿看护，带小孩，照顾老人）

*Who would you most prefer doing this activity with? (e.g., alone, friend, family, others)*

您最想与什么人一起参与这项休闲活动？（例如：独自一人，朋友，家人，或其他人）

### Constraints 约束条件（制约因素）

(1) *What constraints prevent you from participating spare-time activities?*

什么因素限制了您参与闲暇（休闲）活动？

Probe: (Always ask participants to think about possible extra constraints. *The following are just prompts when respondents do not know how to answer. Also ask them to rate the top 3 constraints based on their own answer*)

深入性问题：（记得同时问受访者是否还有其他的制约因素。下列不同的“制约因素”仅在受访者不知如何回答时起提示作用。同时让受访者根据他们自己的答案列出三项最主要的制约因素）

- Intrapersonal constraints (e.g., bad, boring, foolish, not being approved by important people)  
个人内在的制约因素（例如：各种感觉—不好的，无聊的，或愚蠢的；家人或朋友不批准）
- Interpersonal constraints (e.g., the important people – live too far away, do not have time, do not have transportation, do not have enough money)  
人际关系方面的制约因素（例如：家人或朋友—住的太远，没有时间，交通不便，或没有足够的钱）
- Structural constraints (e.g., the interviewee - no time, no money, no transportation, other obligations; the facility – too far away, too crowded)  
结构性制约因素（例如：在受访者方面—缺少时间，金钱，交通方式及其他方面的责任与义务；在活动设施方面—离受访者比较远并且非常拥挤）
- Self-face (e.g., the interviewee – ask questions, make mistakes, call attention to himself/herself)  
（个人的）面子问题（例如：以下情况或许会使受访者感觉丢面子—问问题，犯错误，引起别人的注意）
- Other-face (e.g., the important people – ask questions, make mistakes, call attention to themselves)  
（他人的）面子问题（例如：以下情况或许会使家人或朋友感觉丢面子—问问题，犯错误，引起别人的注意）

(Note: avoid giving detailed examples which might receive only *yes* or *no* answer.)

（备注：为减少受访者简单地以“是”或“不是”来回答问题的状况，采访者应避免提供过多具体例子）

### Constraint Negotiation (Strategies) 应对制约因素的方法(策略)

(1) *What would help you overcome or negotiate these barriers/constraints?*

通过做什么（怎样做）可以帮助你应付/处理/解决这些妨碍因素或者约束条件？

Probe: (The following are just prompts when respondents do not know how to answer. Always ask participants to think about possible extra negotiation strategies.)

深入性问题：（下列不同的“应对制约因素的方法”仅在受访者不知如何回答时起提示作用。记得同时问受访者是否还有其他的应对制约因素的方法）

- Cognitive strategies (e.g., ignore, put up with it, be positive)  
认知策略（例如：忽略，忍耐，正面乐观的态度）
- Behavioural strategies (e.g., modify time, acquire skills, change interpersonal relations, improve finance, physical therapy, and change leisure aspirations)  
行为策略（例如：调整时间，学习技巧，改善人际关系，改善经济条件，物理治疗，调整期望值）

(2) Bias (*think about possible association with acculturation when interviewing Chinese Canadians – integration, assimilation, separation, and marginalization*)

偏见（记得在采访华裔加拿大人的时候要将“偏见”与“文化适应”这两个概念联系起来。文化适应包含：文化融合，文化同化，文化隔离/孤立，和文化边缘化）

I. *Do you think people (i.e., yourself and/or other people) experience bias, in terms of ageism, when engaging in certain types of SPARE-TIME activities? Is this bias a constraint?*

您认为在人们（包括您和/或其他人）参与闲暇（休闲）活动的时候，会感受到他人对于老人的偏见吗？这种偏见是限制您参与闲暇（休闲）活动的一个制约因素吗？

➤ *If so, how do you negotiate this constraint?*

如果是，请问您是如何应对这种偏见（并继续参与闲暇活动）的呢？

II. *Do you think people (i.e., yourself and/or other people) experience bias, in terms of sexism, when engaging in certain types of SPARE-TIME activities? Is this bias a constraint?*

您认为在人们（包括您和/或其他人）参与闲暇（休闲）活动的时候，会感受到他人对于性别（尤其是女性）的偏见吗？这种偏见是限制您参与闲暇（休闲）活动的一个制约因素吗？

➤ *If so, how do you negotiate this constraint?*

如果是，请问您是如何应对这种偏见（并继续参与闲暇活动）的呢？

III. *Do you think people (i.e., yourself and/or other people) experience bias, in terms of ethnicity, when engaging in certain types of SPARE-TIME activities? Is this bias a constraint?*

您认为在人们（包括您和/或其他人）参与闲暇（休闲）活动的时候，会感受到他人对于种族的偏见吗？这种偏见是限制您参与闲暇（休闲）活动的一个制约因素吗？

➤ *If so, how do you negotiate this constraint?*

如果是，请问您是如何应对这种偏见（并继续参与闲暇活动）的呢？

(Note: if respondents do not understand the term “bias”, I will provide them with alternative terms such as prejudice, discrimination to facilitate their understanding)

备注：如果受访者不明白“偏见”的具体含义。我会尝试使用其他的同义词（例如，成见，歧视）来帮助他们理解。

## Appendix B (4)



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### Appendix B (4) – Chinese Canadians

Thank you for participating in this study. If you have any further question, a Participant Information Letter is available. Once you have completed the interview, please sign this sheet and we will give you **\$10.00**. *The information provided below will only be used to ensure financial propriety. Because interviews are only identifiable by a numerical code, they cannot be linked to the information you give below.*

感谢您的参与。如果您有任何别的问题，一份参与者情况通报函将会提供给您。在您完成了我们的个人访谈后，请在这张纸上签上您的姓名并领取 10 加币报酬。下面的信息将只用于确保研究经费的正确使用。所有已被编码的个人访谈内容将不会包含以下任何信息。

	Name (Please Print) 名字(请用正楷书写)	Email Address/Phone Number 电子邮件或电话号码	Signature 签名	Date 日期
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				

**Thank you for participating in this study!**

**感谢您的参与!**

## Appendix B (5)



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### Appendix B (5) – Chinese Canadians

#### Participant Information Letter for Questionnaire

**Title of Project:** Older Adults and Their Spare-Time Activity Participation: A Comparison of Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian People.

**Investigator:** Haidong Liang, PhD Candidate

**Affiliation:** Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation, University of Alberta,  
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

**Telephone:** 1.780.935.7625

**Email:** [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

**Study Purpose:** To learn more about older adults' spare-time activity participation by conducting a comprehensive comparison among older Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian people.

**Background:** Research suggests that we may not understand what factors affect older adults' spare-time activity participation cross-culturally. This study examines how different factors may influence older adults' decision to participate or not participate in spare-time activities.

**Procedures:** You will be asked to complete a short questionnaire (10 – 15 minutes). Your return of the questionnaire implies your consent to participate in this study.

**Study Benefits:** As well as thinking about your spare-time activity participation, this study will help researchers better understand the impact of different factors on older adults' spare-time activity participation cross-culturally. Additionally, \$5 will be given to you after you have completed the questionnaire.

**Study Risks:** Given the use of a questionnaire to collect information, the risks associated with participation may include revealing personal or sensitive information. This may make some participants uncomfortable.

**Confidentiality:** To ensure participants remain anonymous, personal information will be coded and stored in a locked office. Only the investigator will have access to this office. Participants will **NOT** be identified in any future presentations or publications.

**Data Storage:** Normally, information is kept for a period of five years after publication. It is then destroyed.

**Freedom to Withdraw:** You may decline to continue or withdraw from the study at any time (up to when the data is included in my dissertation), without any consequence, and your information will be removed from the study upon your request. To do so, please indicate to the researcher, verbally or in writing, you wish to withdraw. It is important to note that you will still receive your remuneration after completing the questionnaire even if you decide to withdraw at that time.

**Study Findings:** If you would like to learn more about the study's overall findings, please contact the Primary Investigator, Haidong Liang, at 1.780.935.7625 or [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca).

**Additional Contacts:** If you have concerns about this study, you may contact Dr. Kelvin Jones, Chair of the PER-ALES-NS Research Ethics Board, University of Alberta, Canada, at 1.780.492.0302 or [kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca](mailto:kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca). Dr. Jones has no direct involvement with this project. You may also contact Dr. Gordon Walker, the investigator's supervisor, at the University of Alberta, Canada, at 1.780.492.0581 or [gordon.walker@ualberta.ca](mailto:gordon.walker@ualberta.ca).

**Thank you for participating in this study!**

## B (5) Simplified Chinese Version



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### Appendix B (5) – Chinese Canadians 参与者情况通报函——调查问卷

**项目名称:** 中国大陆老年人, 华裔加拿大老年人和英裔加拿大老年人参与闲暇(休闲)活动情况之比较

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**研究目的:** 本研究旨在通过对中国大陆老年人, 华裔加拿大老年人和英裔加拿大老年人进行全面详细地比较, 更好地了解老年人参与闲暇(休闲)活动的情况。

**研究背景:** 研究表明我们对什么因素影响了老年人决定参与或者不参与闲暇(休闲)活动知之甚少, 尤其是跨文化之间的研究更是少之又少。

**数据收集:** 您需要完成一份花费您 10 到 15 分钟的调查问卷。归还完成了的调查问卷即代表您已经知情并同意参与这项研究。

**参与益处:** 除了可以帮助研究人员更好的了解那些影响两个国家的老年人参加闲暇(休闲)活动的因素外, 您也同时可以更好的思考您自己的闲暇(休闲)活动情况。此外, 您将领取 10 元人民币作为完成个人访谈的酬劳。

**参与风险:** 鉴于本研究是用调查问卷的方式收集信息, 有关的参与风险大概为参与者可能会向研究人员透露个人及其他敏感信息, 而这可能会引起一些参与者的不快。

**研究保密:** 为确保匿名, 所有的个人信息将被编码并存放在一个上锁的, 只有研究人员才能出入的办公室里。而所有参与者的个人真实信息将确保不会出现在将来任何的学术性演讲及发表的文章里。

**数据储存:** 通常情况下, 所有收集的信息将在学术文章发表后的第六年被销毁。

**自由退出:** 您可以在数据收录进本人博士论文之前的任何阶段, 并且在不承担任何的风险与后果的情况下, 口头或书面通知研究人员(本人) 您不愿意继续或想退出这项研究, 您的所有信息也将随之删除。需要提醒的是在完成该调查问卷后, 即使您马上决定退出这项研究, 您依旧会获得 10 元人民币作为完成调查的酬劳。

**研究结果:** 如果您想了解本研究的大致结果, 请联系主要的研究人员, 加拿大阿尔伯塔大学的博士候选人梁海东。他的联系方式为: 电话: 1.780.935.7625 或电子邮件: [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

**其他联络:** 如果您想与没有直接涉及本研究的有关人士交谈, 请联系加拿大阿尔伯塔大学体育与娱乐休闲学院道德伦理委员会的凯文·琼斯博士。他的联系方式为: 电话: 1.780.492.0302 或电子邮件: [kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca](mailto:kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca)。您还可以与梁海东的博士导师, 加拿大阿尔伯塔大学体育与娱乐休闲学院的戈登·沃克博士联系。他的联系方式为: 电话: 1.780.492.0581 或电子邮件 [gordon.walker@ualberta.ca](mailto:gordon.walker@ualberta.ca)

## 感谢您的参与!

## Appendix B (6) Chinese Canadians: Questionnaire



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Appendix B (6) – Chinese Canadians

ID #: \_\_\_\_\_

### Older Adults and Their Spare-Time Activity Participation: A Comparison of Older Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian People

Gender: \_\_\_ Male \_\_\_ Female

Which age group do you belong to? (*Please place a mark next to the answer*)

\_\_\_ less than 55 \_\_\_ 55-64 \_\_\_ 65-74 \_\_\_ 75-84 \_\_\_ 85 or above

Which ethnic group do you most closely identify with? (*Choose only one by placing a mark next to the answer*)

\_\_\_ English \_\_\_ English-Canadian \_\_\_ Irish \_\_\_ Irish-Canadian  
\_\_\_ Scottish \_\_\_ Scottish-Canadian \_\_\_ Welsh \_\_\_ Welsh-Canadian  
\_\_\_ Chinese \_\_\_ Chinese-Canadian \_\_\_ Canadian \_\_\_ none of the above

This questionnaire has seven sections, including (1) **Spare Time Activity Participation**, (2) **Motivations**, (3) **Constraints**, (4) **Negotiation**, (5) **Acculturation**, (6) **Self-Constraint**, and (7) **Demographic Information**. Spare time means things that you do when you're not at work, or doing housework. Please answer the following questions by circling the number next to the most appropriate answer or by writing your answer in the space provided. **By agreeing to complete this questionnaire, you are giving your consent.** Once you have completed the questionnaire, please sign the separate sheet and we will give you \$5. Thank you!



### SECTION 1: SPARE TIME ACTIVITY PARTICIPATION

Please tell me how frequently you participated in each of the following types of spare time activities during the past 12 months. Please indicate the extent to which you participate in each category of spare time activities by circling your response.

	Never 1	Seldom 2	Sometimes 3	Often 4	Very Often 5	Extremely Often 6
1. Outdoor recreation activities, such as camping, cycling, fishing or visiting parks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Playing sports, such as badminton, tennis, table tennis or basketball.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Doing social activities, such as eating out, chatting, karaoke, entertaining, or spending time with family or friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Gambling, such as playing poker, mah-jong, the lottery, or going to casinos.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Playing games, such as chess, board games, or video and computer games.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Exercising, such as aerobics, jogging, walking, swimming, or attending fitness classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Media activities, such as listening to music, listening to the radio, reading, or watching movies or television.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Volunteering, as a coach, instructor, or with a church or a cultural organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Attending sports events, such as Olympics, FIFA World Cup, or high-school, university, or community sports events.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Doing artistic or creative activities, such as crafts, cooking, playing a musical instrument, or going to a museum or concert.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Traveling for pleasure, on holidays, or vacation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Resting and relaxing, by doing nothing or having a nap.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Caring for family members such as babysitting, attending children/older people.	1	2	3	4	5	6

### SECTION 2: MOTIVATION

Listed below are statements about the different reasons or motivations a person might have for participating in spare time activities. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling your response.

Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Slightly Agree 4	Moderately Agree 5	Strongly Agree 6
------------------------	--------------------------	------------------------	---------------------	-----------------------	---------------------

*I do what I do in my spare time...*

1. Because it is interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Because it is part of my personal identity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Because the activities I do are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Because of the pressure I put on myself to do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Because of the pressure others put on me to do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Because the activities I do are enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Because the activities I do are part of who I am as a person.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Because the activities I do are worthwhile to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Because if I don't do it, I feel guilty.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Because of the rewards others give me afterwards.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Because it is fun.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Because the activities I do reflect who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Because it reflects my personal values.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Because of the rewards I give myself afterwards.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Because the activities I do make others feel good about me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

**SECTION 3: CONSTRAINTS**

Listed below are statements about the different reasons or constraints a person might have for **NOT** participating in spare time activities. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling your response.

<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Moderately Disagree</b>	<b>Slightly Disagree</b>	<b>Slightly Agree</b>	<b>Moderately Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>

1. It is bad for me to participate in spare time activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. The people who are important to me might lose face if they had to ask questions when participating in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if I do not have transportation to do them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. The people who are important to me live too far away to participate in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities because I might lose face if I had to ask questions.	1	2	3	4	5	6

6. The people who are important to me would not approve of me participating in spare time activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if I do not have enough money to do them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. The people who are important to me might lose face if they made mistakes when participating in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if the facilities are too crowded.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. The people who are important to me do not have enough time to participate in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. It is boring for me to participate in spare time activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities because I might lose face if I made mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. The people who are important to me do not have transportation to participate in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if I have too many other obligations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. The people who are important to me might lose face if they called attention to themselves when participating in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. It is foolish for me to participate in spare time activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if I do not have enough time to do them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. The people who are important to me do not have enough money to participate in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities because I might lose face if I called attention to myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if the facilities I need to do them are too far away.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. The people who are important to me have too many other obligations to participate in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

#### SECTION 4: NEGOTIATION

Listed below are statements about the different ways a person uses to overcome the constraints he or she faces when trying to participate in spare time activities. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling your response.

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

*In order for me to participate in my spare time activities,*

1. I just ignore the constraints I encounter.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I budget my time more effectively.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I practice more to get better.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I find people with similar interests.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I budget my money.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I get medical treatment to help me participate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I improvise with what I already have (e.g., clothes).	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I just put up with any constraints.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I still go whenever possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I take lessons.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I get rides from other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I get a job to have enough money.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I continue by taking medicine for my disease (e.g., asthma).	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I find somebody else with similar skill levels.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I just try to be positive and have fun.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I plan ahead and am clear about my priorities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I ask other people (e.g., instructor, friends, & family) for help with the required skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I invite friends to do it with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I do it less often.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I continue by taking the physical therapy for my injury.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I buy the equipment (e.g., fitness machine) and do it at home instead.	1	2	3	4	5	6

**SECTION 5: ACCULTURATION**

Listed below are statements about your Chinese culture and mainstream Canadian culture. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling your response.

<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Moderately Disagree</b>	<b>Slightly Disagree</b>	<b>Slightly Agree</b>	<b>Moderately Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>

1. I often behave in ways that are “typically Chinese.”	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I often behave in ways that are “typically Canadian.”	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. It is important for me to maintain or develop Chinese cultural practices.	1	2	3	4	5	6

4.	It is important for me to maintain or develop Canadian cultural practices.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	I believe in Chinese values.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	I believe in mainstream Canadian values.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	I am interested in having Chinese friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	I am interested in having mainstream Canadian friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6

### SECTION 6: SELF-CONSTRUAL

Listed below are statements about your perception of yourself and your relationships with others. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling your response.

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

1.	The well-being of the people I am with is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	I would rather depend on myself than on others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	My personal identity independent from others is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Winning is everything.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	If a friend or co-worker gets an award, I feel proud.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	It is important to me that I do my ACTIVITIES (work, school, sport) better than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want.	1	2	3	4	5	6

### SECTION 7: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Which best describes your present situation? (Please place a mark next to the *single best* answer)

Single       Married/partner       Other

What is your annual household income? (Please place a mark next to the *single best* answer)

Under \$24,999       \$25,000 to \$49,999       \$50,000 to \$99,999       Over \$100,000

Which best describes your education level? (Please place a mark next to the *single best* answer)

Elementary school graduate or less       High school graduate or less  
 University degree or less       Graduate school degree or less

**Thank You for Participating in this Study!**

## B (6) Simplified Chinese Version



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Appendix B (6) – Chinese Canadians

编号: \_\_\_\_\_

# 中国大陆老年人，华裔加拿大老年人和英裔加拿大老年人参与闲暇（休闲）活动情况之比较

性别:        \_\_\_ 男        \_\_\_ 女

您的年龄段为? (请标注最适合您的那一个答案)

\_\_\_ 小于 55    \_\_\_ 55-64    \_\_\_ 65-74    \_\_\_ 75-84    \_\_\_ 85 或以上

您的种族为? (请标注最适合您的那一个答案)

\_\_\_ 英格兰人    \_\_\_ 英格兰裔加拿大人    \_\_\_ 爱尔兰人    \_\_\_ 爱尔兰裔加拿大人  
\_\_\_ 苏格兰人    \_\_\_ 苏格兰裔加拿大人    \_\_\_ 威尔士人    \_\_\_ 威尔士裔加拿大人  
\_\_\_ 中国人        \_\_\_ 华裔加拿大人        \_\_\_ 加拿大人    \_\_\_ 以上皆非

这份调查问卷总共有七部分：(1)闲暇（休闲）活动参与情况，(2)动机，(3)制约因素，(4)应对制约因素的方法，(5)文化适应，(6)自我构念，以及(7)背景资料。闲暇（休闲）活动指的是那些除了工作或者家务活以外的活动。请在以下每一个陈述或者观点的旁边圈出最符合您情况的答案。一旦您完成了问卷，请在另一张纸上签名并领取**5加币**报酬。谢谢您的参与。

### 第一部分：闲暇（休闲）活动参与情况

请根据各种程度，圈出您在过去的 12 个月里参加以下各种闲暇（休闲）活动的频率。

	从不 1	极少 2	有时 3	经常 4	很频繁 5	非常频繁 6
1. 户外娱乐活动（例如：野营，骑自行车/单车，钓鱼，逛公园）	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 体育活动（例如：乒乓球，羽毛球，网球，篮球）	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 社交活动（例如：外出吃饭，聊天，唱卡拉 OK，花时间与家人和朋友一起）	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 赌博类活动（例如：打扑克，玩麻将，买博彩去赌场）	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 游戏类活动（例如：中国象棋，其他棋类活动电脑或电子游戏）	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. 锻炼身体类活动（例如：有氧运动，慢跑，散步游泳，或者参加健身班）	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. 媒体类活动（例如：听音乐，听广播，阅读，或者看电视/电影）	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. 义工类活动（例如：当教练或指导老师，帮助教堂或文化团体做事）	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. 现场观看体育赛事（例如：奥运会，世界杯，或者高中/大学/社区的体育赛事）	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. 艺术类或创造性活动（例如：手工艺，烹饪，乐器弹奏，参观博物馆或欣赏音乐会）	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. 旅行（例如：外出度假，游玩）	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. 休息和放松（例如：什么都不做或打盹）	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. 照顾家人（例如：幼儿看护，带小孩，照顾老人）	1	2	3	4	5	6

### 第二部分：动机

以下是“一个人参加上述各种闲暇（休闲）活动时的不同动机。”请圈出您同意或者不同意这些观点的程度。

很不同意 1	较不同意 2	稍不同意 3	稍微同意 4	比较同意 5	非常同意 6
-----------	-----------	-----------	-----------	-----------	-----------

### 我参加闲暇（休闲）活动是因为...

1. 因为这些活动很有趣。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 因为这些活动代表了我一部分的个人身份。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 因为这些活动对我很重要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 因为我施加给自己的压力。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 因为别人（例如：家人，朋友）给我的压力。	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. 因为我乐在其中（很享受）。	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. 因为这些活动部分地说明了我是怎么样的一个人。	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. 因为这些活动值得我花时间（精力）去参与。	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. 因为如果我不做的话，我会感到内疚。	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. 因为别人（例如：家人，朋友）会因此奖励我。	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. 因为这些活动会让我很开心。	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. 因为这些活动真正地反映了我是谁。 (例如：运动员，艺术家)	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. 因为这些活动反映了我的个人价值观。	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. 因为我会参加了之后奖励我自己。	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. 因为别人（例如：家人，朋友）会因此对我有好的感觉。	1	2	3	4	5	6

### 第三部分：因此制约因素

以下是“各种可能会限制一个人参加上述闲暇（休闲）活动的制约因素。”请圈出您同意或者不同意这些观点的程度。

很不同意	较不同意	稍不同意	稍微同意	比较同意	非常同意
1	2	3	4	5	6

1. 参加这些活动会让我不好的感觉。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 在和我熟悉的人（例如：家人，朋友）一起参加这些活动的时候，我担心他们会因为问问题而丢面子。 (因为他们不想在别人面前表现自己某方面的知识欠缺)	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 如果交通不方便的话，我不大可能参加这些活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 我熟悉的人（例如：家人，朋友）因为住的太远而无法和我一起参加这些活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 如果我可能会因为问问题而丢面子的话，我不大可能参加这些活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6



6. 我熟悉的人（例如：家人，朋友）不大赞成我参加这些休闲活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. 如果我经济不宽裕的话，我不大可能参加这些活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. 在和我熟悉的人（例如：家人，朋友）一起参加这些活动的时候，我担心他们会因为犯错而丢面子。	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. 如果活动场所太拥挤的话，我不大可能参加这些活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. 我熟悉的人（例如：家人，朋友）没时间和我一起参加这些活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. 参加这些活动会让我有无聊的感觉。	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. 如果我可能会因为犯错而丢面子的话，我不大可能参加这些活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. 我熟悉的人（例如：家人，朋友）因为交通不方便而无法和我一起参加这些活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. 如果我有太多其他的责任和义务的话，我不大可能参加这些活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. 在和我熟悉的人（例如：家人，朋友）一起参加这些活动的时候，我担心他们会因为某些原因引起大家对他们的注意而丢面子。（他们想保持低调）	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. 参加这些活动会让我有很傻的感觉。	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. 如果没时间的话，我不大可能参加这些活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. 我熟悉的人（例如：家人，朋友）因为经济不宽裕而无法和我一起参加这些活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. 如果我可能会因为某些原因引起大家对我的注意而丢面子的话，我不大可能参加这些活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. 如果活动场所离家或上班的地方太远的话，我不大可能参加这些活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. 我熟悉的人（例如：家人，朋友）因为有太多其他的责任和义务而无法和我一起参加这些活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6

#### 第四部分: 应对制约因素的方法

以下是一系列关于“应对制约因素的方法”的观点。例如，当一个人遇到限制他/她参与闲暇（休闲）活动的制约因素时，他/她可能会采取以下方法来应对。请圈出您同意或者不同意这些观点的程度。

很不同意	较不同意	稍不同意	稍微同意	比较同意	非常同意
1	2	3	4	5	6

### 为了能够参与以上那些闲暇（休闲）活动，

1. 我会忽略那些我遇到的制约因素。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 我会更有效地安排我的时间。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 我会勤加练习以变得更好。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 我会找那些和我志趣相投的人一起参加。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 我会更合理地花钱。	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. 我会积极治疗我的疾病。	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. 我会将就用着一些现有的东西（例如，衣服，器械） （不过分追求时髦和专业）	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. 我会选择忍耐（那些制约因素）。	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. 只要有空我就去。	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. 我会去上相关的课程（例如，健身课程）。	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. 我会搭别人的便车。	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. 我会找个工作赚多点钱。	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. 我会通过吃药（例如：哮喘药）来确保身体状况 可以应付（的了休闲活动的要求）	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. 我会找那些和我水平差不多的人一起参加。	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. 我会尽量保持乐观积极心态并尽情享受整个过程。	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. 我会提早计划并且明确哪些是需要优先考虑的事。	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. 为了掌握特定的技巧，我会多征询别人的意见。 （例如：指导员，朋友，家人等）。	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. 我会邀请朋友们一起来参加。	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. 我会减少参加的频率（以节省相关费用）。	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. 我会通过理疗积极治疗我的伤痛。	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. 我会把那个器械（例如：跑步机）买了在家做。	1	2	3	4	5	6

### 第五部分: 文化适应

以下是一些关于中国文化和主流加拿大文化的观点，请圈出您同意或者不同意这些观点的程度

很不同意	较不同意	稍不同意	稍微同意	比较同意	非常同意
1	2	3	4	5	6

1. 我经常按“典型的中国人”方式处事。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 我经常按“典型的加拿大人”方式处事。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 保持或发展中国文化习惯对我很重要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 保持或发展加拿大文化习惯对我很重要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 我认同中国人的价值观念。	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. 我认同主流加拿大人的价值观念。	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. 我喜欢结交中国人作为朋友。	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. 我喜欢结交主流的加拿大人作为朋友。	1	2	3	4	5	6

#### 第六部分: 自我构念

以下是一些关于“个体如何理解个人与他人的关系”的观点，请圈出您同意或者不同意这些观点的程度。

很不同意	较不同意	稍不同意	稍微同意	比较同意	非常同意
1	2	3	4	5	6

1. 和我在一起的人的健康与幸福对我很重要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 求人不如求己。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 不管做出任何牺牲，家庭成员都应该互相支持。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 个体独立对我很重要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 求胜重于一切（例如：个人的成功）。	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. 我会为朋友或者同事获得奖励而感到自豪。	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. 在任何方面（例如：工作，学习，运动）做的比别人出色对我很重要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. 照顾家庭是我的责任，哪怕有时我必须做出牺牲。	1	2	3	4	5	6

#### 第七部分: 背景资料

您目前的婚姻状况为? (请标注最适合您的那一个答案)

单身       已婚/伴侣       其他

您的年家庭总收入为? (请标注最适合您的那一个答案)

\$24,999 以下       \$25,000 to \$49,999       \$50,000 to \$99,999       \$100,000 以上

您的最高学历为? (请标注最适合您的那一个答案)

小学毕业       高中毕业       大学毕业       研究生

## Appendix B (7)



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### Appendix B (7) – Chinese Canadians

Thank you for participating in this study. If you have any further question, a Participant Information Letter is available. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please sign this sheet and we will give you **\$5.00**. *The information provided below will only be used to ensure financial propriety. Because questionnaires are only identifiable by a numerical code, they cannot be linked to the information you give below.*

感谢您的参与。如果您有任何别的问题，一份参与者情况通报函将会提供给您。在您完成了我们的调查问卷后，请在这张纸上签上您的姓名并领取 5 加币报酬。下面的信息将只用于确保研究经费的正确使用。所有已被编码的调查问卷将不会包含以下任何信息。

	Name (Please Print) 名字(请用正楷书写)	Email Address/Phone Number 电子邮件或电话号码	Signature 签名	Date 日期
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				

**Thank you for participating in this study!**

**感谢您的参与!**

## Appendix C (1)



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Appendix C (1) – Mainland Chinese

### Participant Information Letter for Interview

**Title of Project:** Older Adults and Their Spare-Time Activity Participation: A Comparison of Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian People.

**Investigator:** Haidong Liang, PhD Candidate

**Affiliation:** Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation, University of Alberta,  
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

**Telephone:** 1.780.935.7625

**Email:** [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

**Study Purpose:** To learn more about older adults' spare-time activity participation by conducting a comprehensive comparison among older Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian people.

**Background:** Research suggests that we may not understand what factors affect older adults' spare-time activity participation cross-culturally. This study examines how different factors may influence older adults' decision to participate or not participate in spare-time activities.

**Procedures:** A 30 to 45 minutes interview will be tape-recorded to facilitate the collection of information. The tape recorder can be turned off at any time upon your request.

**Study Benefits:** As well as thinking about your spare-time activity participation, this study will help researchers better understand the impact of different factors on older adults' spare-time activity participation cross-culturally. Additionally, ¥20 RMB (Chinese Yuan) will be given to you after you have completed the interview.

**Study Risks:** Given the use of an interview to collect the information in this study, the risks associated with participation may include revealing personal or sensitive information. This may make some participants uncomfortable.

**Confidentiality:** To ensure participants remain anonymous, personal information will be coded and stored in a locked office. Only the investigator will have access to this office. Participants will **NOT** be identified in any future presentations or publications.

**Data Storage:** Normally, information is kept for a period of five years after publication. It is then destroyed.

**Freedom to Withdraw:** You may decline to continue or withdraw from the study at any time (up to when the data is included in my dissertation), without any consequence, and your information will be removed from the study upon your request. To do so, please indicate to the researcher, verbally or in writing, you wish to withdraw. It is important to note that you will still receive your remuneration after completing the interview even if you decide to withdraw at that time.

**Study Findings:** If you would like to learn more about the study's overall findings, please contact the Primary Investigator, Haidong Liang, at 1.780.935.7625 or [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca).

**Additional Contacts:** If you have concerns about this study, you may contact Dr. Kelvin Jones, Chair of the PER-ALES-NS Research Ethics Board, University of Alberta, Canada, at 1.780.492.0302 or [kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca](mailto:kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca). Dr. Jones has no direct involvement with this project. You may also contact Dr. Gordon Walker, the investigator's supervisor, at the University of Alberta, Canada, at 1.780.492.0581 or [gordon.walker@ualberta.ca](mailto:gordon.walker@ualberta.ca).

**Thank you for participating in this study!**

## C (1) Simplified Chinese Version



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### Appendix C (1) – Mainland Chinese 参与者情况通报函——个人访谈

**项目名称:** 中国大陆老年人, 华裔加拿大老年人和英裔加拿大老年人参与闲暇(休闲)活动情况之比较

**研究人员:** 梁海东 博士候选人

**所在单位:** 加拿大阿尔伯塔大学体育与娱乐休闲学院

**电话号码:** 1.780.935.7625

**电子邮件:** [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

**研究目的:** 本研究旨在通过对中国大陆老年人, 华裔加拿大老年人和英裔加拿大老年人进行全面详细地比较, 更好地了解老年人参与闲暇(休闲)活动的情况。

**研究背景:** 研究表明我们对什么因素影响了老年人决定参与或者不参与闲暇(休闲)活动知之甚少, 尤其是跨文化之间的研究更是少之又少。

**数据收集:** 整个访谈过程持续大概 30 到 45 分钟。为促进信息收集的精确与效率, 所有内容将会被磁带录音。您可以在数据收集的任何阶段要求研究人员停止录音。

**参与益处:** 除了可以帮助研究人员更好的了解那些影响两个国家的老年人参加闲暇(休闲)活动的因素外, 您也同时可以更好的思考您自己的闲暇(休闲)活动情况。此外, 您将领取 20 圆人民币作为完成个人访谈的酬劳。

**参与风险:** 鉴于本研究是用个人访谈的方式收集信息, 有关的参与风险大概为参与者可能会向研究人员透露个人及其他敏感信息, 而这可能会引起一些参与者的不快。

**研究保密:** 为确保匿名, 所有的个人信息将被编码并存放在一个上锁的, 只有研究人员才能出入的办公室里。而所有参与者的个人真实信息将确保不会出现在将来任何的学术性演讲及发表的文章里。

**数据储存:** 通常情况下, 所有收集的信息将在学术文章发表后的第六年被销毁。

**自由退出:** 您可以在数据收录进本人博士论文之前的任何阶段, 并且在不承担任何的风险与后果的情况下, 口头或书面通知研究人员(本人) 您不愿意继续或想退出这项研究, 您的所有信息也将随之删除。需要提醒的是在完成该访谈后, 即使您马上决定退出这项研究, 您依旧会获得 20 圆人民币作为完成访谈的酬劳。

**研究结果:** 如果您想了解本研究的大致结果, 请联系主要的研究人员, 加拿大阿尔伯塔大学的博士候选人梁海东。他的联系方式为: 电话: 1.780.935.7625 或电子邮件: [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

**其他联络:** 如果您想与没有直接涉及本研究的有关人士交谈, 请联系加拿大阿尔伯塔大学体育与娱乐休闲学院道德伦理委员会的凯文·琼斯博士。他的联系方式为: 电话: 1.780.492.0302 或电子邮件: [kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca](mailto:kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca)。您还可以与梁海东的博士导师, 加拿大阿尔伯塔大学体育与娱乐休闲学院的戈登·沃克博士联系。他的联系方式为: 电话: 1.780.492.0581 或电子邮件 [gordon.walker@ualberta.ca](mailto:gordon.walker@ualberta.ca)

**感谢您的参与!**

## Appendix C (2)



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Appendix C (2) – Mainland Chinese

### Informed Consent for Interview

#### Part 1 (to be completed by the Principal Investigator)

**Title of Project:** Older Adults and Their Spare-Time Activity Participation: A Comparison of Older Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian People.

**Investigator:** Haidong Liang, PhD Candidate

**Telephone:** 1.780.935.7625

**Email:** [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

**Advisor:** Gordon Walker, Professor

**Telephone:** 1.780.492.0581

**Email:** [gordon.walker@ualberta.ca](mailto:gordon.walker@ualberta.ca)

**Affiliation:** Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

#### Part 2 (to be completed by the research participant)

Do you understand that you have been asked to be in a research study	Yes	No
Have you received and read a copy of the attached Information Letter?	Yes	No
Do you understand the benefits and risks involved in participating in this study?	Yes	No
Have you had opportunities to ask questions and discuss this study?	Yes	No
Do you understand that you are free to refuse to participate, or to withdraw from the study at any time (up to when the data is included in my dissertation), without consequence, and that your information will be removed upon your request?	Yes	No
Do you understand that you will still receive your remuneration after completing the interview even if you decide to withdraw at that time?	Yes	No
Has the issue of confidentiality been explained to you? Do you understand who will have access to your information?	Yes	No

This study was explained to me by: \_\_\_\_\_

I agree to participate in this study:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of Research Participant

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Witness

\_\_\_\_\_  
Printed Name

\_\_\_\_\_  
Printed Name

*I believe that the person signing this form understands what is involved in the study and voluntarily agrees to participate.*

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of Investigator or Designee

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

**The Information Letter** must be attached to this consent form and a copy of both forms must be given to the participant.

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### Appendix C (2) – Mainland Chinese

#### 知情同意书——个人访谈

##### 第一部分 (由主要研究人员完成)

项目名称: 中国大陆老年人, 华裔加拿大老年人和英裔加拿大老年人参与闲暇 (休闲) 活动情况之比较

研究人员: 梁海东 博士候选人

电话号码: 1.780.935.7625

电子邮件: [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

博士导师: 戈登·沃克 (教授)

电话号码: 1.780.492.0581

电子邮件: [gordon.walker@ualberta.ca](mailto:gordon.walker@ualberta.ca)

所在单位: 加拿大阿尔伯塔大学体育与娱乐休闲学院

##### 第二部分 (由参与者完成)

您明白您是在参与一项学术性调查研究吗?	是	否
您收到并阅读了附带的“参与者情况通报函”了吗?	是	否
您了解参与这项调查研究的益处和风险吗?	是	否
您有机会问问题并参与这项研究的讨论吗?	是	否
您被告知“您可以在数据收录进本人博士论文之前的任何阶段, 并且在不承担任何的风险与后果的情况下, 口头或书面通知研究人员 (本人) <u>您不愿意继续或想退出这项研究</u> , 您的所有信息也将随之删除”这个情况吗?	是	否
您被告知“在完成该访谈后, 即使您马上决定退出这项研究, 您依旧会获得 20 元人民币作为完成访谈的酬劳”这个情况吗?	是	否
研究人员向您解释“信息保密性”了吗? 您知道谁会接触到这些信息吗?	是	否

这项研究由 (姓名) \_\_\_\_\_ 向我做了解释。

我同意参与这项研究:

\_\_\_\_\_  
参与者签名

\_\_\_\_\_  
日期

\_\_\_\_\_  
证人

\_\_\_\_\_  
正楷姓名

\_\_\_\_\_  
正楷姓名

我相信签字人已了解这项研究所涉及的内容并自愿参与这项研究。

\_\_\_\_\_  
研究人员 (或指定人员) 签名

\_\_\_\_\_  
日期

“知情同意书”和“参与者情况通报函”的副本需一并交与参与者。



## Appendix C (3)



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### Appendix C (3) – Mainland Chinese

#### Interview Questions 访谈问题

#### Interview Questions and Probes 访谈问题及深入性问题

#### Spare-Time Activity Participation 闲暇（休闲）活动参与（情况）

(1) *What kinds of SPARE-TIME ACTIVITY(IES) do you currently do the most often?*

您现在最经常参与的闲暇（休闲）活动是什么？

Probe: *(the following are just prompts when respondents do not know how to answer).*

下列“活动类型”仅在受访者不知如何回答时起提示作用

- Outdoor activities (e.g., camping, cycling, fishing, and visiting parks)  
户外娱乐运动（例如：野营，骑单车/自行车，钓鱼，逛公园）
- Sports (e.g., table tennis, badminton, basketball)  
体育活动（例如：乒乓球，羽毛球，篮球）
- Social activities (e.g., chatting, karaoke, eating out)  
社交活动（例如：聊天，唱卡拉ok，外出吃饭）
- Gambling (e.g., mah-jong, poker, lottery, casinos)  
赌博类活动（例如：麻将，扑克，彩票，赌场）
- Games (e.g., chess, board games, computer or video games)  
游戏类（例如：中国象棋，其他棋类活动，电脑或电子游戏）
- Exercising (e.g., jogging, walking, swimming, tai-chi, aerobics)  
锻炼身体类（例如：慢跑，散步，游泳，太极拳，有氧类运动—健身操）
- Media activities (e.g., listening to music, watching TV, reading)  
媒体类（例如：听音乐，看电视，阅读—读书看报）
- Volunteering (e.g., coach, instructor, church, cultural organization)  
义工类（例如：当教练或指导老师，帮助教堂或文化团体做事）
- Attending sports events (e.g., Olympics, community sports events, professional games)  
现场观看体育赛事（例如：看奥运，社区体育赛事，或职业比赛）
- Artistic or creative activities (e.g., crafts, cooking, playing a musical instrument)  
艺术类或创造性活动（例如：手工艺制作，烹饪，乐器弹奏）
- Traveling (e.g., holidays, vacations, pleasure)  
旅行（例如：外出度假，游玩）
- Resting and relaxing (e.g., doing nothing or having a nap)  
休息和放松（例如：什么都不做或打盹）
- Caring for family members (e.g., babysitting, attending children/older people)  
照顾家里人（例如：幼儿看护，带小孩，照顾老人）

*Who do you most prefer doing this activity with? (e.g., alone, friend, family, others)*  
 您最想与什么人一起参与这项休闲活动? (例如: 独自一人, 朋友, 家人, 或其他人)

(2) *What a NEW SPARE-TIME ACTIVITY would you most likely to start in the future?*

将来您最有可能开始哪一项新的闲暇(休闲)活动?

Probe: *(the following are just prompts when respondents do not know how to answer).*  
 下列“活动类型”仅在受访者不知如何回答时起提示作用

- Outdoor activities (e.g., camping, cycling, fishing, and visiting parks)  
 户外娱乐运动(例如: 野营, 骑单车/自行车, 钓鱼, 逛公园)
- Sports (e.g., table tennis, badminton, basketball)  
 体育活动(例如: 乒乓球, 羽毛球, 篮球)
- Social activities (e.g., chatting, karaoke, eating out)  
 社交活动(例如: 聊天, 唱卡拉ok, 外出吃饭)
- Gambling (e.g., mah-jong, poker, lottery, casinos)  
 赌博类活动(例如: 麻将, 扑克, 彩票, 赌场)
- Games (e.g., chess, board games, computer or video games)  
 游戏类(例如: 中国象棋, 其他棋类活动, 电脑或电子游戏)
- Exercising (e.g., jogging, walking, swimming, tai-chi, aerobics)  
 锻炼身体类(例如: 慢跑, 散步, 游泳, 太极拳, 有氧类运动—健身操)
- Media activities (e.g., listening to music, watching TV, reading)  
 媒体类(例如: 听音乐, 看电视, 阅读—读书看报)
- Volunteering (e.g., coach, instructor, church, cultural organization)  
 义工类(例如: 当教练或指导老师, 帮助教堂或文化团体做事)
- Attending sports events (e.g., Olympics, community sports events, professional games)  
 现场观看体育赛事(例如: 看奥运, 社区体育赛事, 或职业比赛)
- Artistic or creative activities (e.g., crafts, cooking, playing a musical instrument)  
 艺术类或创造性活动(例如: 手工艺制作, 烹饪, 乐器弹奏)
- Traveling (e.g., holidays, vacations, pleasure)  
 旅行(例如: 外出度假, 游玩)
- Resting and relaxing (e.g., doing nothing or having a nap)  
 休息和放松(例如: 什么都不做或打盹)
- Caring for family members (e.g., babysitting, attending children/older people)  
 照顾家里人(例如: 幼儿看护, 带小孩, 照顾老人)

*Who would you most prefer doing this activity with? (e.g., alone, friend, family, others)*

您最想与什么人一起参与这项休闲活动? (例如: 独自一人, 朋友, 家人, 或其他人)

**Constraints (i.e., barriers that may stop your participation in aforementioned activities)**

约束条件/制约因素(什么原因造成了您无法参与以上提及的休闲活动)

(1) *What constraints prevent you from participating in SPARE-TIME activities?* (Serves as a reminder to the researcher what this section is about)

什么因素限制了您参与闲暇（休闲）活动？（提示研究人员这部分的问题重点）

(Always ask participants to think about possible extra constraints. *The following are actual questions, but these questions are not set questions, they may differ depending on the situations for each participant. Also ask them to rate the top 3 constraints based on their own answer*).

深入性问题：（记得同时问受访者是否还有其他的制约因素。以下是实际访谈中的问题，但根据不同受访者的个人情况，问题也会相应有所不同。同时让受访者根据他们自己的答案列出三项最主要的制约因素）

- Intrapersonal constraints (e.g., bad, boring, foolish, not being approved by important people)  
个人内在的制约因素（例如：各种感觉—不好的，无聊的，或愚蠢的；家人或朋友不批准）
  - When you participate in certain spare-time activities, do you perceive any barriers/obstacles? For example, you just think this activity is (e.g., bad, boring, foolish) or your family members do not want you to get involved because they believe that some activities might be too physically demanding for you? And because of this, you are less likely to participate in those spare-time activities?  
在您参加某项活动的时候，您个人有没有意识到/感觉到任何的制约因素？比如说，您就是觉得这个活动不是很好，挺无聊的，或者说，您的家人不愿意让您参与该项活动，因为他们觉得该活动对您来说在体力方面的要求有点太高了？也正因为这些因素，您不大可能参与该项活动？
- Interpersonal constraints (e.g., the people who are important to you – live too far away, do not have time, do not have transportation, do not have enough money)  
人际关系方面的制约因素（例如：家人或朋友—住的太远，没有时间，交通不便，或没有足够的钱）
  - Have you ever experienced something such that you had to stop participating in spare-time activities because of those who are important to you (e.g., your family members, your friends, your previous teammates)? For example, they might be living too far from the place you live; they don't have time and/or money to go with you?  
您有没有因为人际关系方面的制约因素而导致停止参与某些休闲活动？例如说，家人，朋友，或者以前的队友因为住的太远，或者因为没时间或没有闲钱可以和您一起参与该项活动？
- Structural constraints (e.g., the interviewee - no time, no money, no transportation, other obligations; the facility – too far away, too crowded)  
结构性制约因素（例如：在受访者方面—缺少时间，金钱，交通方式及其他方面的责任与义务；在活动设施方面—离受访者比较远并且非常拥挤）
  - We have talked about other people who might not have time, money, transportation, etc to

get involved in spare-time activities with you. How about you? Do you have this kind of concern? How about the facilities you have been to, will the facilities themselves be a constraint/barrier to you?

我们刚刚谈了您熟悉的那些人因为时间啊，金钱啊，交通等方面的制约因素而无法和您一起参与休闲活动。那您自己呢？您有这方面的顾虑吗？比如说那些活动设施和场所，它们本身对您来说是制约因素吗？

- Self-face (e.g., the interviewee – ask questions, make mistakes, call attention to himself/herself)  
(个人的)面子问题(例如：以下情况或许会使受访者感觉丢面子—问问题，犯错误，引起别人的注意)
  - As you know, face is very important to Chinese people, do you think losing face is a barrier that might influence your participation? If so, in what way? For example, you might think before you participate in the activity: “Do I have to ask questions? Or I’m not familiar with the rules, am I going to make a lot of mistakes?” Can you think of any situations you feel that you might lose your own face?  
您也知道，中国人最爱面子，您觉得“因为某些原因而丢面子”会是制约您参加休闲活动的障碍吗？如果是，是什么样一个情况？能告诉我吗？例如，在您参加某项活动之前，您或许会想，“我今天如果又得问那个老师很多问题（他/她会不会觉得我很傻）？”或者说“我不太熟悉这个（活动）规则，哎呀，我肯定得犯好多错误。”您能告诉我：在哪些情况下，或者哪些事情，会让您觉得可能会让您自己没有面子吗？
- Other-face (e.g., the important people – ask questions, make mistakes, call attention to themselves)  
(他人的)面子问题(例如：以下情况或许会使家人或朋友感觉丢面子—问问题，犯错误，引起别人的注意)
  - We just talked about our own faces. How about those people who are important to you? Is the possibility of their losing face during activity participation a concern for you? If so, why is that? Similar to the previous question, can you think of any situations you think those people who are important to you might lose their faces?  
我们刚刚谈了我们自己的面子问题。那对于那些您熟悉的人呢？您会有“他们或许会因为参加那些活动而丢面子”这方面的顾虑吗？如果有这样的顾虑，您能告诉我为什么吗？类似前面的问题，您能告诉我：在哪些情况下，或者哪些事情，会让您觉得可能会让您熟悉的人（家人啊，朋友啊等等）没有面子吗？

(Note: avoid giving detailed examples which might receive only *yes* or *no* answer.)

(备注：为减少受访者简单地以“是”或“不是”来回答问题的状况，采访者应避免提供过多具体例子)

### **Constraint Negotiation (i.e., how you overcome the barriers that may stop your participation)**

应对制约因素的方法(策略)：您怎么样去应对对那些制约您参与休闲活动的因素？

(1) *What would help you overcome or negotiate these barriers/constraints?* (Serves as a reminder to the

researcher what this section is about)

通过做什么（怎样做）可以帮助你应付/处理/解决这些妨碍因素或者约束条件？

*(The following are actual questions, but these questions are not set questions, they vary depending on the constraints mentioned by participants. Always ask participants to think about possible extra ways of trying to overcome any barriers/obstacles for their participation.)*

深入性问题：（记得同时问受访者是否还有其他的应对制约因素的方法。以下是实际访谈中的问题，但根据不同受访者的个人情况，问题也会相应有所不同。

- Cognitive strategies (e.g., ignore, put up with it, be positive)
- 认知策略（例如：忽略，忍耐，正面乐观的态度）
  - How often do you just ignore or just put up with any difficulties in participating in an activity? For example, because you do not have other people or friends to pick you up, so you just think you might have to take a bus to get to the leisure centre yourself.  
在参加某些活动的时候，您会经常性忽略那些制约因素，或者就是干脆忍着吗？比如说，您想去康体休闲中心，但却没有人或朋友可以直接用车接您去，所以您觉得只能搭公车去了。
  - What is your attitude towards those barriers that you have mentioned above? Will you just try to be positive and have fun or will you be very negative? How does it work?  
在面对前面您提到过的那些制约因素的时候，您总体的态度是怎么样呢？是会非常乐观地面对还是会非常消极甚至负面地看待呢？可以告诉我具体的情况吗？
- Behavioural strategies (e.g., modify time, acquire skills, change interpersonal relations, improve finance, physical therapy, and change leisure aspirations)
- 行为策略（例如：调整时间，学习技巧，改善人际关系，改善经济条件，物理治疗，调整期望值）
  - You mentioned that time is one of the barriers that stop your participation. How often do you change your daily schedule to fit around your activity? Do you do some planning beforehand? And how?  
您提到说时间是最大的障碍/制约因素。请问您会经常调整您自己的时间表以便可以参加（那些/那项）休闲活动吗？您会提前就计划好吗？能大概告诉我您是怎样安排调整您的休闲时间(以应对时间这个障碍)的吗？
  - You also mentioned learning new skills, what types of (e.g., sporting, musical, practical) skills have you learned to participate in? For example, in order to be able to play the game, you ask your son/daughter to help with the required skills.  
您还提到了学习改进新技巧（以便更好的参加休闲活动），能告诉我您都学了些什么样的技巧吗？例如，为了更好的参加这个比赛，您就叫您的儿子/女儿帮您一起提高相应的技术。
  - You mentioned (e.g., friends, family members, people you meet in the centre), how will they help you overcome those barriers? For example, have you tried to ask friends to do the activity with you so that you can get a ride?  
您提到了（朋友，家人，在休闲中心一起玩的人），他们有帮助您克服/应对那些制约因素吗？例如说，在每次去某个地方参加活动的时候，您有没有问周围有车的

朋友能否顺便捎你一程呢？

- Money is another big issue, isn't it? How would you deal with this if you have to pay a large amount of money to participate each time? (Probe: do it less often, get a job, budget money better)

钱总是一个关键的因素。假如说，为了参加某项活动，您必须得交很多钱才可以，您会怎么样做？（不去参加那么多，偶尔去一次。找点挣钱的事情做做帮补一下。或者说平时就做好理财好节省出参加活动的经费）

- You talked about your (e.g., injury, disease), anyone may have to stop doing these activities in this situation. In what way you have gotten over it to continue your participation? (Probe: medicine, physical therapy)

您提到了您（现在的/受过的）伤病对您参加休闲活动有很大的影响。我想换成我是您的家人或许也会劝您不要参加了。可是您还是继续参与着，请问，您都做了些什么来面对这些伤病呢？（比如说，理疗啊，还有通过药物治疗啊）

- What if you really want to participate in some activities, but you have been limited by something like equipment, clothes, or nobody with similar skill levels?

如果您很想参与某项活动，但却受制于某些因素，像：器材啊，装备啊，或者说周围的人水平都要么太高，要么太低，没有相当的（所以玩起来没意思）。

- Do you have any other ways of trying to overcome obstacles to your participation?  
您还有其他的，应对各种您提到的制约因素的方法吗？

## (2) Bias 偏见

*(The following example questions are actual questions, but these questions are not set questions, they may differ depending on the situations for each participant.)*

*(以下是实际访谈中的问题，但根据不同受访者的个人情况，问题也会相应有所不同。)*

- I. *Do you think people (i.e., yourself and/or other people) experience bias, in terms of ageism, when engaging in certain types of SPARE-TIME activities? Is this bias a constraint? If so, how do you negotiate this constraint?*

*您认为在人们（包括您和/或其他人）参与闲暇（休闲）活动的时候，会感受到他人对于老人的偏见吗？这种偏见是限制您参与闲暇（休闲）活动的一个制约因素吗？如果是，请问您是如何应对这种偏见（并继续参与闲暇活动）的呢？*

### Example questions that will facilitate participants' understanding

- Ageism refers to certain comments or behaviours toward older people. For example, "these people are too old to participate in that kind of activity". When you hear this kind of comment, does it influence your own participation? To what extent? If this kind of comment becomes a barrier in your life, how can you overcome it? Do you think it is something that you or other people cannot get away from? Why do you think so? Any suggestions on how to deal with ageism?

对老人的偏见体现在语言和行动上。比如说，“这些老人都应该参加这项活动！”“这项活动可不是为老人准备的！”之类的。当您听到类似的言论的时候，在多大程度上会影响您参加的兴趣？如果这种言论已经变成了一种制约因素，您会如何应对呢？您认为这种言论与行为是怎么样也不可避免的吗？为什么？如果是这样，您有什么好的建议，或者觉得怎么样才可以更成功有效的应对这些针对老人的偏见呢？

II. *Do you think people (i.e., yourself and/or other people) experience bias, in terms of sexism, when engaging in certain types of SPARE-TIME activities? Is this bias a constraint? If so, how do you negotiate this constraint?*

*您认为在人们（包括您和/或其他人）参与闲暇（休闲）活动的时候，会感受到他人对于性别（尤其是女性）的偏见吗？这种偏见是限制您参与闲暇（休闲）活动的一个制约因素吗？如果是，请问您是如何应对这种偏见（并继续参与闲暇活动）的呢？*

Example questions that will facilitate participants' understanding

- Sexism can be understood as certain comments or behaviours toward certain gender (in most occasions, against women). For example, “women shouldn't be allowed to play this kind of game”. When you hear this kind of comment, does it influence your own participation? To what extent? If this kind of comment becomes a barrier in your life, how can you overcome it? Do you think it is something that you or other people cannot get away from? Why do you think so? Any suggestions on how to deal with sexism?

对性别的偏见体现在语言和行动上（大部分是针对女性的）。比如说，“这些女人都应该参加这项活动！”“这项活动可不是为女人准备的！”之类的。当然，也有某些活动（瑜伽，健美操）是针对男性的。当您听到类似的言论的时候，在多大程度上会影响您参加的兴趣？如果这种言论已经变成了一种制约因素，您会如何应对呢？您认为这种言论与行为是怎么样也不可避免的吗？为什么？如果是这样，您有什么好的建议，或者觉得怎么样才可以更成功有效的应对这些对性别的偏见呢？

(Note: if respondents do not understand the term “bias”, I will provide them with alternative terms such as prejudice, discrimination to facilitate their understanding)

备注：如果受访者不明白“偏见”的具体含义。我会尝试使用其他的同义词（例如，成见，歧视）来帮助他们理解。

## Appendix C (4)



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### Appendix C (4) – Mainland Chinese

Thank you for participating in this study. If you have any further question, a Participant Information Letter is available. Once you have completed the interview, please sign this sheet and we will give you ¥20 RMB (Chinese Yuan). *The information provided below will only be used to ensure financial propriety. Because interviews are only identifiable by a numerical code, they cannot be linked to the information you give below.*

感谢您的参与。如果您有任何别的问题，一份参与者情况通报函将会提供给您。在您完成了我们的个人访谈后，请在这张纸上签上您的姓名并领取 20 圆人民币报酬。下面的信息将只用于确保研究经费的正确使用。所有已被编码的个人访谈内容将不会包含以下任何信息。

	Name (Please Print) 名字(请用正楷书写)	Email Address/Phone Number 电子邮件或电话号码	Signature 签名	Date 日期
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				

**Thank you for participating in this study!**

**感谢您的参与!**



## Appendix C (5)



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Appendix C (5) – Mainland Chinese

### Participant Information Letter for Questionnaire

**Title of Project:** Older Adults and Their Spare-Time Activity Participation: A Comparison of Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian People.

**Investigator:** Haidong Liang, PhD Candidate

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**Study Purpose:** To learn more about older adults' spare-time activity participation by conducting a comprehensive comparison among older Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian people.

**Background:** Research suggests that we may not understand what factors affect older adults' spare-time activity participation cross-culturally. This study examines how different factors may influence older adults' decision to participate or not participate in spare-time activities.

**Procedures:** You will be asked to complete a short questionnaire (10 – 15 minutes). Your return of the questionnaire implies your consent to participate in this study.

**Study Benefits:** As well as thinking about your spare-time activity participation, this study will help researchers better understand the impact of different factors on older adults' spare-time activity participation cross-culturally. Additionally, ¥10 RMB (Chinese Yuan) will be given to you after you have completed the questionnaire.

**Study Risks:** Given the use of a questionnaire to collect information, the risks associated with participation may include revealing personal or sensitive information. This may make some participants uncomfortable.

**Confidentiality:** To ensure participants remain anonymous, personal information will be coded and stored in a locked office. Only the investigator will have access to this office. Participants will **NOT** be identified in any future presentations or publications.

**Data Storage:** Normally, information is kept for a period of five years after publication. It is then destroyed.

**Freedom to Withdraw:** You may decline to continue or withdraw from the study at any time (up to when the data is included in my dissertation), without any consequence, and your information will be removed from the study upon your request. To do so, please indicate to the researcher, verbally or in writing, you wish to withdraw. It is important to note that you will still receive your remuneration after completing the questionnaire even if you decide to withdraw at that time.

**Study Findings:** If you would like to learn more about the study's overall findings, please contact the Primary Investigator, Haidong Liang, at 1.780.935.7625 or [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca).

**Additional Contacts:** If you have concerns about this study, you may contact Dr. Kelvin Jones, Chair of the PER-ALES-NS Research Ethics Board, University of Alberta, Canada, at 1.780.492.0302 or [kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca](mailto:kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca). Dr. Jones has no direct involvement with this project. You may also contact Dr. Gordon Walker, the investigator's supervisor, at the University of Alberta, Canada, at 1.780.492.0581 or [gordon.walker@ualberta.ca](mailto:gordon.walker@ualberta.ca).

**Thank you for participating in this study!**

## C (5) Simplified Chinese Version



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### Appendix C (5) – Mainland Chinese 参与者情况通报函——调查问卷

**项目名称:** 中国大陆老年人, 华裔加拿大老年人和英裔加拿大老年人参与闲暇(休闲)活动情况之比较

**研究人员:** 梁海东 博士候选人

**所在单位:** 加拿大阿尔伯塔大学体育与娱乐休闲学院

**电话号码:** 1.780.935.7625

**电子邮件:** [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

**研究目的:** 本研究旨在通过对中国大陆老年人, 华裔加拿大老年人和英裔加拿大老年人进行全面详细地比较, 更好地了解老年人参与闲暇(休闲)活动的情况。

**研究背景:** 研究表明我们对什么因素影响了老年人决定参与或者不参与闲暇(休闲)活动知之甚少, 尤其是跨文化之间的研究更是少之又少。

**数据收集:** 您需要完成一份花费您 10 到 15 分钟的调查问卷。归还完成了的调查问卷即代表您已经知情并同意参与这项研究。

**参与益处:** 除了可以帮助研究人员更好的了解那些影响两个国家的老年人参加闲暇(休闲)活动的因素外, 您也同时可以更好的思考您自己的闲暇(休闲)活动情况。此外, 您将领取 10 元人民币作为完成个人访谈的酬劳。

**参与风险:** 鉴于本研究是用调查问卷的方式收集信息, 有关的参与风险大概为参与者可能会向研究人员透露个人及其他敏感信息, 而这可能会引起一些参与者的不快。

**研究保密:** 为确保匿名, 所有的个人信息将被编码并存放在一个上锁的, 只有研究人员才能出入的办公室里。而所有参与者的个人真实信息将确保不会出现在将来任何的学术性演讲及发表的文章里。

**数据储存:** 通常情况下, 所有收集的信息将在学术文章发表后的第六年被销毁。

**自由退出:** 您可以在数据收录进本人博士论文之前的任何阶段, 并且在不承担任何的风险与后果的情况下, 口头或书面通知研究人员(本人) 您不愿意继续或想退出这项研究, 您的所有信息也将随之删除。需要提醒的是在完成该调查问卷后, 即使您马上决定退出这项研究, 您依旧会获得 10 元人民币作为完成调查的酬劳。

**研究结果:** 如果您想了解本研究的大致结果, 请联系主要的研究人员, 加拿大阿尔伯塔大学的博士候选人梁海东。他的联系方式为: 电话: 1.780.935.7625 或电子邮件: [haidong2@ualberta.ca](mailto:haidong2@ualberta.ca)

**其他联络:** 如果您想与没有直接涉及本研究的有关人士交谈, 请联系加拿大阿尔伯塔大学体育与娱乐休闲学院道德伦理委员会的凯文·琼斯博士。他的联系方式为: 电话: 1.780.492.0302 或电子邮件: [kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca](mailto:kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca)。您还可以与梁海东的博士导师, 加拿大阿尔伯塔大学体育与娱乐休闲学院的戈登·沃克博士联系。他的联系方式为: 电话: 1.780.492.0581 或电子邮件 [gordon.walker@ualberta.ca](mailto:gordon.walker@ualberta.ca)

**感谢您的参与!**

## Appendix C (6) Mainland Chinese: Questionnaire



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Appendix C (6) – Mainland Chinese

ID #: \_\_\_\_\_

### Older Adults and Their Spare-Time Activity Participation: A Comparison of Older Mainland Chinese, Chinese Canadian, and British Canadian People

Gender: \_\_\_ Male \_\_\_ Female

Which age group do you belong to? (*Please place a mark next to the answer*)

\_\_\_ less than 55    \_\_\_ 55-64    \_\_\_ 65-74    \_\_\_ 75-84    \_\_\_ 85 or above

This questionnaire has six sections, including (1) **Spare Time Activity Participation**, (2) **Motivations**, (3) **Constraints**, (4) **Negotiation**, (5) **Self-Constraint**, and (6) **Demographic Information**. *Spare time* means things that you do when you're not at work, or doing housework. Please answer the following questions by circling the number next to the most appropriate answer or by writing your answer in the space provided. **By agreeing to complete this questionnaire, you are giving your consent.** Once you have completed the questionnaire, please sign the separate sheet and we will give you **¥ 10**. Thank you!

## SECTION 1: SPARE TIME ACTIVITY PARTICIPATION

Please tell me how frequently you participated in each of the following types of **spare time** activities during the past 12 months. Please indicate the extent to which you participate in each category of spare time activities by circling your response.

Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Extremely Often
1	2	3	4	5	6

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Outdoor recreation activities, such as camping, cycling, fishing or visiting parks.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. Playing sports, such as badminton, tennis, table tennis or basketball.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. Doing social activities, such as eating out, chatting, karaoke, entertaining, or spending time with family or friends.          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. Gambling, such as playing poker, mah-jong, the lottery, or going to casinos.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. Playing games, such as chess, board games, or video and computer games.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. Exercising, such as aerobics, jogging, walking, swimming, or attending fitness classes.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 7. Media activities, such as listening to music, listening to the radio, reading, or watching movies or television.                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 8. Volunteering, as a coach, instructor, or with a church or a cultural organization.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 9. Attending sports events, such as Olympics, FIFA World Cup, or high-school, university, or community sports events.              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 10. Doing artistic or creative activities, such as crafts, cooking, playing a musical instrument, or going to a museum or concert. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 11. Traveling for pleasure, on holidays, or vacation.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 12. Resting and relaxing, by doing nothing or having a nap.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 13. Caring for family members such as babysitting, attending children/older people.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

## SECTION 2: MOTIVATION

Listed below are statements about the different reasons or motivations a person might have for participating in spare time activities. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling your response.

Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Slightly Agree 4	Moderately Agree 5	Strongly Agree 6
---------------------------	-----------------------------	---------------------------	------------------------	--------------------------	------------------------

*I do what I do in my spare time...*

1. Because it is interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Because it is part of my personal identity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Because the activities I do are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Because of the pressure I put on myself to do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Because of the pressure others put on me to do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Because the activities I do are enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Because the activities I do are part of who I am as a person.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Because the activities I do are worthwhile to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Because if I don't do it, I feel guilty.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Because of the rewards others give me afterwards.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Because it is fun.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Because the activities I do reflect who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Because it reflects my personal values.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Because of the rewards I give myself afterwards.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Because the activities I do make others feel good about me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

### SECTION 3: CONSTRAINTS

Listed below are statements about the different reasons or constraints a person might have for **NOT** participating in spare time activities. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling your response.

Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Slightly Agree 4	Moderately Agree 5	Strongly Agree 6
---------------------------	-----------------------------	---------------------------	------------------------	--------------------------	------------------------

1. It is bad for me to participate in spare time activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. The people who are important to me might lose face if they had to ask questions when participating in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if I do not have transportation to do them.	1	2	3	4	5	6

4. The people who are important to me live too far away to participate in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities because I might lose face if I had to ask questions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. The people who are important to me would not approve of me participating in spare time activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if I do not have enough money to do them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. The people who are important to me might lose face if they made mistakes when participating in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if the facilities are too crowded.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. The people who are important to me do not have enough time to participate in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. It is boring for me to participate in spare time activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities because I might lose face if I made mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. The people who are important to me do not have transportation to participate in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if I have too many other obligations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. The people who are important to me might lose face if they called attention to themselves when participating in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. It is foolish for me to participate in spare time activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if I do not have enough time to do them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. The people who are important to me do not have enough money to participate in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities because I might lose face if I called attention to myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I am less likely to participate in spare time activities if the facilities I need to do them are too far away.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. The people who are important to me have too many other obligations to participate in spare time activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

## SECTION 4: NEGOTIATION

Listed below are statements about the different ways a person uses to overcome the constraints he or she faces when trying to participate in spare time activities. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling your response.

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

*In order for me to participate in my spare time activities,*

1. I just ignore the constraints I encounter.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I budget my time more effectively.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I practice more to get better.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I find people with similar interests.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I budget my money.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I get medical treatment to help me participate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I improvise with what I already have (e.g., clothes).	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I just put up with any constraints.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I still go whenever possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I take lessons.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I get rides from other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I get a job to have enough money.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I continue by taking medicine for my disease (e.g., asthma).	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I find somebody else with similar skill levels.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I just try to be positive and have fun.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I plan ahead and am clear about my priorities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I ask other people (e.g., instructor, friends, & family) for help with the required skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I invite friends to do it with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I do it less often.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I continue by taking the physical therapy for my injury.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I buy the equipment (e.g., fitness machine) and do it at home instead.	1	2	3	4	5	6

### SECTION 5: SELF-CONSTRUAL

Listed below are statements about your perception of yourself and your relationships with others. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by circling your response.

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. The well-being of the people I am with is important to me.                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. I would rather depend on myself than on others.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required.           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. My personal identity independent from others is very important to me.                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. Winning is everything.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. If a friend or co-worker gets an award, I feel proud.                                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 7. It is important to me that I do my ACTIVITIES (work, school, sport) better than others. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 8. It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want.     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

### SECTION 6: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Which best describes your present situation? (Please place a mark next to the *single best* answer)

Single       Married/partner       Other

What is your annual household income? (Please place a mark next to the *single best* answer)

Under ¥10,000       ¥10,000 to ¥25,000       ¥25,000 to ¥40,000       Over ¥40,000

Which best describes your education level? (Please place a mark next to the *single best* answer)

Elementary school graduate or less       High school graduate or less  
 University degree or less       Graduate school degree or less

**Thank You for Participating in this Study!**



## C (6) Simplified Chinese Version



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Appendix C (6) – Mainland Chinese

编号: \_\_\_\_\_

# 中国大陆老年人，华裔加拿大老年人和英裔加拿大老年人参与闲暇（休闲）活动情况之比较

性别:        \_\_\_ 男            \_\_\_ 女

您的年龄段为? (请标注最适合您的那一个答案)

\_\_\_ 小于 55    \_\_\_ 55-64    \_\_\_ 65-74    \_\_\_ 75-84    \_\_\_ 85 或以上

这份调查问卷总共有六部分：(1)闲暇（休闲）活动参与情况，(2)动机，(3)制约因素，(4)应对制约因素的方法，(5)自我构念，以及(6)背景资料。*闲暇（休闲）活动指的是那些除了工作或者家务活以外的活动。*请在以下每一个陈述或者观点的旁边圈出最符合您情况的答案。归还完成了的调查问卷即代表您已经知情并同意参与这项研究。完成后，请在另一张纸上签名并领取 10 圆人民币报酬。感谢您的参与。

## 第一部分：闲暇（休闲）活动参与情况

请根据各种程度，圈出您在过去的 12 个月里参加以下各种闲暇（休闲）活动的频率。

	从不 1	极少 2	有时 3	经常 4	很频繁 5	非常频繁 6
1. 户外娱乐活动（例如：野营，骑自行车/单车，钓鱼, 逛公园）	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 体育活动（例如：乒乓球，羽毛球，网球，篮球）	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 社交活动（例如：外出吃饭，聊天，唱卡拉 OK，花时间与家人和朋友一起）	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 赌博类活动（例如：打扑克，玩麻将，买博彩去赌场）	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 游戏类活动（例如：中国象棋，其他棋类活动电脑或电子游戏）	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. 锻炼身体类活动（例如：有氧运动，慢跑，散步游泳，或者参加健身班）	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. 媒体类活动（例如：听音乐，听广播，阅读，或者看电视/电影）	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. 义工类活动（例如：当教练或指导老师，帮助教堂或文化团体做事）	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. 现场观看体育赛事（例如：奥运会，世界杯，或者高中/大学/社区的体育赛事）	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. 艺术类或创造性活动（例如：手工艺，烹饪，乐器弹奏，参观博物馆或欣赏音乐会）	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. 旅行（例如：外出度假，游玩）	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. 休息和放松（例如：什么都不做或打盹）	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. 照顾家人（例如：幼儿看护，带小孩，照顾老人）	1	2	3	4	5	6

## 第二部分：动机

以下是“一个人参加上述各种闲暇（休闲）活动时的不同动机。”请圈出您同意或者不同意这些观点的程度。

很不同意 1	较不同意 2	稍不同意 3	稍微同意 4	比较同意 5	非常同意 6
-----------	-----------	-----------	-----------	-----------	-----------

### 我参加闲暇（休闲）活动是因为...

1. 因为这些活动很有趣。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 因为这些活动代表了我一部分的个人身份。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 因为这些活动对我很重要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 因为我施加给自己的压力。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 因为别人（例如：家人，朋友）给我的压力。	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. 因为我乐在其中（很享受）。	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. 因为这些活动部分地说明了我是怎么样的一个人。	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. 因为这些活动值得我花时间（精力）去参与。	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. 因为如果我不做的话，我会感到内疚。	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. 因为别人（例如：家人，朋友）会因此奖励我。	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. 因为这些活动会让我很开心。	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. 因为这些活动真正地反映了我是谁。 （例如：运动员，艺术家）	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. 因为这些活动反映了我的个人价值观。	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. 因为我会参加了之后奖励我自己。	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. 因为别人（例如：家人，朋友）会因此对我 有好的感觉。	1	2	3	4	5	6

### 第三部分：因此制约因素

以下是“各种可能会限制一个人参加上述闲暇（休闲）活动的制约因素。”请圈出您同意或者不同意这些观点的程度。

很不同意	较不同意	稍不同意	稍微同意	比较同意	非常同意
1	2	3	4	5	6

1. 参加这些活动会让我不好的感觉。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 在和我熟悉的人（例如：家人，朋友）一起参加 这些活动的时候，我担心他们会因为问问题而丢面子。 （因为他们不想在别人面前表现自己某方面的知识欠缺）	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 如果交通不方便的话，我不大可能参加这些活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 我熟悉的人（例如：家人，朋友）因为住的太远而 无法和我一起参加这些活动。	1	2	3	4	5	6

5. 如果我可能会因为问问题而丢面子的话, 我不大可能 1 2 3 4 5 6  
参加这些活动。  
(因为我不想在别人面前表现自己某方面的知识欠缺)
6. 我熟悉的人(例如: 家人, 朋友)不大赞成我参加 1 2 3 4 5 6  
这些休闲活动。
7. 如果我经济不宽裕的话, 我不大可能参加这些活动。 1 2 3 4 5 6
8. 在和我熟悉的人(例如: 家人, 朋友)一起参加 1 2 3 4 5 6  
这些活动的时候, 我担心他们会因为犯错而丢面子。
9. 如果活动场所太拥挤的话, 我不大可能参加这些活动。 1 2 3 4 5 6
10. 我熟悉的人(例如: 家人, 朋友)没时间和我一起 1 2 3 4 5 6  
参加这些活动。
11. 参加这些活动会让我有无聊的感觉。 1 2 3 4 5 6
12. 如果我可能会因为犯错而丢面子的话, 我不大可能 1 2 3 4 5 6  
参加这些活动。
13. 我熟悉的人(例如: 家人, 朋友)因为交通不方便 1 2 3 4 5 6  
而无法和我一起参加这些活动。
14. 如果我有太多其他的责任和义务的话, 我不大可能 1 2 3 4 5 6  
参加这些活动。
15. 在和我熟悉的人(例如: 家人, 朋友)一起参加 1 2 3 4 5 6  
这些活动的时候, 我担心他们会因为某些原因引起  
大家对他们的注意而丢面子。  
(他们想保持低调)
16. 参加这些活动会让我很傻的感觉。 1 2 3 4 5 6
17. 如果没时间的话, 我不大可能参加这些活动。 1 2 3 4 5 6
18. 我熟悉的人(例如: 家人, 朋友)因为经济不宽裕 1 2 3 4 5 6  
而无法和我一起参加这些活动。
19. 如果我可能会因为某些原因引起大家对我的注意而 1 2 3 4 5 6  
丢面子的话, 我不大可能参加这些活动。  
(我想保持低调, 不招摇)
20. 如果活动场所离家或上班的地方太远的话, 我不大 1 2 3 4 5 6  
可能参加这些活动。
21. 我熟悉的人(例如: 家人, 朋友)因为有太多其他 1 2 3 4 5 6  
的责任和义务而无法和我一起参加这些活动。

#### 第四部分: 应对制约因素的方法

以下是一系列关于“应对制约因素的方法”的观点。例如，当一个人遇到限制他/她参与闲暇（休闲）活动的制约因素时，他/她可能会采取以下方法来应对。请圈出您同意或者不同意这些观点的程度。

很不同意	较不同意	稍不同意	稍微同意	比较同意	非常同意
1	2	3	4	5	6

为了能够参与以上那些闲暇（休闲）活动，

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. 我会忽略那些我遇到的制约因素。                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. 我会更有效地安排我的时间。                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. 我会勤加练习以变得更好。                               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. 我会找那些和我志趣相投的人一起参加。                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. 我会更合理地花钱。                                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. 我会积极治疗我的疾病。                                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 7. 我会将就用着一些现有的东西（例如，衣服，器械）<br>（不过分追求时髦和专业）    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 8. 我会选择忍耐（那些制约因素）。                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 9. 只要有空我就去。                                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 10. 我会去上相关的课程（例如，健身课程）。                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 11. 我会搭别人的便车。                                 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 12. 我会找个工作赚多点钱。                               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 13. 我会通过吃药（例如：哮喘药）来确保身体状况<br>可以应付（的了休闲活动的要求）  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 14. 我会找那些和我水平差不多的人一起参加。                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 15. 我会尽量保持乐观积极心态并尽情享受整个过程。                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 16. 我会提早计划并且明确哪些是需要优先考虑的事。                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 17. 为了掌握特定的技巧，我会多征询别人的意见。<br>（例如：指导员，朋友，家人等）。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 18. 我会邀请朋友们一起来参加。                             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 19. 我会减少参加的频率（以节省相关费用）。                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 20. 我会通过理疗积极治疗我的伤痛。                           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 21. 我会把那个器械（例如：跑步机）买了在家做。                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

## 第五部分: 自我构念

以下是一些关于“个体如何理解个人与他人的关系”的观点，请圈出您同意或者不同意这些观点的程度。

	很不同意 1	较不同意 2	稍不同意 3	稍微同意 4	比较同意 5	非常同意 6
1. 和我在一起的人的健康与幸福对我很重要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 求人不如求己。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 不管做出任何牺牲，家庭成员都应该互相支持。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 个体独立对我很重要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 求胜重于一切（例如：个人的成功）。	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. 我会为朋友或者同事获得奖励而感到自豪。	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. 在任何方面（例如：工作，学习，运动）做的比别人出色对我很重要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. 照顾家庭是我的责任，哪怕有时我必须做出牺牲。	1	2	3	4	5	6

## 第六部分: 背景资料

您目前的婚姻状况为? (请标注最适合您的那一个答案)

单身       已婚/伴侣       其他

您的年家庭总收入为? (请标注最适合您的那一个答案)

¥10,000 以下     ¥10,000 到 ¥25,000     ¥25,000 到 ¥40,000     ¥40,000 以上

您的最高学历为? (请标注最适合您的那一个答案)

小学毕业     高中毕业     大学毕业     研究生

# 感谢您参与这项研究!

## Appendix C (7)



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### Appendix C (7) – Mainland Chinese

Thank you for participating in this study. If you have any further question, a Participant Information Letter is available. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please sign this sheet and we will give you **¥10 RMB (Chinese Yuan)**. *The information provided below will only be used to ensure financial propriety. Because questionnaires are only identifiable by a numerical code, they cannot be linked to the information you give below.*

感谢您的参与。如果您有任何别的问题，一份参与者情况通报函将会提供给您。在您完成了我们的调查问卷后，请在这张纸上签上您的姓名并领取 10 圆人民币报酬。下面的信息将只用于确保研究经费的正确使用。所有已被编码的调查问卷将不会包含以下任何信息。

	Name (Please Print) 名字(请用正楷书写)	Email Address/Phone Number 电子邮件或电话号码	Signature 签名	Date 日期
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				

**Thank you for participating in this study!**

**感谢您的参与!**