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## MODULE 1

- Unit 1 Recreation and Leisure
- Unit 2 Children Play: Foundation of Leisure.
- Unit 3 Play and the Meaning of Life.
- Unit 4 The Importance of Play for Children Today.

## UNIT 1 RECREATION AND LEISURE

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### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

Recreation is an emotional condition within an individual that flows from a feeling of well-being and satisfaction. Recreation is a response to aesthetic experience, achievement of a person's goals or positive feedback from others.

### 2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain recreation and leisure and its relationship to work.
- Discuss leisure as a way of life.

### 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

#### 3.1 Recreation, Well-Being and Leisure

Avedon (1974), Gray and Greben (1974) see recreation as providing well-being, a concept now permeating public and private leisure and health services. Yet the essence of well-being is not new. Alexander Pope in his 'Ode to Solitude' nearly three centuries ago, in 1717, came even closer to see recreation as an inner experience of well-being.

The impact of recreation on well-being was studied by the Western Australian Government (MSR, 1995). 'Recreation', as defined by the community, included 'any activity that was undertaken in discretionary time and about which the participant had a choice'. It included active and passive elements. Indeed, involvement in passive recreational activities was the most widespread among the sample of people surveyed. All these activities could equally come under the banner of 'leisure'. Respondents found it difficult to define well-being, but an almost perfect correlation was found between 'satisfaction with one's life and well-being. Contributing factors included health and self-esteem, interpersonal relationships and participation in recreational activities. Increasing satisfaction with recreational activities directly affected well-being and this held true for all ages.

The research demonstrated that recreational activities are far more diverse than competitive sport and non-competitive fitness activities. Recreational activities include a wide variety of both active and passive pursuits. Providers of recreational facilities and services, such as local tourism authorities, must meet this wider agenda.

#### 3.2 Recreation and Social Cohesion

The question was raised earlier, is recreation the same thing as leisure? The answer will depend on our personal interpretation, but there are distinguishing features. In some ways they share the same characteristics, but they play different roles in society. Searle and Bradley (1993) make the point that recreation is a part of the Western cultural system and is programmed to achieve certain purposes:

Recreation is different from leisure. It is closely associated with the Industrial Revolution, it is somewhat culture-bound, it exists in part to achieve broader social purpose (and perhaps political purposes), it generates enjoyment, and it occurs as one form of expression during leisure.

Clearly, recreation provides benefits. Kelly (2000) clarifies it succinctly: 'while some leisure may be destructive to the self or to society, recreation – by definition – is always beneficial in intent'.

The social cohesion theory is supported by Kraus (1999). Building on the theme of 'wholeness of mind, body and spirit, he defines recreation as, 'voluntary non-work activity that is organized for the attainment of personal and social benefits including restoration and social cohesion'.

In summary, recreation can be regarded as a means to an end, or as an end in itself. Looking at recreational experience, it follows that whatever activity or situation that renews, revives, refreshes and re-creates for the individual, is a recreation for him or her at that time. This has far-reaching implications for leisure and recreation services. Any activity implies no right or wrong, no good or bad, no moral issues are at stake. But society will not allow just any activity. Although Western society is liberal, individuals are still constrained in what is and what is not acceptable behaviour. There is a belief in the right of the individual to self-expression and the expansion of experience, but within society's social ethics.

### 3.3 Leisure and its Relationship to Work

As we have seen earlier, in nomadic times work and leisure were intertwined and 'structured' around celebrations, seasons, rites of passage and the like. We also saw in the times of the ancient Greeks and Romans that, for 'the citizens', work other than the very essential, was anathema, a curse, the Greek word for work 'ponos' meant sorrow. The philosophers agreed with the poets: the only solution, as most clearly expressed by Plato and Aristotle, was to have the vast majority—the slaves, provide the necessities and material goods for all, so that the minority—the citizens – could engage in leisure which produced the arts and sciences, politics, government and philosophy. A life of leisure, although had obligations and responsibilities, could only be pursued by those who had been freed from the 'curse' of work. The blessing of leisure for some meant intensive work for many. The Greek citizens could not have pursued their leisure without widespread slavery; likewise, the English aristocracy could not have been the epitome of the cultured stock without serfs, peasants and a working class to provide for them.

Bertrand Russell (1935), 'In Praise of Idleness', asserted that harm was caused by the belief that work was virtuous; the morality of work was the morality of slaves. Work was indeed slavery to the suppressed. The boys and girls, men and women who slaved in the coal mines and textile mills England during the Industrial Revolution, had neither the time nor the energy to enjoy leisure.



The relationship between the concepts of 'work' and 'leisure' has been well-debated and documented, though there are no satisfactory universally accepted agreement. Most societies make a clear distinction between work and leisure. Indeed, leisure is seen as the antithesis of work. The dimensions of leisure include freedom to choose, intrinsic satisfaction and low relationship to paid work. Work, on the other hand, generally, is characterized by having constraints on personal choice, being highly structured and regulated, and lacking in freedom to choose.

The Industrial Revolution was probably the most significant influence on the relationship between work and leisure and the distribution of leisure. It established an industrial (working) way of life; with the 'support' of the church, it strengthened the work ethic; and it encouraged recreation in non-work time to prepare for the work ahead. Without 'work' time of 'obligated-to-duties' time, there would be no need to distinguish leisure time. The work ethic emerged from religious, political, and social conditions. Work was valued, not just for economic benefits, but for moral purpose also.

The word 'work' covers a multitude of things. It can mean:

labour  
occupation  
employment  
effort and  
production

Work, of course, may also be a time for personal development, creativity and other personal satisfactions. Marx (1952) the ideal model of work as 'a process in which man and nature participate, and in which man of his own accord starts, regulates, and controls the material recreations between himself and nature'. However, work in industry contradicts this ideal. Industry is typified by specialization, fragmentation, isolation, rigid time structuring, repetitiveness and depersonalization, all of which contribute to anonymity, a sense of helplessness and alienation for many workers. To the public at large, the question 'what is work?' is so obvious that definition and attempts at understanding seem totally inappropriate.

In Western cultures today, many traditions no longer apply. In the United Kingdom, with the loss of a manufacturing base and growth in the service industries, there is more work available for females than males, though disparity in wage earning, despite legislation, still applies in some occupations. Then there is the issue of unemployment causing for many people a loss of esteem and dignity.

Those people who are made to retire early, or are made redundant or who simply do not want to retire, can also find themselves feeling alienated, isolated and robbed of one's family. This situation makes it a mistake to consider 'leisure' as 'time free from work'. Also, it is becoming less appropriate to consider 'work' only as a job for which one is paid. Half the population – home and family workers, the retired, the unemployed, students and many with disabilities – are not in paid employment and, therefore, are not included in the present conceptual boundaries of such a definition of leisure.

John Maynard Keynes in the 1930s revolutionized economic thought after World War I. In 1930 he envisaged a future society whose needs could be satisfied with no more than fifteen hours of work per week, if it chose to devote its energies to non-economic purposes. He mused on a future when:

We shall once more value ends above means and prefer the good to the useful. We shall honour those who can teach us how to pluck the hour and the day virtuously and well, the delightful people who are capable of taking direct enjoyment in things, the lilies of the field who toil not, neither do they spin.

Today, work is less like slavery for many and more like leisure for some. This is because of higher education levels among workers, a shift in jobs from manufacturing to the service sector, the rise of professionalism, and other factors. The leisure pattern of evenings, weekends and holidays is changing, the linear pattern is breaking up. Among the reasons are the changing roles of women, the changing age composition of our society, expanding continuing education, changes in attitude towards work, and so on. Also, work is being removed from the workplace with computer links to home, laptop and palmtop computers, mobile and teleconference and text-messaging.

### SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention and discuss the multitude of things that work covers.

### 3.4 Changing Time for Work and Leisure

The 1960s ushered in a new era for leisure in the United Kingdom: the sport leisure and arts centres, integrated local authority leisure services, corporate management, and joint use and dual provision in schools. In wider society there were the hippies and other alternative lifestyles, the creation of a youth culture with the growth in a new kind of popular music; young people had spending power. There was an upbeat spirit, and the age

was described by Harold Macmillan as one in which ‘you never had it so good’.

In 1965 Michael Dower (1965) wrote for the Civic Trust a watershed publication *Fourth Wave – The Challenge of Leisure*:

Three great waves have broken across the face of Britain since. First, the sudden growth of dark industrial towns. Second, the thrusting movement along far-flung railways. Third, the sprawl of car-based suburbs. Now we see, under the guise of a modest word, the surge of a fourth wave which could be more powerful than all the others. The modest word is leisure.

Equally important and significant are today’s changes:

an ever increasing choice for consumers and increasing expectations  
demographic changes calling for improved programmes for growing  
market segments, such as the older age-groups.

Yet modern society still does not yet treat leisure seriously. The patterns and rhythms of life are determined by work and its demands, while spare time, the residual, is labeled as a leisure period. Blauner (1964) concluded in the mid-1960s that work remains the single most important activity for most people in terms of time and energy. Attitudes have changed since that time, but the premise still holds true for a large proportion of working people. This is so different from many forecasters’ visions.

Recall Bertrand Russell who in 1932 suggested that if workers work four hours a day, there would be enough for everybody; Clive Jenkins and Barrie Sherman who in 1979 wrote *The Collapse of Work* (Jenkins and Sherman, 1979). In *The Leisure Shock* (Jenkins and Sherman, 1981) they predicted:

What is work? Will there be enough of it to go round? Must there or should there be enough of it to go round? Will many of us suffer withdrawal symptoms if we cannot have our share of it? Our approach is to have a reduced working week, month, year and lifetime, but with at least the same level of remuneration. This implies that some employers would have to take on extra labour, that both profits and returns to capital would fall – in other words a redistribution of monies towards labour.

However, 25 years later, a quite different picture has emerged. We still work long hours and come home exhausted. More than half of us suffer

from stress. In Japan, thousands of people are thought to die each year from overwork. More people are more pressured about time, or lack of it. The patterns of work, shopping, leisure – the building blocks of life – are disappearing. We are moving to a world of the internet, with home shopping, and home banking. Life's fixed timetables have given way to a post-industrial culture: the 24 hours society. We cram more and more into a reduced time slot, multi-skilling because time is a precious resource. We are time conscious whether at work, shopping, cooking or at leisure: a contradiction of terms if ever there was one. We are in an age of technology which promises to increase personal autonomy and freedom, to cut waste and foster leisure. But we are in what Demos describes as 'the time squeeze' (Mulgan, 1995). Demos is an independent think-tank whose aim is to create an open resource of knowledge and learning that operates beyond traditional political parties, identities and disciplines. Demos connects researchers and practitioners to an international network of people – changing politics.

Right across society, there is a sense of time being squeezed. And policy has lagged behind, as it always does, with a lengthening series of failures: the growing imbalance between overwork for some and zero work for others; poor management and public spaces and transport which has forced up the times taken to get to work, to care for (and transport) children, even to shop; and severe stress for millions – particularly women – trying to juggle competing responsibilities. This new post-industrial culture offers, perhaps for the first time in history, the promise of people using time for their own needs. But far from ushering in a leisured utopia, its most immediate effect has been a growing divide between those with too much work and those without any. In 'top' jobs, long hours have become a mark of status and success. In the 1930s the phrase 'banking hours' referred to a leisurely working day that began at ten and ended at four, with a generous lunch hour. By contrast today's bankers may have to cope with 24-hour capital markets. One in eight British managers works more than 60 hours a week and more than half take work home during the week. *Guardian, June 6, 1995*

These pressures are not confined to top executives. One in six households have no wage earner; others fear redundancy; some are working all hours and at several different low paid jobs just to pay the bills. So we have work overload on the one hand, with high stress and anxiety levels (for all levels of workers) and the dangers that these bring, and on the other hand no work for some. The jobs market demands that women with children return to work, yet most still have to care for the home and the family.

This raises the issue of the quality of the work. Many jobs do not add to the quality of life. As the French novelist Albert Camus commenting on work said: ‘Without work, all life goes rotten. But when work is soulless, life stifles and dies’.

A problem exists in that large numbers of people cannot get any work and large numbers cannot get away from it. The answer, according to Natasha Walter, writing in *The Observer*, is not to see work as the ultimate good.

That ideal only widens the divide. It forces people in work to cling grimly on top their job terrified of losing their grip on it, and uneasy about taking holidays and getting home in time for their children’s bedtimes. And it encourages people out of work to believe that their lives are being wasted and that they will achieve nothing concrete until they have an employer and a pay packet. If we are really to see the beginning of a more equal society, the way forward must be to celebrate the other side of life, the delights of idleness.

Many people are searching for alternative lifestyles and a better balance between paid work and other aspects of life. Some fortunate academics and clergy are allowed sabbaticals to re-charge, to travel and to learn from beyond their own environment. Early in their lives, some students take a ‘gap year’ for the same reason.

In the past, leisure was seen as an escape from work. But this misses the point. Many of us enjoy work and find it fulfilling; and also many people work harder at their chosen leisure-time-occupations. Many people say that they would rather work at something worthwhile, for nothing, than to be unemployed. To be valued and to have self-worth is hugely motivating.

For many employees, the organization of work is changing, partly as a result of information and communication technology, and partly because new arrangements suit the lifestyles of workers, particularly women with dependent children. Human resources departments call it the work-life balance. The move away from standard hours for some, flexi-hours for others, part-time agency work, sub-contract work, even in the service and administration sectors, all go to make the traditional meanings of ‘work’ far more interwoven with other parts of life, including leisure. For example:

working hours determine how much time is available for leisure  
paid work determines earning and levels of disposable income  
work may determine one’s level of energy, enthusiasm and  
motivation for leisure participation, and

some work decisions, such as location or perks of the job, are made with lifestyle and leisure in mind—offices adjacent to a golf course or nursery have added value.

New technologies and patterns of work may well produce new found free time, but it is as likely to result in trading leisure for extra income. However, it is not just the patterns of work that are changing, the types of jobs and work occupations we have are changing, and former work traditions no longer apply.

### 3.4.1 Is it Work or Leisure?

People's lives are segmented in a variety of ways, yet need to work in harmony as a whole. For example, a person may at one time be mother, grandmother, homemaker, part-time teacher, church leader, school governor, volunteer worker and recreation player. Which of these 'lives' is work and which is leisure? The difficulty with seeing leisure as a time outside work is that many leisure activities are very hard work and some work situations are enjoyable, almost leisure-like. How many working people, just back from a family holiday, say they are glad to be back at work, 'to recover', or that 'now I do need a holiday'? People whose work is associated with leisure pursuits – sports coaches, play workers, youth workers, artists, actors, musicians, art, craft and physical education teachers and Leisure Managers—are often asked when they are going to get a proper job!

Taking a quite different stance from previous writers and the claim that the work ethic is alive and well, Christiana Odone (2002) suggests that there is an 'un-work ethic' and that leisure is taking the place of work. In an article for the *Observer* entitled 'Work' she noted that we are far too busy shopping and enjoying ourselves. She believes that our business is not about work, but about hedonism:

Our business is not an\about work, but about hedonism (granted, legoland is the children's ideal of a hedonistic outing rather than yours). Never has a society spent more time in leisure activities or, for that matter, more money – leisure spending remains the healthiest sector of the economy, with E988 million spent each year on play, concerts and shows and E572 million at the cinema. Middle-class families admit to spending two holidays a year abroad and studies reveal that many are now withdrawing equity from their homes to pay for these trips. (The national average is E780 a year). And while talk of, and investment in, holidays take up more of our time, work takes up less. An unprecedented number of

people can afford to retire at fifty something to dedicate themselves to golf, water colours or evening classes in Japanese. Compare this dolce vita with our ancestors' schedules. Then, the protestant work, ethic fuelled the machinery of everyday life.

In this brief section on work and leisure, we have seen that while leisure can be regarded as the opposite of work, this is by no means the full picture. Moreover, one person's recreation is another's work, and one person's leisure is another's drudgery.

Furthermore, leisure, traditionally, is conceived as freedom from commitment, yet many leisure activities require considerate commitment. And those out of work, not by choice, do not count their enforced free time as leisure. Therefore, the two realms of work and leisure need to be considered not as dichotomized entities, but in far more fluid and complex dimensions. Koshar (2002) sees work and leisure for most adult people as intertwined, 'the one reciprocating the other's contradictions and tensions'.

The history of leisure has been inextricably intertwined with the history of work and it is primarily the social history of the manual labouring classes that has directed attention to the way in which the advent of industrial capitalism created new conflicts over the control of time. New forms of work discipline demanded new apprehensions and disciplines of time—if control over the length and quality of work time was one of the central conflicts in the history of leisure, control over the content of time spent away from work was equally significant.

## SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss how leisure relates to work.

### 3.5 Leisure as a Way of Life

Leisure has been defined in a variety of ways and as some kind of product, experience or process. Yet there remains another perspective or orientation mentioned earlier by the Parrys (Parry and Parry, 1977) and the essence of the findings of Goodale and Godbey (1998). It is idealistic and bears resemblance to the philosophy of Aristotle. Leisure is not a commodity of time or a state of mind, but a way of living:

Leisure is living in relative freedom from the external compulsive forces on one's culture and physical environment so as to be able to act from internally compelling love in ways which are personally

pleasing, intuitively worthwhile, and provide a basis of faith. *Godbey, 1994*

In noting that leisure is living, we avoid the notions of time and state of mind. We recognize that freedom is limited; we are not free to do anything we wish to do. So then leisure as a way of living can offer opportunities or times with which we can choose what to do.

Aristotle, in Book 2 of the *Poetics*, while describing the need for ‘freedom from the necessity of labour’, is concerned with how we use time. We need to be relatively free from those external compulsive forces to be able to act; it is a ‘freedom to’, rather than a ‘freedom from idea’. And the motivation for those acts is intrinsic: not being motivated by some external reward. In life-enhancing terms, leisure appears to be the process of gaining freedom and finding meaning through self understanding and self improvement; it is a self directed process, idealistic! But without ideals, values and goals, we have a shallow philosophy of life and leisure, and a lack of foundation on which to base a lasting profession of leisure management.

#### 4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has dwelt on Recreation and Leisure, its well-being and social cohesion, its relationship to work and changing times for work and leisure.

#### 5.0 SUMMARY

This chapter has explored some of the mundane and more colourful meanings of leisure. It means different things to different people. An understanding of the basic orientations provides leisure academic and practitioners the opportunity to sort through these and accept, reject or modify them. Parker (1971) considering the leisure meanings of time, activities and state of being, points out that they often overlap, but that the classification is useful in determining which aspect of the word has the greater emphasis with particular contexts. In the next unit, we shall discuss children’s play.

#### 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Highlight four statements to support the saying that “the organization of work is changing”.

#### 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Torkildsen, George (2005). *Leisure and Recreation Management*, pp. 56–63.



## UNIT 2 CHILDREN’S PLAY: FOUNDATION OF LEISURE

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### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

The right to play is a child’s first claim on the community. Play is nature’s training for life. No community can infringe that right without doing deep and enduring harm to the minds and bodies of its citizens. Much that is unwholesome and dangerous to the nation comes from the overcrowding and congestion of our towns and cities and, in particular, from the restrictions and frustrations to which they subject the lives of the boys and girls who grow up in them.

Lloyd George [1926], at the Inauguration of the National Playing Fields Association observes that:

Play is not only important to the quality of life of children; it is of great importance for the country’s future, to the creative industries and for the economy.

Christ Smith, Secretary of State for Culture, Media and Sport in 1998 observes that:

Play’ is a word much used in the English language. We most play, playtime, and playing games, but we use the often think of children’s play, going out to word in far wider context and situations. We can go to

see a play, play soccer, play the trumpet, play cards, and play roulette. We can play the fool, play jokes, have tricks played on us, play truant, play the field or play around! We can play well or play badly, play into the hands of our opponents, play second fiddle, and let defeat play on our minds. Fair play is deeply rooted in our culture: 'come on guys, play the game'. Familiar in Western cultures is the saying, 'all work and no play makes Jack a dull boy and makes Jill a dull girl.'

Play is the cornerstone of leisure and recreation. Through play:

children acquire a range of skills

children learn how to deal with new situations quickly by linking together things they have already learned

children develop their physical, intellectual, emotional, creative and social ability, the difficult skill of give-and-take and to live in harmony with others.

Denied play opportunity, children suffer and so does the society in which they live. However, play in most countries is still under-valued and under-resourced.

Every opinion canvassed in the *Review of National Support for Children's Play and Recreation* (Torkildsen, 1993) believed unequivocally that play held substantial benefits for children. Wholesome development ('holistic' was a word often used), social education and learning were mentioned most often. Physical development, motor skills and creativity were also recognized. Many of those consulted spoke of the misunderstanding of the word 'play', often almost derided as being 'only child's play'. That play is not taken seriously and is under-funded was a theme which dominated most consultations. 'Children's play' gave the impression that its only function is fun, rather than enjoyment in doing many things, often very seriously.

Children are often referred to as the citizens of tomorrow. In fact, children and young people are citizens of today. The kind of adult citizens they will become will depend on how citizenship for life is cultivated. Part of cultivating and enriching lives is through play. Play shapes human behaviour. Although theories of play, in the main, tend to be based on philosophical belief and observational experience, scientific evidence confirms that play has important functions for child development, learning and physical and social skills. Given these circumstances, it is surprising that play provision is an area of relatively low priority, particularly in terms of government functioning in the United Kingdom. In some local authorities, the play service is the first to experience cuts in resources. This usually manifests itself with a reduction in the standards of maintenance of

equipped playgrounds and a reduced number of play schemes, often considered simply as child-minding or as solutions to problems of nuisance. For example, increased charges, applied to some holiday play schemes, have resulted in the detriment of the service for the greater good of the greater number.

Children have little say in what we provide for them. Nationally, 20 percent of the populations are aged under 16 years and, in broad terms, about one-third of this group are under five, one-third of primary school age and one-third of secondary school age. Guided play, developmental play and recreation opportunity are needed for all children, but children have no voice in the decision-making processes. Children need to be observed, consulted and involved.

Children are growing up in a rapidly changing world of uncertainty, and parents, guardians, careers, teachers and play workers have increasing concerns for them. There is general concern at the poor levels of health and fitness of children. Inactive children are likely to become inactive adults, increasing the risks of obesity and heart disease. Many spend hours every day in front of a television set or playing video games. The danger is in encouraging a generation of computer-game literate children, with finger dexterity, but who may be unable to throw and catch a ball or to interact socially and emotionally. Some children see their worth in what they own, wear and how they look. Creative play lifts children from being trapped at such a functional level and helps to give them confidence in their own worth.

Social anxieties exist with perceptions of inadequate parenting, latch-key children, child neglect and abuse, crime, drugs and a more hostile, unsafe environment, traffic problems and the lessening of play opportunity for many children in a culture of material competition. Child poverty is blamed, though this is only a risk factor, not a cause.

Freedom, exploration, learning fun, and seriousness are some of play's characteristics. *What play provision should do for children* was produced as a result of a partnership between the National Playing Fields Association, PLAYLINK and the Children's Play Council and included consultation within the field of play work. This important publication disseminates best practice and recognizes the value and quality of play workers and providers. In the United Kingdom, its principles and values also act as foundations for the National Childcare Strategy, the Early Years Development and Childcare Partnerships. Best Play is about values and principles, about children and play, and how children benefit from play opportunities, services and spaces.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading through this unit, you should be able to discuss the foundation of leisure and children's play.

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 An Inborn Propensity to Play

Animal and humans have always played, it would seem. Dogs appear to be happiest (when not eating) at play: catching, fetching, teasing, playing games and having fun. The play of animals illustrates that play precedes culture and human civilization. Of all the animal kingdom, the latest species – human beings – play most of all.

The play of young children is experimental, exploratory. Objects stimulate curiosity and the imaginations. We have all observed the infant who is far more interested in the paper or the box than in the present inside. Children need to experience and to delight in physical movement, to explore their environment and the objects within it, and to develop relationships with people. Playing with water, sand and pebbles, getting muddy, climbing trees, dressing up, imitating, make-believe, fantasy play, role playing, hide and seek, dancing, singing rhymes, listening to stories, sharing secrets, inventing, making things, and socializing are some of the characteristics of the world of children. Play, therefore, has the propensity to make learning irresistible.

#### 3.1.1 Difficulties Facing Children's Play

To play, children need opportunities, with time and space, free from constraints and dangers. What factors militate against play?

When homes are cramped, noisy or overcrowded and without easy access to play spaces, and when neighbours are dominated by traffic and polluted in other ways, children are exposed to risks and may be deprived of their independence to play.

When children are anxious or fearful, subject to abuse, bullying and violence, their freedom to play is affected.

When children and their parents are under pressure from negative social, educational and economic factors, play time is marginalized or ignored.

Lack of space and facilities to play with especially in the community.

When children become inactive, they become less healthy, often obese; and when denied play, they take longer to recover from ill-health and trauma or be permanently damaged.

Children's natural propensity to play has been impaired by the loss of suitable public space, the impact of technology, such as television, the personal computer and the motor car, and the changing attitude of society towards children, reflected, for instance, in the increase in parental anxiety about child safety. Play provision should compensate for this loss. Ultimately, the aim of Best Play is to ensure that this compensation is adequate in the light of children's own needs, wishes, capacities and abilities (*Best Play, 2000*)

## SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention some of the characteristics of Plays.

### 3.2 Play as an Attitude of Mind

Play is a mystery and an enigma. It is understood yet misunderstood; known yet unknown; individual yet universal and tangible, yet so internal that to someone 'outside' it is untouchable. The play of children is accepted, but the play of adults conjures up the image of muddy footballers or muddy pitches. However, play is not confined to the games of children, the sport of young people, the family outing or the birthday party. Play can pervade all aspects of life; not just physical play, but also the play of the mind, the play of words and the play of communications with people. To Sebastrain de Grazia (1962):

The world is divided into two classes. Not three or five or twenty. Just two: One is the great majority. The other is the leisure kind, not those of wealth or position or birth, but those who love ideas and the imagination. Of the great mass of mankind there are few persons who are blessed and tormented with this love. They may work, steal, flirt, fight, like all the others, but everything they do, is touched with the play of thought.

Play then can be evident in all walks of life, at home, at school, at work, in politics and unions, in religion, in business, in crime and vandalism, in international dealings and even in war.

## SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Outline the difficulties facing children's play.

### 3.2.1 The Rules of Play

One of the distinguishing signs of the play world is its strict adherence to invented rules, which suspend the ordinary rules of real life. The attitudes encompassed in play rules carry over from the play world into the 'real' world. Boxers play to Queensberry Rules, soldiers play to the rules of the Geneva Convention and even some criminals have a code of acceptable behaviour.

Parliamentary and local government rules are cloaked in the playful seriousness of obligatory procedures, the 'Chair', the 'points of order' and the adherence to the 'laws of the game'. Sometimes, as with children's games, it would appear that the procedures are more important than the business itself. 'Fair play' is often playing acceptable to the rules. In this context, it is curious to find how much more lenient society is towards the 'loveable rough' who cheats than it is towards the spoilsport. As Huizinga (1955) points out, the spoilsport shatters the play world and robs it of its illusion (*inhusio*, 'in play'); the game ends. The cheat, on the other hand, pretends to be playing the game and on the face of it acknowledges the rules, and the game continues. Play is a complex set of behaviours. Almost any situation or activity, it appears, can function for someone as a play activity if undertaken in the spirit of play.

Play, normally reserved for the playground and playing fields is indelibly printed upon the lives of boys and girls, men and women. It spans the frivolous and the utterly serious, the shallow and the deeply emotional. Play is in the very nature of human beings.

### 3.3 Play in Historical Perspective

From the earliest recorded times, human beings have played. Artifacts have been found, engravings and writings have been discovered and playthings have been unearthed from the distant past. In tracing human development, anthropologists have found not only implements for work and survival, but also playthings: toys, dolls, hoops, rattles, marbles and dice. Our ancestors were inventive and creative toy makers. Playing musical instruments, dressing up in ornate costume, pageantry and dancing may have resulted from, initially, just playing, or having fun. In later times, scientific discoveries and inventions may well have been the outcome of playing with a hobby, with intense and absorbing enthusiasm.

A good deal can be gleaned about the history of children's play by studying the playthings through the ages. In ancient Greece, children played games using balls, tops and hoops. During the Sung Dynasty in China around a thousand years ago, children are seen in a painting riding hobby-horses, juggling and dressing up. Hobby-horses existed long before rocking

horses. They are mentioned in writings from classical Greek and Roman times, appear on Chinese ceramics dating back centuries, and were popular from the Middle Ages in Europe (Lindon, 2001). While fun for children, the aim of adults was to help prepare boys for riding.

A painting by the sixteenth-century Flemish artist, Pieter Brueghel, entitled *Children's Games*, shows children at a wedding, rolling hoops, playing tug-of-war. The Bethnal Green Museum in London has many examples of toys dating back to hundreds of years and the Victoria and Albert Picture Library has pictures of children playing at skipping, flying kites, with dolls and with kitchen equipment. Puppet plays have been used to tell morality and religious stories over the centuries in China, India and in Europe. Dressing up is a favourite play for children in most cultures, although it is thought to bring bad luck in some African communities.

Examples from all around the world show that children like to play, and need to play to learn and develop. And if it is fun in the doing, they learn even more quickly. Visit almost every country; observe children's behaviour and we will see them at play, often playing at the same things. However, perspectives on play do vary from culture to culture and play workers in multi-cultural settings need to be aware of potential differences and use them to the benefit of all. In *Understanding Children's Play*, Lindon (2001) explores play with dolls in different cultures:

A good example comes from the Kachina dolls. They are now made for tourists by Hopi Indians in Arizona and New Mexico. Yet, in the early 10<sup>th</sup> century, these carved and painted wooden figures of masked dancers were of spiritual significance. They represented Kachinas, the spirits who controlled nature and the weather. The figures were used with children, but with an instructional purpose to enable them to understand the religious beliefs of their society. Some doll-like figures seem to have had mainly a play purpose for children in a range of American Indian and Central American cultures. However, a dual purpose involving religious instruction also seems to have been quite common.

Some toys in Mexico are still sold in connection with specific religious festivals and saints' days. Although many are now more generally available. Traditional dolls in China and Japan usually seen to have had ceremonial and sometimes spiritual significance. They have been given to children, but not always with a play function in mind. In Japan, for instance, great emphasis has been placed on the value of dolls to help children to learn about Japanese history, cultural pursuits and human endeavour. The Girls' and Boys' Festival dolls are linked with two

separate festivals, one for each sex. The dolls are designed to teach heroism and valour to the boys. The girls are instructed in the preservation of Japanese culture, including the importance of history and the royal family.

Today, discerning parents buy toys and playthings which are said to be educational, yet learning through play is not new idea. Jigsaw puzzles date from the late eighteenth century when they were first known as ‘dissected puzzles’ and were made for instructional purposes.

### SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Outline the lessons we can learn from play in various cultures.

#### 3.4 A Legacy from the Ancient Greek Civilization

The roots of play philosophy and theory date back to ancient times. In some respects, the classical era of Greece was one of the most enlightened. Although child labour was common, children had an important place in classical society. Play was given a valuable position in the life of children. According to both Plato (1900) and Aristotle (1926):

That which is neither utility nor truth nor likeness, nor yet, in its effects harmful, can best be judged by the criterion of charm that is in it and the pleasure it affords. Such pleasure, entailing as it does no appreciable good or ill, is play.  
*(Plato, cited in MacLean et al., 1963)*

Play and leisure gave an opportunity for children to develop. The primary force was education (*paideia*), inculcating qualities of responsibility, of honour, loyalty, pride and of beauty. The philosophical writings which remain indicate dedication to state and culture, the highest value being placed on productive citizenship. It is not surprising therefore to note that play (*paideia*, the same word as education) was considered an aspect of enculturation and cultural reinforcement.

Play to the Greeks was associated with childhood. Yet the citizenship of adult life and the appreciation of aesthetics, music art, athletics, drama and poetry might be seen as the products of play. Today we tend to look at the opportunities for play as incorporating free choice, freedom from compulsion, often spontaneity. But the Greek citizen was bound to social commitment. There was a belief in universal personality or character which was held to be true of all noble persons. Hence life’s activities were structured to fulfill this ideal. Play, then, was part of the means of integrating people into Greek culture as children. The Ancient Greeks laid a foundation of thought regarding play that has endured to influence leisure



and recreation today. The perfectibility of human nature through play, its usefulness in mental, physical and social well-being and the necessity of social control were of great importance.

Later civilizations modified Greek attitudes towards play. The Roman culture exploited leisure and provoked a hedonistic philosophy, which abandoned the concepts of moderation and balance in play behaviour. The ensuing over-reaction to play left its mark on the cultures that followed. The church took strict moral control over play expression. There emerged a suspicion of 'play' as a social threat. The Middle Ages marked a period when there was no concept of childhood; children were viewed simply as small adults but with low status. Obedience to, and passive acceptance of, God's will characterized the ethos of these times; play, the active seeking of new experience, retained little place in the ideas of this world. The body was thought to detract from more spiritual activities, thus every effort was made to curb its impulses. The Reformation acted further to restrict play among those following its creeds. Work became all-important; consequently, play became separated from work behaviour, and was considered morally dangerous.

### SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Outline how the Greeks encourage play in their children.

### 3.5 Philosophers and Educators Advocate Play

Important contributions in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries to counteract the decline in play philosophy came from Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, McMillan and Montessori. Rousseau, in his revolutionary text *Emile*, espoused the idea of the natural child, the child of nature; mankind should return to a state of nature marked by simplicity and freedom. Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712 – 78), concerned with social justice and an egalitarian society, promoted a dramatic change in the view of children and childhood. At that time, children were seen as 'born into sin'; they were thought to be evil and needed to be drawn towards goodness. He proposed the opposite view that children were naturally good and their positive nature could be harnessed through care and education. His was a Romantic view of childhood; he proposed letting children be themselves in their natural playfulness in safety away from the harsh realities of life. Early education should be focused on the learning needs of children and not on the strict authoritarian rote learning methods.

Rousseau and others with reformist and revolutionary ideas, forced society to accept two major changes: a distinction between children and adults, and the acceptance of play as an end in itself. In both instances, he suggests that PLAY is the mechanism by which flexibility is achieved. And by doing this, present an argument which states that play is a feature of human

behaviour from birth to death, and is absolutely essential in forming the basis both for human survival and human development. Play, then, is concerned with two integral and related parts of the human learning process: it describes how it gains information concerning the nature of its world. It describes the means by which the brain assimilates and selects those stimuli which give it 'good' feelings (+ve effects), and how it pursues them. Without play as an interactive experience, learning would not take place and human would not acquire the skills necessary for survival.

### SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Explain Rousseau's view of play.

A similar line is taken by Brown (1990) in *A Playwork Training Pack*. Barnett (1979) believes children learn to be resourceful within the environment 'purely as a consequence of self-deflected play'. Empirical support for this notion was found by Sylva (1977) and by Barnett (1976) herself, and free play was seen as necessary behaviour for survival. Play helps a child to explore the environment and thereby learn the procedures required to solve problems posed by the environment in alter life. Play appears to be directly related to the divergent thought processes of the child and thus serves as the stimulus for normal cognitive development.

### 3.6 Play as Arousal-seeking Behaviour

Michael Ellis' book *Why People Play* (Ellis, 1973) is one of the most comprehensive and thorough studies of play. Ellis believes that there is no way of reaching any 'pure' definition and that the most satisfying explanation of play involves an integration of three theories:

- play as arousal-seeking behaviour
- play as learning and
- the developmentalist view of play, (there is considerable evidence to support the view that play enhances learning and development).

Ellis defines play in this context as "that behaviour that is motivated by the need to elevate the level of arousal towards the optimal". Put in another way, play is stimulus-seeking activity that can occur only when external consequences are eliminated: "When primary drives are satisfied the animal continues to emit stimulus-seeking behaviour in response to the sensor static drive. The animal learns to maintain an optimal level of arousal".

Researches in arousal theory find that it is the stimuli that are complex, incongruous or novel that lead to arousal. In addition, the stimuli must have the ability to reduce uncertainty or to carry information to the individual. However, when situations are too complex, they have no arousal potential, and at the other end of the scale when the outcome is

highly predictable, there is little uncertainty and the arousal potential diminished. For example, the crossword in *The Times* will have no arousal potential for the easy-crossword dabbler; the gifted chess player will not be stimulated by the novice opponent.

The play 'spirit' for many adults is often the play of the mind. Reading a thriller, following the fortunes of a favourite team in the newspaper, checking up on the Stock Exchange, doing crosswords, playing Trivial Pursuit, problem solving, are all activities actively sought by adults, in particular, who by virtue of their age have a richer store of experiences. However, stimulus-seeking behaviour means more than merely seeking exposure to any stimuli. The stimuli must have arousal potential. Knowledge seeking, for example, results in the reduction of conflicts, mismatches and uncertainties. Laughter, humour and smiling are created by situations such as novelty, surprise, incongruity, ambiguity, complexity – all of which possess arousal potential. Fun has arousal potential.

But not all stimulus seeking is play. The behaviour that seems to be clearly non-utilitarian is play. This may appear to lead to an artificial divide between work and play but clearly such stimulus-seeking behaviour can be found in both work and play. The theory appears to handle the question of work and play equally well. Indeed, it questions the validity of separating work from play. Thus, Ellis provides an explanation for both special and individual motivation towards play, and also describes a researchable, physiological base for play. In terms of its value to people and society, play fosters individuality; it provides 'learnings' that reflect individual, unique requirements; and it prepares for the unknown. Play will not occur when the essential conditions necessary for play behaviour are absent. One of the most important aspects coming out of this work is the realization that people play when the content of their behaviour is largely under their control.

## SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Identify and explain the three theories that help promote the essence of play.

### 3.7 Playfulness

The psychologist J. Nina Lieberman has studied a concept which she identified as 'playfulness' and has observed and measured it in infants, adolescents, and adults (Lieberman, 1977). It is her thesis that playfulness is related to divergent thinking or creativity and that it has an important bearing on how we approach leisure. The three major components of playfulness are spontaneity, manifest joy and sense of humour.

Spontaneity shows itself in physical, social and learning dimensions and is a unitary trait in the young child. In the adolescent and adult, two separate clusters emerged in her studies which were labeled academic playfulness and social-emotional playfulness respectively.

Figure 2.1

The Characteristics of academic playfulness

Being alert	imaginative
Bright	inquiring
Enthusiastic	knowledgeable

The outstanding characteristics of social-emotional playfulness

Entertaining	witty
Extroverted	making fun of himself/herself
Joking	The latter was also given the overall label of
Light-hearted	'bubbling effervescence'

At the infant level Lieberman found that the more playful child was also the more creative boy or girl. This was expressed in fluency, flexibility, and originality of thinking. In terms of intelligence, we know that two-thirds, of the population fall within the middle range of intelligence quotients. In the case of creativity, the evidence appears to suggest different degrees of endowment and in different areas, for example, in specific talents such as science, music, writing and painting. Playfulness can therefore be part of any individual's make up. Moreover, because of its importance in a person's general approach to work and play, playfulness should, in Lieberman's submission, be encouraged and developed throughout the lifespan of people.

Assuming this to be the case, we have to ask ourselves how playfulness can be developed. To develop spontaneity, Lieberman believes that there needs to be an emphasis on gathering and storing facts beginning as early as the pre-school level. Only if the child has a storehouse of knowledge is there a basis for parents and teachers to encourage playing with various permutations.

Manifest joy is the ability of showing pleasure, exuberance, friendliness and generally positive attitudes in everyday life. The joy that the adult shows at the child's growing competence will lead to the child's own sense of pleasure in his or her activities.

Lieberman includes the ability of engaging in “good-natured ribbing, gentle wit, creative punning, as well as poking fun at yourselves and others”, in her “sense of humour” category. To develop this, a climate needs to be created which encourages “psychological distancing”. Evidence was found that the cognitively more mature children preferred less hurtful expressions of humour. Humour is dependent on mastery of the situation; mastery can then lead to fun in learning.

Following Lieberman’s argument, as we continue to learn throughout our lifespan, we therefore need to practice the psychological distancing which allows us to take seriously the task at hand, but not ourselves; we need to free ourselves from being preoccupied with ourselves and without problems, in order to cope, to be resourceful and for leisure to function as one of the means towards what Maslow terms ‘self actualization’. Maslow (1968) stressed the need for individuals to develop to their fullest degree of independence and creative potential.

The next logical step to ask is how playfulness can help in our approach to leisure. It seems self-evident that any individual whose approach to everyday living embraces spontaneity, manifest joy and sense of humour would be able to deal in a creative way with free time. It is apparent, though, that many individuals have these traits and are not aware of them, or do not realize the benefits of applying them to leisure. Other people will need actively to practice them in order to make them part of their everyday repertoire. To what extent we can discover ourselves, our skills and an aptitude, acquire the ability of stepping back and laughing at ourselves, is an area yet to be explored.

## SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Identify and explain the three major components of playfulness.

Answers to Self Assessment Exercise

1. Some of play characteristics
  - It makes children acquire a range of skills
  - Children learn how to do with new situations
  - It makes children to develop physically, intellectual and emotionally
2. Grazia’s definition of play
  - Play of the mind, words and communication.

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, it has been proved that play can pervade all aspects of life, not just physical play, but also the play of the mind, the play of words and the play of communicating with people.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has discussed so far, the inborn propensity to play, difficulties facing children's play; play in historical perspective and the Greek civilization's legacy advocacy for play etc. In the next unit, we shall discuss play and the meaning of life.

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Enumerate the four difficulties facing children's play.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Torkindsen, George (2005). *Leisure and Recreation Management*. Pp64–82.

## UNIT 3 PLAY AND THE MEANING OF LIFE

### CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 Play and the Meaning of Life
  - 3.2 The Development of Adventure Play
  - 3.3 Play in Practice Today
    - 3.3.1 A taxonomy of Play Types
    - 3.3.2 Play Themes and Children's Perception
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

The right to play is a child's first claim on the community. Play is nature's training for life. No community can infringe that right without doing deep and enduring harm to the minds and bodies of its citizens.

### 2.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading through this unit, you should be able to:

- Discuss play and the meaning of life
- Discuss the development of adventure play
- Explain play in practice today and
- Discuss the taxonomy of play types

### 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

#### 3.1 Play and the Meaning of Life

Throughout history, philosophers and writers have suggested that play gives meaning to life. Hazing, in particular, proposes play as the basis of culture and civilization, referring to people's 'natural' playfulness and anthropologists' view of play as a 'cultural universal'. Levy (1978) provides a late-twentieth-century philosophical viewpoint that:

Play... is necessary to affirm our lives... it is through experiencing play that we answer the puzzle of our existence. Play is where our lives live... Living in

play means confirming our existence and celebrating life... Play brings out the greatness, dignity, and sacredness of our existence, which in turn gives impetus and meaning to our lives... Play offers us the opportunity to transcend the ordinary organic and ego levels of functioning and to experience the world of wonder, peace, love, and anguish at a very intuitive level; but these experiences must come from within, not from external pressures or influences as is often the case.

Play, therefore, can be defined not by the type of activity, but by the distinctive attitude and approach which the players take towards the activity.

Kraus (1971), in defining play, positions it as an important feature in most aspects of life. According to him, play is

- a form of behaviour, which is generally regarded as not being instrumental in purpose
- often carried out in the spirit of pleasure and creative expression
- often aimless, disorganized, and casual, or highly structured or complex
- commonly thought of as activity engaged in by children, but adults also play
- an instinctive drive, although much play behaviour is culturally learned
- regarded as voluntary, pleasurable, and non-serious, although it may involve risk and intense commitment
- apparently founding all cultures
- linked to important social functions such as law, religion, warfare, art, and commerce.

## SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Give two definitions of play by Kraus.

### 3.2 The Development of Adventure Play

Serious consideration to providing for children's play in Britain came about through the pro-active ideas of the early educational philosophers and thinkers, and as a result of the reaction to social problems arising from the Industrial Revolution.

Mary Ward, in the 1860s, was one of the founders of the 'settlement movement' in Victorian Britain. This movement established the first play



centres for working mothers, the first schools for children with disabilities and organized play provision for children in the school holidays.

In the early 1930s, the Danish architect, C. Th. Sorenson, conceived of children having the freedom to explore 'a sort of junk playground' in which they could 'make dreams and imagination a reality'. His first playground was opened in 1943 at the height of World War II on a new housing estate in the centre of Copenhagen.

Lady Allen of Hurtwood, a campaigner for children, following a visit to Copenhagen, established a campaign to build 'junk playgrounds' on waste grounds in England. Several projects, after the war, the first in Camberwell, South London, were championed by the National Playing Fields Association and the London County Council with grant aid and employed staff, but run by local volunteers.

Throughout the 1960s, 1970s and even into the early 1980s, adventure playgrounds continued to grow. The change of name to Adventure Playgrounds brought a certain respectability, but in some respects, may have lost some of the essential raw, down-to-earth quality. In the voluntary sector, the London Adventure Playground Association and the Handicapped Adventure Playground Association (now called Kids Active) provided inspiration and support. It is only in recent years that the growth of play provision has shifted from the adventure play and open play to the playcare model.

Adventure play is important for children and young people. The adventure playground, although not enjoying the high profile of the 1960s and 1970s, provides opportunities for children to choose the ways in which they play. It is a place where children of all ages, under 'qualified', friendly, unobtrusive supervision, are free to do many things that they can no longer do in crowded urban developments, or at home. They can climb, dig, light fires, cook, camp, garden, play games, paint, dress up, or simply just talk and make friends. The adventure playground can be a place for learning and for making relationships.

Due to the fact that adventure playgrounds provide space and materials for children to create their own play world, they try out many things and learn to develop confidence in their abilities. The lack of structure allows for variability, change and flexibility. But adventure playgrounds tend to end up looking like junk yards. In some areas they are acknowledged as good for the children, but no one wants one in their 'back yard'. However, the principle of the freedom to choose is fundamental to quality play experiences.

Today, the term 'adventure playground' is used more to represent a much sanitized version of its former self in public parks and is now even part of provision in commercial leisure, with indoor adventure centres.

On a broader front, today all local authorities in the United Kingdom provide 'standard' outdoor playgrounds and play spaces, so there are many thousands that exist and have to be safe and well maintained. Playgrounds and safety issues are not covered in this material. In addition to these and other 'open' spaces and opportunities such as play schemes, the growth area in play has been in the 'closed' settings and in play care. The emerging profession of play and play work has spawned many hundreds of play workers, paid and voluntary, and standardized training courses and qualifications.

### SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss the significance of adventure play grounds.

### 3.3 Play in Practice Today

Theories are often academic and complex, as we have seen. Hughes (2002), drawing on his experience and others in the field, brings us down to earth with his taxonomy of fifteen types of play.

#### 3.3.1 A Taxonomy of Play Types

1. *Symbolic Play*: Play which allows control, gradual exploration and increased understanding, without the risk of being out of one's depth. For example, a piece of string to symbolizes a wedding ring.
2. *Rough and tumble Play*: Close encountered play which is less to do with fighting and more to do with touching, trickling, gauging relative strength, discovering physical flexibility. For example, playful wrestling and chasing.
3. *Socio-dramatic play*: Acting out real and potential experiences of an intense personal, social, domestic or relationship nature. For example going to the shops, being mothers and fathers.
4. *Social Play*: Where the 'rules' for social engagement and interaction can be explored and amended. For example, any social or interactive situation which contains an expectation on all parties such as games, or making something together.

5. *Creative Play*: Play which allows new responses or new connecting with element of surprise. For example, enjoying creation for its own sales and materials and tools.
6. *Communication play*: Play using words or gestures. For example, mime or play acting.
7. *Dramatic play*: Dramatizing events. For example, presentation of a TV show or festive event.
8. *Deep Play*: Play which allows the child to encounter risky experiences, to develop survival skills and conquer fear. For example, leaping, riding a bike on a parapet, balancing on a high beam.
9. *Exploratory play*: Play to access information such as handling, throwing. For example, engaging with another by manipulation or movement, assessing its properties and possibilities such as stacking bricks.
10. *Fantasy play*: Play which rearranges the world in the child's way, a way unlikely to occur. For example, playing at being a pilot, or driving a fast car.
11. *Imaginative play*: Play where the conventional rules which govern the physical world, do not apply, for example, pretending to be a tree or ship.
12. *Locomotor Play*: Movement in any and every direction for its own sake. For example, chase, hide and seek, tree climbing.
13. *Mastery play*: Control of the physical environment. For example, digging holes, changing the course of streams, constructing shelters, and building.
14. *Object Play*: Play which uses infinite and interesting sequences of hand-eye manipulations and movements. For example, novel use of any objects such as paint brush or cup.
15. *Role Play*: Play exploring ways of being, although not normally of an intense nature. For example, dialing a telephone, driving a car.

*Adapted from A Playworkers Taxonomy of Play Types, PLAYLINK*

Acting in the spirit of play defies specific definition. Analyzing play by placing it into types and categories can help to deliver appropriate

playwork, but does this have drawbacks in compartmentalizing play? With play therapy, for example, 'adults may be over-keen to group and interpret play because of their own interests'. Elizabeth Wood and Jane Attfield proved a warning:

In the urge to explain and categorize play, we may be in danger of overlooking the children define play themselves. They often establish mutual awareness of play and... they create roles, use symbols, re-define objects and determine the action through negotiations and shared meanings. Often, their enactments of play themes and stories or their creation of play scripts reveal far more subtleties than academic definitions can capture. (*Wood and Attfield, 1995*)

## SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

List and explain the fifteen play types.

### 3.3.2 Play Themes and Children's Perceptions

While there is no definition of play which achieves universal agreement, in *Understanding Children's Play* (Lindon, 2001), the following themes are suggested by Lindon as encapsulating the broad arrangement of literature on children's play.

Play is essentially a voluntary and pleasurable activity. It may be undertaken with great seriousness and attention and may give rise to significant learning. Children play because they want to and because it gives them enjoyment.  
(*Lindon, 2001*)

#### Play Themes

Children seem to play regardless of cultural background, although play is not identical across cultures.

Circumstances can prevent or restrict play. Constraint may be placed by adults or the environment limits children's experience. Alternatively, developmental problems, disability or illness can shape play possibilities for children.

Children play for play's sake. The activity is an end in itself and is not undertaken for an end product, although children do sometimes make something in play.

Play is an activity involving children's own choices. It is motivated by children's feelings and internal thoughts and it can be hard sometimes for adults to fathom these motives.

Play is often episodic with emerging and shifting goals developed by children themselves. However, children return to favourite play themes and activities over time.

Play supports children's social understanding and is in turn fed by their experiences. The roles and themes acted out during play both use and help children to understand social rules and conventions.

There is a subtle interplay between communication, social interaction and imagination in play. These features often become clear when you observe children who have difficulty in play, such as autistic children (See useful websites).

Play stems from children's own perception of the world and how it works. So it is a very personal creative activity. Within children's understanding, their play is meaningful in its connection to the non-play reality.

Children mirror each other in play and so they reinforce, highlight and develop their own views and experiences. Play is usually rule governed, even when it looks thoroughly disorganized to adults. The rules may be understood by children, but not spoken out loud. Rules are voiced clearly by children if someone breaks them.

Play provides a forum in which children can step back for a while, experiment and try out scenarios. Children can make their play represent reality in their own way, with an 'as if' or 'what if?' quality.

## SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

List and give at least one explanation of the different play themes.

### Answers to Self Assessment Exercise

1. Definition of play by Kraus
  - a form of behaviour
  - often carried out in the spirit of pleasure and creative expression.
- 2 Explanation of play themes.
  - Children seem to play regardless of cultural background.

## 4.0 CONCLUSION

Indeed, play, plays a significant role in the growth and development of any child. It promotes children's creativity and capacity to learn, and helps them understand social rules and conventions.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have discussed extensively about the meaning play has in the overall life experience of any child, play and the meaning of life, the development of adventure play, play in practice today, and a taxonomy of play themes. In the next unit, we shall discuss the importance of play for children today.

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Give five definitions of play according to Kraus (1971)

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Torkildsen, George (2005). *Leisure and Recreation Management*, 5<sup>th</sup> Edition, pp83–86.

## UNIT 4 THE IMPORTANCE OF PLAY FOR CHILDREN TODAY

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- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

The right to play is a child's first claim on the community. Play is nature's training for life. No community can infringe that right without doing deep and enduring harm to the mind and body of its citizens.

### 2.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading through this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the important of play for children today, and
- Discuss the protection that is required for children at play and

### 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

#### 3.1 The Importance of Play for Children Today

##### 3.1.1 The Benefits of Play

The benefits experienced by children at the time they are playing are summarized in *Best Play* (NPFA/CPC/PLAYLINK, 2000), which states that play;

- A Provides children with opportunities to enjoy freedom, and exercise choice and control over their action.
- A Offers children opportunities for testing boundaries and exploring risk.

A Offers a very wide range of physical, social and intellectual experience for children.

There are also benefits children derive from play that develop over time. *Best Play* states that play:

- A Fosters children's independence and self –esteem.
- A Develops children's respect for others and offers opportunities for social interaction.
- A Supports the child's well-being healthy growth and development.
- A Increases children's knowledge and understanding of life.
- A Promotes children's creativity and capacity to learn.

One study of primary school children found that break-time helps to maximize children's attention to school tasks when they returned to the classroom (Smith 1988).

## SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention two benefits children derive from play.

### 3.1.2 Children Deprived of Play

The case for play provision does not rest only with its benefits, but also on the adverse consequence if children are deprived of play. Recent scientific research suggests that a radically deprived environment could cause damage; a brain can physically expand and contract and change depending on experience (NPFA/CPC/PLAYLINK, 2000). Hence, there is growing awareness of possible implications of play deprivation.

Depending on the type of play opportunity that is lacking, children could be affected in the following.

- Poorer ability in motor tasks.
- Lower level of physical activity.
- Poorer ability to deal with stressful or traumatic situation and event.
- Poorer ability to assess and manage risk.
- Poorer social skills leading to difficulties in negotiating social situation such as dealing with conflict and cultural difference.

Generally, without a good range of play opportunities children may lose the chance to develop their emotional intelligence independence, self-esteem and self-confidence and acquire self-management skills such as being able to project task through to completion in school and educational settings. A lack of play opportunities for play can impair concentration in



the classroom. It could be argued that children who never have the chance to try out a range of activities may have undiscovered or latent talents, abilities that might have developed if the right opportunities, encouragement and support had been available. A lack of good play opportunities can also have adverse consequences on families and communities.

Play is important to healthy personal development. It is self-evident that the physical activity involved in much play provides exercise which helps in co-ordination and develops skills for growing children. It is also clearly evident that play has a social dimension. Promoting social and emotional skill to handle the ups and downs of life.

The Mental Health Foundation identified some children who are more resilient in the face of stressful life events than others. Those children who have good communication skills, a positive attitude a problem solving approach and the capacity to reflect tend to be more resilient. The ability to plan a belief in control and a sense of humour are all qualities that can lead to resilience' (Mental Health Foundation, 1999).

These findings echo much of Lieberman's characteristics of playfulness as spontaneous manifest and sense of humour.

### 3.1.3 Play and Child Development

You have seen that play is innate to the individual yet occurs. It is universal; clearly it is of significance in child development. It is a critically important. It is a critically important feature of children's development of cognitive and emotional skills. In Best play, the authors refer to the extensive research being carried out in the area of brain sciences and child development. "Play now features as an important consideration in the current science studies on the development of the brain"

Citing work on brain imaging technology, Sutton-Smith (1997) states that in the first ten years of life, children have at least twice the synaptic capacity as children over ten. Synapses are the links between nerve cells in the brain. Others link this 'plasticity to the effects of 'enriched' environments. Goleman's identification has also prompted further studies with the hypothesis that play in young children may have a critical role in the enlargement of brain capacity. Clearly, the role of play in child development is under-explored, but it is now generally accepted that play has a vital contribution to make to learning, health and physical, social and mental well-being. As suggested earlier, play can make learning irresistible. Moreover, it is also suggested that in play settings, children learn how to learn.

What is acquired through play is not specific information, but a general mindset towards solving problems that includes both abstraction and combinatorial flexibility. Children string bits of behaviour together to form novel solutions to problems requiring the restructuring of thought or action. (Sylva, 1977).

## SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What is the meaning of transformative system?

### 3.2 Play as Empowerment

Yuen and Shaw (2003) provide a new perspective on play, arguing that through creativity and exploration children can be empowered to think for themselves and act accordingly. Researching play, where gender stereotypes may be reinforced and resisted, they considered the possible outcomes of structured and unstructured play:

Research on play has indicated that this form of activity for children involves several different aspects or components. These include play as an empowering and transformative experience, play as a form of creativity, and play as an environment for learning. The emphasis placed on these components also differs between structured and unstructured play environments.

The transformative process means that children become confident in themselves, empowered in play to do things for themselves, feel in control and test out their skills. They create a world based on their own experiences, and through play children can 'transform themselves into others' roles' switching in and out of different situations. This experience is far more evident in unstructured activities compared to structured activities.

Within creativity, Yuen and Shaw include flexibility, originality and elaboration as well as curiosity, imagination and risk-taking. Creativity can involve 'convergent and /or divergent answer: there is one, right way. Divergent thinking on the other hand tends to result in many responses that promote exploration.

Structured play, because it is adult-organized, is likely to reinforce society's systems and hierarchies, competition, co-operation and democracy. Unstructured play is more likely to facilitate problem solving, improvisation and communication. As innovative ideals increase, children's abilities to think flexibly and produce original ideas also increase. Hence, while children are influenced by societal values and norms, they also have the ability themselves to influence these value based on how they respond to their own experience-and these are more likely to be found in

unstructured play. Moreover, although children's culture is not independent of adults or adult culture, children's peer groups create their own culture 'by selecting and rejecting various aspects of adult culture and making cultural innovations of their own (Yuen and Shaw, 2003)

## SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss the relevance of creativity and exploration in empowering children to think for themselves.

### 3.3 Protecting Children at Play and Leisure

You would have noted that children are growing up in a rapidly changing world of uncertainty and that parents have increasing concerns for their safety. This level of unease has led in some cases to an over-protection of young children and some teenagers also.

Once-normal activities such as roaming with friends, walking unescorted to and from school and 'hanging out' are increasingly being restricted. The activities of children are monitored and constrained to ensure that they come to no harm. They also take less exercise, which has consequences on fitness and health.

It is important that children do not lose a sense of adventure and exploration which is very much part of play. Sue Townsend author of the Adrian Mole diaries wrote:

When was a child I was a member of a gang. Our territory consisted of a derelict manor house and its grounds, a large neglected orchard mixed woodland and a spinney, which had a clear water brook running through it. Each season had its own particular delights. In the winter, the gang would push old-fashioned prams to the coal yards, load up and struggle back up the icy hill. In the summer, we picked apples and pears and blackberries, in the autumn, we roasted chestnuts over bonfires and brewed tea in old saucepans... playing was a serious business without knowing it, we were preparing to join the adult world.

The need for children's play environment is not confined to the urban population, but includes rural communities also. In some villages there is no common or public land for children to play on, and the thin scatter of rural populations makes it difficult for children to meet others of similar ages and interest. Public transport tends to be infrequent or non-existent, and parents worry if their children go cycling (Collins and Melchen, 1992).

The term 'inner city' conjures up the idea of a set of problems which include poverty, unemployment, poor standards in health, education, transport and housing, decaying buildings, crime, drugs and ;lack of social and recreational facilities. However, those who live in inner cities are not the only people affected by such problems. In the Duke of Westminster's report (1992), crime, social unrest and tensions were said to threaten rural communities, but 'countryside and 'rural' are not words which evoke the notion of problems.

As adult, you have the dual responsibility of allowing children the freedom to play, the freedom to take some risks and meet challenges, but same time to keep them safe from harm. Child protection is an area of considerable research and debate, children's play need to be vetted and, ideally, trained and qualified. Empirical study report sets out a framework for improving outcomes for all children and their families, to protect them, to promote their well-being and to support all children to their full potential. This report does not cover this important area of concern, but all the main children's play organizations some of whom are listed at the end of this chapter, provide guidance on these matters.

Many of the issues arising relate not just to play and children play has a significant part in leisure and recreation. Indeed, it is the corner-stone of recreation and as Paul Bonel (1993) reminds us, play is what prepares us for life. Adult too need to play.

Play begins at birth and continues unit we die. For adults, it is perhaps more comfortable to call it sport or recreation, art or leisure, but at some level and to some degree, we all play. For children, it is natural and necessary, they call it play and for them, the fact that it is crucial to their healthy development is incidental. Susan Millar (1968) would concur as she suggests that adults sometimes just play but children just play for more.

#### Answers to Self Assessment Exercise

1. Two benefits children derive from play are:
  - Opportunity to enjoy freedom
  - Wide range of physical social and intellectual experience
2. Transformative system
  - Children become confident in themselves

#### 4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit it is evidently clear that the benefit that children derived from play has a significant role in the development and future life of an individual child.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

It is claimed that play shapes our behaviour, values, norms and the customs of all cultures. Play is a positive form of behaviour and has potential to enrich lives. Play is generally viewed as child behaviour or child-like behaviour. Leisure is generally viewed in the context of adults because they all play a form of leisure, but the reverse is not the case? Play is a way a child learns what no one else can teach. In the next unit, we shall discuss people's needs and leisure.

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

There are benefits for children from play which develop overtime. Mention five of such benefits.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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## MODULE 2

Unit 1	People's Needs and Leisure
Unit 2	Factors that Influence Leisure Participation
Unit 3	The 'Pleasure Principle' Content
Unit 4	Government, the Public Sector and Leisure

### UNIT 1 PEOPLE'S NEEDS AND LEISURE

#### CONTENTS

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#### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding unit we have looked at leisure, its variety of meanings and its relationship to recreation and play. An understanding of leisure, however, is of limited value unless it helps toward meeting some of the needs of individual people, groups of people and is also of value to the wider community.

Leisure services are claimed by their providers to be based on the needs of the people they are intended to serve. Is this actually true, or is it wishful thinking? After all, do policy makers, providers and managers of leisure services have sufficient insight into people's needs? Would it not be sufficient and far easier to quantify people's wants and demands? Should we be concerned with needs which are difficult to understand, and even more difficult to measure? We are far more likely to provide appropriate facilities, services and programmes, if we have better understanding of human needs. Indeed, we should know as much about the needs of people, the leisure 'experience' and what motivates people to leisure as we do about the activities we call leisure and recreation.

This unit attempts to throw light on the concept of need briefly because over a long time scientists have been challenged to understand human needs and the search for universal agreements continues. In this unit we ask the simple questions: what are human needs, can leisure meet some of these needs and does leisure needs, as such exist?

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading through this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain whether universal needs do exist.
- Discuss needs, drives and motivation.
- Explain the intermediate needs.
- Explain whether leisure needs do exist.

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 Do Universal Needs Exist?

Before we can get near to debating the existence, or otherwise, of leisure needs, we need to understand something about human needs that apply to everyone: universal needs. It comes as a surprise to learn that some scientific researchers claim that universal human needs do not exist. Doyal and Gough (1991) report that “wide consensus in modern thought agree that universal and objective human needs do not exist or cannot be formulated coherently”. However, in *A Theory of Human Need*, they challenge this assertion and arrive at a different conclusion:

It is at least plausible to assume that objective human needs exist in some sense. Yet there can be no doubt that our common-sense understanding of what sorts of things needs are is varied and often confused and ambiguous. This is due in part to the fact that the word ‘needs’ is employed in everyday language in such diverse ways. One of the most common usages refers to needs as drives with which we have little choice but to conform. Another conceptualizes needs as goals, which for some reasons or other it is believed that everyone either does or should try to achieve. It is this universality, which supposedly differentiates needs from preferences or ‘wants’.

## SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Explain whether universal needs do exist.

### 3.2 Needs, Drives and Motivation

One simple view is that human need is something that is missing, a deficit. It has been defined as 'any lack or deficit within the individual either acquired or physiological' (Morgan and King, 1966, p. 776). Needs here are distinguished from drives and are seen as preceding them; they are the cause of motivation, rather than the motivation itself. Others equate need with the motivation force (Murray, 1938).

McDougal (1923) attempted to explain behaviour by reducing it to a series of innate, but modifiable, instincts. Instinct theory has now been generally discarded, but McDougal's theory was in many ways a watershed in motivational theory. It led to the further efforts of behavioral scientists to discover why we behave as we do. It also led many psychologists to look for more widely extended, diffusive concepts, which explain human motivation. One of the central ideas to be salvaged from McDougal's theory was that of the purposeful, goal-directed nature for the greater part of human behaviour.

Drive is goal-directed; it releases energy. It is generally considered to be the motivating factor within human personality. There appear to be different sorts of drive such as the drive for food, the drive for sex, the exploratory drive and so on. Summarizing the concept, Young (1961) says: Drive is a persisting motivation rather than brief stimulation. Drive is an activating energizing process.

Many psychologists who see the motivational aspect of human needs as drives do so in conjunction with the concept of homeostasis. People have a fundamental need to maintain a state of relative internal stability. Needs can therefore be perceived in terms of the elements that disturb homeostasis, drives are the forces, which impel the individual to regain the equilibrium that has been lost. Homeostasis is easiest to understand in terms of physiological needs, for example, the relief of cold or hunger. Needs which are social in nature, such as the needs for achievement, self-fulfillment and acceptance, are less easily accounted for in terms of homeostasis. However, as indicated in the discussion on recreation, the principle of 'psychological homeostasis' was used by Shivers as the basis of re-creation.

All human behaviour is motivated, according to Freudian theory. Nothing happens by chance, not even behaviour which appears to be 'accidental'. Thus we often remark on the 'Freudian slip: everyday errors and slips of the tongue, which far from being just 'accidental' are caused by underlying and unconscious wishes or intentions (Freud, 1974). In terms of motivation, Freud saw two fundamental driving forces in human being: the sexual and the aggressive. The basic drives which motivate all behaviour operate unconsciously at a basic level of the psyche known as the id. They are not



fixed patterns of behaviour, but function through 'external' demands and constraints, that is, the 'realities' of the outside world. The two psychic structures, which channel and modify the basic drives are the ego and superego. They direct the basic drives into socially acceptable channels.

Freud placed great emphasis on the development stages of early childhood, but little on the later life cycle stages. Erikson (1959), however, viewed development as a process, which continues throughout life; needs themselves are developmental and change at different stage of the cycle right up to old age.

It appears to be a reasonable conclusion that there is a relationship between need and motivation. In theories of motivation need is seen as a state or force within the individual. This can be either a deficit state leading to a search for satisfaction, or else a stage of psychological incompleteness leading to a movement towards completeness [IFER/DART, 1976, 2.46].

In either case, need is a motivational concept referring to those processes-conscious or unconscious-involved in goal-oriented behaviour.

Need is often used to denote a drive or some inner state that initiates a drive, for example, 'humans need to sleep'. This is the approach taken by Maslow whose analysis of 'basic needs' is the most well-known worldwide. Maslow (1954, 1968) discerned five needs organized in a hierarchy. If humans are chronically hungry or thirsty the physiological motivation to secure food and water will be most powerful. After hunger and thirst needs have been met, other higher needs emerge. Next, for adults (and even more for children) will be the needs for safety, orderliness and a predictable world. When these have been met, yet higher needs dominate until motivation for emotional and intellectual fulfillment take over.

Doyal and Gough, however, do not accept Maslow's hierarchy of needs, "its strict temporal sequencing of motivation in question is simply false. Some people seem far more concerned with their self-actualization than their safety- mountain climbers, for example" (Doyal and Gough, 1991 p. 36). Maslow's categories seem either to be combined, or, at times to conflict. Doyal and Gough, conclude that we should divorce the debate of needs as universal goals from that of motivations or drives. Thompson (1987) takes a similar stance; one can have a drive to consume something, like lots of alcohol, which one does not need and at the same time have a need for something, like exercise or diet, which one is in no way driven to seek'. In addition, there are cultural differences in terms of needs and differences also within cultures.

The assertion made earlier that needs and wants could be separated and the later could be recognized and more easily measured, now become more

problematic. What are needs for some can be merely wants for others, and vice versa. Moreover, people have strong feelings about what they need and these feelings can vary between cultures, within cultures and change over time. Perceived need therefore may be a matter of culture or individual feeling. Subjective feeling however is not a reliable determination of human need. As Doyal and Gough (1991, p. 49) explain we can strongly desire things, which are seriously harmful and, in our ignorance, not desire things which we require to avoid such harm. The message should not go unheeded by Leisure Managers. We can provide excellent, accessible services and programmes which are good for our health, and charge nothing for them, yet people will buy alternatives, which are expensive and inferior, but which they desire. The message is clear: you cannot even give away leisure activities and products if people do not want them.

### SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Explain the relationship between needs, drives and motivation.

#### 3.3 What are Intermediate Needs?

Doyal and Gough reason that there are two main types of need, one concerned with survival, security and health (clearly, we need to survive and maintain good health in order to do so), and the second concerned with what they term 'autonomy' and learning. By autonomy, they believe that basic personal need is to recognize ourselves as distinct and separate individual people; and through learning and education we grow and develop. Loss of health or autonomy entails disablement and an inability to create or to share in the 'good things' of life. Human beings are not capable of growing up and developing alone, therefore basic needs are provided for in a social context. Society has therefore created institutions' to provide for the realization of individual needs. The authors refer to these as societal needs and extend their thesis as to how they can be provided for, using the terms 'satisfiers' and intermediate needs'. They have called all objects, activities and relationships, which satisfy our basic needs 'satisfiers'. Basic needs are always universal but their satisfiers are often relative.

While the basic individual needs for physical health and autonomy are universal, many goods and services required to satisfy these needs are culturally variable. For example, the needs for food and shelter apply to all peoples, but we have seen that there is a potentially infinite variety of cuisines and forms of dwelling which can meet any given specification of nutrition and protection from the elements. The existence of basic needs or capabilities which are universal to all people is quite consistent in theory with a rich variety of ways in which they can be met and a wide variation in the quantity of satisfiers required to meet them.

Doyal and Gough identified eleven characteristics which they called intermediate needs. Their eleven universal intermediate needs – ‘universal satisfier characteristic’ – are summarized below.

### SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention and explain the two main types of needs analyzed above.

Universal satisfier characteristics

1. Food and water: appropriate nutritional intake
  2. Housing: adequate shelter, adequate basic services, adequate space per person.
  3. Work: non-hazardous work environment
  4. Physical environment: non-hazardous environment
  5. Health care: provision of appropriate care, access to appropriate care
  6. Childhood needs: security in childhood, child development.
  7. Support groups: presence of significant others, primary support group.
  8. Economic security: economic security
  9. Physical security: a safe citizenry, a safe state
  10. Education: access to cultural skills
  11. Birth control and child-bearing: safe birth control, safe childrearing
- Adapted from Doyal and Gough, 1991.

### SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Differentiate between satisfiers and intermediate needs.

### 3.4 Do Leisure Needs Exist?

We have seen that both ‘leisure and needs’, which are easily understandable in common-sense language, are actually complex. More complexity arises when we link leisure to needs, and ask the question, do leisure needs exist? In most studies, not only of leisure management but of general management also, the most cited needs theory is that of Maslow hierarchy. As suggested earlier, there are problem in the application of this theory because needs are not necessarily hierarchically ordered, not divided into the development needs of the individual. Need is not seen as the reduction of a state of tension or the return to homeostatic equilibrium. Instead people are seen as striving towards positive fulfillment and growth. Other authors with a humanistic approach to psychology also emphasize the human need for self-actualization and growth. If leisure has a place in such fulfillment and growth, then self-actualization could be perceived as one of the goals of leisure or, indeed, the ultimate goal.

One of the assumptions being made in this book is that what is fulfilling and meaningful and worthwhile for the individual, is likely to be worthwhile for the community also. Leisure, therefore, can be considered in a social and community context. Stokowski (1994) considered leisure in capitalism, modernity and post-modernity. She asked the question, is leisure an individual and societal need? Her findings suggested that leisure is a consistent feature of life in these 'human gathering', but often for social control.

In other words they apparently indicate that leisure is something that human beings need just as they need food; shelter, warmth, security and protection. At the same time, our discussion of leisure under capitalism and modernity suggests that leisure is seen as quite low on the scale of essential social values. Under these cultures a donatory view of leisure is maintained. That is, leisure is regarded as something to be given as a reward to the individual and society or withheld as a punishment or as a way of controlling social behaviour.

Bringing the debate closer to participation in leisure and recreation is the classification of the much-used concept of 'social needs' presented by Bradshaw (1972). Bradshaw classified social needs into four categories.

- i) Normative needs
- ii) Felt needs
- iii) Expressed needs and
- iv) Comparative needs.

He explored a system by which the overlapping consideration of the four approaches to 'need' could be utilized to form a model to assist in making objective assessments of 'real' need.

Mercer (1973), and later McAvoy (1977) and Godbey (1976) applied Bradshaw's concepts to leisure and recreation. Godbey and others expanded the number of classification with attitudinal categories: created needs; changing needs and false need. These seven needs are now described within a context of providing leisure and recreation services.

#### 1. Normative needs and leisure

These represent value judgment made by professionals in the recreation and leisure field (such as criteria for open space standards). They are usually expressed in quantitative terms. The use of normative needs as the major determinant of leisure provision can be challenged on a number of points, and may not be valid for the population as a whole.

## 2. Felt needs and leisure

These can be defined as the desires that an individual has but has not yet actively expressed: they are based on what a person thinks he or she wants to do. According to Mercer (1973), felt needs are largely learned patterns; we generally want what we have become used to having. In many cases, felt needs are limited by the individual's knowledge and perception of available leisure opportunities. However, mass communication has expanded the individual's knowledge ordinarily outside his or her realm of experience. Thus felt needs, on the one hand use limited by an individual's perception of opportunities, but on the other hand they can be based on what a person imagines he or she would like to do. Individuals are likely to be happier participating in what they perceive they want to do during their leisure than if leisure options are simply dictated to them.

## 3. Expressed needs and leisure

Those activities in which individuals actually participate are expressed needs. They provide the leisure Manager with knowledge about current leisure preferences, tastes and interest. Expressed needs are felt needs put into action. However, if leisure resources, programmes and services are solely on expressed need (what people are doing), the practitioner may preclude the initiation of new services and programmes. Expressed need itself does not give a total picture of involvement potential, nor why people do or do not participate. Moreover, programming based on expressed needs may tend to favour those who are most demanding. New and novel provision may create its own demand, where none existed previously.

## 4. Comparative needs and leisure

Often an individual or organization will compare itself with another individual or organization. This may be done purely out of interest, or it may serve to help to identify deficiencies. This approach can be applied to services, facilities, resources and programmes. Care must be practised when utilizing the comparative method in needs assessment. One cannot assume that what works well in one situation will automatically be effective in another.

## 5. Created needs and leisure

Godbey (1976) has expanded on Bradshaw's taxonomy of social needs by adding a fifth level: created needs. The concept implies that policy makers and professional can create leisure interests. Created need refer to those activities which organizations have 'introduced to individuals and which they will subsequently participate at the expense of some activity in which they previously participated. In other words, created needs refer to those

programmes, services and activities solely determined by the organization and accepted by the participant without question, desire or prior knowledge.

According to Edginton et al (1980) the created needs approach can be useful to the participant and to the organization as a method of defining needs:

Many individuals are grateful to organizations for helping them identify an area of interest which previously they had not considered. In a sense, the approach is a form of leisure education that is an important component of the philosophy of recreation and leisure service organizations. The organization also benefits by serving as an agency that creates opportunities for stimulation and enrichment. As a result individuals may look to the organization as a vehicle for providing innovative experience (*Edginton et al 1980 p.91*).

#### 6. False needs and leisure

Needs may be created which are inessential, and which are in fact false needs. Young (1961) points to the distinction between what an individual is aware of needing and what others may think is needed. This raises the issue of the value, which is placed on need by the individual and by outsiders. These values may differ.

Marcuse (1964) developed the concept that society encourages the individual to develop certain sorts of 'need', which serve the interest of society as a whole. Thus people acquire the 'need' for cars, washing machines, television, videos, computers, or mobile phones, which is in the general interest of society to promote. Such needs Marcuse calls false needs for the reason that they are not strictly essential. However they are hard to prove as different from other sorts of need. People now 'need' computers and mobile phones.

#### 7. Changing needs and leisure

Rhona and Robert Rapoport in *Leisure and family life cycle* (1975) claim that although every person has needs, these needs change as one progresses from one phase of life to another. The key concepts which reflect the development nature of the changes in the life cycle are preoccupations, mental absorptions, interest and activities. Preoccupations arise at a deep level of motivation. Some preoccupations might be present throughout the life cycle but tend to become particularly salient at a given phase. The preoccupation attributed to each stage in the life cycle are worth considering since they are of fundamental importance if providers are to make the most appropriate provision for different segments of the

population, such as: children, young people, young adults, middle agers, older people, and various sub-division within each segment.

The Rapoport's believe that recreation activities arise out of interests, and interests arise out of preoccupations. There is no one-to-one relationship between preoccupations and interest, and particular interest can be satisfied through different activities. However, it appears that specific 'cluster' of interests can be satisfied through different activities. In addition, it appears that specific 'cluster' of interest are clearly related to each major life cycle phase. The Rapoport's thesis is that all people have a quest for personal identity. At the root of their search, is that people have fundamental preoccupations. Specific preoccupations can be experienced through a variety of interests and expression of interest may be facilitated through specific activities. Each person is seen as having a career consisting of separate but interrelated strands. Three major strands relate to family, work and leisure. Each life strand therefore produces changes in preoccupations, interest and activities at life crises such as at marriage and at the birth of children.

## SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Identify and explain the seven needs and their leisure requirements.

### 3.5 Needs, Demands and Leisure

Leisure needs are often equated with demands, especially among policy makers, researchers, planners, and managers. But there is a very real difference between the two. Researchers have generally been concerned with establishing recreation demand, rather than understanding people's needs. Large-scale surveys, for example, have identified certain demands, but have not discovered what motivates people to leisure and recreation and why people participate. 'Whereas a "need" appears to be conceptually "woolly" and operationally elusive, "demand" appears tangible, measurable, even predictable (Kew and Rapoport, 1975).

In recent years, there has been a growing dissatisfaction with macro-social demand studies, and a feeling that if researchers are to provide information of real value to policy makers and planners, they must look for approaches that are also of relevance to the people being researched. Knetsch (1969) calls into question the concept of demand. The myth persists that somehow we are able to multiply population figures by recreation activity participation rates obtained from population surveys and call it demand.

Effectiveness and efficiency are not the same thing. An effective leisure service could be described as one that ensures that the right opportunities are provided, at the right time and in the right place, based on the needs of

the people it is intended to serve. This is of course impossible to achieve in the sense that any collective services cannot be all things to every person. Yet the approach which encourages ways for people to attain self fulfillment can be stressed. If not, providers may provide an efficient service and ensure its smooth running but the service could be ineffective. Of the two, the provision of an effective services is the more important, as it is better to provide an effective service that meets needs, however inefficiently, than to provide a super efficient service that meets nobody's needs.

Although little direct research has been undertaken on the 'social' need of the individual being a prime motivating factor, Crandall (1977) found that the success of many leisure and recreation services may depend more on their ability to bring together their compatible people, than on their programmes and facilities.

Tillaman (1974) is one of many authors who have examined needs and identified those which are felt important in determining the 'leisure needs' of people. He listed needs for:

- A new experiences such as adventure, relaxation, escape and fantasy.
- A recognition and identity
- A security being free from thirst, hunger or pain
- A dominance: to direct others or control one's environment
- A response and social interaction to tolerate and react to others.
- A mental activity; to perceive and understand
- A creativity
- A service to others: the need to be needed, and
- A physical activity and fitness.

However, the concept of 'leisure needs' is misleading. People have needs, which can be satisfied, in a variety of ways. One way of meeting some of them may be through leisure opportunity: leisure needs as such may not exist.

#### Answers To Self Assessment Exercise

1. What the unit attempts to do:
  - To throw light on the concept of need
2. Two main types of needs:
  - Survival, security and health
  - Autonomy-recognizes us as distinct and separate individual people.



#### 4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit we have tried to examine the concept of needs and the ways it is influencing or can influence an individual's life.

#### 5.0 SUMMARY

The life of an average human being is controlled by needs, drives and motivation. In the next unit, we shall discuss factors that influence leisure participation. In the next study unit, we shall discuss factors that influence leisure participation.

#### 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Highlight and explain the needs for leisure espoused by Tillaman

#### 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

John A. and Wheway, R (2004). *Can Play, Will Play*, NPFA, London: The NPFA Guide for Playgrounds for Disabled Children.

Cole-Hamilton and Gill, T. (2002). *Making the Case for Play*, National Children's Bureau: London.

Children's Play Council (2002). *More than Swings and Roundabouts Planning for Outdoor Play*, National Children's Bureau: London.

## UNIT 2      FACTORS      THAT      INFLUENCE      LEISURE PARTICIPATION

### CONTENTS

- 1.0    Introduction
- 2.0    Objectives
- 3.0    Main Content
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  - 3.2    Personnel and Family Influences
  - 3.3    Social and Situational Circumstances
  - 3.4    Opportunity and Leisure Participation
  - 3.5    Peoples Needs and Leisure Planning
- 4.0    Conclusion
- 5.0    Summary
- 6.0    Tutor-Marked Assignment
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### 1.0    INTRODUCTION

In the preceding unit we have looked at leisure, its variety of meanings and its relationship to recreation and play. An understanding of leisure, however, is of limited value unless it helps toward meeting some of the needs of individual people, groups of people and is also of value to the wider community.

Leisure services are claimed by their providers to be based on the needs of the people they are intended to serve. Is this actually true, or is it wishful thinking? After all, do policy makers, providers and managers of leisure services have sufficient insight into people's needs? Would it not be sufficient and far easier to quantify the people's wants and demands? Should we be concerned with needs which are difficult to understand and even more difficult to measure? We are far more likely to provide appropriate facilities, services and programmes, if we have better understanding of human needs. Indeed, we should know as much about the needs of people, the leisure 'experience' and what motivates people to leisure as we do about the activities we call leisure and recreation.

This unit attempts to throw light on the concept of need, albeit briefly, because over a long time scientists have been challenged to understand human needs and the search for universal agreements continue. In this unit we ask the simple questions: what are human needs, can leisure meet some of these needs and does leisure needs, as such exist?

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading through this unit, you should be able to:

- Identify and explain the factors influence leisure participation.
- Discuss the personal and family influences on leisure.
- Explain social and situational circumstances and leisure.
- Discuss opportunity and leisure participation as well as people's needs and leisure planning.

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 Factors Influencing Leisure Participation

Many factors influence how people spend their leisure. They can be grouped as follows:

- A Individual factors: - the stage of an individual' life, his or her interest, attitudes, abilities, upbringing and personality.
- A The circumstances and situations in which individuals find themselves:- the social setting of which they are a part, the time at their disposal, their job and their income
- A Opportunities and support services available to the individual:- resource, facilities, programmes and activities; their quality and attractiveness; and their management.
- A Self-confidence and family upbringing.

Recreation policy and planning are by no means simple. There is a complex mixture and interaction when thinking about the factors, which affect participation. Figure 6.1 outlines some of the discernible factors, which individually, jointly or collectively affect participation. This listing is not comprehensive, but it illustrates the complexity and variety of influences, which bear on an individual. In addition, even if people have identical circumstances and opportunities, one person may still choose one activity and another something entirely different. Nevertheless, by understanding some of the correlations between personal circumstances and participation, Leisure Managers can foresee some of the constraints and difficulties encountered by some people, and management approaches can be modified accordingly. Figure 6.1 has three column headings which are the main influences affecting leisure and reaction participation.

1. Personal and family influences
2. Social and situational circumstances
3. Opportunities

## SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention and explain the factors that influence leisure participation

Figure 6.1 Influence on Leisure Participation

Personal	Social and circumstantial	Opportunity factors
Age	Occupation	Resources available
Stage in life cycle	Income	Facilities: type and quality
Gender	Disposable income	Awareness
Marital status	Material wealth and goods	Perception of opportunities
Dependents and ages	Car ownership and mobility	Recreation services
Will and purpose of life	Time available	Distribution of facilities
Personal obligation	Duties and obligation	Access and location
Resourcefulness	Home and social environment	Choice of activity
Leisure perception	Friends and peer groups	Transport
Attitudes and motivation	Social roles and contacts	Costs: before, during after
Interests and preoccupation	Environment factors	Management: policy and support
Skills and ability-physical	Mass leisure factors	Marketing
Social and intellectual	Education and attainment	Programming
Personality and confidence	Population factors	Organization and leadership
Culture born into		Social accessibility
Upbringing and background		Political policies

### 3.2 Personal and Family Influences

Choice and participation are influenced by the personality of an individual, his or her needs, interest, physical and social ability, the culture into which one is born, a person's will and purpose in life, and a whole range of other personal factors. Three factors are significant: age and stage in family life cycle, gender and education.

#### 1. Age and stage in the family cycle

Age has an important influence, but its effect will vary depending on the person, the opportunities and the type of activity. For children, there is a rapid change in the space of a few years. For adults, participation in most active leisure pursuits declines as people grow older.

The availability of time also has an influence on recreation participation. The greatest amount of free time appears to be concentrated at the ends of the age continuum, with the adolescent and the retired having considerably more time at their disposal than the middle age-group who live under a greater degree of time pressure.

Age should not be considered in isolation, however. Age may be less restrictive than life cycle changes, such as getting married and having children; for some, participations may increase with age as a result of the children leaving home or a person retiring from work. Although age may influence the level of fitness and energy, a reduction in family and work responsibilities may more than compensate for this.

#### 2. Gender and leisure participation

The leisure pattern of males and females show similarities and differences. However, obstacles have faced women in the form of family commitments, particularly looking after children. Many go out to work yet maintain a home (Green et al, 1987).

Women have had, and continue to have greater constraints placed upon them than men. However, one of the misleading factors in looking for similarities and differences stems from the fact that most surveys have studied traditional recreation activities. Once a wider view of leisure is taken, encompassing the range of activities in and around the home holidays, socializing, entertainment, excursions or walks in the park, a totally different picture starts to emerge. Looking at the broader spectrum, it would appear that overall participation rates do not differ substantially between men and women, though women take a greater part in 'cultural'

activities, and men take part substantially more than women in active sport and sports spectatorship.

### 3. Education, educational attainment and leisure

The type of education, the length of education and the educational attainment of people are closely related to upbringing, class, occupation, income and other factors. In general, the higher the qualification, the greater the degree of participation in leisure activities. This is evidenced in every General Household survey over the past twenty years which has included lifestyle information.

Education influences, to some extent, the type of leisure choice. There is a sharp differential between members and non-members of the public library when related to educational institution and level of educational attainment. Possibly, the best illustration is within the arts where there is a higher correlation between audiences for drama, opera and ballet and educational attainment, as recorded in the General Household Surveys.

### SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention two personal and family influences that affects leisure participation.

### 3.3 Social and Situational Circumstances

The range of social and situational circumstances as they affect leisure participation include the home, school work, environment, income, mobility, time, social class, social roles and group belonging.

#### 1. Time availability

Is a major determinant of leisure behaviour. Working women have the least unobligated time of all groups, mainly because of home commitments. Retired people and unemployed men have the most time for leisure, but much of it may remain simply free time.

#### 2. Income and leisure participation

Income levels are closely linked to participation rates, and for almost all the leisure activities examined by the General Household Surveys, the proportion participating rose with income. In only three activities (bingo needlework and going to clubs) did participation not increase with income. Even where little or no financial outlays is incurred, such as walking, participation rates were also higher. With betting, bingo and doing the pools, participation rates fell among those with higher than average incomes.

It is perhaps not surprising that since income correlates with both education and social class, the higher income group has the higher participation rates in many recreational activities. If lower income group is to be attracted in larger number to community recreation, then greater social service approaches would need to be applied. Owning a large house with a garden, and driving a second car may immediately open the door to leisure activities, which will be denied those living in high-rise flat, without personal transport and on a low income.

### 3. Social class and leisure participation

‘Social class’ can be regarded as a grouping of people into categories on the basis of occupation’ (Reid, 1977). Due to the fact that the inter-relationship between social class and income, education and mobility, it is generally considered that social class as determined by occupation is the most influential factor in determining recreational participation. Occupation is not therefore an independent characteristic, but is closely associated with other factors.

The General Household Surveys found that, generally, it was professional workers who tended to have the highest participation rates in leisure activities and unskilled classes are not only more active culturally, socially and intellectually, but they also play more sport and travel more widely.

### 4. Social climate and leisure participation

The concept of ‘social climate’ is a complex of factors in addition to those, which relate to age, gender, income, occupation and education (IFER/DART, 1976). The attitudes and value of people in their social setting are seen as enabling or inhibiting factors concerned with leisure choice. Emmet (1991) argues that providers act both consciously and unconsciously as social filters, controlling who uses particular facilities and affecting the behavior of those people. The social filters let through and channel different groups to different facilities. There appear to be both formal and informal social filters. The filters are influential in people’s adapting of attitudes and behaviour appropriate to the situation. Behaviour patterns become habits. As Leigh (1971) points out, the habits of leisure are habits of mind as well as habits of behaviour.

## SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention and explain the social and situational circumstances that affect leisure participation.

### 3.4 Opportunity and Leisure participation

It is no good providing opportunity unless good advantage is taken of it. Opportunity that makes it possible for a person to participate or be involved is essential to participation. Opportunity can come in variety of forms; resources and services, political policies, management styles and systems, community leadership and support, and accessibility; physical, perceptual, financial and social.

#### 1. Perception and leisure participation

Perception refers to the world as it is experienced- as it is seen, heard, felt, smelt and tasted. Consequently, the way an individual perceives the world will largely determine his or her behaviour. The way people perceive leisure provision (facilities, activities and so on) may influence their participation more than actual form of provision.

The perception of one's neighbourhood can have a significant effect on inhibiting recreation participation. If residents perceive their neighborhood as being violent, the elderly (in particular) will be fearful of venturing out of the house at night. Consequently, how the public perceive their neighborhood and its facilities can either encourage or inhibit participation.

#### 2. Access and supply and leisure participation

Recreation participation undertaken outside the home involves some travel, which includes walking, cycling, bus, taxi, car, train or plane. The method of travel can affect the level of satisfaction; it can determine time, distance and destination. Apart from walking, all other means of travel incur financial cost. The method of transportation will lessen or heighten the experience. However, though low mobility can act as a deterrent, higher mobility is not a prerequisite of greater participation: rather it can reduce some of the inconveniences associated with travel (Hillman and Whalley, 1977). The mobility conferred by the ownership of a car has revolutionized people's use of leisure time. For almost every activity, with the striking exception of bingo, the chances of participating in leisure activities were increased for car users by between 50 per cent and 100 per cent, according to the General Household Surveys.

Accessibility is influenced also by other important factors. Usage is affected by location and 'distance decay' whereby usage falls as the distance grows between the user's home and a facility. Moreover, those without transport who live near to public transport routes attend more frequently than those (within the same distance) who did not.



### 3. Awareness and leisure participation

If people do not know that something exists, then obviously they will not go to visit it unless they stumble upon it. Due to the fact that leisure facilities are not sought in the same way as a shopping center or place of work, knowledge about them derives from seeing them, hearing about them or reading about them. People passing a leisure facility en route to work or the shops will be more likely to use that facility than a comparable one because they have become more aware of it.

### 4. The influence of management on leisure participation

People's take on leisure opportunities and use of leisure facilities is determined, as you have seen, by some discrete and interrelated factors. Effective management is not less important. The way a service or facility is managed can have a profound effect on the extent they are used, and by whom.

Management policy, marketing, attitude or staff, sensitive customer service, skilled programming reflecting the 'needs' of the community, all go towards creating a welcoming atmosphere and appealing image. For example, the pricing, administrative and booking system at a leisure facility can consciously or unconsciously establish a type of social filter, deterring some people from attending.

People use leisure facilities for a variety of reasons. Sport centers, for example, can be places to go and socialize. With some mothers, the activity itself may be of quite secondary importance compared with getting out of the house, having the children happily occupied for an hour, and meeting and talking with people in the coffee bar. Management needs to be aware of these motivating factors in deciding management policy and delivery.

### SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention and explain the considerations inherent in opportunities in relation to leisure.

### 3.5 People's Needs and Leisure Planning

Leisure planning and management exists, in large measure, to provide opportunities for individual, people to participate actively or passively, seriously or casually in their time for leisure. This personal need can be met, in part by effective leisure planning and management, but only if needs of different people are identified. Therefore, needs assessment should allow for broad consultation and public involvement.

### Answers To Self Assessment Exercise

1. Factors that influence leisure participation
  - Personal and family influences
  - Social and situational circumstances
  - Opportunities
2. Personal and family influences that affect leisure participation
  - Culture into which one is born
  - A person's will and purpose in life
  - Age and stage in family life.

### 4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has discussed so far, the factors that influence leisure participation: personal and family influences, social and situational circumstances, opportunity and leisure participation, and people's need and leisure planning. Leisure planning and management:

1. Provides an increase in individual and community input and involvement in planning and decision-making.
2. Provides the planner with a better understanding of the community and individuals.
3. Provides information as to the activities in which people are involved, the activities in which they would like to be involved and how these can be planned and provide for within an overall leisure delivery system.
4. Provides supportive facts and ideas on which to base decisions in the planning process.

Two most important factors have emerged in this unit, which need to be taken into account. First, people have diverse needs; therefore, level of flexibility need to be written into planning and management systems. Second, these needs change or take on greater or lesser degrees of importance according to one's stage in the life cycle. Hence, standardization across the board will only be relevant in some circumstances as an individual will choose on the basis of certain personal and social elements current in his or her life.

Needs assessment should attempt an understanding of individual and group behaviour as it relates to recreation and leisure. It can accomplish several things. Through such assessment, planners and managers can become aware of people's underlying motivation, interests, opinions, habits, desires and knowledge regarding characteristics, time use, leisure behaviour and opinions and attitudes. Hedges (1986) for example, sought to develop a technique for more accurate charting of people's leisure patterns through their lives, namely their 'leisure histories'. Clearly, methods must include

both quantitative and qualitative assessments, though it is only qualitative methods that can reach below the surface.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

Many discrete, complex and often interrelated, factors condition people's choice and participation in leisure activities, which meet their needs. Furthermore there are the strongest links between leisure and other elements of life. A person's age and stage in the family life cycle, such as marriage, parenthood and retirement, affect opportunity and participation.

Taking the widest view of leisure, the similarities in participation rates between men and women are more striking than the differences, though there are specific differences, and inequalities both within and between the sexes. The type and level of education people have undertaken has a profound effect on leisure participation. Education and recreation share in the same concern for the development of the 'whole' persons – body, mind and spirit – through different approaches. The amount of income and property a person has influences leisure participation. Higher income groups have higher participation rates in most active recreation activities.

In the next unit, we shall discuss pleasure principle context.

## 6.0 TUTOR- MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the factors that can be influence leisure.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

John A. and Wheway, R (2004). *Can Play, Will Play* NPFA, London: The NPFA Guide for Playgrounds for Disabled Children.

Cole–Hamilton and Gill.T.(2002), *Making the Case for Play*, National Children's Bureau: London.

Children's Play Council (2002). *More than Swings and Roundabouts: Planning for Outdoor Play*, National Children's Bureau: London.

## UNIT 3 THE 'PLEASURE PRINCIPLE' CONTEXT

### CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 Core Characteristics of Play, Recreation and Leisure
  - 3.2 'Pleasure' Principles' in Leisure Management Actions
  - 3.3 Discussion of Issues in Leisure Management
  - 3.4 The Leisure Management Pyramid
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, it was shown that people often go to great lengths to find or get satisfying experiences. Leisure can offer opportunities for such experiences.

This unit tries to get to the heart of the leisure product, the leisure experience. Leisure managers need to create the environments and opportunities and deliver services and programmes for different people to experience leisure. Managers also have to manage resources – personnel, facilities and finances- to meet the business goals of their organizations. In this unit we shall explain the term pleasure and also direct you as a leisure professional to the implication of the 'pleasure principle'.

### 2.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading through this unit, you should be able to:

- Identify and explain the core characteristics of play, recreation and leisure pleasure
- List and explain the pleasure principles in leisure management actions and the leisure management pyramid.

### 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

#### 3.1 Core Characteristics of Play, Recreation and Leisure

Three of the concepts discussed in previous chapter and which are the foundation stones for leisure and recreation management are 'play' 'recreation' and 'leisure'. In debating and dissecting each concept, a case

can be made to treat each as distinct activities. In common language we can all distinguish children at play, young people and adults taking part in organized recreation and being at leisure, lazing in a deck chair drink in hand. And we can use all three words at once: 'playing recreational games in our leisure time. Moreover, the feelings we might experience could be the same whatever words we care to use. Why, then are we concerned with their differences? It is tempting to dismiss this line of enquiry as mere semantics, which simply adds to the jargon. However, there is more to it than just words because we often provide for these aspects of life in different ways. We provide play space, community recreation facilities or multi-use and family leisure centres. It is in part practical: leisure professional, must know what they are providing and to whom. By play, do we mean children's play or do we mean playing cards? By recreation, do we mean taking part in organized recreation activities or could we be referring to the re-creative experience of relaxing in the spa? By leisure are we engaged in recreation activity or simply day-dreaming or reading a novel leisure?

Play can be described as activity, freely chosen and indulged in for its own sake for the satisfaction it brings in the doing. Play exhibits childlike characteristics of joy, spontaneity, self-expression and a creation of its own special meaning in a play world.

Recreation is usually thought of as leisure time activities and pursuits and often tends to be more organized, whether in an informal game on the park or organized more formally by other. Recreation is more institutional in character than play or leisure. In its purest sense, however, recreation can be casual or serious. In its idealistic sense, leisure can be perceived as experiencing activities, chosen in relative freedom, that are personally satisfying and innately worthwhile and that has the potential to lead an individual towards self-actualization and ultimately, play a part in a self-fulfilling way of life.

One can readily discern that at the core of play, recreation and leisure, there exists a number of similarities and overlaps: after all, we can use each word to mean much the same thing. Collectively, they all mean freedom, absence of necessity, choice, self-initiating, self-expression, satisfaction in the doing, playfulness and quite often, seriousness. There are of course, differences between them too. Playfulness and spontaneity are found more in children's play and in the play of those elderly people who appear to have re-discovered the art pf playing. Recreation carries a badge of respectability: doing things that are good for you. Leisure is a looser more casual, less constrained term than recreation and encompasses a vast range of active and passive, casual and serious pursuits. Whether at play, recreation or leisure, people can experience a feeling of immense satisfaction in the doing, or of well-being or a quality of experience that can

lead to revitalization or an uplifting of the spirit. This can also occur at work and elsewhere, but it is when we are 'at leisure' free to make choices and be ourselves, that we are more likely to achieve a quality we might describe as 'wholeness' or an inner consuming experience. The experience goes beyond description afforded by words: but it needs a name.

As there is no word to describe this experience in the English Language, Torkildson (2005) used the word 'pleasure'. Figure 7.1 illustrates better than words the concept of the pleasure experience at the heart of play, recreation and leisure.

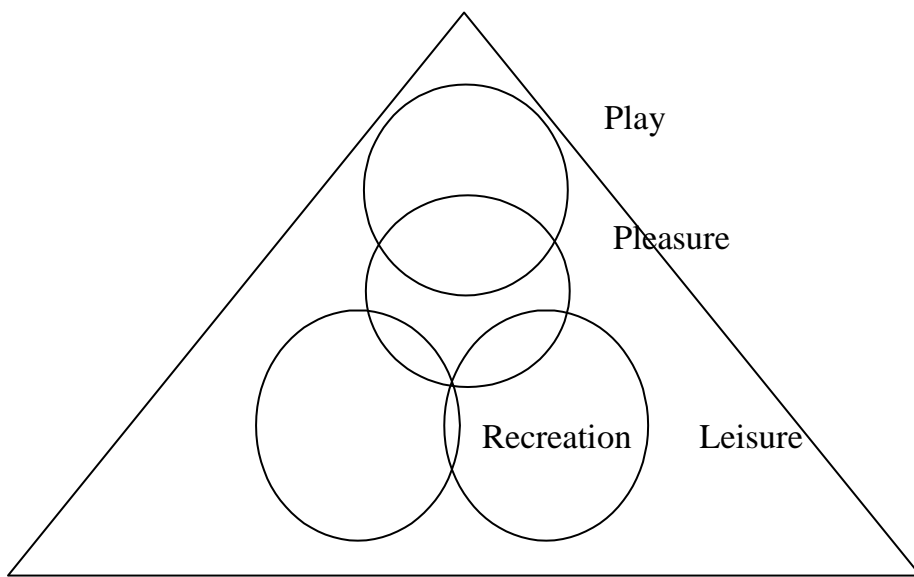


Figure 1: 'Pleasure' at the heart of play, recreation and leisure

What implications does this have for the leisure professionals and managers? Put simply, the 'Pleasure principle' implies that in terms of meeting the needs of individual people, clients and customers of leisure and recreation services, facilities and programmes, numbers attending or the income generated the expected experience (pleasure) should be considered. The activity itself may be quite secondary to what it does for a person, or what it means to him or her. Moreover, in terms of management, appreciating that Leisure Managers have business goals to fulfill, people are more likely to be attracted to and 'buy' activities that they perceive to be worthwhile or that bring satisfying experiences.

### SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Describe play as stated in this unit.

### 3.2 Pleasure Principles' in Leisure Management Actions

Putting principles into practice is not an easy transition. Expediency is often the option we take and understandably, management practices tend toward efficiency. If as leisure professionals, we want to provide a choice of activities and opportunity for people to experience and develop leisure potential then we must provide favourable environment: the right conditions, satisfactions and positive outcomes.

#### 1. The right conditions

Leisure programmes need to be designed with sufficient options for different people. There needs to be freedom of choice and also the opportunity for some self-initiation and spontaneity.

#### 2. Satisfaction

To be satisfying, there need to be levels of experiences including: self-expression, challenge, novelty, stimulation, joy, playfulness, quality experiences (ideally, 'pleasure' experience) and re-creative moments.

#### 3. Positive Outcomes

To be effective, there should be some positive outcomes, for example, accomplishment, heightening of self-esteem and well-being, both physical emotional, social and psychological.

Favourable experience gives satisfactions. Satisfactions lead to consuming interests. Consuming interests can lead to life-enhancing experiences, a goal of leisure. Providing for client and customer satisfactions can also lead to successful business outcomes.

Regrettably, it is not so simple. There are a number of individual and institutional barriers to providing services and programmes based on the needs of people. The reasons for this are complex. People, generally, are not free agents to do as they please and are limited in their response to leisure services and programmes. Some people have physical, mental and social limitations or their environments limit choice (such as the family, peer group, culture, resources). Leisure for others is eroded through obligations, lack of time or through enforced free time without the means or motivation to use it. Activities one might consider as leisure, such as sport, can be practiced in such extremes that the spirit of play and fair play are submerged by the desire to win at all costs. And there are inequalities of opportunity, physical, social and economic. There still exists gender imbalance, for example, male-only golf clubs, even when skill levels are similar.

Do public sector providers adequately consider people's needs in planning services and facilities and formulating programme? Successful private sector organizations, although concerned with financial profits, realize that providing for our want can lead to greater profits. Public authorities sometimes provide fragmented services between tiers in the same authority and at times within the same department. People have to go from one local authority department to the next, to find a satisfactory solution to a problem. Organizations, professions, voluntary bodies and public departments can isolate themselves and operate independently. This leads to a lack of cohesion and mutual understanding, which deprives people of their needs. An integrated approach to leisure service is certainly desirable, but there are also organizational and institutional barriers and increasing financial barriers to overcome. To provide as appropriately as possible for people, services and programmes should be founded on principles which enhance quality of life. Providers should recognize the obstacles and limitations to develop to best meet people's needs.

### SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention at least five words used to describe satisfaction as stated above.

### 3.3 Discussion of Issues in Leisure Management

Providing for people's leisure is complex. Providing for their 'pleasure' even more so. Leisure implies freedom. Freedom implies choice. Choice enables people to be involved in activities which are either personally worthwhile and which lead to good citizenship or those which are of doubtful value, either to themselves or the community.

Consider, for example, the individual who flits from experience to experience, like an impulse buyer in a supermarket. Does he or she have the opportunity to gain an appreciation of the activity which will make it, in Goldbey's words, 'intuitively worthwhile? For most people, enjoyment and satisfaction in an activity increase as knowledge and skill increase. Whether gardening, playing drums, surfing or collecting old comics, all are enriched by an increase in knowledge and skill. 'Leisure involves sacrificing that which is potentially-good for that which is potentially better. The lack or willingness to sacrifice one desirable activity in order to undertake another, however, suggests an inability to obtain leisure' (Goodale and Godbey, 1988, pp. 218-9).

As Jacob Bronowski (1965) pointed out, appreciation is essentially an act of recreation; a deep sense of appreciation envelops us and lifts us to a higher plane where we discover that there is peace, beauty and joy in this world. And that may carry over into increased appreciation of life itself. That is leisure's promise. It seems hard for us to appreciate and accept the



gift of leisure. Ideally, leisure can be a way of living the ‘good life’ for individuals and communities. But only we can determine for ourselves what that will be. However, education and knowledge will help to people the opportunity and ability to make good choices. Leisure education can help people to appreciate the opportunities that can be opened up and importantly, how to make the right choices for their lifestyle. Education should not be limited to preparation for finding jobs. Schools and Colleges are not simply employment agencies. Leisure education is much neglected. The more we learn about ourselves, about how to choose to find fulfillment, the better society we create.

Can we possibly achieve such a Utopia based on people’s needs’? People have diverse needs, and different people have different needs, which change according to their circumstances and stage in life. Old people have different needs from the young, disadvantaged people have different levels of need compared with those who are highly advantaged. People have a whole range of needs, some of which are basic to survival. Some are essential to cope with living in an uncertain social world and some are at the apex of a complex human network bringing balance, harmony and self-worth to individual people. It is particularly in this latter category where leisure opportunity can help people to meet some of their needs. Leisure for the vast majority of disadvantaged groups is likely to remain low while they are constrained by lack of income, poor housing and the unrelieved pressures of parenting.

If we want to provide leisure based on the needs of people, then local authorities (in particular) must make a number of assumptions on which to base principles, aims and objectives:

That the services are open to all and meet individual needs, so that a person can choose activities, in relative freedom:

That priorities should be balanced to serve the greatest number and those in greatest need, recognizing that those in greatest need may well be in the minority; and

That services should not be pockets of competing interests.

The question is with emphasis on freedom, can leisure actually be organized, planned and managed? The activity can be organized, but the experience cannot, what is the manager’s role? Normally considered as managing resources, services, facilities and programmes, leisure professionals have a wider remit. Their role is to:

Consult and involve people and then create environments and services to match the market profiles;

extend the range of activities to offer a wide and varied choice; groups can be helped through supportive services and some can be enabled to create their own opportunities and manage themselves;  
 assist employers in giving their employees recreation activities at workplaces and outside work;  
 help provide leisure education for schools, college and organizations to inculcate leisure skills (physical, social, cultural and intellectual) which can help people particularly young people, to make choices to realize their potential.

In these and other ways, leisure managers and other professionals can help to extend opportunities. The assumptions provide principles on which to force a reorientation towards an enhanced 'people approach' to leisure services. The reorientation stems from the belief that each individual has worth, has a need to express himself, and that society will benefit from citizens who have the ability and resourcefulness not only to cope, but to be creative and find fulfillment in their lives, through leisure.

Leisure time can be, however, a two-edged sword without the opportunity, the means, the motivation and the ability to cope. Along with increase in leisure participation, there has been an increase in anti-social behaviour, particularly in those areas where leisure opportunity is low. Free time has not solved the social problems of boredom, loneliness, and anti-social behaviour. Indeed, free time may have exacerbated those problems. Can leisure management help to solve some of them? Leisure Managers and professionals have a special role to play, that of enabling people to take up the opportunities by effective and sensitive marketing, education, leadership and service delivery.

### 3.4 The Leisure Management Pyramid

To provide effective community leisure and recreation services, it is essential to consider the needs of people, the leisure products designed to meet the needs, and good management to deliver the services. A theoretical framework in the form of a conceptual model illustrates this essential linkage. The assumptions on which the model is based are four-fold:

Leisure can provide satisfying and intrinsically worthwhile activities and experiences.

People have needs and want which Leisure Managers endeavour to meet through leisure programmes and activities.

Management is the process of planning, providing, operating and delivering appropriate services and programmes to match the needs.

Aims and objectives of an organization determine the results to be achieved.

How can these entirely different concepts be merged into effective leisure management? The pyramid model should be visualized as a transparent triangular pyramid, which has three sides, or planes and a base:

1. Leisure Plane
2. Needs of people plane
3. Management Plane
4. Organizational aims: the base of the pyramid.

The pyramid therefore represents the uniting or binding of leisure, people's needs and management. For effectiveness, the three planes must function in accord, though balance points will vary depending on the objectives of the organization, the situation and the prevailing emphasis. For example, service directed at disadvantaged groups will give priority of the needs of people plane.

1. Basic level

At the lower basic level, the Leisure manager would seek to achieve a wide range of choice of activities, general service efficiency and customer service at attractive prices and broad level. Many authorities and organizations measure success only at this point.

2. Secondary level

At the secondary level we could expect to see, in public services, a user profile reflecting broadly the catchment's population and the target markets, which the organization is aiming to attract. At this level, managers would seek to have a balanced programme to meet some of the needs of the different people and groups of like-minded people in the area. Greater emphasis will be given to the encouragement of community initiative, working with groups and organizations.

3. Primary or upper level

At the top level the manager will be concerned with individual client and customer needs, the quality of experience and the encouragement of long-lasting activities that are perceived by the individuals to be personally worthwhile and of importance.

The apex of the pyramid serves to illustrate the goal of leisure management, which is personal self-actualization or self-fulfillment of individual people through leisure opportunity. It thus represents the highest quality of leisure experience that people will want to 'buy' again and again, the satisfactions that can lead to an enhancing of the quality of life. It is to this goal of

quality leisure and recreation that a manager must strive in order to give a service that can truly be called 'excellent leisure management'. However, all levels of service are important. Indeed, the greater number and those in greatest need are one of the priorities.

Why is such a model of any use or relevance? It reminds manager that while they are dealing with leisure in its variety, they are providing for people and meeting organizational objectives. The model also illustrates that every individual is:

Like all people in having the same basic needs (The base level of the pyramid);

Like some other like-minded people in sharing the same interest (the secondary level); and

Like no other person a unique individual at the apex of the pyramid. At the top point of the pyramid there is no room for more than one.

The model allows for maximum flexibility, so that Leisure Managers can vary their responses to be appropriate to given situations. Placing emphasis where needed. Good management needs to be flexible management, but the greater the flexibility, the greater the need for management excellence. Objectives are unlikely to be met without good management. Management is the essential process and delivery mechanism.

#### ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- 1 Play as stated in this unit
  - Activity freely chosen and indulged in for its own sake
2. Five words to describe satisfaction.
  - Self-expression, challenge, novelty, stimulation, joy

#### 4.0 CONCLUSION

It has been shown in this unit that there are certain principles that guide leisure management action before pleasure can be said to be fully derived- such as satisfactions and positive outcomes.

#### 5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have critically examined: core characteristics of play, recreation and leisure and the ways this can affect an individual's life. In the next unit, we shall discuss government, the public sector and leisure.

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Explain what is satisfactions and positive outcome under ‘pleasure principles.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Torkildson, George (2005). *Leisure and Recreation Management*, 5<sup>th</sup>  
Edition pp119 –126

## UNIT 4 GOVERNMENT, THE PUBLIC SECTOR AND LEISURE

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- 2.0 Objectives
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### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

In previous units the concept of leisure has been debated in terms of what it is, what it does and what it can do for individuals and for the community at large. Leisure service and facility managers were encouraged to provide programmes and activities which enable people to find satisfying leisure experiences. Providing satisfactions could achieve two main objectives: first, it could help to meet some of the needs of people, and second, it could help in meeting the business goals of an organization or a department by attracting more satisfied clients and customers. We now move from the conceptual and personal perspectives and start to deal with the leisure industry and the providers.

People's leisure and recreation is made possible through a wide range of providers, through powers and duties invested in government and through natural and man-made resources, services, facilities and management. Provision is needed in and around the home, in the urban environment, in rural areas, in the countryside, on dry land and on water. A range of services and programmes is required to meet the diverse needs and demands of individuals, families, groups clubs, societies, agencies and organizations large and small.

There are many parties involved in the provision of leisure facilities:

- Central government, primarily through its agencies
- Unitary authorities
- Country councils
- District councils
- Parish councils
- Institutions such as schools, colleges and universities
- Private sector companies
- Not-for-profit companies and charitable trusts.
- A substantial number of voluntary organizations and
- National and local pressure groups.

In the past, there was a clear distinction between what was provided by the public, voluntary and commercial sectors, but today there are overlaps with some of the same sorts of facilities and programmes provided by each sectors: health and fitness centers, bars and catering are examples. However, there are still distinct differences between different types of providers in philosophy and approach, though even these are gradually becoming blurred.

There have been huge changes in central and local government administration in the last twenty years. Legislation during much of the 1980s and 1990s had the effect, on the one hand, of tightening councils' budgets, and, on the other hand, bringing flexibility into the ways in which services could be delivered and facilities managed.

The unit is concerned with central government the case of United Kingdom and its agencies and with the powers of local governments and their provision of leisure services and facilities.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading through this unit, you should be able to:

- The responsibilities of the government and the public sector in leisure activities.
- Explain planning in relation to recreation.
- Explain the organizing and development of public recreation services.

### 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

#### 3.1 The scope of Public Leisure Services and Facilities

In the United Kingdom, public services and facilities for leisure can be provided by legislation for the general use of the public. Some facilities are provided by public funds for a restricted use, such as educational establishments, facilities for Her Majesty's Services and restricted forestry areas. While commercial operators have veered towards those facilities and activities that give a good return on their investments, the costs of land and construction have left the local authorities the task of providing more of the land-extensive facilities such as water recreation and parks and more of the expensive buildings such as large public leisure complexes, public swimming pools, athletic tracks, theatres, sports centre and concert halls. Local authorities also provide indirectly through financial and other support, through planning decisions and generally by acting as an 'enabling authority'. Local authority thus plays a major role in the provision of facilities and opportunities for public leisure and recreation. Government agencies, such as New Town Corporation, regional water authorities and national boards, also have major roles in recreation provision. All these bodies have power or duties to assist in or to initiate provision.

The scope of recreation and leisure services within local authorities is very wide. However, there are a number of identifiable elements and spheres of influence; different authorities will have some or all of these elements depending on the location and the size of the authority, its policies and its responsibilities.

Local authorities provide their range of facilities in a variety of ways. The public has access to a large number of facilities, for which no direct payment is made, such as urban parks, playgrounds, libraries, picnic areas, nature trails, beaches and country parks. While the public does not pay directly for these amenities, it does so indirectly through rates and taxes. Local authorities also provide facilities such as swimming pools, playing fields, golf courses, marinas, arts centres, theatres and sports centres, where there is a direct payment by the user, albeit often at highly subsidized charges.

While local authorities often look to voluntary and commercial sectors to provide for social activity and entertainment, they nevertheless do provide for entertainment, both directly and indirectly. They provide directly, for example, through village and community halls; community centres are particularly widespread in new town developments. They also directly provide through the provision of civic halls which are used for entertainment and urban parks with their bandstands and entertainment facilities. Many new leisure centres are also prime venues for public



entertainment, in many cases being the largest public halls in the district. Most sport halls, for example are the avenue for antique and craft fairs, entertainment and large social events.

Despite the emergence of new facilities, such as indoor leisure and recreation centres and country parks, it is the staffing and management of traditional services, which call for the largest part of local authority leisure and recreation services expenditure. When education related services and libraries are included in the comprehensive coverage, then the picture becomes even clearer, with all the new areas of leisure expenditure taking up only a small proportion of the total.

Local authorities are not simply providers of facilities, they support organizations of all kinds (private institutions, voluntary organizations and even commercial bodies), when it is shown that greater service will be given to the public by so doing. The support given is basically of two kinds. The first is to make its own facilities and equipment available for use, with or without charge. The second is to make financial grants.

The local education authorities are usually involved in giving support to youth and community services and organizations, for example, by making schools available for youth and adult classes, and by making capital and annual grants to community associations and other social groups. They may pay the salaries of wardens, leaders, teachers and managers of community centres.

Local authorities have discretionary powers to assist in all manner of ways. For example they can:

- A Assist trust bodies to provide theatres and sport centers
- A Assist sports clubs to provide bowling greens and tennis courts
- A Assist community groups to provide facilities for children's play, community arts or facilities, which help older citizens.
- A Provide considerable support, indirectly, by sponsoring arts, sports, and entertainment festivals and major events, by meeting deficits or by funding community events and activities
- A Giving small services or small grants to organizations to help provide for themselves, which can benefit their community enormously.

### SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention some agencies of the central government that are in charge of entertainment facilities.

## 3.2 Planning and Recreation

The redistribution of local authority funds for recreation based on individual, group and social need could enhance, particularly, recreation opportunity for the disadvantaged in the community.

The local authority planning function is crucial to recreation. As planning authorities, they can assist with the availability of land and resources. As housing authorities, they can assist with leisure in and around the home, in gardens and walkways, in neighbourhood plays areas and play areas associated with high-rise dwellings. Local authorities give (and withhold) planning consent. They make decisions on development proposals and give consent for recreational facilities provided by other agencies. Planning authorities have to consider proposal in the context of overall and long-term policy. To consider leisure and recreation planning only in local terms would not take account of increased mobility, greater affluence and the movement across local authority boundaries. Local authorities are guided by government Planning Policy Guidance Notes (PPGs). PPG 17 applies to sport and recreation.

Countryside and regional facilities are particular areas of vulnerability for poor planning. Urban fringe leisure and recreation is gaining greater importance not only because of higher expectations, but also because of the cost of longer distance travel. Another aspect of movement into recreational areas is holidaymaking, tourism and sightseeing. Since the local government reorganization, many local authorities have taken up their greater powers relating to the enhancement of tourism.

This brief resume is sufficient to show that local authorities are major providers of leisure and recreation opportunities through planning, facilities, services, budgets and support. They have a duty to provide recreation opportunities through education and libraries. They have very wide discretionary powers in England and Wales (unlike those in Scotland and Northern Ireland, which have a duty to provide a wider range of services) to assist the arts, sports, informal recreation, countryside recreation, entertainment, conservation, tourism and youth and community services. In addition to these direct services, local authorities can assist leisure and recreation through many indirect ways, such as planning and housing and through social service that help the disadvantaged, who may need recreation services more than most, but who may make the least demand.

### 3.3 The Origins and Development of Public Recreation Services

The development of public leisure and recreation services can be perceived in historical stages from: A long gestation period from the mid-nineteenth century to the mid-twentieth century.

Post-Second World War initiatives an enlightened period of new ideas in the 1960s local government reorganization of the 1970s with a surge of new facilities and government interventions of the 1980s and 1990s in the shape of new legislations including Compulsory Competitive Tendering, Education Reform, the Children Act, and modernization introducing the concept of Best Value.

Leisure, like all other services, is subject to the laws of the land; comprehensive leisure or recreation is made possible and is guided and constrained by a whole variety of Acts, laws, statutes, government circulars and reports, and regulations. Acts of Parliament impose duties or confer authority or powers to provide for recreation. Acts cover such diverse areas as allotments, swimming pools, parks, waterways, catering, clubs and associations, betting and gaming, public entertainment, libraries, licensing, countryside preservation, employment, institutions, charities and companies.

What is immediately evident in studying public provision for recreation is that it is historical, traditional, institutional and facility orientated. Progress is made within and through the system; changes, normally, will come about slowly. Despite the surge of new facilities in the 1960s and 1970s the bulk of local government expenditure on recreation is still reserved for parks, pitches and pools, which is clearly a result of what is known, what exist, what is traditional and what local government is geared up to handle. So, how did it all start?

### 3.4 Dual Use and Joint Provision and Recreation

The 1960s and 1970s witnessed not only the advent of new purpose-built facilities and the restructuring of local government administration, but also the recognition that thousands of schools and education facilities were potential community leisure and recreation centres. The Department of Education and Science and the Ministry of Housing and Local Government advanced a new policy guideline:

In assessing local needs and the resources to match them, it is appropriate to consider how far facilities for sport and physical education already provided or in the course of provision at schools and other educational establishments can be shared with other users or can be economically expanded to meet those needs. Consultation with other authorities will be necessary, not only because facilities in one area may serve neighbouring

area; but also there will normally be more than one authority with powers to provide them.

### 3.5 Local Government Reorganization in 1974 and its Effect on Recreation

A Royal Commission under Lord Redcliffe-Maud was established in 1966 to consider the structure of local government in England, outside Greater London (Redcliffe-Maud, 1969). The commission proposed that the greater part of England should be divided into 58 unitary authorities. Public recreation to the unitary concept was, in general, unfavourable and three of the four local authority associations preferred a two-tier system. A government White Paper in 1970 (DoE, 1970) proposed a new structure based on 51 unitary areas and 5 metropolitan areas. In 1971 the new Conservative government's alternative proposals emerged with a compromise solution of a two-tier structure and a radical reorganization of boroughs and urban and rural districts; the Local Government Act, 1972 gave effect to the proposals contained in the 1971 White paper. In 1974, six new metropolitan county councils were established and the 1,400 existing district councils were reduced to 333. As far as recreation services were concerned, the greatest impact was felt in the 296 non metropolitan district councils. These councils were now larger and more powerful and had, in many cases, inherited a range of facilities. Reorganization also encouraged the creation of new facilities particularly indoor leisure centres.

Prior to the local government reorganization in 1974, most local authorities were structured on the basis of a number of departments operating under the control of committees. The committees competed for their share of the available financial resources. The Bains Report (SGLAMS, 1972) placed emphasis on the corporate approach to management. It was felt that, in this way, an authority could formulate more realistically its long-term objectives covering all services, and make forward planning projections. The Local Government Act, 1972 and the Local Government (Miscellaneous Provision) Act, 1976 provided the framework for local authorities with respect to the provision and administration of facilities for sport and recreation with emergency of leisure and recreation services in their own right. The central government placed a duty on local authorities (in England and Wales) to provide in only three specific areas: library services, youth and adult education facilities and allotments, but in each case, no indications of the scale of provisions were given. Yet, in Scotland and Northern Ireland, local authorities had a duty to make provisions in areas of sport and recreation.

### 3.6 Recent Legislation and Effects on Leisure Management

The central government, as indicated earlier in this unit, had the most powerful effect on public leisure service. New Acts of Parliament in the late 1980s included:

- A Compulsory competitive legislation
- A Education Reform and
- A The Children Act.

### 3.6.1 Compulsory Competitive Tendering

The Local Government Housing and Finance Act, 1988, containing provision for the uniform business rate and Compulsory Competitive Tendering (CCT), had the most dramatic effects on the management of local government. The Local Government Act, 1988 (competition in Sport and Leisure Facilities Order 1989) imposed upon local authorities the necessity to offer the management of their sports and leisure facilities to competitive tendering; there were certain exceptions, such as dual use centre, which combine education and public recreation provision. This was compulsory but not outright privatization; local authorities still had control over aspects such as pricing, programming and opening hours. CCT resulted in economic savings and improved financial performance by local authority Direct Service Organizations (DSOs) and generally satisfactory result from management contract companies, non-profit distributing organizations (NPDOs), leisure trusts, management buy outs and other management hybrids. The results of CCT indicated improved efficiency, but were the services more effective? Did they meet the needs and expectations of the people they are there to serve? Some leisure academics and professionals did not believe so. However, what is beyond doubt is that local authority leisure services had changed forever.

Many processes and procedures of CCT survive and are of relevance today. Transfer of Undertakings Protection of Employment (TUPE) is one example. European procurement rules require all prospective contractors to be treated equally and are implemented in British law by secondary legislation which sets down transparent criteria for selecting tenderers and awarding contracts. These regulations and guidance also deal with the Transfer of undertakings (Protection of Employment) Regulations, 1981 (TUPE) and the European Union Acquired Rights Directive. In a sense, a contractor was 'taking over' a business and much uncertainty existed as to what constitutes a 'transfer' of undertaking. The 1988 Act introduced the concept of anti-competitive behaviour; the 1992 Act helped to define it in law and the 1993 Regulations assisted local authorities in conducting competitive tendering and avoiding anti-competitive behaviour. The thrust of the rules was to ensure that no anti-competitive practice entered into the process. The DoE circular, Guidance on the Conduct of Compulsory

Competitive Tendering (DoE, 1996) focused on five key principles of good tendering practice.

#### 1. Transparency

Authorities should require the same standards of performance from a successful in-house team as from an external contractor.

#### 2. Removing obstacles for good market response

Authorities needed to demonstrate that a reasonable range of prospective tenderers had been considered.

#### 3. Focusing on outputs

Authorities should specify the output to be achieved, rather than the way the service was to be performed.

#### 4. Evaluating quality and price

Authorities should adopt clear procedures for evaluating tenders to ensure that the quality being sought could be achieved.

#### 5. Fairness between in-house and external bids

Authorities must act fairly to ensure that tendering did not put any provider at a disadvantage.

### 3.7 The Education Reform Act and Recreation

The leisure and recreation resources to be found in educational institutions in the United Kingdom make up the largest number of built facilities available to the public. Indeed, half of the newly-built leisure complexes of the past three decades are linked in some way with education. Moreover, schools are often the birthplace of our feelings about music, art, crafts and sport, some of young people's future potential leisure time interest. In the United Kingdom, relatively few young people play a musical instrument, draw and paint for pleasure, and although more play a sport, a significant proportion takes little exercise outside school. Anything that affects the provision and management of education, therefore, affects the scope and delivery of leisure and recreation to the community.

Major Education Acts have each had substantial effects, not only on schools, but on leisure community education in its widest sense. The Education Act of 1918 and 1944 arising out of World wars and looking to new horizons and better deals for all citizens, helped develop community

sport and recreation. The Education Acts of 1986 and 1988 likewise made changes of substance. In common with apparent Conservative government policy, the Education Acts aimed to make the education service 'more responsive to consumer needs' devolve responsibility to local levels and reduce bureaucracy.

While many schools currently have good community of premises, the 1986 Act encourages greater use. The 'market force' approach, however, poses problems, which restrict coordinated policy, resulting in different arrangements and standards from district to district, and from school to school. A policy agreed and understood between district schools and district leisure departments can do much to assist local organizations and clubs. One of 'wheeling and dealing' may make for an individual school winning out in the market place, but is likely to be a short-term measure, lacking continuity and making it difficult to inculcate and integrate, comprehensive approach to the management of community recreation.

In terms of leisure and recreation management, the impact of the 1988 Act is felt under two main headings: the National Curriculum and Local Management of Schools (LMS). In addition, there are further, far-reaching implications, including:

- The option for schools to 'opt out' and become a grant maintained school (GMS)
- 'Open enrolment'
- Devolved budgets
- Performance indicators such as examination results
- School governing bodies with greater powers and
- Legislation on charging for school activities

Some schools have become far more 'commercial' in their approach, seeking to maximize income from community leisure uses and limit cost. Adding to the difficulties, activities requiring travel-fields visits, outdoor pursuits, sport centres, theatres have been restricted. Schools are prohibited from charging children for activities which take place off the school site, during the school day. Those with inadequate resources and staff, which have been making use of the local swimming pool, sports centre and theatre now have to convince the Borough or Country Council of the need and, therefore, gain a subsidy, or else pay for the facilities out of their allocated budgets. In a climate of limited budgets, the activity is often cut out of the programme. Business obligations call for a pragmatic, cost-centred, market approach. If school governors are to fund use of community sports halls, swimming pools, and outdoor pursuit centres, visit to museums and so on from their delegated budgets, then it is likely that activities beneficial to pupils will be excluded on purely financial grounds. It is hard for school governors and head teachers to balance curriculum requirements against

financial requirements. Education continues to face change with new regulations emerging almost year-by-year.

Most people will agree that children and young people need a balanced education: mental, spiritual, physical and social – in order to become balanced, positive citizens. But as teachers are required to address certain curriculum and attainment issues, less time is available for extra-curricular activities. It is these activities which shape the leisure and recreation skills and interest of children and young people now and for the future. Healthy children and young people, who have social skills and skills for leisure have a better chance of enjoying fulfilling lives, compared to young people without skills and interest. Inactive children, for example are likely to become inactive adults. Therefore, the Leisure Manager in a local authority now has an even more important role to play in positive links with school both during school time and after school.

### SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention three implications of the Education reform Act and recreation.

### 3.8 School and Community Funded Facilities

It makes sound educational, social and economic sense to provide for the community within existing community structures, whether in community schools or in dual use or jointly-provided facilities. There can be benefits for all parties, but only given appropriate policies, facilities and management. Providing for leisure in these ways needs careful investigation and planning. One of the problems, for example with these facility collaborations is the extent to which the facilities are ‘school’ facilities or community facilities. Who owns and has management responsibility for sports halls, swimming pools, ice rinks and theatres on school campuses, when these have been partly or wholly paid for by district councils? There is distinction between what is termed ‘dual use, joint provision and community school.

Where these facilities have been provided solely under local education authority powers, they form part of the school and the governing body is empowered to control such use and is responsible for financial inputs and outcomes. Under the Act, community use must not be subsidized from the delegated budget, which can only be used for school purpose and curricular activities. Such community has to be seen to be self financed.

#### Joint provision



Joint provision, as distinct from dual use, is where the facility, whilst forming part of, or adjacent to, the school and used by the students, has been provided to standards appropriate for general public use and has been part-financed from other agencies. Under the legislation, the opportunity exists to allow these other agencies to become involved in the day-to-day running of the facilities. The facility may be totally managed and maintained by another department of the local authority, as when a sports hall is managed by the recreation department. The school pays the recreation department for its use of the facility during schools hours, and the government body will not have management control over the facility. If the school manages and maintains the premises, the governing body will have the power to control its use by the community.

### The Community School

The Community School is a school which engages in non school activities and in which the governing body has control as well as the responsibility for those members of staff who are wholly or partly engaged in non-school activities.

Leisure services departments and Leisure Managers can play an important role in achieving the best from the new legislation. For example they can:

1. provide an advisory service to school governing bodies and/or informally provide help and advice on community recreation, sharing with schools ideas and systems.
2. achieve levels of parity, for example in pricing between different agencies
3. provide joint programmes and/or collaborative programming
4. offer to manage the non-educational use on a contract basis
5. organize courses for leaders and coaches; and courses for those teachers responsible for facility operation.
6. in collaboration with the LEA, Sport Council, Arts Council and the local authority, appoint Development Officers to work with schools.
7. promote links between school and clubs
8. provide collaborative promotion, awareness and publicity of the facilities and activities offered at the school.
9. advise on applications to the National Lottery, grant-making bodies and sponsors.
10. include the school resources in district cultural strategies and local leisure plan.

### 3.9 The Children Act and Leisure Services

The Children Act, 1989 came into force on 14 October, 1991. It is the most significant legislative change on behalf of children in a hundred years. The Act can be perceived as a unifying Act, replacing in part of whole 55 other Acts of Parliament, one going back a hundred years. How does this new Act affect the management of leisure, play and recreation? Leisure Managers will be involved as:

- providers of services for children
- providers of facilities
- employers of paid staff and volunteers
- providers of information and
- a body of expertise.

Leisure Managers, therefore, have to work with other departments, particularly Social Services and take a co-ordinated viewpoint. The Children Act contain regulations, duties and powers that affect everyone who is responsible for planning, managing and delivering services to children, particularly to children under the age of eight. The clear direction and commitment behind the legislation is to put children at the heart and give priority to their needs in all those processes which affect their lives. Of greatest significance is that a duty is placed on all people and organizations involved with young children and for all children 'in need', under the term of the Act. The Act lays down for duties:

- To provide services
- To publish information
- To review and
- To register

The key principle of the Children Act include the recognition of the child as having an important place in the community, and the right of the child to be cared for in the context of the family. The Act directs local authorities to consider preventive services and calls for the provision of a range of day care facilities, which must be provided for children in need, but may also be provided for all children. The Act therefore, encompasses a number of wider issues, which apply to the public, voluntary and commercial sectors.

1. the needs of different age groups, not just those up to the age of eight.
2. the needs of all children, including those with disabilities, and those from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds.
3. adequate procedures between tiers of local government and different departments and
4. clearly defined standards of good practice so that children have a good, safe and creative experience.

For the first time in the sphere of play and recreation, the local authority has a statutory duty to provide. The main implications are that local governments should positively plan for children rather than taking a narrow departmental and traditional perspective. One of the practical outcomes of the Act is the requirement for registration. Any person or organization providing services for children under eight years old, whether in public voluntary or commercial sectors, must register, if those services are provided for more than two hours a day. (The temptation is for some services to last just one hour an fifty minutes). The process takes into account four main factors:

1. the body or organization applying for registration
2. the people who are being proposed to look after children under eight- paid or voluntary – are ‘fit’ that is suitable to do this work.
3. premises the local authority will need to satisfy itself as to the ‘fitness’ (suitability and physical condition) of the premises.
4. inspection: local authorities have a statutory duty to inspect premises.

The Children Act itself, unfortunately, does not mention play, recreation and leisure as such, which is major difficulty in understanding the Act. Guidance notes to the Act, however, give an indication of where play and recreation play a part. The Act, by implication, does affect leisure and recreation providers in all sectors. Those facilities affected by the Children Act include:

- A Crèches: playgroups; child-minding services
- A Before and after school clubs
- A Play schemes; outdoors and indoors
- A Activities in leisure centres: main-gymnastics, ballet, trampolining, football and swimming classes.
- A Activities in museums, art galleries
- A Adventure playgrounds
- A Commercial play centres
- A City farms
- A Theme parks
- A Play spaces in shopping malls and supermarkets
- A Holiday schemes in libraries, theatres and sport centres.

These ‘persons’ (people and organizations) need to be reviewed, inspected and registered. In many cases, staffing, volunteers, programmes, equipment and facilities will need increase or improvement.

One major concern in recent times in the wake of the Children Act is that of child protection. This has implications for all leisure and recreation services whether in the public, private or voluntary sectors. For those involved in sport clubs, for example, there is, however, increasing concern at the level of bureaucracy, it entails for all voluntary leaders and helpers, such as vetting by the police. In researching this matter in consultation with club volunteers in 2004, a former colleague wrote to me:

My cricket and football clubs are now required by the governing bodies to appoint Child Protection Officers and to have Child Protection Policies in place. Similarly, local authorities are required to have detailed policies in place and to undertake staff training awareness, Coaches and volunteers have to be vetted and police checked. As ever, this is a fundamentally sound process, but one which has had some hysterical by-products. At many leisure centres, simply walking in with a camera will have the staff jumping on you and innocent photography of say, a school swimming gala is now banned in case you put the photos on the internet. There are often lengthy delays in checking and vetting and some people simply refuse to get involved because of the hassle.

In June 2003, the government created a new Minister for Children within the DFES, responsible for:

- A The Sure Star Unit
- A The Children and Young People's Unit and
- A The Connexions Services National Unit

In Wales, the Assembly Government has a Minister for Education and Young People. There has been a Minister for Education and Young within the Scottish Executive since November 2001.

The Green Paper *Every Child Matters* (see useful website) was published in September 2003 to protect children from neglect and harm, promote their well being and support all children to develop their potential. *Every Child Matters* was published alongside *Keeping Children Safe*, a detailed response to the recommendations made in the Victoria Climbié inquiry report. In March 2004, the DFES published *Every Child Matters: The Next Steps* and a young people version *Every Child Matters: What You Said*

The Legislation in relation to these matters is contained within the Children Bill which received royal assent in November 2004 (see Useful website). Under the Bill local authorities, police and social services are obliged to work together to ensure child welfare. The Bill ensures that there will be a

record of every child's involvement with social services or trouble with the police.

### 3.10 The Government and Leisure into the Present

The years leading up to the turn of the century saw acceptance by government not only of the benefits of leisure for people and communities, but also for the economy. For the first time leisure was given a place in the Cabinet, with a Minister of State and department, at first called the Department of National Heritage (DNH), then the Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS). Along with the creation of the National Lottery, these were significant landmarks for leisure and recreation at the close of the twentieth century.

#### ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. Agencies of the central government
  - Town corporation
  - Regional water authorities
  - National Boards
- 2 3 Implications of education reform
  - The option for schools to opt out and become a grant maintained school
  - Open enrolment
  - Devolved budgets

### 4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has highlighted the roles of the government and the public sectors in the provision of leisure services and facilities.

### 5.0 SUMMARY

The unit has examined in detail the scope of public leisure services and facilities; planning and recreation, the origin and development of public recreation services, dual use and joint provision and recreation etc. In the next unit, we shall discuss leisure provision in the voluntary sector.

### 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Mention four different ways by which the local authorities have the power to assist in the provision of leisure services.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Tokildsen, George (2005). *Leisure and Recreation Management*, 5<sup>th</sup> Edition  
pp129-145.

## MODULE 3

Unit 1	Leisure Provision in the Voluntary Sector
Unit 2	Leisure Provision in the Commercial Sector

## UNIT 1 LEISURE PROVISION IN THE VOLUNTARY SECTOR

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### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

The voluntary sector can be viewed from two different angles. From one perspective the sector is a body of volunteer people doing unpaid work in their own leisure time. Using their energy, skill and often their money because it gives satisfaction and because they want to. In this sense, voluntary-giving service to other-can be seen as a leisure activity in itself, particularly in the light of some leisure philosophers and sociologists. Leisure, according to Kaplan (1975) provides opportunities for recreation, personal growth and service to others. Godbey (1994) perceives leisure as intuitively worthwhile and provides a basis for 'faith'. A great deal of volunteering, whether in caring for the need, protecting the environment or teaching and coaching others, is motivated in large measure by doing these things for love and not for money; that they are worthwhile is self evident with the benefits accruing to individuals and the community.

Another perspective of the voluntary sector is that of not-for-profit providers', collection of societies, charities, associations, organizations and clubs of many kinds and in many fields with leisure and recreation a significant concern. Hence, the voluntary leisure providers can be seen as

organizations providing services with paid and unpaid staff and vast number of volunteers.

The term 'social capital' as being used of late by government and agencies conveys investing in each other and the community. Social capital is associated with community spirit and cohesion, citizenship neighbourliness, trust and shared values. As such community involvement and volunteering in leisure and recreation play significant roles.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVE

At the end of this unit you should be able to:

Discuss the role of the voluntary sector in leisure provision

## 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

### 3.1 Voluntary Organization in Historical Context

Voluntary recreation and leisure groups have existed for centuries. The coffee-house was for gentlemen of leisure a social group that was nearly a club-house. Coffee- house in cities such as London and Bath were in theory open but often developed by club for specified group with restricted membership. Today in the United Kingdom we still find that many private and institutional bodies and voluntary organizations confine the use of their facilities to certain group of people.

In early- industrial Britain, recreation was often a communal affairs based in seasons, festival and commemorative events. The sport dances, processions and ceremonies were within the context of the whole community as they were unsophisticated societies as we have today. It was the rationalization of work that led to a separate and identifiable sphere of social life (Thompson, 1967). Unions, factories and schools established their own football clubs; YMCAs and Sunday movement created club for recreation. Most national governing bodies for sport were also formed from the creation of interest group of like-minded people such as the MCC (Marylebone Cricket Club), the founders of the game of cricket as it is played today.

Club features in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries as important organization in the recreative and social life of the community. The great expansion of clubs took place in the last quarters of the nineteenth century but this was not a long-term trend. Working men's clubs developed through several stages from the last quarters of the nineteenth century. The most significant development was the move towards professionally based



entertainment. The switch produced a change in the membership participation from producer to consumer patterns.

Many voluntary movements and associations arose out of the Great Depression as responses to social injustice. For example the National Association of Women's Clubs arose in that way. Many were pre- and post-Second World War outlets for wives of unemployed men, and for unemployed women themselves.

Today, voluntary organizations generally are as strong as ever, though some traditional movements, for example, young people's church groups, have witnessed a decline in numbers. Scouting and Guiding remain popular. There are more than 28 million Scouts, youth and adults, boys and girls, in 216 countries and territories. Some examples of voluntary organizations in Nigeria are: The Boys Scout, the Girls Guides, the Red Cross, Lions Club, Rotary Clubs, Zontal International, etc.

Historically then, voluntary organizations have had a long and significant influence on the foundations of today's leisure and recreation. Moreover work in the voluntary sector, particularly in the community sector is ever increasing.

Today, voluntary organizations are as important as ever-internationally, nationally and locally. What then are the reasons for volunteering and what role do the individuals and groups have to play?

### SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention four voluntary organizations you know

### 3.2 The Nature of Volunteers and Voluntary Groups

People go to extraordinary lengths and exhibit wide variations of behaviour in expressing their individual and collective needs in their leisure. There are religious, community and welfare groups, men's, women's, old people's and young people's groups, advisory and counseling groups, Para-medical and military groups. Some people join clubs and associations that are cultural or educational. Some join acting, ballroom, and jazz. Line dancing, keep fit, slimming, singing, operatic or pop groups; large numbers play sport in groups, sail the seas with yachting clubs and climb with mountaineering groups. Many leisure groups identify themselves by wearing badges or special clothing like tracksuits and T. shirts, others have a uniform to create an alternative identity: a leisure identity. Some uniforms identity a way of living, for example, that of members of the Salvation Army, who in their own leisure time give help to the needy.

Is volunteering all about good neighbourliness, giving ourselves for the good of the community? Although they like to think they are, volunteers often gain something for themselves. Consider volunteers on committees of governing bodies or local government councilors wielding power, or coaches (particularly parents) looking for glory from the achievement of their team and think of the status conferred upon presidents and chairmen and women in clubs and societies. Volunteering is undertaken with different motives and in pursuit of different purposes. Stanley Parker (1997) identifies four types of volunteer, each sharing certain elements with one or more of the others:

Altruistic volunteering as giving of time and effort unselfishly to help others

Market volunteering as giving something 'freely' but expecting (later) something in return.

Cause serving volunteering as promoting a cause in which one believes and

Leisure volunteering as 'primarily' seeking leisure experience.

I say 'primarily' because motives are often mixed. Who said a particular act of apparently altruistic volunteering does not also provide a leisure experience for the volunteers? Some leisure activities enable people to feel they are doing something worthwhile and serving a cause, while at the same time enjoying themselves. *Parker, 1997*

Motives are seldom pure, as Parker muses. 'Perhaps there is sometimes an element of self-delusion, as when giving something apparently without thought of return, but secretly expecting some *quid pro quo*.

In volunteering, people want to retain their own individually, yet many want to belong to groups. A good deal of volunteering, therefore, encompasses elements of 'leisure' doing something we like to do, accomplishing something. By and large in volunteering we feel we are contributing, for example, in community action, civic responsibility or environmental concern. In the arts and sports, we experience the satisfaction of bringing out the talents of other people, enabling the band or choir perform at the music festival, to coach the sports team to success. Volunteers tend to give their service in the field of 'organized' leisure, as distinct from 'casual leisure. Robert Stebbins (1996) identifies ongoing involvement with a voluntary organization as serious leisure. Others label it as 'formal volunteering' and 'constructive leisure; the presence of a serious orientation to leisure. Since many volunteer roles offer special serious leisure, falling between work and casual leisure.

The work of volunteers in society and citizen participation is undergoing change. Susan Aral (197) believes that empowerment theory can help in understanding this change. She deplores the relationship between empowerment, volunteering and serious leisure, it can have both desirable benefits and undesirable elements such as tensions and power relationships at both a personal level and a community level. Among the benefits community volunteers described were:

- Opportunities for shared learning
- Opportunities to contribute to community
- Development of camaraderie, feeling connected to community and
- Enhancement of individual knowledge about the community.

Thus, volunteering is connected not only to psychological empowerment, self-conception, self efficacy, locus of control but also to social empowerment (increased access to information, knowledge, skills and resources, increased social connectional and political empowerment (access to decision-making processes, power of voice and collective action).

Cnaan, Handy and Wadsworth (1996) considered four key dimensions and categories in defining the volunteer. Jarvis and King (1997) point to the traditional meaning of volunteering, which is composed of three elements:

- The gift of time
- The element of the choice and
- The lack of payment.

Although this definition is undermined by the spread of paid volunteer schemes in recent years, the core premise remains that volunteering involves spending time, unpaid, doing something, which benefits others.

General Household Surveys have shown that, generally, women are more likely to volunteer than men, particularly in training or collecting money personally, and marginally more in organizing or helping a group or serving on committees. Yet with more women now in full-or part-time work, in addition to looking after homes and families, volunteer commitment may be eroding. For certain kinds of voluntary groups, particularly women's organizations, membership levels have been in decline as reported in Social Trends 2003. Writing on the experience in America. Tedrick and Henderson (1989) in volunteers in leisure considered the role of women:

A problem concerning volunteerism, as a feminist issue will continue to arise as long as society devalues the workwomen and as long as value is measured in society in economic terms. On the other hand, the contributions made by women to society through voluntary efforts are

becoming more widely acknowledged. In addition, volunteer opportunities have provided a way for women to enrich their lives and to learn skills that can be directly transferred into paying jobs. The conception of volunteers being white, middle-class do-gooders has also changed greatly. Today, people of all races, classes, sexes and ages are volunteering. Many volunteer agencies have been concerned about the number of women returning to the paid workforce and how this has affected the volunteer ranks. While more women do work today, some still find the time to volunteer.

Jarvis and King's study of the Guide and Scout Association in Sheffield reports that there appears to be a general disillusionment among volunteers. In this regards, the loyalty of leaders is a strength of the Association, and the degree to which they are involved in 'serious leisure' commitment appears higher than in other voluntary organizations. However, the fact that a few people do every thing has implications for the recruitment and retention of volunteers. Leaders complained there were not enough people to volunteer. Those who might volunteer may be put off by the image projected by this apparent super-human. In some case, current and potential volunteers believe that an open-ended commitment is expected from them, which clashes with family and job responsibilities. Most of us have been in the position where we have felt obliged to join and can be found in almost all branches of leisure activity and organizations. However, Stebbins warns that too much coercion can at times 'obliterate' for some people the leisure and volunteer components that other people find there. In other words, if we have to do something, it is not leisure.

### 3.3 Voluntary Groups: Differences and Similarities

At first glance, each club appears to be decidedly from another. A ladies 'datts club meeting in the local pub, for example, might appear very dissimilar to the ladies choral society meeting in the 'church hall. Hutsson has shown, however, that there are many basic similarities between all forms of clubs and voluntary associations there are similarities in patterns of activity and the ways in which clubs develop and decline. Voluntary associations tend to reflect 'the economic and social milieu' and tend to be dominated by a group of people of similar type. This leads to a proliferation of many small groups. Like-minded people tend to gather together and form associations. Recruitment is normally along lines of friendship or kinship. Most clubs are social clubs, whether the primary activity is social or not. People who are felt 'not to belong' to the predominant group are often kept out through formal procedures. In the studies by Hutsson, there were often internal political pressures and several examples of cliques leaving a club as another clique took over. These may be some of the reasons why

newcomers, if they are in any numbers, tend more socially mixed, and some associations claimed to draw members from all social categories, but most clubs did not.

Study of the differences and similarities of clubs and associations reveals important factors for the Leisure Managers to consider.

All the clubs tend to be, at least partially, exclusive. Many clubs theoretically open to all in principle; have been able to 'guarantee' their exclusiveness with high enrolment fees or membership systems, requiring sponsors and seconders.

Clubs are not static, but changing, organizations. The Wolfenden Committee was formed to meet newly discerned needs, others die. Yet others change their emphasis or venture into fresh fields... There is nothing static about the scene. The Leisure Manager should bear in mind therefore that new clubs, in particular, are likely to change in membership and will have different leadership patterns within the first few years. Such clubs may initially need shorter-term, bookings of facilities and flexible and supporting managers' roles.

Clubs display similarities in behaviour: they are social groupings. Sports clubs may be somewhat less exclusive than some other clubs, but just like other leisure groupings, sports generate separate groups and activities for different social categories. Clubs are often dependent on support services. Local authorities, commercial bodies and institutions can help by providing support services and premises. The local authority's enabling role plays an important part in this respect.

### 3.4 The Role of Local Authorities and Charities

Local authorities may be involved in work of charities in a number of ways.

- Trusteeship.
- Land and property
- Rates/grants
- Fundraising and
- Changes to charities

In some local authorities can be trustees as holders of properties for the benefit of the people. It is to serve. In some cases, the governing instrument of a charity may give a local authority power to appoint or nominate some, or indeed most, of the trustees of the charity.

A good deal of land used for recreation is owned by charities. In some cases, such as rural parishes, the property can be transferred to the parish or

community council or an alternative group, provided the Charity Commissioners and councils consent. Where a local authority has given money, goods or services to say, a charitable recreational space and preserving amenities such as playing fields, the National Playing Fields Association provides advice and assistance to local authorities and can also act as custodian.

The permission of a local authority may be needed for fundraising. A good deal of legislation, strengthened by the Charities Act, 1992, exists concerning a wide number of activities carried out by charities. These include house-to-house collections, street collections, competitions and gaming and lotteries, including bingo, tombola and 'race nights'. A license is needed, not just for house collections, but to go collecting in pubs, factories and offices and to sell things on behalf of a charity. Most local authorities also have regulations for street selling on behalf of charity.

Clearly it is important for charities and local authorities to work together. Both have a legal power to coordinate their activities in the interest of the people who benefit from their services, bringing benefits to both charity and local authority. For the local authority, benefits can be:

- Direct and indirect cost savings
- Less use of central resources

1. Opportunity to promote a successful recreation facility and safeguard community provision

However, local authorities need to tread carefully in the role they can play in charitable work and particularly with companies. For example, forming a trust involving local authorities is limited by regulations relating to companies influenced by local authorities. The Department of the Environment Consultation Paper. Local Authorities Interests in Companies and the Local Government and Housing Act, 1989, provides a statutory framework to govern local authorities' interests in companies. The government considered that it was an anomaly that local authorities had influence or control of companies outside the rules governing the conduct of local authority business. Three types of companies were identified.

2. Local authority controlled companies

These form part of the public sector and their expenditure must, therefore, be treated, for the purposes of controlling public expenditure, as part of the public sector.

Arm's length companies: These companies have directors whose status protects them from undue influence, the relationship between the authority

and company is clearly regulated to avoid deficit funding and the company is in competition with a market.

### 3. Local authority influenced companies

Action was deemed to be necessary to control companies over which a local authority has a dominant influence, either in 'personnel relationships' or 'financial relationship'. For example, a local authority is only permitted to have up to 20 per cent of places on a board of directors held by council members or officers.

In setting up a charitable recreation trust, key aspects have to be considered and satisfied.

The Charity Commissioners have to be convinced of the need for and the bonafides of the organization and its 'governing document'.

The Inland Revenue needs to be persuaded that tax exemptions are justified.

The Acts governing companies need to be adhered to.

The Acts governing local authorities and their influence on companies need to be satisfied to show that no undue subsidies or benefits accrue to companies.

### 3.5 Industrial and Company Recreation Provision

Industries and companies, by and large provide private facilities, ostensibly not for commercial gain, but for the workforce as private individuals. It is conceded at the outset that a happy workforce may achieve greater efficiency and output and thereby greater profit, but in terms of management, company leisure provision is more akin to the private members club than to commercial enterprise because its *raison d'être* is for employee recreation, not for financial profit.

The development of the industrial sports and social club in the latter part of the nineteenth century has often been attributed to the philanthropic motives of benevolent and paternalistic employers, influenced by religious and humanitarian ideals. However, underlying this, more practically orientated motives may have been at work, and certainly the development of industrial recreation into the twentieth century is unlikely to be attributable solely to the altruistic behaviour of the employer.

A number of factors have been put forward as being influential in our motivating the decision by an employer to contribute capital and recurrent expenditure towards leisure provision. These include:

Philanthropy  
Fitness for work  
Reduction in staff turnover  
Company image, company prestige and  
Employee pressure

The provision of company services and facilities is likely to have been influenced by a combination of these and other specific factors, not all of which will have been relevant at any one time. Roles are likely to differ from organization to organization. With exceptions, however most programme revolves around the traditional games and social activities, particularly with low-cost bar and catering facilities, often to far higher standards than provided in the public sector and more akin to the private members clubs.

### SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Mention three ways in which local authorities may be involved in the work of charity.

### 3.6 Joint Provision Involving Industry

Earlier, it was suggested that there was limited use of company premises by the community. Facilities provided between companies and local authorities are rarer still. Yet this was being advocated over 80 years ago. Joint provision of recreation facilities by industry and local authorities for use by both employees and the community was advocated by B. Seebohm Rowntree, in 1921, when in *The Human Factor in Business* he wrote:

That adequate opportunity for wholesome recreation is desirable for all workers, especially in view of the shortening of the working week will not be disputed. The question is whether an employer has any responsibility in connection with the matter. I think the right answer is that if many of his workers live near the factory he should satisfy himself that adequate recreational facilities exist for them or by his influence and possibly also his financial help, he may assist communal effort to provide such facilities for the community as a whole. Strong voluntary committees or local councils are seeking to provide fields, clubs and similar amenities for the general public. It is certainly a disadvantage if large employers refuse to co-operate in the public effort because they are concerned merely with their own employees.



This view was endorsed in The Pilkington Report (SCSG, 1968). The Study Group was firmly of the opinion that, in the logical development of sociological planning, following all the improvements in the overall standard of living it is no longer the function of private or public industry to provide recreational facilities for the exclusive use of their own work people but that they might well combine their resources with those of the local authorities in order to provide facilities which could be used and enjoyed by all. There have been a few successful collaborative projects-though too few to mention, with exceptions such as the Sedgwick Clubs in London. One is left to ponder whether companies could apply the same drive and imagination in discharging responsibilities to employees and the community, as they do in meeting responsibilities to shareholders. If so there could be a brighter future, but all the signs show a move away from the traditional company sports and social provision and use their premises by outside players and teams.

Philanthropy, a major early influence on the development of individual sports and social clubs, is no longer a common motive for provision of employee facilities. Economic realism has become the hallmark and corporate fitness concepts are slowly infiltrating into the boardrooms of the larger British Companies. The arguments are strong: the economic benefits can be substantial and company image and prestige be enhanced at no major cost.

#### Answers To Self Assessment Exercise

1. Voluntary organization
  - Young Peoples church group, Scouting, Guiding, and Red Cross
2. Involvement of local authorities
  - Trusteeship, land and property, rates grants

#### 4.0 CONCLUSION

The most successful societies are those that harness the energy of voluntary action giving due recognition to the third sector of voluntary and community organizations' Voluntary organizations are increasingly becoming providers of services that are vital to a wide range of groups in society. While there are benefits in this trend, should the voluntary sector be providing essential services, which have usually been encompassed with the public sector?

Leisure trusts enjoy tax and rate benefits. An increasing number of 'trusts', however, are not voluntary sector not-for-profit organizations, rather leisure management contractors sailing under flags of convenience. Some of these

organizations win contracts a long way from their home base and, it can be argued, stretch their original objectives beyond limits. Part of their competitive edge comes from financial factors such as rate relief that are not available to commercial operators.

The management of leisure organization, services, clubs and special events usually requires volunteers. With professional staff, rewards come in the form of money and recognition: with volunteers, money is not a factor. Public and peer approval and recognition are therefore fundamental.

Competent volunteers are often difficult to recruit and keep. Increasingly, leisure and sports clubs rely on loyal, long-serving, older volunteers. The trend if continued will result in still fewer volunteers and clubs.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

Voluntary organizations give people both the chance to participate and the opportunity to become involved in all levels of organization and management. They also give the opportunity to serve. In terms of community recreations in its widest sense, managers must be aware that the voluntary sector, more than other sectors, holds many of the keys to individual self-fulfillment, one of the main goals of effective leisure and recreation management. It is important, therefore, for Leisure Managers to understand something of what it means to be a volunteer.

Projects are often well-managed where authority lies in a small, strong, high caliber, independent committee with wide terms of reference and complete control of day-to-day management. This may be easier to achieve in a recreation trust. However, it is important that the committee is independent, has strong powers and is not constantly blown off course by undue political pressure.

Industrial companies provide a large share of the nation's sport facilities. They offer considerable perks to employees and their families and contribute to company cohesion. If these facilities could be more widely available, they would contribute greatly to community recreation. Companies possessing sport facilities with spare capacity have a ready-made opportunity to demonstrate their goodwill.

A note of warning is provided by Tedrick and Henderson (1989.p.111), who say that we should not look to the voluntary sector to solve all the problems in communities and fill the gaps in services. Nor should we expect volunteers to do the work of leisure professionals and Leisure Managers.

Volunteers are sometimes seen as the panacea for the problems of social service organizations while they can do much to help, the limitations of using volunteers must also be recognized, this caveat is offered simply to foster a realistic approach to the use of volunteers. Volunteers are good and helpful, but a recreation, park, and leisure cannot expect that the use of volunteers will solve all its problems. Volunteers can expand, enhance, and extend services, but they cannot do the planning and administration that paid staff are trained to do. Staff should listen to volunteers, but the volunteers' role should not administer a programme. The major drawback of working with volunteers is that it takes time, money and energy to work with recruiting, training, supervision and recognition.

Volunteers represent the 'community' from, which they are drawn and they can serve as excellent ambassadors for that community or their special interest.

Leisure management has an important part to play in the network of voluntary bodies and agencies; the Leisure Manager is part of a multi-disciplinary framework for leisure planning and management. The growth area for the profession in the early twenty-first century could be the management of voluntary sector leisure and recreation organizations and facilities. In the last unit we shall discuss leisure provision in the commercial sector.

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKET ASSIGNMENT

Mentions four key aspects to be considered in setting up a charitable recreation trust

## 7.0 REFERENCES AND FURTHER READING

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## UNIT 2 LEISURE PROVISION IN THE COMMERCIAL SECTOR

### CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
  - 3.1 The Commercial Leisure Sector: An overview
  - 3.2 Leisure Activities in and around the 'Home and Commercial Leisure'
    - 3.2.1 The Media and Leisure in the Home
    - 3.2.2 The House, Garden and Leisure
  - 3.3 Household Expenditure and Leisure
  - 3.4 Community Recreation and Domestic Tourism
  - 3.5 Attitude Towards Recreation by Selected Local Governments
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the last two units attention was focused on the public and voluntary providers, and it was shown that there is a level of integration and overlap between them. This unit is concerned with the commercial sector, which also has a relationship with the other sectors and also with the not-for-profit business.

The major difference between a commercial organization and a public or voluntary leisure organization is that the primary objective of the commercial operator is to achieve financial profit or an adequate return on investment, even though the means of profit-making usually calls for giving valuable services. The other sectors may also make financial profits, but they are established primarily for other reasons. Yet profit-making and not-for-profit organizations in leisure have similarities: they must both attract sufficient clients, consumers and customers or they will fail. Leisure Managers in the public sector have to work within the limitations of local government laws, directions, duties and powers and public accountability. Although they can use some of the skills and techniques of commercial operators such as market research, product development and targeted promotion, they are not free agents. Commercial managers also have constraints but they have wider freedoms for entrepreneurial enterprise.

However, the commercial leisure sector does not have a concise identity. There is a small local company. There are operational commercial

companies whose business is to manage services and facilities provided by others. A number of public leisure facilities, for example are managed by commercial operators in return for a management fee. Many of these operating companies were created specifically for that function. Then their activities are designed to profitably meet revenue income targets. Many clubs and not-for-profit organizations run activities that make financial surpluses such as bars, catering, health suites and fitness areas, to provide the finances to keep their business solvent.

How then do we define commercial leisure? There appears to be three main strands or kinds of business.

1. Commercial operators managing commercial activities for profit.
2. Commercial operators managing not-for-profit facilities/activities such as contract companies.
3. Not-for-profit operators managing some activities commercially to improve financial performances, for example, to help repay capital costs, meet investment targets run the business at break-even levels, and to subsidize non-profitable community activities. Leisure trusts have to adopt this robust business approach. But these businesses are not commercial, per se. they may pay their directors and managers well and some may make surpluses to plough back into the business, but they do not make profits for directors or shareholders.

A commercial leisure company could be described as one where the capital investment and running cost are met from the activities of the private company.

The commercial leisure sector, therefore, can take many forms. This unit focuses to a greater extent, though not exclusively, on these companies and their activities, the public sector and voluntary sector providers having been covered in previous units.

## 2.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading through this unit, you should be able to:

- Discuss the role of commercial sector in provision of leisure
- Explain leisure activities and home and commercial leisure
- Explain attitude of local government towards recreation

### 3.0 MAIN CONTENT

#### 3.1 The Commercial Leisure Sector: An overview

People's residual income is taken up in large proportion with commercial products and services. Leisure 'activity' is an attractive and lucrative market.

Commercial organizations do not have an intrinsic interest in leisure and recreation, in and of itself, but in leisure as a source of profit. This is not to say that many organizations and managers are not deeply involved in leisure, not to say that there is no altruism on the part of the providers. Indeed, patronage has long been an element in recreation provision, and commercial support has enlivened many activities which would not otherwise have survived. In addition, the mass media have been responsible for raising interest and participation in a whole range of leisure pursuits, such as football, rugby, cricket snooker, darts, bowls, golf, gardening, and collecting antiques. However, while there is a desire to increase the popularity of a number of leisure pursuits, commercial operators (outside the realm of patronage) will only maintain their interest if there is benefit to the organization and its shareholders.

A large proportion of spending on leisure is in the commercial sector. In terms of numbers, millions of people buy sports equipment and cinema tickers, eat out socially, drink, smoke, gamble, watch television and are entertained in their leisure either through services or products provided commercially. The objective of the commercial provider is to make money by serving the public in the belief of giving people what they want. However, does the commercial sector always provide the products that the public actually needs or wants or is the public persuaded to want them? Is the public obliged to take what is on offer? Product choice is often limited in order to streamline production. For example, a few large breweries control the majority of Britain's public houses. Without voluntary consumer organizations such as CARMA (Campaign for Real Ale) the specific wishes of people could become secondary to products and distribution efficiency.

The commercial provider is therefore, in essence, different from other providers being literally, in it for the money to both survive and prosper. Yet many private business are not always 'commercial', they do not make profit. Of all American commercial ventures apparently 40 per cent never make a profit, but break even or go under and 50 per cent of the rest of the companies make only marginal profits, the major problem being the mounting capital repayment debts. In such a climate, many private or commercial leisure organizations find it hard to stay in business and compared to public sector business, competition is fierce and many

companies and services may fail. Leisure is a volatile market and changes in leisure spending add to this uncertainty. The commercial leisure industry is made up of many thousands of business from the neighbourhood sports or hobbies shops to the giant multinationals. While the industry is widely diversified and contains many retailers with only a few full-time staff and Saturday part-timers, the large companies predominate. The commercial sector is dominant in the provision of hotels, amusement parks, theme parks, leisure parks, holiday camps, cinemas, theatres, bowling alleys, ice skating rinks, horse racing, greyhound and speedway tracks, bingo clubs, restaurants, public houses, night clubs, casinos, ballrooms and increasingly, health and fitness centers, country clubs and even children's play and adventure centres. Despite major developments by relatively large companies, however, these providers are dwarfed by the expanding leisure giants like the multinational companies.

The most significant change over the past two decades has been the increase in the size of the multinational companies through mergers, takeovers and diversification of interests. Multinational companies have power and influence on people's leisure, supplying what we want and are willing to pay for. Entrepreneurial and risk-taking qualities are often the hallmarks of its leaders such as Ryanair's Michael O'Leary and Virgin's Richard Branson. Branson's empire includes Virgin Trains, Virgin Atlantic airline megastores, mobile phones, credit card and interest services.

Although the Internet is a relatively new phenomenon it is having a dramatic impact on life in the United Kingdom. In particular, e-commerce is growing rapidly and all commercial sectors are actively examining the opportunities and threats it brings.

## 1. Development

Attaining social and political understanding and integration and,  
Achieving general physical development of individuals and of the economy, especially through multiplier effect.

Leisure provision in the commercial sector –case study Lagos State of Nigeria

## 2. Obstacles

There are fundamental constraints that face the growth and development of recreation and domestic tourism in almost all the local governments in Lagos State. These include:

Lack of recreation and tourism supporting infrastructural facilities.  
Lack of trained personnel in the sector

Lack of funds for planning and development  
Problem of land acquisition

## SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Give one definition of commercial leisure.

### 3.2 Leisure Activities in and Around the Home and Commercial Leisure

Commercial providers have enormous influence in home leisure pursuits. The nature of home-based activities and their enjoyment will be affected by factors such as housing conditions, availability of a garden and standard of living. Leisure time will vary according to the home itself, home improvements, family interests and hobbies and material possessions of the household, which may be leisure instruments' in themselves (television, computer) or may be time –saving appliances (dishwashers) which release members of the household from various tasks, thereby creating greater leisure time. Another often-underrated factor pertaining to leisure at home is the keeping of pets. A dog in particular, is often the main reason for taking a leisure walk and taking time away from the home.

A large proportion of all leisure activities take place in the home. Activity in the home dominates life in all social groups, especially women, singles, parents, retirement and pre-retirement age groups, the professional classes and the unemployed. People's satisfaction with their homes relates to some extent to what they are able to do there and to how well home accommodates their hobbies, equipment and activities.

#### 3.2.1 The Media and Leisure in the Home

The media probably have the most influential effect on leisure in the home. Media usage in the home includes not only Television viewing but also radio, records, computers, discs, tapes, video, DVD, newspapers, books and magazines. The motivations for watching television are likely to include a mixture of needs: entertainment information, education, social cohesion (e.g watching television may become a family activity) or simply because there is, through either lack of opportunity or apathy nothing else to do. Furthermore, television is cheap. Viewing appears to be most frequent among children and the elderly although overall there has been an increase in the time spent watching television.

The commercial sector's direct involvement with television includes.

The commercial stations which make the programmes, advertise on them, and manufacture the television sets themselves



The expansion of the DVD market

The use of the television for active participation (i.e video games)

The use of the television as an information service, for example, Ceefax, oracle and Tele Text.

More sophisticated systems in development will provide information about leisure pursuits such as concerts, sporting events, theatre and entertainment, and even clubs and organizations specializing in particular activities or hobbies. Through them it will also be possible to book and pay for tickets, via the same system. Some have suggested that the growth of home-based leisure could be the embryo of an introverted society. In 1979, a Finnish social psychologist wrote: "The family is alive but not well". (Tolkki-Nikkonen. 1979). With the Internet and new technologies as fixtures in the home, one wonders what he might say today.

And what about the radio? How much time spent in listening to the radio is purely for leisure and in fact how much is actually home-based? Often the radio is on when we are doing the housework, cooking or driving to work. Listening to recorded music is another booming home-based leisure pursuit, because it is portable. We can listen to the radio anywhere and at any time, making the concept of leisure almost indefinable. The increasing versatility of the mobile phone adds further to a concept of lifestyle rather than leisure.

The written word, and with the radio, is by no means just a home-based pursuit. Publication of newspapers, magazines and books is primarily the prerogative of commercial organization, although private, voluntary and government organizations publish technical and research materials that can be read for pleasure. Direct commercial involvement can also be found with the organization of book clubs, while indirectly leisure behaviour may be influenced by the content of magazines, both in terms of their advertising and the values they promote.

### 3.2.2 The House, Garden and Leisure

The house and garden-for those who have them-can in themselves offer opportunities for leisure activity, depending on whether home improvement and gardening are viewed as leisure or as an unwelcome commitment. Whatever the motivation, undoubtedly, there is an increase in activity in this area, galvanized by hugely popular television home and garden 'makeover' programmes. Home improvements entail considerable expenditure on supplies, do-it-yourself tools and equipment. The popularity of the garden things or relaxing on, is television and garden centers, and in the associated increase in the ranges of products sold.

The home can be used as a base for recreation and social activity, informal gatherings, parties, hobbies and other celebratory activities. The commercial sector has all the necessary props. Guy Fawkes and bonfire night and children can choose from a huge range of goods for kiting out witches, ghosts and vampires. Adults don't have to wait for a celebration event; the increasing popularity of home drinking is indicated by the increase in supermarket alcohol sales, and the rise in the number of off-licences.

Home-based leisure in terms of playing traditional indoor games has been a declining market, but the developing 'technology' games and the demand for more updated board games stimulate commercial investment. The latest and most powerful addition to home-based leisure is the computer, with computer games as a new-found interest and hobby, 'Surfing the Net' is now commonplace and is potentially the most captivating, powerful and equally the most dangerous anti-social of all home leisure interests.

### 3.3 Household Expenditure and Leisure

Household expenditure in the UK since 1971 has increased steadily by an average of 28percent per year in real terms (ONS, 2003). Communications, spending abroad and recreation and culture, however have risen more sharply, reflecting higher levels of disposable.

The largest increases in spending are predicated to be in the home environment: home entertainment, house and garden. Away from the home, the greatest increase in expenditure will be in active sport, holidays and tourism.

The away-from-home expenditure accounts for nearly three-quarters of leisure expenditures. However, the in home leisure sector is growing faster at the current time.

Provision of social recreation away from the home can be divided in a number of ways, for example visiting a pub and eating out, gambling, going to cinema, clubbing, window shopping leisure goods shopping, visiting attractions, weekend breaks and many more. Age is an important factor in the commercial market, with young people far more likely than older people to visit a night-club, disco, cinema or fast food restaurant. There is a steep decline with age for cinema going, with men more likely to visit a pub and attend sports event than women. Women however are more likely to visit library, attend the theatre, or play bingo. The commercial leisure sector is a lucrative market with a major share going to large corporate commercial providers.

Figure 10.1 UK Corporate Commercial Providers

Granada	TV, motorway services, hotels, health clubs
Scottish and Newcastle	Breweries, pubs, holidays parks
Bass	Hotels, tenpindowing, bookmakers
Whitbread	Restaurants, health clubs
Hilton	Hotels bookmakers, health clubs
Rank	Gambling, publications, cinemas restaurants, holidays
Pearson	Internet, publishing, theme parks
Virgin	Air, rail, shopping, music.

### 3.4 Community Recreation and Domestic Tourism

Recreation is of paramount importance to any individual, young or old. It is a source of experience, and joy of the mind in making adequate and profitable use of one's leisure hours. The highest benefit derived from recreation according to Manilla Declaration of 1980 is not only its economic impact, but its immediate and lasting therapeutic values to man. Man feels healthy and satisfied through recreation and tourism.

Recreation and Tourism help to promote adequate health, enhances community solidarity and help in character development and crime prevention. Community recreation and tourism have the following benefits:

Improving inter-group relations among residents of diverse ethnic, religious or social background and promote desirable human values, including respect for the dignity and work of all people. It promotes tolerance and leads to various individual lifestyles.

Help in strengthening and maintaining the economic well-being of communities by stimulating the growth of industry, providing cultural, sports and other attractions that promote spending in the community.

Enriching the cultural life, through exhibition of arts and crafts, cultural festivals and carnivals.

Meeting the needs of people for periodic release from social constraints and scheduled work through holidays, mass celebrations and traditional community events.

Encouraging and stimulating development in backward and rural areas. In some areas where open spaces are not prepared for and normally equipped with recreational activities, the youths in the area take over such vacant land space for games. The most common sight nowadays is sight of children and youths of different age groups playing in dusty, often polluted, ill-drained streets, narrow lanes and even tarred roads in congested Urban Areas e.g Lagos City.

Figure 10.2 Attitudes of Local Government in Lagos State towards Recreation and Tourism Development

Local Government	SM	LM	ET	KS	MU
People (Population)	700,000 <sup>+</sup>	1m <sup>©</sup>	179,000	349,996*	986,847*
Land Area (Sq. km)	0	0	135.	178.85	14
<u>Average Recreational activities</u>		4	3	0	4
Children's Playgrounds					
Sports Hall / Field	3	5	3	4	6
Swimming Pools	0	0	5		
Multi Purpose Halls	1	11		2	12
Public Open Spaces / Gardens		2	5	4	3
Youth Centres	3	2	2	0	
Water Fronts	0	0		0	
Tennis Courts	0	0		0	
Libraries	2	2	3	1	7
Historical Monuments	2	1		6	1
Tourism Personnel	0	0	0	5	0

KEY:

0	1999 CENSUS	SM	-	SOMOLU
©	1996 PROJECTION	LM	-	LAGOS MAINLAND
0	NOT AVAILABLE	ETI	-	ETI – OSA
	SEVERAL	KS	-	KOSOFE
		MU	-	MUSHIN

### 3.5 Attitude towards Recreation by Selected Local Governments

Reference has to be made to earlier highlighted obstacles/complaints. Some local governments that have a positive attitude towards development are faced with one constraint or another, while those that are better placed, under certain circumstances develop unconcerned attitude as a result of ignorance. Therefore, attitudes towards recreation and tourism can be categorized into negative and positive. Positive attitude shows greater attention and pleasure while negative attitude are associated with non-challant and displeasure towards social events and/or services. Attitudes towards a particular activity show the level of involvement exhibited towards such activity.

Therefore, one can observe that a local government authority may hold either positive or negative attitude towards (community) recreation and (domestic) tourism depending on the degree of provision of land, infrastructure, facilities and policies to aid recreation and tourism.

Findings revealed that all the local governments except one or two have tourism personnel (some of who are not professionals). Some have tourism committees according to the law 1981 that established the Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation in place, but which are not functioning, some have none.

Most of the local government areas have parks, gardens and children playgrounds. Majority of the local governments are faced with difficulties in managing and maintaining such open spaces. Their (the local governments) inefficiencies in this regard is often used as an opportunity for appropriation of open spaces for other uses like markets and illegal shops and structures.

#### Answers To Self Assessment Exercise

1. Definition of Commercial leisure
  - Commercial operators managing commercial activities for profit
2. Commercial sectors direct involvement with TV
  - The commercial stations which make the programmes, advertise on them, and manufacture the TV sets themselves.

#### 4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has taken you through, the commercial leisure sector, leisure activities, household expenditure and leisure, community recreation and attitudes towards recreation.

## 5.0 SUMMARY

The primary objective of the commercial operator is that of financial profit or adequate return on investment. Commercial providers' of facilities, services and products for leisure consumption have by far the greatest influence on people's use of leisure time compared to other providers.

## 6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Highlight at least four community recreation benefits.

## 7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Tokudson, George (2005). *Leisure and Recreation Management* 9<sup>th</sup> edition  
pp193-200

Fabanwo, F.R (2004). *Attitude of Local Governments in Lagos State  
towards Recreation and Tourism Development.*