

**PYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE FEMALE SPORT
PARTICIPATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

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Abstract

Females continue to be poorly represented in sport as participants, coaches, advisers and as team administrators and are seldom seen in the capacity as managers of different sporting codes.

This study sets out to determine the different psychosocial factors that influence female sport participation in the high school milieu. This study will provide knowledge that will aid the understanding of the phenomenon of participation and non-participation of high school girls.

After studying available literature on the subject, several factors were identified as influential determinants of whether girls decide to participate or not to participate in sport. The following factors were identified: financial benefits; family support; career opportunities; stereotypes about female sport participation; physiological nature of females; self-esteem; ability; motivation; competitions; need for recognition; coaching preferences and how well females get the recognition over their male counterparts.

The study was motivated by the realization that females in South Africa are generally poorly represented in the world of sport. This poor representation becomes more evident when the girls enter the senior secondary classes. Educational Institutions should maintain the spirit of sport participation and by so doing generate sport participation by women as a life long skill.

A questionnaire, based on the literature review, was designed to gather information on the psychosocial reasons why high school girls participate or do not participate in sport.

After a pilot study was done, the questionnaire was distributed to three former model C high schools in the southern regions of Johannesburg. The High School Personality

Questionnaire (H.S.P.Q.) was the instrument used to compare personality factors between the two groups. A total of 266 girls (grades ten to twelve) were included in this study.

The results indicated that various psychosocial factors influence female sport participation. Only a few girls (n=98) in the sample participated in sport while most girls (n=168) did not. The reasons why girls seemed to participate in sport included the fact that they enjoy sport, wanting a healthy life style, and they also enjoy the competition. The reasons why girls did not participate include the need to pay attention to academic commitments, lack of motivation, pressure and the competitive nature of the world of sport.

Awareness of the influence of and negative impact of these psychosocial factors can help sport psychologists, sport educators, coaches, administrators, sport organisations and the government to develop programmes/systems that will promote female participation in sport.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Female participation in sport has come a long way. Efforts have been and are being made in getting more females to participate in sports. However, a lot more effort is still required to generate greater female participation in the world of sport. (LeUnes & Nation, 2002).

Attitudes regarding female sport participation are changing, as there are females who have made sport part of their daily lives. In the history of South African sport, females are under represented and this tendency has filtered through to the educational institutions and the community in general. There are more girls who do not participate in sport than those who do participate.

This study will focus on the important role played by psychosocial factors influencing why some girls participate and while others do not participate in sport. Focusing on the above, dimensions will reveal positive reasons that cause girls to participate in sport and negative reasons that cause many girls to choose not to participate in sports.

1.2 AIM OF THE STUDY

The primary aim of this study is to identify physiological, biological and most importantly, psychosocial factors influencing female sport participation.

The secondary aim is to highlight important reasons for participating in sport. This will provide a broader understanding in terms of the choices made by females.

This could add value to the angle in which promotion of sport is done thus getting more females actively involved in the world of sport.

Coakley (as cited in LeUnes & Nation, 2002), argues that there are four reasons that have led to an increase in female sport participation. One, being an increase in opportunities for women in sport. Two, women's movements that have been fighting for the rights of females in the world of sports. Three, women are becoming more health conscious and fitness has become a key issue. Lastly, the presence of more visible female sports role models in the different societies. South African female sport participants need to take action to achieve these necessary long-term changes.

A number of studies have been conducted focusing on female sport participation to try and understand why the majority of females are not involved in sport. This study will attempt to show that the problem of non-female sport participation starts at school and this is where necessary changes need to be initiated. The under-representation of young girls in sport at school level has also become a matter of concern, not just for schools, but also for communities and the entire country.

1.3 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The under-representation of females in sport is an issue of national concern. As factors are highlighted, so it becomes, a matter of urgency for the government and non-government sport organisations to implement solutions.

It raises questions as to what females do with their leisure time, particularly after completing grade 12. Research has indicated that adolescents, who are idle, become involved in high-risk behaviours, including substance abuse as argued by

Iso-Ahola and Crowley, found in (Buffer, 1996). Research studies have also suggested that participating in sport is related to girls delaying their first sexual experience. Sports participation lowers the rate of sexual activity and teenage pregnancy. The women sports foundation (Digest, 1997) has shown that involvement of girls in sport also reduces the dropout rate from schools. The promotion of female sport participation will help to create a context for women to live healthier and productive lives.

Participation in sport has been associated with positive steps that can lead to a better life. Girls who take part in sport experience a higher level of self-esteem. Sport helps to build confidence, a positive body image, and can be linked to lower levels of depression (Digest, 1997). Girls who participate in sport become physically healthy in terms of strength and weight management. Early involvement in sport can also minimise the likelihood of the development of a number of health related conditions, (Digest, 1997). A healthy body nurtures a healthy mind and school-based physical education and sports programmes are ideal to facilitate fitness and essential acquisition of lifetime skills.

Therefore, it seems important to know and understand factors that could promote greater female sport participation. In this research, an attempt will be made to answer the following research question: "What are the psychosocial factors that play a role in influencing female sport participation and non-participation among high school girls?"

1.4 MOTIVATOIN AND AIMS

Answers to this question could aid in establishing reasons why some high school girls are involved in sport while others do not participate in sport. This phenomenon is visible in schools that have a variety of sporting activities and facilities available. South African women are poorly represented in different codes of sport and the 2004 Olympics Games exposed the Government's lack of involvement in stimulating female participation in the sporting arena. It appears that the South African Government is not empowering females in sport, not just as participants but also as sports managers, coaches, advisers, administrators and sports psychologists.

In addition, schools, communities, sports personnel, non-profit making and sports organisations should play a role by generating the desire for promoting female sports participation. The government should play its role by creating an enabling environment.

1.5 CHAPTER DELINEATION

Chapter One is an introductory chapter, which highlights terms of the rationale for the study, motivation and the aims.

Chapter Two focuses on the literature review. This chapter reviews literature on female sports participation. The literature exposes positive and negative factors relating to female sports participation.

Chapter Three explains the research design and methodology used in this study. A self-compiled survey questionnaire, based on the literature review, was designed and used in the gathering of information.

Chapter Four deals with the presentation and analysis of the data.

Chapter Five is the concluding chapter and highlights the main findings of the study. Findings are discussed and recommendations are made.

Bibliography contains a list of references that have been used in this study.

Appendix: The survey questionnaire is provided; the Government's White Paper on Sports and the Government Gazette will be attached as appendices.

1.6 CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study is to analyse the biological, physiological and psychosocial factors that influence whether high school girls participate or do not participate in sports. Information was gathered to back up the reasons as to why some girls participate whilst others choose not to participate in sport. Concluding remarks highlight the important factors that became evident as a result of this study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The involvement of women in sport continues to be a fascinating issue, which has prompted a variety of responses from a wide range of sports psychologists and researchers, thus contributing to differing and sound debates on the subject matter. The purpose of this chapter is to critically review some of the material put forward by researchers on the participation of females in sport. A sizeable number of studies focusing on female sport participation have linked sport with the educational and physical well being of a young body. Participation in sport also leads to the holistic development of the learner (Van Deventer, 1998). Involvement in sport and other sport related activities, is significant as it leads to competence in the physical world of sport and can also extend to the real life situation.

Amrusa (as cited in Van Deventer, 1998), further indicated that if sport is encouraged at an early age either by the school, parents, community or even the peer group it can counteract destructive lifestyle. A healthy life style is conducive to a non-violent society free of crime, drug abuse and many other health hazards. Life presents challenging hurdles that make individuals lose sight of their goals. Involvement in sport seems to be a contributing factor to individuals being goal-oriented. Sport provides young females with self-esteem enhancing experiences by equipping them with skills and knowledge that are necessary to organise and manage their lives in a responsible manner, (Van Deventer, 1998).

Martineck (as cited in Van Deventer, 1998), argues that little can be done to change the social environment but through physical activity programmes, resilience can be fostered. Females can also be supported and provided with the

necessary knowledge that could help them enhance their future. Sport should be a friendly learning experience with personalised content that would give meaning to individuals and help to develop critical life skills with alternative choices. Ideally, the different sporting codes should encourage and boost female participation, but more importantly, the programmes should connect physical education to families and communities.

2.2 THE HISTORY OF FEMALE SPORT

It is widely believed that western scholarship and incentive programmes have, to a great extent, ignored women's participation in sport.

2.2.1 Ancient Times

Partnership societies were generally nurturing, peaceful and equalitarian, but they were not necessarily matriarchal societies in that the people worshipped female deities (Costa & Guthrie, 1994). Costa and Guthrie (1994), revealed that in ancient times, women played ballgames, wrestled, hunted, swam, drove chariots, danced, sang, and also took part in athletics either as participants or as spectators.

On the one hand, there were dominator societies who worshipped fierce gods. The dominator model identifies privileged women in terms of race and class as dominators in the patriarchal social system. Between 4300 and 600 BC at different times and different places, societies become more male-dominated. A group of people from the dominator societies referred to by scholars as 'Indo-Europeans' (Aryans or Kurgans), were from the Russian steppes. The Kurgans brought their male dimunities as they swept through Greece, Mesopotamia, Canada and Egypt. The Kurgans brought a revolution by altering the structure and values of the societies that they conquered.

They attacked Goddess religions and at a later stage, demolished the power and popularity of the Goddess. The changing image of the Goddess led to the transition from partnership societies to dominator societies (Costa & Guthrie, 1994).

Greek women were not regarded as active members in their society and were therefore excluded from politics. They had no economic power as they were married and had children at a very early age and this frequently resulted in early death. More importantly, they could not play sport as opposed to active, independent men who were admired by everyone. The active, independent women were even expected to run their husband's affairs while the men served their military obligations until the age of 30. After the thirty years, men preferred to spend their time with other men compelling women to keep themselves busy with other things. It is at that point in time that women developed racing, wrestling, discus and javelin skills. They also took part in ecstatic dances at festivals and they were at all times encouraged to be independent (Costa & Guthrie, 1994).

2.2.2. Herean Games at Olympia

For the purpose of the Herean games, women had to practise how to dance, sing and to be economically active members of the society. Guthrie and Costa (1994), argued that in these games maidens were divided into different age brackets and they participated in foot races of a shorter distance of that run by men. The winning prizes included a crown of olive branches and a portion of a cow that has been sacrificed for Herean. Women also took part in two choral dances in which maidens were initiated into the secrets of their femaleness. They were also taught how to become functional women within their own societies like distributing medicine, agriculture, wine-making, weaving and other productive tasks.

The participation of females in sport was not a priority for the Hellenic games and in fact, females were only used as a source of entertainment for the males. The productive role played by women was regarded as being very valuable and important for their clans.

2.2.3 Middle Ages

2.2.3.1 Historic development in Europe

Through his poems and letters, Sidonius allows us to see the sport recreations of Roman emperors, Germanic chieftains, women and several other classes of people (Guthrie & Costa, 1991). Sidonius was the bishop of Clermont by 469 or 470. He did much writing and his work gave an interesting insight into both the ecclesiastical and the courts of Gaul. These documents were written a long time ago but were still regarded as valid in terms of providing evidence that females were involved in sports. Men and women played chess and other board games in the early Middle Ages. Sidonius also suggested that both men and women took part in several varieties of ball games (Costa & Guthrie, 1994).

By the 12th Century (1000 - 1300), women played important roles because they were expected to be educated. The ability to read and write was insufficient as they were expected to participate in other areas of life: hawking; playing chess; telling stories; responding with great wit; singing; playing various instruments and dancing. They were expected to operate at the same level as their male counterparts. Medieval tournaments became very important and the winning knight had to demonstrate all the traits of a true chevalier and he would win his most sought after prize, which was a lady (Costa & Guthrie, 1994).

It has also been suggested that women had no other role to play other than being prizes. On the other hand, women were portrayed as active participants because they sometimes kept the score during tournaments and they also assisted in presenting the awards to the champions of the tournament. Another argument advocates that women were mere cheerleaders for chivalry events (Guthrie & Costa, 1994).

There is historical evidence indicating that women did actually take part in sport and recreation. In London, 1276, Juliana, the wife of Richard Le Cordwaner, was killed as a result of an argument over a chess match. In another incident the same year Agnes, wife of Robert, was killed due to an argument that erupted after a period of drinking and gaming with other men and women. These incidents clearly indicate that women were present at sporting activities and more importantly, that they also took part in some of those sporting activities (Cole, 1994)

Between the 16th and the 18th century, females did not have the same political, economic and social advances that males enjoyed. Opportunities for women to engage in games and sports were limited. There were definitely differences between different countries, but the women's place in the whole of Europe was that of an inferior one to that of men (Guthrie & Costa, 1994).

Social Darwinism was the main focus as it incorporated women's physical inferiority, which justifies that maternity was one of the most important functions of women for progression of the nation (Hargreaves, 1994). The marginalisation of women in sports has always been seen as the natural order of things. Being female was associated with behaving like a lady and was later a prerequisite for the 19th century sports women. Early forms of female sport and physical activity indicate how the family ideology was

incorporated later in the years when female sport participation was becoming a common practice. If women could ever be allowed leisure time, attention would be given to sporting activities like dancing, horseback riding and ice-skating.

Horseback riding in time became a sport that was more acceptable for women to participate in as it allowed them to retain their grace and femininity. The introduction of bicycling at a later stage became popular and it exerted the greatest influence on women's physical emancipation. Bicycling offered many women the potential for physical mobility, a healthy life, active recreation as well as freedom of choice in terms of the dress code (Hargreaves, 1994).

2.2.3.2 Historical developments in the USA.

Until the mid 1980s women were invisible in early American sport. Evidence indicates that women competed in horse racing, hunting and fish fighting and belonged to sports clubs. During the 18th century bear bating, bull boating and fighting between animals continued to attract both males and females at all levels of society. There were stage fights where women and men fought each other in single matches and also in couple fights. Swords and quarterstaves would sometimes be used and the winning person would receive a monetary reward. Wrestling was popular among labouring men and occasionally they also had females taking part (Guthrie & Costa, 1994).

Historians occasionally discussed gambling operations of black American women and the fishing and sailing of white Americans. Harvesting time, weddings and funeral; brought families together for food, drinks, games and dancing. Women put into place and organised recreations for the entire community. Women also became visible in

what we call the most public sport of the 18th century, horseback racing, despite the fact that it was a traditionally male sport. Women raced more frequently among themselves and occasionally raced against the males, argued Hargreaves (1994).

Women also took part in other activities for instance they gambled a lot, paddled canoes and raced on riverboats. Those practices were meaningful as women had an opportunity to be together with other females, it was also a break for them as they spent long hours working. Unfortunately for women, their socio-economic background and their race determined their place in society (Hargreaves, 1994).

Still, this did not alter the sense that historians made concerning sport in the 17th and 18th century. Sport was seen as a male domain and women were supposed to be good wives and the most ornamented spectators available on the periphery. America, at the beginning of the 19th century, was a leading country in which women were relegated to dependent and subordinate roles. Vertinsky (as cited in Guthrie & Costa, 1994), indicated that women were regarded to be inferior to men and they had to perform household and childbearing duties. It was the women's responsibility to bring up the children in an appropriate way, made to make the home a conducive environment for the child to learn about the sexual segregation (Hargreaves, 1998).

What affected the women had an impact on the lives of young girls. Dunning and Rojeck (1992), indicated that in the urban areas, girls had fewer opportunities for participating in sport, either at home or at school. Those private schools that enrolled women had a very narrow curriculum with courses like needlework, music, drawing and French; no provision was made for the physical education and culture of women. When colleges opened their doors to women, physical education did not form part of the curriculum (Costa & Guthrie, 1994).

According to Vertinsky (as cited in Costa & Guthrie, 1993), the early 19th century marked growing concern over the physical condition of American women. Women's fragility and lack of energy and overall health was becoming a recurrent theme and this concern had nothing to do with women's life expectancy and mortality rate. Physiologists started to insist that girls needed more exercise, particularly during the development stages to enable them to be robust mothers. The focus was on schools, with girls being confined to their desks for long periods of time and inevitably suffering from stunted development. Health reformers responded by emphasising the need for physical exercise to play a larger role in female education (Costa & Guthrie, 1993).

During the 19th century, the female body was expected to be more active but not at the same level as that of the men. The focus would be on the Victorian cult of the family because it unified the nineteenth century bourgeois ideology and slowed down the progress of early women sport development. The Victorian model assumed and concluded that the biological difference between men and women was natural. It was argued that women could not be productive because of their innate weak physical and emotional characteristics and their role was to stay at home and be good wives (Hargreaves, 1998).

Maguire, Jarvie, Mansfield and Bradley (2002), indicated that further marginalisation continued, starting with the physical education curriculum that clearly reflected gender division. Boys and girls took part in gender-appropriate sports and they were also taught separately. Girls took part in activities that were less strenuous, with restricted space to avoid body contact. The boys were encouraged to be aggressive, dominating and physically competitive. These practices later became visible during playing time, when boys tended to be more aggressive and wanted challenging activities, as

opposed to the girls who showed a tendency to be passive (Maguire, Jarvie, Mansfield & Bradley, 2002).

In Britain, figure skating and gymnastics and in the US, netball and softball are seen to be girls' sport and rugby, soccer, American football and ice hockey were for the males. Catherine Beecher was one of the earliest and most influential leaders to stress the value of female exercise. She lectured and ran workshops and seminars that emphasised the physical needs of women. Vertinky (as cited in Costa & Guthrie, 1994), stated that Dr Lewis, a moralist and physiologist who had great admiration for female moral reform societies was influential in terms of promoting exercise for women. His numerous writings portrayed his interest in female health.

It was in the middle of the 19th century that women started to become pro-active in changing their status. The first American feminist movement was born. Women formed groups whereby they discussed dress reform and birth control. Women also fought for better working conditions, demanded to vote, sought entry into higher education and male controlled professions like medicine. Through the demand for sports and physical education, women were able to express their dissatisfaction in an attempt to liberate themselves. These demands were not only visible in North America but also spread through Europe. The development of science and technology through decentralisation created new opportunities, which totally changed people's way of thinking. Women were no longer regarded as being passive but they were now active members of the economic and social world (Guthrie & Costa, 1994).

The 19th century marked the growth of gymnastics as a means of systematic development for health and educational reforms and more importantly as a form of therapy. Gymnastics became popular and through industrialisation spread to Sweden,

England, the United States of America and Germany. At a later stage, organised games for both males and females were scheduled. Archery and tennis became quite popular as ideal sports for females. Archery was one of the first organised competitive sports for women, and they also formed archery clubs and women were allowed to participate in tournaments regularly (Guthrie & Costa, 1994).

It was in the same year that feminist Frances Lobbe argued that women should be engaged in meaningful work for them to be able to enjoy sports and amusement. If work and sports were mutually reinforcing for the males, then women need to take up sports so that they can liberate themselves. As more women pursued the public domain opportunities, they pursued professional careers, were able to make a choice whether to get married or not, and choose whether to play tennis, golf or riding a bicycle. By the end of the century, more women were certainly more physically active. On the other hand, women's sporting liberation was condoned by societies' stereotyped notion of women's nature, capacity and role (Hargreaves, 2000).

As colleges opened their doors for females, there were too many criticisms, those who supported female education and those who did not value the development of mind over body and contributing towards the degeneration of the whole race. On the other hand, the colleges provided opportunities for physical training and outdoor games to prove that the girls could maintain a healthy physique as well as maintaining a professional job. College women started to be involved in athletics and competitive sport and basketball proved to be popular among female students and was particularly useful in teaching women physical stamina and teamwork. Those activities proved that women could maintain their health while studying (Marguire, Jarvie, Mansfield & Bradley, 2002).

Maguire et al (2002), indicated that in 1896 modern Olympics continued to resist women's involvement, the belief being it was unnatural for women to play sport and that the Olympics was a forum for men to display their athleticism. The number of female participants increased since 1886. There were no female participants at the Athens games, to 3 684 female participants in Atlanta in 1996. The number of females involved still falls short in terms of the male participation figure of 7 059 (Maguire et al, 2002).

2.2.4 Sport in South Africa

Jarvie (1992), indicated that there are four broad interconnected stages in the development of sport in South Africa.

- a. A stage that started from 1650 until about 1910 (pre-colonial stage of development) This is when the origins of many black-sporting practices developed.
- b. From 1650 to 1910 three important processes affected the development of sport. The process of colonisation led to the destruction of traditional sports that were later replaced by white sporting practices.
- c. From 1910 to 1960, all forms of sport were subjected to limits and pressures of segregation and apartheid policies. 'White' sports were further introduced in the school's physical education programmes, which helped to further the mechanism of social differences.
- d. From 1960 to 1994, South African Sports experienced multifaceted developments e.g. the development of a non-racial sports movement, which has continually changed sporting supremacy.

From about 1948 South Africa was ruled by a white minority government undermining and discriminating against a black majority group through its racist legislation and a powerful administration and the use of military force. From the early 1970's the balance

of power has been challenged by established organisations operating inside and outside South Africa. In 1940, the non-racial table tennis board developed and in 1950 the South African Sports Association (SASA) (Jarvie, 1992).

SASA marked the beginning of a non-racial sports movement and allowed the black sporting culture to support the broader struggle against apartheid. The other liberation bodies split during the second half of the 1950's and because of its long-standing beliefs in solidarity, they continued to be the main body with uncompromised demands. In January 1955, the South African Congress Of Trade Unions (SACTU), which was representing the working class, joined forces with the African National Congress (ANC) and formed the South African Communist Party (SACP). This step was drawing the ANC into a more proletarian line of action. The two organisations differed, but managed to express their common view and included the United Democratic Front (UDF), they drafted a freedom charter in the same year (Jarvie, 1992).

SASA's continual failure to win support from the International Olympic Committee (IOC) led to the formation of the South African Non-Racial Olympic Committee (SAN-ROC). SAN-ROC emerged as a symbol of struggle for a non-racial sport in S.A. In two years, the leaders of SAN-ROC were put into exile; as a result, all South African activities had to be suspended under sanctions, which in 1960 led to the expulsion of South Africa from the Olympic movement, Lapchic (1984). The European Economic Community and Commonwealth Nations made decisions as heads of state to stop any sports contact between other international countries and South Africa. The United Nations also promoted refrainment from any contact with South Africa and this included the Organisation of African Unity. South Africa did not participate in Olympics from 1960 and was thus excluded from 26 Olympic related international sports federations (Jarvie, 1992).

Having sanctions applied to South Africa was for SAN-ROC their first real victory in 1964. During the late 1960's and early 1970's the struggle was continued by the student organisation under the leadership of Steve Biko and his Black Consciousness Movement (BCM). The strikes of 1973 and the Soweto uprising of 1976-77 led to the intensification of the struggle.

In the 1980's the ANC was involved in sporting discussions in Harare and as well as development and formation of a militant sports organisation, namely The National Sports Congress (NSC). Some sporting organisations compromised their demands along the way, but the South African Council of Sports (SACOS), SAN-ROC, The South African Non-Racial Committee and NSC strengthened as they refused to separate sporting demands from the overall social changes. Their inflexible approach to radical policies was unacceptable to other members, who felt this approach was too severe for the majority of African sports participants (Jarvie, 1985).

Sport was used as another tool for oppression, black and white sportsmen were treated differently. Female sports participation was not a concern at this time as the emphasis was placed on general social changes that included sports. SACOS revolved around the following four important issues:

- a. They were against the permit system, which compelled non-whites to have a sporting permit in order to participate in any form of multinational sport.
- b. SACOS stood firm concerning the " Double Standards Resolution" whereby black members who collaborated with multinational sport were banned, implying that any affiliated member of SACOS could not belong to any of the multinational organisations.

- c. SACOS objected to the unequal sponsorship distributed within the tripartite sports system, especially since the big sponsorship companies derived their profit from black labour.
- d. SACOS called for a total cut off from the international sporting relations with S.A, until non-racial sporting practices were accepted all over the world and they banned all national and international tours by racial and non-racial associations (Jarvie, 1992).

SACOS was receiving international backing and its policies led to the breaking of any sporting contact with South Africa on 24 October 1980 by the United Nations. Jarvie (1985), states that international boycotts played a very important role, but the overall sporting sanctions also had major downfalls.

The international boycott promoted the non-racial movement but it also undermined the demands of the international resistance movement in making changes in South Africa. Jarvie (1985), indicated that despite the fact that certain Western and Eastern (Britain, America & Japan), countries adopted sporting sanctions, they still had political and economic negotiations with South Africa. Financially, if South Africa was going to be liberated, this would not be the case due to the pressure from sporting sanctions, but it would in the long term be liberated due to strategies applied.

The Nationalist party won the May 1987 elections and the Progressive Federal Party was the official opposition party. From 1971-1976, Dr Koornhof was assigned to establish a new multi-national sports policy, which was compatible with the separate development policy in South Africa, as well as aimed at showing the people that the regime was willing to modify and also cater for black aspirations (Jarvie, 1985). This occurred after the National Forum Committee (NFC) rejected the ANC's freedom

charter in preference to the Azanian People's Manifesto. Within their charter the NFC also included a statement instructing the government to provide support and recreational facilities.

Jarvie (as cited in Dunning & Rojeck, 1992), indicated that Mr De Klerk, South Africa's new Nationalist party leader, revealed a new "plan of action" to Mrs Thatcher in June 1989. The Nationalist party was prepared to talk with the intention to create structures through which all South Africans would have the right to take part in decision-making through a 'one man vote'. In 1990 F.W de Klerk took the initiative and he lifted the state of emergency, freed Mr Mandela and a number of activists and the South African Communist Party (ASCP).

The United Democratic Front (UDF) was formed in August 1993, committing itself to non-racial politics and created a platform for independence on which both black and white moderate anti-apartheid activities operated. Mrs Margaret Thatcher put pressure on European communities to remove economic sanctions on South Africa and President Samaranich made an effort to persuade the International Olympic Committee (IOC) to consider welcoming South Africa back into the world of sports. South Africa again became a member of the Olympic Committee in 1994 (Jarvie, 1992).

2.2.5 SPORT IN SCHOOLS

2.2.5.1 Education

There are writers who argue that South African sport has been liberated and there are those who suggest that sport has always been a mechanism to extend apartheid policies in general, (Jarvie, 1985). Sport cannot be understood without taking into consideration the dynamics of class and race. This is particularly true pre 1994, when

racial discrimination seemed to be the dominant issue that affected all facets of life in South Africa. Jarvie (1985), asserts that discrimination did not evolve spontaneously but rather developed in conjunction with colonial, capitalist and western ideologies.

The education sector was another area affected by the apartheid policies. All public educational facilities were strictly segregated. Lapchic (1984), indicated that black schools were vastly inferior compared to white schools in terms of sporting facilities, equipment and the availability of sporting codes thus making it difficult for the black learners to be involved in sport. The curriculum was different from that of the white schools. The curriculum in black schools was not designed to challenge their young minds but for them to perform certain functions that would be of benefit to the white man.

The government spent R1 115 per white child versus R110 for the black child. The teacher people ratio was 18:1 for whites and 39:1 for blacks. Less than 10% of black children completed school, and only half of school-going age children attended school. Less than 11 in 10,000 of blacks would enrol for technical training. There were 3 000% more white university graduates than blacks even at university, their curriculum was divided on cultural basis (Lapchic, 1984).

2.2.5.2 The effects of education on female sport participation

The issue of separate education for different groups was a tool used by the apartheid government to put into place the acceptance of institutionalised racism and sexism in the schools argued Merrett (as cited in Hargreaves, 1997), which made it impossible for black females to participate in sport. For blacks, leisure and sports experiences were restricted by racial and gender divisions and the "triple oppression" (Zuma, 1992). Being a black working class women choices were limited. As more, black woman

become involved in sport, more women would also be empowered by occupying decision making positions i.e. moving away from the so-called deep-seated imbalances between sport men and women of South Africa, argued Roberts (as cited in Digest, 1997).

Disparities of the past could account for the fact that physical education as a school subject and why participation in extra-mural activities is not taken seriously. Segregation led to poor funding in most South African black schools. In most schools the physical education curriculum was viewed as a westernised concept and due to a lack of qualified specialists, insufficient facilities and equipment as well as the fact that it is a non-examination subject, physical education was not considered a priority in the teaching fraternity (Van Deventer, 1998).

In 1994, the government spent R9,84 on sports facilities for each white child and 0,41c for each black child. Another government report issued in 1982 indicated that white schools had 72% of all sporting facilities available to them, as opposed to the black schools where there were limited facilities. Indian and coloured schools with facilities geared primarily to boys. The limited facilities, particularly for girls, in the black schools along with poverty, travelling problems and all the other additional expenses crippled sports training in schools argued Merrett (as cited in Hargreaves, 1997).

There were limited and inadequate playing fields for females, and if there were facilities available, men had priority over the use of those facilities. Hargreaves (1997), also asserts that women were unable to use convenient venues and they often had to travel long distances to participate.

2.2.6 South African sport after 1994

The first National Sport and Recreation Act was passed in 1998 under the democratically elected ANC government led by Mr Nelson Mandela, the first state President of the new democratic South Africa. The Act stated the following for the sport participants:

- To provide for the promotion and development of sport and recreation and the co-ordination of the relationships between the Sports Commission, National and Recreation Federation and other agencies.
- To provide for measures aimed at correcting imbalances in sport and recreation.
- To promote equity and democracy in sport and recreation.
- To provide for dispute resolution mechanisms in sport and recreation.
- To empower the Minister to make regulations regarding sport and recreation.
- To provide for matters connected with sport and recreation. (Government Gazette, 4 December 1998).

Mr N. Balfour, the Minister of Sport and Recreation, presented the revised White Paper on sport and recreation, which included South Africa's conviction about how sport and recreation activities contributed to the general welfare of all South Africans. The Minister indicated that sport was the best instrument to involve the youth in meaningful activities thus contributing to the building of communities.

Sport and Recreation South Africa has set the following objectives for itself, which give rise to the "getting the nation to play" theme:

- Increasing the level of participation in sport and recreation activities.
- Raising sport's profile in the face of conflicting priorities.
- Maximising the probability of success in major events.
- Placing sport at the forefront of efforts to educate the public about HIV/AIDS, and to reduce the level of crime.

“Getting the nation to play ” requires a conscious effort and firm commitment from government, non-government organisations (NGO), the private sector and the South African society as a whole. Each stakeholder has an important role to play in laying the foundation for a culture of sport and recreation. The overall responsibility for policy, provision and delivery of sport and recreation resides with Sport and Recreation South Africa and South African Sport and Recreation (SRSA & SASC).

It is necessary to confirm roles and streamline the responsibilities of various stakeholders in sport and recreation to ensure that co-ordination and economies of scale are realised. The organogram (Table 2.1) illustrates governance of sport and recreation in South Africa (1998).

TABLE 2.1

CABINET

PARLIAMENT

PORTFOLIO COMMITTEE ON SPORT AND RECREATION

NOCSA DISSA NFs NGO'S (national)

MINISTRY/SRSA/SASC

SANREC

PROVINCIAL FEDERATION/ PROVINCIAL SPORTS COUNCIL/ NGO'S

(provincial)

MEMBER OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

PROVINCIAL RECREATION COUNCILS

CLUBS/ NGO'S/CBO'S

LOCAL AUTHORITIS

2.2.6.1 School/Junior/Youth Sport

The recognised co-ordinating body for the organisation of school sport is USSASA (United School Sports Association of South Africa), USSASA's functions include the following:

- Implementation of government policy on sport and recreation at school level,
- Its core business involves:
 - Talent identification maximising representative participation,
 - Co-ordination intra- and inter-school competitions,
 - Coaching and development programs for educators,
 - Giving input to the physical education curriculum,
 - Sharing facilities with the community,
 - Making representations to macro-bodies and relevant government departments with respect to school sport.
 - Liaising with national and provincial federations with regard to junior and youth sport specifically.
 - Liaising with its international parent body, the International School Sport Federation (ISSF).

2.2.6.2 Women and Sport

The SRSA/SASC acknowledges the important role that women and girls can play in 'getting the nation playing' so as to facilitate positive and healthier lifestyles. Gender equality and the right of women to participate are paramount. National Federations will be encouraged to advise training and development programs to facilitate the Participation of women, and to remove barriers that may prevent women from vocations in training, administration, coaching and sport and recreation management.

Specific resources will be allocated for the development of sports skills and facilities for women and girls. Suitable candidates will be identified and introduced to leadership training and coaching in sport and recreation will encourage participation of women and girls in sport and recreation (White Paper, 1998).

The Commonwealth of Government Working Group in Harare (1995) made the following observation with regard to sport in society: "It is the time that the integral role which sport plays in the process of nation-building is fully recognised. Sport is an investment. It is, firstly, an investment in health, vitality and productivity of one's people. It is, secondly, an investment in the future. The social benefits include an overall improvement in the quality of life and physical, mental and moral well-being of the country, as achievers, as unofficial ambassadors and as individuals committed to equality and fairness in competition. Because of its vitality, sport can play an enormous part in redressing gender inequalities and discrimination against disabled and minorities" (White Paper, 1998).

2.3 BIOLOGICAL FACTORS INFLUENCING FEMALE SPORT PARTICIPATION

2.3.1 Developmental influence

The physical fitness of women in sport has always been questioned because of a variety of physiological concerns including the menstrual cycle, reproduction, damage to breasts and genitals. Early studies argued that females should not be involved in sport, due to the deleterious effects of physical exertion on the frequency of menstruation and the fact that the reproductive organs of female can be affected. These beliefs prevailed for years and later evidence began to prove these early beliefs wrong (LeUnes & Nation, 1991) Pre-adolescence is (9-11 years) a stage that involves a slow but consistent form of growth. It is a calm period just before rapid onslaught of adolescence. The body is undergoing developmental changes in the skeletal system,

muscular system and motor development. Motor development is particularly essential as co-ordination develops which later helps to master many physical skills (Santrock, 1995).

Accepting one's physical appearance and being able to deal with the physical changes involved with maturity and growth is one of the most crucial developmental tasks common to most adolescents (Brettschneider & Hein, 1998). Adolescence has been referred to as a period of "storm and stress" and it is also a period when the teenager is confronted with a series of hormonal hurdles and developmental challenges (Frydenburg & Lewis, 1993). Adolescents have to deal with a number of issues simultaneously, including the development of an identity, achieving independence away from the family, and at the same time acceptance by the peer group. Most important is the transition from childhood into adulthood, which comes with many psychological and physiological adaptations.

2.3.2 Menstruation

Hargreaves (1997), supported research that proved and demonstrated that strenuous exercises did not negatively affect the menstrual cycle, nor did menstruation significantly affect physical performance. Erdelyi (as cited in LeUnes & Nation, 1991), conducted a study of 729 Hungarian females and the results indicated that 83% of the females registered no change in their menstrual cycle. Zaharievas (1985), studied female Olympiads from 10 different countries. Results showed that 92% of the subjects had a regular menstrual cycle, the length of the menses was not affected and their blood flow was regular.

Later studies argued that participation leads to cessation and irregular menstrual functioning, Web et al (as cited in LeUnes & Nation, 1991), reported a 59% rate in

menstrual difficulties in a group of 56 Olympic athletes, their primary complaint being missing their menses and experiencing a delay in the onset of the period. For many years it has been believed that delayed onset of the menstrual cycle caused many girls to continue playing sports based on the observation that menarche occurred later in athletes than non-athletes. Girls experience less physical distress associated with their menstrual cycle when they play sport. Many reports highlight the positive influence of moderate and regular physical activity on the menstrual cycle. There is no doubt that the benefits of playing sport far outweigh the disadvantages in respect of young developing female bodies.

There is some correlation between strenuous physical activity and delayed menstrual cycle. For many years researchers argued that menstrual irregularities are caused by heavy exercise and training (LeUnes & Nation, 1991). It has also been argued that delayed menses subsequently affected fertility and lead to complications associated with pregnancy. Scientific evidence provided by Erdeiyi and Zaharieva (as cited in LeUnes & Nation, 1991), in a combined study of more than 740 female athletes showed that athletes had fewer instances of toxemia, fewer premature deliveries and a lower rate of caesarean section than did a comparable non-athletic sample. Wyrick (1974), argues that athletic fitness is associated with a sound pregnancy and delivery.

2.3.3 Pregnancy

Anecdotal evidence shows that pregnancy does not hamper performance of women who choose to participate in sport throughout their lives.

LeUnes and Nation (1991), argue that Irwin, who was a female athlete, won an Olympic medal in diving when she was four months pregnant. Another example is that of Hays

who successfully completed the world championship rodeo as a bareback rider when she was eight months pregnant. It also appears that athletes return to top form rather quickly after having had children.

Zaharieva and Sigler (as cited in LeUnes & Nation, 1991), conducted a study that showed that 75% of the athletes improved their Olympic results during the two years after delivery and this improvement was more apparent in the first year. The world class Mary Decker was interviewed by Bloom (1986), and she stated that she reported back on the track six days after giving birth and was running successfully after one month. Gerber et al (1974), concluded by saying that females could look forward to having an active and exciting sports life uncomplicated by irregular menses, pregnancy and childbirth.

2.3.4. Hormones

Females who participate in sports often experience delayed menarche and this could have both positive and negative consequences. Historically delayed menarche, which was often associated with high levels of training, was a problem as it compromised fertility. More recently, the concern about delayed menarche has focused on its impact on peak bone density. Menarche leads to an increase in circulating high levels of oestrogen in a female body. Oestrogen is a necessary hormonal trigger for increasing bone density in adolescence and maintaining bone density in the mature female. Studies conducted by Fehily, Cole, Evans and Elwood, 1992; Johnwell and Nilson 1994, have shown that early menarche is associated with increased bone density, (President's Report, 1997).

There is insufficient evidence examining the relationship between delayed menarche in athletic females and bone density. Delayed menarche can have positive effects in that

the early onset of menarche has been associated with increased risk of breast cancer. Taking part in sport or regular exercising may also reduce the possibility of childhood obesity, which can lead to the earlier onset of menarche argued Doll and Peto (Presidents Report, 1997).

2.3.5. Body Form

Coakley (1986), discussed myths that excluded females from sports. In the process of playing sport, it is believed that females might damage their breasts. There is no evidence that shows that the breasts or reproductive organs are at risk at any point when females take part in sport. Breasts are the least vulnerable organ of the female body. The uterus is said to be the most shock resistant organ. In fact, males are more susceptible to injury and trauma because their sexual organ is external (Eitzen & Sage, 1993).

The bone structure of females is definitely smaller and more fragile. Gerber (1974), argued that the average male is 20% stronger than the average female, males also have a 25% faster reaction time and they also have a cardiovascular capacity advantage of 25 to 50% over their female counterparts. Currye and Jobu (1984), argue that these differences mean males have more power, speed and strength. The same factors can be attributed to high injury rates among males.

Birrel (as cited in Kane, 1998), argued that females should not take part in certain sports activities, and there are those activities that require 'masculine' traits such as physical strength and power. Bradner (as cited in Kane, 1998), argued that many girls seldom show an interest in sports and if they are interested, they do not have the strength and endurance to be successful. Often they cannot perform to the best of their abilities because of the risks they are exposed to.

Female's gain strength as they mature and several studies have indicated that short-term training programmes can increase muscle strength in all children. At the age of 14 years the growing rate for girls slows down and if they continue being physically active then they increase their strength. Females have the ability to enhance their physical strength that would eventually enable themselves to perform at high competitive level (Kane, 1998).

2.3.6 Body image

According to the National Center for Health and Statistics (1991) almost twice as many children are overweight today compared to children 60 years ago. Obesity is usually caused by the high intake of fat calories and lack of active disposal of the fat. Exercising helps to increase caloric expenditure to maintain an ideal body mass. Birrel and Cole (1990), argued that for those girls who are generally not obese, daily activities provide enough balance between fat intake and physical activity. For obese children, it would be ideal to work with a strict nutritional programme and a controlled physical activity programme for them to maintain their weight.

One Australian study found that 95% of female high school and university girls desire the slimmer figure. The media and societies promote the slim figure and this puts a lot of pressure on women to either maintain that smaller figure or to monitor their weight. Prakasa-Rao and Overman (1986), state that exercise can enhance a women's self-esteem and body image and that active women are more positive about themselves and their bodies. From a negative point of view, intense sports participation may highlight the concerns for body shape, especially if sport participants are excessively preoccupied with body weight.

Davies (1996), found that a greater number of high performance female athletes were under-weight and they frequently had an intense desire to lose weight as compared to non-athletes. As a result they were more at risk of developing eating disorders like anorexia, bulimia and bulimia nervosa. Plaisted (as cited in Morris & Summers, 1995), indicated that for some sporting codes it is important to maintain an ideal body weight in order to participate in activities like rowing and horse racing. In other sports like running and swimming, low body weight is associated with successful performance.

Physical educators and trainers are not aware of different body types and they do not really help sport participants to develop positive body images with realistic attitudes to diet and acceptable appearance. The above factors do not necessarily lead to eating disorders, but a number of factors can make certain girls obsessive regarding their body image. Other factors can include unhealthy family dynamics, peer and team-mate modelling and acceptance, pressure from coaches and social pressure to conform to standards of slenderness.

In sport it is particularly important to have a positive relationship between physical activity and psychological health. Studies conducted by the Melpomene Institute (Weiss, 1993), indicated that there is a strong correlation between physical activity and self-esteem. Girls who felt more positive about themselves and their abilities were more likely to take part in sport up to the highest level as opposed to those that felt less confident. Self-esteem development was one of the key psychosocial outcomes related to sports participation. He indicated that 69% of studies that were reviewed later indicated a positive relationship between physical activity and psychosocial well-being.

2.4 PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE FEMALE SPORT PARTICIPATION

2.4.1 Youth identity

Youth identity has in the past been an area of interest and the concept has been used differently in various approaches thus leading to controversy. Havighurst (as cited in Bredenbeck & Bredschneider, 1997), explained youth identity by identifying a close correlation between identity development in adolescence and developmental tasks. Such tasks include acceptance of one's physical appearance as physical changes occur and understanding that these changes would lead to growth, maturation, and building good value systems as a guide for personal actualisation.

Brettschneider (1997), argues that identity has two definable components, namely personal identity and social identity. Personal identity develops on the basis of continuity of self-experience in the course of life. Social identity evolves from the image that others help to create for the self. The development of an identity during adolescence is a process through which an individual maintains a balance between personal and social identity, which means it is important for the youth to know themselves. Self-knowledge empowers them in the realm of decision-making. With help and encouragement from outside parties (which constitutes social identity), the individual will master decision-making skills required (Brettschneider, 1997).

Shaw, Kleiber and Caldwell (1995), conducted a study, which indicated that female sport participation and physical activities are positively associated with psychological maturity and identity development. Sport aids females to challenge restrictive gender-based prescriptions. If girls know who they are then it is easy for them to make choices, they are confident with themselves and their world.

2.4.2 Personality

People have different views as to who can and cannot play sport. It is a common belief that certain personality types are more suited to the sporting arena. Studies have been conducted to confirm the relationship between certain personality types with the involvement in sports (Morris & Summers, 1895). Several studies did not reveal significant results, but different variables often proved significant in each study. Individuals across the spectrum of personality types initially have a tendency to participate in sport and should individuals feel uncomfortable they will withdraw, leaving behind a group that is more homogeneous in their common interest (Morris & Summers, 1995).

The decision to play sport might be an individual choice driven, instilled and inspired by external factors that usually have little to do with personality types. External factors include encouragement and motivation from parents, teachers, peers or even role models in the community. A conducive sporting environment could also be a motivating factor and the media can be a powerful tool to instil an interest and affinity to sport (Harris, 1994).

Prakasa and Overman (1984) assert that sport, traditionally has been thought of as a process of physically building men and the 'male' athletic personality; this is viewed as tantamount to the 'male personality'. This view suggests that an athlete is supposed to be competitive, rugged, aggressive, tough, independent, dominant, assertive, achievement-oriented and self-controlling. A 'real' woman is supposed to possess different psychological and physical characteristics thus implying femininity and possible fragility. Sport is traditionally a masculine domain and Harris (1985), argues that girls and boys from an early age know that sport participation is valued more positively for males than for females.

2.4.3 Self-Concept

Self-concept is established when people gather information that changes whenever an individual encounters new experiences, it also represents complete knowledge of a person about self, which enables the individual to know her/his own competencies. "Each person develops perceptions and ideas of his/her abilities, characteristics and personal ways of acting, eventually providing a sense of meaning on a self-rating of quality. In this sense, the self-concept is the result of a naive theory or an internal model of a person, which directs behaviour and which is either confirmed or modified on the basis of behaviour and experience" (Brettschneider & Hein, 1997: 361).

The different encounters and interactions that one has with other people will enable the individual to know more about himself or herself. As an individual associates with other people these encounters will either enable them to improve or change their behaviour and sometimes even agree with their present behaviour. Female teenagers are greatly influenced by the evaluation of significant others, they appreciate reinforcement and encouragement based on their own actions.

Brettschneider and Hein (1997) argued that self-concept allows females to assess themselves by acknowledging their weaknesses and strengths. Often females compare their performance to that of other participants and with time, if their performance improves, then their self-concept also improves and the female sport participant feels competent in what they are involved in (Brettschneider & Hein, 1997). Being competent in a particular sporting code enables the girls to be self-motivated and builds self-confidence.

Brettsneider and Hein (1997), conducted a study, which indicates that involvement in sport does not have a negative impact on the self-concept and that top-level sports involvement may benefit the development of a positive self-concept. A positive self-concept in teenage girls who participate in sports elevates the level of self-esteem. Digest (1997), asserts that sport helps to build confidence and a positive body image, which can be linked to lower levels of depression according to women's sports foundation.

2.4.4 Motivation

Learners and adolescents have a variety of reasons why they participate in organised sport with 'having fun' being the most important reason in motivating sports participation. The most frequent form of motivation would be intrinsic, or internally based, rather than external. The overall motivation of youth in physical activity settings is their attribution to success and failure as sport achievers. Their attributes are important because they can affect their emotions, their expectations for the future and their reasons to remain motivated. Learners who are involved in competitive sport develop more internal attributes for success than external attributes for both failure and success in sport.

The Wilson Report; Moms, Dads, Daughters and Sports (The President's Council on physical Fitness and Sports Report, 1997), found that girls who participate in sport most frequently report fun as their major motive, with physical, health and social factors frequently mentioned. This indicates that girls have multiple motives for participating in sport and for them to get full enjoyment from the activity there must be room for these varied opportunities. Girls are motivated differently from boys and when developmental programmes are drawn up this factor has to be taken into consideration (The Presidents Council on Fitness and Sports Report, 1997).

2.4.5 Emotional well-being

Physical fitness is positively associated with mental health and well-being (President's Council Report, 1997). A cross-sectional study of 220 adolescent females investigated the relationship between physical activity, physical and emotional distress accompanied by stress. The females who did not participate in sport displayed greater stress and ill effects than those females that were actively involved in sport or those that adhered to a rigid physical programme Brown and Lawton (Presidents Council Report, 1997).

Exercise programmes, have been prescribed by physicians to assist patients suffering from anxiety disorders. Biddle (1995) argues that exercise is associated with small to moderate reduction in anxiety. Individuals often go to gym whenever they feel their stress levels are peaking. The involvement of girls in sport will enable them to be in control of their emotional well-being.

2.4.6 Disordered Eating

An increased level of exercising can be associated with girls wanting to diet so that they can lose weight. There are athletes who follow a balanced diet and there are those who adopt bad diet habits and use sport and exercise as a means to lose weight. Female athletes may be a high-risk group for developing eating disorders such as anorexia, bulimia and bulimia nervosa, especially with those sporting codes that set weight requirements, such as boxing, swimming and horse racing argued Plaisted (as found in President's Council Report, 1997).

Unhealthy eating habits may be due to unhealthy family dynamics, peer pressure, team-mate modelling and pressure from the coaches. A recent survey of youth coach attitude, knowledge, experiences and recommendations regarding weight control, revealed a tendency for coaches to make decisions about the need for girls to control

their weight and sometimes these decisions are made on the basis of appearance or the need for success in the sport code (Griffin & Harris, 1996). The focus is often on female sport participants and not males.

2.5 SOCIO-CULTURAL FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE FEMALE SPORT PARTICIPATION

During infancy and childhood, children develop attitudes, which are formed through their interaction with their world. Parents and family members play a pertinent role in this regard.

As the child develops, school influence becomes more important argued McGuever (as cited in Davies 1996). When learners are outside the home they are exposed to different behaviours and attitudes. From primary school to senior secondary school, learners make choices, which can build or destroy them as individuals. Individuals adopt attitudes and behaviour patterns and these are internalised.

Entrenching such behavioural patterns will depend on whether such behaviour is approved of in the family dynamics. If these, patterns are accepted by the family then they would be reinforced. The adoption of attitudes and behaviours in relation to sport is often associated with the need to be accepted by their parents, community and the society they interact with on a daily basis argued Sanstroem (cited in Davies 1996). The family is said to be generally responsible for early sports socialisation and interest in sport is often preceded by the parents' interest (Harris, 1994).

Socialisation is " the process whereby individuals learn skills, traits, values, attitudes, norms and knowledge associated with performance of present or anticipated social roles. The sport socialisation process contains three components the socialisation into

sports refers to the social and psychological influences that shape an individual's initial attraction to sports. These influences include the prevalent attitudes and values within the family or the peer group. Socialisation via sport refers to the acquisition of attitudes, values, and knowledge as a consequence of sport involvement. Socialisation out of sport involves those influences that contribute to an individual discontinuing his or her sport participation" McPherson and Brown (as cited in Brustad, 1992 p.60)

The following socialising agents directly or indirectly influence the choices that would be made by teenagers on a daily basis. In this instance it will be the choice to either participate in sports or not.

2.5.1 The Family

Sport has been trivialised, regarded as separate from life and as unrelated to the broader social context and processes. Sport as a socialising agent has either been ignored or seen to be a 'boys thing' (Varpatoli, 1986). The family prevails as the primary socialising agent and to a high extent it also defines appropriate gender behaviour, which sometimes could include sport. Numerous studies have indicated that other people who are usually seen as role models have influenced many individuals who become involved in sport (Varpatoli, 1986). The family is said to be generally responsible for early sports socialisation, including modelling, reinforcement and the shaping of the observed behaviour (Harris, 1994).

Can (as cited in Buffer, 1996), also argues that the socialising process at home for both sexes is different. Boys usually get more support and encouragement to get involved in activities, which offer sporting opportunities. They are furthermore provided with role models who encourage and support participation in physical activities.

Girls however, may not be encouraged to become involved in physical activities. Snyder and Spreitzer (1976), argue that girls receive greater encouragement for certain sporting codes which are seen to be more feminine. Girls are encouraged to participate in gymnastics rather than baseball and athletics. Greendorfer (1992) indicates that with regards to sport, girls and boys tend to be socialised differently, both in South Africa and abroad. A survey was conducted in the Western Cape and the results indicated that girls took part in non-active leisure activities like dancing and partying as opposed to boys who placed higher priority on sport participation.

A study conducted by Van Deventer (1998), on parent involvement indicated that teachers' thought parents were not interested in their children's sports involvement. Some parents show interest by becoming involved in their children's sports coaching while others believed that it is the school's responsibility. An equal number of parents provide their own transport, organise lifts or alternatively regard it as the school's responsibility. Van Deventer (1998/99), indicates that teachers think that parents are negligible in terms of showing interest in sport. Alternatively, parents are aware of the educational value and they always try to motivate their girls, but they are unsure of the quality of the programme.

If parents are prepared to help in terms of transport or purchasing sporting equipment, and show an interest in the sport progress - this would encourage the girls to perform to the best of their ability. There are two important theories that indicate that motivation starts at home. The first theory, Harter's Competence Motivation Theory (1981), indicates that the learner who receives disapproval from significant others will have a diminished sense of competence. Control will greatly rely on external forms of information and approval, which implies that extrinsic motivation will enhance

performance. Learners who receive parental support will be motivated to perform better than those learners who are not motivated by their parents. Interest in sport by children is usually preceded by the parents' interest (Harris, 1994).

The second theory, Nicholls' (1984) Theory of Achievement Orientation states that through achievement the child will display great interest in pursuing challenging opportunities in the future. Nicholls' theory relates to differences in understanding the meaning of competence or ability. Some people think that competence implies performing better than other people and this is termed an ego-involved orientation.

In contrast, other people see competence from a personal point of view, which can lead to personal improvement and this is referred to as task-orientation. According to Nicholls' theory the motive is to demonstrate some level of competence mediated by underlying differences in the personal interpretation of achievement. This theory has attracted a lot of attention but unfortunately has not been empirically tested within the youth sport realm (Higginson, 1995).

A major difference between the two theories is that Nicholls argues that the demonstration of competence is the most gratifying feeling in the sport fraternity, as opposed to Harter, who emphasises that the attainment of competence is what is most rewarding in any world of sport. The demonstration of competence, particularly for learners who have worked extremely hard to reach that level, could be very rewarding.

McPherson and Kenyon (as cited in Higginson, 1985) found that parents were the main socialising agents in the early years of both girls and boys. As the individual gets older significance of family support seemed to decrease and peers, coaches and teachers became the main supportive agents.

2.5.2 The school

School is a place to fulfil certain social roles with peers and the opposite sex (Frydenberg & Lewis, 1993). Most of the decisions that teenagers make are important for their development and self-actualisation and this might have a big impact on their lives at a later stage.

If the pressure to participate in sport is not generated at home, then it should come from the coaches, peers and particularly the teachers who are the main driving forces within the education sector. School is thus important as it moulds the lives of our developing teenagers. On the other hand, Engel (1994) also indicates that schooling is of fundamental importance in perpetuating the notion that some sports are more 'masculine' or 'feminine' than others. For some schools there is still a discrepancy as to which gender should participate in the different sporting codes. A lot of our schools do not have girls' soccer, basketball and volleyball teams as these are labelled as boys sporting codes.

Schools are institutions in which physical activity is mainly organised within an educational context and thus determines whether learners will participate. The link between sport and education plays a crucial role in the holistic development of the learner (Khumalo, 1999).

At Mondeor High school, a survey on learners' behaviour was done in 1991 and the results clearly indicated a positive relationship between learners who participate in sport and their overall performance at school. There is an overall positive relationship between sport involvement and academic achievement as measured by grade point average (Women's Sports Foundation, 1989). The Department of Education in South Africa has made it compulsory for all the schools to offer extra-mural activities.

There are also organised leagues in all codes, all levels, from district to National levels. Involvement in sport and sport-related activities lead to competence, not only in the physical world but, also enhances life skills strategies vital for real life situations. In former model C schools, it is compulsory to play at least one sport and those learners who are competitive go for further training at school or club level. The culture of sport is generated in some schools and the reputation of some schools is dependent on the success of some learners as sport personalities (Khumalo, 1999). It is, important for such schools to produce competent athletes, in spite of all the efforts to nurture boys participation in sport, it seems that female sport participation in high schools has increased from approximately 300,000 in 1970 to 2.4 million in 1995, according to the Women's Sports Foundation (as cited in Kane 1998).

2.5.3 Gender Role Expectations

The gender schema theory (Kiovula 1995 p.355), suggests that "the phenomena of sex typing derives in part from gender based schematic processing which form a generalised readiness to process information on the basis of the sex-linked associations that constitute the gender schema". The selectivity of schematic processing allows us to add meaning to a vast amount of stimuli that we are exposed to and enable us to structure incoming information.

Sex typed individuals thus process incoming information according to how society defines masculinity and femininity (Kiouvula, 1995). People experience discomfort whenever they are expected to take part in cross-sex activities because they know the demands far exceed their ability. This theory clearly establishes expectations and perceptions of 'appropriate behaviour' and will ultimately determine behaviour patterns. Gregson and Colley (1986), argued that during adolescence, there is an adoption of sex

roles. These roles could have an effect on behaviour for example adolescents whose mothers are involved in sports will also more likely be involved in sports. The socialisation process influences gender schema development.

Although it is also important to emphasise that gender has not been able to consistently predict behaviour, it is undoubtedly one of the factors that influence behaviour. Gender differentiation begins at birth and can result in the learning of passive, submissive and nurturing behaviour of the girls and the active, aggressive and autonomous behaviour of the boys, argued Ben (as cited in Kiouvola, 1995). In most homes girls and boys are socialised differently.

2.5.4 Culture

Culture is when a group of people have similar beliefs, which form part of their tradition and custom. According to Hargreaves (1997), culture is seen to be a lived dominance and subordination of particular classes, in the sense that certain cultural beliefs can affect the progress of particular areas in life. Cultural beliefs have a great impact on the involvement of females in sport. Kane (1998), argued that sport could be regarded as one of the most important sites for the production of cultural beliefs and practices that equate gender differences. These cultural beliefs make women think that they will never attain the levels of their male counterparts where sport performance is concerned.

"A women's place is in the kitchen" is still a common saying and many cultures still firmly believe it. Participation in sport masculinises females and is therefore viewed negatively (Fasting, 1987). The above sentence confirms the fact that masculine and feminine behaviours are culture bound. Most males are accepting of females not participating in sport. Birrel (as cited in Kiouvola, 1995), indicated that the participation of women in sport has always been seen as the presence of women in a man's world.

Hargreaves (1997), went on to indicate that women were excluded from convenient venues and they often had to travel long distances for them to be able to play and this was one of the factors causing females to be sidelined.

Despite many negative factors, females who continue to participate in sport are challenging the culture-bound beliefs and are going against deep-seated traditional beliefs. "If sports is a cultural space where gender relations are produced, preserved and publicly celebrated, then women's involvement in sports can be seen as a form of resistance that disturb the apparently already existing logic of male supremacy" argued Birrel and Theberg (as cited in Kane 1998, p. 342).

2.5.5 The media

The media's portrayal of female athletes plays a fundamental role in the preservation of stereotypes that are formulated by people in relation to female involvement in sport. The media's portrayal of female sport participants is limited. There is an increasing awareness of young adult sport fiction books, although very few of them have a female sport protagonist as opposed to those with male protagonists which are still found six times more, argued Brandner (as cited in Kane, 1998).

Fiction portraying female protagonists would be more appealing and such books can encourage girls and make them realise that there are other options in their lives. This will enable teenage girls to counteract the limitations of gender stereotypes and to realise that they can follow their dreams, even in sport. Reading about strong, competent sportswomen could also encourage more black female adolescents to participate in sports.

2.6 SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS INFLUENCING FEMALE SPORT PARTICIPATION

The notion is that social background and availability of opportunities influence the decision to be involved in sport or not (Higginson, 1984). This implies that the economic background of an athlete facilitates the choice to participate in sport because opportunities are readily available. Sport participants can thus afford to travel to where the facilities are situated and they can also afford to buy the necessary sporting equipment.

There are however, many factors that make it impossible for certain females to take part in sport. Cratty (as cited in Higginson, 1984), argued that even if facilities are available a child might not participate in sport if the parents are unconcerned regarding this facet of the child's development. Most black parents in South Africa do not make conscious decisions not to be involved in sport but their lack of involvement and support can be attributed to a number of factors: financial difficulties; unemployment; if employed the hours they keep; and the fact that older siblings have to look after the younger siblings thus makes it impossible for them to participate in sports.

The Marginality Hypothesis states that the disadvantaged socio-economic position of black females in South Africa nurtures marginalisation. There is a class difference caused by the availability of disposable income, occupational mobility and perceived health benefits for the upper classes (Hargreaves, 1997). Occupational flexibility and greater mobility of middle class parents enable them to transport their children from one point to the other. Hargreaves (1997), further indicates that low levels of physical activity are common for the disadvantaged groups because their parents cannot afford to finance expenses, like buying the sports equipment. Due to the lack of facilities they

also have to travel from their own areas to other areas that offer facilities and all these are expenses that the parents need to pay for.

Digest (1997) states that one and a half black girls compared to one-quarter of white girls said that they cannot consider taking part in competitive sports when their families could not finance their transportation needs. According to Hargreaves (1997), lack of parental support has been indicated as one of the factors, which discourage female sport participation.

Digest (1997) indicated that the disadvantaged socio-economic position of black people leads to even further marginalisation, which is in turn responsible for fewer individuals participating in sport. For black females, chances of receiving quality physical education and athletic training at a young age are low, which hampers the development of foundations for subsequent motor development (The President's Council as cited in Digest, 1997).

Graham and Phillip (1999) established that learners who do well academically tend to be relatively advantaged in terms of socio-economic status and getting better educational opportunities. Participation in youth sport is a further example of unequal opportunities because the majority of black females from economically disadvantaged homes will not be able to participate in certain sporting codes. Hargreaves (1997), strongly argued that sport development is only available to those who are not living in socio-economically depressed areas and because of that, most South African women link sport with notions of liberation and enrichment.

Digest (1997), indicated that some low-income group families also depend on the daughters to provide child care for younger siblings after school, to prepare family

meals and to run the homes when the parents are at work. For these reasons it would be impossible for some girls to be involved in sport because it would be perceived as comfort and luxury. Digest (1997), also indicated that most black girls live in unhealthy environments, unsafe areas making it difficult for them to walk from home to coaching sessions.

According to reports from the World Health Organisation (as cited in Van Deventer, 1998), a decline in the participation of sport is most alarming in poor areas, especially in the densely populated inner cities of large and rapidly growing metropolises. Sporting facilities in South African rural areas are unattainable because most of those areas do not even have a proper infrastructure, in many areas young boys and girls make a plan by designing their own leisure activities with objects at hand; ball-like objects that they can use to play with. That is why soccer as a sporting code is popular because it can be played anywhere and facilitating the game is possible.

A gender analysis study conducted by the World Health Organisation (as cited in Van Deventer, 1998), showed that learners placed a higher priority on participation in school sport compared to club sport and leisure activities. The study also showed that girls regularly participate in non-active leisure activities like partying, dancing and listening to music. Boys regularly party, dance and listen to music but then also participate in school sport. Boys place more priority on participation in school sport. Out of the sample that was used in the research, 45% of boys and 35% of girls actually participated in school sport.

Socialisation enables young female adolescents who see their mothers being involved in sports to take an interest and they would also probably be motivated to participate in sport. This does not mean that gender consistently predicts behaviour but it is certainly

one of the factors that influence the socialisation process and eventually the decision to participate in sports. Greendorfer, Hasbrook and McMullin (cited in Higginson, 1984), argued that the sex-role stereotypes particularly from the father's social background could also affect the type of sport that the learner eventually chooses.

The above findings indicate that there are various issues that cause learners not to participate in sport and the socio-economic background may only be indirectly involved as an influence on sport participation (Higgins, 1984). Prospective female athletes lacking personal ambition to succeed in sport may not be influenced to participate to a great extent as a result of the above factors.

2.7 CONCLUSION

The level of status for South African sport should be raised, and sports participation should be nurtured and instilled from pre-primary school carried through to primary, secondary and tertiary level. In the process of grooming and moulding players they are subsequently introduced to Provincial and then National teams for different sporting codes. In Nigeria and Kenya physical education has been introduced as an examination subject, which raised its status to a core subject. (Van Deventer, 1998).

Amrusa (as cited in Van Deventer, 1993), states that learners do not take non-examinable subjects seriously and changing the status of physical education as a subject by declaring it an examinable subject might change the learners' attitudes.

If the standard of sport is to improve in schools, the implication is that there would be a need to provide facilities, equipment, qualified teachers, coaches and sports psychologists. It would be the role of all the agents to encourage and motivate all the learners with special focus on the girls.

The focus should be on developmental dimensions, which help to make links between social requirements, individual needs, and personal interests. As indicated in this chapter, choices that are made in life are usually influenced by physiological, psychological and social factors.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Based on the literature, the primary aim of this study is to gain clarity as to why high school girls do participate or do not participate in sport, although most schools offer the necessary sporting facilities. In South African sport, females are largely underrepresented either as sport participants, coaches, team managers or even psychologists and this lack of involvement is also visible in the schools. This research is school-based, focusing particularly on the involvement of females in sport. The underlying reasons for sport participation and non-participation will be identified and analysed.

The Department of Education has a sports policy, which compels all the educational institutions to encourage involving learners in sport. The Education Department has also put into place structures that involve the different schools to ensure that there are facilities and equipment at all the schools.

Schools are not only expected to play friendly matches but they are also expected to compete in leagues that are at a higher level. There are league games at all levels i.e. district, provincial and eventually at national level. There are also special tournaments similar to out-reach and developmental projects organised by districts to reach out to schools in the peripheral areas of the cities as well as disadvantaged communities to ensure that those learners also take part in sport, Government's white paper (1998).

This chapter will focus on the research method used to gather the necessary information, which will enable us to have a better understanding of the underlying reasons why some girls participate and some do not participate in sport.

Two important instruments were used: a self designed questionnaire and the second, the High School Personality Questionnaire. The self-designed questionnaire was formulated from some of the important information that became evident from the literature review. The two instruments are important because the concluding results of this study will be based on the different responses provided by the sample.

3.2 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

Mouton and Marais (1990), describe quantitative research as an approach that is highly formalised, is explicitly controlled, and has a range that is more precisely refined, and in terms of methods used, is relatively similar to the physical sciences. This study is descriptive in the sense that after the collection of data, one would be able to give a description of the two groups of girls, one being the sports participants and the other being the non-sports participants.

Jackson (as cited in Morris & Summers, 1995), emphasised the need for sport psychologists to move away from traditional scientific approaches to try and measure the behaviour of sport participants. He acknowledges the substantial knowledge gained following the traditional data gathering methods with the researcher being an outsider and wanting to know more about the particular sporting code. There is now a need to better understand the behaviours and experiences of people in sport and physical activity settings. This approach seeks to get a clearer picture and to make sense of sport participants' behaviours and experiences in a real life situation.

In this particular study the researcher has chosen to use structured, objective questionnaires to gather the necessary information. The researcher might have difficulty in accommodating response patterns that were not anticipated but ultimately the questionnaire will enable the researcher to better describe the sports participants and non-sports participants. There is no single, perfect method of research and the quantitative approach is certainly not a perfect approach it, has its own limitations.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Contact with the three high schools was made by telephone to set an appointment. The researcher went to the schools and explained the fact that she is doing a Masters degree with the University of Johannesburg, and that she would like to use a sample group of 100 girls each from grade 10-12.

The issue of having a random sample was raised and it seemed it would be problematic selecting the sample group. Firstly, the schools were nearing examination time and learners were preparing for the exams. The second reason is that if a random sample had to be chosen, all classes of grade 10-12 would have to be disrupted. For these reasons a convenience sample from the three high schools was the only alternative. This meant that one class in each of the three grades would be used as part of the sample.

With two of the schools it was easy to calendar suitable days, which were those days when they had assembly and immediately after that the group went for break. This allocated time was ideal, as the learners would not miss any lessons. On a specific day the girls were called into an appropriate venue and the questionnaires were distributed. The researcher explained the procedure and the process of completing the questionnaires. Most girls took an hour and a half to complete the questionnaire and

most of the girls requested clarity on the ranking questions. With the third high school it was difficult ascertaining a convenient time and as a result, the questionnaires had to be left with the sports co-ordinator and were to be collected two weeks later. Unfortunately, many of the questionnaires were not returned as the girls were following their individual examination and study programmes.

3.4 RESEARCH SAMPLE

3.4.1 Selection of the Sample

Grade 10-12 female students of three ex-model C high schools were selected within the southern suburbs of Johannesburg to participate in this research. Before the new dispensation, which is pre-1994, model C schools were particularly intended for white learners and in the early 90's small numbers of black learners were enrolled into the so-called (white) schools. These schools were selected to be part of the sample as they currently represent a real democratic community with all races fairly represented.

These schools have facilities, equipment, sports educators, sports managers and some also employ outside coaches. As a result, those learners who love sport have the opportunity and the privilege to succeed in the sporting world. As indicated in an earlier chapter, some schools are even referred to as sport schools, whereby they groom boys and girls for the future of South African sport (Khumalo, 1999). Within this context, the availability of facilities and equipment makes it contradictory to say that girls are still under represented within the different sporting codes available in the schools. Females make up 65% of the South African population but only a small minority are represented in the world of sports.

3.4.2 Description of the Sample

Three hundred questionnaires were prepared, with one hundred going to each of the three schools, only 266 questionnaires were returned.

The sample was made up of three groups: there were 100 (37.6%) grade 10, 103 (38.7%) grade 11 and 63 (23.7%) grade 12. Out of the grade 10 group there were 58 (42.6%) black girls, 23 (30.7%) coloured, Indian and Asian girls and 19 (35.2%) white girls. The grade 11 group was made up of 60 (44.1%) black, 25 (33.3%) coloured group and 18 (33.3%) white girls. The grade 12 group consisted of 18 (13.2%) black, 27 (36.0%) coloured and 17 (31.5%) white girls.

42 (15.8%) of the girls were 15 years old or younger, 77 (29.1%) of the girls were 16 years old, 92(34.7%) of the girls were 17 years old and 54 (20.4%) of the girls were 18 years or older.

3.4.3 Confidentiality and Anonymity

Everyone is entitled to privacy about her thoughts, beliefs and convictions and unfortunately some of these issues are of interest to psychologists. Researchers often have to collect this kind of information, Bishop (1994). After the collection of data it is the responsibility of the researcher to maintain confidentiality by restricting access to the information by other people.

Bishop (1994), argued that confidentiality is the shielding of individual subject's data from unauthorised disclosure. In this particular study the researcher would indicate to the subjects that the questionnaires are anonymous and one way of ensuring this, they should not write their names on the questionnaire. Even the report-back of the study

would be done in such a way that it would not be possible to identify the individuals. Another way of keeping confidentiality is to make sure that reporting is only done at group level, which makes it totally impossible to identify individuals.

3.5 Research Instruments

Two research instruments were used, one being a survey questionnaire, which was based on the literature review. The literature review was the main guideline as to which questions to include in the survey. The second instrument was the High School Personality Questionnaire (HPQ), which was drafted by the Human Sciences Research Council of the Institute for Psychological and Edumetric Research.

3.5.1 Questionnaire

According to Berk (1997), a questionnaire is similar to a highly structured interview, except that respondents read the questions and mark their answers on paper rather than respond verbally to the interviewer.

A self-drafted questionnaire based on the literature review had to be formulated as all the other available questionnaires were irrelevant and as a result something relevant had to be designed. The already available questionnaires were inappropriate as they were intended for specific racial groups and culturally biased.

The questionnaire was divided into three sections. Descriptive questions were covered in section A, section B covered the attitudes of the non-sport participants towards sport and section C was only aimed at the sports participants.

3.5.2 Advantages of using a Questionnaire

- a. Questionnaires are ideal to use as they can be given out to a large number of people at the same time.
- b. The standardised method of asking questions also allows the researcher to compare the responses of the different subjects (Berk, 1997).
- c. The questionnaire enables the researcher to ask questions that are relevant and vital for the study, in this particular research the questions were mainly formulated after the literature had been reviewed.
- d. Questionnaires also allow the researcher to treat all participants in the same way eliminating the possibility of prompting some participants more the others thereby distorting results (Berk, 1997).
- e. Answers are usually brief and they can be in the form of multiple-choice questions, yes/no or true/false statements, which make it very easy for the respondents to do.
- f. A computer can do tabulation of the answers, which is reliable, accurate and quicker to use.

3.5.3 Limitations of the Questionnaire

- a. Questionnaires do not yield as much depth as clinical interviews.
- b. Questionnaires may still be affected by the problem of inaccurate reporting.
- c. At times participants chose not to answer certain questions or they totally misunderstood the question, and this could possibly affect the compilation of the final results.
- d. It is also possible for subjects just to tick true or false without even reading the statements even though the researcher will not be aware of such behaviour.

3.5.4 The Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted with a grade 12 group would not be used in the actual research. Ten girls were given the questionnaire and it took approximately 30 minutes to complete. The researcher made sure that all races were equally represented to receive better feedback.

After interviewing the girls used in the pilot study a few changes were made. The numbering and the structure of the questionnaire was changed as recommended. Clearly questions for sport participants and non-sport participants had to be divided into sections.

It was suggested that instructions be given at the beginning of each section so that it is easier to answer the questions. Instructions for the two ranking questions had to be simplified, as they were not clear. Lastly, it was decided that the entire questionnaire should be numbered, including the statements that had to be answered by using a four-point scale.

This questionnaire on its own did not represent psychology as a field of study and as a result there was a need to include a personality questionnaire. A personality questionnaire designed by the Institute for Personality and Ability Testing (1981), was used. The personality questionnaire had 142 statements with four possible answers: strongly agree, agree, strongly disagree and disagree.

3.5.5 High-School Personality Questionnaire

The high school personality questionnaire consisted of 142 statement questions and the answer could be a no, neither yes or no or a yes. The results were analysed according

to the 14 personality factors. The purpose was to ascertain if girls with certain personalities, for example extroverts tended to play sport, or if introverts generally play sports.

3.6 Data Gathering

The researcher introduced herself to the participants and explained that she is doing her Masters degree through the University of Johannesburg. She further explained that completing the questionnaire as honestly as possible would allow her to draw certain conclusions and perhaps later come up with some solutions.

The format of the questionnaire explained that the questionnaire was divided into three sections. Section A was to be filled in by all the girls, section B only by those girls who do not take part in sport and section C by those girls that take part in sport.

The girls were informed not to disclose their names, as they were supposed to remain anonymous. The girls were also told that as soon as the results were out they would be sent to the school for their perusal if they were interested in the outcome of the study. At the end, the researcher thanked the girls for agreeing to be subjects in the study.

Three hundred copies of the school's questionnaire and the answer sheet for the personality questionnaire were made. A hundred copies were to go to each of the three high schools. The schools questionnaire and the answer sheet for the personality questionnaire were numbered one to three hundred and stapled together. A hundred copies of the personality questionnaire were made and collected separately as they had to be used in the other two schools.

After the collection of the questionnaire from the last school, the researcher started to tally the raw scores using the score charts and then started with the process of capturing the data.

3.7 Data Analysis

The responses obtained from the questionnaire were converted into statistical data, which will be presented in chapter 4. The analysis of the data made it possible for the researcher to draw vital information pertaining to the participation of females in sport. For analysis of data Pearson's correlation, and Sigmund two-tailed were used to establish statistical significance on the 0,05 and 0,01 level, and correlation's also at 0,05 and 0,01 level were used.

The data from the high school personality questionnaire was analysed. The various personality factors were analysed to see whether girls with a certain personality showed a tendency to play sport or not. The Pearson's correlation and T-test were used to ascertain whether there is a difference between the sport participants and the non-sport participants and the various personality traits.

3.8 Practical Suggestions

It would have been ideal to hand out a few extra questionnaires to the three high schools. The reason would be to make up for those questionnaires that were spoilt for various reasons. The first reason was incomplete questionnaires. Secondly some questionnaires were not returned and finally some were incorrectly completed because the instructions were misinterpreted. The ranking questions were unclear for some subjects who then numbered all answers instead of ranking 1-3 reasons according to the order of importance.

The time slot was not conducive to dedicated completion of the questionnaire. The questionnaire could have been distributed immediately after writing an exam and this would have enabled the researcher to use random sampling.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will expand upon the presentation and discussion of data gathered by means of a survey questionnaire and the High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ) (HSRC, 1981). Tables and graphs will be used to provide a clear description of the gathered data. In the latter part of the chapter tables and diagrams will be presented and significant data will subsequently be discussed. Data that was not significant will be mentioned briefly and tables or diagrams of insignificant data will not be provided.

4.2 PRESENTATION OF DATA

Data will be presented in the same sequence as that of the questionnaire. This makes for easier reading and reference to the corresponding question in the survey questionnaire.

4.2.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

A convenience sample of students in grades 10 to 12 was used in this study. Three hundred (300) questionnaires were administered to three selected High Schools (one hundred (100) per high school in the southern regions of Johannesburg). Of the three hundred questionnaires, only 266 workable questionnaires were returned and used as the appropriate set of data for this study. The distribution of data with regards to the sample will be presented next.

4.2.1.1 GRADE

TABLE 4.1

GRADE	Count	%
Grade 10	100	37.6
Grade 11	103	38.7
Grade 12	63	23.7
TOTAL	266	100.0%

A convenience sample was completed by 100 (37.6%) grade 10, 103 (38.6%) grade 11 and 63 (23.7%) grade 12 girls (See Table 4.1). A smaller number of grade 12's participated in the study, due to the fact that most of the girls were busy with their preliminary exams at the time. Regardless of the difference in numbers of the sample it is regarded as representative of the different grades.

4.2.1.2 RACE

TABLE 4.2

RACE	Count	%
BLACK	136	51.3
COLOURED OR ASIAN	75	28.3
WHITE	54	20.4
TOTAL	265	100%

One participant did not identify herself in terms of race and did not fill in the item on the questionnaire. Thus, a number of 265 participants constitute the sample size for race. 51.3% (n=136) of the sample were black learners, 28.3% (n=75) were coloured or Asian, while 20.4% (n=54) were white, (see Table 4.2).

Although there was not an even distribution of race in the sample, it is more representative of the constitution of the South African population as a whole.

4.2.1.3 AGE

TABLE 4.3

AGE	Count	%
15 years or younger	42	15.8
16 years	78	29.3
17 years	92	34.6
18 years or older	54	20.3
TOTAL	266	100%

Table 4.3 indicates the distribution of the sample in terms of age. Most of the girls, 34.6% (n=92) were 17 years old, while 29,3% (n=78) were 16 years old. 20.3% (n=54) were 18 years and older, while 15.8% (n=42) were 15 years and younger.

4.2.1.4 RACE AND GRADE

TABLE 4.4

	GRADE			
RACE	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12	TOTAL
Black: count	58	60	18	136
Percentage within race	(42.6%)	(44.1%)	(13.2%)	(100%)
Coloured/Asian: count	23	25	27	75
Percentage within race	(30.7%)	(33.3%)	(36.0%)	(100%)
White: count	19	18	17	54
Percentage within race	(35.2%)	(33.3%)	(31.5%)	(100%)
TOTAL: count	100	103	62	265
Percentage within race	(37.7%)	(38.9%)	(23.4%)	(100%)

Table 4.4 indicates the cross tabulation for race and grades. The distribution of girls according to race and grades are similarly representative of the overall South African population, except for the distribution of black and coloured girls in grade 12. There were more coloured and Asian participants (n=27, 36%) in the grade 12 group than black participants (n=18, 13.2%). Black girls were thus under-represented in this group only. The Pearson Chi-Square for the cross tabulation (see Table 4.5), was 0.002, indicating that race and grades are not independent of one another (with p value < 0.05).

TABLE 4.5

Chi-Square Tests	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16.539 (a)	4	.002
Likelihood Ratio	16.837	4	.002
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.054	1	.008
N of Valid Cases	265		
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 12.63			

4.2.1.5 AGE AND RACE

TABLE 4.6

	AGE				
RACE	15 years & younger	16 years	17 years	18 years & Older	TOTAL
Black: count	15	41	49	31	38
% within race	(11.0%)	(30.1%)	(36%)	(22.8%)	(100%)
Coloured/Asian: count	20	17	27	11	75
% within race	(26.7%)	(22.7%)	(36%)	(14.7%)	(100%)
White: count	7	19	16	12	54
% within race	(13%)	(35.2%)	(29.6%)	(22.2%)	(100%)
TOTAL: COUNT	42	77	92	54	265
% within race	(15.8%)	(29.1%)	(34.7%)	(20.4%)	(100%)

Table 4.6 indicates the cross tabulation for race and grades. The distribution of girls according to race and grades are similarly representative of the demographics of South Africa, except for the under representation of black participants (n=15, 11%) among the 15 years and younger group, the 16 year group (n=41, 30.1%). The Pearson Chi-Square for the cross tabulation (see Table 4.7), was 0.066, indicating that race and grades are independent of one another (with p value < 0,05).

Table 4.7

Chi-Square Tests	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.808 (a)	6	.066
Likelihood Ratio	11.291	6	.080
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.248	1	.264
N of Valid Cases	265		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.56

4.2.1.6. PERSONALITY

Table 4.8

PERSONALITY	Count	%
Outgoing Person	131	49.8
Non-Outgoing person	132	50.2
TOTAL	263	100%

The total number of respondents for this question was 263, as three participants did not fill in this particular question. The reason could be that girls in these grades were not sure whether they experienced themselves to be outgoing or not. 131 (49.8%) respondents would describe themselves as outgoing people, while 132 (50.2%) of the respondents would describe themselves as people who are not outgoing.

The two descriptions of personality were almost equally represented in the sample. If these types of personality descriptions determine sports participation, then almost 50% of the girls are expected to be taking part in sport.

The results (see table 4.9) in this study however, show that only 36.8% (n=98) of the participants participated in sport. All the girls that would describe themselves as outgoing would not necessarily participate in sport.

4.2.1.7 SPORT PARTICIPATION

TABLE 4.9

SPORT PARTICIPATION	Count	%
Yes	98	36.8
No	168	63.2
TOTAL	266	100%

A total of 98 (36.8%) of the girls in the sample indicated that they do participate in sport, while 168 (63.2%) of the participants indicated that they do not participate in sport. A large number of the participants in the sample did not participate in sport, indicating that females in high schools might be under-represented in the world of sport. These statistics agree with the world wide under representation of females in sport.

4.2.1.8 LEVEL OF SPORT PARTICIPATION

TABLE 4.10

LEVEL OF PARTICIPATION	Count	%
Organised Sport	67	70.5
Non-organised Sport	28	29.5
TOTAL	95	100%

The total number of respondents for this question was 95, as three participants did not complete this particular question. The reason could be that the girls who participate in sport, did not know whether their participation was on an organised level or not.

The respondents were given only 2 (two) options, namely organised sport and non-organised sport. 67 (70.5%) of the participants indicated that they take part in organised sport, while 28 (29.5%) indicated that they participated in sport on a non-organised level. Girls participating on a non-organised level were under represented in this sample.

This could indicate that the availability of organised sport in high schools would encourage more females to participate in sport, as most of the girls seem to like participating on an organised level.

4.2.1.9 TYPE OF SPORT

TABLE 4.11

TYPE OF SPORTS					
Netball	Tennis	Athletics	Hockey	Squash	Cricket
N=38 14.3%	N=17 6.4%	N=16 6%	N=7 2.6%	N=4 1.5%	N=6 2.3%

TYPE OF SPORTS				
Rugby	Badminton	Soccer	Swimming	Other
N=1 0.4%	N=6 2.3%	N=9 3.4%	N=5 1.9%	N=32 12%

Most participants in the sample play netball (n=38, 14.3%), followed by tennis (n=17, 6.4%) and athletics (n=16, 6%). These are the most popular sports available in high schools on an organised level. A large number of 32 (12%) of the participants indicate that they participate in a sport not given as an option in the questionnaire.

This distribution indicates that girls are participating on quite a variety of different types of sport.

4.2.2 REASONS FOR NON PARTICIPATION IN SPORT

Learners who indicated that they do not participate in sport only answered questions in section B. Based on the literature study (see Chapter 2); twelve reasons for not participating in sports were identified and formulated as ranking questions. Learners were instructed to rank, in the order of importance, the three most important reasons for not participating in sports. They had to allocate 1 to the first most important reason, 2 to the second most important reason and 3 to the third most important reason for not participating in sports. Table 4.12 summarises the results obtained in this research.

Table 4.12

Participation	1 st Rank		2 nd Rank		3 rd Rank	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
I do not like sports	17	10.6	6	3.8	15	9.5
I have household duties	20	12.4	25	15.7	11	7.0
I have to fetch my siblings	1	0.6	6	3.8	4	2.5
Parents do want me involved	3	1.9	1	0.6	4	2.5
Sports are played by boys	2	1.2	7	4.4	1	0.6
Can't afford the equipment	16	9.9	9	5.7	12	7.6
Body not ideal	11	6.8	20	12.6	13	8.2
Not motivated	27	16.8	26	16.4	23	14.6
Academic work too Important	40	24.8	24	15.1	17	10.8
Too much pressure	7	4.3	19	11.9	26	16.5
Boyfriend forbids it	2	1.2	2	1.3	8	5.1
Participation in cultural Activities instead	9	5.6	7	4.4	9	5.7
Other	6	3.7	7	4.4	15	9.5
TOTAL	161	100.0%	159	100.0%	158	100.0%

4.2.2.1 The first ranked reasons for non-participation

The following were the four most important reasons that the learners ranked as the most important reason for not participating in sport. 40 (24.8%) of the girls indicated that their first most important reason for not participating in sport is the fact that their academics are more important than sports, while 27 (16.8%) girls indicated that they are not motivated, 20 (12.4%) had household duties to perform, and 17 (10.6%) because they do not like sports.

4.2.2.2 The second ranked reasons for non-participation

The following were the four most important reasons that the learners ranked as their second reason for not participating in sport. 26 (16.4%) indicated that they are not motivated to participate in sport, 25 (15.7%) had household duties to perform when they got home after school, 24 (15.1%) value the importance of their academic work before sport and 20 (12.6%) of the girls felt that their bodies were not ideal for playing sport.

4.2.2.3 The third ranked reasons for non-participation

The following were the four most important reasons that the learners ranked as their third reason for not participating in sport. A total of 26 (16.5%) indicated that there was too much pressure involved with sport participation, while 23 (14.6%) indicated that they were not motivated to play sports. 17 (10.8%) found their academic work to be more important than sport participation and 15 (9.5%) indicated that they do not like sport.

4.2.2.4 Summary

The importance of academic work seems to be an important reason why girls don't participate in sport, as it came up in all the rankings for not participating. This indicates that most girls consider their academics to be important and they do not see how they can maintain a balance between academics and sports. Not being motivated is another important factor, which also came up in all the three ranks. They probably do not know any successful sport women; there could be a lack of available role models in their immediate families and no one to inspire or motivate them to take part in sport. Many of the girls also feel like there might be too much pressure in the world of sport for them to handle. Either they have to perform or their teams must compete, thus putting them under pressure to perform and win.

The fact that some girls had to perform household duties after school came up in two ranks. This could mean that some of the girls would like to play sport but the fact that they have to perform household duties after school makes it impossible for them to participate in sports. Some of the girls did not participate in sport because they do not like it. For these girls it could be important to put into place methods and styles of practice that are exciting and that would make the girls participate more.

4.2.3 REASONS FOR SPORT PARTICIPATION

Learners who indicated that they do participate in sport only answered questions in Section C. Based on the literature study (see Chapter 2); twelve reasons for participating in sports were identified and formulated as ranking questions. Learners were instructed to rank, in the order of importance, the three most important reasons for participating in sports. They had to allocate 1 to the first most important reason, 2 to the second most important reasons and 3 to the third most important reason for participating in sports. Table 4.13 summarises the results obtained in this research.

Table 4.13

Participation	1 st Rank		2 nd Rank		3 rd Rank	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Enjoy sports	52	55.3	16	17.0	11	11.8
Want healthy lifestyle	21	22.3	40	42.6	9	9.7
All friends play sport	1	1.1	8	8.5	12	12.9
To lose weight	6	6.4	12	12.8	11	11.8
Parents want participation	2	2.1	2	2.1	3	3.2
Like to compete against others	3	3.2	10	10.6	21	22.6
Facilities are available	1	1.1	3	3.2	9	9.7
Envisage a career in sports	7	7.4	2	2.1	4	4.3
Everyone in the family participates			1	1.1	4	4.3
Family history of sports people					4	4.3
All siblings play	1	1.1			2	2.2
Other					3	3.2
TOTAL	94	100.0%	94	100.0%	93	100.0%

4.2.3.1. The first ranked reason for sport participation

A total number of 52 (55.3%) of the girls indicated as the most important reason for sport participation was that they enjoy it, while 21 (22.3%) indicated that they play sport because they want a healthy life style. 7 (7.4%) of the girls played sport because they envisage a career in sport and 6 (6,4%) participate in sport because they wanted to lose weight.

4.2.3.2 The second ranked reason for sport participation

The following reasons were ranked as the second most important reasons for sport participation.

Wanting a healthy life style was indicated by 40 (42.6%) of the girls as important, while 16 (17.0%) of the girls played sport because they enjoyed it. 12 (12.8%) of the girls indicated that they play sport because they wanted to lose weight and 10 (10.6%) of girls indicated that they participated in sport because they enjoyed competing against others.

4.2.3.3 The third ranked reason for sport participation

The factor ranked third, indicate that 21 (22.6%) of the girls like to compete against other people. 12 (12.9%) of the girls participated because their peer group play sports, while the enjoyment of sport and wanting to lose weight was indicated by 11 (11.8%) as their reasons for sport participation. Wanting a healthy life style and playing because facilities are available were both ranked by 9 (9.7%) of the girls as their third most important reason for sport participation.

4.2.3.4 Summary

A healthy life style is the favoured choice in all three ranks, indicating that girls are aware of the importance of maintaining a healthy life style. Maintaining a healthy life style is coupled with the need to lose weight and for most girls maintenance of weight is an important aspect of their lives and this could be a factor for playing sport,

Most importantly the majority of the girls in this sample play sport because they enjoy it. This could imply that where there is enjoyment there is a good enough reason for playing sport. Some girls have a competitive spirit and it is motivating for them to compete against others and this nurtures the love for involvement in sport.

4.3 CROSS TABULATIONS AGAINST BACKGROUND QUESTION

4.3.1 Do you play sport? * Grade

	GRADE			TOTAL
	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12	
Yes I do play sports	41 (41,8%)	42 (42,9%)	15 (15,3%)	98 (100%)
No I don't play sports	59 (35,1%)	61 (36,3%)	48 (28,6%)	168 (100%)
TOTAL	100(37,6%)	103 (38,7%)	63 (23,7%)	266 (100%)

The above table indicates the number of sport participants and non-sport participants within the three grades. Of the total, 98 grade 10's to 12's who play sport 41 (41,8%) were in grade 10, 42 (42,9%) were in grade 11 and 15 (15,3%) were in grade 12. Of the total of 168 who do not play sport, 59 (35,1%) were in grade 10, 61 (36,3%) were in grade 11 and 48 (28,6%) were in grade 12. The Pearson Chi-square indicated a symptomatic significance of .049. This means that the decision to participate and not to participate in sport is interdependent on grades.

The results also show that the percentage of sport participants within their grades stay consistent in grades 10 (41%) to 11 (40,7%), but decrease significantly in grade 12 (23,8%) (see table 4.14). The results indicate that as girls get older their participation drops because there are significantly fewer girls in grade 12 that participate in sport. A possible reason is the fact that academic demands play an important rote in the final year of formal learning.

4.3.2 Do you play sport? * Age

Table 4.15

	AGE				TOTAL
	15/Younger	16 years	17 years	18/older	
I do play sport	13 (30.9%)	33 (42.3%)	35 (38%)	17 (31.4%)	98 (100%)
I don't play sport	29 (69%)	45 (57.6%)	57 (62%)	37 (68.6%)	168 (100%)
TOTAL	42 (15.8%)	78 (29.3%)	92 (34.6%)	54 (20.3%)	266 (100%)
% of students participating according to age	13 (30.9%)	33 (42.3%)	35 (38%)	17 (31.4%)	

A total of 42 (15,8%) girls were 15 years or younger and 13 (30,9%) of them played sport as opposed to 29 (69%) who did not play sport. A total of 78 (29,3%) girls were 16 years old and 33 (42,3%) of them played sport and 45 (57,6%) did not play sport. A total of 92 (34,6%) girls were 17 years old and 35 (38%) of them were sport participants as opposed to 57 (62%) who did not. Lastly a total of 54 (20,3%) girls were 18 years or older and 17 (31,4%) of them were sport participants and 37 (68,6%) did not participate in sport.

For all the age groups, there were less than half the total number of girls per age group that played sport. The number of non-sport participants was almost twice the number of sports participant for all the age groups. The number of sport participants was far less than the number of participants. Most of the girls that played sport were 16 and 17 year olds.

4.3.3 Do you play sport? * Race

TABLE 4.16

	RACE			TOTAL
	Black	Coloured	White	
I do play sport	60 (44%)	16 (21,3%)	21 (38,8%)	97 (100%)
Don't play sports	76 (66%)	59 (78,7%)	33 (61,2%)	168 (100%)
TOTAL	136 (51,3%)	75 (28,3%)	54 (20,4%)	265 (100%)
% of students participating in sport according to race	60 (44%)	16 (21,3%)	21 (38,8%)	

The table above (Table 4.16) indicates the number of learners who play sport according to race.

Out of 136 (51,3%) black girls in the sample 60 (44%) played sport and 76 (66%) did not. Out of 75 (28,3%) coloured girls 16 (21,3%) played sports and 59 (78,7%) did not play sports. Out of 54 (20,4%) white girls 21 (38,8%) of them played sports as opposed to 33 (61,2%) who did not play sports. One girl did not answer this question and the total number of respondents for this question is 265.

The Pearson Chi-square test indicates significance of .004, which indicates that the decision by different race groups to play sports or not are not related to the factor: race.

The results of this sample indicate that almost an equal amount of black girls (44%) and white girls (38,8%) taking part in sport at school level, while a significantly smaller amount of coloured girls (21,3%) participate in sport.

This indicates that the coloured group might be under-represented in comparison with their black and white counterparts. Zuma (1992) argued that as more black girls become involved in sport, more women of colour would be empowered thus perhaps taking on roles in the decision making process.

Almost half of the total number of black and white girls was involved in sport as opposed to the coloured group, the coloured group having far more girls who didn't take part in sport. This could be representing what is reflected in the greater community where the coloured group is under-represented in the world of sports.

4.3.4 Do you play sport? * Personality

TABLE 4.17

	PERSONALITY		TOTAL
	Outgoing Person	Non-Outgoing Person	
I do play sports	50 (38.1%)	39 (29.5%)	98 (100%)
I don't play sports	72 (54.9%)	93 (70.5%)	165 (100%)
TOTAL	131 (49.8%)	13 (50.2%)	263 (100%)

From the sample, 13 (49,8%) of the subjects indicated that they were outgoing and of these subjects 50 (38,1%) of them played sport and 72 (54,9%) did not play sport 132 (50,2%) of the subjects indicated that they were not outgoing and 39 (29,5%) played sport while 93 (70,5%) of them did not play sport.

The Pearson Chi-Square results are significant at .009 indicating that personality does not determine the decision whether or not to participate in sport. Three girls did not answer this question and the total number of respondents for this question is 263.

The results indicate that the factor- being outgoing or not does not determine the decision to participate or not to participate in sports. The number of outgoing and non-outgoing girls was relatively the same but for both categories there were more non-sport participants.

4.3.5. PERCEPTIONS OF SPORT

Table 4.18

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	TOTAL
There is no money in sports	Count	68	132	54	12	266
	%	25.6	49.6	20.3	4.5	100.0%
There are few job opportunities in sports	Count	41	108	100	15	264
	%	15.5	40.9	37.9	5.7	100.0%
There are no proper sporting facilities for women	Count	52	105	82	24	263
	%	19.8	39.9	31.2	9.1	100.0%
Female sport participants do not get the support that males get	Count	31	43	96	90	260
	%	11.9	16.5	36.9	34.6	100.0%
I intend taking part in sports after completing Grade 12	Count	63	78	68	50	259
	%	24.3	30.1	26.3	19.3	100.0%
The media always portray women as passive rather than active people	Count	23	55	127	51	256
	%	9.0	21.5	49.6	19.9	100.0%
A career in sports is short term	Count	28	66	103	66	263
	%	10.6	25.1	39.2	25.1	100.0%
S.A. woman can have successful career in sports	Count	19	59	110	71	259
	%	7.3	22.8	42.5	27.4	100.0%

I envisage a career for myself in sport	Count	91	93	47	23	254
	%	35.8	36.6	18.5	9.1	100.0 %
It is difficult for females to get sponsors from companies sponsoring sports	Count	33	93	92	42	260
	%	12.7	35.8	35.4	16.2	100.0%
Companies prefer sponsoring sportsmen	Count	30	66	91	75	262
	%	11.5	25.2	34.7	28.6	100.0%
Black woman find it more difficult to be sponsored than white sports woman	Count	59	93	57	47	256
	%	23.0	36.3	22.3	18.4	100.0%
Only rough woman play sports	Count	144	92	17	13	266
	%	54.1	34.6	6.4	4.9	100.0%
Females that play sport are lesbians	Count	197	47	6	13	263
	%	74.9	17.9	2.3	4.9	100.0%
Females that play sport look more like men	Count	115	80	46	20	261
	%	44.1	30.7	17.6	7.7	100.0%
Females who play sports look more attractive than those who don't	Count	90	83	48	41	262
	%	34.4	31.7	18.3	15.6	100.0%
Females who play sports tend to have irregular menstrual cycles	Count	91	116	31	14	252
	%	36.1	46.0	12.3	5.6	100.0%

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	TOTAL
Females who play sports are arrogant	Count	108	113	26	16	263
	%	41.1	43.0	9.9	6.1	100.0%
Females who play sports rarely excel	Count	82	114	46	14	256
	%	32.0	44.5	18.0	5.5	100.0%
Women are not physically strong enough to excel in sports	Count	159	75	14	12	260
	%	61.2	28.8	5.4	4.6	100.0%
Women who play sports want to control their men	Count	148	81	20	14	263
	%	56.3	30.8	7.6	5.3	100.0%
Women who play sports have a positive attitude towards life	Count	20	38	119	87	264
	%	7.6	14.4	45.1	33.0	100.0%
Men feel threatened by females who excel in sports	Count	37	69	78	76	260
	%	14.2	26.5	30.0	29.2	100.0%
Women who play sports find it difficult to have a meaningful heterosexual relationship	Count	109	115	17	19	260
	%	41.9	44.2	6.5	7.3	100.0%
Women play sports so that they can meet people	Count	59	103	80	22	264
	%	22.3	39.0	30.3	8.3	100.0%
Boys are not attracted to girls that play sports	Count	148	93	9	13	263
	%	56.3	35.4	3.4	4.9	100.0%
Sports women are prone to having eating disorders	Count	94	112	35	21	262
	%	35.9	42.7	13.4	8.0	100.0%
Females that play sports are more confident	Count	35	44	119	65	263
	%	13.3	16.7	45.2	24.7	100.0%
People who can handle pressure do well in sports	Count	30	51	113	69	263
	%	11.4	19.4	43.0	26.2	100.0%

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	TOTAL
Sports achievers are more recognised than academic achievers	Count	33	80	91	58	262
	%	12.6	30.5	34.7	22.1	100.0%
It is prestigious to play sports at my school	Count	27	79	103	50	259
	%	10.4	30.5	39.8	19.3	100.0%
Excelling in sports is good for a person	Count	17	35	120	90	262
	%	6.5	13.4	45.8	34.4	100.0%
I am afraid of being criticised by other people	Count	93	72	60	38	263
	%	35.4	27.4	22.8	14.4	100.0%
I don't think I have the ability to play sports	Count	123	71	42	27	263
	%	46.8	27.0	16.0	10.3	100.0%
There are successful sports women within my country	Count	10	25	82	144	261
	%	3.8	9.6	31.4	55.2	100.0%
S.A. women don't play sports because they have to perform household duties	Count	138	71	32	23	264
	%	52.3	26.9	12.1	8.7	100.0%
Women who play sports experience childbearing difficulties	Count	123	102	18	15	258
	%	47.7	39.5	7.0	5.8	100.0%
Women who play sports experience difficulties during delivery of a baby	Count	120	108	14	9	251
	%	47.8	43.0	5.6	3.6	100.0%
Women who play sports can't have children	Count	184	57	10	6	257
	%	71.6	22.2	3.9	2.3	100.0%
Women are often discouraged by their husbands to play sports	Count	49	82	97	27	255
	%	19.2	32.2	38.0	10.6	100.0%

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	TOTAL
S.A. society has a negative attitude against women who play sports	Count	64	135	40	20	259
	%	24.7	52.1	15.4	7.7	100.0%
More women should become involved in sports	Count	11	18	68	164	261
	%	4.2	6.9	26.1	62.8	100.0%

The above table (Table 4.18) focuses on the girl's perceptions of sports and was answered by both sports participants and non-participants. The girls had to respond to these questions by using a four-point scale ranging from strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree.

The two answers strongly disagree and disagree were calculated together to indicate whether they disagree with the statement and strongly agree and agree were calculated together to indicate whether they agree with the statement. The results on these questions are now discussed.

4.3.5.1. There is no money in sport

A total of 200 (75.2%) disagree with the fact that there is no money in sport for participants. Only 66 (24.8%) of the girls agreed that there is no money in sports. Most of the girls believe that there is money in the field of sport.

4.3.5.2 There are few job opportunities in sport

A total of 149 (56.4%) girls disagreed with the fact that there are few job opportunities in the sporting world. A total of 115 (43.6%) girls agreed with the statement. Two (2) girls did not answer this question.

In relation to jobs the girls have a positive attitude in that most of them believe that there are job opportunities in the sporting fraternity.

4.3.5.3 There are no proper sporting facilities for women

A total of 157 (59.7%) girls disagreed with the fact that there are inadequate sporting facilities. On the other hand, there was a total of 106 (40.3%) girls who agreed with the statement. Three (3) girls did not answer this question. Most of the girls agree that there are adequate sporting facilities - this implies that facilities are not an issue of concern for them.

4.3.5.4 Female sport participants do not get the support that males get

A total of 74 (28.4%) of the girls disagreed with the fact that female sport participants do not get the support that the males get. A total of 186 (71.5%) girls agreed with the statement. Six (6) of the girls did not provide answers for this question.

The implication is that girls have the perception that males get more support than females in the sporting realm. Males are encouraged to participate and to take their sporting activities seriously as opposed to girls who often do not get any form of support from home or the socialising agents. These factors can influence the decision to participate. This creates the perception that girls who do participate in sport have to shine greater to get support than their male counterparts.

4.3.5.5 I intent taking part in sport after completing grade 12

A total of 141 (54,4%) disagreed with the fact that they intend taking part in sport after completing grade 12. A total of 118 (45,6%) girls agreed with the statement. Seven (7) girls did not answer this question.

The total number of girls that intend playing sport after grade 12 (n=118, 45,6%) is less than the total number of girls who do not have the intention to play sport after grade 12 (n=141, 54,4%). This suggests that after their school career, girls would still be under-represented in sport, because most of the participants in the sample (54,4%) indicated that they would not participate after completing high school.

4.3.5.6 The media portrays women as passive rather than active people

A total of 78 (30,5%) disagreed with the fact that the media portrays women as passive rather than active, A total of 178 (69,5%) girls agreed with the statement. The total number of respondents is 258 as 8 girls did not supply answers for this question.

Across all races (69,5%) of the girls agreed that women were portrayed as passive rather than active.

4.3.5.7 A career in sport is short term

A total of 94 (35,7%) disagreed with the fact that a career in sport is short term. A total of 169 (64,3%) girls agreed with the statement, 3 girls did not answer this question, which gives us a total of 263.

For most girls, a career in sport is viewed as temporary in the sense that one cannot be a sport participant for the rest of one's life, 64,3% of the girls agreed with this statement. The girls didn't see how they could pursue a career in sports, as it is short term as a result they will not choose to make a sport a career.

4.3.5.8 South African woman can have a successful career in sport

A total of 78 (29,11%) disagreed with the fact that South African women can have a successful career in sport. A total of 181 (69,9%) girls agreed with the statement. A total of 259 girls responded to this question and 7 girls did not answer this question.

Most of the girls have the perception that South African women can have a successful career in sport.

4.3.5.9 I envisage a career for myself in sport

184 (72,4%) girls disagreed with the fact that they envisage a career for themselves in sports. Only 70 (27,6%) of the girls agreed with this statement. A total of 254 respondents answered this question implying that 12 girls did not answer this question.

It was interesting to note that most of the girls (72,6%) disagreed with the question. The results clearly indicate that the girls think that it is possible for other females to follow a career in sport but not for themselves (see 4.2.5.8). Only (27,6%) of the girls saw themselves as sport participants in the future and this is a significantly small number.

4.3.5.10 It is difficult for females to get sponsors from companies sponsoring sport

Of a total of 126 (48,5%) disagreed with the perception that it is difficult for females to get sponsors from institutions. 134 (51,6%) girls agreed with the statement. A total of 260 girls answered this question and 6 girls did not respond to this question.

The number of girls who agreed with the statement was slightly more than those girls who disagreed with the statement.

Almost half of the girls think that it is easy to get sponsors. Possibly some of the girls in the sample are not familiar with the mechanism behind the sponsoring process.

4.3.5.11 Companies prefer sponsoring sportsmen

A total of 96 (36,6%) disagreed with the fact that companies prefer to sponsor men. A total of 166 (63,4%) girls agreed with the statement. A total of 262 girls answered this question and 6 girls did not provide answers for this question.

The perception is that there is greater opportunity for men to be sponsored than for females.

4.3.5.12 Black sportswomen find it more difficult to be sponsored than white sportswomen

A total of 152 (59.3%) girls disagree with the fact that it is more difficult for black women to be sponsored than white women. A total of 104 (40.7%) girls agreed with the statement. A total of 258 girls answered this question and 8 girls did not answer it. The results indicate that most girls did not think that securing sponsorships is dependent on race but rather guaranteeing sponsorship is difficult for all women in general regardless of race.

It was interesting to note that 73 (57%) of the black girls agreed with the statement and only 21 (28.4%) of the coloured group agreed and 10 (18.9%) of the white group.

Black girls acknowledge the fact that sponsors are a problem for the females but they perceive that they are the racial group that is greatly affected. The other groups see this as a problem that is affecting women across the board and it is definitely not affecting black females specifically.

4.3.5.13 Only rough" women play sports.

236 (88.7%) of the girls disagreed with the perception that only rough women play sport and 93 (39%) were girls who play sport themselves, while 143 (61%) were girls who do not play sport.

Only 30 (11,3%) of the girls agreed with the statement that only rough women play sport and 5 (17%) were girls who play sport themselves, while 25 (83%) were girls who do not participate in sport.

4.3.5.14 Females that play sport are lesbians

A total of 244 (92,8%) girls disagreed with the above statement and 94 (38,5%) of them were sport participants and 150 (61,5%) were non-sport participants. On the other hand only 19 (7,2%) girls agreed with the statement and 4 (21%) of them were sport participants and 15 (79%) were non-participants. A total of 263 girls responded to this question and 3 girls did not.

Most of the girls believe that any female person can play sport and playing sport does not have any link to an individuals' sexuality.

4.3.5.15 Females that play sports look more like men

Of 195 girls (74,4%) who disagreed with the perception that females who play sport are masculine, 79 (40,5%) were sport participants and 116 (59,5%) were not taking part in sport.

A total of 66 (25,3%) girls agreed with the statement and 18 (27,3%) of them were sport participants and 48 (72,7%) were non-sport participants. A total of 261 girls answered this question and 5 girls did not.

The majority of the girls disagreed with the statement as most of the girls do not believe that playing sport is an indication of one's femininity or lack thereof.

4.3.5.16 Females who play sport look more attractive than those who don't

A total of 173 (66%) girls disagreed with the fact that girls who play sports look more attractive than those who don't, 63 (36.4%) were sports participants and 110 (63.6%) did not take part in sports.

A total of 89 (34%) girls agreed with the statement and 34 (38.2%) of them were sports participants and 55 (61.8%) were non-sports participants. A total of 262 girls answered this question and 4 girls did not.

Most girls do not believe that participation in sport influences the level of attractiveness of the sportswomen – or that the sporting world only attracts better-looking women.

4.3.5.17 Females who play sport tend to have irregular menstrual cycles

Out of 207 (82.1%) girls who disagreed with the perception that sportswomen tend to have irregular menstrual cycles: 81 (39.1%) were sports participants and 126 (60.9%) were the non-sports participants.

Only 45 (17.9%) of the girls agreed with the statement: 10 (22.3%) were sports participants as opposed to 35 (77.7%) non-sports participants. A total of 252 girls answered this question and 14 girls did not answer this question.

The above results indicate that most girls do not think there is a correlation between one's menstrual cycle and the playing of sport. A small number of participants agreed

with the statement implying that a few girls that participate in sport do experience irregularities with their menstrual cycle.

4.3.5.18 Females who play sport are arrogant

A total of 221 (84%) girls disagreed with the perception that females who play sports are arrogant 88 (40%) of girls who fall in this category are sport participants and 133 (60%) are non-sports participants.

42 (16%) of the girls agreed with the above statement: 8 (19%) are sports participants as opposed to 34 (81%) non-sports participants.

Most of the girls do not associate participation in sport with traits of arrogance. It is true, some sporting codes portray arrogance, and individual players may participate in an arrogant manner. One cannot conclude that women who play sport always display arrogant manners.

4.3.5.19 Females who play sport rarely excel

A total of 196 (76,6%) girls disagreed with the perception that females who play sport rarely excel: 75 (38%) were sports participants and 121 (62%) were non-sports participants.

Only 60 (23,4%) girls agreed with the statement and 19 (32%) were sports participants and 41 (68%) were non-sports participants.

A total of 256 girls answered this question and 10 of the girls did not answer this question. Most of the girls believe that females who participate in sport will excel.

4.3.5.20 Women do not have the physical strength to excel in sport

A total of 234 (90,4%) girls disagreed with the perception that women are not physically strong to cope with and excel in sport: 88 (38%) were sports participants and 146 (62%) were non-sports participants.

Only 26 (10%) girls agreed with the statement and 9 (35%) were girls taking part in sports and 17 (65%) did not take part in sports. A total of 260 girls answered this question and 6 of the girls did not answer this question.

Most of the girls do not agree that women are physically weak and cannot excel in sport.

4.3.5.21 Women who play sport want to control their men

A total of 229 (87,1%) girls disagree with the perception that women who play sport want to control their men: 88 (38%) were girls taking part in sports and 141 (62%) were those that did not take part in sports.

Only 34 (12,9%) girls agreed with the statement and 9 (26%) were sports participants and 25 (74%) were non-sports participants. A total of 263 girls answered this question implying that 3 of the girls did not answer this question.

Most girls do not agree with the statement that women who play sport want to control their men.

4.2.5.22 Women who play sport have a positive attitude towards life

A total of 58 (22%) girls disagree with the perception that women who play sports have a positive attitude towards life: 17 (29%) were sports participants and 41 (71%) were

non-sports participants. A total of 206 (78%) girls agreed with the statement and 82 (39%) were girls taking part in sport and 125 (61%) were non-sport participants. The total number of responses for this question is 264 and 2 girls did not answer this question.

Most of the girls agree that women who play sports have a positive attitude towards life. Their view being that, sportswomen tackle life in a different manner than those who do not participate.

4.3.5.23 Men feel threatened by females who excel in sport

A total of 106 (40,8%) girls disagree with the perception that men feel threatened by females who excel in sport: 34 (32%) were sports participants and 73 (68%) did not take part in sport.

154 (59.2%) of the girls agreed with the statement and 62 (40%) were girls participating in sport and 92 (60%) were those that did not participate in sport, A total of 260 girls answered this question and 6 of the girls did not.

56,8% of the black girls agreed with the statement while more than 60% of the other two groups agreed and overall only 40,8% of the girls disagreed with the statement.

4.3.5.24 Women who play sport find it difficult to have a meaningful heterosexual relationship

A total of 224 (86,2%) girls disagree with the perception that women who play sport find it difficult to have a meaningful sexual relationship: 86 (38%) were girls who took part in sport and 138 (62%) were girls who did not take part in sports.

Only 36 (13,8%) girls agreed with the statement and 10 (27,7%) of them were girls who took part in sports and 26 (72,3%) were girls who did not take part in sports. A total of 260 girls answered this question and 6 of the girls did not.

The results indicate that the participants agree that sportswomen can have a meaningful sexual relationship.

4.3.5.25 Women play sport in order that they can meet people

A total of 162 (61,4%) girls disagree with the perception that women play sports so that they can meet people: 62 (38%) were sports participants and 100 (61,7%) were non-sports participants.

A total of 102 (38,6%) girls agreed with the statement and 36 (35,3%) were sports participants and 66 (64,7%) were non-sports participants. A total of 264 girls answered this question and 2 of the girls did not.

The data indicates that the girls believe that most women play sport for many reasons and not implicitly so that they can meet other people.

4.3.5.26 Boys are not attracted to girls that play sport

A convincing total of 241 (91,6%) girls disagree with the perception that boys are not attracted to girls that play sports 93 (38,6%) were sport participants and 148 (61,4%) were girls that did not take part in sport.

Only 22 (8,4%) girls agreed with the statement and 4 (18,2%) were girls taking part in sport and 18 (81,8%) were those that did not take part in any sport. A total of 3 girls did not answer this question.

Majority of the girls of all races disagreed with the statement and only 8,4% of the girls agreed that boys are attracted to girls who play sport.

4.3.5.27 Sportswomen are prone to having eating disorders

206 (78,6%) of the girls disagree with the perception that sportswomen are prone to having eating disorders: 82 (39,8%) were sport participants as opposed to 124 (60,2%) who were non-sport participants.

A total of 56 (24,1%) girls agreed with the above statement and 14 (25%) were sport participants and 42 (75%) were non-sport participants. A total of 4 girls did not answer this question.

The results indicate that most of the girls disagree that sportswomen are prone to eating disorders.

4.3.5.28 Females who play sport are more confident

A total of 79 (30%) girls disagree with the perception that females who play sports are more confident; 23 (29,1%) were girls who participate in sport and 56 (70,9%) were those that do not participate in sport.

184 (70%) girls agreed with the statement and 75 (40,8%) were girls who play sport and 109 (52,2%) were girls who did not take part in sport. A total of 263 girls answered this question and 3 of the girls did not.

Most of the girls believe that sport boosts girls' self-confidence and as a result sportswomen tend to portray greater confidence.

4.3.5.29 People who can handle pressure do well in sport

A total of 81 (30,8%) of the girls disagree with the fact that people who can handle pressure do well in sports and 25 (30,9%) were girls who played sports and 56 (69,1%) were those that did not take part in sports.

A total of 184 (70%) of the girls agreed with the statement and 75 (40,8%) were sports participants and 109 (59,2%) were girls who did not take part in sports. A total of 263 girls answered this question and 3 of the girls did not.

Most girls agreed that women who can deal with pressure do well in sport because the pressures presented by sport codes are viewed as a challenge, which is why individuals have chosen to participate in sport.

4.3.5.30 Sport achievers are more recognised than academic achievers

A total of 113 (43,1%) girls disagree with the perception that sport achievers get greater recognition than academic achievers and 38 (33,6%) were sport participants and 75 (66,4%) were non-sport participants. A total of 149 (56,9%) of the girls agreed with the statement and 59 (39,6%) were girls who took part in sport and 90 (60,4%) were those who did not take part in any sport. A total of 262 girls answered this question and 4 of the girls did not.

56,9% of all racial groups agreed with the statement that sport achievers are more recognised than academic achievers.

4.3.5.31 It is prestigious to play sport at my school

A total of 106 (40,9%) girls disagree with the perception that it is prestigious to play sports at their school and 33 (31%) were girls who took part in sport and 73 (68,9%)

were those that did not take part in sport. There were 153 (59,1%) girls who agreed with the statement and 62 (40,5%) were girls who participated in sport and 91 (59,5%) were those that did not participate in sport. A total of 256 girls answered this question. Possibly it could be that they did not fully understand the meaning of the word "prestigious".

4.3.5.32 Excelling in sport is good for an individual

Only 52 (19,8%) of the girls disagreed with the perception that excelling in sports is good for a person and 11 (21,2%) were sport participants and 41 (78,8%) were non-sport participants. A total of 210 (80,2%) of the girls agreed with the statement and 86 (41%) were sport participants while 124 (59%) were non-sport participants. A total of 262 girls answered this question while 4 of the girls did not answer.

Most of the girls are aware of the benefits of sport. An overall total of (80,2%) of all the girls across race agreed with the statement that excelling in sport has benefits.

4.3.5.33 I am afraid of being criticised by other people

165 (62,7%) of the girls are not afraid of being criticised by other people and 69 (41,8%) are the sport participants and 96 (58,2) are non-sport participants. A total of 98 (37,3%) girls agreed with the above statement and 29 (29,6%) were sport participants and 69 (70,4%) did not participate in sports. A total of 263 girls answered this question and 3 girls did not.

Most of the girls were open to criticism as they felt it could make one to be a better person. It was interesting to note that (70,4%) of the black girls disagreed with the statement as opposed to (29,6%) who agreed. Within the coloured group (49,3%) disagreed and (63,0%) of the white girls disagreed.

4.3.5.34 I do not think I have the ability to play sports

A total of 194 (73,8%) girls did not think they have the ability to play sport 90 (46,4%) of them were girls who participated in sport and 104 (53,6%) were those who did not take part in sports. There were 69 (26,2%) girls who agreed with the statement and 8 (11,6%) of them were sport participants and 61 (88,4%) were those who did not take part in sports.

(80%) of the black girls believe that they have the ability to play sport and (60%) of the other two racial groups. Most girls agreed that they have the ability to play sport.

4.3.5.35 There are successful sportswoman within my country

Only a total of 35 (13,4%) girls disagree with the perception that there are successful sportswomen within their country: 11 (31,4%) were girls who took part in sport and 24 (68,6%) were those that did not take part in sport. 226 (86,6%) of the girls agreed with the statement and 85 (37,6%) of them were sport participants and 141 (62,4%) were non-sport participants. A total of 261 girls answered this question and 5 girls did not.

86,6% of the girls agreed with the statement and the girls are aware of successful sportswomen in the country. This could imply that most girls have a positive perception about successful sportswomen in their country.

4.3.5.36 South African women do not play sports because they have to perform household duties

A total of 209 (79,2%) of the girls disagree with the perception that South African women do not play sports because they have household duties 80 (38,3%) were girls who participated in sport and 129 (61,7%) did not participate in sport. Only 55 (20,8%)

girls agreed with the statement and 18 (32,7%) were girls who took part in sport and 37 (67,3%) were girls who did not play sport. A total of 264 girls answered this question and 2 girls did not.

Most girls think that there are other reasons that make South African women choose not to play sport and it is not of the fact that they have to perform household duties.

4.3.5.37 Women who play sport experience childbearing difficulties

A total of 225 (87,2%) girls disagree with the perception that women who play sports experience child bearing difficulties 90 (40%) are girls who participated in sports and 135 (60%) are girls who do not take part in sport. A total of 33 (12,8%) girls agreed with the above statement and 6 (18,2%) were sport participants and 27 (81,8%) of the girls did not take part in sport. A total of 258 girls answered this question implying that 8 girls did not answer this question.

Most of the girls who participate in sports indicated that women who play sport do not experience childbearing difficulties.

4.3.5.38 Woman who play sport experience difficulties during delivery of a baby

A total of 228 (90,8%) girls disagree with the perception that women who play sport experience difficulties with child delivery 84 (36,8%) were girls who took part in sports and 144 (63,2%) were the non-sport participants. There were only 23 (9,2%) girls who agreed with the statement and of that 8 (34,8%) of the girls were sport participants and 15 (65,2%) were non-sport participants. A total of 251 girls answered this question and 15 girls did not.

Most of the girls were uncertain regarding the interconnectivity of the two facets: sportswomen and delivering children.

4.3.5.39 Women who play sport cannot have children

A total of 241 (93,8%) of the girls disagree with the perception that women who play sports cannot have children: 92 (38,2%) were girls who took part in sport and 149 (61,8%) were girls who did not take part in sport. Only 16 (6,2%) of the girls agreed with the statement and 4 (25%) of them were girls who took part in sport and 12 (75%) were girls who did not take part in sport. A total of 257 girls answered this question and 9 girls did not.

There is evidence in the media that sportswomen take time off from their training/competition programmes to have children. The sample group appeared to be aware of this phenomenon.

4.3.5.40 Women are often discouraged by their husbands from playing sport

A total of 131 (51,4%) girls disagreed with the perception that women are often discouraged by their husbands to play sport 51 (38,9%) were girls who took part in sports and 80 (61,1%) were those that did not take part in sport. A total of 124 (48,6%) girls agreed with the above statement and 45 (36,3%) of the girls were sport participants and 79 (63,7%) were non-sport participants. A total of 255 girls answered this question and 11 girls did not.

Most of the sports participants believe that women are discouraged by their husband's from playing sport. Those girls who agree with the statement perhaps live in home/community where the male figure determines what activities the females may or may not participate in.

4.3.5.41 South African society has a negative attitude against women who play sport

A total of 199 (76,8%) girls disagree with the perception that the South African society has a negative attitude against women who play sport: 69 (34,7%) were girls that took part in sport and 130 (65,3%) were those that did not take part in sport. There were 60 (56,4%) of the girls who agreed with the statement and 27 (45%) were girls who participated in sport and 33 (55%) did not participate in sport. A total of 259 girls answered this question and 7 girls did not.

The results indicate that most girls think South Africans do not have a problem with females who play sports. The assumption is that the South African community has a positive attitude towards women who play sport.

4.3.5.42 More women should become involved in sport

A total of 29 (11,1%) girls disagree with the view that more women should be involved in sport: 6 (20,7%) were girls who took part in sports and 23 (79,3%) were those that did not take part in sports. There were 232 (88,9%) girls who agreed with the statement and of that, 91 (39,2%) were girls who took part in sports and 141 (60,8%) were those that did not participate in sport. A total of 261 girls answered this question and 5 of the girls did not.

Close to 90% of all racial groups agreed with the fact that there should be more women involved in sport. This includes even the non-sports participants and they are aware that more women should play sports including themselves.

4.3.6 SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS ON PERCEPTIONS OF SPORT PARTICIPATION

4.3.6.1 Perceptions of Job opportunities

Most of the girls used in this study believe that there are jobs out there for sports people. Most of the girls also believe that there is money in the field of sport. Despite good prospects most girls did not intend playing sport after grade 12 and that includes most of the sport participants who indicated that they did not envisage a career in sport. The reason could be that most of the girls saw a career in sports being short lived.

More than 60% of the girls were optimistic about the future of sport for South African females and saw more opportunities opening up for females. On the other hand, it was disturbing to note that only 27% of the girls saw themselves as sports people in the future.

4.3.6.2 Perception on inequalities between male and female sport participants

Most females are not aware of the lack of facilities that females have to deal with and they believe there are facilities readily available. The lack of facilities, particularly for females, combined with other problems lead to the lack of participation argued Merret (cited in Hargreaves, 1997). In South Africa the discrepancy would be within the different communities whereby, certain communities have facilities and others do not. The lack of facilities leads to a lack of exposure and might be a hindering factor for non-sport participants.

More than 50% of the girls agreed with the fact that there is more support for males and it is difficult for females to get sponsors from companies and as a result it is difficult for talented sportswomen to follow their dreams. On the other hand it was expressed that

male sports personnel are encouraged and they can also fulfil their dreams because they have financial backing. The lack of sponsors for female sports personnel is not just affecting one particular group of females but it is a problem facing females across all racial groups. Black females are disadvantaged to a greater extent.

4.3.6.3 Stereotypes about female sport participation

Clearly sports is not only played by rough women, and females can choose to play sports of their choice. It is again not only lesbians who play sport, as this has become a common assumption especially in certain sporting codes. Playing sport does not mean females are lesbians.

The perception could be that sportswomen are physically strong and they acknowledge their strength to be comparable with that of males. It was interesting to note that most of the girls in the sample did not believe some of the stereotypes that surround female sport participation. Perceptions such as sportswomen experience childbearing difficulties and that women struggle during delivery are just negative stereotypes about female sports participation and most girls did not believe them.

A study conducted by Scott (cited in Zeelie & Potgieter, 1991), in South Africa found that the majority of females think that men admire women who are physically active. The results of this study are different from that of Scott's, because most of the girls disagreed with the fact that sportswomen are perceived more attractive than non-sport participants.

4.3.6.4. Perceptions of health

It has been argued that females are not physically as strong as males and that they cannot excel as much in the world of sport. South African females are excelling in

some sporting codes, for example, Zola Budd (long distance runner), Hestie Cloete (high jump), Zanel Sithu (javelin) and Natalie du Toit (Para Olympic swimmer). More than 80% of the sample believed that when given the opportunity, females are as capable as their male counterparts. The perception is that there are physically healthy and fit females in South Africa who are competent and have managed to put South Africa on the map by competing in the international sport arena.

It is also important for the above mentioned sports participants to maintain their weight but does not necessarily mean they will suffer from eating disorders.

85% of the girls disagreed with the fact that sportswomen are prone to having eating disorders. It is a fact that eating disorders are more prevalent amongst teenage girls and young adults but it does not mean that sportswomen would succumb to eating disorders.

It has been argued that participating in sport does not affect menstruation, childbearing and pregnancy (Wyrick, 1974). The results of this study indicate that females have a perception that participants in sport does not cause childbearing difficulties, or difficulties during delivery of a baby and women who play sports can have as many children. In fact physically active women never have problems with the above-mentioned health issues. This study shows that most sport participants and non-sport participants do not believe in the above-mentioned stereotypes, this implies that females can cope with their maternal role and the role they play in sport.

4.3.6.5 Perceptions on life and relationships

The majority of the girls argued that they do not get support and encouragement as much as the boys do. Most females, who do well, succeed because they have a

positive attitude towards life. Their participation in sport helps them to set goals for themselves, they show a lot of endurance and they do not give up easily (Prakasa & Overman, 1984).

Most girls do participate in sport primarily because they want to make friends - it is through the process of playing sport that women nurture friendships. At a later stage, there is a circle of friends who share common interests and values argued Kane (as cited in Nelson, 1998). On discussion of relationships with the opposite sex, most of the girls believe that boys become attracted to any girl and it is not true that boys do not interact with girls who play sport. This factor confirms the perception that girls that play sport are not necessarily more attractive than those who do not participate in sport.

Although at a later stage almost 50% of females are discouraged by their husband's to play sport. It has been argued that boys do not mind going out with either the sport or the non-sport participants.

4.3.6.6 Perceptions on negative publicity

The portrayal of female athletes plays an important role in the preservation of stereotypes that are formulated about females in the world of sports (Kane, 1984) 60% of the girls agreed that the media portrays females in a negative and diminutive way. Females are always seen to be passive rather than active.

Those females doing well in sport are often portrayed as being arrogant because they achieve in an area that is male dominated. Most South Africans do not have a problem with females who participate in sport but it can be intimidating for males to see females doing well in a sporting code that is predominately male.

It has always been said that a woman's place is in the kitchen and the media also portrays females as the ones who perform household duties. The assumption would be that most females cannot participate in sport because they have the roles of mother and family keeper. The results of this study indicated that more than 80% of the sample disagreed with the fact that South African women cannot participate in sport because they have family commitments. The implication would be that there are other reasons that deter females from participating in sport.

4.3.6.7 Perceptions on positive life influence

Digest (1997) argued that sport participation helps to build confidence and a positive self-image. Most of the girls in this study agreed that girls who play sport are more confident. People that are confident are also able to deal with pressure and that they excel in what they are doing. Excelling in whatever area is good for anyone's self-esteem. Most of the girls agreed that excelling contributes to a positive self-image.

Most of the girls agreed that they are not afraid of being criticised because criticisms could contribute to growth and improve one's performance. It was also interesting to note that most girls saw themselves being able to play sport like anybody else. The implication is that girls can be competent in sport if they want but that there are other issues that hamper their participation in sport.

4.3.6.8 Perceptions on achievement and recognition

An overwhelming majority of the girls agreed that they are aware of successful sportswomen in the country. It was argued initially that there are good sport prospects for the females and an overwhelming majority argued that they would like to see more women involved in sport. It is interesting to note that most girls in the sample would like to see more women involved in sport but did not see themselves in this role.

4.3.7.PERCEPTIONS OF SELF IN SPORT PARTICIPATION.

TABLE 4.19 (Part 1)

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	TOTAL
Playing sports keeps me busy	Count	1	2	48	42	93
	%	1.1	2.2	51.6	45.2	100.0%
Females who participate in sports have a balanced life	Count		13	55	25	93
	%		14.0	59.1	26.9	100.0%
I achieve better at school when I play sports	Count	6	34	39	14	93
	%	6.5	36.6	41.9	15.1	100.0%
I play sports because I get full parental support	Count	8	32	36	17	93
	%	8.6	34.4	38.7	18.3	100.0%
Sportswomen are admired by my family and friends	Count	9	18	50	13	90
	%	10.0	20.0	55.6	14.4	100.0%
As a sport participant I would like to be coached by a female	Count	9	35	30	16	90
	%	10.0	38.9	33.3	17.8	100.0%
As a sport participant I would like to be coached by a male	Count	8	31	36	16	91
	%	8.8	34.1	39.6	17.6	100.0%
Playing sports allows me to explore my talent	Count	6	4	34	47	91
	%	6.6	4.4	37.4	51.6	100.0%
I am scared of being a successful sports woman	Count	45	35	4	6	90
	%	50.0	38.9	4.4	6.7	100.0%
I am afraid of being injured while playing sports	Count	26	37	21	7	91
	%	28.6	40.7	23.1	7.7	100.0%
Playing sports makes me nervous	Count	36	34	18	2	90
	%	40.0	37.8	20.0	2.2	100.0%

I find it difficult to concentrate when I play sports	Count	43	37	9	2	91
	%	47.3	40.7	9.9	2.2	100.0%
I do not like competition	Count	48	35	4	4	91
	%	52.7	38.5	4.4	4.4	100.0%
It is difficult for me to meet the expectations of sports	Count	34	44	9	4	91
	%	37.4	48.4	9.9	4.4	100.0%
I have the ability to get far with sports	Count	4	19	40	27	90
	%	4.4	21.1	44.4	30.0	100.0%
Sport enables me to build my physical strength	Count	2	3	34	52	91
	%	2.2	3.3	37.4	57.1	100.0%
I look forward to playing sports always	Count		6	33	51	90
	%		6.7	36.7	56.7	100.0%
I sometimes can't wait for a game to start	Count	2	12	30	45	89
	%	2.2	13.5	33.7	50.6	100.0%
Playing sports is more important than other responsibilities	Count	30	45	12	3	90
	%	33.3	50.0	13.3	3.3	100.0%
I enjoy it when we play a game	Count		4	36	50	90
	%		4.4	40.0	55.6	100.0%
I enjoy playing sports with other learners	Count	1	5	41	43	90
	%	1.1	5.6	45.6	47.8	100.0%
I prefer individual sports to group sports	Count	26	46	9	9	90
	%	28.9	51.1	10.0	10.0	100.0%
There is too much pressure with individual sports	Count	16	31	28	14	89
	%	18.0	34.8	31.5	15.7	100.0%
Playing sports motivates me to work hard	Count	6	8	39	36	89
	%	6.7	9.0	43.8	40.4	100.0%

After playing sports I can't concentrate on my studies	Count	26	42	17	6	91
	%	28.6	46.2	18.7	6.6	100.0%
Playing sports enables me to develop my concentration skills	Count	9	22	41	19	91
	%	9.9	24.2	45.1	20.9	100.0%

Table 4.19 (Part 2)

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	TOTAL
Sports people fight too much	Count	34	37	16	3	90
	%	37.8	41.1	17.8	3.3	100.0%
Sport is meant to release extra energy	Count	5	17	46	21	89
	%	5.6	19.1	51.7	23.6	100.0%
I get very angry when we lose a match	Count	25	38	17	9	89
	%	28.1	42.7	19.1	10.1	100.0%
I don't like the conflict during a sports game	Count	6	25	33	24	88
	%	6.8	28.4	37.5	27.3	100.0%
It feels good when we win	Count	2	1	14	71	88
	%	2.3	1.1	15.9	80.7	100.0%
I don't like it when spectators get angry at players	Count	3	4	30	52	89
	%	3.4	4.5	33.7	58.4	100.0%
I don't like it when opponents get angry when we win	Count	6	12	32	39	89
	%	6.7	13.5	36	43.8	100.0%
It is easy for sports women to get part time employment	Count	6	37	32	11	86
	%	7.0	43.0	37.2	12.8	100.0%
I don't like it when players cheat during a game	Count	5	5	21	58	89
	%	5.6	5.6	23.6	65.2	100.0%

I like the promotion of fair play	Count	1	3	20	63	87
	%	1.1	3.4	23.0	72.4	100.0%
I like the promotion of good sportsmanship	Count		3	25	61	89
	%		3.4	28.1	68.5	100.0%
I like it when the school recognises my excellent performance	Count	1	3	22	63	89
	%	1.1	3.4	24.7	70.8	100.0%
I like the challenge that comes with participation in sports	Count	2	6	34	47	89
	%	2.2	6.7	38.2	52.8	100.0%
Playing sports is the only way I can achieve success	Count	22	45	11	11	89
	%	24.7	50.6	12.4	12.4	100.0%
Playing sports is not fun anymore	Count	61	20	6	2	89
	%	68.5	22.5	6.7	2.2	100.0%
Sports is the only way that I can make a name for myself	Count	46	29	8	6	89
	%	51.7	32.6	9.0	6.7	100.0%
Playing sports allows me to be independent	Count	5	18	38	28	89
	%	5.6	20.2	42.7	31.5	100.0%
I am too tired of participating in sports	Count	49	31	5	2	87
	%	56.3	35.6	5.7	2.3	100.0%
Sports keeps me away from important people	Count	47	35	3	2	87
	%	54.0	40.2	3.4	2.3	100.0%
Sports restricts my life	Count	40	36	9	1	86
	%	46.5	41.9	10.5	1.2	100.0%
My boyfriend does not like me to take part in sports	Count	66	16	5		87
	%	75.9	18.4	5.7		100.0%
Playing sports makes me look unattractive	Count	64	23			87
	%	73.6	26.4			100.0%

TABLE 4.19 (Part 2) cont.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	TOTAL
The tiredness and sweatiness of taking part in sports makes me look ugly	Count	52	28	4	3	87
	%	59.8	32.2	4.6	3.4	100.0%
I don't like it when mates blame me for losing a match	Count	8	9	32	38	87
	%	9.2	10.3	36.8	43.7	100.0%
I am afraid of what people will say about me if I lose a match	Count	32	30	19	7	88
	%	36.4	34.1	21.6	8.0	100.0%

4.3.8 DISCUSSION ON PERCEPTIONS OF SELF IN SPORT PARTICIPATION

4.3.8.1 Perceptions of lifestyle and personal gains

96% of the girls agree that playing sport keeps them busy and the assumption would be that sport participants like to be kept busy by playing sport. Females who make time to play sports clearly have a balanced life. This factor can clearly be linked to the ranking question where most girls indicated the importance of a healthy lifestyle as one of the most important reasons for participating in sports.

More than 80% of the girls also indicated that sport allows them to explore their talent. They devote enough time playing sports and at the same time they can be able to see if they are talented in the particular fields of sport. While exploring their talent they can also build their physical strength. The sport participants are thus able to balance their schoolwork with their sporting activities.

80% of the sport participants agreed that playing sport is a source of motivation for them, it makes them work hard and strive to achieve. 56% of the girls indicated that they achieve better at school when they play sport. It is interesting to note that the non-sport participants indicated that their academics were more important and as a result they did not have time to play sport. This confirms the fact that sport participants are in a better position to maintain a balance between academics and sport. Sport participants usually have a work schedule and after their practices they do not have time to do other things besides schoolwork.

After playing sport the girls agree that they are usually mentally ready to focus on their studies and usually concentration contributes to success. Successful people are not afraid to take challenges and most girls like the challenge of being involved in sport. Challenges give them the opportunity to excel in what they are doing and they can make a name for themselves and thus express independence. More than 70% of the girls liked the idea of being independent.

4.3.8.2 Perceptions of coaching and sport opportunities

50% of the girls indicated that they would like to be coached by a female person as opposed to more than 50% of the girls who indicated that they would like to be coached by a male. As a female it would be more comfortable to be coached by a female and as males do a lot of coaching, some females might be accustomed to being coached by males.

Ultimately, it is not important whether the coach is male or female, what is important is for the coach to do a good job and deliver in terms of results. 50% of the girls agree that it is easy for sportswomen to get part time employment but that depends on the sporting code.

4.3.8.3. Perceptions of choice in sport

95% of the girls agreed that they enjoy playing a game: this supports the data in the ranking questions. The data indicates that one of the most important reasons for participating in sport is the fact that the girls enjoy playing competitive sport. 90% of the girls also indicated that they enjoyed playing sport with the other learners, which confirms why 80% of the girls did not like individual sport but preferred group sport. The girls did not like individual sport because there was too much pressure thus, preferring group sport because they can be in the company of others.

Most of the girls indicated that their families and friends admire sportswomen. 56.10% of the girls indicated that they play sport because they get full parental support and of that total, only 49.15% of the black girls, 66.7% of the coloured group and 70% of the white group agreed that they were getting support from their parents. This probably confirms the fact that black parents do not give a lot of support to their children. There are a number of social, economic and political issues that have hampered black parents supporting their children.

4.3.8.4 Perceptions of negative influence

The perception is that sports people are sometimes involved in conflicts and this could be due to the aggressive nature of the sporting code. 70% of the girls disagreed and it is true that sport helps them to release their extra energy but not necessarily by way of fighting. 60% of the girls agreed that they feel disappointed when losing a game and the anger is not expressed by means of initiating conflict or having confrontations with other people.

It was significant to note that the girls agreed that it is acceptable for them to be angry when they lose a game and 80% of the girls agreed that they would not tolerate spectators showing anger towards the players. They also expressed intolerance of anger from opponents when losing the game.

More than 80% of the girls agreed that they did not like it when players cheat during a game and 90% of them preferred promotion of fair play. It was surprising to note that 11,4% of the girls did not object to cheating in a game. 90% of the girls liked the promotion of good sportsmanship.

4.3.8.5 Perceptions of recognition and achievement

95,5% of the girls like it when the school recognises their performance and this makes 70% of the girls feel that they have the ability to achieve in sport. It was important to note that despite the fact that most girls saw themselves as having the ability to achieve in sport, 83,1% of the girls across race indicated that they did not consider sport to be more important than other responsibilities. Only 16.9% of the girls recognised sport to be more important than their other responsibilities.

4.3.8.6 Perceptions of being insecure

More women than expected indicated that they were not afraid to be successful sportswomen and neither were they afraid to sustain injuries. Most girls were also confident about their performance and were not apprehensive about playing sport. 90% of the girls disagreed with the fact that sport restricts them or that sport makes them appear unattractive. They disagreed with most of the negative statements regarding low self-esteem and this clearly indicated that girls who participate in sport were more confident than the non-sport participants.

4.4 ANALYSIS OF THE PERSONALITY QUESTIONNAIRE

4.4.1 Group Statistics

TABLE 4.20 T-Tests of Personality Dimensions against “Do you play sports”

	Do you play sport	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Scores: A	Yes	98	6.64	2.387	.241
	No	168	6.00	2.144	.165
Scores: B	Yes	98	4.05	2.112	.213
	No	168	3.65	2.003	.155
Scores: C	Yes	98	5.81	1.426	.144
	No	168	5.50	1.685	.130
Scores: D	Yes	98	5.28	1.642	.166
	No	168	5.46	1.781	.137
Scores: E	Yes	98	7.96	1.499	.151
	No	168	7.76	1.799	.139
Scores: F	Yes	98	7.07	1.588	.160
	No	168	6.40	1.792	.138
Scores: G	Yes	98	4.98	1.687	.170
	No	168	4.60	1.851	.143
Scores: H	Yes	98	6.01	1.665	.168
	No	168	5.87	1.676	.129
Scores: I	Yes	98	5.03	1.825	.184
	No	168	4.63	1.987	.153
Scores: J	Yes	98	6.45	1.856	.188
	No	168	6.49	1.716	.132
Scores: O	Yes	98	4.93	1.670	.169
	No	168	5.23	1.787	.138
Scores: Q2	Yes	98	4.87	1.881	.190
	No	168	5.15	1.958	.151

Scores: Q3	Yes	98	5.07	1.719	.174
	No	168	4.84	1.796	.139
Scores: Q4	Yes	97	5.40	1.891	.192
	No	168	5.33	1.931	.149

TABLE 4.21 Independent Samples Test

		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Scores: A	Equal variances assumed	3.892	.050	2.261	264	.025*	.64	.284
	Equal variances not assumed			2.199	185.931	.029*	.64	.292
Scores: B	Equal variances assumed	.457	.500	1.525	264	.128	.40	.260
	Equal variances not assumed			1.504	194.388	.134	.40	.263
Scores: C	Equal variances assumed	1.884	.171	1.510	264	.132	.31	.203
	Equal variances not assumed			1.578	230.477	.116	.31	.194
	Equal variances assumed	.786	.376	-.831	264	.407	-.18	.220

Scores:	Equal			-0.849	216.563	.397	-.18	.215
D	variances not assumed							
	Equal	5.635	.018	.916	264	.361	.20	.215
	variances assumed							
Scores:	Equal			.961	232.997	.338	.20	.205
E	variances not assumed							
	Equal	2.547	.112	3.077	264	.002*	.67	.219
	variances assumed							
Scores:	Equal			3.177	223.159	.002*	.67	.212
F	variances not assumed							
	Equal	1.843	.176	1.661	264	.098	.38	.228
	variances assumed							
Scores:	Equal			1.702	218.535	.090	.38	.222
G	variances not assumed							
	Equal	.001	.979	.664	264	.507	.14	.213
	variances assumed							
Scores:	Equal			.665	204.110	.507	.14	.212
H	variances not assumed							

TABLE 4.21 cont.

		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Scores: I	Equal variances assumed	1.422	.234	1.630	264	.104	.40	.245
	Equal variances not assumed			1.667	217.219	.097	.40	.240
Scores: J	Equal variances assumed	1.768	.185	-.174	264	.862	-.04	.225
	Equal variances not assumed			-.170	190.374	.865	-.04	.230
Scores: O	Equal variances assumed	1.989	.160	1.342	264	.181	-.30	.222
	Equal variances not assumed			1.366	214.342	.173	-.30	.218
Scores: Q2	Equal variances assumed	.841	.360	1.172	264	.242	-.29	.245
	Equal variances not assumed			1.184	209.658	.238	-.29	.243

TABLE 4.21 cont.

		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Scores:	Equal variances assumed	.019	.891	1.033	264	.303	.23	.225
	Equal variances not assumed			1.045	210.363	.297	.23	.222
Scores:	Equal variances assumed	.259	.611	.306	263	.760	.07	.244
	Equal variances not assumed			.307	203.937	.759	.07	.243

* significant when $p < 0.05$

The difference between sport participants and non-sport participants is significantly different ($p < 0.05$) for Factors A and F (see Table 4.21) only. The mean Scores (see Table 4.20) for factor A is 6.64 as opposed to 6.00 of the non-sport participants. The mean Scores for factor F also showed significant differences between sport participants and non-sport participants. The mean score for sport participants is 7.07 and for non-sports participants 6.40. The p-value for Scores A is .025 and for Scores F is .002.

The results of the High School Personality Questionnaire (HPSQ) indicate that there is a difference in personality of the sport participants and the non-sport participants in terms of factor A and F. The sport participants represented by factor A are those girls that are more ready to form active groups.

They are impulsive and are not affected by people who criticize them. They go out to play sport as a means of enjoyment.

The non-sport participants are more concerned about people's comments and this leads to reserved decisions about playing sport. Being involved in sport means interacting with spectators of the sport arena. They also prefer long-term undertakings and the data already indicated that some girls do not like the idea that playing sport is a short-term involvement.

For Factor F, the sport participants are the extroverts who are optimistic about the future of female sport in South Africa. They have an outgoing attitude and they make the best of opportunity. They also come from a family that supports their involvement in sport.

The non-sport participants are probably coming from a difficult home background. Their parents are probably not giving them the support and encouragement to play sport. They are introverts and struggle to express their feelings. They are nervous to interact and this includes playing sport with other children.

4.5 CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter was to present the data collected during the survey. The data collected may be used to understand why most girls do not participate in sport. It is also important to look at what possibly can be done by the stakeholders to try and encourage girls to take part in sports and to keep the sport participants interested so that they do not drop out of sports.

CHAPTER 5

MAIN FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to understand some of the psychosocial factors that cause High School girls to participate in sport or not, despite schools providing a conducive environment with the availability of sporting facilities and equipment. The results that were obtained provided the sporting community with interesting findings and a summary of these results will be provided below.

5.2 SUMMARIES AND INTERPRETATION OF THE MAIN FINDINGS

This section will provide a summary of the findings regarding the psychosocial factors that contribute to the participation or non-participation in sport by girls.

5.2.1 GENERAL VIEWS ON SPORTS

In this study the following important aspects were found:

- Most girls believe that sport is a source of empowerment and plays an important role in the liberation of females. It gives them a sense of independence and arms them with skills to face challenges. It also allows them freedom of expression.
- Most girls have the perception that sport could enable them to control their weight and to live a healthy life.
- The girls believe that the playing of sport allows them to be able to balance their lives in terms of playing sport and focusing on their academics.

- The girls are not aware of any lack of facilities for female sport and insufficient facilities should not be interpreted as a hindering factor.
- The media often portrays females as passive and not active beings. As a result it is assumed that females cannot be successful sports-people.
- For reasons beyond their control, some parents are not able to give their daughters enough support and this makes it difficult for the girls to participate in sport.
- Most girls believe that sport involves money either for equipment, coaching, outsourcing sponsors and providing facilities.
- Most girls do not see themselves following a career in sport as they regard it as a short-term event. However, they do see the need to have more females participating in sports.
- Most of the girls did not believe the many stereotypes that surround perceptions of female sport participation such as that sport participation cause females to experience childbearing difficulties.
- In most of the schools, sport achievers are recognised more than the academic achievers.
- Most girls recognised the fact that they also have the ability and potential to play sport.
- The fact that there are successful sportswomen in South Africa was clearly revealed, which indicates the positive attitude of young girls towards sport.
- It was concluded that more females should be involved in sports and that the presence of females in all areas of sport is an urgent need and a crucial phenomenon.

5.2.2 REASONS FOR NON-PARTICIPATION

This study indicated that the following reasons are important when considering females' lack of participation in sport.

- The most important reason for not playing sport is the fact that the girls did not enjoy sport and showed little interest in getting involved in sport.
- Some of the girls could not participate in sport as they had to perform household duties.
- Some of the girls' parents did not want them to be involved in sports for various reasons.
- Socio-economic status also played an important role because the data showed that most of the girls could not afford to purchase sport equipment.
- Some girls did not think that their bodies were ideal for playing sport and this could stem from low self-esteem.
- The non-sport participants also thought that academics were more important than sport.
- The girls also felt that sport was putting a lot of unnecessary pressure on them to perform and do well.
- Some of the girls could not participate in sports because they were involved in cultural activities.

5.2.3 REASONS FOR PARTICIPATION

This study indicated that the following reasons are important factors that make female's to take part in sport.

- Enjoyment of sports was chosen as the most important reason for playing sport.

- Wanting a healthy life style was another important reason for the sport participants.
- Sport participants liked to play sport because all their friends played sport
- For some girls playing sports was important as they were trying to lose weight.
- The support from parents was another contributing and inspiring factor.
- The feeling of competition is a challenge and winning a game is even more fulfilling.
- The availability of facilities makes it easier for girls to make decisions about being involved in sports.
- For some of the sport participants, involvement was important, as they wanted to pursue a sporting career.

5.2.4 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SPORT PARTICIPANTS AND NON-SPORT PARTICIPANTS

The results of this study revealed some interesting differences. For those girls who did not participate in sport, academic work was also not important, as opposed to the sport participants who regarded academics as vital.

Most of the girls did not see themselves following a career in sport, as they viewed it as a short-term event. One most important reason for playing sports is because they imagined themselves being sports personalities in the future. It is therefore important for non-sport participants to be more exposed to female sport participants via the media and role models.

In terms of family and parental support, the sports participant received a lot of support from their parents as opposed to non-sports participants who indicated that their parents showed little support or no interest in their being involved in sport.

The non-sport participants indicated, as a first reason for not participating in sport, that they do not like sport. The sport participants indicated as their primary reason that they played sport because they enjoyed it.

The non-sport participants indicated that they did not play sport because they felt that their bodies were not ideal for playing sports. Some sport participants decided to participate in sports because they wanted to lose weight.

Most of the girls implied that they were not aware that there were very few facilities for females out there. The sport participants indicated that the presence of a variety of facilities could make it easier for them to make the decision to be involved in sports. Some of them made the decision to be involved in sport because of the availability and convenience of sporting facilities.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.3.1 Coaches

- ❖ It is the coaches' responsibility to emphasise the importance of a healthy mental state through involvement in sport.
- ❖ Building of a constructive relationship with peers would help to enhance, develop and implement programmes that would foster female sport participation.

- ❖ It is also the role of the coaches to prepare practices, which are both interesting and enjoyable for the girls.
- ❖ Coaches should not have too high expectations, the reason being that if the girls cannot cope with these expectations, they will simply drop out.
- ❖ Coaches must do everything possible to keep the girls in the team with the intention of developing them as sporting individuals.
- ❖ Coach must be able to identify potential, polish up the skills and direct the player.

5.3.2 Educators

- ❖ The educator's most important task is to be a role model. The educator should always be seen as a healthy role model that would inspire the girls and ultimately be an inspiration for the girls to model after her.
- ❖ Educators should understand the girls and encourage them to take an active part in sport.
- ❖ Educators should also give examples of how to deal with positive and negative physiological and psychological changes (President's Council on Physical fitness and Support, 1997).
- ❖ Educators should not discourage or criticise the girls but rather be willing to give support and guidance.
- ❖ Educators themselves should take sport seriously and make it part of their job and they should not be involved in sport just to fulfil the requirements of the school's sport programme.
- ❖ Educators must empower themselves by going for umpiring and grading courses to be competent in the particular sporting code.

5.3.3 Educational Institutions

- ❖ They should make provision for a variety of different sporting activities that could help to accommodate a variety of individuals.
- ❖ Available facilities should be for all and facilities should not be gender based.
- ❖ They should encourage girls to be involved in sport at an early age because involvement would contribute towards the improvement of their health.
- ❖ Identify the different methods that would enhance the physical performance and ability of the girls.
- ❖ Excelling in sports by girls should be given the same recognition as that of the boys.
- ❖ Girls who are gifted sport participants should be encouraged to go further and thus should be channelled correctly.
- ❖ Schools should be affiliated with the relevant sporting organisations and enter the different competitions.
- ❖ Educational institutions must raise funds to purchase sporting equipment, to facilitate transport and even outsource sponsors for certain aspects of the sporting activity,

5.3.4 The Government

- ❖ Allocate more money to female sport participation.
- ❖ Initiate the setting up of structures that would be able to reach out to the girls that are in the rural areas and outskirts of the cities.

- ❖ Have sponsored competitions for the different sporting activities for females.
- ❖ Make money available to take more females on sport training courses that would enable more women to be in positions of power in the world of sport.
- ❖ Guide females in terms of having relationships with international communities for the purpose of improving sport participation amongst the females.
- ❖ Ensure that money allocated to the different provinces to improve female sports participation is used accordingly.
- ❖ To encourage companies to sponsor females who have potential and to facilitate their sporting career.
- ❖ Allocate money to take females for further training, upgrading and umpiring and overall female sport participation.

5.3.5 Parents

- ❖ The parent's most important role is to support their children in whatever sporting activity they chose to do.
- ❖ Help their children by buying all the necessary equipment that is not provided by the school.
- ❖ Help to transport or provide transport money for their children whenever it is necessary.
- ❖ Give their children moral support by watching them play whenever it is necessary.

5.4 CONCLUSION

This study showed that there is still a lot of work that needs to be done to encourage more females to take part in sports. This study has created an awareness of the psychosocial factors that cause high school girls to choose not participate in sport. Hopefully this study may contribute towards some positive changes coming from the Department of Education and Training at national level, at provincial level and at district level and eventually filter down to the schools.

This study contains information, which can put systems into place that may nurture girl's interest in sport and eventually have more South African women representing the country at an international level. Changing negative attitudes of people regarding female sport participants might be one way of promoting females in the field of sports. The portrayal of female sport participants in the media will be a means of showing the female community that females can be as dedicated, as determined and can excel as well as their male counterparts.

The results of this study have confirmed some of the psychosocial factors that have made it impossible for most of the girls to participate in sports. This study has achieved its aims, which is to determine psychosocial factors that contribute to girls participating in sport.

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