

## Lincoln University Digital Thesis

### Copyright Statement

The digital copy of this thesis is protected by the Copyright Act 1994 (New Zealand).

This thesis may be consulted by you, provided you comply with the provisions of the Act and the following conditions of use:

- you will use the copy only for the purposes of research or private study
- you will recognise the author's right to be identified as the author of the thesis and due acknowledgement will be made to the author where appropriate
- you will obtain the author's permission before publishing any material from the thesis.

*Employee Recreation in New Zealand:  
A Pilot Study.*

*A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for the degree of  
Master of Applied Science  
at  
Lincoln University*

*by  
Rosaleen M. Ward*

*Department of Parks, Recreation & Tourism  
Lincoln University  
Canterbury  
1990*

## Abstract

**This study investigates executive and employee attitudes towards employee recreation. A mail survey was conducted among 11 private sector companies in Christchurch. The issues examined include the organisation of recreational opportunities for employees, the perceived personal and company barriers to the development of employee recreation programmes and the perceived benefits from regular participation in employee recreation.**

**Results of this study indicate executives and employees would like more recreational opportunities available at their workplaces. A significant proportion of executives have indicated that the managing director would have the greatest influence in establishing a company programme. Employees however, suggest that managers and employees together would exert an influence in establishing a programme.**

**The personal and company benefits of regular participation in an employee recreation programme are apparent to both executives and employees. The two most important perceived personal benefits from regular participation are "increased personal fitness" and "relief from stress". The company benefits perceived as most likely to occur from regular participation, are "an improvement in communication between staff" and "an increase in individual work performance".**

**Executives and employees consider the factors most restrictive to their participation to be involvement in fitness activities outside work and lack of time to commit to fitness. Executives believe that the range of recreational interests among staff would hinder the development of an employee recreation programme. In contrast, employees believe that the cost of establishing a programme would ultimately affect its development.**

***Key words* Employee recreation, executives, employees, participation in recreation, physical activity, organisation of recreation, barriers to participation, social clubs, workplace.**

## Acknowledgements

Several people have helped me in my research on Employee recreation in New Zealand: A Pilot Study. I wish to thank Mr Rick Mansell, my supervisor, for his guidance and encouragement during my post-graduate study at Lincoln. My appreciation is also extended to Dr Grant Cushman.

I am grateful to Bob Gidlow for his comments on my drafts, June Taylor (interloan librarian), Philippa Masters from the Department of Computing and Biometrics and the Lincoln University Grants Committee and Hillary Commission for funding my research. Many thanks also to others who have contributed to this research.

Thanks also to my family and friends (Miranda, Richard, Alison, Steve, Sarah, Mitch and Lynda) and especially my partner John for his encouragement.

Finally, I would like to thank the managing directors from the 11 Christchurch companies who took part in this study. Without their support, the research could not have been conducted.

# Contents

Abstract.....	ii
Acknowledgements.....	iii
List of Tables.....	ix
List of Figures.....	xi

## 1. CHAPTER ONE : INTRODUCTION

1.1	Employee Recreation Defined.....	2
1.2	Rising Interest in Health and Wellbeing.....	3
1.3	Interest in Employee Recreation.....	4
1.4	Objectives.....	5

## 2. CHAPTER TWO : LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1	Introduction.....	8
2.2	Section 1: Historical Perspective-North America.....	10
2.2.1	Introduction.....	10
2.2.2	The Industrial Revolution.....	10
2.2.3	Changing Social Forces.....	11
2.2.4	Decrease in Work Hours.....	12
2.2.5	Social Engineering.....	12
2.2.6	The Human Relations Movement.....	14
2.2.7	Executive Health.....	16
2.2.8	Union Involvement.....	16
2.2.9	Increasing Health-care Costs.....	16
2.2.10	The Wellness Movement.....	17
2.2.11	Wellness in the 1980's.....	18
2.3	Europe.....	19
2.4	Japan.....	20
2.5	New Zealand.....	21
2.5.1	Introduction.....	21
2.5.2	Historical Account.....	22
2.5.3	Executive Fitness in New Zealand.....	23
2.5.4	Recreation and the Workplace.....	24
2.5.5	Recent Employee Recreation Research.....	25
2.5.6	The Cost of Doing Nothing.....	27
2.5.7	Life in New Zealand.....	27
2.5.8	General.....	28

2.6	Section 2(a) : The Benefits of Employee Recreation.....	29
2.6.1	Introduction.....	29
2.6.2	Company Benefits.....	29
2.6.3	Work Performance.....	30
2.6.4	Absenteeism From Work .....	31
2.6.5	Injury.....	35
2.6.6	Employee Relations and Morale.....	35
	2.6.6.1 Theoretical Perspective.....	36
2.6.7	Recruitment / Retention.....	37
2.6.8	Staff Turnover.....	38
2.6.9	Insurance Claims.....	39
2.6.10	Limitations of Benefit Studies.....	40
2.7	The Personal Benefits of Employee Recreation.....	40
2.7.1	Inactivity.....	41
2.7.2	Coronary Heart Disease (CHD).....	41
2.7.3	Stress.....	42
2.7.4	Attitude and Behaviour.....	43
2.8	Section 2(b) : Barriers to Participation in Employee Recreation.....	43
2.8.1	Company Barriers.....	43
	2.8.1.1 Theoretical Perspective.....	44
2.8.2	Personal Barriers.....	45
2.8.3	Comparative Variables in Employee Recreation Research.....	47
2.8.4	Limitations in the Research.....	48

### **3. CHAPTER THREE : METHODOLOGY**

3.1	Introduction.....	50
3.1.1	Limitation.....	50
3.2	Research Design.....	50
3.3	Preliminary Stage.....	50
3.4	Hypotheses.....	52
3.5	Questionnaire Development Stage.....	53
3.6	The Advantages and Disadvantages of the Mail Questionnaire.....	55
3.6.1	Advantages.....	55
3.6.2	Disadvantages.....	56
3.7	Description of Sample Population.....	56
3.8	Sampling Procedure.....	57
3.9	Data Analysis.....	60

3.10	The Likert Scale.....	60
3.11	Reliability.....	61
3.12	Validity.....	63
3.12.1	External Validity.....	63
3.12.2	Internal Validity.....	64
3.12.3	Sources of Invalidity and Techniques Used to Minimise Them.....	64

#### **4. CHAPTER FOUR : RESULTS**

4.1	Response Rate.....	67
4.2	Respondent Characteristics - Age and Gender.....	68
4.3	Organising Recreational Opportunities for Employees.....	69
4.3.1	Current Participation in Physical Activity.....	70
4.3.2	Availability of Recreation Opportunities.....	72
4.3.3	Who Should Organise Recreation?.....	74
4.3.4	Who Has the Greatest Influence to Establish an Employee Recreation Programme.....	78
4.3.5	Perceived Participation in an Employee Recreation Programme.....	80
4.3.6	Perceived X Current Participation.....	81
4.3.6.1	Executive Participation.....	81
4.3.6.2	Employee Participation.....	82
4.3.7	Interest in Information on Establishing a Programme.....	82
4.4	Barriers to the Development of Employee Recreation.....	84
4.4.1	Personal Barriers.....	84
4.4.1.1	Executive and Employee Personal Barriers.....	87
4.4.1.2	Female and Male Personal Barriers.....	87
4.4.2	Company Barriers.....	88
4.5	The Personal Benefits of Employee Recreation.....	93
4.5.1	Agreement with the Personal Benefits of Employee Recreation.....	93
4.5.1.1	Executives.....	96
4.5.1.2	Employees.....	96
4.5.1.3	Female Employees.....	100
4.5.1.4	Male Employees.....	100
4.5.2	Most Important Personal Benefits.....	101
4.5.3	Interest in Information on Personal Benefits.....	106
4.5.4	Open Comment.....	108

4.6	Company Benefits of Employee Recreation.....	109
4.6.1	Agreement with the Company Benefits.....	109
	4.6.1.1 Executives.....	112
	4.6.1.2 Employees.....	112
	4.6.1.3 Female Employees.....	116
	4.6.1.4 Male Employees.....	116
4.6.2	Most Important Company Benefits.....	117
	4.6.2.1 Executives and Employees.....	120
	4.6.2.2 Female and Male Employees.....	123
4.6.3	Interest in Obtaining Information on the Company Benefits of Employee Recreation.....	123
4.7	General.....	125
4.7.1	Is Employee Recreation a Perk?.....	125
4.7.2	Will Employee Recreation be a Fad?.....	127
4.7.3	Respondent Comments.....	128
	4.7.3.1 Executives.....	128
	4.7.3.2 Employees.....	129

## **5. CHAPTER FIVE : SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

5.1	Introduction.....	133
5.2	Summary.....	133
5.2.1	Organisation of Recreational Opportunities for Employees.....	133
5.2.2	Personal Barriers to Participation in Employee Recreation.....	134
5.2.3	Company Barriers to the Development of Employee Recreation.....	134
5.2.4	Personal Benefits from Regular Participation in Employee Recreation.....	135
5.2.5	Company Benefits from Regular Participation in Employee Recreation.....	135
5.3	Implications of the Research.....	136
5.3.1	Organising.....	136
5.3.2	Marketing.....	137
5.3.3	Planning.....	138
5.4	Limitations in this Study.....	139
5.4.1	Sample Size.....	139
5.4.2	Benefit Scales.....	139
5.5	Delimitation.....	140
5.5.1	Active Recreation vs. Passive.....	140
5.6	Recommendations Arising from the Research.....	140
5.6.1	Practical Recommendations.....	140
5.6.2	Research Recommendations.....	142
5.7	Concluding Comment.....	145



BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	146
-------------------	-----

## APPENDICES

Appendix 1	Definition of Terms.....	159
Appendix 2	Letter to Managing Directors of Companies.....	162
Appendix 3	Pre - Survey Letter to Respondents.....	163
Appendix 4	Survey Questionnaire.....	164
Appendix 5	Follow-up Letter.....	171
Appendix 6	Summary of Hypotheses Tested.....	172

## List of Tables

<b><u>Table</u></b>	<b><u>Page</u></b>
4.1 Questionnaire response rates.....	67
4.2 Analysis of executives by age.....	68
4.3 Analysis of employees by age.....	68
4.4 Analysis of samples by gender.....	69
4.5 Executive and employee participation in regular physical activity.....	70
4.6 Female and male employee participation in regular physical activity.....	71
4.7 Executive and employee interest in having more recreation opportunities available at the workplace.....	72
4.8 Female and male employee interest in having more recreation opportunities available at the workplace.....	73
4.9 Employee age group interest in having more recreation opportunities available at the workplace.....	74
4.10 Executive and employee perceptions of who should predominantly organise recreation opportunities for employees.....	75
4.11 Female and male employee perceptions of who should predominantly organise recreation opportunities for employees.....	76
4.12 Employee age group perceptions of who should predominantly organise recreation opportunities for employees.....	77
4.13 Executive and employee perceptions of who would have the greatest influence to establish an employee recreation programme.....	78
4.14 Female and male employee perceptions of who would have the greatest influence to establish an employee recreation programme.....	79
4.15 Executive and employee perceived participation in an employee recreation programme.....	80
4.16 Female and male employee perceived participation in an employee recreation programme.....	81
4.17 Executive and employee interest in obtaining information on how to establish an employee recreation programme.....	83
4.18 Female and male employee interest in obtaining information on how to establish an employee recreation programme.....	83

4.19	Executive and employee perceptions of the personal barrier which would "most" restrict participation in an employee recreation programme.....	84
4.20	Female and male employee perceptions of the personal barrier which would "most" restrict participation in an employee recreation programme.....	85
4.21	Executive and employee perceptions of the company factor which would "most" hinder the development of an employee recreation programme.....	89
4.22	Executive and employee perceptions of the company factor which would "second most" hinder the development of an employee recreation programme.....	90
4.23	Female and male employee perceptions of the company factor which would "most" hinder the development of an employee recreation programme.....	91
4.24	Female and male employee perceptions of the company factor that would "second most" hinder the development of an employee recreation programme.....	92
4.25	Level of executive agreement with the personal benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.....	94
4.26	Level of employee agreement with the personal benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.....	95
4.27	Level of female employee agreement with the personal benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.....	98
4.28	Level of male employee agreement with the personal benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.....	99
4.29	Executive and employee perceptions of the "most" important personal benefit from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.....	101
4.30	Executive and employee perceptions of the "second most" important personal benefit from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.....	103
4.31	Female and male employee perceptions of the "most" important personal benefit from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.....	104
4.32	Female and male employee perceptions of the "second most" important personal benefit from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.....	105
4.33	Executive and employee interest in obtaining information on the personal benefits of employee recreation.....	107
4.34	Female and male employee interest in obtaining information on the personal benefits of employee recreation.....	108
4.35	Level of executive agreement with the company benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.....	110

4.36	Level of employee agreement with the company benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.....	111
4.37	Level of female employee agreement with the company benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.....	114
4.38	Level of male employee agreement with the company benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.....	115
4.39	Executive and employee perceptions of the company benefit which is "most" likely to occur from regular employee participation in an employee recreation programme.....	118
4.40	Executive and employee perceptions of the company benefit which is "second most" likely to occur from regular employee participation in an employee recreation programme.....	119
4.41	Female and male employee perceptions of the company benefit which is "most" likely to occur from regular employee participation in an employee recreation programme.....	121
4.42	Female and male employee perceptions of the company benefit which is "second most" likely to occur from regular employee participation in an employee recreation programme.....	122
4.43	Executive and employee interest in obtaining further information on the company benefits of employee recreation.....	124
4.44	Female and male employee interest in obtaining further information on the company benefits of employee recreation.....	125
4.45	Executive and employee opinions on whether employee recreation would be a perk for employees.....	126
4.46	Female and male employee opinions on whether employee recreation would be a perk for employees.....	126
4.47	Executive and employee opinions on whether employee recreation will be a fad.....	127
4.48	Female and male employee opinions on whether employee recreation will be a fad.....	128

## List of Figures

Figure 1	Proposed Research Design for an Employee Recreation Experiment.....	127
----------	---------------------------------------------------------------------	-----

# Chapter One

## Introduction

# Chapter One

## Introduction

This thesis examines the views of executives and employees towards various components of employee recreation.

Research on employee recreation in New Zealand is virtually non-existent. A study on the extent of recreation provision in New Zealand workplaces was conducted in the late 1970's (Tait, 1984). The researcher concluded that recreation provision within New Zealand companies tended to be basic and that few companies encouraged participation in work-based recreation. More recently, the concept of executive fitness has developed in New Zealand. This suggests that some New Zealand managers are recognising the relationship between health and regular physical activity.

There have been no empirical studies on the attitudes of New Zealand executives and employees toward employee recreation. The issue of company responsibility in organising recreational activities for employees has not been addressed. Furthermore, attitudes toward the potential personal and company benefits are unknown, as are perceptions of the personal and company barriers to employee recreation. Lack of information on executive and employee views is perceived to be a problem if employee recreation continues to develop in the future (e.g., for organising, planning and marketing employee recreation). With these considerations in mind, it was decided that a study of executive and employee attitudes towards a number of issues relating to employee recreation was warranted.

### 1.1 Employee Recreation Defined

Employee recreation has been defined as:

"...recreation activities which are available to an employee or groups of employees because they are members of the establishment. These may occur during and/or outside working hours and may take place within and/or outside the establishment's premises" (Tait, 1984, p. 1).

Aside from Tait's definition, only one other was found in an extensive search of the literature. Wilson (*et al.*, 1979) define employee [industrial] recreation as:

"...recreation plus other activities and services for employees, related to their place of employment. It may be provided and financed entirely by the employer, entirely by the employees, or as a cooperative venture by both" (Wilson *et al.*, 1979, p. 7).

The above two definitions do not mention the aspect of voluntary participation. For the present study, employee recreation is defined as: Social, mental or physical leisure activity (for the purpose of this study, active rather than passive) or experience, provided, subsidised or organised by the company or a formal employee group, for either all employees or a selected segment of employees. This may occur during and/or outside work hours, either within or away from the workplace. Participation is voluntary and activities must not be detrimental to one's health.

## **1.2 Rising Interest in Health and Wellbeing**

In recent years, concern has arisen among New Zealand health and recreation professionals about the low level of physical activity among the New Zealand adult population. The nation's medical expenditure for health problems associated with physical inactivity is high. It is believed that many health problems could be lessened or prevented if individuals took part in physical activity more frequently than they do at present (Russell *et al.*, 1987).

In the future, New Zealanders are likely to be paying more for healthcare as the government moves towards the implementation of "user pays" principles. It is therefore in the best interests of the New Zealand population to stay healthy. If no preventative action is taken, one long term consequence will be continuing high levels of government expenditure on health problems related to physical inactivity.

The workplace, where the majority of New Zealand adults spend approximately one quarter of their time, is seen as an ideal place to promote recreational opportunities which emphasise the development and maintenance of personal fitness. A report to the Hillary Commission for Recreation and Sport on the state of the nation's health (Russell *et al.*, 1987) suggested that employees are a captive audience and that New Zealand employers have the opportunity to increase awareness of the benefits which fitness can bring to health and well being.

Employee recreation can have many benefits for employees and companies, which flow on to families, communities and society. The possible employee benefits include increased personal fitness, relief from stress and reduced long term risk of heart disease. The company benefits include improved morale and communication among staff, a decrease in absenteeism and injury and an increase in work performance (Wilson, *et al.*, 1979). If these benefits are real, they could lead to monetary savings for companies in the longer term.

### **1.3 Interest in Employee Recreation**

My initial interest in employee recreation arose when I spent a year in Canada (1985). Several companies in the city I lived in offered recreational facilities which were available to employees and their families. I wondered why New Zealand companies did not have such facilities.

After starting my post-graduate study in Parks, Recreation and Tourism, I had the opportunity to conduct this research. My interest in employee recreation was further stimulated by John Bonniface from Christchurch Polytechnic, who has worked as a physical education instructor for employee recreation programmes in the United States and in Japan. My research question looks for some reasons which might explain why employee recreation has not developed in New Zealand to the extent that it has in other western nations. I was also interested in the perceived benefits from participation in an employee recreation programme.

In the preliminary stage of this research, personal interviews were conducted with personnel managers from 15 Christchurch companies. Questions regarding the organisation of recreation in the workplace, the possible benefits from employee recreation and barriers to the development of employee recreation were posed. Managers were also asked whether they thought staff would participate in an employee recreation programme if one was offered. From these interviews and a search of the relevant literature, the following objectives were formed.



## 1.4 Objectives

1. To provide a brief commentary on the history and development of employee recreation.
2. To elicit information on who should predominantly organise recreational opportunities for staff.
3. To determine the level of agreement among executives and employees about the personal benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.
4. To discover what the "most" important personal benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme are perceived to be.
5. To determine the level of agreement among executives and employees about the company benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.
6. To determine which company benefits are most likely to occur from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.
7. To determine the main personal barrier that would restrict participation in an employee recreation programme.
8. To determine the company barriers that are of "most" hindrance to the development of an employee recreation programme.
9. To consider whether more recreation opportunities in the workplace are desired.
10. To determine the perceived participation in an employee recreation programme aimed at development and maintenance of personal fitness.
11. To establish whether respondents would be interested in obtaining further information on:
  - i. company benefits of an employee recreation programme,
  - ii. personal benefits of an employee recreation programme and
  - iii. establishing an employee recreation programme.

Chapter 2 provides a brief review of the history and development of employee recreation, focusing on the United States. Research on personal and company benefits from employee recreation is then reviewed. Also, literature on personal and company barriers to the development of employee recreation is presented.

The method of enquiry used in this study is described in Chapter 3. Executive and employee attitudes towards various components of employee recreation were obtained by way of a questionnaire. Results are presented in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 summarises the findings and presents options for future New Zealand research in the area of employee recreation.

# Chapter Two

## Literature Review

# Chapter Two

## Literature Review

This chapter consists of two sections.

1. The first section reviews the rise of capitalist-industrial society with reference to the history of employee recreation. Discussion centres on developments in the United States and Canada. Developments in Japan, Europe and New Zealand are also briefly outlined.
2. Section two reviews the company and personal benefits of employee recreation. Factors which restrict individual participation in programmes are reviewed, as are the company hindrances to the development of employee recreation.

### 2.1 Introduction

During the last hundred years, technological changes have altered the type of work people perform. Earlier this century, New Zealand workers were predominantly employed in agriculture, timber production, labouring and building (Government of New Zealand, 1919). From a total New Zealand workforce of 8867 in 1919, 81.3% were blue-collar, working predominantly in labouring jobs in primary industry, and 18.7% were white-collar (desk workers).

By the 1970's, New Zealand was moving towards a white-collar society; with 41% of occupations white collar in 1971, 38% in manual labour and 12% in farming (Department of Statistics, 1988). In the trend away from farming towards white-collar occupations, New Zealand showed signs of becoming a post-industrial society, characterised by the pre-eminence of a professional and technical class and a service economy. Dunstall (1981) suggests that the movement to white-collar employment reflected increased female participation in the work-force, the proportion rising from a quarter of all women over 15 years of age in 1951 to a third in 1971. In 1971, two-thirds of the female labour force in New Zealand had white-collar jobs while only a third of the male workers, whose jobs were likely to determine family status, were white-collar (Dunstall, 1981).

By 1976, blue-collar workers totalled nearly 47% of the male workforce in New Zealand. The industrial labour force was still dispersed and worked mainly in small units of production. By 1986 (the most recent census), the blue-collar work force was estimated at 39.2% and white-collar at 60.3% (Department of Statistics, 1988). The remainder, 0.5%, did not specify occupation in the 1986 census. This increase in the proportion of white-collar workers in New Zealand indicates work has become more sedentary over time.

Millions of employees around the world perform their jobs while sitting at a desk for long hours. Literature (Villeneuve, 1983; Roberts, 1897) confirms that this, in time, can lead to health problems such as back ailments, high blood pressure, stress and weight problems. These ailments not only have personal consequences, but poor employee health also has an economic cost for employers. Work performance suffers, which affects overall productivity.

Many New Zealand organisations have realised that in business and industry, employee health means dollars. Work-based accident statistics reveal that for the 1989 financial year, 115 fatalities (104 male and 11 female) occurred in New Zealand workplaces (Accident Compensation Corporation, 1990). There were 58,076 work related injuries registered with the Accident Compensation Corporation, including injuries from Professional/Technical, Administration/Managerial and Clerical occupations. The highest frequency of all claims made were for sprains or strains (48%). Accidents, disability and sick days always involve some readjustment to work schedules which may affect the entire organisation, not to mention the cost of rehabilitation for injured employees.

There is now greater awareness of the need to prevent the deterioration of employee health to minimise the costs of production and maximise profit and efficiency. The workplace is seen as an ideal institution to serve as a catalyst to change health-related habits. Many employers realise that there is a relationship between employee lifestyles and achieving company objectives. The potential benefits of having healthy employees has led to a trend towards wellness and health-care. Many overseas companies have introduced employee recreation programmes and health-care programmes which are available to staff and often family and company retirees. Programmes are usually promoted on the basis of expected benefits for the company and the employee (Rosen, 1984). Some programmes emphasise fitness (e.g., sport) while others include more passive leisure activities.

## **2.2 Section 1: Historical Perspective - North America**

### **2.2.1 Introduction**

Traditionally recreation was regarded as a process which renewed and recreated the individual for work. Kraus, suggests that:

"Recreation is widely regarded as activity including physical, mental, social or emotional involvement in contrast to sheer idleness or complete rest" (Edginton *et al.*, 1980, p. 9).

The history of work-based recreation dates back to before the industrial revolution. Work was where most of one's time was spent and workers had little spare time to develop leisure interests. Max Weber summarised the capitalist attitude to time off work as "a means where the supply of human fodder that fed the capitalist system could be maintained in working order" (Roberts, 1974, p. 188). Today it is questionable whether work is still the dominant element that determines ones lifestyle.

"As the working population has won freedom from long hours of work, and as rising standards of living have made it possible for people to use their free time in a variety of ways in accordance with their own personal interests, it may well be that the influence of how people use their leisure has declined..." (Murphy, 1974, p. 188).

### **2.2.2 The Industrial Revolution**

The industrial revolution began in the United States in the first half of the nineteenth century, approximately 50 years after it began in Britain. It was characterised by the introduction of new technology and use of machinery. Mass production was centered in a few places rather than sparsely spread out. Centralisation of production reduced capital costs and improved managerial supervision of labour. The impact of protestantism led to a work ethic which continues to this day.

In the nineteenth century, factory labourers commonly worked twelve hours a day, six days a week (72 hours), throughout the year. Individuals would band together in an effort to improve their work conditions, usually to no avail. Employers only considered concerns when the viability of the business was seriously threatened.

Unions had been preoccupied with economic and material concerns (e.g., wages) and regarded safety issues as less important. Occupational health was seen primarily as the

responsibility of the individual employee. Given the attitude of employers and unions towards occupational health and safety, governments saw fit to enact minimum legislation. This legislation proved ineffective as there was a lack of formal provision for worker education on the dangers in the industrial environment (Benson, 1981).

Unions and employers eventually became more aware of the health, safety and welfare of factory workers. The union's concern arose from worker exploitation (leading to both permanent and temporary sickness and injury). When managers were approached on the basis of potential financial rewards, the situation slowly began to change (e.g., when workers were absent from sickness or injury, the company productivity would decline). Initially concerns focussed on poor working conditions, long work hours and the inability to obtain healthy recreation. Managers realised that employees who were more content, became more efficient and effective in their jobs. This, along with other social forces, facilitated the development of industrial recreation. It is probable that some companies got involved in recreation provision for employees because it had the role of promoting co-operation and harmony which deflected attention from industrial disagreements.

### **2.2.3 Changing Social Forces**

The development of industrial recreation came about in response to several changing social forces of the industrial revolution including the transition of people from rural to urban centres. By the 1840's and 1850's, many American and British towns had a single company which employed all available residents. Some companies provided recreational facilities to which the whole town had access. For example, in 1854, the Peacedale Manufacturing Company in Rhode Island, New York opened a community library. Educational and musical activities were offered to the children of employees (Murphy, 1984). Most social activity however, focussed around schools and churches.

From the mid 1800's, the number of employee programmes available increased, especially in the larger companies. Murphy (1984) suggests that employees participated in sports games (e.g., baseball) against other companies as early as 1866. Other writers (e.g., Nudel, 1984) indicate that company sponsored recreation for employees began in the 1880's with a company picnic for employees of Johnson Wax. Nudel (1984) indicates that by 1889 the Johnson Wax Company had men's and women's sports teams in golf, baseball, softball, and basketball.

In 1889, one Chicago company, The Pullman Company, started an athletic association (Kondrasuk, 1985). From then on other employee associations began to emerge with the aim of providing leisure experiences for employees. For example, in 1896, the Ludlow Manufacturing Association established the Ludlow Athletic and Recreation Association as a corporation under Massachusetts statutes. Some companies, such as the National Cash Register Company in Dayton Ohio, built clubhouses and auditoriums for employees (Kraus, 1977). The first recorded employee sports trips as annual events were sponsored in the late 1800's.

#### **2.2.4 Decrease in Work Hours**

By the beginning of the twentieth century, the average work day in the United States had been shortened to 10 hours. Men, women and children were engaged in full time production. In this era of industrial development, there were numerous problems between management and labour which often resulted in strikes (Kraus, 1971). Efforts were made to promote management and labour relations and this was termed 'industrial engineering' by an historian, Dr William Tolman. Two other terms commonly used in this period were 'industrial betterment' and 'welfare work'.

#### **2.2.5 Social Engineering**

In 1909, a book entitled *Social Engineering* was written by Dr Tolman who called himself a social engineer. He described his profession as one "who can tell the employer how he may establish a desired point of contact between himself, his immediate staff, and the rank and file of his industrial army" (Wilson *et al.*, 1979, p. 200). Tolman wrote of improving the efficiency of the worker and the plant. Industrial welfare workers (social engineers) aimed to improve working conditions and the quality of life for labourers. The introduction of recreation programmes was considered to be one way of improving the quality of life for employees.

In the east and mid-western United States, industrial trade centres were booming and railroads linked every large city from the Atlantic to the Pacific. New companies were being established which continued to draw people from the country to work. Towns grew around industries to house, feed and clothe the workers. These towns were labelled mining towns, steel, textile, manufacturing and/or lumber towns. Literature suggests that companies began to provide industrial recreation programmes to promote employee loyalty, fellowship,



morale and personal development. Kraus (1977) suggests the emphasis was on sport and sports games (baseball, football, soccer and bocciball). Games were played on Sundays between, for example, a company of one town and another town. The teams and many of the athletes were financed by the company. Two of the early company sports teams later became the Chicago Bears and the Green Bay Packers.

Kraus (1971) proposes that the main aims of employee programmes were to create a favourable employer-employee relationship and to instill a greater sense of loyalty among workers. Anderson (1951) suggests that there was less emphasis on educational programmes in the early 1900's and that employee programmes were oriented more towards active recreation. The first company recreation centre was opened in 1912 by the Carnegie Steel Corporation in Pennsylvania (Anderson, 1951).

During World War I, many companies tended to place less emphasis on industrial recreation because the nation was engaged in an all out productive effort to meet the demands of war. Company managers became concerned about productivity and how they might make employees more productive. Time for recreation was perhaps considered to be lost production time. This may have been the case for some industries, but Kraus (1977) acknowledges that in boom war industries, "industrial recreation programmes expanded rapidly as a means of attracting and holding employees" (Kraus, 1977, p. 263).

After the war, industrial recreation associations were established in many cities including Milwaukee and San Fransisco. One of the first was the Industrial Recreation Federation in New Haven Connecticut in 1919 (Kraus, 1977). This organisation planned, promoted and administered a variety of industrial recreation programmes.

Directly after World War I, the variety of recreation programmes offered declined. This decline however, did not last long. Anderson (1951) suggests that employees were willing to spend and invest in recreation and it became an important part of a company employee relations programme. In 1926, the United States Bureau of Statistics estimated that 430 companies throughout the United States were providing recreational programmes for their employees.

## 2.2.6 The Human Relations Movement

During the depression of the late 1920's and early 1930's, many companies again had to cut back the number of programmes offered (Wilson *et al.*, 1979).

"Lack of funds forced many people to participate in less expensive types of community recreation activities" (Anderson, 1951, p. 274).

According to Howard and Crompton's review of management thought (Howard and Crompton, 1980), it was not until the human relations movement, which emerged about 1930, that there was more widespread awareness among employers of the importance of the human element to the organisation. Company managers began to realise that workers were not motivated by economic rewards alone. This was one factor which led to more company sponsored recreation programmes. For example, in 1935, a committee of Lockheed Space and Missile Company employees was established to draw up a constitution for co-ordinating various small group activities within the company. The project was encouraged by one vice president, and the first meeting of the Lockheed Employee Recreation Club was held in July, 1935. The company sponsored many clubs, events and tournaments (and still does today).

During World War II, the productive effort again focussed on meeting war-time demands (e.g., for war related equipment and consumer goods). With the tremendous growth of war plants, participation in industrial recreation increased. Anderson (1951) suggests that recreation programmes expanded to achieve maximum worker efficiency. This shows a definite contrast in managerial thought between World War I and World War II, in terms of the perceived effect that participation in employee recreation might have on production. A study conducted by Haniford (1947) found that the greatest increase in the number of companies with industrial recreation programmes occurred between 1936-1945.

During the 1940's, most programmes were funded by employee contributions and profits from vending machines. Leonard (1979) suggests that the employee selected to administer the industrial recreation programme was usually an expert at sport. The most popular programmes for blue-collar workers were bowling, baseball, camera and curling clubs (Murphy, 1984).

At this time, there was little supportive research being conducted on the benefits of employee recreation. There was, however, one study undertaken in Indiana in 1945 which

aimed to establish whether there was a relationship between recreation participation and industrial efficiency. A questionnaire was developed to collect information on leisure time activities of 72 male employees. Subjects were employed in seven major production divisions of the organisation. The subject selection method for the research was questionable because each of the seven superintendents of the company's major production divisions were asked to select the five best and five poorest employees. The selections by superintendents were made "solely on the basis of the employee's value to his particular job" (Creed, 1946, p. 195). They were told to consider only the employee's work. This would have been a value judgement and could have been affected by superintendent preference for an individual employee. Also, superintendents may have taken the criteria for selection to be quality of work and/or quantity of output and/or relationships with other workers. Although the method of inquiry in this early research is questionable, the researchers concluded that 'better' employees were involved more frequently in recreational activity.

In the 1950's, managers focussed on the importance of teamwork within the organisation. Managers began to look for a method to develop stronger interpersonal relationships between employees. Murphy (1984) suggests that industrial recreation programmes received support due to the contribution they made to worker relationships and in identifying leaders for promotion within the company. In 1953, the *Wall Street Journal* estimated that expenditure on industrial recreation by business and industry was \$800 million (\$U.S.) a year (Kraus, 1971).

Companies sponsored women's, men's and mixed teams for sporting competition. As travel became more accessible, employee teams could move greater distances in faster time to participate in sporting competitions against other companies. The National Industrial Recreation Association (N.I.R.A.) conducted a study on company recreation provision in 1957 which revealed that team sports such as softball and basketball were the most popular activities among employees.

Professional development for recreation leaders began in the early 1960's with certification from N.I.R.A. being introduced in 1962. Managers began to recognise that fulfilling employee needs was related to motivation, job satisfaction and loyalty to the organisation. Industrial recreation was viewed as one way of addressing these needs. By 1963, statistics compiled by the Philadelphia District Federal Reserve Bank estimated that over \$1 billion

(\$U.S.) a year was spent by business and industry on industrial recreation programmes. By 1965, expenditure was estimated at \$1.5 billion (\$U.S.) (Kraus, 1971).

### **2.2.7 Executive Health**

In the mid 1960's, many North American companies showed concerns for executive health and some provided executives with fitness tests and medical examinations. Occasionally, executives were encouraged to join health clubs or Y.M.C.A.'s at the company's expense (Yuhasz, 1979). In the late 1960's, the company gym, if it existed, was exclusively an executive perk.

### **2.2.8 Union Involvement**

In the late 1960's, some North American unions had expanded their sphere of interest to encourage employee involvement in recreational programmes. Some unions recognised that leisure time was becoming more abundant.

"Leisure is an attitude which permits us to get the most out of the free time we have, not only by doing things we always wanted to, but by discovering a lot of things we had never heard of or thought of before" (Arviko, 1978, p. 21).

Some non-union companies attribute the success of employee programmes to the absence of unions. In contrast, many unions and marxists suggested that recreation programmes represented (and still represent) an exploitive technique, used by management to:

- i. avoid paying appropriate wages to employees, and/or
- ii. to indirectly increase their productivity and/or
- iii. promote favourable employer/ employee relationships, and reduce the chances of industrial action.

### **2.2.9 Increasing Health-care Costs**

In the early 1970's, health professionals in North America pointed to a future health crisis. Medical costs increased rapidly (Leonard, 1979) and because companies had medical insurance plans for their employees, the increased medical costs also meant an increase in costs for companies. In 1972, the President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports and the American business community held the first national conference on fitness in business (Murphy, 1984).

Managers realised that to minimise health problems they could facilitate health awareness among employees. More managers began to take notice of a self-help preventative approach to health-care rather than the traditional curative approach. The new approach to health emphasised individual awareness of the detrimental effects to health from various lifestyle habits (e.g., smoking and alcohol abuse). Significantly, exercise and fitness were identified as key elements of the prevention effort. Programmes were established to improve employee health and therefore company productivity.

### **2.2.10 The Wellness Movement**

Promotion of health issues in the workplace is described by Sloan (1987) as a combination of education, organisation and environmental activities designed to support behaviour conducive to the health of employees and their families. Recreation became one of the important segments within the wellness movement.

The wellness movement emphasised that regular aerobic exercise was important to develop and maintain healthy individuals. By the late 1970's, many North American companies had jogging tracks and recreation centres. Professional recreation administrators were being employed to manage employee programmes and facilities as opposed to a staff member being delegated the job.

In 1970, the Bell Canada company sponsored one of the first Canadian physical fitness programmes. It was available to all interested male employees and was conducted as a pilot project in London, Ontario (Yuhasz, 1979). The fitness programme was 13 weeks in duration and took place after work. Yuhasz (1979) reported that the physical fitness of participants improved and that there were positive changes in the attitudes of participants towards exercise.

In 1975, the John Labatts Brewery sponsored an extensive physical fitness programme in its Toronto, Halifax and Edmonton breweries. This was the first Canadian company to initiate a physical fitness programme on a national scale. The programme was available to both female and male employees at all levels within the company hierarchy. The aim of the programme was to motivate employees to increase their own fitness levels and to "present the value and importance of physical fitness" (Yuhasz, 1979, p. 72).

In the 1970's, the number of North American companies offering fitness programmes increased at a rate of four times that of the previous decade. It was a period of rapid growth in the range and availability of recreational opportunities both at work and away from work. Participants in company sports were not necessarily company employees. Often families, friends and people from the local community were (and still are) involved in the activities of the company sports clubs.

The corporate fitness trend which emerged in the 1960's continued to develop in the late 1970's. Some companies offered executive programmes on the company premises. Others would pay a membership subscription for executives to belong to clubs and gyms. In the 1980's, there was an emphasis on executive health associated with cardio-vascular disease, cancer, smoking, alcohol abuse and cerebro vascular disease. While family history, occupational and environmental hazards may be beyond one's control, nutrition, weight, blood pressure, cholesterol levels, stress and smoking can be controlled. Control over these factors has been shown to influence mortality associated with these diseases.

### **2.2.11 Wellness in the 1980's**

Throughout North America, there was a continuing focus on the concept of wellness and health-care. Only recently has objective research on selected aspects of "wellness" been undertaken. In the last few years, Health Promotion Programmes (HPP) and Employee Assistance Programmes (EAP) have been prominent in the wellness movement (Roman and Blum, 1988). Conrad (1987 (a)) offers a definition of HPPs as including one or more of three components: "health education, screening and/ or intervention designed to change employee behaviour in order to achieve better health" (Conrad 1987 (a), p. 255). HPPs include stress management programmes, smoking cessation, alcohol and drug education, nutrition education and leisure education.

It wasn't until the 1980's that "industrial recreation" became known as "employee recreation". From a review of the North American literature, it appears that the term "industrial recreation" applied until the early 1980's. This term has become obsolete as the United States has moved from a manufacturing based economy to a service economy. Equal or greater emphasis is now placed on various kinds of employee services and clubs, offering both physical and non-physical activities. Research suggests that employers and employees

can maximise the personal and company benefits by participating regularly in fitness-related activities.

One important group which supported the development of recreation for employees was the Recreation Association of American Industry. The association has undergone two name changes since it was first established in 1939. In 1949, it merged with a western states industrial recreation association and became the National Industrial Recreation Association (N.I.R.A.) (Ellis and Richardson, 1989). N.I.R.A. was a national non-profit association organised by industry to assist in the development and co-ordination of employee recreation programmes (Kraus, 1966).

By 1982, N.I.R.A. recognised that physical recreation was only a part of the progressive company's recreation programmes. Employee services and benefits served the company equally well. Recently (late 1980's), N.I.R.A. was renamed as the National Employees Services and Recreation Association (N.E.S.R.A.). The new name reflects the trend of less emphasis on recreation and more on wellness from a health perspective. By 1984, 3000 companies throughout the United States, Canada and Mexico belonged to the National Employee Services and Recreation Association. The development of employee recreation in Europe and Japan has also had the support of various associations and agencies.

## **2.3 Europe**

An early sporting-industrial body was formed in Sweden in 1945, with the objective of implementing activity programmes in factories offices, administrative centres and government departments (Willee, 1974). Swedish unions and companies have supported the National Board of Health and Welfare in a campaign for improving health on a nationwide scale. Diet and exercise programmes as well as educational programmes have been established for employees (Willee, 1974). In both Sweden and Norway, exercise breaks twice each day in working time are commonly practiced by many companies with full support of employers and trade unions.

In order to co-ordinate all European countries involved in company sport, the Charta of the European for Company Sport was established in 1976. Twelve countries signed the Charta as full members. The federation arranges conferences, lectures and international sports festivals for employees (Leiske, 1980).

Many companies in Germany have developed recreation departments with comprehensive cultural and sporting programmes and facilities. The German Trade Union Federation is also interested in assisting members to improve and increase their leisure interests (Leiske, 1980). The co-determination system in Germany is different to that of other nations. German unions do not have the same suspicions of worker exploitation as unions in the United States and Britain.

In Germany, many organisations provide sports training as part of an apprenticeship. For example, apprentices with German Post undertook 2 hours per week to train in a variety of sports and physical exercises (Leiske, 1980).

## 2.4 Japan

The post-World War II economic growth increased the proportion of both white and blue-collar workers in Japan. Modern workers commute to the workplace where they own none of the means of production, a complete contrast to the pre-war years when a high percentage of the labour force owned resources for production.

Before World War II, unions existed in Japan but they had little significance. After the Trade Union Law of 1946, there was a rapid growth of membership in trade unions. Most unions in Japan are organised on an enterprise basis, and integrate white and blue-collar workers which is unique to the Japanese (Tadashi, 1982). The unions "echo the so-called enterprise family policies of the management and help to create a situation in which workers can quite happily exhibit a dual loyalty to both firm and union without any sense of contradiction" (Tadashi, 1982, p. 113). In spite of the structural changes in the nature of work (e.g., development in technology), the familistic social structure of the pre-war period still exists in Japanese society.

The social context of work in Japan is such that workers would be loyal to one company in return for good wages and work conditions. Tadashi (1982) illustrates that in contemporary Japanese society, loyalty to one company has been weakened, mainly among those of younger generations.

Japan is undoubtedly the leader in the field of employee recreation. In a country which is known for its high economic growth and its citizen's long life expectancy, Japanese



employers and trade unions have for many years placed a high priority on the development of services which assist in improving the health, creativity, morale and job satisfaction of employees, in addition to reducing health-care costs and absenteeism. Approximately 90% of the Japanese companies with 100 or more employees have developed a wide range of recreation programmes and facilities for staff (Leiske, 1982).

Big Japanese companies have long promoted employee recreation programmes. In middle and smaller sized companies, fewer facilities are usually available for sport and recreation. Lack of available facilities is a problem in some companies as so many employees wish to use equipment (Kasai and Hatano, 1982).

To encourage participation in company programmes, the Japan Recreation Association has helped some willing industries to train recreation leaders. Also, many Japanese companies have developed a unique way of training recreation leaders. When company employees retire, they are given the opportunity to train as teachers to work within various clubs (e.g., arts and crafts). Retirees can attend classes regularly at a Polytechnic-type institution to learn how to teach their chosen activity (Bonniface, 1989). Retirees can therefore remain involved with their company.

## **2.5 New Zealand**

### **2.5.1 Introduction**

The New Zealand labour force has approximately 1.5 million workers. Over three-quarters of the workforce is employed in business, industry and commerce (McLennan *et al.*, 1987). More than a fifth are state employees, including those who work for the public service, government corporations, in education and hospitals. Males make up 68.6% of the labour force and females about 31.4% (Department of Statistics, 1990).

Although there is little literature specifically on employee recreation or its history in New Zealand, there is a reasonable collection of general recreation studies. Evidence of recreation patterns are confined to specific populations such as the disabled, elderly and women. A brief review of the more recent major New Zealand leisure research projects can be found in Cushman and Laidler (1990). There are also a few studies on issues relating to New Zealander's health (in relation to physical inactivity) such as heart disease and stress (e.g., Beaglehole, 1986; Main, 1989).

New Zealand society is heavily indoctrinated with British culture, and New Zealanders have inherited many British social and cultural traditions. The ties which once bound New Zealand to Britain have weakened in the last three decades, being replaced by New Zealand's own culture. New Zealanders place a high value on leisure time and pursue recreational sports with considerable skill. Achievements in team sport, athletics and individual pursuits are universally distinguished.

Some social theorists would argue that one reason why employee recreation has not developed in New Zealand to the extent that it has in other western nations, is because of cultural differences and the different opportunities and attitudes New Zealanders have towards leisure. As suggested by Smyth (1973), many New Zealanders spend much of their leisure time improving and maintaining their homes. The choice to spend time at home on the upkeep of the house and section rather than on other recreational activities, is perhaps not so common in cultures where people live in highrise apartment blocks.

### **2.5.2 Historical Account**

The concept of employee recreation is not new in New Zealand. A number of New Zealand companies have a history of providing work-based social and sporting activities. Larkin (1978) presents New Zealand examples of companies who provided recreational opportunities for employees. He stated that as early as the 1840's the Mechanics Institute in Auckland provided a library and social facilities. Facilities were also provided before the turn of the century by cosmopolitan clubs and privately supported organisations. Larkin also mentions more recent provision by companies such as Johnston Wax in Mangere, Auckland (a branch of a United States multi-national company), where all staff have the opportunity to participate in activities including netball, tennis and golf. Staff tournaments, family events and inter-house sport competitions are regularly organised.

Other New Zealand organisations (e.g., the Bank of New Zealand and a number of insurance companies) provide facilities and opportunities for participation in recreation programmes. In some cases, recreation provision is in the form of subsidised membership at a private gym (e.g., Les Mills Gym) rather than companies providing facilities and professional assistance for employees. In general, little is known about individual company programmes and there is minimal documentation on recreation provision within New Zealand companies.

One of the few extensive employee recreation programmes in New Zealand (which the author knows specific details about) is at Glaxo Industries in Palmerston North. Under the guidance of Robert Blok, Glaxo began providing assistance for its 250 staff (and spouses/partners and retirees) to attend its programme entitled P.A.T.H. (Positive Approach To Health) in January, 1990. The voluntary programmes offered are funded by the company and are available to all employees. Programmes include aerobics, yoga and self defence. Gym equipment and sport equipment and facilities are also available. In the first eight months P.A.T.H. operated, 70% of the company workforce participated in programmes. Management have allowed staff time off work during the day to attend programmes. Also at Glaxo, employees are involved in warm-up sessions in the factory which are conducted by trained personnel.

### 2.5.3 Executive Fitness in New Zealand

In the mid 1980's, the concepts of "executive fitness" and the "corporate gym" caught on in the New Zealand business sector. One of the pioneers of this concept was Jim Blair, the director of both the Auckland and Christchurch institutes of Sport and Corporate Health. Services provided by this company are aimed at sportspeople and company executives. One objective the institute has is to improve the health of "the company directors who work 14-16 hours a day and can't forget their work when they leave" (Shakespeare, 1987, p. 231). Executives from Air New Zealand, McMillan Ford and Winstones are among those who have been on fitness programmes in the past.

The staff at executive gyms, such as the Chase Corporate Health Club and the Institute of Sport and Corporate Health, recognise that one of the main problems for executives is motivation to fit training into a busy schedule (Steel, 1989; Pearson, 1988). For example, time at the gym is often shelved due to the pressures of finishing paper work. This applies especially to businesswomen.

"Executive women tend not to think of themselves, whereas men do.... Executives generally are out of the habit of regular exercise and need to establish a routine" (Pearson, 1988, p. 39).

The growing number of in-house gyms in Auckland and Wellington must surely signify the executive's belief in the link between fitness and company benefits. Several companies, government departments and State Owned Enterprises now provide their own fitness

facilities. For example, Chase Corporation has two gyms in Auckland - one in its head office and one in Chase Plaza. Fay Richwhite also has a company gymnasium. One of the first company executive gyms in Christchurch belongs to Price Waterhouse which has an underground gymnasium and a pool.

#### **2.5.4 Recreation and the Workplace**

The extent of organised employee recreation in New Zealand is low compared to countries such as the United States and Canada (Bonniface, 1989). Until recently, there was no information available on the type of recreation provision in New Zealand workplaces. In 1979, a study of private businesses in Auckland, Wellington and Christchurch was commissioned by the Ministry of Internal Affairs (Tait, 1984) to establish the state of the art at that time.

The study entitled *Recreation and the Workplace* (Tait, 1984) surveyed 790 companies with more than 10 employees throughout New Zealand. Base line data was collected with a questionnaire, on equipment/facility provision (both indoor and outdoor), times of use, organised sport and recreation, funding, social club membership and company recreation policy. Researchers established that most workers have the opportunity to participate in some form of work-based recreational activity (e.g., Christmas party and company picnic) and that over half the companies who responded did not have a formal social club. It was clear from the study that larger organisations have more facilities and activities than smaller companies. Among the companies which had indoor equipment, the most common facilities provided were a table tennis table, pool table/s, dart board/s and bowls equipment. One indoor facility frequently mentioned was a bar. These facilities perhaps reflect more passive leisure interests.

Tait's study (1984) highlighted some of the major features of work-based recreation in New Zealand. His study of private sector businesses reported that managers were unsure of the benefits work-based recreation may have for the employer. One manager stated "...in more prosperous times we believe industry should assist, however at present we are more concerned with maintaining sufficient work to hold staff" (Tait, 1984, p. 28). Other respondents reported that even in good economic times the company would not provide recreational opportunities for employees.

"Industry cannot finance sport other than from excessively high prices or from tax evasion. In the end everyone pays" (Tait, 1984, p. 29).

Tait suggested that managers lack the ability, knowledge and facilities to derive the benefits of employee recreation. He concluded that it was unlikely New Zealand firms would develop major recreation facilities and/or programmes. This could be because of the small scale nature of New Zealand businesses (e.g., low numbers of employees) which might make the cost of implementing a programme difficult to justify.

### **2.5.5 Recent Employee Recreation Research**

In contrast to this, Ward (1990) conducted personal interviews with personnel managers from 15 of the top ranked 16 companies in Christchurch (all private sector) for 1989 (interviews were conducted for the coursework of a post-graduate paper at Lincoln University). The company rankings were based on turnover, before tax profit, after tax profit and total assets. Companies had between 41-450 employees. A majority of companies (12 out of 15) had a formal social club. The most frequently organised activities were a company picnic, mystery bus trips, car rallies, regular social functions after work and a Christmas party.

Most recreation activities were organised by the company social club, except in three smaller companies which did not have social clubs (in the three small companies, social activities were organised by company executives). The personnel managers emphasised that it is up to employees to organise activities for themselves with little or no input from management. They indicated that company executives would have the greatest influence to implement an employee recreation programme.

Managers were asked to describe what the term "employee recreation" meant to them. The majority referred to company social club activities such as "getting a team together for indoor cricket or netball" and that it "is a group activity thing". Most were aware that recreation could be either passive or active, but referred mainly to active recreational activities. For example, one manager stated:

"Well its all of the things you do with your non-work time, which you do by your own choice to achieve those aims which are your choice. Sport is the obvious one that comes to mind. One tends to think in terms of sport but there are other things as well" (Ward, 1990).

Another manager stated:

"Employee Recreation is very vital at the present time with people under a lot of stress. As I would understand it, it is the recreation after working hours with whatever employees want to involve themselves in. Whether its physical or just a change of environment (Ward, 1990).

The company factors that presently limit more organised employee participation in recreation were said to be funding, lack of space, employee apathy and low staff numbers (even managers from companies with 150 plus employees thought the latter).

Although most managers did not know how many of the employees in their company were regular participants in physical activity, most stated that they would like to see more employee involvement in fitness activities. Three managers thought that male employees were physically active more frequently than female employees.

Managers, overall, appeared to have a positive attitude towards the possible company and personal benefits that could be obtained from employee participation in physical recreation. The most common company benefit reported was an increase in work performance. The following three comments illustrate this:

- i. "A fitter person works better. I mean they don't seem to come in all drowsy-eyed in the morning. I think work performance would lift".
- ii. "I guess it comes down to performance and that's what you're employed for - to perform to the best of your ability. I think that the healthier you are, the better your performance".
- iii. "I guess the fitter the person, the more they're going to be on deck. I think its fair to say that the fitter ones around the place very rarely have days off" (Ward, 1990).

When asked about the future of employee recreation, the majority of managers predicted that it would develop with time, both within their companies and in New Zealand workplaces. One manager commented "The more exercise that is encouraged the better. I would much rather have staff using the company exercise room to do some weights instead of playing cards and having a cigarette in the tearoom" (Ward, 1990). Only two from the 15 personnel managers thought employee recreation would not develop further within their company.

Several managers commented that if business picks up, companies may look towards providing more recreational opportunities for employees. Managers were skeptical about allocating resources (especially money) to recreation in the present economic climate. They emphasised that before employee recreation could win financial support, company management would need information on the cost effectiveness and the benefits of recreation programmes. Several managers stated that a recreation programme would need the support of management if it was to succeed. A few admitted that there are more important things needing attention (e.g., production equipment) before employee recreation would get management's attention.

The lack of interest by employers towards work-based recreation opportunities in the 1970's (Tait, 1984) to greater interest in the 1990's (Ward, 1990) may reflect the passage of time. It appears that the attitude of managers towards recreation in the workplace has changed over time.

### **2.5.6 The Cost of Doing Nothing**

In the last five years, the New Zealand government has become concerned about New Zealanders' lifestyles. In 1987, the Hillary Commission for Recreation and Sport, commissioned a study on the state of New Zealander's health. This report, entitled *The Cost of Doing Nothing* (Russell, *et al.*, 1987 (a)), did not focus specifically on employee recreation but concentrated on the health-related problems which New Zealanders will have in the future because of inactive lifestyles. The report provided several recommendations to minimise the consequences and bring about change to New Zealanders' lifestyles. The industrial and commercial objectives put forward, included an objective to achieve employee fitness programmes for 50% of companies and institutions with over two hundred employees (Russell, *et al.*, 1987, (a)). The report also recommended that the Hillary Commission sponsor a survey to collect information on the lifestyles of the New Zealand population. It emphasised that there is limited information on physical fitness levels and the general health of the New Zealand population.

### **2.5.7 Life in New Zealand**

In response to this recommendation, the Hillary Commission for Recreation and Sport sponsored a pilot study and then a nationwide study. The pilot study, *Life in New Zealand*, involved a sample of 400 Dunedin residents taken from electoral roles. Data was collected

from a survey questionnaire on physical activity, leisure, diet and health issues and physical risk factors (e.g., blood pressure, alcohol consumption and smoking). The main purpose of this study was to develop a valid and reliable survey instrument for the national survey. Aside from this, an analysis of the questionnaires returned provided some interesting findings. Thirty percent of respondents did no regular activity at all and 70% regarded television viewing as their most frequent leisure activity (Hillary Commission for Recreation and Sport, 1988). Over half the respondents agreed that more people should participate in activities rather than be spectators.

A comprehensive report on the results from the national study entitled *Life in New Zealand* was not available for review before this thesis was printed.

### **2.5.8 General**

Dr Hellemans, a New Zealand doctor who specialises in sports medicine, has reported that "not taking regular exercise places a person on a similar risk level to someone who smokes" (Honeybone, 1990, p. 16). Dr Hellemans, suggested that 70-80% of New Zealanders did not exercise enough and were at risk to heart disease and strokes (Honeybone, 1990). He has been working with the Health Department to encourage people to become more active with walk-jog courses.

The research available indicates there is a growing need to influence New Zealanders' lifestyle habits because of the health problems individuals will suffer if nothing is done. The future implications of taking no action to improve the level of inactivity in New Zealand's adult population and the influential role employers could have in influencing employee health-care, have lead to an interest in the development of employee recreation in New Zealand. With the lack of information in the area of employee recreation it was thought that this research would provide valuable base information on attitudes of both company executives and employees towards various issues related to employee recreation. The potential for developing employee recreation in New Zealand workplaces has been stimulated by research on the reported benefits of overseas recreation programmes.



## **2.6 Section 2(a): The Benefits of Employee Recreation**

### **2.6.1 Introduction**

In the 1980's, there was an increase in the amount of research in the area of employee recreation (in other countries) in an effort to establish relationships between recreation, productivity components and personal well-being. There are now several North American studies which support the contention that employee recreation has benefits for the company and the individual (e.g., Blair *et al.*, 1986(b); Leatt *et al.*, 1988). Research indicates that regular physical activity is needed to develop and maintain fitness in healthy adults. Company managers and decision-makers require evidence of the possible benefits that regular participation in employee recreation could bring.

### **2.6.2 Company Benefits**

Productivity is defined as a measure of the relationship between resource inputs and the quality and quantity of outputs (Schermerhorn, 1986). Employee recreation is regarded as one component which could enable companies to achieve greater productivity. Shephard (1983) suggested that a recreation programme could enhance productivity through:

- a) an increase of physical working capacity (Linden, 1969),
- b) a reduction in absenteeism and accidents and
- c) relief from boredom, anxiety and aggression.

In the future, employee health will be one of the important determinants of success in a competitive business environment. One objective of businesses introducing recreation programmes is assumed to be to influence the performance of the organisation by influencing the behaviour of employees.

As already described, recreational programmes for employees have received considerable interest in the United States, Canada, European nations and in Japan. Claims that employee recreation facilitates an improvement in work performance and morale and a reduction in absenteeism have been supported by research. International studies have examined the effects recreation programmes have on numerous components of productivity.

### 2.6.3 Work Performance

Advocates of the fitness movement uphold that physically fit employees will have improved work performance. Falkenberg (1987) reviewed several studies (including Heinzelmann, 1970; Yarovite *et al.*, 1974; Rhodes and Dunwoody, 1980) and reported that in all studies subjects claimed their work performance improved after participating in an employee fitness programme.

Donoghue (1977) cites a paper by the Russian author Pravosudov, who reported that Russian worker athletes had a 2-5% greater physical output than non-athletes in physically demanding employment. Donoghue (1977) also refers to a European experiment which examined the work performance of female workers in a textile mill. The researchers found that workers reduced their errors by 31% with the introduction of exercise breaks (Donoghue, 1977). From these studies, it could be concluded that work performance may be related to an individual's level of fitness and that companies could become more efficient from supporting regular employee participation in physical recreation.

Pate and Blair (1983) have reviewed the literature on exercise from the perspectives of epidemiology, clinical practice and controlled experiments. Their review emphasises the various measures of improved health which participants in programmes have experienced, and suggests that regular exercise increases physical work capacity. None of the literature reviewed commented on whether or not the fitness of an entire population of employees (e.g., a company workforce) would change as a result of regular participation in an employee recreation programme. This is possibly due to experimental studies using smaller numbers of volunteers who are predominantly self selected.

A study conducted by Heinzelmann and Bagley (1969) at three American universities, Minnesota, Wisconsin and Pennsylvania State, involved 239 middle-aged male executives between the ages of 45 and 59. Executives had elevated blood pressures and cholesterol levels. The study was designed to examine the relationship between physical activity and changes in cardiovascular risk. The men were asked to take part in a supervised recreation programme for one hour three times each week. After an eighteen-month period of physical activity, a questionnaire was distributed to participants. Almost 60% of the 108 programme participants who answered the questionnaire indicated a significant positive effect with regard to work performance. Comments such as "I have a greater capacity to work", "I can

work harder both mentally and physically" and "I have improved my power of decision making and concentration" were reported (Heinzelman and Bagley, 1969, p. 908). The researchers observed more positive work attitudes, less strain and tension and improved work performance among fitness programme participants.

Durbeck *et al.*, (Haskell and Blair, 1980) examined the effects of a twelve month exercise training programme on three heart disease risk factors - exercise capacity, health attitudes and job attitudes. The participants were 237 male employees who worked at NASA headquarters in Washington, D.C. At the conclusion of the experiment, participants reported that they worked harder than before (mentally and physically), enjoyed their jobs more and found their normal work routines less boring (Haskell and Blair, 1980).

#### **2.6.4 Absenteeism From Work**

Sickness is a culturally acceptable reason for staying home from work in western cultures. It is usually acceptable as long as the individual is not absent too often. Researchers are learning that absence is more complex than simply sickness. It is related to personality factors, job attitudes, economic consequences, stress and cultural norms. These factors interact differently in each work setting. Johns and Nicholson (Falkenberg, 1987) have hypothesised that absence is a temporary behaviour through which employees attempt to derive the most benefit from their allocation of work and non-work time.

Although absence for reasons not relating to health is undeniable, the United States Bureau of Labour Statistics estimates that nearly two-thirds of absenteeism is caused by illness or injury (Clement and Gibbs, 1983). There are hidden costs of absenteeism including the extra pay for employees working overtime, benefits for additional employees to replace those who are absent and associated administration costs.

Several studies have been conducted to determine the effects of recreation participation on absenteeism. There is evidence supporting the premise that individuals who participate in recreation programmes are absent from work less than non-participants (Bjurstrom and Alexiou, 1978). Research by Erwin (Anderson, 1951), Pravosudov (1976), Hoffman and Hobson (1984), Bowne *et al.*, (1984), Baun *et al.* (1986), Blair *et al.*, (1986(a)) and Walker and Evans (1987), have all concluded that fit employees are absent less frequently. This assumption only relates to absences due to medical reasons. Donoghue (1977) cites studies

which have reported that those less physically active visit the doctor more often and that the physically active have fewer work-related accidents. Bechtel (1982) claims that individuals who lack physical fitness are likely to be ill more often and recover more slowly than fit workers.

Bjurstrom and Alexiou (1978) studied the effects of a five year heart disease prevention programme (an exercise training class) on job absence of 847 men and women at the New York State Education Department. Data for all participating employees was analysed for the control years (i.e., pre-experiment years) and the programme years. A net annual reduction in sick leave of 4.7 hours per year per employee was observed when sick leave data was compared for the control and programme years. Although the findings of this and similar studies (e.g., Linden, 1969) tend to support the concept that a more physically fit employee will take less sick leave, none of the studies had the scientific rigour needed to show a cause and effect relationship.

Linden (1969) conducted a study of 203 employees from different occupations to try and determine whether unfit employees were absent from work more often than fit employees. Linden demonstrated the existence of an inverse relationship between maximal oxygen uptake (fitness) and the number of absences in customs officers, but not in firemen or office workers. In the three occupations, it was found that individuals who were absent frequently had poor aerobic power. The study compared the absences of exercise and non-exercise groups of the same ages. During the six months before the programme started, the difference in average number of sick days per person between the groups was 1.08 days. After the duration of the programme, the exercise group had missed an average of 2.48 days compared to the 4.38 days missed by the non-exercisers.

A lot of pre-experimental literature supports the contention that employees who exercise feel better and are in better physical condition. For example, the Internorth company of Omaha, Nebraska contends that a recent company study found a positive correlation between fitness and absenteeism. Employees who participated in aerobic exercise classes at Internorth were absent from work an average of one day a year while non-participants averaged six days absence a year.

Beginning in late 1977, the Canadian government commissioned a study of two large Toronto life insurance companies (Canada Life Assurance Company as the experimental group with 1281 employees and North American Life Assurance Company as the control group with 577 employees (Cox *et al.*, 1981). The two companies were chosen due to similarities, the willingness of management to cooperate and the feasibility of implementing the experimental design. This study was conducted "due to increasing interest in this topic during the early 1970's" (Peepre, 1978, p. 18) and also because more companies had been demanding information in the area of savings related to implementing employee fitness programmes.

The study compared employees from Canada Life Assurance Company who were involved in a company fitness programme, with employees from the North American Life Assurance Company who were not involved in a programme. A professionally directed employee fitness programme was initiated at the test company for a six month period, commencing in January, 1978. A schedule of 24 fitness classes was set up with women's, men's and co-ed classes meeting two or three times each week. Close to 50% of all company employees participated in one or more of the classes offered.

Data on absenteeism was collected over two years (the two company groups had similar absenteeism rates prior to the experimental intervention). Both companies provided absentee data for the pre-intervention, present and post-intervention periods.

A 20% decline in absenteeism was found in both the control and experimental companies. When the sub-groups in the experimental company were examined, high adherence exercisers (those who participated two or more times weekly) showed a 42% decline in absenteeism. This represented a 22% decline beyond the average for the rest of the employees in the company (Peepre, 1978). The female high adherence group showed a 38% decline overall.

An analysis of the results suggested that a 42% decline in absenteeism represents 2.5 days per year per employee. In a company of 1400 this would amount to 3500 less absent days a year (Peepre, 1978). Peepre suggests that for the employer the economic gain from decreased absenteeism could be significant compared to the cost of running an employee fitness programme.

Shephard (1983) has given an account of the cost of the Canada Life programme. Costs included a capital expenditure of \$108,000 (\$U.S.) for setting up the gymnasium and associated facilities (e.g., showers and lockers). The sound system and minimal gymnastic equipment cost \$5,505 (\$U.S.). There was also a continuing annual cost of \$40,000 (\$U.S.), for salary and amortizing capital costs. These costs were covered by a research grant of \$ 191,841 which the University of Toronto received from the Fitness and Amateur Sport branch and Lotto Canada to carry out the study.

It is interesting to note that two years after the research programme ended, over 40% of the company employees were still enrolled in some phase of the programme. It is difficult to assess the validity and reliability of the absence assessment without knowing more about the procedure used, and the working definition of absenteeism. It appears that sick leave was self reported by subjects in both groups during the experiment. This study was one of the first empirical attempts to quantify the dollar benefits which companies could take advantage of.

Blair *et al.*, (1986(a)) conducted a study among teachers in a school district in the United States. Recreation programmes were conducted for a duration of 14 weeks. Teacher absenteeism was determined for the study year and for the previous year from records in the district personnel office. Absenteeism differences were evaluated by analysis of age, gender, ethnic group and the previous year's absenteeism.

Participants who completed the 14 week programme were absent for an average of 1.25 days less during the study year than non-participants. If one assumes that the reduction in absenteeism from participants was caused by participation in the programme, a reasonably accurate estimate of economic benefit can be made. Substitute teachers were paid \$47 (\$U.S.) /day during the year of the study. A reduction in absenteeism of 1.25 days in 2,546 participants who completed the programme resulted in a saving of \$149,578 (\$U.S.). The cost of establishing and maintaining this programme was not mentioned.

The premise that fit employees are absent less frequently from work has also been supported by several European studies. In one West German study, a physical fitness program "...led to the reduction of absenteeism by 68.8% for workers with cardiovascular symptoms" (Donoghue, 1977, p. 201). In another study, an employee fitness programme was introduced

into the Goodyear plant in Sweden and a 50% reduction in absenteeism was reported. The study concluded that the programmes contributed to a reduction in sick leave by 4.7 days per employee per year (Shephard, 1983).

### **2.6.5 Injury**

The cost of workplace injury and illness is high. Plans for reducing job hazards have usually concentrated on technology and/or on improving equipment. In many North American and Japanese companies, directors are aware that employee recreation reduces work-related injury. Managers have been turning to fitness and exercise to reduce the incidence of minor injury attributed to back, knee and ankle deficiencies (Department of Fitness, Recreation and Sport, 1981). Daily exercises in labour intensive and sedentary desk jobs are designed to be done without the need for special equipment or special clothing. For example, at Tokyo airport all Pan Am personnel who work in line maintenance, catering and purchasing are required to participate in a stretching programme for three minutes before each shift begins. A study on injury of personnel reported that complaints and disabling ailments decreased by 33% between 1982-1984 (Dionne, 1984). Lost work days also declined and daily routines are "...enhancing the mental attitude of participants. By exercising together, employees become more part of a team" (Dionne, 1984, p. 77).

### **2.6.6 Employee Relations and Morale**

In 1982, a study was conducted among fifty-one Fortune 500 industries (the top 500 companies in the United States). The chief executive officers who completed the survey ranked improved employee relations the highest when evaluating a list of possible corporate benefits. They indicated employee recreation programmes establish a friendly feeling between employee and employer (Phelps, 1983/4). Top management agreed in all companies surveyed that the company should encourage employees to participate in recreation activities. From this study, Phelps acknowledged that "Recognising the attitudes of chief executive officers toward employee recreation is crucial in gaining their support" (Phelps, 1983/84, p. 15).

In the late 1970's, the Colorado State Health Department and the Institute of Health, in collaboration with several voluntary health agencies and private sector organisations, conducted a survey of work-site Health Promotion Disease Prevention programmes (HPDP)

in Colorado. Improved employee morale was perceived as the single most common benefit of an HPDP programme (which included physical employee recreation programmes).

Many companies in the United States, Canada and Japan are convinced that employee recreation can make a significant contribution to the improvement of interpersonal relationships between employees. In a study by Davis *et al.*, (1984) 80% of the companies who responded reported improved employee morale as a perceived benefit of health promotion. This is consistent with findings in Fielding and Breslow's 1983 study of Californian businesses.

Low morale due to low job satisfaction in the work place is undesirable, as employees become unhappy, careless and not safety conscious (Wilson *et al.*, 1979). The authors emphasise that morale is closely associated with communication and that low morale makes interpersonal relations more difficult. Low job satisfaction may lead to low morale.

"Where there is notably low morale, the workers are preoccupied with pay, vacations and coffee breaks. They are interested not in what they can produce, but in what they can get" (Wilson *et al.*, 1979, p. 52).

In the literature reviewed, it appears that morale is perceptually measured via questionnaires with questions such as "Do you think your employee recreation programme benefits morale?". Although no precise working definitions of 'morale' were offered, Wilson *et al.*, (1979) suggest that 'morale' is a measure of human enthusiasm, good will and team spirit.

### **2.6.6.1 Theoretical Perspective**

On the issue of employee morale, Herzberg's theory of motivation (Thomson, 1989) suggests that morale is an important hygiene issue in determining satisfaction among some employees. This has been challenged by New Zealand behavioural researchers. In 1973, Hines wrote that because there is a high level of personal contact within New Zealand workplaces (as companies are small compared to nations such as the United States), many hygiene factors operate as motivating factors (Thomson, 1989). The research concluded that supervisory and interpersonal relationships were important factors in determining work satisfaction. This suggests that in New Zealand workplaces, managers should be aware of the effect that morale can have on job satisfaction.



In 1989, Elery Hamilton-Smith (from the Department of Leisure Studies at the Phillip Institute of Technology in Victoria, Australia) visited New Zealand and discussed a work/leisure relationships model. Elery Hamilton-Smith emphasised that in the future, greater workplace satisfaction will be important. Workplace satisfaction is related to factors such as whether an individual enjoys a job, whether they are happy with their rewards (e.g., pay) and whether the individual gets on with co-workers. If greater satisfaction in the workplace can be obtained, employees may achieve greater satisfaction in their leisure time. This would strengthen employees' lives in both their work and leisure time (Hamilton-Smith, 1989).

### **2.6.7 Recruitment/ Retention**

Hoffman and Hobson (1984) suggest that the provision of recreation facilities is valuable in recruitment and retention for companies wishing to attract highly skilled personnel.

"As a recruiting tool they serve as a magnet to lure employees away from other companies" (Cramer, 1984, p. 18).

Cramer (1984) suggests that with the high competition to attract skilled and motivated employees, companies offering potential benefits are likely to attract the high performers. For example, according to the President's Council for Fitness in Industry, two Californian companies find that the recreation opportunities are examined by potential recruits and compared to facilities and programmes other companies offer. While this may apply to mainly white-collar executives with specialist skills, Hoffman and Hobson (1984) suggest that in some companies recreation provision is seen as a fringe benefit. Employee recreation facilities are "the newest perk" according to some managers (Cramer, 1984).

Many companies show potential recruits around their facilities. *Time* magazine quoted one Xerox executive saying that: "Before I'd change jobs, I'd ask an employer if he had a gym" (Cramer, 1984, p. 20). With the move towards health awareness and fitness, more employees are becoming interested in recreation programmes as part of the company's benefits package (Cramer, 1984). As stated by one manager: "People wish to work in a pleasant environment. They will be attracted to firms that offer recreational facilities among the fringe benefits of employment" (Murphy, 1974, p. 191).

Hormachea and Hormachea (1972) state that well managed employee programmes help to introduce new employees to the business community. The authors state: "Programs serve as an informal... meeting ground between white-collar and blue-collar" (Hormachea and Hormachea, 1972, p. 233).

Kraus (1971) acknowledges that when an industry is located a considerable distance from metropolitan centres, firms use recreation facilities to encourage those who are considering employment. Kraus states: "An attractive employee recreation programme has significant recruitment appeal" (Kraus, 1966, p. 389).

### 2.6.8 Staff Turnover

The replacement costs for employees who leave a company are high. Costs include recruitment and training of new employees and perhaps reduced productivity and increased overtime as new employees learn their jobs (Clement and Gibbs, 1983).

Until 1982, only one study had addressed the issue of whether staff turnover was affected by the presence of an employee recreation programme. A high level of staff turnover should be of concern to company managers and methods to reduce it should be considered. Tsai *et al.*, (1987) research on employees in the Tennaco Health and Fitness Program aimed to investigate the relationship between employee turnover and fitness. The study population of employees consisted of two groups. The first group of 1360 workers were hired before 1982 (747 were participants in the fitness programme). The second group were hired up to four years after the programme began. The study took into account age, gender, length of employment and job type.

Researchers concluded that the exercisers in each group were employed for a longer length of time than non-exercisers in each group. This could imply that "participation in an exercise programme may have a long term effect on turnover" (Tsai *et al.*, 1987, p. 575). It could also imply that the people who will stay long-term are also interested in retaining good health.

In the Canadian study of employees from two life assurance companies previously outlined (Peepre, 1978), employee turnover figures were analysed. Cox (1981) studied 434 programme participants over a ten month period and compared their turnover rates with

those who did not exercise (the cost of this programme has been stated previously - in the section on absenteeism). For the ten months, turnover was 1.5% for recreation participants and 15% for non-participants. The savings for the company were calculated to be \$230 per year per employee. It was estimated that this would save the company \$510,000 in annual hiring and training expenses.

### **2.6.9 Insurance Claims**

In North America, a common employee benefit is for the company to pay employees' total insurance premiums. Many insurance companies offer lower group health insurance premiums to companies who have employee recreation programmes (Clement and Gibbs, 1983). There are a number of overseas case studies which have shown that participation in a recreational fitness programme will lead to a reduction in health costs for the company. One study reported the total health-related savings averaged \$85 per employee per year (Walker and Evans, 1987).

A survey of 1500 of the largest United States employers conducted by the Health Research Institute found that health care costs for employers with employee recreation programmes in place for four years was \$1,311 per employee compared to \$1,868 for companies without such programmes (Conrad (a), 1987).

In another study involving Johnson and Johnson employees, insurance claims for 2400 participants and non-participants in a 5 year exercise programme were compared. Participants submitted more claims than non-participants but the average payment per participant was lower throughout the course of the study. It is also interesting to note that the average annual health cost of participants was significantly lower than for non-participants (Blair *et al.*, 1986(b)).

Driver and Ratliff (1982) have produced a model which outlines managers' perceptions of company benefits from exercise programmes. The model indicates that once physical fitness levels increase, improvements in wellness (higher quality of health), cohesiveness (i.e., within work groups and the organisation) and individual work satisfaction follow. The model shows there is conflicting evidence between individual satisfaction and productivity, turnover and absence. Managers perceive that increased wellness causes a decrease in

health-care claims which effect gains (profits) for the organisation (Driver and Ratliff, 1982).

### **2.6.10 Limitations of Benefit Studies**

The possible self selection of healthy employees into the exercise groups, or the lack of an appropriate control group, are major weaknesses of studies on exercise and absenteeism from work.

From the review of company benefits, it is obvious that employee recreation is not the only component which affects the productivity components discussed. There are many other factors which influence the level of absence, injury, morale and turnover within companies. To study the effect that employee recreation has on productivity components, it is impossible to isolate the other factors which effect the benefits outlined in the review. Although studies reviewed here have specific conclusions in relation to the introduction of an employee recreation programme, results may not be solely due to employee recreation. Also, benefits need to be weighed against total costs.

## **2.7 The Personal Benefits of Employee Recreation**

Phelps (1987) reports that many of the proposed benefits from physical activity (cited in literature) have little or no substantiation. He states that in previous overviews of the personal health benefits and risks of physical exercise, the quality of the data on which claims are based has not been critically assessed.

Phelps has developed a scale of surety rating which was used to rate the benefit to a number of health factors. Several studies were reviewed for each health factor. Five of the 13 health benefits reviewed were found to have strong support in the literature. For the remainder, the evidence is less conclusive or equivocal. The five health factors with strong support (i.e., benefiting from regular exercise) were: blood pressure, weight control, self esteem, coronary heart disease and bone density (i.e., prolonged bone loss). Other factors such as smoking cessation and improved sleep had conflicting research evidence.

No studies were found in the literature on the perceived benefits from the introduction of an employee recreation programme.

### 2.7.1 Inactivity

Diet and exercise are related to many of the health problems New Zealanders have. It has been estimated that over 50% of premature deaths in New Zealand are due to inactive lifestyles (Russell *et al.*, 1987 (a)). On average, inactive people have twice the risk of cardiovascular disease which is the leading cause of death in New Zealand (47%) (Russell *et al.*, 1987 (a)). Overseas studies have shown that employees who participate in exercise classes at the worksite improve their physical fitness (Cox and Corey, 1981; Pauly *et al.*, 1982).

Medical studies in other countries have found there is a relationship between inactivity, coronary heart disease, cholesterol levels and an increased chance of mortality (Rhodes and Dunwoody, 1980). Experimental studies suggest that regular exercise has a positive impact on coronary heart disease. Recreation programmes have shown reductions in resting heart rate, maximum oxygen uptake and blood pressure (Pauly *et al.*, 1982).

### 2.7.2 Coronary Heart Disease (CHD)

Lifestyle has been defined as "...the observable organisation of an individual's activities in terms of use of time, investment of energy, and choice of interpersonal objects" (Osgood, 1982, p. 37). Recent research on New Zealanders' lifestyles has revealed that coronary heart disease, cancer and strokes are affected by lifestyle factors (Beaglehole, 1986).

Several North American studies have examined the CHD risk of company executives. Some indicate that executives not only have fewer heart attacks than blue-collar workers, but their mortality rate ranges from 10-30% lower than that of the general population. For example, Boronson's study of executives in New York (Teague, Date unknown) concluded that the majority of executives cope well with their jobs, have better than average health habits and are surprised by the image of the harried executive. It seems however, that the evidence is contradictory as other studies have found the opposite.

Donoghue (1977) cites an American study in which executives were compared to the total population of a community and were found to have a higher number of coronary risk factors. In an article by Taunton (Dahya, 1981) it was stated that:

"For the male and female executive, mental stress, suicide and alcoholism are significant problems. For the male, especially the older executive, heart disease and hypertension are major sources of morbidity or mortality" (Dahya, 1981, p. 3).

It is for these reasons, and in addition stress, hypertension and high blood pressure, that many companies and commercial gyms target executives as the "risk segment".

Three studies (Donoghue, 1977) have indicated that individuals in physically active occupations have lower incidence of heart attacks than those in sedentary jobs. The loss to a country's economy due to the premature death of company executives from cardiovascular disease, is now of greater concern.

### 2.7.3 Stress

Within organisations, some employees suffer from higher levels of positive and negative stress than others. Schuler (1980) has argued that stress has a high cost in terms of lost work hours (absence), burnout and health-care costs. It has been found that high stress levels result in low levels of work performance and efficiency (Gupta and Beehr, 1979).

Howard *et al.*, (Haskell and Blair, 1980) studied the coping techniques used by mid-level managers to handle job-related stress. From a list of 10 coping techniques, managers were asked to indicate which, if any, they used. They also completed a stress symptom checklist and had medical and behavioural evaluations. Those who engaged in physical exercise as a coping technique had fewer stress symptoms than those who did not. Exercise was ranked third highest in preventing stress symptoms (i.e., participating in physical activity). The first two were: i) building resistance by regular sleep and good health habits and ii) distinguishing between work and non-work activity.

Selye (1956) acknowledged that exercise can serve as a therapy for stress because it interrupts the stereotyped response patterns which often contribute to mental and physical illness. While stress and anxiety levels influence task performance, they also affect the general health of employees. Experimental research in the area of physical fitness and stress suggests that fitness programmes and improved health could significantly reduce stress at work (Finney, 1984; Driver and Ratliff, 1982).

### **2.7.4 Attitude and Behaviour**

Collingwood (1972) researched the effects of a four week physical training programme on personal attitudes and physical, intellectual and emotional behaviour of 50 males aged between the ages of 18 and 26. The experimental group demonstrated increases (compared to control group) in fitness performance, body attitude, positive self attitude, self acceptance and positive physical, intellectual and emotional behaviour.

In a Canadian study conducted in the late 1970's (Yuhasz, 1979), participants were asked to complete a questionnaire after a ten week group exercise programme. All the women and 90% of the men reported that they felt better physically as a result of the programme (each group had 80 employees). Employees felt they were more energetic, happier, confident and relaxed. Many reported a changed feeling towards their work. They felt that their efficiency had improved and that they could handle pressure, problems, frustrations and stress more easily (Yuhasz, 1979).

Heinzelmann and Bagley (1970) conducted a study of sedentary men aged 45-59 years in Minnesota. They demonstrated that physical activity influenced the participant's attitudes towards work, habits, and general self image. Comparisons were made between members of an exercise group and control group. Differences were observed in the male attitudes toward their work after completion of the programme. Approximately 40% of programme participants reported a more positive attitude towards their job compared with 1% of the men in the control group (Heinzelmann and Bagley, 1970).

## **2.8 Section 2(b): Barriers to Participation in Employee Recreation**

### **2.8.1 Company Barriers**

Clement and Gibbs (1983) report that implementation costs have been considered as the major barrier to interest in health promotion programmes, including employee recreation programmes. Managers may be reluctant to commit resources because it is difficult to predict the cost effectiveness of programmes (Dickerson and Mandelblit, 1983).

A study by Gibbs *et al.*, (1985) presents five years of data on the health-care costs of work-site health promotion participants. The findings of the study support the idea that this type of programme will pay off after a temporary increase in costs.

Research conducted by Fielding and Breslow (1983) among Californian employers in 1981 revealed reasons for not having any existing health promotion activities. They were "too costly" (100%), "No need/employees already healthy" (94.7%), "too difficult to implement" (29.8%) and "high employee turnover" (21.3%). When asked "In your organisation, who has the influence to bring about implementation of health promotion programs?", the company representatives mentioned top management (43.8%), ahead of personnel (35.8%) and safety personnel (5.7%). Among the 86 employers who offered no activities, more than 50% deemed such activities as "very desirable" or "somewhat desirable" (Fielding and Breslow, 1983).

Dickerson and Mandelblit (1983) have asked the question of why more health education and recreation programmes have not been implemented by employers. One answer frequently given is that the available data is often insufficient to permit accurate predictions of the relationship between lifestyle and illness of specific individuals. It seems that the research available is not enough to convince hard nosed executives and employees of the personal benefits of regular participation in programmes.

### **2.8.1.1 Theoretical Perspective**

Sociology relies on theories to describe and explain human behaviour (e.g., why people do not participate in physical activity). Human behavioural patterns develop from social interaction. Employee leisure activity patterns are therefore developed in the course of daily living, through social interaction with others. The force that motivates employees to establish social associations on their own initiative leads to social exchange.

Work-based recreation can be conceptualised by drawing on Weber's theory of the bureaucracy. Organisations can be understood as "mutual-benefit associations" (the employer provides a job in return for loyalty, skills and rewards). The success of a company is "largely dependent on its ability to maintain control of its participants" (Etzioni, 1964, p. 58). If participation in organised activity is viewed as emerging from social interaction, then



it is important to understand more clearly why there is little organised work-based leisure activity in New Zealand workplaces.

The theoretical position of Blau (Rees, 1986) can be summarised as one where social attraction leads to social exchange. The central concept to Blau's theory is "power". The theory is primarily one of social change whereby a situation of exchange leads to conflict which leads to further exchange and, eventually conflict resolution. (An example of how employee recreation can be used by those with "power" to minimise conflict is that some employers may introduce a programme to minimise industrial conflict.)

Some theorists would argue that it is in the best interests of the company to keep their employees happy in order to maximise productivity and minimise human resource problems (e.g., high levels of absenteeism and conflict in the workplace).

### **2.8.2 Personal Barriers**

Given the opportunity to exercise on-site, many previously unmotivated employees may suddenly find it convenient to exercise before work, in their lunch break or after work. However, many factors discourage individuals from participating in fitness-related programmes. Conrad (1987 (b)) conducted a survey of participants and non-participants in a fitness programme at a medical technology company in Massachusetts in 1984. The company had 600 employees and more than 200 were members of the programme. Non-participants were asked to indicate the most important reasons they did not participate in the company programme. The two most important reasons indicated by non-participants for not participating were:

1. The course schedule did not fit with their schedule and
2. They did not have time for fitness classes.

Literature suggests that employee recreation participants hold similar characteristics (Conrad, 1987 (b); Fielding, 1982). They tend to be non-smokers, more concerned with health matters, perceive themselves in better health and are more interested in physical activities. In an unpublished report of the American Telephone and Telegraph Total Life Concept pilot programme, the researcher reported that non-participants tend to be non-management, less educated, females, smokers, non-exercisers and less likely to believe in the benefits of exercise (Conrad, 1987 (b)).

From the literature reviewed on personal barriers which restrict participation, it appears there are three main dimensions of fitness programmes:

1. On-site/off-site programmes -  
If the distance from employees' homes to the recreation opportunity, getting there may be a problem.
2. Work-time/non work-time -  
Factors limiting participation include the high value employees place on their limited personal time and the personal cost (Villeneuve *et al.*, 1983).
3. Sociable/individual programmes -  
Some people do not wish to undertake such a commitment by themselves. They desire companionship to enjoy the activity and prefer an on-site programme because it encourages company friends and acquaintances to participate together. It may also renew or develop social ties.

Rees (1986) made an initial attempt to develop a theory of personal involvement in physical activity, incorporating social structure and the individuals interpretation of reality. He emphasises that physical activity will originate in social structure and that individuals will have a greater level of commitment to physical activity if they are part of a social network which is supportive of the activity.

Dishman (Rees, 1986) acknowledges that regular participation is a process which involves individual traits, environmental forces, biological factors and personal capabilities. One of the personal traits is that of individual commitment. The concept of commitment has featured prominently in research, in an effort to understand why some people participate in physical activity and others do not (Rees, 1986).

Although the functionalist perspective (which views socialisation as a one way process) suggests that there is a relationship between involvement in organised leisure activities and experiences in early childhood and as an adult, Dishman *et al.*, (1985) emphasise that this does not extend to recreational sport activity or adherence to a fitness programme (i.e., when

the individual has to organise himself/herself). An example is the high drop out rate from sport as age increases.

From a symbolic interactionist's perspective, the individual has an active role in relation to his/her environment. The symbolic interactionist emphasis has been on "how the individual has interpreted the environment as affecting the 'self'" (Rees, 1986, p. 316). The key to this process is in the motive to protect and maintain self-esteem. This emphasis moves away from Blumer's perception of the self as always changing to a combination of social structure and social process. Symbolic interaction approaches have rarely been applied to involvement in physical activity.

From the perspective of the social process, the key to involvement in physical activity is the perception of what is known as 'efficacious action' - individuals feel responsible for their own actions (Rees, 1986). The concept of trying to protect and maintain one's roles and self-esteem can help to explain why some people who think they have poor health may not become involved in exercise programmes, even though they realise that such programmes may help improve their health. Also, Dishman *et al.*, (1985) point out that the higher the health risks, the lower the chances of involvement in, and commitment to physical activity.

The question still remains as to why some people participate in regular physical activity and others do not. One theory is that self motivation combined with the physical characteristics of body weight and body composition, can predict adherence to fitness programmes (Rees, 1986).

### **2.8.3 Comparative Variables in Employee Recreation Research**

The interest shown towards the benefits of employee recreation in the 1970's and 1980's has developed within the medical, physical education and recreation professions. Early studies (e.g., Heinzmann and Bagley, 1970; Collingwood, 1972) focussed on, for example, physiological changes in male executives aged 35-55.

Recent experimental studies with more rigid experimental control have compared the effects of regular participation in an employee recreation programme on programme participants and non-participants. An example of this is the study involving two Canadian assurance companies (Peepre, 1978). Recent studies have also compared female and male employee

physiological changes from regular participation in programmes (e.g., gender comparisons for body mass, body fat and fitness).

A number of experimental studies (e.g., Blair, 1986(a)) have compared age groups within adult populations. The comparative variables mentioned (i.e., participants/ non-participants, females/ males and age groups) have been frequently used in comparative studies. Other variables used include marital status, education and race (e.g., Blair, 1986). No comparative studies of executive and employee attitudes were found in a review of the literature.

#### 2.8.4 Limitations in the Research

Clinical research has documented how much exercise is necessary for changing the level of physical fitness in adults, and also the frequency and the duration needed. The American College of Sports Medicine published a position statement on the recommended quantity and quality of exercise for developing and maintaining fitness in healthy adults. Their recommendation was as follows:

1. Frequency - three to five days per week.
2. Intensity - 60-90% of maximum heart rate or 50% of maximum oxygen uptake.
3. Duration - 15-60 minutes of continuous aerobic activity.
4. Mode - any activity that uses large muscle groups (Russell *et al.*, 1987 (a)).

In examining the definitions of "regular participation" in recreation, studies use a variety of different time spans, intensity and frequencies per week. Cook *et al.*, (1979) suggest that regular participation is maintaining 70-85% of an individuals maximum level of heart rate for 20-30 minutes no less than three times a week. "Regularly active" has been defined as being "actively involved in an endurance activity at least twice a week" (Faulkner and Stewart, 1978, p. 21). Rhodes and Dunwoody (1980) suggest "regular" is three times a week for 40-50 minutes. Pauly *et al.*, (1982) suggest "regular" is 30 minutes. Yuhasz (1979) suggests 35 minutes three times a week. It is clear that there is a need for a consistent definition in future studies involving the term 'regular participation' in recreation. The definition adopted for this study is: "Physical activity of moderate to heavy intensity, undertaken at least three times weekly for 35 minutes or more each time".

One other limitation is that in cost/benefit studies there has been minimal recording of the short and longer term costs to the company of implementing and maintaining an employee recreation programme.

# Chapter Three

## Methodology

## Chapter Three Methodology

### 3.1 Introduction

This study involved selecting a number of Christchurch businesses to participate. A list of Christchurch companies was taken from *Management* magazine (December, 1989). The companies were among the top 250 listed and unlisted New Zealand companies which were operating as limited liability companies or tax paying corporations. Rankings were based on turnover, before tax profit, after tax profit, and total assets. Sixteen Christchurch-based companies were in the top 250 for 1989 (information on the number of employees each company had was also given). The 16 companies were chosen for the preliminary stage of the research.

#### 3.1.1 Limitation

The list of companies from *Management* magazine was used because the Ministry of Commerce, Department of Labour and Department of Statistics could not provide a list of all registered companies in Christchurch with the number of employees each company had (there are over 22,000 registered companies in Christchurch). The reason for wanting to know the number of employees was because companies with a small number of employees (e.g., one or two) were not suitable for this study.

### 3.2 Research Design

The main objective of this study was to investigate issues pertaining to employee recreation among executives and employees in Christchurch, New Zealand. Information was obtained from preliminary interviews with personnel managers from Christchurch companies and a questionnaire administered to executives and employees.

### 3.3 Preliminary Stage

Interviews were conducted with personnel managers from 15 of the top 16 Christchurch companies. The reason given by the personnel manager who did not wish to be interviewed was that he did not think employee recreation was important because there were too few employees (i.e., 40). It is interesting to note that this company took part in the final stage of the research.

Personnel managers were interviewed on their company premises. The companies were located in different areas of Christchurch city (e.g., Hornby, Halswell and Papanui). Interviews followed a semi-structured format. Questions were open ended, and the duration of interviews ranged from 25 minutes to 40 minutes.

Preliminary interviews had the following objectives:

1. To establish contact with each company,
2. To provide the opportunity for open comment on various issues pertaining to employee recreation,
3. To determine the total number of employees within each company,
4. To gather information on recreational activities organised within the organisation,
5. To determine whether organised activities are attended by employees/managers,
6. To determine what the benefits of employee recreation were perceived to be,
7. To elicit information on managers' views towards resource allocation to recreation,
8. To seek comment on the possible barriers to employee recreation,
9. To determine whether executives would be able to answer the types of questions asked and
10. To get an idea of whether companies would be willing to participate in the next stage of the research.

Each interview was recorded on cassette with the permission of the interviewee. Recordings were later transcribed. Transcriptions were used to develop and refine the questionnaire.

At the end of each interview, the prospect of conducting a survey among executives and employees was discussed with each personnel manager. All managers expressed an interest in the inclusion of their company in the final survey. Several stressed the need to keep a questionnaire short and concise for their employees and to specifically define terms that would be used.

The interviews revealed some interesting information about the state of recreation provision within companies. Some managers found it difficult to pin-point more than one or two

company and individual benefits. From the interviews and an extensive search of the literature, null hypotheses were compiled to test (see section 3.4).

While some studies have compared participants and non-participants in employee programmes (e.g., Rhodes and Dunwoody, 1980) others have compared results for gender and age groups. No previous perceptual studies comparing executive and employee views were found. It was thought that it would be interesting to test executive and employee, female and male employee and in a few cases employee age group responses to determine whether there are any differences in opinion.

### **3.4 Hypotheses**

1. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee participation in regular physical activity.
2. There will be no difference between executive and employee, between female and male employee or between employee age group interest in having more recreation opportunities available at the workplace.
3. There will be no difference between executive and employee, between female and male employee or between employee age group perceptions on who should organise recreational opportunities for employees.
4. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee perceptions on who would have the greatest influence to establish an employee recreation programme.
5. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee perceived participation in an employee recreation programme.
6. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee interest in obtaining information on how to establish an employee recreation programme.
7. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee perceptions of the personal barriers that would restrict participation in an employee recreation programme.
8. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee perceptions of the company factors that would hinder the development of an employee recreation programme.
9. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee opinions on the important personal benefits from employee recreation.



10. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee interest in obtaining information on the personal benefits of employee recreation.
11. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee perceptions of the company benefits which are likely to occur from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.
12. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee interest in obtaining information on the company benefits of employee recreation.
13. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee perceptions on whether a new recreation programme in the workplace is viewed as a perquisite (perk) for employees.
14. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee perceptions on whether employee recreation will be a passing fad.

### **3.5 Questionnaire Development Stage**

Information from the interviews was used to develop the questionnaire. The questionnaire was pilot tested among a group of employees, including the manager, of a private company in Christchurch. A number of post-graduate students and lecturers at Lincoln University also participated in the pilot test. Changes were made to the question format, answer categories and a few of the terms used in the questionnaire. Changes were also made to the cover letter. The following questions were considered to be important in the investigation of employee recreation (also see Appendix 4):

a) Demographic Information: Q. 1 - 4.

The first section of the questionnaire gathered information on company name and participants occupation, gender and age.

b) Organisation of Recreation: Q. 5 & 6.

This section asked subjects who they thought should predominantly organise recreational opportunities for employees. Subjects were also asked to give their opinion on who (in their company) would have the greatest influence to establish and employee recreation programme. Possible responses included: the managing director, managers and an organised employee group (e.g., social club).

c) Perceived Participation: Q. 7.

Information was sought on perceived participation in an employee recreation programme (i.e., would subjects participate in an employee recreation programme if their company had one?).

d) Personal Barriers: Q. 8 & 9.

Subjects were asked to indicate (from a list) what factors would restrict them from participating in an employee recreation programme.

e) Personal Benefits: Q. 10 & 11.

The objective of question 10 was to determine the level of executive and employee agreement with each of the personal benefits listed. A five-point Likert scale was used (i.e., Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, Strongly Disagree). A review of the use of Likert scales is found in Sellitz *et al.*, 1976. A 'Don't Know' category was included (but was not part of the scale). This category was developed from the pilot test stage and was used by some subjects instead of a forced answer. In question 11, subjects were asked to choose two personal benefits (from a list) which would be important to them.

f) Company Benefits: Q. 12 - 14.

This section investigated whether subjects participated regularly in physical activity and the perception of company benefits if more than half the employees in their company participated regularly. Question 13 includes the same five-point Likert scale used in question 10. The scale was used to determine the level of agreement with the company benefits of employee recreation. The objective of question 14 was to determine which of the possible company benefits were perceived as being most likely to occur from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

g) Perks and Fads: Q. 15 & 16.

Question 15 asked subjects if they thought a new recreation programme would be a perk for employees. In question 16, a definition of a 'fad' was given and subjects were asked to indicate whether they thought employee recreation would be a fad.

h) Company Barriers: Q. 17.

This question was designed to gather information on the factors which may be limiting company support for employee recreation. Categories included: the cost of establishing a programme, lack of space, a range of different interests among employees and not supported by managers.

i) General: Q. 18 - 23.

The main objectives of this section were to determine the interest in obtaining further information on company benefits, personal benefits and on how to establish an employee recreation programme.

The final question (23) was open ended and gave subjects an opportunity to make further comment on issues pertaining to employee recreation.

## **3.6 The Advantages and Disadvantages of the Mail Questionnaire**

Using mail surveys to collect information has many advantages over other research techniques. The main advantages and disadvantages of using questionnaires are listed below.

### **3.6.1 Advantages**

1. Subjects in the sample all receive the same questionnaire therefore there is no bias in the presentation.
2. The order of questions, wording and instructions are standardised.
3. Questionnaires can be administered to large numbers of individuals simultaneously. They can cover a wider area to obtain more information, than for example personal interviews (Sellitz, *et al.*, 1976).
4. Assurance of confidentiality and anonymity can be given in writing.
5. If respondents cannot be identified they may feel more comfortable about expressing views which might be potentially sensitive (Sellitz, *et al.*, 1976).
6. Questionnaires can be completed at a time convenient to the respondent (Simon and Burnstein, (1985).
7. Mail surveys are more economical to administer than other methods of collecting information, for example, personal interviews (Rollins, 1983).

### 3.6.2 Disadvantages

1. Questionnaire surveys often receive lower response rates than other survey techniques (Rollins, 1983).
2. Mail surveys assume uniform literacy and therefore may fail to attract those less literate in the sample.
3. Individuals with little or no interest in the topic often choose not to complete a questionnaire. It is sometimes difficult to judge whether respondents will be interested in research topics.
4. The researcher cannot control the environment under which respondents complete the questionnaire. For example, if the questionnaire from this study is completed in the work environment, answers may be biased by discussion of questions among co-workers.
5. Inadequate instructions in a questionnaire may result in unreliable answers.
6. Close ended questions in questionnaires generally do not allow for further probing (e.g., explanations) as to why respondents answer in the way they do.

## 3.7 Description of Sample Population

The sample population was stratified into two groups - company executives and employees (from the 11 companies which took part in the final stage of the research). Sample units were employed either full time, part time or on contract with the companies selected (the majority were full time). The sampling frames were i) a list of all employees within the 11 companies and ii) a list of all executives.

The criteria for sample selection was as follows.

### Executives

Each company was assessed individually to determine who the "executives" were.

Executives are upper level managers, including the first and second tiers in the organisational hierarchy. Some companies had two or three divisions in the second tier. The managing director of the company's Christchurch branch was also included in the executive group.

The personnel managers (who had already been interviewed) were excluded from the population to minimise selection bias. The total number of subjects in the executive group was 68.

## Employees

Employees in this study were defined as all those below the top two tiers in the organisational hierarchy (e.g., middle to lower management and other employees such as clerks, tellers and salespeople).

### **3.8 Sampling Procedure**

When the questionnaire had been refined, a letter was delivered to the managing directors of the initial 16 companies in the sample. The letter (See Appendix 2) asked for:

1. authorisation to conduct the survey with executives and employees from the company,
2. authorization to draw a random sample of employees from a staff list and
3. consent to use the personnel manager as a distribution and collection agent for questionnaires.

Four companies replied by mail. The other 12 were contacted by telephone two weeks after the letters had been delivered. There were 11 positive responses and five negative responses. The companies who did not want to participate, gave various reasons for their non-participation. One company manager stated that he had recently received other similar requests. He did not wish to burden his staff with additional questionnaires. Another company manager acknowledged that his staff had recently completed a comprehensive staff appraisal exercise. This required staff to complete a number of questionnaires. The manager did not wish to subject staff to another questionnaire so soon after its staff development exercise.

A third company, who did not wish to participate in the study, implied that staff would develop unrealistic expectations of the company and would want to know what recreational concessions were available to them. In this particular case, staff are eligible for concessions and privileges but only some know about them. (It is assumed that the company did not want their employees to know about the recreational benefits they were eligible for, for example, free ski passes at a skifield). Another company declined to participate in the research because "non-union labour has been exploited in the past". Also, the manager thought the questionnaire would instill expectations among employees, that the company could not and would not fulfil.

The fifth company declined to participate because the manager thought the research was not important enough to warrant the attention of staff. He did not wish to give staff any ideas about the possibility of the company supporting employee recreation.

The 11 companies who responded positively were contacted and a staff list was obtained from each. Although some personnel managers were reluctant to let a staff list off the company premises, confidentiality was assured. All eventually agreed to provide the staff list. The personnel managers identified the executives on the staff list, according to the set criteria. Executives' names were eliminated from the list of "employees" and were added to the list of "executives". Also, employees who had recently left the company were identified and were deleted from the staff list.

Employees were numbered from 1 to 1377 (the total number of employees from the 11 companies). Four hundred numbers within the range of 1 to 1377 were randomly selected using the random number generator function on Lotus 123 (a computer package). To obtain a representative sample of employees, random sampling is the method which produces least selection bias. Random sampling was considered most appropriate for this research because employees in the population had an equal chance of being selected.

The executive sample was a purposive sample. In a purposive sample the researcher believes representatives are typical of the sample population. In this case, subjects were chosen for the research because they are representative of company executives in Christchurch. Most companies had between five and nine executives. Further information on purposive samples can be obtained from Sellitz (*et al.*, 1976).

Initially, an introductory letter was sent to the 68 executives and 400 employees (i.e., before they received their questionnaire). Questionnaires were then delivered to executives and employees (letters and questionnaires were delivered in bundles to the personnel manager of each company who then distributed them through the company's internal mail system). A date for when the questionnaire was due back was stated on the cover letter. Subjects were given seven working days to complete and return their questionnaire. To improve the response rate (number of questionnaires returned), the following techniques were used:

1. An introductory letter (See Appendix 3) was delivered to subjects before they received the questionnaire. As suggested by Rollins (1983) pre-contact with subjects before they receive the questionnaire is an effective means of improving response rates in recreation surveys. The letter informed them that:
  - They had been selected to take part in the research.
  - Their responses would be confidential.
  - They could enter a draw for one of four \$50 cash prizes.
  - They should watch their internal mail within the next few days for the questionnaire.
2. Confidentiality and anonymity were assured.
3. The introductory letter, questionnaire and follow-up letter were printed on coloured paper (blue for executives and a cream/orange colour for employees - see appendices 3, 4 and 5).
4. A cover letter (on Lincoln University letter head) was included with the questionnaire.
5. All letters to subjects (i.e., introductory, cover letter and follow-up letter) were personally signed as was the questionnaire.
6. Letters and envelopes were addressed by hand with the subject's name and company.
7. The questionnaire was relatively short (23 questions) with clear instructions.
8. A return envelope was enclosed with the questionnaire. The name of the person to whom the questionnaire was to be returned to (i.e., the personnel manager) was written on the envelope.

After the questionnaires had been collected, follow up letters were delivered to those who had not responded. Many subjects had completed the tear off slip on the last page (i.e., the prize entry form) and this proved to be a good way of checking who had not returned their questionnaire. Also, executive questionnaires were numbered from 1-48 and employee

questionnaires were numbered 1-261 (this was so that individual questionnaires could be traced once the information had been entered into the data set for analysis).

A random draw for four questionnaires (from all those who had completed the slip on the back of their questionnaire) was conducted to allocate the four \$50 incentive prizes. A letter and a cheque was sent to each winner via their personnel manager. One of the winners wanted his prize (if he was successful) donated to his company social club. In this case, the \$50 was sent to the personnel manager to be forwarded to the social club president.

### **3.9 Data Analysis**

Questionnaires were manually coded in numeric form. The executive data was entered onto one data set and the employee data onto another. The statistical package SAS was used to conduct data analysis. The dependent variables for employee data are age and gender. Due to the small number of executives, age and gender were not used for analysis of executive data.

Descriptive statistics (percentages and frequencies) were obtained and are presented in Chapter four. Chi-square tests were conducted on some of the data to compare executive/employee responses, male/female responses and in a few cases, age group responses. Numbers (e.g., percentages) were rounded up or down, usually to two decimal places. Mean scores and standard deviations were calculated from data collected on the Likert scales.

### **3.10 The Likert Scale**

Likert scales are frequently used in studies of social attitudes. Likert scales were used in this research to ascertain differences in the extent to which executives and employees agreed or disagreed with the personal and company benefits of employee recreation. The question was "How much do you agree/disagree with this statement?" and was stated in the instructions above the scale. Using a Likert scale produced the distribution of subjects views in terms of the how favourable attitudes were toward a given company or personal benefit.

Six choices were available (i.e., Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, Strongly Disagree and Don't Know) for each statement. A "Don't Know" category was used so that respondents would not be forced into an answer. It was also used to minimise the number of



respondents who did not answer the question. The "Don't Know" column was used by several respondents, indicating that answers could have been slightly biased if it had not been used.

A numerical value was assigned to each response (except for the "Don't Know" responses) to calculate mean scores for each benefit statement. The mean score for each statement was determined by multiplying the number of responses in each category (SA, A, N, D, SD) by the coded number for each category then adding the totals. The total score was then divided by the number of respondents who answered. For example, the five categories were assigned the following scores:

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)

The Likert scale is based on the assumption that the mean score for all responses reflects a reasonably good measure of the variable (e.g., the company benefit). The mean scores were calculated to show which statements respondents tended to agree with, which they tended to have a neutral stance on and which they disagreed with. A properly conducted Likert-type scale has several advantages over other scales. The reliability of a scale increases as the number of possible alternative responses increase.

### 3.11 Reliability

Although a pilot test was conducted on the questionnaire, no reliability test was done. It is suggested that in future studies a reliability test be conducted on the instrument used to gather information.

One possible source of error in the instrument was the terminology used. The definition of "regular participation" could have been a source of unreliability. Some respondents may not have fully understood the definition (e.g., what "moderate to heavy intensity" meant).

Ambiguous questions can be a source of error.

Although the idea of physical activity was portrayed in the definition of employee recreation, some respondents may have been confused, especially if they did not read the definition of employee recreation which was given. Although the term "employee fitness" was not used in the questionnaire, respondents may have assumed that "employee recreation" had the same meaning.

It is important to use consistent terminology in a questionnaire. The terms "employees" and "staff" were used interchangeably (this was not intentional). One source of error relating to terminology could have been in the questions on the organisation of recreational opportunities. For example, in one question the term "executives" was used, and in the following question "managers" was used. Some employees may have thought that "managers" were lower in the organisation's hierarchy than "executives". Others may have thought that "executives" and "managers" referred to the same people.

Also on the issue of organising recreation, rather than giving the example of a "consultant" as being a private organiser from outside the company, a more appropriate example would be "a private gym facility" or the specific name of a private facility such as "Total Fitness".

In asking respondents to indicate their perceived participation and current participation, the questions and the method of answering could have been more reliable. One way to make the data collected from these two questions more reliable is to ask a question similar to "How many times each week do you participate in physical activity of moderate to heavy intensity for 35 minutes or more each time?" To measure the level of involvement, the answer categories could be 1 2 3 4 5+, rather than the YES/NO format that was used in the questionnaire for this study. More reliable information could be obtained based on the number of times each week, rather than measuring perceived and current participation based on a definition of "regular participation".

To improve the reliability of information gathered on the Likert Scale, a definition of "Neutral" should be given. Some respondents may have answered "Neutral" when they should have answered "Don't Know" or visa versa.

There are also some other reasons that can contribute to the unreliability of an instrument. These include respondent fatigue, emotional strain and time constraints. Unreliability creates an instrumentation bias, a source of internal invalidity.

## **3.12 Validity**

The validity of the instrument can be assessed in terms of whether the questions measured what they were intended to measure. In terms of content validity, the questionnaire was pilot tested and was successful in obtaining the information required (i.e., it measured the objectives set). The questionnaire was designed with the characteristics of the 11 companies in mind. The low amount of 'missing' data from the returned questionnaires is perhaps a reflection that subjects found the questions relevant and could answer them.

It could well be that executives and employees from companies which are not in the top rankings for New Zealand could have different views toward employee recreation than the respondents in this study had. To test the instrumentation for concurrent validity, this study could be conducted again in another city (e.g., Wellington) and within other companies. The instrument used may have worked well for the Christchurch population but if used in another study (e.g., in another city), it may not yield the same information.

### **3.12.1 External Validity**

External validity is the generalisability of results to other populations. As this study was intended to be a pilot study, the level of external validity would be low due to the size of samples. The results from the employee sample could be used to generalise about the Christchurch workforce.

The executive sample (48) is representative of the companies involved in the study. Results would have low validity if they were generalised to a larger population of executives due to the small number of executives in the sample.

The 29.40% of executives and 34.75% of employees who did not return the questionnaire may have different opinions on employee recreation to those who did respond. To determine why individuals did not return questionnaires, a questionnaire could be sent to all the non-respondents to determine the reason/s why they did not return their questionnaire.

One of the weaknesses of the study was that the companies involved were predominantly large. Although one company had five employees, the others had between 15 and 362 employees with three companies having over 300 employees. To gather information from small companies, a study could be conducted among companies with, for example, less than 50 employees or less than 20 employees. In contrast, to gather information from a number of large companies, a study could be conducted among companies with more than 300 employees.

From the initial 16 companies chosen to take part in the research, five did not take part in the final survey. This is a drop-out rate of approximately 30%. The results would have had greater validity if all 16 companies had chosen to participate.

### **3.12.2 Internal Validity**

In this case study of Christchurch companies, there are a number of factors, aside from instrumentation bias, which could affect the internal validity of data collection. The factors are the selection, mortality, history and maturation of subjects. In future research designs these issues should be taken into consideration as they are sources of invalidity. To follow, the techniques used to minimise and eliminate sources of invalidity in this study are outlined.

### **3.12.3 Sources of Invalidity and Techniques Used to Minimise Them**

Selection bias is minimised in this case by the diversity of companies and company sizes. Although the companies from which the samples of employees and executives were taken were not randomly selected, they are considered to be a representative sample of private sector companies in Christchurch. In order to get subjects from diverse occupations and income brackets, a random sample of employees was taken. The staff lists were adjusted up to the date when sampling was conducted (i.e., if employees had left the company). Lists were checked to ensure that names had not been duplicated. The selection of executives is not random (but they are considered to be representatives of the sample required).

Mortality of subjects occurred in this research. In the time between getting the current staff list and sending out questionnaires, 14 of the subjects selected for the employee sample had left their company (e.g., resigned). To minimise the chance of mortality occurring, the time

spent conducting the random selection of employees and distributing the questionnaires (to employees and employers) was as short as possible.

The longer the time lapse between subjects receiving the questionnaire and completing it, the more chance there is of data being affected by history bias. From the time subjects received the questionnaire, to the time they completed it, they may have become more knowledgeable on the subject (e.g., if they saw an overseas television programme or a video on employee recreation programmes, or read a magazine article on the benefits of fitness). This can bias results because answers may have been different if the respondent had not seen the programme or had not read the article. In order to minimise the chance of a history bias occurring, a period of seven working days was specified for completing and returning the questionnaire.

Older people tend to be less physically active and their views may be affected by their age (e.g., Rees, 1986). This has been taken into consideration and in a few cases, data was analysed to compare views of the age groups specified.

The researcher had no control over where subjects completed their questionnaire (i.e., at work or at home). If subjects completed the questionnaire at work, there is the chance that they may have discussed issues with other staff. Also, it is not known if the respondent chosen completed the questionnaire or whether someone else did. To overcome this, personal interviews could be used to collect data instead of questionnaires.

# Chapter Four

## Results

## Chapter Four Results

### 4.1 Response Rate

Executives and employees from 11 Christchurch companies participated in the survey. Four hundred questionnaires were sent to employees and 68 to executives. The response rates (Table 4.1) were 70.60% from the executives and 65.25% from employees.

**Table 4.1** Questionnaire response rates

	EXECUTIVES		EMPLOYEES	
	n	%	n	%
Returned Unanswered	2	2.90	14	3.50
Returned Answered	48	70.60	261	65.25
Unreturned	18	26.50	125	31.25
Total Administered	68	100	400	100

The two "returned unanswered" questionnaires from executives were due to individuals having no spare time to complete the questionnaire. The two main reasons given by personnel managers for executives not returning the questionnaire (i.e., "unreturned") were: i) "On a business trip" (out of town), and ii) "Too busy". One interesting outcome from the executive group was that eight out of 11 managing directors of companies (i.e., the top executive), returned a completed questionnaire.

The "returned unanswered" employee questionnaires were from people who had: i) left the company since the sampling list was obtained or ii) thought they were not suitable to complete the questionnaire (e.g., one respondent wrote a note stating that he thought he was too old to complete the questionnaire). The following two tables, 4.2 and 4.3, present the number of respondents in the executive and employee age groups.

## 4.2 Respondent Characteristics - Age and Gender

**Table 4.2** Analysis of executives by age

	< 30 Years	30 - 49 Years	50 + Years	Total Returns
n	4	40	4	48
%	8.33	83.33	8.33	100

The majority of executive respondents are in the 30 - 49 year age group. Due to the small number of executives (48), age and gender were not used to conduct cross-tabulations of data. Table 4.3 illustrates the numbers of employees in each age group.

**Table 4.3** Analysis of employees by age

	< 30 Years	30 - 49 Years	50 + Years	Total Returns
n	100	115	43	258
%	38.76	44.57	16.67	100

\* N.b. Three employees did not specify age.

The group of employees with the least number of respondents is the 50+ years age group. In the following tables, employee data is used for cross-tabulations with gender and age. Data from the three employees who did not state their age could not be used when analysis by age was conducted. Table 4.4 presents the analysis of respondent gender.



**Table 4.4**      **Analysis of samples by gender**

	<b>EXECUTIVES</b>		<b>EMPLOYEES</b>	
	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Females</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>8.33</b>	<b>129</b>	<b>49.81</b>
<b>Males</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>91.67</b>	<b>130</b>	<b>50.19</b>
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>259</b>	<b>100</b>

\*N.b. Two employees did not specify gender.

Within the executive sample, there are four women. This reflects the low numbers of women in executive positions within these companies. The occupation titles which the executive women gave were: Group Financial Controller, Sales Executive, Credit Manager, and Group Accountant. Three of the female executives are in the 30-49 year age group and the fourth is less than 30 years.

Table 4.4 indicates that the numbers of female and male employees are almost the same (i.e., 129 females and 130 males).

### **4.3      Organising Recreational Opportunities for Employees**

Information was collected from respondents about their current level of physical activity, whether they would like more recreational opportunities available at the workplace, who they think should organise recreation for employees and their perceived participation in an employee recreation programme.

### 4.3.1 Current Participation in Physical Activity

Table 4.5 illustrates that half the executive sample participated regularly in physical activity (four executives mentioned in the open question at the end of the questionnaire that they were involved in a fitness programme at a gym).

**Table 4.5** Executive and employee participation in regular physical activity.

DO YOU PARTICIPATE ?	EXECUTIVES		EMPLOYEES	
	n	%	n	%
Yes	24	50.00	104	40.31
No	24	50.00	154	59.69
TOTAL (n)	48	100	258	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
1.56	1	$p < 0.05$ (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject Ho

There is no significant difference between executive and employee participation in physical activity, as indicated from the chi-square analysis. Fifty percent of the executives and 59.69% of employees do not take part in physical activity of moderate to heavy intensity at least three times weekly for 35 minutes each time. The analysis of female and male employee participation is presented in Table 4.6.

**Table 4.6** Female and male employee participation in regular physical activity.

DO YOU PARTICIPATE ?	FEMALES		MALES	
	n	%	n	%
Yes	47	37.00	55	42.64
No	80	63.00	74	57.36
TOTAL (n)	127	100	129	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
0.85	1	$p < 0.05$ (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject Ho

The chi-square analysis in Table 4.6 indicates there is no significant difference between female and male participation in regular physical activity. Results illustrate that the majority of both female and male employees do not take part in physical activity of moderate to heavy intensity at least three times a week for 35 minutes each time.

The results in Tables 4.5 and 4.6 reveal a high level of participation by executives and employees in comparison to other recreation studies of New Zealand adults (e.g., Dahya, 1981; Hillary Commission for Recreation and Sport, 1988). Although this level of participation in physical activity is higher than in other studies, there are still a large number of individuals who are not regularly active (i.e., at least three times a week), especially among employees (almost 60% of the employee sample are not regularly active).

This level of inactivity should be of concern to employers who demand high work performance from staff because employees who are not regularly active may not be performing at the optimal level of work performance. It would be of interest to determine how many respondents participated once or twice a week in physical activity.

### 4.3.2 Availability of Recreation Opportunities

On the topic of the availability of recreation, respondents were asked to indicate whether they would like more recreation opportunities available at their workplace. It can be seen from Table 4.7 that the majority of respondents indicated they would like more recreation opportunities available to them.

**Table 4.7 Executive and employee interest in having more recreation opportunities available at the workplace.**

MORE REC'N OPPORTUNITIES ?	EXECUTIVES		EMPLOYEES	
	n	%	n	%
Yes	28	58.33	186	72.94
No	20	41.67	69	27.06
TOTAL (n)	48	100	255	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
4.16	1	$p < 0.05$ (Significant)	Reject $H_0$

The chi-squared value in Table 4.7 (4.16) indicates there is a significant difference between executive and employee interest on this issue. Executives and employees have shown a marked interest in having more recreation opportunities available to them at their workplaces. Respondents who indicated they were not interested, were not asked for an explanation as to why they were not interested. Comparisons between employee gender and age groups are presented in Table 4.8 and Table 4.9.

**Table 4.8** Female and male employee interest in having more recreation opportunities available at the workplace.

MORE REC'N OPPORTUNITIES ?	FEMALES		MALES	
	n	%	n	%
Yes	90	71.43	94	74.02
No	36	28.57	33	25.98
TOTAL (n)	126	100	127	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
0.21	1	$p < 0.05$ (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject Ho

There is no significant difference between female and male employee interest on this issue. The majority in both groups indicated their preference for the availability of more work-based recreational opportunities. To determine if there is any difference in opinion between the employee age groups, analysis was conducted on the three employee age groups, as summarised in Table 4.9.

**Table 4.9 Employee age group interest in having more recreation opportunities available at the workplace.**

MORE REC'N OPPORTUNITIES?	< 30 YEARS		30-49 YEARS		50 + YEARS	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Yes	75	76.53	81	71.68	26	65.00
No	23	23.47	32	28.32	14	35.00
TOTAL (n)	98	100	113	100	40	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
1.97	2	$p < 0.05$ (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject Ho

There is no significant difference between the three employee age groups on the issue of having more recreation opportunities available in the workplace. Table 4.9 illustrates that a majority of the employees in each of the three age groups would like to have more recreation opportunities available to them.

### 4.3.3 Who Should Organise Recreation?

One of the objectives of this study was to collect information on who executives and employees think should organise recreation for staff. Executive and employee views on who should predominantly organise recreational opportunities (which emphasise improvement or maintenance of personal fitness) for employees are presented in Table 4.10. Organiser options are ranked according to the frequency of responses each received.

**Table 4.10** Executive and employee perceptions of who should predominantly organise recreation opportunities for employees.

WHO SHOULD ORGANISE?	EXECUTIVES			EMPLOYEES		
	n	%	Rank Order	n	%	Rank Order
Company executives	1	2.08	6	1	0.38	6
Executives and employees	16	33.33	2	81	31.03	2
Organised employee group	18	37.50	1	110	42.15	1
Employees only	9	18.75	3	21	8.05	4
Employee union/s	0	0.0	7	1	0.38	6
Private organiser	2	4.17	4	35	13.41	3
Other	2	4.17	4	12	4.60	5
<b>TOTAL (n)</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>	<b>261</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
9.97	6	$p < 0.05$ (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject $H_0$

\* N.b. The third option was worded "An organised employee group (e.g., social club)" and second to last option was worded "A private organiser from outside the company (e.g., consultant)".

The chi-square value (9.97) reveals that there is no significant difference between executive and employee opinions on this issue. The two most frequently reported responses among executives and employees are an "organised employee group" (e.g., social club) and "executives and employees". The least popular choices among respondents are "employee union/s" and "company executives".

As can be seen in Table 4.10, one of the options given to respondents is "Other".

Respondents who chose this option were asked to specify who (aside from the options listed) they thought should organise recreational opportunities for employees. The 'personnel manager' and the 'personnel department' were specified most frequently. A summary of female and male employee results is presented in Table 4.11.

**Table 4.11** Female and male employee perceptions of who should predominantly organise recreation opportunities for employees.

WHO SHOULD ORGANISE?	FEMALES			MALES		
	n	%	Rank Order	n	%	Rank Order
Company executives	0	0.0	7	1	0.77	6
Executives and employees	39	30.23	2	41	31.54	2
Organised employee group	61	47.29	1	48	36.92	1
Employees only	11	8.53	4	10	7.69	4
Employee union/s	1	0.77	6	0	0.0	7
Private organiser	12	9.30	3	23	17.69	3
Other	5	3.88	5	7	5.38	5
<b>TOTAL (n)</b>	<b>129</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>	<b>130</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
7.43	6	$p < 0.05$ (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject Ho

\* N.b. The third option was worded "An organised employee group (e.g., social club)" and second to last option was worded "A private organiser from outside the company (e.g., consultant)".

There is no significant difference between female and male opinions on who should organise recreational opportunities for employees. The options reported most frequently are an "organised employee group" (e.g., social club) and "executives and employees". From a total of 259 employees only one thought that "company executives" should predominantly organise recreational opportunities, and one thought "employee unions". The results clearly show that employees do not think either of these two should predominantly organise recreational opportunities for employees. Results from the analysis of employee age groups are presented in Table 4.12.



**Table 4.12 Employee age group perceptions of who should predominantly organise recreation opportunities for employees.**

WHO SHOULD ORGANISE?		EMPLOYEE AGE					
		< 30 Years	Rank	30-49 Years	Rank	50 + Years	Rank
Company executives	n %	0 0.00	7	1 0.88	6	0 0.00	6
Executives and employees	n %	35 35.00	2	30 26.32	2	14 32.56	2
An organised employee group	n %	46 46.00	1	43 37.72	1	20 46.51	1
Employees only	n %	9 9.00	3	9 7.89	4	2 4.65	4
Employee union/s	n %	1 1.00	6	0 0.00	7	0 0.00	6
Private organiser	n %	4 4.00	5	25 21.93	3	6 13.95	3
Other	n %	5 5.00	4	6 5.26	5	1 2.33	5
TOTAL (n) (%)	n %	100 100	.	114 100	.	43 100	.

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
19.50	12	p < 0.10 (Significant)	Reject Ho

\* N.b. The third option was worded "An organised employee group (e.g., social club)" and second to last option was worded "A private organiser from outside the company (e.g., consultant)".

The chi-squared test was conducted for female and male employees as one group (i.e., all employees less than 30 years, all employees 30-49 years and all in the 50+ age group) and there is a significant difference between the three age groups. The difference between the groups on a "private organiser" could contribute to the significant chi-square value (19.50). Although the majority of respondents in the three age groups would rather have "an organised employee group" (e.g., social club) or "executives and employees" to organise recreation opportunities, a larger proportion in the 30-49 years group than the < 30 years group and 50+ age group indicated a "private organiser". While statistically significant, it appears there is not a major difference between the groups (the numbers of respondents who chose the other options are similar between the three age groups).

#### 4.3.4 Who Has the Greatest Influence to Establish an Employee Recreation Programme?

On the topic of organising recreation, respondents were asked to specify who, in their company (in Christchurch), would have the greatest influence to establish a planned, structured employee recreation programme aimed at improving or maintaining the personal fitness of employees. It can be observed from Table 4.13 that the most frequently reported option from the executives is "the managing director" (37.50%), and from the employees is "employees and managers" (42.09%).

**Table 4.13** Executive and employee perceptions of who would have the greatest influence to establish an employee recreation programme.

GREATEST INFLUENCE?	EXECUTIVES			EMPLOYEES		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
The managing director	18	37.50	1	35	13.51	3
Managers	4	8.33	5	31	11.97	4
Employees	6	12.50	4	17	6.56	5
Organised employee group	8	16.67	2	57	22.01	2
Employees and managers	8	16.67	2	109	42.09	1
Other	4	8.33	5	10	3.86	6
TOTAL (n)	48	100	.	259	100	.

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
25.06	5	$p < 0.01$ (Significant)	Reject $H_0$

\* N.b. The fourth option was worded "An organised employee group (e.g., social club)".

The chi-squared test reveals there is a significant difference between executive and employee views on who would have the greatest influence to establish an employee recreation programme. The two options which possibly contribute to the statistical

significance are "the managing director (in Christchurch)" and "employees and managers". A higher percentage of executives than employees indicated "the managing director" would have the greatest influence to establish a programme. In contrast, a higher percentage of employees than executives indicated "employees and managers" would have the greatest influence. An analysis of employee gender was also conducted to establish whether there would be a difference between female and male views on who would have the greatest influence to establish an employee recreation programme. Results are presented in the following table.

**Table 4.14** Female and male employee perceptions of who would have the greatest influence to establish an employee recreation programme.

GREATEST INFLUENCE?	FEMALES			MALES		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
The managing director	10	7.81	5	25	19.38	2
Managers	13	10.16	3	18	13.95	4
Employees	13	10.16	3	4	3.10	6
Organised employee group	33	25.78	2	23	17.83	3
Employees and managers	54	42.19	1	54	41.86	1
Other	5	3.91	6	5	3.88	5
TOTAL (n)	128	100	.	129	100	.

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
13.78	5	$p < 0.05$ (Significant)	Reject Ho

\* N.b. The fourth option was worded "An organised employee group (e.g., social club)".

The chi-squared value presented (Table 4.14) indicates there is a significant difference between female and male employee opinions on this issue. The most frequent choice from respondents is "employees and managers". A higher percentage of male employees, than female, chose "the managing director". A higher percentage of females, than males,

indicated "employees" and "an organised employee group (e.g., social club)". These three statements appear to be the major contribution to the significant difference between female and male views.

#### 4.3.5 Perceived Participation in an Employee Recreation Programme

Respondents were asked to indicate whether they would take part in an employee recreation programme which aimed to improve or maintain personal fitness (if the company provided a programme). Executive and employee responses are presented in Table 4.15.

**Table 4.15** Executive and employee perceived participation in an employee recreation programme.

WOULD YOU PARTICIPATE?	EXECUTIVES		EMPLOYEES	
	n	%	n	%
Yes	23	50.00	136	53.12
No	23	50.00	120	46.88
TOTAL (n)	46	100	256	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
0.15	1	$p < 0.05$ (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject $H_0$

There is no significant difference between the perceived participation of executives and employees in an employee recreation programme. Fifty percent of the executives indicated they would participate and 53.12% of the employees indicated they would participate in a company programme at least three times weekly. Respondents who answered NO were not asked for an explanation as to why they would not participate. A summary of the results from the analysis of employee gender are presented in Table 4.16.

**Table 4.16** Female and male employee perceived participation in an employee recreation programme.

WOULD YOU PARTICIPATE?	FEMALES		MALES	
	n	%	n	%
Yes	62	49.60	72	56.25
No	63	50.40	56	43.75
TOTAL	125	100	128	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
1.12	1	$p < 0.05$ (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject $H_0$

The chi-square value indicates there is no significant difference between female and male employee perceived participation in an employee recreation programme. Similar percentages of female and male employees indicated they would participate in a company programme.

### 4.3.6 Perceived X Current Participation

A cross-tabulation of the perceived and current participation of executives/employees and female/male employees was conducted. The results give an indication of whether respondents who are not currently active on a regular basis would become regularly active with the introduction of an employee recreation programme.

#### 4.3.6.1 Executive Participation

Fifty percent of the executives indicated they currently participate regularly in physical activity. Of this 50%, 52.18% indicated they would participate regularly in an employee recreation programme and 47.82% said they would not participate.

Of the 50% who do not participate in regular physical activity, 47.82% indicated they would take part regularly in an employee recreation programme if the company provided one, while 52.18% indicated they would remain non-participants. Although the executive sample does not have a high number of respondents (48), over half those who are currently active indicated they would regularly participate in a company programme and almost half of the non-participants said they would commence participation in an employee recreation programme if one was provided.

#### **4.3.6.2 Employee Participation**

Among the employee group, 40.23% currently participate in regular physical activity. Of the 40.23%, 62.14% indicated they would participate regularly in an employee recreation programme if the company provided one while 37.86% indicated they would not.

Of the 59.77% of employees who are not currently involved in regular physical activity, 47.06% indicated they would participate at least three times weekly in an employee recreation programme while 52.94% indicated they would not participate in an employee recreation programme.

To summarise, results indicate that a significant proportion of executives and employees who are not regular participants in physical activity would commence regular participation. Also, a good proportion of those already regularly involved in physical activity would regularly attend an employee recreation programme if one was provided. Results from the cross tabulation appear to be encouraging from the point of view of establishing an employee recreation programme, relative to executive and employee participation.

#### **4.3.7 Interest in Information on Establishing a Programme**

Respondents were asked if they would be interested in obtaining information on how to establish an employee recreation programme within their company. Table 4.17 illustrates that the majority of executives and employees appear interested in obtaining information if it was available.

**Table 4.17** Executive and employee interest in obtaining information on how to establish an employee recreation programme.

INTERESTED ?	EXECUTIVES		EMPLOYEES	
	n	%	n	%
Yes	30	71.43	130	53.94
No	12	28.57	111	46.06
TOTAL (n)	42	100	241	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
4.45	1	$p < 0.05$ (Significant)	Reject Ho

There is a significant difference between executive and employee interest. As can be seen in Table 4.17, a higher percentage of executives than employees showed interest in obtaining information on how to establish an employee recreation programme within their organisation. A summary of female and male employee responses is presented in Table 4.18.

**Table 4.18** Female and male employee interest in obtaining information on how to establish an employee recreation programme.

INTERESTED ?	FEMALES		MALES	
	n	%	n	%
Yes	65	58.56	63	50.00
No	46	41.44	63	50.00
TOTAL (n)	111	100	126	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
1.74	1	$p < 0.05$ (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject Ho

The chi-square analysis shows there is no significant difference between female and male employee interest in obtaining information. It can be seen that 58.56% of the female employees and 50.00% of males would like to obtain information if it was available.

## **4.4 Barriers to the Development of Employee Recreation**

### **4.4.1 Personal Barriers**

Respondents were asked to indicate the personal barrier they considered to be most influential in restricting their participation in employee recreation. A list of 12 possible barriers was presented to the respondents. A complete list of these barriers can be found in Appendix 4.

From the list of personal barriers, respondents were asked to tick the statements which applied to them. From the options ticked, respondents were then asked to choose which single factor would "most" restrict their participation (for those who ticked one option, this one was the one which they thought would "most" restrict their participation). Executive/employee and female/male employee responses are presented in Table 4.19 and Table 4.20. The personal barrier reported most frequently by executives and employees and by female and male employees is that they are already involved in fitness activities outside work.



**Table 4.19** Executive and employee perceptions of the personal barrier which would "most" restrict participation in an employee recreation programme.

	EXECUTIVES			EMPLOYEES		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
I do not like the activities that might be offered	4	8.70	4	17	6.77	5
I have a short term injury	0	0.0	9	3	1.19	10
I have a long term injury	2	4.35	6	8	3.19	7
I have short term sickness	0	0.0	9	1	0.40	11
I have long term sickness	1	2.17	7	8	3.19	7
The cost of participating would be too expensive	0	0.0	9	28	11.15	4
I do not wish to take part in recreation with work staff	4	8.70	4	15	5.98	6
I am fit enough already	1	2.17	7	4	1.59	9
I have no time for fitness classes	11	23.91	2	45	17.93	3
I do not want to be fit	0	0.0	9	0	0.0	12
I am already involved in fitness activities outside work	16	34.78	1	71	28.29	1
None of the above	7	15.22	3	51	20.32	2
<b>TOTAL (n)</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>	<b>251</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
8.70	10	$p < 0.05$ (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject Ho

\* N.b. The sixth option was worded "I think that the personal monetary cost of participating would be too expensive".

**Table 4.20** Female and male employee perceptions of the personal barrier which would "most" restrict participation in an employee recreation programme.

	FEMALES			MALES		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
I do not like the activities that might be offered	8	6.40	5	9	7.26	4
I have a short term injury	0	0.0	9	3	2.42	10
I have a long term injury	3	2.40	7	5	4.03	8
I have short term sickness	1	0.80	8	0	0.0	11
I have long term sickness	0	0.0	9	8	6.45	5
The cost of participating would be too expensive	20	16.00	4	8	6.45	5
I do not wish to take part in recreation with work staff	8	6.40	5	7	5.64	7
I am fit enough already	0	0.0	9	4	3.23	9
I have no time for fitness classes	25	20.00	2	20	16.13	3
I do not want to be fit	0	0.0	9	0	0.0	11
I am already involved in fitness activities outside work	37	29.60	1	32	25.81	1
None of the above	23	18.40	3	28	22.58	2
<b>TOTAL (n)</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>	<b>124</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
23.17	10	p < 0.02 (Significant)	Reject Ho

\* N.b. The sixth option was worded "I think that the personal monetary cost of participating would be too expensive".

#### **4.4.1.1 Executive and Employee Personal Barriers**

The chi-square analysis in Table 4.19 illustrates there is no significant difference between executive and employee perceptions on their personal barriers to participation. It can be seen from Table 4.19 that the top three ranked personal barriers for executives and employees are "I am already involved in fitness activities outside work", "I have no time for fitness classes" and "none of the above". A reasonable proportion of executives and employees indicated they had no time for fitness classes (23.91% and 17.93% respectively). Another study on executives (Dahya, 1986) found that lack of time is a major constraint on executive participation in recreation.

The option "none of the above" meant that none of the statements listed would restrict participation. Among the employee group (Table 4.19), 20.32% thought that none of the factors listed would restrict their participation. This is an important finding because it could mean that there are other factors that could restrict participation. For example, three employees who indicated "none of the above" wrote alongside their answer that travel to and from the location would probably restrict their participation. Another respondent indicated that if his wife could participate in the company programme he would participate.

A small percentage of employees (11.15%) chose the option "the cost of participating would be too expensive" as being the most restricting factor to participation. The results indicate that personal cost is one of the minor deterrents. Executives and employees may have a perception of low cost which may not be true.

It can be seen from Table 4.19, the factors which least restrict executive and employee participation are health related (i.e., injury and sickness). A small percentage of executives and employees (i.e., 8.70% and 6.77%) indicated they did not like the types of activities that might be offered. No respondents indicated they did not want to be fit, indicating that the attitude of "I do not want to be fit" is not one of the main barriers to participation in an employee recreation programme.

#### **4.4.1.2 Female and Male Personal Barriers**

Table 4.20 contains a comparison of female and male employee perceptions of the most restricting personal factor to participation in an employee recreation programme. There is a significant difference between female and male employee perceptions on this issue. Female

employees indicated "the cost of participating would be too expensive" more frequently than males as the factor that would most restrict participation (i.e., 16.00% vs. 6.45%). This could contribute to the significant difference between female and male perceptions of the most restricting factor to their participation.

The factors which are ranked in the top three are "I am already involved in fitness activities outside work" (this was indicated most frequently), "I have no time for fitness classes" and "none of the above". It is to be noted that 20.00% of the females indicated they "have no time for fitness classes", as did 16.13% of the males.

#### **4.4.2 Company Barriers**

One of the objectives of this study was to investigate company barriers hindering the development of an employee recreation programme. A list of eight possible company related hindrances was presented and respondents were asked to select the "most" and "second most" hindering factors to the development of a programme within their company. Table 4.21 presents the results on the "most" hindering factors, as indicated by executives and employees.

**Table 4.21 Executive and employee perceptions of the company factor which would "most" hinder the development of an employee recreation programme.**

	EXECUTIVES			EMPLOYEES		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
Cost of establishing programme	6	12.50	4	91	35.27	1
Lack of space	9	18.75	3	35	13.57	4
Range of interests among staff	12	25.00	1	52	20.16	2
Not supported by managers	5	10.42	5	14	5.43	6
Not supported by employees	4	8.33	6	24	9.30	5
High employee turnover	0	0.0	7	4	1.55	7
Involvement in own interests	12	25.00	1	37	14.34	3
Too few employees	0	0.0	7	1	0.39	8
<b>TOTAL (n)</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>	<b>258</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
13.30	7	$p < 0.10$ (Significant)	Reject Ho

\* N.b The third option was worded "A range of different interests among employees", and the second to last option was "Many employees are involved in their own recreation interests".

There is a significant difference between executive and employee perceptions of the "most" hindering company factor. Executives indicated "a range of different interests among employees" and "many employees are involved in their own recreation interests" most frequently. In contrast, the most frequently reported hindrance from employees was the "cost of establishing a programme". The difference between executive and employee opinions on "many employees are involved in their own recreation interests" and "cost of establishing a programme" and could account for the significant chi-square. Lack of space is also viewed to be a hindrance to the development of an employee recreation programme.

After respondents had indicated which factor they thought was "most" hindering, they were asked to indicate which factor they thought was of "second most" hindrance. Table 4.22 illustrates respondent views.

**Table 4.22 Executive and employee perceptions of the company factor which would "second most" hinder the development of an employee recreation programme.**

	EXECUTIVES			EMPLOYEES		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
Cost of establishing programme	7	14.58	4	31	12.30	3
Lack of space	4	8.33	5	28	11.11	4
Range of interests among staff	10	20.83	2	49	19.44	2
Not supported by managers	3	6.25	6	26	10.32	5
Not supported by employees	8	16.67	3	25	9.92	6
High employee turnover	0	0.0	8	3	1.19	7
Involvement in own interests	14	29.17	1	87	34.52	1
Too few employees	2	4.17	7	3	1.19	7
<b>TOTAL (n)</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>	<b>252</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
5.91	7	$p < 0.05$ (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject $H_0$

\* N.b The third option was worded "A range of different interests among employees", and the second to last option was "Many employees are involved in their own recreation interests".

There is no significant difference between executive and employee views on the "second most" hindering company factor. Table 4.22 illustrates that the company barrier reported most frequently by executives and employees, is "many employees are involved in their own recreation interests". A summary of female and male employee opinions on the "most" hindering factors to the development of employee recreation is presented in Table 4.23.

**Table 4.23** Female and male employee perceptions of the company factor which would "most" hinder the development of an employee recreation programme.

	FEMALES			MALES		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
Cost of establishing programme	54	42.52	1	38	29.46	1
Lack of space	19	14.96	3	13	10.08	5
Range of interests among staff	28	22.05	2	24	18.60	2
Not supported by managers	4	3.15	6	10	7.75	6
Not supported by employees	6	4.72	5	18	13.95	4
High employee turnover	2	1.57	7	2	1.55	7
Involvement in own interests	13	10.24	4	24	18.60	2
Too few employees	1	0.79	8	0	0.0	8
<b>TOTAL (n)</b>	<b>127</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>	<b>129</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
17.04	7	$p < 0.02$ (Significant)	Reject $H_0$

\* N.b. The third option was worded "A range of different interests among employees", and the second to last option was "Many employees are involved in their own recreation interests".

There is a significant difference between female and male employee perceptions of the company factor which would "most" hinder the development of an employee recreation programme. Factors that appear to contribute to the significant difference include "cost of establishing a programme" and "not supported by employees".

Both female and male employees indicated "cost of establishing a programme" most frequently. As indicated by the rankings, "a range of different interests among employees" is also viewed as a hindrance. "High employee turnover" and "too few employees" received the least number of responses indicating that these two factors are perceived as being of less

hindrance (than other factors in the list) to the development of a company programme.

Female and male employee perceptions of the "second most" hindering company factor are presented in Table 4.24.

**Table 4.24** Female and male employee perceptions of the company factor that would "second most" hinder the development of an employee recreation programme.

	FEMALES			MALES		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
Cost of establishing programme	16	12.80	3	14	11.20	3
Lack of space	17	13.60	2	11	8.80	6
Range of interests among staff	14	11.20	4	34	27.20	2
Not supported by managers	13	10.40	5	13	10.40	4
Not supported by employees	12	9.60	6	13	10.40	4
High employee turnover	2	1.60	7	1	0.80	8
Involvement in own interests	51	40.80	1	36	28.80	1
Too few employees	0	0.0	8	3	2.40	7
<b>TOTAL (n)</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
15.71	7	$p < 0.05$ (Significant)	Reject $H_0$

\* N.b The third option was worded "A range of different interests among employees", and the second to last option was "Many employees are involved in their own recreation interests".

There is a significant difference between female and male perceptions of the "second most" hindering company influence. Factors which could contribute to this difference include "a range of different interests among employees" and "many employees are involved in their own recreation interests". It can be seen from Table 4.24 that the highest percentage of females and males indicated the "second most" hindering factor to development was "many



employees are involved in their own recreation interests". Table 4.24 clearly shows that female and male employees do not think "too few employees" and "high employee turnover" are the "second most" hindering company factors to the development of an employee recreation programme.

## **4.5 The Personal Benefits of Employee Recreation**

This study addressed respondent perceptions on the possible benefits of employee recreation. To set the scene, respondents were given a definition of "regular participation". This definition (Appendix 1) was compiled from other definitions which previous researchers have used.

Both personal benefits and company benefits are examined. The personal benefits addressed include reduced long term risk of heart disease, increased personal fitness and increased muscle tone. The company benefits include improvements in human resource problems such as absenteeism, job satisfaction and work performance.

### **4.5.1 Agreement with the Personal Benefits of Employee Recreation**

Respondents indicated their views on the effect that regular participation in an employee recreation programme would have on them personally (See Appendix 4, question 10).

Mean scores related to perceived personal benefits are presented in the following tables for each benefit statement. "Don't Know" responses were not used when calculating the mean score. The number of respondents who chose "Don't Know" for each statement is presented on the right hand side of the tables. Mean scores can be interpreted using the following scale.

A mean score between 5.0 and 4.0 indicates there is strong agreement with the statement. A score between 4.0 and 3.0 indicates there is some agreement. A mean score equal to 3.0 suggests that respondents have a neutral stance on the statement. A statement with a mean score of less than 3.0 indicates that respondents tended to disagree with the statement. No statements have mean scores between 2.0 and 1.0. If they did, this would indicate that there is strong disagreement with a statement. Tables 4.25 and 4.26, present executive and employee opinions on the seven personal benefit statements addressed.

**Table 4.25** Level of executive agreement with the personal benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

	% SA (5)	% A (4)	% N (3)	% D (2)	% SD (1)	n	Mean Score	Std Dev	Don't Know(n)
<b>Reduced long term risk of heart disease</b>	<b>36.17</b>	<b>51.06</b>	<b>10.64</b>	<b>2.13</b>	<b>0.0</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>4.21</b>	<b>0.72</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>Increased personal fitness</b>	<b>52.08</b>	<b>43.75</b>	<b>2.08</b>	<b>2.08</b>	<b>0.0</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>4.46</b>	<b>0.65</b>	<b>0</b>
<b>Increased muscle tone</b>	<b>39.58</b>	<b>47.92</b>	<b>10.42</b>	<b>2.08</b>	<b>0.0</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>4.25</b>	<b>0.73</b>	<b>0</b>
<b>More socialising</b>	<b>10.64</b>	<b>31.91</b>	<b>44.68</b>	<b>12.77</b>	<b>0.0</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>3.40</b>	<b>0.85</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>Improved self confidence</b>	<b>8.33</b>	<b>16.67</b>	<b>56.25</b>	<b>12.50</b>	<b>6.25</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>3.08</b>	<b>0.94</b>	<b>0</b>
<b>Relief from stress</b>	<b>22.92</b>	<b>62.50</b>	<b>8.33</b>	<b>6.25</b>	<b>0.0</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>4.02</b>	<b>0.76</b>	<b>0</b>
<b>Less visits to the doctor</b>	<b>10.42</b>	<b>20.83</b>	<b>54.17</b>	<b>12.50</b>	<b>2.08</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>3.25</b>	<b>0.89</b>	<b>0</b>

**Table 4.26** Level of employee agreement with the personal benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

	% SA (5)	% A (4)	% N (3)	% D (2)	% SD (1)	n	Mean Score	Std Dev	Don't Know(n)
Reduced long term risk of heart disease	25.42	51.27	18.64	4.66	0.0	236	3.98	0.79	17
Increased personal fitness	43.03	51.79	4.78	0.40	0.0	251	4.38	0.60	3
Increased muscle tone	30.65	54.84	12.90	1.21	0.40	248	4.15	0.71	6
More socialising	13.41	45.93	32.93	6.91	0.81	246	3.64	0.83	6
Improved self confidence	16.19	39.68	35.63	6.88	1.62	247	3.62	0.89	7
Relief from stress	27.24	45.12	18.70	8.13	0.81	246	3.90	0.92	8
Less visits to the doctor	14.86	23.87	38.74	18.92	3.60	222	3.27	1.05	30

### **4.5.1.1 Executives**

Forty-eight executives gave their opinions on five of the statements (Table 4.25) and 47 on the other two. The mean scores for statements in Table 4.25 show that executives tended to agree that regular participation will have the effects of "increased personal fitness" (4.46), "increased muscle tone" (4.25), "reduced long term risk of heart disease" (4.21), and providing "relief from stress" (4.02). These four statements have the least number of disagreeing respondents and the highest mean scores (no respondents strongly disagreed with these statements). This could mean that executives are more aware of the relationship between physical activity and these benefits, or that they could relate to these personal benefits more easily than the others.

Executives are in less agreement that regular participation would lead to "more socialising" (3.40), "less visits to the doctor" (3.25) and "improved self confidence"(3.08). Although more respondents are in agreement than disagreement with "improved self confidence", the majority of respondents are neutral on this issue. The lower mean score reflects this (i.e., 3.08).

A majority of the executives agree with "reduced long term risk of heart disease", "increased personal fitness", "increased muscle tone" and "relief from stress" as being personal benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

### **4.5.1.2 Employees**

Table 4.26 illustrates that between 222 and 251 employees indicated their opinions on the benefit statements. The mean scores were calculated using the same method described previously. These scores suggest that employees agree with "increased personal fitness" (4.38) and "increased muscle tone" (4.15) as being benefits from regular participation in employee recreation. These two statements had lower percentages of disagreement than the other statements.

Employees agree to some extent that "reduced long term risk of heart disease" (3.98), "relief from stress" (3.90), "more socialising" (3.64) and "improved self confidence" (3.62) would be benefits. Employees are in least agreement with "less visits to the doctor"(3.27).

The majority of employees agree with six out of the seven personal benefit statements. A majority did not agree with "Less visits to the doctor".

Table 4.26 illustrates that the "Don't Know" category was used by many of the respondents (e.g., 30 respondents did not know whether "less visits to the doctor" would result from regular participation in an employee recreation programme). The "Don't Know" option was useful to detect benefits which respondents may have had less knowledge on, or may have been unsure of. Considering the number of respondents who answered "Don't Know" on the first and last statements (Table 4.26), the results could have been biased by forced answers on the Likert scale if the "Don't Know" category had not been used.

It is to be noted that in both the executive and employee groups, a significant percentage of respondents had a neutral stance on some of the benefit statements. For example, in Table 4.25, the majority of executives indicated a neutral stance on "improved self confidence". In the following two tables, 4.27 and 4.28, female and male employee views on the possible personal benefits are presented.

**Table 4.27** Level of female employee agreement with the personal benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

	% SA (5)	% A (4)	% N (3)	% D (2)	% SD (1)	n	Mean Score	Std Dev	Don't Know(n)
<b>Reduced long term risk of heart disease</b>	20.00	50.91	23.64	5.45	0.0	110	3.85	0.80	13
<b>Increased personal fitness</b>	41.46	48.78	8.94	0.81	0.0	123	4.31	0.67	1
<b>Increased muscle tone</b>	26.83	54.47	16.26	1.63	0.81	123	4.05	0.76	1
<b>More socialising</b>	12.71	50.00	26.27	10.17	0.85	118	3.64	0.86	4
<b>Improved self confidence</b>	10.83	46.66	34.17	6.67	1.67	120	3.58	0.84	4
<b>Relief from stress</b>	28.10	43.80	22.31	4.13	1.65	121	3.93	0.91	3
<b>Less visits to the doctor</b>	11.32	19.81	38.68	24.53	5.66	106	3.07	1.06	16

**Table 4.28** Level of male employee agreement with the personal benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

	% SA (5)	% A (4)	% N (3)	% D (2)	% SD (1)	n	Mean Score	Std Dev	Don't Know(n)
<b>Reduced long term risk of heart disease</b>	29.03	52.42	14.52	4.03	0.0	124	4.06	0.77	4
<b>Increased personal fitness</b>	43.65	55.56	0.79	0.0	0.0	126	4.43	0.51	2
<b>Increased muscle tone</b>	34.15	55.28	9.76	0.81	0.0	123	4.23	0.65	5
<b>More socialising</b>	12.70	42.86	39.68	3.97	0.79	126	3.63	0.79	2
<b>Improved self confidence</b>	20.80	32.80	37.60	7.20	1.60	125	3.64	0.95	3
<b>Relief from stress</b>	25.20	46.34	16.26	12.20	0.0	123	3.85	0.94	5
<b>Less visits to the doctor</b>	17.54	27.19	38.60	14.91	1.75	114	3.44	1.00	13

### 4.5.1.3 Female Employees

Between 106 and 123 female employees gave their opinions on the personal benefits of employee recreation (Table 4.27). Respondents indicated their agreement with "increased personal fitness" (4.31) and "increased muscle tone" (4.05). These two statements had the least percentage of disagreeing respondents.

Respondents were in less agreement with "relief from stress" (3.93), "reduced long term risk of heart disease" (3.85), "more socialising" (3.64) and "improved self confidence" (3.58) being personal benefits. The statement "less visits to the doctor" has the lowest mean score which is almost a neutral score. This score (3.07) reflects the high number of neutral and disagree responses "less visits to the doctor" received.

A majority of the respondents agree with "reduced long term risk of heart disease", "increased personal fitness", "increased muscle tone", "more socialising", "improved self confidence" and "relief from stress" as being personal benefits from participation in an employee recreation programme.

### 4.5.1.4 Male Employees

Table 4.28 illustrates that between 114 and 126 male employees offered their views on the personal benefits. The mean scores for male employees show they tended to agree with the statements. Three of the statements had mean scores over 4.0.; "increased personal fitness" (4.43), "increased muscle tone" (4.23) and "reduced long term risk of heart disease" (4.06). The high mean score for "increased personal fitness" reflects that the majority of respondents indicated their agreement and only one respondent is neutral (i.e., a low distribution of scores).

Male employees agree to a lesser extent with "relief from stress" (3.85), "improved self confidence" (3.64), "more socialising" (3.63) and "less visits to the doctor" (3.44) as being personal benefits. Thirteen respondents indicated "Don't Know" for the latter statement ("less visits to the doctor").

A majority of the respondents agree with "reduced long term risk of heart disease", "increased personal fitness", "increased muscle tone", "more socialising", "improved self confidence" and "relief from stress" as being personal benefits from regular participation.



#### 4.5.2 Most Important Personal Benefits

Having asked respondents whether they were in agreement, were neutral or in disagreement with the possible personal benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme, respondents were asked to choose which benefit they thought would be "most" and "second most" important. Table 4.29 compares the opinions of executives and employees on the "most" important personal benefit from employee recreation. Benefit statements are ranked according to the frequency of responses each received.

**Table 4.29 Executive and employee perceptions of the "most" important personal benefit from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.**

	EXECUTIVES			EMPLOYEES		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
Reduced risk of heart disease	14	29.79	2	54	20.85	2
Increased personal fitness	25	53.19	1	144	55.60	1
Increased muscle tone	1	2.13	4	8	3.09	6
More socialising	0	0.0	6	6	2.32	7
Improved self confidence	1	2.13	4	13	5.02	4
Relief from stress	6	12.77	3	21	8.11	3
Less visits to the doctor	0	0.0	6	3	1.16	8
None of the above	0	0.0	6	10	3.86	5
TOTAL (n)	47	100	.	259	100	.

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
6.75	7	p < 0.05 (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject Ho

\* N.b. The first option was worded "Reduced long term risk of coronary heart disease".

There is no significant difference between executive and employee perceptions of the "most" important personal benefit. A majority of both executives and employees indicated that "increased personal fitness" is the most important personal benefit from regular participation in an employee recreation programme. It is to be noted from Table 4.29 that the top four rankings are the same for both executives and employees (i.e., "increased personal fitness", "reduced long term risk of coronary heart disease", "relief from stress" and "improved self confidence").

Respondents also indicated their opinions on the "second most" important personal benefit from regular participation in an employee recreation programme. Table 4.30 illustrates that two statements were chosen more frequently than the others. The statement which received the highest frequency of responses from both executives and employees is "relief from stress".

**Table 4.30** Executive and employee perceptions of the "second most" important personal benefit from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

	EXECUTIVES			EMPLOYEES		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
Reduced risk of heart disease	8	17.02	3	17	6.56	6
Increased personal fitness	13	27.66	2	58	22.39	2
Increased muscle tone	6	12.77	4	28	10.81	4
More socialising	1	2.13	6	34	13.13	3
Improved self confidence	0	0.0	7	24	9.27	5
Relief from stress	17	36.17	1	77	29.73	1
Less visits to the doctor	0	0.0	7	7	2.70	8
None of the above	2	4.26	5	14	5.41	7
TOTAL (n)	47	100	.	259	100	.

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
46.29	7	$p < 0.01$ (Significant)	Reject $H_0$

\* N.b. The first statement was worded "Reduced long term risk of coronary heart disease".

There is a significant difference between executive and employee perceptions of the "second most" important personal benefit. Factors that appear to contribute to this difference are "reduced long term risk of coronary heart disease" and "more socialising". The rankings for these two statements are different between the two groups.

A small proportion of executives and employees indicated that none of the benefits listed were "second most" important. This could mean that these respondents thought there would be no personal benefits or that some other benefit will occur before any of those listed. This is an important finding because there could be other benefits which respondents are aware of. An analysis of employee opinions is presented in Table 4.31.

**Table 4.31** Female and male employee perceptions of the "most" important personal benefit from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

	FEMALES			MALES		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
Reduced risk of heart disease	18	13.95	2	36	28.13	2
Increased personal fitness	76	58.91	1	66	51.56	1
Increased muscle tone	7	5.43	3	1	0.78	6
More socialising	6	4.65	6	1	0.78	6
Improved self confidence	7	5.43	3	5	3.91	4
Relief from stress	7	5.43	3	14	10.94	3
Less visits to the doctor	2	1.55	8	1	0.78	6
None of the above	6	4.65	6	4	3.13	5
TOTAL (n)	129	100	.	128	100	.

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
18.17	7	$p < 0.02$ (Significant)	Reject $H_0$

\* N.b. The first statement was worded "Reduced long term risk of coronary heart disease".

Table 4.31 illustrates there is a significant difference between female and male responses on this issue. The statement "reduced long term risk of coronary heart disease" contributes to the significant chi-square value.

Results indicate that "increased personal fitness" stands out as being "most" important for both females and male respondents (the majority of females and males indicated this as being "most" important). Also included in the top three rankings are "reduced risk of heart disease" and "relief from stress". In the following table (Table 4.32), female and male employee perceptions on the "second most" important personal benefit from regular participation in an employee recreation programme are presented.

**Table 4.32** Female and male employee perceptions of the "second most" important personal benefit from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

	FEMALES			MALES		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
Reduced risk of heart disease	7	5.43	6	9	7.03	5
Increased personal fitness	20	15.50	2	38	29.69	1
Increased muscle tone	14	10.85	5	14	10.94	4
More socialising	18	13.95	3	16	12.50	3
Improved self confidence	15	11.63	4	8	6.25	6
Relief from stress	47	36.43	1	30	23.43	2
Less visits to the doctor	1	0.78	8	6	4.69	8
None of the above	7	5.43	6	7	5.47	7
<b>TOTAL (n)</b>	<b>129</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>	<b>128</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
15.41	7	$p < 0.05$ (Significant)	Reject Ho

\* N.b. The first statement was worded "Reduced long term risk of coronary heart disease".

Table 4.32 illustrates there is a significant difference between female and male employee opinions. The statements which contribute to the difference are "increased personal fitness" and "relief from stress". A higher percentage of females than males view "relief from stress" as of personal importance. A higher percentage of males than females indicated that "increased personal fitness" is the "second most" important benefit.

The same three statements are ranked in the top three for female and male respondents. "Relief from stress" is most frequently reported by females as being "second most" important. In contrast, males reported "increased personal fitness" most frequently. The other benefit which respondents indicated frequently is "more socialising".

To summarise the results of the two most important personal benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme, the majority of executives and employees indicated "increased personal fitness" is "most" important. The highest frequency of executives and employees perceive "relief from stress" is "second most" important.

A majority of both female and male employees indicated "increased personal fitness" is the "most" important personal benefit. The "second most" important benefit for female and male employees is not the same. The highest frequency of females perceived "relief from stress" as being "second most" important, while the highest frequency of males indicated "increased personal fitness" is "second most" important.

### **4.5.3 Interest in Information on Personal Benefits**

One of the objectives of this study was to determine the amount of interest in obtaining further information on the personal benefits of employee recreation. Executive and employee results are presented in Table 4.33.

**Table 4.33** Executive and employee interest in obtaining information on the personal benefits of employee recreation.

	EXECUTIVES		EMPLOYEES	
	n	%	n	%
Yes	35	72.92	188	72.31
No	13	27.08	72	27.69
TOTAL(n)	48	100	260	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
0.007	1	$p < 0.05$ (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject $H_0$

There is no significant difference between executive and employee interest. It can be seen from Table 4.33 that the majority of executives and employees would like to obtain more information on the personal benefits of employee recreation. Female and male employee results are presented in Table 4.34.

**Table 4.34** Female and male employee interest in obtaining information on the personal benefits of employee recreation.

	FEMALES		MALES	
	n	%	n	%
Yes	93	73.23	93	72.09
No	34	26.77	36	27.91
TOTAL(n)	127	100	129	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
0.04	1	$p < 0.05$ (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject Ho

There is no significant difference between female and male employee interest in obtaining information on the personal benefits of employee recreation. The majority in both groups indicated they would be interested in obtaining information if it was available.

#### 4.5.4 Open Comment

Following this question, an open ended question was asked of those who had responded NO (i.e., they did not wish to obtain further information on the personal benefits). Of the twelve executives who answered NO, 6 stated that the reason they did not wish to obtain further information was they are already aware of the benefits of employee recreation and therefore did not wish to obtain further information. Three executives stated they have personal fitness programmes therefore personal activities are already planned.

Within the employee group, 64 respondents (from a total of 261) answered the open ended question. The 5 main reasons (in order from most to least often mentioned) why respondents would not be interested in obtaining further information on personal benefits of employee recreation were because they:



- i) Were not interested in employee recreation,
- ii) Were already aware of the personal benefits (12 out of 64 stated this),
- iii) Had no spare time for work exercise programmes,
- iv) Would rather keep work time separate from personal time and
- v) Were already involved in physical activities and other social activities outside work hours.

One respondent stated: *"I am too old to be doing employee recreation activities"* .

Another stated: *"I know the company wouldn't take up anything to benefit their staff in any way. They are not into spending money on their staff so it would be of no use getting information"*.

## **4.6 The Company Benefits of Employee Recreation**

### **4.6.1 Agreement with the Company Benefits**

To determine executive and employee views on the potential company benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme, respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement with seven statements. Respondents who did not know what effect regular participation would have were able to choose the "Don't Know" category. Table 4.35 presents executive attitudes towards the company benefits of employee recreation and Table 4.36 presents employee attitudes. The number of respondents who answered each statement is presented in the 'n' column. A mean score is given for each statement.

**Table 4.35** Level of executive agreement with the company benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

	% SA(5)	% A (4)	% N (3)	% D (2)	% SD(1)	n	Mean Score	Std Dev	Don't Know(n)
<b>Decrease in the level of absenteeism</b>	0.0	45.65	36.96	17.39	0.0	46	3.28	0.75	1
<b>Increase in individual job satisfaction</b>	0.0	44.68	46.81	8.51	0.0	47	3.36	0.64	0
<b>Increase in individual work performance</b>	8.33	64.58	22.92	4.17	0.0	48	3.77	0.66	0
<b>Improvement in communication between staff</b>	4.17	62.50	27.08	6.25	0.0	48	3.65	0.67	0
<b>Improvement in work atmosphere</b>	0.0	57.45	34.04	8.51	0.0	47	3.49	0.66	0
<b>Decrease in work-related health problems</b>	4.25	68.09	19.15	8.51	0.0	47	3.68	0.69	1
<b>Lower level of staff turnover</b>	0.0	17.39	67.39	15.22	0.0	46	3.02	0.57	2

\* N.b. The first option was worded " A decrease in the level of absenteeism from work".

**Table 4.36** Level of employee agreement with the company benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

	% SA(5)	% A (4)	% N (3)	% D (2)	% SD(1)	n	Mean Score	Std Dev	Don't Know(n)
<b>Decrease in the level of absenteeism</b>	<b>7.36</b>	<b>34.63</b>	<b>28.57</b>	<b>28.14</b>	<b>1.30</b>	<b>231</b>	<b>3.19</b>	<b>0.97</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>Increase in individual job satisfaction</b>	<b>6.61</b>	<b>35.54</b>	<b>37.60</b>	<b>17.77</b>	<b>2.48</b>	<b>242</b>	<b>3.26</b>	<b>0.90</b>	<b>16</b>
<b>Increase in individual work performance</b>	<b>12.55</b>	<b>44.53</b>	<b>29.55</b>	<b>12.15</b>	<b>1.21</b>	<b>247</b>	<b>3.55</b>	<b>0.90</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>Improvement in communication between staff</b>	<b>11.60</b>	<b>52.40</b>	<b>26.40</b>	<b>8.80</b>	<b>0.80</b>	<b>250</b>	<b>3.65</b>	<b>0.83</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>Improvement in work atmosphere</b>	<b>9.49</b>	<b>51.78</b>	<b>28.06</b>	<b>9.88</b>	<b>0.79</b>	<b>253</b>	<b>3.59</b>	<b>0.82</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>Decrease in work-related health problems</b>	<b>8.02</b>	<b>45.99</b>	<b>29.11</b>	<b>14.77</b>	<b>2.11</b>	<b>237</b>	<b>3.43</b>	<b>0.91</b>	<b>23</b>
<b>Lower level of staff turnover</b>	<b>4.19</b>	<b>23.25</b>	<b>44.19</b>	<b>26.05</b>	<b>2.32</b>	<b>215</b>	<b>3.01</b>	<b>0.87</b>	<b>44</b>

\* N.b. The first option was worded " A decrease in the level of absenteeism from work".

### **4.6.1.1 Executives**

Table 4.35 illustrates that between 46 and 48 executives gave their opinions on the benefit statements. The mean scores for statements indicate that executives tend to agree with statements. A majority of respondents agree to some extent with "an increase in individual work performance" (3.77) "a decrease in work-related health problems" (3.68) and "an improvement in communication between staff" (3.65) as being company benefits from regular participation by more than half the company employees. Executives agree to a less extent that regular participation would lead to "an improvement in work atmosphere" (3.49), "an increase in individual job satisfaction" (3.36) and "a decrease in the level of absenteeism" (3.28).

The majority of respondents indicated a neutral stance on the issue of "lower level of staff turnover". Although more agree than disagree with this statement (a majority were neutral), there is only a slight difference with the mean score for this statement being 3.02.

The majority of executive respondents agree with "an increase in individual work performance", "a decrease in work-related health problems", "an improvement in communication between staff" and "an improvement in work atmosphere" as being company benefits of an employee recreation programme.

In comparison with Tait's (1984) finding that executives were unaware of the company benefits from work-based recreation, executives have shown in this study that they are aware of the company benefits. The mean scores indicate that executives tend to agree with the statements presented, although some mean scores are higher than others.

### **4.6.1.2 Employees**

Between 215 and 253 employees gave their opinions on the company benefits of employee recreation (Table 4.36). Employees tended to agree that regular participation in an employee recreation programme by more than half of their companys' employees will have the effects of "an improvement in communication between staff" (3.65), "an improvement in work atmosphere" (3.59) and "an increase in individual work performance" (3.55).

Employees agreed to a lesser extent with "a decrease in work-related health problems" (3.43), "an increase in individual job satisfaction" (3.26) and "a decrease in the level of absenteeism" (3.19). Employees agreed least with "a lower level of staff turnover" (3.01).

A large number of employees (44) indicated they did not know if an employee recreation programme would have the effect of lowering the level of staff turnover. In other studies, this has been cited as a benefit for companies, but the high number of respondents who indicated "neutral", "disagree" and "don't know" suggests that it is perhaps not perceived as a benefit. The low mean score, 3.01, indicates that respondents are tending toward a neutral score on this statement.

The majority of employee respondents agree with "an increase in individual work performance", "an improvement in communication between staff", "an improvement in work atmosphere" and "a decrease in work-related health problems" as being company benefits of employee recreation. Female and male employee views on the company benefits of employee recreation are presented in the following two tables, Table 4.37 and 4.38.

**Table 4.37** Level of female employee agreement with the company benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

	% SA(5)	% A (4)	% N (3)	% D (2)	% SD(1)	n	Mean Score	Std Dev	Don't Know(n)
<b>Decrease in the level of absenteeism</b>	<b>5.36</b>	<b>31.25</b>	<b>33.04</b>	<b>28.57</b>	<b>1.79</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>3.10</b>	<b>0.94</b>	<b>16</b>
<b>Increase in individual job satisfaction</b>	<b>5.98</b>	<b>32.48</b>	<b>41.88</b>	<b>17.95</b>	<b>1.71</b>	<b>117</b>	<b>3.23</b>	<b>0.88</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>Increase in individual work performance</b>	<b>11.76</b>	<b>36.13</b>	<b>36.13</b>	<b>14.29</b>	<b>1.68</b>	<b>119</b>	<b>3.42</b>	<b>0.93</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>Improvement in communication between staff</b>	<b>10.40</b>	<b>52.80</b>	<b>28.00</b>	<b>8.00</b>	<b>0.80</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>3.64</b>	<b>0.81</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>Improvement in work atmosphere</b>	<b>8.87</b>	<b>53.22</b>	<b>29.84</b>	<b>7.26</b>	<b>0.81</b>	<b>124</b>	<b>3.62</b>	<b>0.78</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>Decrease in work-related health problems</b>	<b>4.50</b>	<b>45.05</b>	<b>33.33</b>	<b>13.51</b>	<b>3.60</b>	<b>111</b>	<b>3.33</b>	<b>0.90</b>	<b>17</b>
<b>Lower level of staff turnover</b>	<b>2.02</b>	<b>20.20</b>	<b>45.45</b>	<b>28.28</b>	<b>4.04</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>2.88</b>	<b>0.85</b>	<b>29</b>

\* N.b. The first option was worded "A decrease in the level of absenteeism from work".

**Table 4.38** Level of male employee agreement with the company benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

	% SA(5)	% A (4)	% N (3)	% D (2)	% SD(1)	n	Mean Score	Std Dev	Don't Know(n)
<b>Decrease in the level of absenteeism</b>	8.55	38.46	24.79	27.35	0.85	117	3.27	0.99	12
<b>Increase in individual job satisfaction</b>	6.50	37.40	35.77	17.89	2.44	123	3.28	0.92	5
<b>Increase in individual work performance</b>	12.70	53.17	23.02	10.32	0.79	126	3.67	0.86	4
<b>Improvement in communication between staff</b>	12.20	52.84	24.39	9.76	0.81	123	3.66	0.85	5
<b>Improvement in work atmosphere</b>	9.45	50.39	26.77	12.60	0.79	127	3.55	0.86	2
<b>Decrease in work-related health problems</b>	10.48	46.77	25.81	16.13	0.81	124	3.50	0.92	6
<b>Lower level of staff turnover</b>	6.09	25.22	43.48	24.35	0.87	115	3.11	0.88	14

\* N.b. The first option was worded "A decrease in the level of absenteeism from work".

### 4.6.1.3 Female Employees

Between 99 and 125 female employees offered their opinions (Table 4.37) on the company benefits. Female respondents agree that "an improvement in communication between staff" (3.64) and "an improvement in work atmosphere" (3.62) would be benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

Female employees are less in agreement with "an increase in individual work performance" (3.42), "a decrease in work-related health problems" (3.33) and "an increase in individual job satisfaction" (3.23) as being company benefits of employee recreation. It can be seen that "a decrease in the level of absenteeism from work" has a mean score of 3.10 which indicates that respondents are almost neutral on this statement with only slightly more agreeing than disagreeing.

The statement "a lower level of staff turnover" had a mean score of (2.88) which indicates that respondents tended to disagree. More respondents disagree than agree, with a high proportion indicating a "neutral" stance on this issue.

The majority of female employees agree with "an improvement in communication between staff" and "an improvement in work atmosphere" as being benefits of regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

### 4.6.1.4 Male Employees

Table 4.38 illustrates male employee responses relating to the company benefits of employee recreation. Males are in agreement with: "an increase in individual work performance" (3.67), "an improvement in communication between staff" (3.66) and "an improvement in work atmosphere" (3.55).

Respondents are less in agreement with "a decrease in work-related health problems" (3.50), "an increase in individual job satisfaction" (3.28), "a decrease in the level of absenteeism" (3.27) and "a lower level of staff turnover" (3.11) as being company benefits from employee recreation. It is to be noted that a "decrease in the level of absenteeism" has a bimodal distribution.



A majority of male employees agree that regular participation in an employee recreation programme would have the following company benefits; "an increase in individual work performance", "an improvement in communication between staff", "an improvement in work atmosphere" and "a decrease in work-related health problems".

#### **4.6.2 Most Important Company Benefits**

After asking respondents whether they were in agreement, were neutral or disagreement with company benefit statements, they were asked to choose the two company benefits which they thought were "most" and "second most" likely to occur from regular employee participation in an employee recreation programme. The two options chosen were coded into two categories: i) the "most" likely to occur and ii) the "second most" likely to occur. Executive and employee responses on the "most" and "second most" likely company benefits to occur are presented in Table 4.39 and Table 4.40. Each benefit statement has been ranked according to the number of responses each received.

**Table 4.39** Executive and employee perceptions of the company benefit which is "most" likely to occur from regular employee participation in an employee recreation programme.

	EXECUTIVES			EMPLOYEES		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
A decrease in the level of absenteeism from work	3	6.38	5	24	9.30	5
An increase in individual job satisfaction	4	8.51	4	16	6.20	7
An increase in individual work performance	15	31.91	1	52	20.16	2
An improvement in communication between staff	15	31.91	1	87	33.72	1
An improvement in work atmosphere	3	6.38	5	26	10.08	4
A decrease in work-related health problems	5	10.64	3	30	11.63	3
A lower level of staff turnover	0	0.0	8	2	0.78	8
None of the above	2	4.26	7	21	8.14	6
<b>TOTAL (n)</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>	<b>258</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
5.01	7	p < 0.05 (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject Ho

**Table 4.40** Executive and employee perceptions of the company benefit which is "second most" likely to occur from regular employee participation in an employee recreation programme.

	EXECUTIVES			EMPLOYEES		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
A decrease in the level of absenteeism from work	2	4.35	6	13	5.08	7
An increase in individual job satisfaction	2	4.35	6	20	7.81	6
An increase in individual work performance	9	19.57	3	41	16.02	2
An improvement in communication between staff	5	10.87	4	36	14.06	3
An improvement in work atmosphere	15	32.61	1	82	32.03	1
A decrease in work-related health problems	10	21.74	2	28	10.94	4
A lower level of staff turnover	0	0.0	8	10	3.91	8
None of the above	3	6.52	5	26	10.16	5
<b>TOTAL (n)</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>	<b>256</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
7.23	7	p < 0.05 (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject Ho

#### 4.6.2.1 Executives and Employees

The chi-square analysis (Table 4.39) indicates there is no significant difference between executive and employee opinions on the company benefit which is "most" likely to occur. The most frequent choice made by executives and employees for the benefit which is "most" likely to occur is "an improvement in communication between staff". Two other choices frequently made by executives and employees are "an increase in individual work performance" and "a decrease in work-related health problems".

A small percentage of executives and employees indicated that none of the benefits are "most" likely to occur (i.e., 4.26% and 8.14% respectively). This could mean there may be other company benefits which respondents are more aware (i.e., company benefits that were not addressed in the study).

Table 4.40 illustrates there is no significant difference between executive and employee views on the company benefit which is "second most" likely to occur. The highest frequency of executives and employees think that the company benefit which is "second most" likely to occur is "an improvement in work atmosphere". Other statements frequently chosen are "an increase in individual work performance", "a decrease in work-related health problems" and "an improvement in communication between staff".

A good proportion of employees (i.e., 10.16%) indicated they thought that none of the benefits listed would be the "second most" likely to occur. Again, this suggests there may be other benefits which respondents are aware of that would be "second most" likely to occur. Results from the analysis of female and male employee data are presented in Table 4.41 and Table 4.42.

**Table 4.41** Female and male employee perceptions of the company benefit which is "most" likely to occur from regular employee participation in an employee recreation programme.

	FEMALES			MALES		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
A decrease in the level of absenteeism from work	14	11.11	3	10	7.69	6
An increase in individual job satisfaction	6	4.76	7	10	7.69	6
An increase in individual work performance	21	16.67	2	28	21.54	2
An improvement in communication between staff	50	39.68	1	38	29.23	1
An improvement in work atmosphere	12	9.52	5	14	10.77	4
A decrease in work-related health problems	13	10.32	4	17	13.08	3
A lower level of staff turnover	0	0.0	8	2	1.54	8
None of the above	10	7.94	6	11	8.46	5
<b>TOTAL (n)</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>	<b>130</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
6.98	7	p < 0.05 (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject Ho

**Table 4.42** Female and male employee perceptions of the company benefit which is "second most" likely to occur from regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

	FEMALES			MALES		
	n	%	Rank	n	%	Rank
A decrease in the level of absenteeism from work	4	3.20	7	9	6.98	7
An increase in individual job satisfaction	7	5.60	6	11	8.53	5
An increase in individual work performance	13	10.40	4	27	20.93	2
An improvement in communication between staff	16	12.80	2	19	14.73	3
An improvement in work atmosphere	54	43.20	1	29	22.48	1
A decrease in work-related health problems	12	9.60	5	17	13.18	4
A lower level of staff turnover	4	3.20	7	6	4.65	8
None of the above	15	12.00	3	11	8.53	5
<b>TOTAL (n)</b>	<b>125</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>	<b>129</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>.</b>

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
17.32	7	p < 0.02 (Significant)	Reject Ho

#### **4.6.2.2 Female and Male Employees**

The chi-square value in Table 4.41 (6.98), indicates there is no significant difference between female and male employee views on the company benefit which is "most" likely to occur from regular employee participation in an employee recreation programme. The highest frequency of females and males indicated the "most" likely company benefit to occur is "an improvement in communication between staff". Two other statements frequently chosen are "an increase in individual work performance" and "a decrease in work-related health problems".

The chi-square value in Table 4.42 (17.32), indicates there is a significant difference between female and male employee views on the "second most" likely company benefit. Statements which could contribute to the difference are "an improvement in work atmosphere" and "an increase in individual work performance". A greater percentage of female employees than male employees indicated "an improvement in work atmosphere" while a greater percentage of males than females indicated "an increase in individual work performance".

Females and males indicated most frequently that the "second most" likely benefit to occur is "an improvement in work atmosphere". Two other benefits frequently chosen are "an improvement in communication between staff" and "an increase in individual work performance".

#### **4.6.3 Interest in Obtaining Information on the Company Benefits of Employee Recreation**

Respondents were asked if they would like to obtain further information on the company benefits of employee recreation. Table 4.43 illustrates executive and employee responses.

**Table 4.43** Executive and employee interest in obtaining further information on the company benefits of employee recreation.

INTERESTED?	EXECUTIVES		EMPLOYEES	
	n	%	n	%
Yes	40	83.33	168	64.62
No	8	16.67	92	35.38
TOTAL (n)	48	100	260	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
6.47	1	p < 0.02 (Significant)	Reject Ho

Although the majority of executives and employees indicated they would be interested in obtaining further information on the company benefits of employee recreation, there is a significant difference between the two groups. A higher percentage of executives than employees indicated they would be interested in obtaining information if it was available. A summary of the female and male employee responses is presented in Table 4.44.



**Table 4.44** Female and male employee interest in obtaining further information on the company benefits of employee recreation.

INTERESTED?	FEMALES		MALES	
	n	%	n	%
Yes	76	59.84	90	69.77
No	51	40.16	39	30.23
TOTAL (n)	127	100	129	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
2.76	1	p < 0.05 (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject Ho

There is no significant difference between female and male interest in obtaining further information on the company benefits of employee recreation. The majority of both female and male employees indicated they would be interested in obtaining information if it was available.

## 4.7 General

### 4.7.1 Is Employee Recreation a Perk?

Respondents were asked a few questions on more general topics. To determine whether respondents thought a new recreation programme would be a perk (perquisite) for employees, they were given a definition of a "perk" (Appendix 4) and were asked to indicate their opinions. A summary of executive and employee responses is presented in Table 4.45.

**Table 4.45** Executive and employee opinions on whether employee recreation would be a perk for employees.

A PERK?	EXECUTIVES		EMPLOYEES	
	n	%	n	%
Yes	34	70.83	186	71.81
No	14	29.17	73	28.19
TOTAL (n)	48	100	259	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
0.019	1	$p < 0.05$ (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject Ho

The chi-squared value (Table 4.45) indicates there is no significant difference between executive and employee opinions. The majority of respondents in both sample groups think a new recreation programme for employees would be a perk. Results from the analysis of female and male employee responses are presented in Table 4.46.

**Table 4.46** Female and male employee opinions on whether employee recreation would be a perk for employees.

A PERK?	FEMALES		MALES	
	n	%	n	%
Yes	107	83.59	77	59.69
No	21	16.41	52	40.31
TOTAL (n)	128	100	129	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
18.05	1	$p < 0.001$ (Significant)	Reject Ho

The chi-square analysis indicates there is a significant difference between female and male employees on this issue. Table 4.46 clearly illustrates that a higher percentage of female employees than males think employee recreation would be a perk for employees.

#### 4.7.2 Will Employee Recreation be a Fad?

Having asked respondents whether they thought an employee recreation programme would be a perk, a definition of "a fad" was given (Appendix 4). Respondents were asked to indicate their opinions on whether employee recreation will be a passing fad. A summary of executive and employee results is presented in Table 4.47.

**Table 4.47 Executive and employee opinions on whether employee recreation will be a fad.**

	EXECUTIVES		EMPLOYEES	
A FAD?	n	%	n	%
Yes	17	35.42	117	45.70
No	31	64.58	139	54.30
TOTAL (n)	48	100	256	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
1.73	1	p < 0.05 (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject Ho

It can be seen that there is no significant difference between executive and employee opinions on this issue. The results in (Table 4.47) indicate that the majority of executives and employees do not think employee recreation will be a passing fad. Female and male employee responses are presented in Table 4.48.

**Table 4.48** Female and male employee opinions on whether employee recreation will be a fad.

A FAD?	FEMALES		MALES	
	n	%	n	%
Yes	60	47.62	54	42.19
No	66	52.38	74	57.81
TOTAL (n)	126	100	128	100

$\chi^2$	df	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE	CONCLUSION
0.75	1	$p < 0.05$ (Not Significant)	Do Not Reject Ho

The chi-square value (0.75) indicates that no significant difference exists between female and male views. The majority in both groups indicated they do not think employee recreation will be a passing fad.

### 4.7.3 Respondent Comments

The last question in the questionnaire was open ended and asked respondents to make further comment on any of the questions asked, or on any issues relating to employee recreation. The open ended question proved to be valuable in terms of collecting information on matters which respondents considered important enough to mention. Some interesting comments were made. To follow is an account of the information obtained.

#### 4.7.3.1 Executives

From the 48 executives, 23 made comment. Several stated that they thought an employee recreation programme would be very beneficial, if employees had the time and commitment to make it a success. Three executives said that they would prefer private recreation facilities (e.g., commercial gyms) emphasising that private facilities are already available to the general public and are therefore available to all employees. One executive stated:

*"...if people have commitment to personal fitness, they have sufficient facilities available to them."*

Another executive stated:

*"I don't think companies should be involved directly in organising employee recreation, but should be involved indirectly (e.g., point out on a regular basis the benefits of recreation and support this by perhaps contributions towards fees of a range of recreational sports activities)."*

Three executives thought that due to a wide range of interests among employees, it would be difficult to organise a programme. One executive offered the following comment.

*"The success of an employee recreation scheme would depend on the support from management. A "leader" would need to be established from within the company to foster and maintain interest in it, or it will be seen as a fad."*

It seems from the executive comments that many are aware of the need to promote health-care and wellness among both executives and employees and the possible opportunity for the company to facilitate access to exercise without necessarily providing facilities. Several executives mentioned they were unsure of the actual cost efficiency that an employee recreation scheme would have. One executive stated that if there was evidence of a need and subsequent benefits, an employee recreation scheme may well be worth following up. A problem outlined by one respondent was that senior employees travel a lot so organised schemes for executives become disrupted.

#### **4.7.3.2 Employees**

From the employee group, 122 out of 261 made comment. Comments, in general, were related more towards components of an employee recreation programme such as: proximity of facilities to the workplace, family and spouse participation, the level of management and employee support, the time available, (e.g., one employee suggested that employees should

have an extra 20 minutes at lunchtime) and when activities would take place (i.e., before, during or after work). Two respondents stated that to get a good turnout employees would need to be given time during work hours to participate. The comment that recreation should not be forced upon people was made by several employees. A few employees stated they thought a programme would be more beneficial to younger people.

### **Benefits** (Employee comments continued)

Many comments addressed the various personal and company benefits of and barriers to an employee recreation programme. The personal benefits most frequently mentioned by respondents were that: i) an employee recreation programme would provide a chance to meet people who one may not know and ii) it would improve personal fitness (three people said the latter). One male respondent commented:

*"I think it would be of benefit to the women working on the assembly lines here as they are just sitting down all day and consequently get out of shape fairly quickly, which females seem to worry about a lot."*

Some employees emphasised that before employee recreation could get attention from management there were other priorities (e.g., work conditions and equipment which needed replacing). One respondent stated:

*"It is not a priority at ... while we have to work with substandard machinery and uncomfortable conditions."*

Another employee commented:

*"A lot of absenteeism and illness is the result of the high heating conditions (dry air) and no fresh air. Viruses spread quickly in this work environment."*

Several respondents thought that an employee recreation programme was just what the company needed, although three respondents mentioned that they would rather not recreate with workmates and that time away from workmates was important to them.

The company benefits mentioned were: an improvement in team spirit, improved communication, more individual drive, a better understanding of each other's needs (employee's and executive's) and greater job satisfaction.

### **Barriers**

The main personal barriers mentioned by employees (in order of frequency) were: family commitments, involvement in other activities, and lack of spare time.

The main company barriers mentioned by employees were: cost of implementing a programme, finding an organiser with the ability to overcome staff apathy, lack of leadership, lack of co-operation, distance staff had to travel to work, and that some workplaces were too divisionalised. Another potential barrier mentioned was that big companies would have difficulties in organising a programme to interest everyone. One of the more negative comments was:

*"I don't think that businesses are interested in anything that involves their employees that has not got a direct connection with their product (monetary value). Businesses don't care about physical fitness as if you drop dead from lack of it, they would just replace you. I don't think that they would like to part out with money for this purpose."*

Chapter Five  
Summary, Implications  
and  
Recommendations



# Chapter Five

## Summary, Implications and Recommendations.

### 5.1 Introduction

This study highlights the attitudes of executives and employees towards several issues pertaining to employee recreation. Research from other countries indicates there are many benefits from employee recreation but there was no New Zealand information on how members of the workforce view employee recreation. If employee recreation is to advance in New Zealand, it is necessary to understand executive and employee attitudes towards the possible benefits and barriers.

Information was gathered to determine perceptions about organising recreational opportunities for employees, the personal and company benefits of employee recreation and the personal and company barriers to the development of employee recreation.

### 5.2 Summary

#### 5.2.1 Organisation Of Recreational Opportunities For Employees

Most executives and employees would like to have more recreation opportunities available at their workplace. The majority are interested in gaining access to further information on establishing an employee recreation programme. As suggested by Elery Hamilton-Smith (1989), if people can have greater satisfaction in the workplace, they will be able to achieve greater satisfaction in their job and non-job time.

Results indicate that executives and employees have similar views on who should organise recreational opportunities for employees. Executives and employees indicated most frequently that "an organised employee group" (e.g., social club) should predominantly organise recreational opportunities for employees. Executives believe that the "managing director" of the company would have the greatest influence to establish a planned, structured employee recreation programme aimed at improving or maintaining the personal fitness of employees. In contrast, employees indicated most frequently that "employees and managers" together would have the greatest influence to establish a programme.

Fifty percent of the executives and 59.69% of employees are not regular participants in physical activity. However, if an employee recreation programme was provided by the company, 50% of the executives would participate in the company programme and 53.12% of the employees would participate (some of those who indicated they would not participate in an employee recreation programme may be participants in other programmes. It is assumed this would continue, resulting in more of the workforce involved in fitness programmes). The majority of executives and employees think that employee recreation would be a perk for employees (i.e., 70.83% and 71.81% respectively).

### **5.2.2 Personal Barriers to Participation in Employee Recreation**

The personal barrier which would "most" restrict participation in an employee recreation programme (as indicated by the highest number of executives and employees) is that individuals are already involved in fitness activities outside work. The other two personal barriers which are frequently mentioned by executives and employees are "none of the above" and "I have no time for fitness classes".

Female and male employees most frequently mentioned that involvement in fitness activities outside work would "most" restrict their participation in a company programme. Two other factors which are frequently mentioned as being "most" restricting to female and male employees are "I have no time for fitness classes" and "none of the above".

### **5.2.3 Company Barriers to the Development of Employee Recreation**

Executives and employees have different opinions on the main company barriers (hindrances). Executives indicated most frequently that the two "most" hindering company barriers are "a range of different interests among employees" and "many employees are involved in their own recreation interests" (these two factors received an equal frequency of executive responses).

In contrast, the highest frequency of employees perceive the "cost of establishing a programme" is "most" hindering to the development of an employee recreation programme. The "second most" hindering company factor is perceived to be "many employees are involved in their own recreation interests".

Female and male employees indicated most frequently that the "most" hindering company factor to the development of a company programme is "cost of establishing a programme". The "second most" hindering factor, as indicated by the highest frequency of female and male employees, is "many employees are involved in their own recreation interests".

#### **5.2.4 Personal Benefits From Regular Participation in Employee Recreation**

Executives and employees would like to obtain further information on both personal and company benefits of employee recreation, if it was available.

The majority of executives and employees agree that reduced long term risk of heart disease, increased personal fitness, increased muscle tone and relief from stress are associated with regular participation in an employee recreation programme.

The "most" important personal benefit from regular participation in an employee recreation programme, as indicated by the majority of executives and employees, is "increased personal fitness". There is no majority view on the "second most" important benefit but the highest frequency of executives and employees think that "relief from stress" is "second most" important. Results indicate that a lot of respondents have a neutral stance on the possible benefits from employee recreation (personal and company benefits).

The majority of female and male employees indicated "increased personal fitness" as being the "most" important personal benefit from regular participation in an employee recreation programme. The highest frequency of female employees indicated "relief from stress" is the "second most" important personal benefit. In contrast, males indicated "increased personal fitness" is the "second most" important personal benefit.

#### **5.2.5 Company Benefits from Regular Participation in Employee Recreation**

The majority of executives and employees agree that regular participation by more than half the employees in their company would lead to an increase in individual work performance, an improvement in communication between staff, an improvement in work atmosphere and a decrease in work-related health problems.

There is no majority opinion on the company benefit which is "most" likely to occur from regular employee participation in an employee recreation programme. The "most" likely company benefit, as indicated by the highest frequency of executives and employees, is "an improvement in communication between staff". The "second most" likely benefit, as indicated by the highest frequency of executives and employees, is "an improvement in work atmosphere".

The highest frequency of female and male employees indicated that "an improvement in communication between staff" is the company benefit which is "most" likely to occur from regular participation in an employee recreation programme. The "second most" likely company benefit to occur, as indicated by the highest frequency of females and males, is "an improvement in work atmosphere".

A summary of the hypotheses tested can be found in Appendix 6.

## **5.3 Implications of the Research**

### **5.3.1 Organising**

Executives and employees (both female and male) have indicated a willingness to participate in an employee recreation programme if it was provided by the company. Therefore if companies should want to organise a programme in/near the workplace response should be significant. Programmes should emphasise the development and/or maintenance of personal fitness as executives and employees recognise this as a benefit.

Findings indicate that initial support (e.g., information on how to organise a programme and/or how to finance a programme) is needed from outside the company in order for programmes to become established (a recommendation how support could be given is presented in the next section). The promotion of employee recreation should be aimed at all levels within a company hierarchy. The managing director and executives are likely to have an influence on any financial support the company may give to an employee recreation scheme.

If an employee recreation programme is to be organised, there are a few personal reasons that could restrict executive and employee participation. As indicated in this study, executives and employees may have other fitness commitments or they may not have time to

devote to fitness. Also, there may be other personal reasons that could restrict participation in an employee recreation programme. If an employee recreation programme is to be organised there are also company barriers which need to be overcome.

Companies must be prepared for the main hindrances (i.e., "a range of different interests among employees" and "many employees are involved in their own recreation interests"). Depending on the company characteristics, there may be other hindrances which will need to be identified and overcome. To ensure employee participation in a programme, organisers need to determine what activities and facilities to provide (i.e., employee needs analysis). A comprehensive needs analysis study is required to determine employee interests so that organisers can provide for a range of recreation interests to meet divergent needs.

The cost of establishing a programme is a potential barrier and must be overcome by those who decide on resource allocation to establish a programme. Also, depending on the company's location, lack of space may be a problem. Some of the companies in this study were small and as Tait (1984) suggested there is room for co-ordination of resources between companies with small numbers of employees (e.g., facilities in a building shared by several companies).

Employee recreation is not seen as a passing fad. If this is true, it should develop in New Zealand. A company wishing to establish an employee recreation programme should take into account the characteristics of employees. A successful programme in one company will not necessarily be successful if it is duplicated in another company as companies will differ in size, location, employee interest and the level of managerial and employee support for a programme.

### **5.3.2 Marketing**

Executives and employees believe there will be benefits from regular participation in an employee recreation programme. The personal and company benefits perceived as being most important and which the majority of respondents agreed upon, should be used in any marketing campaign. Results on the "most" and "second most" important personal and company benefits show the recreation practitioner that individuals relate regular participation in an employee recreation programme with some benefits more than others.

For example, respondents indicated that "increased personal fitness" and "relief from stress" were of more personal importance than "more socialising" and "improved self confidence".

Employee recreation could also be marketed based on the premise that individuals will have the opportunity to participate in some activity/ies which they may not have experienced before. By offering a range of activities and professional direction, organisers can attempt to attract as many employees as possible. Also, because co-workers participate/ will participate in a programme, an employee may be convinced (i.e., by co-workers) that if she/he participates there will be benefits.

There is interest in obtaining information on the personal and company benefits of employee recreation, and on how to establish an employee recreation programme. It would be beneficial to produce an information kit (as part of a national campaign) to send to companies to promote employee recreation. Although some executives may realise the importance of fitness to individual health and the company, they need encouragement, knowledge and sufficient desire before employee recreation programmes will win their support.

The marketing opportunities include a market niche for employee recreation and the benefits to be obtained from increased fitness levels. The threats to the development of employee recreation are the personal barriers (e.g., involvement in physical activities outside the workplace and lack of time to devote to fitness) and company barriers (e.g., a range of interests among staff and cost of establishing a programme). Another possible threat is the premise that Rees (1986) has raised whereby if adults perceive there is a high health risk from participation, the level of involvement and commitment to physical activity will be low.

### **5.3.3 Planning**

For the recreation planner, the results of this study present a picture of how employee recreation is viewed by some New Zealand executives and employees. The finding that executives and employees are interested in employee recreation programmes (but that they have not developed) suggests that support for the development of programmes is needed. This could come from both local government and national government agencies.

Recreation planners who aim to increase involvement in physical activity among those residing within their constituencies should be aware that the workplace has potential to influence adult attitudes towards fitness and improved health. One question that has arisen is "why would local government not support employee recreation?" The "public" are still the "public" when at work. Whilst it is important to allocate dollars to competitive sport, athletics and maintaining recreational amenities, it is also important to facilitate commitment in physical activity from the uncommitted. Recreation planners could help facilitate employee recreation programmes within companies who wish to implement them.

To promote the development of employee recreation at the national level, it will be important to give consideration to developing a national planning strategy. Policies could address the co-ordination of an effort to promote employee recreation to New Zealand companies. Policies could also focus on the establishment of a support network for companies wishing to implement programmes and the possibility of training fitness leaders within companies.

In general, governments do not conduct 10 year promotion programmes on any one issue. This is the extent of commitment to employee health and fitness which is required for a preventive approach to health-care in New Zealand. Through increasing the level of participation in regular physical activity, New Zealand's health goals are more likely to be met.

## **5.4 Limitations in this Study**

### **5.4.1 Sample Size**

Forty-eight executives responded to this study. Although the executive results are valid for the study sample, they would have low validity if generalised to a larger population. If time, finances and access to sampling lists had allowed, a larger study over a greater number of companies and with a greater number of respondents in more New Zealand cities could have been conducted. This would have given a more clear picture of New Zealand executive and employee views towards employee recreation.

### **5.4.2 Benefit Scales**

There are two main problems with using a mean score to interpret data gathered on a Likert scale (although this type of scale is used frequently by social scientists, some declare that the

mean score gives the reader a false interpretation of the results). One problem is that of calculating mean values from non-interval data (i.e., intervals between the ranks are not equal). Yeates (1974) states that a mean value has no meaning with respect to rank ordered variables.

The second problem, is that a mean score has limited use because it is confined to nonparametric statistics (i.e., it conceals the variation of responses in a scale). There is a trade-off in choice of technique in this type of research. The mean scores in the benefit tables in this study are presented to give the reader an indication of whether respondents tended to agree or disagree with statements. High mean scores (e.g., 4.30) indicate that a high percentage of respondents tended to agree with a statement. Lower mean scores (e.g., 3.10) indicate that less respondents agreed. The latter could also indicate that, for example, a lot of respondents indicated a "neutral" stance on a particular issue.

## **5.5 Delimitation**

### **5.5.1 Active Recreation vs. Passive**

This study does not address non-physical recreational activities such as television viewing or reading. The reason for focussing on physical recreation as opposed to non-physical is that literature suggests maximum benefit can be gained from participation in physical recreation. Definitional problems and ambiguity could have arisen in the questionnaire if both physical and non-physical participation in recreation had been examined.

## **5.6 Recommendations Arising from the Research**

Considering the health risks associated with inactivity and the long term economic cost of a population in poor health, action is needed to facilitate greater participation by New Zealanders in regular physical activity. The interest shown towards employee recreation in this study shows health and recreation professionals that the workplace has potential for changing lifestyle habits related to inactivity and poor health.

### **5.6.1 Practical Recommendations**

There is no one dominant personal restriction to participation or a dominant company barrier to the development of employee recreation. To overcome existing company barriers within a specific company, it is necessary to initially determine what they are. Barriers may differ



according to company size, location, number of employees, employee characteristics and the type of company. Executives and employees are aware of the possible personal and company barriers. It is recommended that before companies introduce an employee recreation programme organisers determine employee perceptions of the personal and company barriers to development. There may be other barriers to participation (which were not addressed in this study), such as travel to participate in an employee recreation programme. Other barriers need to be identified by programme organisers.

Once personal and company barriers are determined, the organisers can then prepare for these. For example, time available for participation in fitness activities would be a restricting factor to participation in an employee recreation programme for some individuals. Given the opportunity to exercise at the worksite, many employees with limited time may find it more convenient to exercise.

The underlying reasons as to why people think they have no spare time for developing and maintaining fitness need to be determined. As Rees (1986) suggests, many inactive people may think that there is a health risk in being involved in regular physical activity. This could also be one personal barrier which may be worth investigating in future studies.

If and when a company decides to encourage the development of an employee recreation programme, an attempt should be made to determine employee opinions on whether they would rather have:

- an organised group such as a social club (which includes employees only) organising activities or
- an organised group such as a social club (which includes both executives and employees) or
- executives and employees as individuals organising activities for other staff.

One issue which could be addressed in future research is the feasibility of employing a recreation professional, which Glaxo Industries has done in Palmerston North. The responsibility of organising an employee recreation programme should ideally be that of the recreation professional/s who is an employee of the company (either part or full time) but is, for example, responsible to a policy committee composed of employees and executives.

If a programme is to be established within a company, it is important to determine how often employees would be willing to participate in a programme (e.g., frequency per week) because although the results here indicate a reasonably high level of perceived participation, it will vary from one company to the other. In this study, a slight majority of the employees are interested in participating in a programme at least three times a week. Some employees could be interested in participating less than three times a week. When the times, place and type of programmes scheduled become known to employees, some who indicated a willingness to participate may drop out. Research indicates that participation in employee recreation programmes within North American companies is between 20-40% of the total number of employees (Conrad, 1987 (b)). However, at Glaxo Industries in Palmerston North, 70% of the company's employees participate in the programmes offered (Blok, 1990).

It would be important for the organisers of an employee recreation programme to determine more specifically how many times, if any, respondents are physically active each week (e.g., none, once, twice, three, four times) as well as the length of time and intensity. This information would be useful to show how often respondents actually are active as opposed to how many take part in physical activity on a regular basis (based on a definition of "regular participation" or "regular activity"). Also, the types of physical activities that will interest the majority of staff need to be identified.

### **5.6.2 Research Recommendations**

From comparing the developments in the area of employee recreation in other countries (e.g., Canada and the United States) with developments in New Zealand, it appears that New Zealand is a long way behind.

As this thesis has shown, there is little information on the history of employee recreation in New Zealand. A study which aims to review the history and development of employee recreation within New Zealand would be worthwhile to establish patterns of provision over the last century and to determine the nature of present recreation provision.

It would be beneficial to produce an annotated bibliography of references in the area of employee recreation. This would be helpful to future researchers who have limited time for reviewing literature. It would also aid recreation planners, professionals and companies who

wish to obtain information on a specific area of employee recreation - (e.g., organising a programme, methods to motivate employees to participate in programmes and the costs involved in establishing a programme).

There is confusion in the literature on the definition of "regular participation" and "regular activity" (i.e., frequency, intensity and length of physical activity). Both New Zealand and overseas recreation studies have used different definitions of these terms. Future researchers should address the problem of using a standard definition. The use of a standard definition is important for comparing and contrasting results across different studies.

The majority of employees and 50% of the executives in this study indicated they would participate regularly in an employee recreation programme but perhaps both executives and employees lack the ability to organise a programme. Tait's (1984) premise that New Zealand managers lack the knowledge, ability and facilities to support employee recreation is worth investigating in the future.

Due to the small number of respondents in the executive sample (48), it is suggested that to gain more reliable information and a greater understanding of executive views, a study with similar objectives to this one could be conducted among managing directors of New Zealand companies in the main cities. This would give more information on executive awareness and knowledge of the various issues relating to employee recreation. Also, a study involving more executives would enable better judgement for a marketing strategy for employee recreation.

It is clear from the results of this study that some respondents did not agree with some of the benefits of employee recreation. More in-depth research is needed on both executive and employee opinions as to why they disagree about some benefits and why they have a neutral stance on other benefits. Research should seek to determine whether there are any other personal and company benefits and barriers which have not been addressed in this study. Also, the bimodal distribution among the male employees on the issue of absenteeism from work could be investigated.

One further research possibility is to identify factors that can influence participation rates in physical activity (e.g., education, income, number of children). Findings from a research

project such as this could have important implications for organising employee recreation within companies and marketing employee recreation to companies.

There is little conclusive information available on long term cost/benefits for the company. This lack of information on the cost/benefit trade-off for the company needs to be addressed. Executives will not support anything they cannot see will lead to benefits. Support will come if executives can see a positive relationship between regular participation and company benefits.

It is recommended that a research experiment be set up in New Zealand to gather information regarding the fiscal feasibility of an employee recreation programme and information on actual benefits from participation in employee recreation. A pre-test post-test experiment with a control group could determine whether or not employee recreation can actually benefit New Zealand companies' human resource problems as well as employee health. The suggested experimental design is illustrated in Figure 1.

**Figure 1      Proposed Research Design for an Employee Recreation Experiment.**

<b>R :</b>	<b>X</b>	<b>O</b>	<b>X</b>	<b>(participants)</b>
<b>R :</b>	<b>O</b>	<b>O</b>	<b>O</b>	<b>(non-participants)</b>

\* N.b. 'R' means random selection of subjects.

The experiment could use employees from two similar companies, one as the experimental group and one as the control group, for example, two trading banks. A variety of fitness-related programmes should be offered to the experimental group. Information could be collected on company absenteeism, injury, job satisfaction, morale and turnover, both before and after the experiment. Data could also be collected on individual factors such as oxygen uptake and muscle tone to compare programme participants with non-participants.

Literature suggests that a programme would need to be conducted for at least six months but preferably for as long as possible in order to obtain reliable and valid results. The experiment should be conducted with a view to long term measurement of variables (e.g., two years). Other information can also be collected during and after the experiment (such as qualitative information about participant views on the programme and any personal changes participants may have experienced).

## **5.7 Concluding Comment**

For employee recreation to develop in New Zealand workplaces, action is needed from an agency or group to facilitate development. So far, no agency or group has taken the step to promote employee recreation (to all employees, not just executives) in business and industry on a wide scale in New Zealand. Promotion of physical recreation (fitness) to employees has been fragmented and at the mercy of private industry gym operators offering membership deals to some companies.

As a major employer, the New Zealand government, both local and national, has a responsibility to take the lead in the promotion of employee recreation. American, Canadian and Japanese government recreation agencies (and governments from many other countries) encourage and support companies wishing to establish an employee recreation programme. A positive approach such as this is required in New Zealand. If employee recreation receives the attention it deserves, it is probable that there will be long term benefits for New Zealand companies, their employees and the health of New Zealand's adult population.

## Bibliography

## Bibliography

- Accident Compensation Corporation. (1990) ACC Injury Statistics. Accident Compensation Corporation, Wellington, New Zealand.
- Advisory Committee to the Minister of Health. (1986) The Prevention of Cardiovascular Disease. Government Printer, Wellington, New Zealand.
- Anderson, J.M. (1951) "A Survey of Recent Research Findings in Industrial Recreation". Research Quarterly. 22 (3) : 273-285.
- Ardell, D.B. (1985) "The History and Future of Wellness". Health Values. 9 (6) : 37-56.
- Arnold, W.B. (1977) "Xerox International Center for Training and Management Development". Recreation Management. December/ January : 30-32.
- Arviko, I. (1978) "Industrial Recreation - Unions, Management and the National Association". Recreation Canada. 36 (4) : 19-22.
- Babbie, E.R. (1973) Survey Research Methods. Wadsworth Publishing Co. Inc., California, U.S.A.
- Baun, W.B., Bernacki, E.J. and Tsai, S.P. (1986) "A Preliminary Investigation: Effect of a Corporate Fitness Program on Absenteeism and Health Care Costs". Journal of Occupational Medicine. 28 (1) : 18-22.
- Beaglehole, R. (1986) "The prevention of coronary heart disease in New Zealand". New Zealand Medical Journal. 99 (806) : 539-540.
- Bechtel, S. (1982) "Wellness in the Work Place". Prevention. : 55-61.
- Benson, J. (1981) "Union involvement in health issues: The VIC RAIL Asbestos Dispute". New Zealand Journal of Industrial Relations. 6 : 57-65.
- Bialk, B.S. (1987) "Compensation: Cutting Workers' Compensation Costs". Personnel Journal. 66 (7) : 95-97.
- Bjurstrom, L.A. and Alexiou, N.G. (1978) "A program of heart disease prevention for public employees: A five-year report". Journal of Occupational Medicine. 20 (8) : 521-531.
- Blair, S.N., Smith, M., Collingwood, T., Reynolds, R., Prentice, M.C. and Sterling, C.L. (1986 (a)) "Health Promotion for Educators: Impact on Absenteeism". Preventive Medicine. 15 (2) : 166-175.
- Blair, S.N., Piserchia, P.V., Wilbur, C.S. and Crowder, J.H. (1986 (b)) "A Public Health Intervention Model for Work-Site Health Promotion". Journal of the American Medical Association. 255 (7) : 921-926.

- Blok, R. (1990) "Corporate Health and Recreation in the 1990's". Seminar presented at the 'Recreation into the 1990s' Conference to the Recreation Association of New Zealand. 23-26 September, Blenheim, New Zealand.
- Bonniface, J. (1989) Recreation Director, Christchurch Polytechnic, Christchurch, New Zealand. "Personal interview on subject of employee recreation". Interviewed by Rosaleen Ward, May, Christchurch, New Zealand.
- Bowne, D.E., Russell, M.L., Morgan, J.L., Optenberg, S.A. and Clarke, A.E. (1984) "Reduced disability and health care costs in an industrial fitness program". Journal of Occupational Medicine. November, 26 (11) : 807-816.
- Brennan, A.J. (1982) "Health Promotion: What's in it for Business and Industry?" Health Education Quarterly. (Special Supplement). 9 : 9-19.
- Breslow, L. (1972) "A Quantitative Approach to the World Health Organization Definition of Health : Physical, Mental and Social Well-being". International Journal of Epidemiology. 1 (4) : 347-355.
- Brody, B.E. (1988) "Employee Assistance Programs: An Historical and Literature Review". American Journal of Health Promotion. Winter, : 13-19.
- Bruhn, J.G. and Cordova, F.D. (1987) "Promoting Healthy Behavior in the Workplace". Health Values. September/October, 11 (2) : 39-48.
- Caspersen, C.J., Powell, K.E. and Christenson, G.M. (1985) "Physical Activity, Exercise, and Physical Fitness: Definitions and Distinctions for Health-Related Research". Public Health Reports. 100 (2) : 126-131.
- Chase, D.R. (Date unknown) "Recreation Programming as Personal Growth". Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance. (Leisure Today Supplement). : 53-55.
- Chen, M.S. (1988) "Wellness in the Workplace". American Association of Occupational Health Nurses Journal. June, 36 (6) : 256-261.
- Chenoweth, D. (1987) "With Cost-Effectiveness Analysis Firms Can Compare Health Programs". Occupational Health and Safety. March, 56 (3) : 31.
- Clement, J. and Gibbs, D.A. (1983) "Employer Consideration of Health Promotion Programs: Financial Variables". Journal of Public Health Policy. 4 (1) : 45-55.
- Collingwood, T.R. (1972) "The Effects of Physical Training upon Behavior and Self Attitudes". Journal of Clinical Psychology. 28 : 583-585.
- Conrad, P. (1987 (a)) "Wellness in the Work Place: Potentials and Pitfalls of Work-site Health Promotion". Milbank Quarterly. 65 (2) : 255-275.
- Conrad, P. (1987 (b)) "Who Comes to Work-Site Wellness Programs? A Preliminary Review". Journal of Occupational Medicine. April, 29 (4) : 317-320.



- Conrad, P. (1988) "Health and Fitness at Work: A Participant's Perspective". Social Science & Medicine. 26 (5) : 545-550.
- Cook, R.J., Walden, R.T. and Johnson, D.D. (1979) "Employee Health and Fitness Program at the Sentry Corporation". Health Education. July/August, 10 : 4-6.
- Corbin, H.D. and Tait, W.J. (1973) Education for Leisure. Prentice-Hall Inc., New Jersey, U.S.A.
- Cox, M., Shephard, R.J. and Corey, P. (1981) "Influence of an employee fitness programme upon fitness, productivity and absenteeism". Ergonomics. 24 (10) : 795-806.
- Cox, M., Shephard, R.J. and Coney, P. (1983) "Absenteeism, fitness and worker satisfaction". Canadian Journal of Applied Sport Sciences. 8 (4) : 227.
- Cramer, J. (1984) "Employee Services and Recreation As a Recruiting Tool: Attracting New Employees". Employee Services Management. 27 (10) : 17-20.
- Creed, C.E. (1946) "The Relationship of Recreational Participation To Industrial Efficiency". Research Quarterly. 17 (1) : 193-203.
- Crossley, J.C. and Hudson, S.J. (Date unknown) "Assessing the Effectiveness of Employee Recreation/Fitness Programs - A Practical Approach" Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance. (Leisure Today Supplement) : 58-60.
- Cushman, G. and Laidler, A. (1990) "Leisure Participation in New Zealand". Proceedings of the 1990 Commonwealth and International Conference on Physical Education, Sport, Health, Dance, Recreation and Leisure. Auckland, New Zealand.
- Dahya, B. (1981) "Executive Health and Fitness: A Pilot Study". Masters Thesis. Victoria University, Wellington, New Zealand.
- Davis, M.F., Rosenberg, K., Iverson, D.C., Vernon, T.M. and Bauer, J. (1984) "Worksite Health Promotion in Colorado". Public Health Reports. November/December, 99 (6) : 539-543.
- Department of Fitness, Recreation and Sport (1981) "Why Employee Fitness". Proceedings of the Manitoba Department of Fitness, Recreation and Sport Conference on Fitness for Business. Manitoba Department of Fitness, Recreation and Sport, Winnipeg, Canada.
- Department of Statistics. (1988) New Zealand Official Yearbook - 1988/89. Government Printer, Wellington, New Zealand.
- Department of Statistics. (1990) New Zealand Official Yearbook - 1990. Government Printer, Wellington, New Zealand.
- Department of Youth, Sport and Recreation. (1981) "Employee Fitness: An investment in your human resources". Proceedings of the Victoria Department of Youth, Sport and Recreation Seminar. Melbourne, Australia.

- Department of Youth, Sport and Recreation. (1982) Health, Fitness and Recreation in the Victorian Workplace. Research Report. Melbourne, Australia.
- Dickerson, O.B. and Mandelblit, M.A. (1983) "A New Model for Employer - Provided Health Education Programs". Journal of Occupational Medicine. 25 (6) : 471-474.
- Dishman, R.K., Sallis, J.F. and Orenstein, D.R. (1985) "The determinants of physical activity and exercise". Public Health Reports. 100 : 158-171.
- Dionne, E.D. (1984) "Pepping up Plant Productivity". National Safety News. May, : 76-79.
- Donoghue, S. (1977) "The Correlation between Physical Fitness, Absenteeism, and Work Performance". Canadian Journal of Public Health. May/June, 68 : 201-203.
- Driver, R.W. and Ratliff, R.A. (1982) "Employers' perceptions of benefits accrued from physical fitness programs". Personnel Administrator. (8) : 21-26.
- Dubin, R. (1956) "Industrial workers' worlds: A study of the "Central Life Interests" of Industrial workers". Social Problems. (3) : 131-142.
- Dunstall, G. (1981) "The Social Pattern" in Oliver, W.H. and William, B.R. (eds.) Oxford History of New Zealand. Oxford University Press, Wellington, New Zealand.
- Edginton, C.R., Compton, D.M. and Hanson, C.J. (1980) Recreation and Leisure Programming - A Guide for the Professional. Saunders College, Philadelphia, U.S.A.
- Ellis, T. and Richardson, G. (1989) Organisational Wellness. (Draft paper). School of Community Services and Policy Studies, Phillip Institute of Technology, Victoria, Australia.
- Etzioni, A. (1964) Modern Organisations. Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, U.S.A.
- Falkenberg, L.E. (1987) "Employee Fitness Programs: Their Impact on the Employee and the Organisation". Academy of Management Review. 12 (3) : 511-522.
- Faulkner, R.A. and Stewart, G. (1978) "Exercise Programmes - Recruitment/Retention of Participants". Recreation Canada. 36 (3) : 21-27.
- Fielding, J.E. (1982) "Effectiveness of Employee Health Improvement Programs". Journal of Occupational Medicine. November, 24 (11) : 907-916.
- Fielding, J.E. and Breslow, L. (1983) "Health Promotion Programs Sponsored By California Employers". American Journal of Public Health. May, 73 (5) : 538-542.
- Finney, C. (1984) "Corporate Benefits of Employee Recreation Programs". Parks and Recreation. 19 (8) : 44-46, 71.

- Folkins, C.H. and Sime, W.E. (1981) "Physical fitness training and mental health". American Psychologist. 36 : 373-389.
- Fuchs, J.A., Price, J.H., Richards, J.E. and Marcotte, B. (1985) "Worksetting Health Promotion - A Comprehensive Bibliography". Health Education. August/September, 16 : 29-34.
- Gibbs, J.O., Mulvaney, D., Henes, C. and Reed, R.W. (1985) "Work-Site Health Promotion". Journal of Occupational Medicine. November, 27 (11) : 826-830.
- Government of New Zealand. (1919) New Zealand Official Yearbook. Government Printer, Wellington, New Zealand.
- Groves, D.L. and Whitlock, M. (1979) Benefit Analysis of the Industrial Recreation Institution. National Industrial Recreation Research and Educational Foundation, Chicago, Illinois, U.S.A.
- Gupta, N. and Beehr, T.A. (1979) "Job Stress and Employee Behaviors". Organisational Behavior and Human Performance. 23 : 373-387.
- Hacleman, K.T., Jennings, K. and Walko, S. (1985) "Wellness in Industry". Library Journal. April, : 15-19.
- Hamilton-Smith, E. (1989) "Work/ Leisure Relationships". Seminar, 18 April. Lincoln College, Canterbury, New Zealand.
- Haniford, G.W. (1947) "Trends in Industrial Recreation 1940 - 1945". Masters Thesis (unpublished). Purdue University, Indiana, U.S.A.
- Haskell, W.L. and Blair, S. (1980) "The Physical Activity Component of Health Promotion in Occupational Settings". Public Health Reports. 95 (2) : 109-118.
- Haydon, D.F., Murray, T.D. and Edwards, T.L. (1986) "Texas Employee Health and Fitness Program - An Example of Unique Legislation". Journal of Physical Education Recreation and Dance. October, : 28-32.
- Heinzelmann, F. and Bagley, R.W. (1969) "Factors Influencing Response to Physical Activity Programmes and the Effects of Participation on Health Attitudes and Behavior". Proceedings from the National Institute on Executive and Employee Fitness Conference. St. Louis, Missouri, U.S.A.
- Heinzelmann, F. and Bagley, R.W. (1970) "Response to Physical Activity Programs and Their Effects on Health Behavior". Public Health Reports. 85 (10) : 905-911.
- Hillary Commission for Recreation and Sport (1988) Life in New Zealand: Pilot Study Report. University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand.
- Hoffman, J.J. and Hobson, C.J. (1984) "Physical fitness and employee effectiveness". Personnel Administrator. April, (4) : 101-126.
- Honeybone, W. (1990) "Inactivity risk to health". Star Sunday. Christchurch, New Zealand, : 16.

- Hormachea, M.N. and Hormachea, C.R. (1972) Recreation in Modern Society. Holbrook Press Inc., U.S.A.
- Howard, D.R. and Crompton, J.L. (1980) Financing, Managing and Marketing Recreation and Park Resources. W. C. Brown Co., Iowa, U.S.A.
- Johns, G. (1987) "On the Job: The Great Escape". Psychology Today. October, 21 (10) : 30-31,33.
- Kale, D.M. (1979) "Report on Lyttelton Watersiders Industrial Fitness Programme". Unpublished paper, Christchurch, New Zealand.
- Kasai, S. and Hatano, Y. (1982) "Current Trends and Problems of Physical Education, Sports and Recreation in Japan". International Journal of Physical Education. 19 (2) : 22-24.
- Kelly, J.M., Rigan, J.E., Rothman, N.L. and Swenson, E.F. (1986) "Winning with Wellness Programs". Management World. April, 15 (4) :11-13.
- Kenyon, G.S. (1967) "Six scales for assessing attitude toward physical activity". The Research Quarterly. 39 (3) : 566-574.
- Kizer, W.M. (1987) The Healthy Workplace - A Blueprint for Corporate Action. John Wiley and Sons Inc., U.S.A.
- Kondrasuk, J.N. (1985) "Business and Health: Should Your Company Have a Physical Fitness Program?". Business. 35 (3) : 51-53.
- Kraus, R. (1966) Recreation Today - Program Planning and Leadership. Meredith Publishing Co., New York, U.S.A.
- Krauss, R. (1971) Recreation and Leisure in Modern Society. Meredith Corporation, New York, U.S.A.
- Kraus, R. (1977) Recreation Today - Program Planning and Leadership. Second edition. Goodyear Publishing Co. Ltd., California, U.S.A.
- Kristein, M.M. (1982) "The Economics of Health Promotion at the Worksite". Health Education Quarterly. (Special Supplement). 9 : 27-36.
- Kronenfeld, J.J., Jackson, K., Blair, S.N., Davis, K., Gimarc, J.D., Salisbury, Z., Maysey, D. and McGee, J.G. (1985) "Evaluating Health Promotion: A Longitudinal Quasi-Experimental Design". Health Education Quarterly. 14 (2) : 515-523.
- Lamke, G.C. (1984) "Perceptions on Corporate Recreation". Employee Services Management. May/June, 26 (3) : 34-36.
- Larkin, R.N. (1978) "Work-based Sport and Recreation in New Zealand" in Hinchcliff, J.C. (ed.) The Nature and Meaning of Sport in New Zealand. Centre for Continuing Education, Auckland University, New Zealand.

- Leatt, P., Hattin, H., West, C. and Shephard, R.J. (1988) "Seven Year Follow-up of Employee Fitness Program". Canadian Journal of Public Health. January/February, 79 : 20-25.
- Leonard, D.J. (1979) "In Pursuit of Better Employee Activity Programs". Recreation Management. February, : 8.
- Leiske, C. (1980) "Recreation and the Work Environment". Unpublished report from the 13th National Biennial Conference of the Australian Council for Health, Physical Education and Recreation. 18-23 January. Melbourne, Australia.
- Leiske, C. (1982) "Employee Fitness and Recreation: Towards a Quality of Working Life". Unpublished paper, Australia.
- Levy, R. (1980) "Fitness Fever: Everybody Into the Company Gym". Dun's Review. : 115-118.
- Linden, V. (1969) "Absence from work and physical fitness". British Journal of Industrial Medicine. 26 : 47-53.
- Lindsey, F.D. (1983) "The Benefit Bonanza - How employee benefits add one-third to payroll costs". Employee Services Management. April, 26 (3) : 19-21.
- Line, J. (1985) "Bodywork". Occupational Safety and Health. November, :12-18.
- McLennan, R., Inkson, K., Dakin, S., Dewe, P. and Elkin, G. (1987) People and enterprises - Human behaviour in New Zealand Organisations. Holt Rinehart and Winston, Sydney, Australia.
- Main, J. (1989) "Stress and Eustress in Outdoor Developmental Programmes - An awareness of the implications of the role of beta-endorphin production". Unpublished dissertation. Hillary Commission for Recreation and Sport, Wellington, New Zealand.
- Mosely, P. (1985) "Factory Football: Paternalism and Profits". Sporting Traditions. 2 (1) : 25-36.
- Murphy, J.F. (1974) Concepts of Leisure. Prentice-Hall Inc., New Jersey, U.S.A.
- Murphy, M.T. (1984) "The History of Employee Services and Recreation". Parks and Recreation. 19 (8) : 35-39.
- Naditch, M.P. (1981) "Wellness Programme Reaps Healthy Benefits For Sponsoring Employer". Risk Management. October, (28) : 21-24.
- Nadolski, J.N. and Sandonato, C.E. (1984) "Evaluation of an Employee Assistance Program". Journal of Occupational Medicine. 29 (1) : 2-37.
- Nudel, M. (1984) "Employee Recreation Around the Country". Parks and Recreation. August, 29 (8) : 40-46, 71.

- Osgood, N.J. (1982) Life After Work - Retirement, Leisure, Recreation, and the Elderly. Praeger Publishers, New York, U.S.A.
- Pate, R.R. and Blair, S.N. (1983) "Physical Fitness Programing for Health Promotion at the Worksite". Preventive Medicine. 12 : 632-643.
- Pauly, J.T., Palmer, J.A., Wright, C.C. and Pfeiffer, G.J. (1982) "The Effect of a 14-Week Employee Fitness Program on Selected Physiological and Psychological Parameters". Journal of Occupational Medicine. June, 24 (6) : 457-463.
- Pearson, C. (1988) "Fit for the job". Southern Skies. September, : 38-45.
- Pechter, K. (1986) "Corporate Fitness and Blue-Collar Fears". Across the Board. 23 (10) : 14-21.
- Peepre, M. (1978) "The Canadian Employee Fitness and Lifestyle Project". Athletic Purchasing and Facilities. December, : 18-24.
- Pfeiffer, G.J. (1987) "Corporate Health Can Improve if Firms Take Organizational Approach". Occupational Health and Safety. October, 56 (11) : 96, 97, 99.
- Phelps, D. and Roys, K.B. (1983/84) "Views from the Top: Employee Recreation as Perceived by Chief Executive Officers". Occupational Health and Safety. December/January, 26 (10) : 4-15.
- Phelps, J.R. (1987) "Physical Activity and Health Maintenance - Exactly What Is Known?". Western Journal of Medicine. 146 (2) : 200-206.
- Pomerleau, O.F. (1983) "Introduction to the Proceedings of the University of Connecticut Symposium on Employee Health and Fitness". Preventive Medicine. 12 (5) : 598-599.
- Pravosudov, V. (1976) "The Effect of Physical Exercises on Health and Economic Efficiency". Paper presented at the pre-Olympics Scientific Congress, Montreal, Quebec, Canada. : 3-6.
- President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports. (Date unknown) "Health and Fitness: The Corporate View". Athletic Purchasing and Facilities. Iowa, U.S.A.
- Redfern, A. (1983) "Crewe: leisure in a railway town" in Walton, J.K. and Walvin, J. (eds.). Leisure in Britain 1780-1939. Manchester University Press. Manchester, United Kingdom. : 117-135.
- Rees, C.R. (1986) "A Structural Symbolic Interactionist Approach to Involvement in Physical Activity". Sport Culture and Society - International, historical and sociological perspectives. J.A. Mangan and R.B. Small (eds). Human Kinetics Publishers, Illinois, U.S.A.
- Rhodes, E.C. and Dunwoody, D. (1980) "Physiological and Attitudinal Changes in Those Involved in an Employee Fitness Program". Canadian Journal of Public Health. September/October, 71 : 331-336.

- Rippe, J., Ward, A., Porcar, J.P. and Freedson, P.S. (1988) "Walking for Health and Fitness". Journal of American Medical Association. 259 (18) : 2720-2724.
- Roberts, K. (1974) "The influence of leisure upon work" in J.F Murphy (ed). Concepts of Leisure. Prentice Hall, U.S.A. : 188-192.
- Roberts, A.D. (1987) "Fitness at the workplace". Journal of Occupational Health and Safety. 3 (1) : 9-15.
- Rollins R. (1983) "Issue of Non-Response in Recreation Surveys". Recreation Review. December, 10 (4) : 5-11.
- Roman, P.M. and Blum, T.C. (1988) "Formal Intervention in Employee Health: Comparisons of the Nature and Structure of Employee Assistance Programs and Health Promotion Programs". Social Science & Medicine. 26 (5) : 503-514.
- Rosen, R.H. (1984). "The picture of health in the work place". Training and Development Journal. 38 (8) : 24-30.
- Rosenstein, A.H. (1987) "The Benefits of Health Maintenance". The Physician and Sports Medicine. April, 15 (4) : 57-58, 61-62, 65-66, 68.
- Russell, D.G., Worsley, F.A. and Wilson, N.C. (1987 (a)) The Cost of Doing Nothing. Otago University, Dunedin, New Zealand.
- Russell, D.G., Worsley, F.A. and Wilson, N.C. (1987(b)) A Summary Report of The Cost of Doing Nothing. Otago University, Dunedin, New Zealand.
- Schermerhorn, J.R. (1986) Management for Productivity. John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York, U.S.A.
- Scott, W.P., Clothier, R.C. and Spriegel, W.R. (1961) Personnel Management - Principles, practices and a point of view. McGraw Hill Company Inc., New York, U.S.A.
- Scott-Vincent, R. (1985) "Good heavens! In this gym they wear collars and ties". New Zealand Womens Weekly. March 11, : 6-9.
- Schuler, R.S. (1980) "Definition and conceptualisation of stress in organisations". Organizational Behavior and Human Performance. 25 : 184-215.
- Sellitz, C., Wrightsman, L.S. and Cook, S.W. (1976) Research Methods in Social Relations. Third edition. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, U.S.A.
- Selye, H. (1956) The Stress of Life. McGraw Hill. New York, U.S.A.
- Shakespeare, V. (1987) "Jim Blair - Fitness Guru To The Stars". Metro. 7 (77) : 228-235.
- Shephard, R.J. (1983) "Employee Health and Fitness: The State of the Art". Preventive Medicine. September, 12 (5) : 644-653.

- Shephard, R.J. (1986) Economic Benefits of Enhanced Fitness. Human Kinetics Publishers Inc., Champaign, Illinois, U.S.A.
- Shephard, R.J., Morgan, P., Finucane, R. and Schimmelfing, L. (1980) "Factors Influencing Recruitment to an Occupational Fitness Program". Journal of Occupational Medicine. June, 22 (6) : 389-398.
- Shephard, R.J., Cox, M. and Corey, P. (1981) "Fitness program participation: Its effect on worker performance". Journal of Occupational Medicine. 23 : 359-363.
- Shipley, R.H., Orleans, C.T., Wilbur, C.S., Piserchia, M.S. and McFadden, D.W. (1988) "Effect of the Johnson and Johnson Live for Life Program on Employee Smoking". Preventive Medicine. 17 (10) : 25-34.
- Simon, J.L. and Burnstein, P. (1985) Basic Research Methods in Social Science. Third edition. Random House, New York, U.S.A.
- Sloan, R.P. (1987) "Workplace Health Promotion: A Commentary on the Evolution of a Paradigm". Health Education Quarterly. 14 (2) : 181-194.
- Smyth, B.W. (1973) The role of culture in leisure-time in New Zealand. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. Paris, France.
- Spilman, M.A., Goetz, A., Shultz, J., Bellingham, R. and Johnson, D. (1986) "Effects of a Health Promotion Programme". Journal of Occupational Medicine. April, 28 (4) : 285-289.
- Steel, M. (1989) Fitness Consultant. Chase Corporate Health Club, Chase Plaza, Auckland. "Personal interview on the subject of corporate fitness". Interviewed by Rosaleen Ward, August, Auckland, New Zealand.
- Stones, M.J., Kozma, A. and Stones, L. (1985) "Preliminary Findings on the Effects of Exercise Program Participation in Older Adults". Canadian Journal of Public Health. July/August, 7 (76) : 272-273.
- Tadashi, F. (1982) The Japanese Social Structure - Its Evolution in the Modern Century. University of Tokyo Press, Japan.
- Tait, D. (1984) Recreation and the Workplace. Department of Internal Affairs, Wellington, New Zealand.
- Teague, M.L. and Mobily, K.E. (Date unknown) "Rustproofing People - Corporate Recreation Programs in Perspective". Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance (Leisure Today Supplement). : 50-52.
- Thomson, M. (ed.) (1989) Management-A Source book. The Dunmore Press, Palmerston North, New Zealand.
- Tsai, S. Baun, W.B. and Bernacki, E.J. (1987) "Relationship of Employee Turnover to Exercise Adherence in a Corporate Fitness Program". Journal of Occupational Medicine. 29 (7) : 572-575.



- Vickery, D.M., Kalmer, H., Lowry, D., Constantine, M., Wright, E. and Loren, W. (1983) "Effect of a Self-care Education Program on Medical Visits". Journal of American Medical Association. 250 (21) : 2952-2956.
- Victorian Local Government Industry Training Committee (1984) State and Local Government Recreation Officers conference - Major Papers and Summary of Workshops. Lorne, Victoria, Australia.
- Villeneuve, K., Weeks, D. and Schwied, M. (1983) "Employee Fitness: A Bottom Line Payoff". Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance. (Leisure Today Supplement). October, : 35-36, 49.
- Walker, V. and Evans, W. (1987) "Ready, Set, Go". Occupational Health and Safety. July, : 12-32.
- Wanzel, R.S. (1981) "Employee Fitness". Recreation Canada. February, : 34-38.
- Ward, R. (1990) Transcripts from 15 interviews with personnel managers in Christchurch, New Zealand.
- Warner, D.E., Wickizer, T.M., Wolfe, R.A., Schildroth, J.E. and Samuelson, M.H. (1988) "Economic Implications of Workplace Health Promotion Programs: Review of the Literature". Journal of Occupational Medicine. 30 (2) : 106-112.
- Weiskopf, D.C. (1975) A Guide to Recreation and Leisure. Allyn and Bacon Inc., Boston, U.S.A.
- Willee, A. (1974) "Recreation and Industry". Proceedings from the 'Leisure: A New Perspective' Conference. 22-24 April. Canberra, Australia.
- Wilson, T., Wanzel, R.S., Gillespie, V. and Roberts, C.J. (1979) Industrial Recreation - Employee Activities and Services. Wm.C. Brown Company Publishers, Iowa, U.S.A.
- Yarvote, P.M., McDonagh, T.J., Goldman, M.E. and Zuckerman, J. (1974) "Organisation and Evaluation of a Physical Fitness Program in Industry". Journal of Occupational Medicine. September, 16 (9) : 589-598.
- Yeates, M. (1974) An Introduction to Quantitative Analysis in Human Geography. McGraw-Hill, New York, U.S.A.
- Youngblood, S.A. (1984) "Work, nonwork and withdrawal". Journal of Applied Psychology. 69 : 106-117.
- Yuhasz, M. (1979) "Physical fitness in Canadian business and industry". Business Quarterly. 44 (1) : 61-77.

# Appendices

# Appendix 1

## Definition of Terms

### Age groups

Less than 30 years; Middle aged respondents - Aged 30 - 49 years; Older respondents - 50+ years.

### Agree

An acknowledgement of approval and/or acceptance.

### Attitude

A predisposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to some object or symbol, the belief (cognitions held concerning this object or symbol), and the emotional feelings (affect) surrounding the object or symbol (Dahya, 1981, p. 83).

### Company benefits

Productivity components which improve from regular employee participation in an employee recreation programme (e.g., absenteeism, work performance, morale) to better the company position within it's competitive market/s.

### Employee

A staff member who is employed by an organisation either part time or full time (waged, salaried or contract) on the premises or away from the premises. Any individual who is not in the top two tiers of the organisational hierarchy.

### Employee recreation

A social, mental or physical leisure activity (for the purpose of this study, active rather than passive) or experience, provided, subsidised or organised by the company or a formal employee group for either all employees or a selected segment of employees. This may occur during and/or outside work hours, either within or away from the workplace. Participation is voluntary and activities must not be detrimental to one's health.

### Executive

A member of the executive management team for the Christchurch branch of the company who is in the upper two tiers of the organisational hierarchy including the managing director.

### Exercise

"Planned, structured and repetitive bodily movement done to improve or maintain one or more components of physical fitness" (Caspersen, 1985, p. 129).

### Fad

A short term trend/ craze/ style which people follow. Fads, when accepted, may become popular and then decrease in popularity with time.

### Fitness programme

A recreation programme which emphasises development or improvement of cardiovascular rate, balance, agility, speed, strength, endurance, flexibility and bodily functions.

### Hindering factor

A reason/ motive which restricts the development of employee recreation.

### Lifestyle

"... the observable organisation of an individual's activities in terms of use of time, investment of energy, and choice of interpersonal objects" (Osgood, 1982, p. 37).

### Perk (perquisite)

A fringe benefit for employees.

### Personal benefit

Maintenance and/or improvement in lifestyle factors related to mental and physical health and wellness.

### Physical activity

"Any bodily movement produced by skeletal muscles that results in energy expenditure"  
(Caspersen, 1985, p. 129).

### Physical fitness

"A set of attributes that people have or achieve that relates to the ability to perform physical activity" (Caspersen, 1985, p. 129).

### Regular participation (in employee recreation).

Physical activity of moderate to heavy intensity, undertaken at least three times weekly for 35 minutes or more each time.

### Restricting factor

A reason/ motive which restricts participation in an employee recreation programme.

### Workplace

"Any single work location of a business or firm where workers are based" (Tait, 1984). The premises of the organisation(s) where respondents are employed (but not necessarily the location they always work).



Te Whare Wānaka O Aoraki

P.O. Box 84  
Lincoln University  
Canterbury  
New Zealand  
Telephone: Christchurch (03)252 811  
Fax:  
Vice Chancellor & Registry (64)(03)252 965  
Library & Departments (64)(03)252 944

## Appendix 2

### Letter to Managing Directors of Companies

May 15 1990

Managing Director,  
Lasercorp Holdings Ltd.,  
Christchurch.

Dear

My name is Rosaleen Ward and I am a post-graduate student with the Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism at Lincoln University. As part of my masters degree I am required to complete a thesis research project. I have chosen to undertake research in the field of employee recreation as this area has received very little research attention in New Zealand.

Research conducted in other countries (e.g., United States and Canada) suggests there are many personal and company benefits to be gained from staff participation in work-based recreation. One objective of my thesis research is to gain information on the attitudes of employees and executives towards the possible benefits of employee recreation. I am also interested in determining what factors would restrict participation in employee recreation.

I would like to include the employees of \_\_\_\_\_ (Christchurch branch/es) in my research on employee recreation. The purpose of this letter is to ask your authorization to:

1. Sample employees from a staff list (e.g., randomly select staff) to complete a short questionnaire in their own time (non- work time).
2. Sample the executive/s (in Christchurch) of your company to complete a short questionnaire.
3. Ask the personnel manager if he could help me with the distribution and collection of questionnaires.

All information obtained in the research will be confidential. I hope you will approve my request. Your support for my research will be very much appreciated. I have enclosed a copy of the research questionnaire. If you have any queries, please contact me as soon as possible at the above phone number or at home (ph. 295-878). I will look forward to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely,

Rosaleen Ward  
Lincoln University

**Appendix 3**  
**Pre - Survey Letter to Respondents**

**EMPLOYEE RECREATION SURVEY**

You have been selected to take part in a research project on employee recreation. A short mail questionnaire will be delivered to you within the next few days, so watch for it in your internal mail.

Your responses to the questions asked will be completely confidential and you will remain anonymous. Please respond and have your say. It is important for those selected to respond so that results have maximum effect. When you complete and return your questionnaire, you can enter into a draw for one of four cash prizes. I will look forward to receiving your questionnaire.

Yours sincerely

Rosaleen Ward  
Lincoln University.

## Appendix 4

# Survey Questionnaire

June 1990

### EMPLOYEE RECREATION SURVEY

Dear Sir/ Madam

I would like you to assist me in a research project on employee recreation. I am undertaking the research as a requirement for my Masters degree in Applied Science with the Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism at Lincoln University.

This study seeks your opinions on employee recreation (recreational opportunities for employees). The main objectives of the research are to find out:

1. How you feel about the company benefits of employee recreation,
2. Your views on the personal benefits of employee recreation, and
3. Factors which may restrict participation in employee recreation.

So that recreation in the workplace can be considered by businesses and government in the future, it is important to establish current views and attitudes. Please respond and have your say. It is important to hear from all those selected for this study so that results have maximum effect.

Your questionnaire responses will be treated confidentially. You are not required to place your name on the questionnaire. Please complete the questionnaire and return it to **John Churnside** by **Wednesday June 13th** in the envelope provided. When you complete and return your questionnaire, your name can go into a draw for one of four cash prizes of \$50.00. A list of the four winners will be mailed to the above person and winners will be notified by mail.

Thank you for your assistance.

Rosaleen Ward  
Lincoln University



**EMPLOYEE RECREATION SURVEY**

1. NAME OF COMPANY. \_\_\_\_\_

2. OCCUPATION TITLE. \_\_\_\_\_

3. SEX. F / M (circle one).

4. AGE. (circle one)                      (less than 30yrs)                      (30-49yrs)                      (50+yrs)

For the purpose of this study, "employee recreation" refers to an activity and/or experience which emphasises physical activity (exercise). It can be provided or subsidised by the company or an employee group and is available to either all employees or a selected group of employees. For this study employee recreation occurs outside work hours, either within or away from the company's premises. Please answer the following questions relating to employee recreation.

5. In your opinion, who should predominantly organise recreational opportunities (physical activity) for employees of your company? (Choose one - place the letter of your choice in the box below).

- a) Company executives.
- b) Executives and employees.
- c) An organised employee group (e.g., social club).
- d) Employees only.
- e) Employee union/s.
- f) A private organiser from outside the company (e.g., consultant).
- g) Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

(letter only)

6. Who in your company, in Christchurch, would have the greatest influence to establish a planned, structured employee recreation programme aimed at improving or maintaining personal fitness of employees? (Place the letter of your choice in the box below).

- a) The managing director (in Christchurch).
- b) Managers.
- c) Employees.
- d) An organised employee group (e.g., social club).
- e) Employees and managers combined.
- f) Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

(letter only)

7. If your company decided to provide an employee recreation programme would you take part at least three times a week? (note: the activities provided would be aimed at improving or maintaining personal fitness and could include jogging, aerobics, weights, swimming (circle one).

YES

NO

8. Assume a programme outside work hours was being offered either on the work premises or away from work. Please indicate which of the factors below would restrict you personally from being involved in an employee recreation programme (tick the reasons that apply).

(Tick)

A.	<input type="checkbox"/>	I do not like the activities that might be offered (e.g., running, aerobics, lifting weights, swimming).
B.	<input type="checkbox"/>	I have a short term injury (i.e., injury you will have for up to three months).
C.	<input type="checkbox"/>	I have a long term injury (i.e., injury you will have for at least the next year).
D.	<input type="checkbox"/>	I have short term sickness (i.e., sickness you will have for up to three months).
E.	<input type="checkbox"/>	I have long term sickness (i.e., sickness you will have for at least next year).
F.	<input type="checkbox"/>	I think that the personal monetary cost of participating would be too expensive.
G.	<input type="checkbox"/>	I do not wish to take part in recreation with work staff.
H.	<input type="checkbox"/>	I am fit enough already.
I.	<input type="checkbox"/>	I have no time for fitness classes.
J.	<input type="checkbox"/>	I do not want to be fit.
K.	<input type="checkbox"/>	I am already involved in fitness activities outside work.
L.	<input type="checkbox"/>	None of the above.

If you ticked letter L only, go to question 10.

9. Which of the factors you ticked in the previous question (question 8) would most restrict your participation? (Choose one - put the letter of the option you choose in the box below).

(letter only)

10. **Regular participation** is defined as physical activity of moderate to heavy intensity, undertaken at least three times a week for 35 minutes or more each time. Below is a list of personal benefits you can get from participating in a physical activity programme. Please indicate your views on the effect that **regular participation** in an employee recreation programme would have on you personally.

I believe my **regular participation** in an employee recreation programme of moderate to heavy intensity would lead to (please tick one option on the scale for each of the benefits listed):

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
Reduced long term risk of heart disease.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Increased personal fitness.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Increased muscle tone.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
More socialising.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Improved self-confidence.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Relief from stress.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Less visits to the doctor.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

11. Please indicate which two of the following factors would be important personal benefits for you (place your two choices in the boxes below).

- a) Reduced long term risk of coronary heart disease.
- b) Increased personal fitness.
- c) Increased muscle tone.
- d) More socialising.
- e) Improved self confidence.
- f) Relief from stress.
- g) Less visits to the doctor.
- h) None of the above.



(Most important benefit)

(Second most important benefit)

12. Currently, do you participate regularly (at least three times a week for 35 minutes each time) in physical activity of moderate to heavy intensity ?

YES

NO

13. Please indicate your view on the following;

I believe that **regular participation** (i.e., at least three times a week) in an employee recreation programme (physical activity of moderate to heavy intensity) by more than half the employees in my company, would have the following effects (tick an option for each of the factors listed).

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
A decrease in the level of absenteeism from work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
An increase in individual job satisfaction.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
An increase in individual work performance.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
An improvement in communication between staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
An improvement in work atmosphere.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A decrease in work related health problems.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A lower level of staff turnover.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

14. Please indicate which two factors in the list below would occur from **regular** employee participation in an employee recreation programme (put your two choices in the boxes below).

- A decrease in absenteeism from work.
- An increase in individual job satisfaction.
- An increase in individual work performance.
- An improvement in communication between staff.
- An improvement in work atmosphere.
- A decrease in work related health problems.
- A lower level of staff turnover.
- None of the above.

(Most likely to occur)

(Second most likely to occur)

15. A perk is described as a fringe benefit for employees. Would you view a new recreation programme at your workplace as a perk for employees if it was free of charge, voluntary and took place out of work hours (circle one)?

YES

NO

16. A fad is a short term trend/ craze/ style which people follow. Fads, when accepted, may become popular and then decrease in popularity with time. Do you think that employee recreation will be a passing fad (circle one)?

YES

NO

17. Please indicate which two of the following factors would hinder the development of an employee recreation programme within your workplace location (place your two choices in the boxes below).

- a) Cost of establishing a programme.
- b) Lack of space.
- c) A range of different interests among employees.
- d) Not supported by managers.
- e) Not supported by employees.
- f) High employee turnover.
- g) Many employees are involved in their own recreation interests.
- h) Too few employees.

(Most hindering  
factor)

(Second most  
hindering factor)

18. Would you like to have more recreation opportunities available at your workplace (circle one)?

YES

NO

19. If further information was available to you on the company benefits of employee recreation, would you be interested in obtaining this information (circle one)?

YES

NO

20. If further information was available to you on the personal benefits of employee recreation, would you be interested in obtaining this information (circle one)?

YES

NO

If NO, go to Q. 21

If YES go to Q. 22

21. For what reasons did you answer NO in the question 20?

---



---



---

Go to Q. 22.

22) If further information was available on how to establish an employee recreation programme within your organisation, would **you** want to obtain the information (circle one)?

YES

NO

23) Please make further comment on any of the questions asked, or on any issues relating to employee recreation. Your comments will be treated confidentially.

---



---



---



---



---



---



---



---



---



---

If you wish to enter the draw for one of the four \$50.00 cash prizes, please complete the following.

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Name of your company: \_\_\_\_\_

This section will be detached from your questionnaire.

Thank you for your participation in this research. Your time and effort are much appreciated. Please return your questionnaire to **John Churnside** by **Wednesday June 13th** in the envelope provided as soon as possible. I will collect it from him.

**Appendix 5  
Follow-up Letter**

**EMPLOYEE RECREATION SURVEY**

**Recently you received a questionnaire through your company internal mail system on employee recreation.**

**HAVE YOU COMPLETED AND RETURNED YOUR QUESTIONNAIRE?**

**If you have please discard this reminder.**

**If you haven't, please do so as soon as possible. It is important that you respond and return your questionnaire so that results have maximum effect. I will look forward to receiving your questionnaire.**

**Thank you for your assistance in this research project.**

**Rosaleen Ward  
Lincoln University.**

## Appendix 6

### Summary of Hypotheses Tested

<u>HYPOTHESES</u>	Executives/employees	Female /male	Age
1. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee participation in regular physical activity	Do Not Reject Ho	Do Not Reject Ho	-
2. There will be no difference between executive and employee, between female and male employee or between age group interest in having more recreation opportunities available at the workplace.	Reject Ho	Do Not Reject Ho	Do Not Reject Ho
3. There will be no difference between executive and employee, between female and male or between employee age group perceptions as to who should organise recreational opportunities for employees.	Do Not Reject Ho	Do Not Reject Ho	Reject Ho
4. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee perceptions as to who would have the greatest influence to establish an employee recreation programme.	Reject Ho	Reject Ho	-
5. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee perceived participation in an employee recreation programme.	Do Not Reject Ho	Do Not Reject Ho	-
6. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee interest in obtaining information on how to establish an employee recreation programme.	Reject Ho	Do Not Reject Ho	-
7. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee perceptions of the personal barriers that would restrict participation in an employee recreation programme.	Do Not Reject Ho	Reject Ho	-
8. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee perceptions of the company factors that would hinder the development of an employee recreation programme.	"Most" hindering Reject Ho  "Second Most" Do Not Reject Ho	"Most" hindering Reject Ho  "Second Most" Reject Ho	-  -



9. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee opinions on the important personal benefits from employee recreation.	"Most" Important Do Not Reject Ho  "Second most" important  Reject Ho	"Most" Important Reject Ho  "Second most" important  Reject Ho	-   -   -
10. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee interest in obtaining information on the personal benefits of employee recreation.	Do Not Reject Ho	Do Not Reject Ho	-
11. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee perceptions of the company benefits which are likely to occur from regular employee participation in an employee recreation programme.	"Most likely" Do Not Reject Ho  "Second most" Do Not Reject Ho	"Most" likely Do Not Reject Ho  "Second most" likely Reject Ho	-   -   -
12. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between male and female employee interest in obtaining information on the company benefits of employee recreation.	Reject Ho	Do Not Reject	-
13. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee perceptions as to whether a new recreation programme in the workplace would be viewed as a perquisite (perk) for employees	Do Not Reject Ho	Reject Ho	-
14. There will be no difference between executive and employee or between female and male employee perceptions on whether employee recreation will be a passing fad.	Do Not Reject Ho	Do Not Reject Ho	-