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Sports Socialisation of 11 to 20 Year Old Brazilian Girls in the 1990s
- a social psychological study

by

Emmi Myotin

A Doctoral Thesis
Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements
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SPORTS SOCIALIZATION OF 11 to 20 YEAR OLD BRAZILIAN GIRLS
IN THE 1990s
- A SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL STUDY

EMMI MYOTIN

Abstract

This doctoral thesis sets out to make an original contribution to an underdeveloped field of research. It analyses in detail the sports socialisation of 11 to 20 year old schoolgirls in the 1990s in Brazil. Admittedly, there is an acknowledged and growing body of research on this subject, particularly in the Anglo-Saxon world and in other European countries. In Brazil, however, there is a real dearth of thoroughgoing analysis of its complexities. By means of substantial empirical data analysis (1,497 subjects, aged between 11 and 20) this study in social psychology not only brings to light the very real problems of female adolescent socialisation into sport and other physical activities. It also sets these problems in a far more complex context than existing research in Brazil has been prepared to do. To this end both institutional (social, cultural, economic, political) and individual (above all gender) variables will be examined together. The substantial critical review encompasses the state of research in the subject of women's sports socialisation over the last twenty-five years. It presents patterns in an international context, discusses the under-representation of women and goes on to consider institutional and individual factors with a bearing on women's sport participation. A final review section on the adolescent will provide the hypotheses which are tested against the empirical findings by use of a questionnaire (included in the appendix). After a careful presentation of the methodology, a detailed breakdown of the results is then presented. 42.8% of respondents played at least one sport once a week, and the index of participation decreased from the age of 13. Volleyball, gymnastics and swimming are practised, and football and weight-lifting considered the least appropriate forms of sporting practice for women. Motives adduced for participation included health, being in shape, and making friends. In terms of influences, the PE teacher emerges as the most important socialising agent. The analysis made of the situation of sports in Brazil reveals the persistence of stereotypes and consequent low levels of women's sports participation. The final chapter engages in a thoroughgoing critique of these findings in both an international and national context and makes some suggestions as to potential political applications of the results.
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CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION

The value of sport and leisure for youth as important social and cultural experiences in developing countries is frequently stressed when it comes to establishing priorities for development programmes. It might appear at first sight that Brazil's severe social and economic problems and concomitant alarming rate of poverty would tend to relegate sport and leisure to a position of secondary importance. According to the IBGE (Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics), out of a total population of approximately 140 million - 80 million under the age of 18 - 32 million Brazilian children up to the age of 17 live in extreme poverty, i.e., they come from families whose daily wages allow them to buy in São Paulo only three rolls with butter, two glasses of milk with coffee and a single bus ticket (Veja Magazine, 1992).

São Paulo is the most prosperous city in the country, situated in the state of the same name, with the highest per capita income and relatively well-developed industry and commerce. Given this background one could question whether sport and physical activities should be given priority in the social and economic development of Brazil. Nevertheless, there is a relatively affluent segment of the population which should in principle have access to all the facilities and benefits associated with an industrialized society.

As societies undergo industrialization, people become less active due to increasingly mechanized technology; they have greater access to mass media communication consumption and as a consequence their attitudes, values, and ways of living and acting change, revealing a new physical, cultural and social-psychological complex adapted to the new demands of living. Many studies have shown the importance of sports and physical activities as leisure pursuits in industrial and post-industrial societies as an instrument used to reverse the
influences of industrialization.

Initially, these studies focused on males only, because it was assumed that their work in factories and other modern organizations caused them to be more affected by industrialization. Only in recent decades, with the advent of the women's movement, has attention been diverted to the constraints women face in gaining access to the world of leisure - still considered to be basically a men's prerogative. In general, research investigating women's sports and physical activities as leisure pursuits focuses on adult women; the findings point to marriage, presence of children and domestic responsibilities as major reasons for non-participation in these activities (Woodward et al., 1989).

Although young women in their adolescence have not been ignored, the importance they have received is not commensurate with the significance of this new stage of life in women's socialization process into sports and physical activities. This is unfortunate, for not only is adolescence the key stage when much of the women's socialization process into sports and physical activities takes place, but it is also when the concepts of womanhood and femininity are established; these have a great impact on shaping their future behaviour and interest in relation to sports and physical activities as leisure pursuits.

Despite the efforts of the Brazilian government through the Secretaria de Educação Física e Desportos over the years to implement its policy of "Sports for All", despite increased public awareness of the importance of physical fitness to health and a growing recognition of the benefits of physical activity and sports socialization (Butt, 1978; Kleiber and Roberts, 1981; Reis and Jelsma, 1978), female sports participation levels have remained lower than those for males.\(^1\) In the course of twenty years of personal experience as a university lecturer in Brazil working with the community from pre-school to adult level, this author has been in a position to observe that girls usually demonstrate great enthusiasm and interest in sports and physical activities until

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\(^1\) It remains to be seen whether or not Pelé's appointment as Extraordinary Minister for Sports will have an impact on female participation.
puberty. At this stage of adolescence the level of girls' participation in these activities was similar to that of boys. However, from this phase onwards, girls' participation levels started to decline to the extent that at the end of adolescence it was almost non-existent in some sports.

This pattern of behaviour is confirmed by studies of women's involvement in sports and physical activities. These reveal that female participation in sports activities declines with age (Crompton et al., 1979), particularly during adolescence (Kirshnit et al., 1989). In this stage of the life-cycle a large number of female adolescents drop out of sports and physical education (Williams, 1988) and continue to avoid these activities for the rest of their lives. Such findings are strongly supported by the continuity theory of ageing (Atchley, 1977), which posits that behaviour and attitudes acquired at one stage in the life-cycle predispose an individual to carry them over into later stages. This means either that participation in sports and physical activities during adolescence tends to prefigure adult sport involvement (Greendorfer, 1979; Snyder and Spreitzer, 1976), or that inactivity in youth tends to lead to inactivity in adulthood (Sofranco and Nolan, 1972; Yoesting and Burkhead, 1973).

This is why many researchers have claimed that motives for dropping out of sports and physical activities, and the consequent low level of participation among girls during adolescence merit particular investigation and understanding (Skard and Vaglum, 1989). Participation in sports and physical activities as a leisure pursuit is thought to promote not only positive feelings about one's body, and higher level of self-esteem (Anthrop and Allison, 1983; Snyder and Spreitzer, 1976), but also "healthy" competition, character building, encouragement of teamwork and providing young people with an area of instrumental achievement unavailable to the nonathletically inclined (Kirshnit et al., 1989). As long as those involved in the health and well-being of adolescent girls do not pay attention to the problem of evasion, millions of girls will be deprived not only of all the potential benefits of physical activity and
sports during adolescence itself, but also of the possibility of carrying over the values of an active life-style from this period into adulthood.

The reasons for the decreasing level of female participation in sports and physical activities during adolescence have been widely investigated in studies on girls' socialization in sports and physical activities, although there has been some controversy regarding the reasons as well as the most probable age at which the decline starts (Bardwick, 1971; Tyler, 1973; Kirshnit et al., 1989).

One line of research investigating girls' reasons for dropping out of sports adopts a feminist perspective. In these studies the most frequently debated issues have been the psychological constraints related to images of femininity and what is considered to be gender-appropriate behaviour (Kane, 1987; Hoferek, 1978; Reis and Jelsma, 1978; Scraton, 1986). It has been suggested that although attitudes towards women in sport may have changed in the last decades, society still perceives sport as a male-orientated and male-dominated activity (Scraton, 1986). This is why many female participants may feel that their female and athlete roles are in conflict; they then face the problem of reconciling the prevailing conceptions of femininity - fragility, dependence, passivity etc. - with their sports behaviour which tends to stress aggression, competitiveness, independence etc. (Carrington and Leaman, 1986).

Another approach to examining girls' sports evasion during adolescence has been to study motivation and attrition. These studies report that interest in and conflicts with other activities are the major reasons for adolescents discontinuing their involvement in sports (Gould et al., 1982). This shift in interests away from sports is explained by the fact that, with increasing age, adolescents have less leisure time available in contrast with greater opportunities and interests to pursue nonathletic forms of leisure. From this perspective dropping out of sports may be due to interest in nonathletic activities and lack of time.

These studies, although focusing on adolescent girls, are contradictory in relation to the age group in which such conflicts and constraints occur.
According to Bardwick (1971), whereas pre-adolescent girls are permitted, even encouraged to succeed in competitive sport, between the ages of 12 and 14, changes in gender-role socialization and pressures to adhere to gender-appropriate behaviour may cause a drop in girls’ sports participation (Hill and Lynch, 1983). On the other hand, Tyler (1973) reported that most girls give up athletic pursuits at about the age of 15. Whereas these studies diverged in relation to the most probable age at which girls are expected to give up sports participation, they fail to discuss how some girls overcome such constraints related to gender stereotypes and do participate in sports and physical activities.

The review of the literature on sport socialization also enabled the identification of early research (Kenyon, 1968, 1970; Kenyon and McPherson, 1973) which attempted to explain how males were initiated into sport by the application of a social learning paradigm. Incorporating notions from modelling, role and continuity theory, they sought to identify how socializing situations (i.e., opportunities, availability of programmes and equipment) and significant others (i.e., family, peers, teachers and coaches) influenced an individual into becoming a sports participant.

More recent studies on the sports socialization of children (Greendorfer, Blinde and Pellegrine, 1986) and female athletes (Greendorfer, 1987) have modified slightly the theoretical perspective and have introduced a social role-social system approach which combines both psychological and sociological variables. In this approach role aspirants - with their ascribed and achieved characteristics - are influenced by significant others located within a variety of social systems (Greendorfer and Ewing, 1981). Each social system (family, peer group, school and community) with its specific values, norms, sanctions, and situational facilities, is a potential role-learning institution which influences the learning of sport roles (Loy, McPherson and Kenyon, 1978). In spite of all criticisms this social role-social system approach has made a contribution to a greater awareness of the socialization process into sports and physical activities of female adolescents by examining the degree to which different socializing
agents influence their active participation in sports and physical activities. However, research on this matter has also been controversial in relation to the most influential socializing agent during adolescent years.

It became clear from the existing international literature on girls' participation in sports and physical activities that more knowledge is needed in assessing the process by which female adolescents become and remain involved in this process. Therefore, this thesis seeks to overcome the aforementioned shortcomings of existing studies on female participation in sports and physical activities and promote new critical analysis in the field of Physical Education and Sports Sciences for women in several aspects.

Information on Brazilian women within the sport context presented in academic works in international literature is rare (Greendorfer et al., 1986). Brazil is well known and has attracted much international attention for its tradition in football (Lever, 1979), an essentially male-oriented and male dominated sport which was forbidden in official competition for women in Brazil until 1979. Studies on Brazilian women experiences in sports and physical activities is almost inexistent, even in Brazilian literature (Rosemberg and Pinto, 1985; Rosemberg, 1995). The same prejudices which divert women from sports may be responsible for the scarcity of research on women in sports in Brazil (Pereira, 1984). Therefore, research on Brazilian women, specially adolescent girls, should contribute to knowledge in the debate on cultural differences in the socialization process of women in sports within an essentially Catholic, patriarchal and Latin-American macho society.

In order to study and understand the process of socialization into sport and physical activities among adolescent girls, an analysis of multiple factors underlying physical activity patterns seemed to be the best research strategy. This is all the more true given that the present state of knowledge in the sport socialization process demands more adequate conceptualization and operationalization of its theoretical components (Greendorfer, 1991). In the Brazilian context in particular, an in-depth study of a selected small number of
variables might be premature since very little is known from the almost non-existent literature on women's sport socialization. Besides, the more potentially relevant variables are included in the study, the more comprehensive the picture of the socialization process will be. Lastly, it is easier to exclude superfluous variables from an analysis than to gather additional information ex post facto.

Thus, this study will investigate the participation patterns in sports and physical activities in a large sample of Brazilian adolescent girls from the general population. The sports literature studies which seek to explain adolescent girls' socialization into sport have in general focused on a few variables in small samples, usually taken from athletes (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1976). This in turn makes it difficult to extrapolate trends applicable to the general population. Where studies have adopted a more comprehensive approach (e.g. analyzing many determinant factors in adolescent life-style) with non-athletes, girls were compared with boys in their behaviour (Coleman, 1961; Hendry, 1978). Such comparative studies failed to address the specifically female socialization process in sufficient depth. Therefore, the current study carried out a female-centered study which should allow more space and time for analyses on women's socialization process into sports and physical activities.

The age range of the sample varies from 11 to 20. It is hoped that this age range will allow a more detailed analysis of the variations in sports and physical activity patterns, including the debate on the most probable age at which girls starts declining their involvement in sporting activities. Studies are frequently carried out on a small sample of females either in their early, middle or late stage of adolescence; so the restricted age range does not allow a general picture of the changes throughout adolescence to emerge.

Also, samples from different areas of residence in the conurbation of São Paulo and the rural university town of Viçosa, Minas Gerais, will be examined. The results will add further information not only on the debate of lifestyles in urban industrial areas but the effects of mass media communication
in small rural towns.

Recent research on adolescent girls based on large samples merely identify their physical activity patterns without attempting to explain the factors underlying the results. For example, a large survey conducted in Belgium (Simmons, 1990), was designed to provide information on the physical fitness of Flemish school girls. Social-cultural aspects were discussed, albeit in a descriptive form in the characterization of the sample used. Other published studies with large samples of non-athletes and a focus specifically on adolescent girls have been conducted in Germany, Poland and Switzerland. However, they fail to broach the problem of gender role socialization which is central to any understanding and explanation of the women's process of socialization into sport and physical activities. This thesis, in contrast, will examine how gender stereotypes, especially those related to sports, are pervasive and perpetuated in Brazilian society. It could add further information on women's socialization into sports in an essentially patriarchal and Catholic Latin-American macho society.

Despite all the criticisms the social role-social system approach has attracted in relation to its inadequacy for analyzing the sports socialization process of women, the investigation of the influence of the major social systems on girls' involvement in sports and physical activities is still of paramount importance. It was believed that if an interventional approach were taken to improve the quality of life of the young population, firm targets should be set not only for the young people themselves, but also for those who live closest to them. In this sense, family members, teachers, peers and the other community members where they live should also be prioritized in the promotion of sports and physical activities for the young. This thesis is therefore designed to contribute to a greater awareness of the socialization process into sports and physical activities of adolescent school girls in Brazil by examining the degree to which different socializing agents and personal attributes influence their active participation in sports and physical activities.
The knowledge of the most influential social system on girls' involvement in sports at different ages could represent further data useful for sports promotion among adolescents. In addition, the impact of socializing agents, namely the family, school, peer-group, community, mass media, and some personal attributes on the sports and physical activity patterns will be assessed in a sample comprised by Brazilian adolescent girls. The emergence of peculiarities can be credited to and add further information to research on cross-cultural differences in the process of socialization into sport.

Finally, in an attempt to investigate the continuity theory, this thesis will investigate whether present active sport involvement is a function of past participation. It has been suggested that for a female to become involved in and to continue in sport she would have to have been continually in an environment which is highly supportive of her activities (Hall, 1976). In addition, attitudes, motivation, self-esteem, and self-perceived physical competence will also be examined since in previous research these were considered differentiating factors between sports participants and non-participants. These suppositions could be assessed in the Brazilian context allowing further cultural differences to emerge.

In summary, this thesis seeks to provide additional knowledge in the field of Physical Education and Sports Sciences for women addressing the following general questions:

1. What are the patterns of participation in sports and physical activities, outside school, among adolescent girls (11-20 years) attending state schools in Brazil?

2. Are there age differences in participation patterns in sports and physical activities in adolescents from 11 to 20 years of age?

3. Are there differences in participation patterns in sports and physical
activities between girls living in a late industrial society and in a small community?

4. What are the reasons for participation, evasion and non-participation in sports and physical activities?

5. Are there any associations between perceptions of femininity and stereotyped views of women in sports with respect to participation and non-participation in sports and physical activities?

6. What is the influence of the childhood sport participation, family, school, peer groups, and community on girls' sport participation patterns in sports and physical activity?

7. What are the differences between participants and non-participants in sports and physical activities in relation to socio-economic class, attitudes towards sports and Physical Education, self-esteem, and self-perceived physical competence?

The results of the present study will be discussed against the background of the current ideologies and practices of women in sports and physical education around the world.

In Chapter Two a review of the international literature will be carried out on women's participation patterns in sports and physical activities and the influences of different social systems and personal attributes on these patterns. This chapter will offer reflections on the questions formulated above and develop a number of specific hypotheses vis-à-vis the sports participation of Brazilian adolescent females.
CHAPTER TWO - REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The review of literature seeks to identify relevant variables which could influence women's participation in sports and physical activities. Although this review of literature was concentrated mostly on young women - for the purposes of the present study defined as the age group 11-20 - investigations on women over all ages were also taken into account. Particularly those attempting to explain actual sport behaviour as a product of socialisation into sport and physical activities during childhood and adolescence were considered of paramount importance. Findings from these studies confirming the continuity theory add vital information for the analysis of the consequences of sport socialisation during adolescence.

By the same token, although this study focused on girls only, this review of literature covers participation in sport irrespective of sex in the discussion of some topics in which male experience was thought to be valuable in the analysis of women's participation in sport. A non sex-based approach is a challenging point of departure for discussing women's experience in sport. Comparative studies involving both boys and girls have clearly revealed the divergence in their experience in sports and the unsuitability of current sport ideology and practice, still predominantly male-oriented and male-dominated, for women. Thus, in order to provide a truly differentiated picture of women in sport, it was thought that female participation could not be examined in isolation.

Initially, the review concentrates on sports literature which demonstrated women's participation patterns in sports and physical activities in different countries, ages and sporting activities. Special attention was directed to those
studies adopting basically an historical perspective with some insight into the reasons for women's low sport participation levels. It was thought that knowledge about the development of women's achievement in sports throughout history could be helpful in assessing their gains and loses in their battle for emancipation in the world of sport and forecast the most appropriate direction to take for better achievements.

After this, a survey of the literature attempting to determine the variables which could affect women's participation in sports and physical activities was carried out. From this, it emerged that an interaction of various personal attributes and socialising agents can determine differences in sports participation patterns. Some of these personal attributes and socialising agents more pertinent to the scope and nature of the present study were selected for analysis.

An overview of the developmental aspects during adolescence, with emphasis on female development is also included here. The intention was to take an interactional approach to understanding girls' sport behaviour within a context of adolescent girls' lives and the developmental changes which women experience during adolescence. It was thought that the context in which the developmental changes take place could possibly influence their decision to take up or not sporting activities during this stage of life.

Finally, the last section was dedicated to conclusions on relevant factors reviewed in this chapter and general hypotheses for the present study.

Thus, this review of literature is divided into major headings covering:

I. Women's sport and physical activity patterns around the world: Belgium; Brazil; Canada; England and Scotland; Finland; Nigeria; Norway; Spain, United States; Switzerland; Australia; Israel; and Hungary.

II. Why women are underrepresented in the sports and leisure world
III. Individual factors influencing women's sport participation patterns: personal attributes

A. Age and developmental stages

B. Socio-economic class

C. Attitudes towards sporting activities and physical education

D. Motives for participation in sports and physical activities

E. Self-esteem and self-perceived physical competence

F. Notions of femininity and masculinity: gender roles

G. The power of sport stereotypes as the major barrier to female participation in sport and physical activity

1. Stereotyped views of women in sports

2. Appropriateness of selected sporting activities for women: the ideology of sport, power, physicality and sport typing

IV. Institutional factors influencing women's sport participation patterns

A. Research on the process of socialisation into primary sports roles: the influence of family, school, peer-group, and community.

1. Family
2. School and physical education

3. Peer-groups

4. Community

B. The representation of the sporting woman in communication media: a barrier to greater women's sports participation?

V. A portrait of the adolescent: her/his habits, feelings, opinions, hopes, and interests

VI. Why adolescent girls give up participation or do not participate in sports and physical activities

VII. Conclusions and general hypotheses
I. WOMEN'S SPORT AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITY PATTERNS AROUND THE WORLD

Introduction
In the last decades, the advent of the women's movement has brought the idea of equal opportunity into the world of sport. This has prompted a world-wide proliferation of research publications on the topic in an attempt to account for gender inequalities in the patterns of participation in sports, physical activities and leisure. Several of these studies are analysed here in order to obtain a conspectus on the situation of women in different countries, ages and sporting activities.

In the following I shall present a review of such studies by country. This review will then provide a frame of reference for data analysed in the Brazilian context. One of the selection criteria adopted was the date of publication. Accordingly, the 1970s were taken as the cut-off point, with especial emphasis being given to publications in the 1980s and thereafter. The 1970s can be considered a turning point in the development of women in all sectors of life, including the sporting sphere, since it was from this point onwards that women came to articulate a more forceful voice.

1. Female sport participation in Belgium

Information about female sports participation in Belgium was gleaned from the Louvain Growth Study (Renson and Vanreusel, 1990). This study was designed to provide information concerning the physical fitness of Flemish schoolgirls from 6 to 18 years of age. The total sample consisted of 9,954 girls, 47.6% at primary school level and 52.4% at secondary level. Information about the physical activities habits of girls from 6 to 12 years of age was collected by
means of a structured written questionnaire that was filled in by the parents. The sporting activities of girls from 13 to 18 years were recorded by a standardised questionnaire which adopted a retrospective approach: sporting activities during the year prior to the application of the survey were registered. Four aspects of sport participation were covered: 1) type of sport activities, 2) diversity of sport activities, 3) amount of time spent, in hours per week, on each activity, and 4) organisational context of sport involvement, such as club, school, etc. The questionnaire was completed by the girls' parents and cross-checked during short a short interview with each girl. The results showed that the average score of physical activity stimulus increased with age: it started at 61.9 for the youngest girls, increased to 70.2 for girls of 9 years, to 75.4 for the oldest girls. It concluded that from 6 to 12 years of age, older girls gradually receive a stronger stimulus for physical activity than younger girls. A more detailed analysis of the data indicated that participation in clubs, summer camps, and sport participation items mostly accounted for the observed increase of the scores with increasing age. Thus, stimulating opportunities for physical activities seem to grow with the process of the social growth of the girls.

In relation to the sports participation of the 13- to 18-year-old girls, data revealed that 7 to 11% of the girls are completely inactive or modestly active (up to one hour per week), 34 to 48% practise one to three hours of sport, 30 to 40% practise three to six ours per week, and 14 to 21% in the most active category, with more than six hours of sport practice per week. The modal sport involvement rate of the sample is within the one-to three-hours-per-week category, except for the age 15 which was within the three- to six hours category. Although the diversity in sport participation increases with age, the practice of only two different sports is the modal frequency for all age categories. The two most practised sports were gymnastics and swimming, the classical physical education activities in the Belgian school curriculum. While gymnastics remained stable at about 90% participation rate, swimming showed
a decline from 87% at age 13 to 71% at age 18. This is compensated for by gradual increase in volleyball, track and field, tennis and basketball. Volleyball increases considerably from 10 to 46%, track and field from 12 to 26%, tennis from 13 to 21% and basketball triples its participation rate from 7 to 20%. Participation in table tennis, ice skating, cycling, and dance (5-8%) remains fairly stable but low between 13 and 18 years, ranging between 5 and 12%. Soccer (1-2%) and judo (2-3%) had a minimal participation rate fluctuating between 1 and 3%. Examining the degree of the formal sport affiliation of the girls, the results showed the relevant fact that the primary physical activities of Flemish girls, gymnastics and swimming, are not qualified as typical club sports, since they score low on club affiliation. Volleyball retains a fairly constant club membership rate (15 to 17%), whereas basketball sees its club membership drastically reduced from 23% at the age 13 to 6% at 18 years.

In contrast to the findings reported in the research literature, the total amount of sport participation of Flemish girls increases relatively between the ages of 13 and 18. This result should be viewed with caution. The time spent in physical education lessons in the Belgian school system varies between one to three lessons per week according to the school board. These lessons account for the greatest part of female sport participation in general. This consideration gains even more support through the low percentages of club membership observed for two most popular activities.

When compared to their male counterparts (Renson et al., 1981; 1982), adolescent Flemish girls participate less in sport activities. They spend less time on sports, they display a smaller variety in their sport practice, and they participate less in club life. When compared with the general female sport participation trend reported by North American investigators, the Flemish survey shows no decrease with age. This paradox can be explained by two factors: a) the low sport participation rate of Flemish girls at the start of secondary schooling, and b) the compulsory secondary school physical education programme, which lasts over 6 years. In fact, the major part of the
girls' physical activity can be attributed to the compulsory physical education programme on the one hand (which consists mainly of gymnastics and swimming) and to the school sport milieu on the other. To conclude, the compulsory school physical education programme can be identified as the dominant socialising agent for girls in Flanders. This vulnerable 'protectorate' is at the present time the only guarantee for a minimum of physical activity among adolescent girls.

2. Female sport participation in Brazil

Data for Brazil are extremely rare and incomplete. Little space is reserved for women in sport in Brazilian sports literature. Existing research generally highlights the medical side and focuses on the health advantages for women which accrue from sports participation, and continues to perpetuate prejudice and stereotypes. Azevedo (1988) confirms this fact in his analysis of the content of articles published in specialised periodicals in the area of physical education in Brazil for the period 1932 to 1987. There is also a genuine dearth of reports on physical education and sports in Brazil. It was only in 1983 that the Sports and Physical Education sector was included in statistical studies conducted on behalf of the Ministry for Sports and Physical Education (Rosemberg and Pinto, 1985). In the rare event of encountering a study on participation, the results are not related to gender. At present there is no large scale research which quantifies female participation rates in recreational physical education. For this reason, only those sparse data that bear upon Brazilian participation at national and international level will be taken into account.

Further indices of women's sports participation in Brazil may be gleaned from the study published by the Brazilian Ministry of Education (Retrato do Brasil, s./d.). It compared the number of athletes by sex in 59 sports between
1975 and 1982. According to this data, women made up only 12% of Brazilian athletes in 1975 and 15% in 1982; volleyball and swimming were the most practised sports among women, followed, at considerable distance, by tennis, basketball, rhythmic gymnastics, handball and athletics. In 1982 sports with more female than male players included artistic gymnastics, rhythmic gymnastics, synchronised swimming and figure skating. In 1975 all sports had more male than female players. Boxing, water polo, ice hockey, field hockey, cricket, rugby, sumo wrestling, Greek fighting, free Olympic fighting have always been played exclusively by men. Some signs of improvement in women's participation in Brazil can be seen in football, a sport played only by men until 1979: in 1985, there were more than 4000 athletes. Also, good results obtained in international championships by female basketball (World Champion in 1994; 2nd in the 1996 Olympic Games) and volleyball teams (Table 1) and the massive media coverage since the 1984 Olympic Games warrant attention.
Table 1. Recent achievements of Brazilian women's volleyball

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Championship</th>
<th>Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>World Cup</td>
<td>8th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>Juvenile World Championship</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>Juvenile</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Juvenile</td>
<td>2nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Juvenile South-American</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Adult South-American Championship</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Pan-American Games</td>
<td>2nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>Olympic Games - Moscow</td>
<td>7th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>Olympic Games - Los Angeles</td>
<td>7th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Olympic Games - Seoul</td>
<td>6th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Olympic Games - Barcelona</td>
<td>4th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>Olympic Games - Atlanta</td>
<td>3rd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Grand Prix</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>Grand Prix</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An analysis of the history of the participation of Brazilian women in the Olympic Games (Table 2) and Pan-American Games (Table 3) can illustrate the increasing figures indicating changes in attitudes towards women in sports in Brazil. However, if compared to men's figures we can see the striking evidence of female invisibility in the Brazilian sporting world.
Table 2. Male and female Brazilian athletes in the modern Olympic Games

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Male athlete</th>
<th>Female athlete</th>
<th>% Female athlete</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>Antwerp</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924</td>
<td>Paris</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>Amsterdam: Brazil did not attend the Olympics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1932</td>
<td>Los Angeles</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1936</td>
<td>Berlin</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>Tokyo: No Olympics due to World War II</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1944</td>
<td>Olympics cancelled due to World War II</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1948</td>
<td>London</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1952</td>
<td>Helsinki</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1956</td>
<td>Melbourne</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>Rome</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>Tokyo</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>Mexico City</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>Munich</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>Montreal</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>Moscow</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>Los Angeles</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Seoul</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>20.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Barcelona</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>20.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>Atlanta</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>29.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Male and female Brazilian athletes in the Pan-American Games

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Male athletes</th>
<th>Female athletes</th>
<th>% female athletes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>Buenos Aires</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>Mexico City</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>29.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1959</td>
<td>Chicago</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>Sao Paulo City</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967</td>
<td>Winnipeg</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>Cali</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>Mexico City</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>Puerto Rico</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>Caracas</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>Indianapolis</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Female sport participation in Canada

One of the largest surveys, the 1981 Canada Fitness Survey (Dishman and Dunn, 1988), indicate little difference between the sexes in relation to rates of sport participation. Whereas 57% of Canadian males aged 14 years and over were active in 1981, the relevant figure for females was 55%. The Ontario studies reveal 63% and 61% participation for males and females respectively in June 1983. Although the gap in the rates of the two sexes who are active narrows, the Ontario studies indicated that more men than women exercise at a high-intensity level. Gender differences are also apparent in the type of activities undertaken. According to the Canada Fitness Survey (1983), 56% of Canadian males and 44% of Canadian females participated in jogging. The Ontario figures indicated that more females than males participated in swimming (25% and 19%). Also, more women than men participated in
organised exercise classes (17% and 8%); more men than women participated in team sports such as baseball and hockey. Respondents reported an increase in exercise activities from 58% participating in 1976 to 71% participating in 1981 (McPherson et al., 1989; Smith, 1979).

4. Female sport participation in England and Scotland

In England, the General Household Survey (1983) indicated that approximately 20% more men than women had participated in sporting activities in the month before they were interviewed. According to this survey, 35% of women respondents aged 16 and over had played some kind of sport. The most popular activity for both men and women was walking, followed by swimming and keep fit/yoga for women. On the other hand, for men, the other activities most practised were football, snooker/billiards/pool, darts and swimming.

Similar patterns of participation were revealed in the survey carried out in Sheffield in which 707 women aged between 18 and 60 participated (Woodward, Green & Hebron, 1989). About 35.2% of the respondents reported that they were regularly engaging in physical recreation. Yoga and keep-fit were the most popular activities, followed by swimming, badminton, tennis, squash, and running or jogging. The proportion of sport participation declines significantly with increasing age from one in three of the age group 18-24 to one in eight of the 45-59 age group. In addition, single women played more sport than married women, with or without children; as well as women from higher social classes and those of school-leaving age. Although the results of these two studies show clearly the disadvantage of women in relation to men as far as participation rates in sports and physical activities are concerned, another survey from Sheffield examining sport involvement of 800 first-year students indicated that university students had a high level of involvement compared to
the general population (Bracewell and Alexander-Hall, 1983). According to this survey, 70.2% of male and 56% of female students reported being involved in physical activities and sports. Particular popularity was given to racquet sports (badminton, squash, table tennis and tennis) and swimming the two most popular activities among female university participants. Outdoor and indoor team games, outdoor pursuits, dance, athletics and gymnastics were also cited although were considerably less popular.

Another study of English adolescents examined physical activity participation outside school using a self-completion questionnaire (Williams, 1988). A sample of 921 fourth year pupils from six different schools was analysed. Questions were asked about participation in physical activity outside school and about attitudes to aspects of physical education. Only 52% of the sample claimed to take part in some form of physical activity outside school. When the results were analysed by sex, 39.8% of females participated in physical activity outside the school, against 60.5% of males. Also differences in activity preference lend support to the belief that competitive team games are of relatively little interest to adolescent girls. 65% of active girls take part only in non-competitive activities. When the differences in team and individual activity patterns were examined, it was found that 87% of girls involved only in individual activities. Gender differences were also found in locations chosen by boys and girls. Girls tended to go to the swimming pools and ice rink, to be involved through a youth organisation or a keep fit or similar exercise or dance class.

Carrington, Chivers & Williams (1987) found that although there is a growing body of research in Britain into gender differences in leisure opportunities and behaviour, little is known about the extent to which such opportunities vary by ethnicity. In order to examine this disequilibrium a study was conducted with 114 young people of Southern Asian descent (50 males and 64 females) aged 11 to 24 em 1985-86. They found gender differences in leisure activities related to sporting activities. The most popular activities for
men were: football (52%), weight lifting (32%), pool/snooker (30%), and cricket (24%). For women they were: badminton (5%), tennis (5%), and pool/snooker (3%). In the case of South Asians, gender differences are accentuated by ethnicity. The authors conclude that, although young women can experience difficulties in relating to sport because of its masculine image, none of the male respondents referred directly to this particular constraint when accounting for their non-involvement (Gleeson, Tancred & Banks, 1989; Sports Council, 1987).

In Scotland, Hendry (1978) found low levels of activity in adolescents when he studied a group of fifteen to sixteen year olds. From the sample of 3000, more than 50% of the boys and 66% of the girls were classified as non-participants.

5. Female sport participation in Finland

Telama (1988) carried out a study in Finland with 12-to-14 year-old Finns. 61% of 14-year-old girls and 73% of similarly aged boys spent twice a week or more doing physical exercise of some sort. By contrast, 73% of 12 year-old girls and 81% of the boys of the same age spent twice a week or more doing physical exercise. Those who spent more than one hour on physical activities on weekdays constitute 28% of the boys and 14% of the girls. The types of sports most often pursued in leisure time activities by 9-to-18-year-old girls are: jogging/running (54%), biking (30%), walking and cross-country skiing (20%), gymnastics (18%), swimming (15%), and other team games (7%). For boys, jogging and ice hockey (39%), biking and soccer (30%), cross-country skiing (20%), and other team games (12%). In Finland, too, male adolescent participation in sports and physical activities outweighed female participation.
6. **Female sport participation in Nigeria**

The Nigerian study, conducted by Amuchie (1982) was based on a sample of 714 male and female adolescents between 12-19 years from secondary schools in Nigeria. Sex differences in the choice of recreational activities were studied. The results showed that the most popular recreational sports for men were soccer (33%) and table tennis (20%). For the females the most popular sports at the recreational level were basketball (23.8%), handball (21.4%), and volleyball (17.3%). No female chose soccer. The regularity of participation increased with age, finding support in Rapoport and Rapoport (1975) who found that adolescence is the most active life cycle stage. The participation rate for the 12-13 year-old group was 38.9%; for the 14-15 group 49.4%, for the 16-17 group, 52.4%, and for the 18-19 group it was 61.9%. The author did not report gender differences in this aspect.

7. **Female sport participation in Norway**

According to the Norwegian Confederation of Sports, which consists of 45 sport federations, in 1983 35% of the members were women (Fasting, 1987). This figure increased to 40% by 1986 and, according to Fasting (1987), this high rate is due to the Equal Rights Act which was passed in 1979. In gymnastics women represent 85% of gymnastics sport federation members; in equestrianism, 73%; in European handball, 66%; in track and field, 41%; in skiing, 36%; and soccer, 14%. The most popular sporting activities among females in Norway are, in order: gymnastics, skiing, European handball and soccer.

8. **Female sport participation in Spain**
In Spain, according to the finding of Herras (1992), the rate of participation in sporting activities has also increased through time. In 1968, 6.8% of women reported having practised physical activities; by 1974 this rate had increased to 12.8%, in 1980 to 17%, in 1985 to 23% and, finally reached 29% in 1990. The most popular forms of sporting activities were: swimming (27%), gymnastics (23%) and basketball (11%). Participation in sporting activities decreased with age: of the 15-19 age group, 61% practise sports; of the 20-29 age group the rate was 34%; of the 30-49 age group it reached 27% and 15% for the 50-64 age group. According to men, the most appropriate forms of sporting activities for women were: tennis (39%), swimming (34%) and gymnastics (30%). The least appropriate are: boxing (42%), football (41%), and rugby (15%). In turn, women responded that the most appropriate forms are swimming, gymnastics and tennis; the most inappropriate being football (44%), boxing (39%) and rugby (14%). These findings are, with very slight variation, borne out by the study by Ferrando (1992).

9. Female sport participation in the United States

In the United States, the Miller-Lite study of 1,139 Americans over 14 years of age conducted in October 1982 found that 58% of men and 37% of women reported having participated in five or more different sports at least once or twice a month. The four most popular activities reported by females were swimming, jogging, cycling, and callisthenics (McPherson et al., 1989). The rate of participation decrease with age. It ranges from 66% among 14- to 17-years-olds to 6% of the 50- to 65-years-olds. The biggest drop in sport and physical activity appears to occur when the adolescents leave school. The activity falls abruptly from 66% to 29% in the 18- to 24-years-olds (Research and Forecasts, 1983).

In the educational setting, the number of girls participating in high school sports increased over 600% between 1971 and 1981, while women's
participation in college sport increased over 150% (Birrel, 1988). By 1980, girls represented 33% of all high school athletes (Boutilier and SanGiovanni, 1983; see also Crompton, Lamb Jr. & Vedlitz, 1979; Hasbrook, Greendorfer & McMullen, 1981; Malumphy, 1970; Kirshnit, Ham & Richards, 1989; Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1984).

10. Female sports participation in other countries

Information from other countries was also obtained, but there was no quantitative data available which could justify a separate topic for such findings. This was the case of Switzerland (Nigg and Heiderich, 1968), Australia (Dyer, 1988), Hungary (Nadory & Szilase, 1976), and Israel (Geron, Mashiach, Dunkelman, Kaviv and Levin, 1985). From the qualitative evaluation of female sport participation in these countries, it became clearly apparent that women were equally disadvantaged in relation to men in these countries, in different ages and activities.

11. Female sport participation in the Modern Summer Olympic Games

An analysis of the history of the participation of women in the Olympic Games can illustrate changes in the visibility of women in the sporting world at international level. An investigation into the past and the present patterns of women's participation in the Olympic Games reveals the increasing figures over the years, as a reflex of changing in attitudes towards women in sports. However, if compared to men's figures we can see the striking evidence of female exclusion from international level sport competition (see Table 4). In the most recent research, the female participation index in the 1988 Olympics (1988) reached ca. 25% - far removed, then, from the much-vaunted quest for equality of the 1990s.
Table 4. Male and females athletes in the modern Summer Olympic Games

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Total number of athletes</th>
<th>Female athletes in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1896</td>
<td>Athens</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>Paris</td>
<td>1330</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>St.Louis</td>
<td>625</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>London</td>
<td>2035</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1912</td>
<td>Stockholm</td>
<td>2547</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1916</td>
<td>Berlin</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>Antwerp</td>
<td>2607</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924</td>
<td>Paris</td>
<td>3092</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>Amsterdam</td>
<td>3014</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1932</td>
<td>Los Angeles</td>
<td>1408</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1936</td>
<td>Berlin</td>
<td>4056</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>Tokyo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1944</td>
<td>Tokyo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1948</td>
<td>London</td>
<td>4099</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1952</td>
<td>Helsinki</td>
<td>4922</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1956</td>
<td>Melbourne</td>
<td>3242</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>Rome</td>
<td>5348</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>Tokyo</td>
<td>5140</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>Mexico City</td>
<td>5531</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>Munich</td>
<td>7147</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>Montreal</td>
<td>6189</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>Moscow</td>
<td>5328</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>Los Angeles</td>
<td>7078</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Seoul</td>
<td>9581</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Modified from Coakley (1990).
Conclusions

From the analysis of the information examined for various countries in this chapter certain general conclusions may be drawn:

1 - women are less involved in sports and physical activities than men, differences which are marked at higher levels of participation;

2 - females participate in a smaller range of activities than males (Coakley, 1990);

3 - some types of sports are practised more by women than by men, such as individual and non-contact sports; men prefer team games, contact and high risk sports (Dishman and Dunn, 1988; 1983 General Household Survey, 1985; Williams, 1988; Carrington et al., 1987);

4 - women tend to choose more indoor than outdoor sport activities (Williams, 1988);

5 - participation rates decrease with advancing ages for both sexes, in particular during adolescence, when this decline is more marked for adolescent girls.

6 - the activity levels are highest among women who are young, single, or well educated, without children (Woodward et al., 1989).
II - WHY WOMEN ARE UNDER-REPRESENTED IN THE SPORTS AND LEISURE WORLD

In recent decades there has been a considerable increase in women's participation rates in sports. According to McPherson (1989), many factors have encouraged women's participation in sporting activities:

- the women's movement, which seeks to enhance the status of women in all social institutions;
- the fitness movement, which stresses fitness for appearance and performance rather than for mere enjoyment;
- legislation, which leads to increased resources being allocated to women's sport and helps to institutionalise norms against discrimination;
- an increase in the number and visibility of active and successful female role models;
- research evidence against many of the medical and physiological myths that inhibited participation;
- changing gender-role socialisation in some societies and some social classes.

Despite this increase (from a low starting point, to be sure), women in the 1990s continue to struggle for a space in the sporting world. There has been a proliferation of research revealing the invisibility of women, but this has been accompanied by a shift away from the mere denunciation of the situation towards a study of the possible causes for the low participation rates of women in sports.

The reasons for the decreasing level of female participation in sports and physical activities have been widely investigated in studies on socialisation into sports and physical activities. Explanations such as inadequate early life
socialisation experiences into sport within the family, school, lack of opportunities in relation to facilities and programmes, and lack of role models in the media were also encountered (McPherson, 1984). During childhood and adolescence peer-groups seem to impose many behaviours and attitudes which contribute to the exodus of many young girls from sports and physical attitudes (Scraton, 1989; Weiss and Glenn, 1992; Bardwick, 1971; Tyler, 1973; Kirshnit et al., 1989).

Research into the reasons why girls are underrepresented in sports has adopted different approaches. One line of research investigating girls' motives for dropping out of sports takes a feminist perspective. In these studies the most frequently debated issues have been the psychological constraints related to images of femininity and what is considered to be gender appropriate behaviour (Kane, 1987; Hoferek, 1978; Reis and Jelsma, 1978; Scraton, 1986).

Another approach in investigating why girls drop out of sports during adolescence has been to study motivation and attrition (Scott, 1989; Klint and Weiss, 1987). These studies report that interest in and conflicts with other activities are the major reasons why adolescents discontinue their involvement in sports (Gould et al. 1982).

In addition to these approaches, studies on why women are not visible in the world of sports examine different personal attributes as influential factors on involvement in sports and physical activities by women in general. Attributes such as attitudes towards sports and physical activity (Gill, 1988; Kirshnit et al., 1989; Shultz and Small, 1981), self-esteem (Young, 1981; Scraton, 1986; Burden, 1988), age (McPherson et al., 1989; Sage, 1990), social class (Anders, 1982; Hasbrook et al., 1981; Hasbrook, 1987) and community (Hendry et al., 1981) are the subject of investigation here.

The following section sets out to analyse in greater detail some of the factors referred to above which influence female participation in sports and physical activities. These factors will in turn have a bearing on the organisation and structure of this thesis. The factors to be examined were selected by virtue
of their relevance in studies about women in sport, particularly during adolescence, but also by virtue of their significance in my own professional activity as a lecturer in physical education training future professionals - teachers and coaches - in physical education.

Accordingly, at the level of social institutions, I shall focus my attention on family influence, school, peer groups, community and the mass media. At the individual level the following factors will be reviewed: age, socio-economic class, motivation, attitude towards sports and physical education, self-esteem, self-perceived physical competence, stereotyped views of women in sports, and other aspects not related to sports but which could influence sports participation.

III. INDIVIDUAL FACTORS INFLUENCING WOMEN'S SPORT PARTICIPATION PATTERNS: PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES

Research into why certain individuals practise sports and physical activities has not undergone significant increase. One of the existing approaches adopted by some researchers has been to analyse individual differences in an attempt to define personal attributes which could be associated with sporting practise. In the review below, I shall discuss the following attributes: age and stages of development, socio-economic class, attitudes, motivation, self-esteem, self-perceived physical competence, self-perceived femininity, and stereotyped views of women in sports.

A. Age and developmental stages
The role of age or stage of development are other factors of influence that require reflection in the study of the process of socialisation into sport. Although sport may be the principal leisure activity for many during childhood and adolescence, there appears to be a universal and well-documented norm according to which sporting practice varies with age (McPherson, 1984). In general, girls usually demonstrate great enthusiasm and interest in sports and physical activities until puberty. At this stage of adolescence the level of girls' participation in those activities is similar to that of boys. However, from this phase onwards girls' participation levels start declining to the extent that at the end of adolescence it is almost non-existent in some disciplines.

This pattern of behaviour is confirmed by studies of women's involvement in sports and physical activities. It has been said that during adolescence a large number of female adolescents drops out of sports and physical education (William, 1988) and continues to avoid these activities for the rest of their lives. This pattern of sport participation behaviour is reported in many different countries (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1979; Hobart, 1975; Amuchie, 1982). The studies also reveal that female participation in sports activities declines with age (Hobart, 1975; Amuchie, 1982; Crompton et al., 1979), and particularly during adolescence (Kirshnit et al., 1989; Stephens et al., 1985). However, there is no agreement as to the age during adolescence at which girls will be most likely to drop out.

According to Bardwick (1971), girls end participation in sports by 12-14 years of age; this is partially confirmed by Savin-Williams et al. (1986). Studying 21 11-15-year-old girls in their PE volleyball classes, they found that early adolescent girls were more likely than middle adolescents to be enthusiastically involved in and concerned with volleyball matches. Middle adolescent girls appeared to do everything in their power to de-emphasise the game: they talked about irrelevant events or items, preened themselves and avoided the ball if it came toward them.
On the other hand, Tyler (1973) and Stephens et al. (1985) suggest that 15 is the time when girls withdraw from sports. This pattern does not begin for boys until age 16 or 17, with the greatest decline at age 18 or 19 after they leave high school (McPherson et al., 1989). This is confirmed by Archer and McDonald (1990) who investigated sports participation in a sample of 43 girls aged 9-15 years in the UK. They discovered that any decline in interest in sports by adolescent girls does not coincide with puberty. They suggested that it may occur later at the age of 14-15.

These studies are contradictory not only in relation to the age at which such conflicts and constraints take place, but also why they occur in the first place. Archer and McDonald (1990) suggest that girls give up sport participation possibly because time is taken up by other activities, such as school work, or fashion, appearance and boys, while Stephens et al. (1985) believe that this occurs, in part, as activity patterns in school environments change or end.

Research indicates that decline in participation is not only due to biological reasons. They suggest that after puberty the most plausible account for the gradual increase in physical performance variability in tasks in which the hormonal differential effect may be more intense, lies in an interaction between biological and environmental factors. The differences observed are too marked to be explained simply by biological factors. More probably, treatment and social expectations of adolescent females interact with biological factors (Thomas and Thomas, 1988).

Adolescence has been described as a period of great psychological, physiological and sociological change (Pease and Anderson, 1986). It is a period during which some girls seek to improve their motor skills while others abandon or are excluded through the selection process of sports participation. Peer-group pressure increases at this time and the socialisation of sexual roles may reach the point of greatest intensity. Thus, while pre-adolescent girls are permitted, even encouraged, to succeed in competitive sport, at age 12 to 14
(Bardwick, 1971), changes in the gender role socialisation and pressures to adhere to gender-appropriate behaviour may cause a drop in girls' sport participation (Hill and Lynch, 1983).

It is acknowledged that during puberty cultural expectations of adolescent girls change suddenly on occasion of the first menstruation. Parental control increases and society demands that the adolescent behave in keeping with the stereotype of the female sexual role (Ferris, 1981). Recent studies show that the decline in participation in sporting activities with increased age is primarily determined by social norms and expectations and changes in the life-cycle (Lamprecht and Stamm, 1996).

Hendry (1984) suggests that the reasons for the decline in sporting participation and involvement in physical recreation require better understanding for there is a complex of sub-cultural factors and attitudes which needs to be explained. This becomes clear when we examine why girls tend to lose interest in sports during adolescence. While researchers disagreed in relation to the most probable age at which girls are expected to give up sports participation, they fail to indicate the determinants of physical activity at this age or the carryover influence of activity habits from previous years, as well as their impact in later years (Myotin, 1983). Also, they fail to discuss how some girls overcome all the constraints related to gender stereotypes and participate in sports and physical activities.

Based on the review of the literature above, the following hypothesis may be derived in the context of Brazil:

**Hypothesis 1-** The indices of participation decrease with age during adolescence due to the girls' socialisation process which discourages their participation in sports and physical activities as they grow older.

**B. Socio-economic class**
Social background status affects access to sporting opportunities and also influences values and beliefs vis-à-vis the importance of involvement in sports during leisure time (McPherson et al. 1989; Anderson, 1979). Sports participation is intimately linked to norms of social stratification in all societies. The fact that sport is formally organised and institutionalised means that it is dependent on resources for its implementation, planning and maintenance by people who have spare time, financial resources and access to facilities and open spaces. Even the games and physical activities of the population in general depend on the approval and sponsorship of people with resources (Coakley, 1990).

Researchers have sought to examine and understand the influence of status and social class on sports participation (Luschen, 1979; Lever, 1979; Anderson, 1979; Pellegrini et al., 1987; Hasbrook, 1987; Hasbrook et al., 1981; Anders, 1982). Studies have undertaken surveys of child, adolescent and adult sports participants in different periods, collecting information about social status background such as occupation, education and salary, not only in relation to the respondents, but also in relation to their fathers and mothers. Such factors are identified as being determinants in differences in access to sport or social mobility opportunities. Most of these studies focus on men and do not refer to the national context. Accordingly, they reflect the situation in specific areas at specific times and make extrapolation difficult. However, on account of the large number of studies undertaken about the social status background of athletes it can be concluded that sports participation increases with increased socio-economic status (Anderson, 1979; Hasbrook, 1987). In the same way; access to certain types and levels of involvement is strongly influenced by the background of the parents of the sporting participant (McPherson et al., 1989; Hasbrook, 1987).

The effect of social status indicates that the cost of certain sports dissuades the less affluent from participation, although it is not the sole
determining factor. The values and lifestyles of each social class also seem to be important influences. According to Scraton (1987), young middle-class girls benefit from the privileged material position of their parents and enjoy greater opportunities for participation in social sporting activities. Not only do they enjoy greater financial support, they can also rely on parental help in reaching the club, swimming-pool etc. At the same time, they also suffer from sexual oppression rooted in the prejudice and stereotypes which flow from conceptions of gender-appropriate behaviour. This oppression acquires different forms and may produce varying reactions.

It is most probable that middle-class and upper middle-class families have parents who are themselves actively involved in sport and who encourage their children to participate (McPherson et al. 1989). It is also highly probable that they adopt a healthier lifestyle which includes physical activity. For this reason, certain sports such as golf, tennis, gymnastics, skiing and swimming are more likely to be practised by middle-class adolescents and above. Team sports such as basketball, football, baseball and volleyball tend to register greater variation in the socio-economic background of the practitioners. Of the general adult population, those classified as middle or upper class participate more in sports in general and more in specific types of sport based on values, lifestyle and occupation (McPherson et al., 1989).

For the lower-class adolescent, access to facilities and available space is inhibited by financial - such as access to public, let alone private, transport - and other cultural reasons (Luschen, 1979; Scraton, 1987). In addition, sports facilities are largely dominated by men. Even the street where male adolescents live is insecure territory for the female adolescent who is frequently exposed to abuse and even physical violence with their concomitant inhibition of motor pleasure (Scraton, 1987).

Based on the review of the literature above, the following hypothesis may be derived in the context of Brazil:
Hypothesis 2- The higher the socio-economic status of the girls, the higher the rates of participation in sports and physical activities.

C. Attitudes towards sporting activities and physical education

Attitude is considered an important construct because it influences behaviour. It can be taken that attitudes predispose an individual - either negatively or positively - to certain types of behaviour in certain environments (Gill, 1986). This relationship and the difficulty of changing attitudes in order to change behaviour are central questions in attitude studies in the area of social psychology.

Although it is possible to deduce speculatively specific behaviour from the specific attitude of individuals, it is not always possible to predict behaviour from attitudes. For this reason, an individual may demonstrate a positive attitudes vis-à-vis sport but may not practise sport for a variety of reasons. Onifade (1985) examined the relationship between attitude, physical attitude behaviour and physical activity belief among 217 Nigerian males and 133 females university students in the USA. The researcher found that there was no relationship between attitude, physical activity behaviour and beliefs of the subjects.

On the other hand, other studies have acknowledged that attitudes towards physical activities exercised some influence on behaviour patterns of youngsters (Duan, 1985; Hendry & Singer, 1981; Nicholson, 1979; Coe, 1984; Melchen & Sage, 1978; Savin-Williams, Bolgen & Spenda, 1986; Hendry, 1974).

One of the most important studies on attitude was conducted by Kenyon (1968). Kenyon elaborated an inventory by which she could evaluate attitudes toward physical activities as a multidimensional phenomenon. The dimensions
of the activity developed were: physical activity as social experience; physical activity for health and attitude; physical activity as the quest for vertigo (excitement), as aesthetic experience, as catharsis (relaxation), and as an ascetic experience (physical challenge). Kenyon developed a scale of semantic points in order to evaluate attitudes in relation to physical activities in each one of the dimensions outlined above. Her research spawned a vast range of studies which adopted the inventory as a reference, with minor modifications according to age, sex, sporting context and country (Schultz et al., 1981; Small and Schultz, 1980).

Schultz and Small (1984) used a children's inventory and found that boys and girls have different attitudes towards physical activity considered in its six dimensions. Girls were more positive than boys were on the aesthetic scale, and boys were more positive than girls were on the vertigo and catharsis scale.

Schultz et al. (1981) studied the relationship attitude-behaviour in sports in 550 young males and females athletes (10-16 years of age). They concluded that children's attitudes towards the construct physical activity are essentially equivalent to their attitudes toward a specific sport. The validity of a physical activity as a well defined attitude object was confirmed for young Canadian athletes.

Ikulayo (1983) found that 90.5% of the girls involved in her study professed favourable attitudes towards physical education. She administered an attitude inventory questionnaire to 116 second year girls in a London Comprehensive School. English girls expressed keen interest in swimming, tennis and gymnastics, and girls of West Indian parents towards athletics, netball and dancing. She concluded that there was a race-linked pattern of expressed attitude of the girls towards sports. She also found that physical ability was a major consideration in helping the girls to develop positive attitudes towards certain sports.
Pease and Anderson (1986) investigated attitudes toward involvement in team sport from the end of primary school to the end of high school. With a questionnaire, they analysed 238 pupils from a rural community; five years later, 71% of these pupils participated in a follow-up study. They expected that attitudes toward team sports would not only change in the course of the five years, but also, that variations between the sexes would emerge. Never the less, the hypothesis of fundamental change in the development of attitudes during adolescence was not corroborated. They concluded with the suggestion that attitudes for children between the ages of 10 and 12 undergo little change in five years. This would appear to suggest that the important period for the formation of attitudes in relation to sporting activities occurs before the age of 10.

General conclusions reached by the above can be summarised as follows: as age increases, a less positive feeling for physical activity is demonstrated, more sharply for girls than for boys. Most subjects who were involved in the research studies held favourable attitudes toward physical activity (Kirshnit, Ham & Richards, 1989; Csikszentmihalyi, Kleiber & Lawson, 1984; Kenen, 1986) and sport was generally experienced more positively than other areas of life experience (Csikszentmihalyi, Kleiber & Lawson, 1984). Girls register more favourable attitudes towards certain types of activities (Zaichkowsky, 1975; Schultz and Small, 1984). There is scant evidence of any positive relationship between actual behaviour and positive attitudes toward physical activity (Gill, 1986).

Based on the review of the literature above, the following hypothesis may be derived in the context of Brazil:

Hypothesis 3- The girls' attitudes towards sports, exercise and physical education will be generally negative.

Hypothesis 4- The more negative the girls' attitude towards sports, exercise and physical education the less likely they are to participate in sports and physical activities.
D. Motives for participation in sports and physical activities

Sports practitioners and researchers frequently cite an understanding of youth sports motivation as an important issue. On account of this concern an analysis of the comprehensive description of motives is undertaken here: Longhurst and Spink, 1987; Klint & Weiss, 1987; Tappe et al., 1990; Petrie, 1971; Gill et al., 1983; Gould et al., 1985; Scott, 1989; Women's Sports Foundation, 1988; and Mathes & Battista, 1985.

Longhurst and Spink (1987) examined the participation motives of 187 male and 217 female Australian youths from 8 to 18 years of age involved in 5 different sports. Subjects responded a 27-item sport participation motive questionnaire. Responses indicated that the most important reasons for participation in sports were to improve skills, be physically fit, compete, learn new skills, and to be challenged. It confirmed North American findings except for the absence of fun in Australian data, suggesting cultural differences in sports participation. Male and females responses were similar, thus supporting previous research.

Klint & Weiss (1987) tested the notions that perceptions of competence were related to particular motives children have for sports participation. The sample comprised 27 boys and 40 girls between the ages of 8 and 16 years who were involved in a non-school gymnastics programme for an average of 7 years. The results show that children high in perceived physical competence were more motivated by skill development reasons. The top 10 reported reasons were: to learn new skills, to get in shape or get stronger, improve skills, have fun, stay in shape, like the challenge, use the equipment, compete at higher levels, be physically active, and like the team spirit. In another study with children classified as recreational gymnasts, ranging in age from 8 to 14
years, they found that the use of equipment, to have fun, learn new skills, get stronger or get in shape, do something I am good at were the most cited reasons for participating in gymnastics (Klint and Weiss, 1986). No gender differences were reported.

Tappe et al. (1990) investigated the relationship between some psychosocial components and exercise behaviour among 98 male and 139 females adolescents with ages varying from 15 to 17 years enrolled in summer school classes at a large high school. They found that male adolescents primarily engage in exercise to increase their strength and skill, to improve their appearance and flexibility, and to experience competition. Female adolescents view exercise as a means to improve their appearance and flexibility, to manage stress, to increase their strength, and to manage their weight.

Gill et al. (1983) studied motivation in youth sports in 720 boys and 418 girls, ranging in age from 8 to 19 years, at a summer sports school. Questionnaire responses indicated that the most important reasons for participating in sports were to improve skills, have fun, learn new skills, challenge, and to be physically fit. Boys placed more importance on achievement/status reasons than girls did, but generally the responses of boys and girls were similar.

In other studies, 365 male and female swimmers, ranging in age from 8 to 19, representing school and non-school swim clubs, completed a questionnaire which assessed 30 objectives for participation. The results showed that fun, fitness, team atmosphere, skill development and excitement-challenge were the motives rated as being most important for participation. Females rated fitness, friendship, something to do and fun as being more important than the males (Gould et al., 1985).

According to The Wilson Report: moms, dads, daughters and sports, conducted in 1987, participated a random sample of 1,004 mothers and fathers and 513 of their 7 to 18-year-old daughters. It revealed that 89% of the girls
believe the biggest motivator of their participation is fun although 55% of the parents view the physical and health benefits as the most important reasons for their daughters' participation in sports (Women's Sports Foundation, 1988).

Scott (1989) carried out research to determine the motivational factors which may influence an individual's participation in any form of physical activity. She worked with approximately 600 English-speaking, white females living in South Africa, athletes and non-athletes with age ranging from 11 to 30 years. A questionnaire was used to investigate what aspects the respondents 'liked best' about physical activity and what aspects they 'liked least', whether they preferred to participate in sport on a social or competitive basis, and to rate four components associated with participation: .. to play as well as you are able, ...to be your opponent, ...to play the game fairly, ...to play for enjoyment. The aspects 'liked best' about physical activity across the age groups were, in order: fitness, enjoyment, social benefits and health, relation, winning and skill acquisition. The 'least liked' aspects were, in order: exhaustion, excessive competition, compulsion, lack of ability, boredom, fear of injury, time consumption, and weather conditions. Where there was a choice between social or competitive participation, the selection of social activities rather than competitive sports indicated that in every age group the choice of social benefits outweighed overt competitiveness. The rating of the four components associated with participation in physical activities showed the following order: enjoyment, skills, fairplay, and winning. The results showed that fitness and general feeling of well-being, plus the enjoyment derived from involvement in any form of physical activity, are the dominant motivation factors for participation across the age groups of the population of this sample.

Mathes & Battista (1985) studied the importance of nine dimensions (social experience, health and fitness, thrill and risk, beauty in movement, release of tension, prolonged and strenuous training, pursuit of victory, demonstration of ability, competition) in involvement in physical activity of 50 male and 50 female athletes and 100 nonathletes ranged in age 17 to 29 years
of age. The results showed that health and fitness motive was rated the most important as the basis for sport participation by the total sample. This was consistent with the findings of previous research and observations of the fitness boom that has occurred in the United States. Men showed that they value competition significantly more than women as a motive for sport participation.

In another study of 306 males and 318 females with mean age 20 studying in undergraduate courses in America, it was found that females gave significantly greater support to the motives of social interaction, fun, and aesthetic motivations. Males indicated greater support for the motivations of risk, skill with a weapon, competition in skill, competition in combat, and competition against natural environment (Petrie, 1971).

From these studies it can be concluded that motives for participation can vary according to age, gender, cultural settings, context in which sports are played, and levels of perceived competence. Motives with the highest rankings generally involved excitement, acquisition of new skills, achievement/status, team orientation, fitness, skill development, challenge, fun, social experience, and health. In contrast with the predominant importance boys attached to achievement/status and competition, girls rated highly fitness and health, social experience, appearance, and fun.

Based on the review of the literature above, the following hypothesis may be derived in the context of Brazil:
Hypothesis 5- The most cited reasons for participation in sports and physical activities will be related to needs of affiliation, desire for physical appearance enhancement and health (Graydon, 1987).

E. Self-esteem and self-perceived physical competence
Self-esteem is a self-construct with an evaluative component which may have as its basis a multitude of situation-specific evaluations. The resultant outcome is that 'I am an OK person'. An 'OK person' is determined by the individual. Terms such as self-confidence or perceived competence may be regarded as components or contributors to self-esteem (Fox, 1988).

Self-esteem is considered to be an influential factor in the take-up of sports, although there is controversy among researchers as to whether self-esteem is an inherent consequence of sport participation or a factor which encourages participation (Weiss, 1987). In general, higher levels of self-esteem are registered for sports participants than for non-participants (Young, 1981). It has also been observed that the self-esteem of sports participants increases significantly over the years 11-15. A paradox emerges here: although self-esteem of sports participants increases with age the rate of attrition reaches its culmination at the age of 15 when self-esteem should be well established (Butcher, 1989). Higher self-esteem, therefore, does not necessarily presuppose continued participation and this suggest that factors other than self-esteem underlie the motives for further participation.

Related to self-esteem, self-confidence is regarded either as a barrier to female sports participation or a major reason why females do not reach their optimum potential in physical activities (Stewart & Corbin, 1989). According to Corbin (1981), young females do not display self-confidence when judging their ability to perform a task if they perceive it as masculine or competitive physical activity. In other words, they do not exhibit self-confidence when the tasks involve strength, speed and/or physical contact or when engaged in activities in which their performance is evaluated. This knowledge may assist in explaining why females avoid sports and physical activities altogether (Graydon, 1987).

Studies have also shown the importance of perceived competence for continued sports participation (Wersh, Trew & Turner, 1990) and demonstrated the association between perceived athletic competence and involvement of
children in youth sports (Feltz and Petlichkoff, 1983; Roberts, Kleiber, and Duda, 1981; Weiss, Bredemeier, and Shewchuk, 1984). Sports participants attained higher perceived physical competence than drop-outs (Feltz & Petlichkoff, 1983). In addition, those rating themselves low in sport competence had, by their late teens, tended to avoid physical activities, whereas those who perceived themselves to be higher in sport competence were likely to be among the most active participants (Fox, 1988).

The fact that females have lower scores of perceived physical competence is well-documented (Feltz & Petlichkoff, 1983; Klint & Weiss, 1987). In a study with females aged 9-18, it was found that those between the ages of 9-11 register higher scores of perceived physical competence than males but this not apply to the 12-18 group (Roberts, Kleiber & Duda, 1981). Researchers suggest that older females had been exposed to longer periods of sex-role socialisation and may in consequence consider physical competence to be a masculine attribute. As a result they probably devalue this characteristic in themselves as they grow older. Conversely, boy's perceived self-esteem rises with age, especially after the age of 14 (Wersh, Trew & Turner, 1990).

Based on the review of the literature above, the following hypothesis may be derived in the context of Brazil:

Hypothesis 6 - Girls with higher self-perceived self-esteem and physical competence will participate more in sports and physical activities.

Hypothesis 7 - The more positive the self-perceived self-esteem and physical competence the greater the participation in sports and physical activities.

F. Notions of femininity and masculinity: gender roles

There has been ample discussion in sports literature of the importance of the development of the identity of the sex-role for socialisation into sport. The
existence of a sex role model which informs oppressive sex stereotypes has been the central question in studies of women in sport.

The sex role model is an abstract concept whose attributes must be possessed by an ideal man or woman in a given culture. Sexual identity is the way an individual perceives her/himself in the context of models of femininity or masculinity. But the most important point is the degree to which an individual believes s/he possesses certain typical sexual traits (Malmquist, 1978). The sex role model for masculinity or femininity not only vary from one culture to another, but from one time to another and in accordance with ethnicity, social class and age.

Stimulated by the liberal conception of equal opportunities in the 1970s there was a considerable increase in the participation rates of women in comparison with previous decades. At the same time, these rates were still far from reaching male rates. Various researchers sought to discover the reasons for this reluctance on the part of women to participate in sporting activities by recourse to social psychology (Hall, 1981; Harris, 1981; Graydon, 1987), in particular in analysis of the development of sex roles (Colley, 1986). As a result, a range of studies emerged from this time onwards, orientated toward the quest for a relationship between sports participation and a specific sex-role identity which generated the idea of sport androgyny, in addition to the problem of the conflict between the sports role and the sex role which induced women to withdraw from sport (Knoppers, 1980; Sage and Loudermilk, 1979; Gregson and Colley, 1986; Snyder and Kivlin, 1977; Ostrow et al., 1981; Colley, 1985; Anthrop and Allison, 1983; Nicholson, 1979; Savin-Williams et al., 1986; Ho and Walker, 1979; Butcher, 1989).

These studies undertook to identify the concept of femininity held by girls in school PE classes. Aiming to define the notion of femininity of 82 fourth year secondary school girls in England, Cockerill and Hardy (1987) asked the following question: Think of someone you regard as 'feminine' and someone you regard as 'unfeminine'. In what ways do they differ? The
identified differences were found in three categories: 1) Aspects of outward appearance such as skirts, high heels, make-up and jewellery, pierced ears, false tan, dyed or permed hair, slim, don't tidy hairstyles and use jewellery for PE, not dirty and always look nice before and after PE (52.9%); 2) level of interest and involvement in sport and physical activity: fragile, sensitive, unenergetic, plays easy sports e.g. netball, sometimes unfit, not too bothered about sport (20.7%); and 3) specific physical attributes, personality and behavioural traits: quiet, neat, lady-like, proper, self-conscious, more fussy, delicate, weak, always doing things right - a mummy's girl, never disruptive, always helping the teacher, (26.6%). The findings suggest that the term femininity does have a common meaning to the vast majority of fourth year girls. It presented a picture that feminine girls are concerned with looks, clothes, boys and appearance. These results support the findings obtained in other studies (Scraton, 1986). In Scraton's study of girls' sub-cultures in England, femininity emerged, in the context of the physical, as the expectation of inactivity, passivity, and neatness. Consequently, a girl is not expected to seen running about, getting dirty or sweating. This culture of femininity is based on the social construction of model female behaviour (Scraton, 1989).

According to Leaman and Carrington (1985), the notion of femininity has changed in Britain but it still tends to be associated with gentleness, passivity, responsiveness to men and their demands upon women's time. It also encompasses the preparation of girls for a future in which leisure will take secondary priority in detrimental to other ends and purposes, such as facilitating the leisure of her partner. This brings serious repercussions for physical education and sports. Since the girls' sub-culture appears to place great emphasis on catching and retaining a 'proper boyfriend', but 'keeping a good reputation' (Scraton, 1989), those girls who set it as a major objective of their lives will avoid any activity which could jeopardise reaching their goals, such as PE lessons, extra-curricular teams and clubs (Cockerill and Hardy, 1987).
Beyond the mere description of the hegemonic notion of femininity and masculinity, studies have tended to try to identify the sex roles of the woman athlete and non-athlete (Edwards et al., 1984) and from this to determine a typology of the sporting woman. From this tendency emerged the notion that a woman athlete held a more masculine sex-role orientation, less feminine than the non-athlete and therefore more androgynous (Colley et al., 1985; Knoppers, 1980; Hirschman, 1984). This approach was roundly criticised, principally by researchers in sports who adopt a feminist perspective. They saw in this approach the perpetuation of yet more oppressive stereotypes for the woman in sport (Hall, 1981; 1988). The current tendency in studies which seek to explain the invisibility of women in sport is to adopt a cultural perspective of gender relations. Here, the woman is analysed in a wider context which includes the examination of the systems of social, economic and political power (Greendorfer, 1987; Hall, 1993).

Notwithstanding the severe criticisms outlined above, research into femininity and masculinity in sport, androgyny and sport, conflicts between female sex-roles and sports roles has generated a stock of knowledge which has proved most important in the development of studies in women and sport. For this reason, sporting stereotypes will be examined in greater detail below, under a separate heading.

Based on the review of the literature above, the following hypothesis may be derived in the context of Brazil:

Hypothesis 8 - There is a relationship between participation/non-participation in sports and physical activities and perceptions of femininity: girls who participate in sports and physical activities will tend to perceive themselves to be less feminine than non-participants.

G. The power of sport stereotypes as the major barrier to female participation in sports and physical activities
I. Stereotyped views of women in sports

Sex stereotyped views concerning sports and physical activities are very much related to sex-role identity - defined as the identification with the behaviour that a culture labels male or female (Burns, 1982), and can also influence participation in sports and physical activities. Stereotyping is believed to manifest itself in three forms: a negative stigma linked to female athletes mainly to those in masculine sports; a loss of femininity through sport competition, and masculinization through sports practice, not only physically but psychologically and behaviourally (Anthrop and Allison, 1983).

It is not difficult to understand the process through which the notions of female sports stereotypes have developed. Several studies have suggested that since before birth, parents already have in mind certain notions about gender-appropriate behaviour. A variety of socialising agents appear to interact toward this end, prescribing a complex of specific rules and expectations for girls and for boys. Family, church, mass media and many other institutions traditionally see their role as differentiating their treatment of men and women into different behaviours and rules (Wolfson et al., 1985).

The family environment of the home is the first key influence on the child in the perpetuation of sex stereotypes (McPherson et al., 1989; Greendorfer, 1993; Greendorfer et al., 1996). Since birth, girls are dressed in pink and boys in blue or red. Although such differences may appear to be trivial, they may also represent the expectations of the parents that a girl be sweet and clean and the boy resolute and adventurous.

The adherence to traditional sex roles in children is reinforced positively, while failure to conform is disciplined with punishment, usually by reproof or censure (Wolfson et al., 1985). Behaviour related to physical
competence and competition are promptly rewarded in the boy for they are considered entirely gender-appropriate. Parents even go as far as to show disappointment when the boys avoids sports or loses a game. By contrast, girls are encouraged in passive behaviour in the cultivation of games with dolls, cooking or looking after younger siblings. These behaviours are frequently considered gender-appropriate for girls. Fighting is discouraged, dirty clothes are criticised and fear looked upon with indulgence.

These behaviours continue to be reinforced at school (Ve, 1989). In a school playground in Britain boys are generally to be seen playing football in a central area, whereas girls play less expansive games or chat together in a corner (Evans, 1990). Some studies have identified characteristics for stereotypical sex-roles for individuals in books (Duquin, 1977). Whereas boys can be seen playing with cars or at ball-games, climbing trees, exploring spaces, or playing with kites, girls are seen playing with dolls, preparing meals or doing the shopping. In terms of physical activities, skipping is the most common past-time to be observed.

In the same way, in school PE classes and in the sporting world in general, stereotypes have been reproduced and perpetuated through the years (Graydon, 1985; Scraton, 1989; Sherlock, 1987; Varpalotai, 1987). In the traditional school, the very division of classes into sex-specific groups with sex-specific activities promotes the categorisation into "activities for men" and "activities for women". The justification of this division is based on the assumption that the different physical, physiological and psychosocial aspects necessitate distinct programmes for men and women (Geadelmann, 1980).

The treatment meted out by the teacher on boys and girls also replicates stereotypes and prejudice. Boys receive praise, criticism and attention while girls tend to be ignored, receiving little praise or sanctions; boys' achievement is recognised as a result of skill, whereas for girls it is the result of serendipity; boys' failures tend to be seen as a lack of will and for girls as a lack of ability; girls tend to be praised for being neat, quiet and polite and not when they are
assertive or questioning (Knoppers, 1988). As a result, in the face of all these messages transmitted by school and family, a girl very rarely develops a positive attitude toward sport and PE. This is reflected in the relative under-development of women's sport as witnessed in the low participation rates detailed above.

In the 1970s, with the advent of a more assertive women's movement, a new consciousness came into being. Many researchers in the area of sports and PE, concerned with the under-representation of women in sport, look to women athletes themselves for an answer. What distinguishes a woman athlete from a non-athlete? What are the characteristics of a woman athlete which lead her to participate in sport? It is in this context that a range of studies comparing athletes and non-athletes emerged, particularly with reference to personality traits linked to gender roles.

Research in this area has produced a vast quantity of data. Nicholson (1979) and Ho and Walker (1982), and Snyder and Kivlin (1977) found that there were no significant differences between participants and non-participants concerning characteristics of femininity. On the other hand, it was also found that there is a relationship between masculine sex-role orientation and sport participation during adolescence (Butcher, 1989; Kackson and Marsh, 1986; Ostrow et al., 1981; Gregson and Colley, 1986 ). In other words, female participants tend to exhibit characteristics generally perceived to be masculine (e.g. aggression, self-confidence, independence). They discovered that sport participants had significantly higher masculine sex-role orientation than non-participants. However, as Gregson & Colley (1986) point out, it remains unclear whether such orientation is a cause or an effect of participation.

The apparent correlation between participation and masculine sex-role orientation raises the important question of sex-role conflicts for adolescent females (Sage and Loudermilk, 1979). This conflict arises between the perpetuation of female sex stereotypes by socialising agents on the one hand and on the other hand the perceived masculine attributes required for sports
participation. Some researchers reaffirm that the notion of femininity and the sporting woman are at variance, thus provoking anxiety in the woman. This notwithstanding, findings indicate that female athletes register a greater perceived as opposed to experienced sex-role conflict. Where a role conflict was reported those who participated in stereotypically masculine sports perceived a greater role conflict than those who had participated in sports considered acceptable for females (Anthrop & Alison, 1983; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1976; Sage & Loudermilk, 1979; Malumphy, 1971; Jackson & Marsh, 1986).

Based on the review of literature above, the following hypothesis may be derived in the context of Brazil:

Hypothesis 9 - There is a relationship between participation/non-participation and stereotyped views of women in sports. There will be more girls with internalised stereotyped views of women in sports among non-participants than participants (Graydon, 1987).

2. **Tomboyism Vs lesbianism in sport**

An additional and extremely oppressive sporting stereotype links the woman athlete to the notion of tomboyism. Some studies go as far as to suggest that a woman athlete generally is a woman who is not only masculinized but also had a tendency to be a tomboy inherited from childhood. A girl considered a tomboy tends to like vigorous activities in open spaces, preferably boys' ball games, prefers functional dress and hair, is not particularly interested in dolls where she represents roles linked to maternity, or in boyfriends, marriage or romance. These characteristics were considered masculine and were, in consequence, associated with lesbianism, since many hold tomboyism to be the precursor of lesbianism. For this reason, women athletes were viewed with
scepticism, as if to suggest that by living with potential lesbians, they too might be. In this way, homophobia came to dominate the sporting world and obliged heterosexual sportswomen to prove their femininity and heterosexuality in an 'apologetic' manner, in an attempt to dissipate suggestions that they might be lesbians (Lenskyj, 1987). This phenomenon can be witnessed in women athletes who exaggerate in their attire, hairstyles, make-up and appearance. In addition, they attach great importance to discussing their boyfriends, husbands or children publicly and refute any suggestion that they might be feminists, since this automatically was associated with a movement of ugly, unloved women, who disliked men and were therefore lesbians.

In an environment such as this, permeated by such ambiguous but vehement messages, it is easy to see how the adolescent girl can become confused and seek an escape in various guises. Given that adolescence is a time of extreme sensitivity about gender roles and gender appropriate behaviour it is probable that those girls who have internalised negative athletic images, i.e. sport as inappropriate for females, and have had perceived or experienced role conflicts in sport at this time will either fail to start participation or drop out of the sport they have hitherto practised (Graydon, 1987; Sage & Loudermilk, 1979; Archer & McDonald, 1990).

At the same time, sport in contemporary society has received much attention by virtue of its value in the development and maintenance of health and above all by virtue of its psychosocial importance. Women have demonstrated how, as citizens, they can make use of these benefits. At the same time, they encounter several barriers in an education system that has not prepared them for these opportunities and that frequently serves to replicate a complex of stereotypes and preconceived beliefs detailed above. It is worth pondering the reaction and response of women sports practitioners in the heteronomies of contemporary society.

Based on the review of the literature above, the following hypotheses may be derived in the context of Brazil:
Hypothesis 10 - There will be more girls who were considered 'tomboys' as a child among participants than non-participants in sports and physical activities.

In the heading below, I shall examine women and sport in the context of the prohibitions, exclusions, sanctions and lack of preparation for sporting roles. More specifically, I shall detail which physical activities and sports have been available to them and which have witnessed greatest female participation.

3. Appropriateness of selected sporting activities for women: the ideology of sport, power, physicality and sport typing

For Kane and Snyder (1989) recent social change related to increased female participation in sports reflects the liberal ideal of equal opportunities. Despite such change, the woman athlete remains hamstrung by stereotypical conceptions of sports "appropriate" for women which perpetuate the deleterious effects on women's sport participation. The greatest concern of women today is to know which type of sport she may practise? What is the current typology of sporting activities? Do people continue to harbour the idea of gender-appropriate activities in their lifeworlds?

To test these questions, some researchers have used the typology introduced by Metheny (1965). Based on the dimensions of physicality, she elaborated a typology in which certain sporting activities were considered appropriate or inappropriate for women, in accordance with what a woman can do with her body. According to Metheny (1965):

1. It is not appropriate for a woman to participate in contests in which:
the resistance of the opponent is overcome by body contact; the resistance of a heavy object is overcome by the direct application of physical force; the body is projected into or towards space over long distances or for long periods of time.

2. It may be appropriate for lower socio-economic classes to participate in contests in which:
the resistance of a moderately heavy object is overcome by the application of direct physical force;
the body is projected into or towards space over medium distances or for relatively short periods of time.

3. It is totally appropriate for a woman of the most privileged socio-economic classes to participate in contests in which:
the resistance of a light object is overcome with the use of a light implement;
the body is projected into or toward space in environments which are aesthetically pleasing;
the speed and development of the body are increased by the use of a manufactured instrument;
a barrier in space precludes bodily contact with the opponent in face-to-face forms of competition.

Her assumptions were supported by some empirical findings. Colley, Nash, and O'Donnel (1987) studied 168 sixth form male and 123 female students, aged between 16 and 18 years. The subjects were asked to indicate, from a list of 50 sports and physical activities, which of them they felt were suitable for males only, females only, or for both sexes. The results showed that physical activities sex-typed for females were traditionally female team sports (netball, rounders, lacrosse) and some non-competitive physical activities (popmobility, yoga). Physical activities sex-typed for males included
those requiring direct physical combat (boxing, wrestling, judo, etc.),
traditional male team sports (rugby, soccer, baseball, etc.), high-risk sports
(mountaineering, pot-holing, hang-gliding, etc.), aiming/shooting sports
(shooting, archery), and water sports involving obvious strength/risk (surfing,
rowing, canoeing). Sports which were sex-typed by less than 10% of the
sample were hockey, volleyball, tennis, squash, badminton, table tennis, waterskiing, sailing, horse-riding, roller-skating, gymnastics, trampolining and ice-skating. A higher proportion of males than females sex-typed sports for both sexes and more sports/physical activities were sex-typed for males than for females by both male and female subjects.

Another study by Ostrow, Jones and Spiker (1981) gave similar results.
Using a list of 12 activities - marathon race, shot put, basketball, figure skating, archery, ballet, bowling, tennis, racquetball, swimming, cycling and jogging, they asked 93 undergraduate female nursing students to indicate how appropriate they felt it was for a male and female to practise those activities. The results showed that participation in sport by males was viewed as appropriate in marathon racing, shot put, basketball, archery, tennis, racquetball, and jogging. For females participation in sport was viewed as appropriate in figure skating and ballet. No gender differences were found for swimming, cycling and bowling.

A similar pattern of result was found in a Norwegian study (Fasting, 1987). Women and men participants in the survey were asked to score 18 sports as to whether 'they thought the sports were most suitable for females, males, or for both sexes'. About 82% of both males and females answered that wrestling was more suitable for males. About 70% of both sexes had the same opinion about weight-lifting. Women showed that they accepted more men's participation in traditional female activity than male and female accepted women's participation in typical male sport. This was clear when 65% of all females and 48% of males answered that jazz-gymnastics was suitable for both sexes. For ballet, 76% of the females and 56% of the males considered this
activity suitable for both sexes. An unusual result in this study was obtained in soccer, a traditional male sport: 85% of the males and 82% of the females answered that it was suitable for both sexes.

The fact that one sport may be considered more or less appropriate for women has an impact on the intensity of the role conflict she may experience (Colley, Nash, and O'Donnel, 1987). Research has revealed that practitioners of so-called inappropriate sports experience more acute conflicts between their woman and athlete roles than those who participate in what are held to be appropriate sports (Sage and Loudermilk, 1979; Anthrop and Allison, 1983). In addition, basketball players feel that their sport is more stigmatised than gymnastics (Snyder and Kivlin, 1977). It is perhaps for this reason that participants in putatively inappropriate sports tend to demonstrate a more apologetic behaviour, i.e. tend to exaggerate femininity more than those who practise putatively appropriate sports (Colley, Nash, and O'Donnel, 1987).

It emerges from the data presented and discussed above that there is a clear tendency to sustain the principles Metheny defined more than 30 years ago. This means that, with very few exceptions, sports continue to be sex-typed, that the variety of sports considered to be appropriate for women remains very limited and linked to aesthetic demonstrations of the body for which men continue to be responsible in their demand for the perpetuation of such stereotypes. It remains to be seen why these restrictions remain so firmly in place. The consequences for women in sport, particularly in individual and collective sports in which bodily contact is inevitable, are the very low participation rates referred to above.

An understanding of the taboo surrounding the participation of women in physical contact sports remains essential for an understanding of the "female image" in sport. One approach to such an understanding might involve a diachronic tracing the history of the origin of such social prohibition or exclusion, but this would be extremely difficult, since the transmission of taboos, feelings, beliefs etc. varies considerably from one historical epoch to
another. It would, in other words, be short-sighted to isolate them from their synchronic social, economic and political structures and contexts. Moreover, women have been ignored in historiography with its traditionally male outlook. It is thus improbable that existing historical and anthropological "data" allow us to draw many valid conclusions (Hall, 1981).

Sporting typologies are considered by some to be a form of control as a means to minimise and "contain" the involvement of women in specific forms of sport (Kane and Snyder, 1989). In this way, cultural constructions legitimate the notion of equal opportunities, but at the same time maintain the ideology of male supremacy. Thus, sporting typology has fuelled functions of hegemony maintenance by allowing the continuance of male domination in sport through the supervalorization of more physical or "masculine" sports. In order to perpetuate the status quo cultural constructions use these mechanisms to depress the entry of women into traditionally male sporting preserves; sporting typology fuels precisely this. The result is manifest when one observes that women athletes continue to be barred from the majority of sports typified as "masculine".

Based on this review of literature, the following hypothesis can be made in the Brazilian context:

Hypothesis 11 - The girls will stereotype sports and physical activities in terms of appropriate or not appropriate for each gender.

III - INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS INFLUENCING WOMEN'S SPORT PARTICIPATION PATTERNS
A. Research on the process of socialisation into primary sports roles: the influence of family, school, peer-group, and community

Introduction

The principal focus of research into sports participation remains the study of the socialisation process. Socialisation is defined as a complex social process through which people acquire aptitudes, values, norms and behaviours which provide with the competence to act in different social roles within their groups or cultures. Socialisation studies comprise three different approaches: socialisation into sport, with research into the reasons why an individual becomes a participant in sport; socialisation through sport, which seeks to discover which attitudes, values and behaviours result from participation in sporting activities; and socialisation away from sport which examines the causes for dropping out of sports and physical activities (Weiss and Glenn, 1992). In this study I shall concentrate on only two aspects: socialisation into sport and socialisation away from sport and the influence of each social agency separately (family, school, peer group and community). I shall conclude by examining data about those social agencies which acquire greatest influence in the process of socialisation into sports in different life-cycles.

1. Family

The family is the principal socialisation agency for children during childhood. In subsequent stages, many other socialisation agencies come into play. During childhood, the family provides economic and emotional support, role models for the internalisation of values, knowledge and norms as
Just as parental influence enhances participation, so siblings can also have a bearing on sports involvement (Greendorfer et al., 1986). Since socialisation generally occurs through imitation, the eldest child who practises sport can act as a (positive or negative) role model for his/her brothers or sisters, depending on the type of interaction between them. On the other hand, a single child is not exposed to this type of experience. In consequence, the number of children in a given family and the order of birth can also have an impact on the sports participation of young people (Overman and Rao, 1981). Moreover, age differences between siblings, the type of interaction between parents and gender can also be factors which may or may not predispose the child toward sporting activities. Sports socialisation research indicates that family influence can vary according to social class (Anders, 1982; Hasbrook et al., 1981; Hasbrook, 1987) and ethnicity (Greendorfer, 1981). Other factors linked to the family, such as attendance at sporting events or sports viewing on television, expectations or aspirations for the children’s fulfilment in sport, and whether or not sport is a common topic of discussion in the home, may increase the probability of children being either passive consumers or active participants in sports (McPherson et al., 1989). It is also worthy of note that whereas the weight of the sports socialisation process lies in the transmission from parent(s) to children, reciprocal socialisation - from children to parent(s) - may occur at the end of childhood and in adolescence (Snyder and Purdy, 1982). These are the cases in which parents, who hitherto had displayed no interest in sport, begin, through the involvement of their children in such activities, to participate actively, as spectators or even as trainers, directors or team coaches. To conclude, research on influence of the family has focused mainly upon two forms of interaction: 1) parental or sibling approval and/or support for participation, investigating who was most influential; 2) imitation of role models either from the parent or sibling of the same or opposite sex.

However, research literature has acknowledged another approach: the family as a fundamental barrier to the involvement of women in sport
(Greendorfer, 1983). This approach is related to the process of gender role learning within the family, especially as this involves the sex-typing of girls' toys and play patterns.

In general terms it can be said that families should teach the roles and provide guidance in appropriate behaviour. Although other social institutions assist in shaping the behaviour of an individual, they tend simply to reinforce what the family has already undertaken. This is particularly true in the present context of our investigations in the case of the beliefs and behaviour patterns in sports. Through the mechanisms of socialisation - observation, imitation, discrimination and generalisation -, people learn to adopt behaviour patterns which are important components in gender role formation. The parents set out to expose their children to behaviour considered to be gender appropriate; the children are in turn rewarded for the fulfilment of such expectations (Greendorfer, 1993). Such rewards acquire different forms - more toys, praise and encouragement, more games and even advice. However, many children choose activities which are considered inappropriate to their gender. When this occurs, the parents often impose some form of punishment, frequently chastising the boy for being girlish ("não seja menina!" - "Don't be a pansy!") and the girls for being boyish ("não seja moleca!" - "Don't be a tomboy!"). Generally, boys are more often reprimanded for "gender inappropriate behaviour" than girls; as a result, they avoid anything feminine when they are still in childhood - particularly in the case of toys and games. For girls, the reward/punishment system is more diffuse, subliminal and subtle. Mothers seldom let their daughters venture too far, principally when they are playing. As a result, girls are encouraged to be dependent and to seek protection (Greendorfer, 1983). Their choice of toys is restricted and rarely do they have the opportunity to run, climb trees, get dirty or explore nature (Coakley, 1990). It is for this reason that they have fewer opportunities to engage in activities which might be punished; if they do so, they are generally not beaten, but receive a psychological punishment which imposes a sense of guilt for the
"wrongdoing", a loss of self-value or even marginalisation. It is difficult to
measure the long-term effect on a girl when she witnesses her brother being
praised, encouraged or taught ostentatiously to undertake physical activities
when she has no opportunity to display motor ability. This absence could be a
powerful form of the active reinforcement which dictates to girls that physical
activity is the preserve of boys and that physical expression is worthy neither of
respect nor attention. Two forms of socialisation therefore begin to emerge
here: 1) the lack of exposure to a range of activities and experiences; 2) the
internalised filtering out of activities which are considered inappropriate. Girls
end up with a limited range of gaming activities, which are reduced to dolls,
soft toys and "house" games. They are subliminally led to "feminine" activities
and inured to toys which are not compatible with being a "good girl"
(Greendorfer, 1983).

Early in life girls learn to adopt a truncated range of games and
sedentary activities because their parents do not encourage them to be
physically active or to acquire motor competence. Thus, habits and values
associated with inactivity become incorporated into the lifestyle of most
women and they grow up without sporting competence. For this reason, in
accordance with continuity theory (Atchley, 1977), when they reach
adolescence and adulthood they renounce sports because there is no reward,
encouragement, instruction or guidance which can promote games and toys
which can incorporate physical activity (Greendorfer, 1983).

2. School and Physical Education

The school, through physical education (PE) ideology and
practices, is another important institution which seems to have great potential to
influence attitudes towards sport and physical activities among adolescent girls.
According to Hargreaves (1991), the theory, aims and practice of school
physical education amount to tools of control through physical work. The objective of physical education set out in official publications or by opinion-formers in the profession is related to the nature of the social order, generally preoccupied with socialisation and social control. In Britain, PE is the only discipline included in the curriculum as a statutory discipline and also the only discipline which seeks to fulfil the function of social integration. It is often theorised in terms of its moral and psychosocial significance.

Through history physical education has served its aims, but it is only in the last decade that school sport has come under the serious criticism (Greendorfer, 1983). Surveys of activities offered in secondary schools reveal that physical education programmes are heavily dominated by team games (Johnstone & Thomas, 1980; Mawer, 1984). It has been suggested that these are disliked by many girls, and that an excessive emphasis on them in physical education programmes is likely to lead to alienation from physical education altogether. Furthermore, it is argued that the games which are most frequently offered to girls, such as netball and rounders, not only have less prestige than those for boys but are seldom pursued into adult life (Evans, 1974; Scraton, 1989).

Another point of criticism is that games and activities are still usually competitive, and that competitiveness which underpins many programmes is unhealthy and undesirable (Almond, 1983). It is argued that competition inevitably produces winners and loosers and thereby condemns many pupils to an experience of failure in physical education. This is likely to contribute to girls' detachment not only from physical education itself but from participation in sports and physical activities outside school. Dissatisfaction with the contents of physical education programmes is deepened by criticism of the teaching methods used. Such methods were exposed to criticism because of their excessive emphasis on performance of skills as opposed to the imparting of knowledge, understanding and pupil involvement in the learning process (Almond, 1986). These conclusions have been broadly reinforced by many others researchers (Hendry, 1974; Coe, 1984; Geron, Mashiach, Dunkelman,

In addition to this criticism of curricular activities it has also been suggested that school not only promotes but actually perpetuates the sex roles stereotypes acquired at home (Geadelmann, 1980; Hoferek, 1982; Evans, 1984; Graydon, 1985). Physical education theory reinforces conventional notions of gender differences encouraging gender divisions through the PE programme. This approach which is reflected in separate sex physical education classes with separate sex achievement expectations has been a primary source of sex role stereotyping (Hargreaves, 1991). Such separation has derived principally from traditional social views of appropriate roles for each sex and from myths and misconceptions surrounding the perceived physical abilities of females. The perpetuation of these stereotypes has resulted in programmes which have failed to provide equal opportunities to learn skills and to develop potential in a full range of physical activities which a physical education programmes should comprise (Burden, 1988; Hoferek, 1980; Scraton, 1986; Humberstone, 1986; Carrington & Leaman, 1986). For this reason, research has tended to indicate that school plays a minor role in socialising females into sport in adolescent school girls (Greendorfer, 1977; Greendorfer & Lewko, 1988; Graydon, 1988; Evans, 1984).

3. Peer-group

A peer-group in the sports context can be defined as a small group of friends (intimate or otherwise), but homogeneous in age, sex, social class, context and interest in leisure and sports activities. In today's society the affiliation to peer-groups can be of crucial importance in the acquisition and
learning of aptitudes and social strategies. In general terms, the peer-group becomes a socialising agent before the child starts to attend school.

During childhood, if a child has the opportunity to venture far from home, s/he will start to take part in the neighbourhood peer group. The opportunity to learn athletic skills and evaluate one’s own abilities amongst neighbourhood friends may induce early socialisation into sport (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1978). Such groups may teach aptitudes of social interaction in a relatively egalitarian environment. Children learn subjects which are considered taboo, acquire a degree of independence from their parents and other people or authorities, acquire ideas, values and experiences which are not always instructed or observed in their families. Never the less, during childhood, neighbourhood peer-groups tend to maintain values which are broadly similar to those held by the family. The same social groups sustain a more informal structure than that which obtains in the family and school systems, where roles are attributed (McPherson et al., 1989). At school, peer-groups may or may not subvert the ideas, values, attitudes, behaviour norms or abilities acquired at home or in school. An individual may belong to one or more groups at the same time and the degree of interest in a given group may vary in time. As the individual grows older, so too the variation in values and interests increases.

During adolescence, a college or sports club peer-group can introduce values, opportunities and divergent interests. The peer-group can provide opportunities for the participation in decision-making processes, in leadership, in ignoring family influence, especially when the individual is integrated into a highly cohesive sub-culture, based on age; it can also provide opportunities for experiencing rejection and failure beyond the confines of the family. At this stage in life, if an adolescent is engaged in one of these groups, the peer group may exert considerable pressure to continue or abandon sporting activities.

Peer-group pressure - that is the pressure to think or act in accordance with the principles dictated by the peers - is considered a pre-eminent attribute of adolescence (Coleman and Hendry, 1990). It acts as the key mechanism in the
transmission of norms from a given group and in the generation of fidelity among its members. In his investigation into the pressure to which adolescents are exposed from their friends, Brown (1982) discovered that adolescents received significantly greater peer pressure to spend time with them and to fulfil their norms than to participate in school or family activities. For this reason, peer-groups can have a determining influence in the configuration of interests and in the shaping of behaviour during adolescence.

Although initial interest in sport is more often than not stimulated at home, the peer-group may reinforce or inhibit subsequent development. Some research findings evidence the importance of peer-group support for the involvement and success in sport (McPherson et al., 1989). When there is no peer-group interest in sport, the child or adolescent generally reduces his sporting involvement or even goes as far as to abandon sports altogether, particularly as an active participant.

Despite the important role played by peer-groups in influencing sports participation in childhood and adolescence, to date little research has been conducted in this area. Peer-group impact is confirmed by many researchers (Lau, Quadrel & Hartman, 1990; Greendorfer, 1977; Greendorfer, 1979; Anderssen and Wold, 1992; Brown et al., 1989; McGuire and Cook, 1983; Kenyon and McPherson, 1973), who concluded that peers are very influential in changing attitudes and behaviour related to exercise during and after adolescence. Also, Greendorfer (1977) found that peers are the most sensitive indicators of childhood sport involvement. At the same time it has been observed that peer-groups enact a more important role in socialisation into sports for girls than for boys (Smith, 1979; Yamaguchi, 1984; Gregson and Colley, 1986). However, other findings confirm that peer-groups influence only boys in sports participation (Greendorfer and Lewko, 1978; Greendorfer and Ewing, 1981). During childhood and at the onset of adolescence, the burden of peer-group influence emanates from same-sex peers (Smith, 1979), especially amongst boys. In adolescence, women athletes report that they received greater
support from female peers than from male peers (Snyder and Spreitzer, 1976, Greendorfer, 1976). Other findings report that women athletes state that the person who most influenced them during childhood had been a member of a predominantly male peer-group (McPherson et al., 1989). The same phenomenon may also occur during adolescence, when interest in dating is stimulated, and the peers of the opposite sex begin to exert a strong influence in the encouragement or discouragement of various forms of sports involvement for women.

Whereas such research findings confirm the impact of peer-groups in the positive influencing of sports attitudes and behaviours, other findings demonstrate that during childhood or adolescence the peers exert little or no influence on the generation of interest in sport (Greendorfer et al., 1986; Higginson, 1985). Even during adolescence, when peer-group pressure intensifies the culture of femininity, the female adolescent can distance herself from sporting activity (Scraton, 1989). Whereas the girl may still be interested in playing in a team or swimming, it is frequently peer-group pressure which will encourage her to drop out or to throttle her enthusiasm. Very often, PE choice lists reveal names which have been erased because a girl's "best friend" did not want to take part in a particular activity.

Finally, it is significant to note that one of the most common peer-group influences is represented by the youth culture group. This influence has serious repercussions on perceptions of and participation in sports and physical activities (Scraton, 1989). Adolescent affiliation to youth culture group styles are often inimical to involvement in sport (Sack, 1988). This incompatibility derives from the self-definition of many youth culture groups which reject authority, traditionalism, imposed discipline and perceived social norms (McRobbie and Garber, 1976; Cowie and Lees, 1981).

4. Community
The process of socialisation into sport can also be subject to influence by various aspects of the macro- and micro-system. At the macro level, within a given society, there is a hegemonic ideology which reflects or imposes social values or norms, and which also influences behaviour patterns of a certain country or community, including those related to sport. There is, however, a tendency toward intra-societal and cross-national differences in the socialisation process. There are additional differences in values and norms between communities and countries in the question of women's involvement in sport (McPherson, 1981). Within both the micro and macro social system, the social category place of residence, coupled with other variables, influences the socialisation process. The geographical area where the individual lives and where s/he has spent the first 10-15 years of her/his life also influence the socialisation process. It is assumed that, in a widely industrialised urban city, women have greater access to mass media communication and as a consequence their attitudes, values, and ways of living and acting usually change, revealing a new physical, cultural and social-psychological complex adapted to the new demands of living. Also, people who live in big cities not only have increased opportunities for and access to leisure facilities, but are encouraged to assume new attitudes and behaviours, mainly through the mass media, including those related to the roles and rights of women, and the role of sports and physical activities in their lives (Selby and Lewko, 1976). On the other hand, it was found that rural area people tend to be more traditional and conservative in their gender role attitudes (Hertsgaard and Light, 1984). If this prevails in their attitudes towards sports for women it is expected that rural girls tend to participate less in sports and physical activities.

Research findings in the area of community and its impact on sport involvement indicate the following facts: the more urban the place of residence of a given individual, the greater the socialisation into sporting roles; the greater the opportunity for the (direct or vicarious) consumption of sport
promoted by the community, the greater the likelihood of sports involvement; the larger the community, the greater the propensity for sports involvement (Kenyon and McPherson, 1973).

**Concluding remarks**

The studies on the socialisation process into sports examined above were based in the main on the theory of social learning (Bandura, 1977) which advocates the idea that sporting practice is the corollary of social reinforcement and imitation of models and other influences. For the most part, these studies were designed to investigate the family, peer-groups, the school and the community in terms of their impact on an individual's interest or otherwise in pursuing sports and physical activities at various stages in the life cycle. Towards the end of the 1970s a different approach emerged in the area of the socialisation process into sport roles. It adopted the social role-social system paradigm (Kenyon and McPherson, 1973). The role aspirant, who is already characterised by ascribed and achieved physical and social psychological traits, is influenced by significant others who act within a variety of social systems such as family, peer-group, school and community (Greendorfer and Ewing, 1981). Each social system with its specific values, norms, sanctions and situational facilities is an institution which equips actors for the learning of roles and influences the learning of sport roles (Loy, McPherson and Kenyon, 1978).

Studies which adopted this approach in their investigations into the socialisation process into sport sought basically to identify which social systems - family, peer-group, school or community and significant others - exerted greater influence on the process of encouraging sports involvement. Initial attention focused on adults and elite athletes, principally men. Gradually, attention started to encompass children, adolescents and women, both as elite athletes and as members of the population at large. The approach and the
studies which adopted it were the subject of severe criticism for their theoretical and methodological weaknesses (Fishwick and Greendorfer, 1987; McPherson, 1986; Theberge, 1984; Nixon, 1990). One of the more relevant criticisms made was that an approach based on the theory of social learning tends to be both deterministic and unidirectional, since it construes the socialised agent as a static entity and not as an actor who plays an active role in the process (Theberge, 1984; Snyder and Purdy, 1982). Moreover, such studies neglected individual differences, and suffered from severe methodological inadequacies in a research conception which discovers facts via deterministic affirmations (Fishwick and Greendorfer, 1987; McPherson, 1986). These criticism induced proposals for change, including a study of culture (Holland, 1984) which proceeds from a broad-based structure in which sport is related to a political, historical and economic context in accordance with stratification theories and in which different approach coalesce:

"In short, this approach allows us to view socialisation in relationship to the development of meanings in culture that serve as the basis for formulating social constructions. This would allow us to view (sport) socialisation as a negotiated reality that takes place within a more broadly defined social context than previously considered. From such a perspective we would conceptualize the process as fluid rather than fixed as well as articulate micro influences with macro influences". (Greendorfer and Bruce, 1991, p. 135)

In view of the crucial importance of socialisation processes in the formation of gender relations and gender relations in socialisation, the cultural-contextualist proposal just mentioned can fruitfully be enriched by recent feminist studies and thereby renew interest in the study of the socialisation
process (Nixon, 1990; Greendorfer and Bruce, 1991). Both approaches provoke a rethinking of the premises on which research has hitherto been predicated.

Based on this review on sports socialisation, the following hypotheses can be made in the Brazilian context:

Hypothesis 12 - Family, school, peers, community and past sport participation will independently predict the girls' participation in sports and physical activities.

Hypothesis 13 - Of these variables peer groups will be the most influential force in determining participation in sports and physical activities throughout adolescence.

B. The representation or the sporting woman in communication media: a barrier to greater women's sports participation?

The media are considered one of the most powerful institutions in modern society (Luhmann, 1995; Habermas, 1990). The effects of television, radio, newspapers, popular magazines, books, and film have been the object of several discussions and theoretical positions. Through the mediatized construction of reality (Luhmann, 1995), the mass-communication media can transmit from one generation to another values, attitudes and knowledge and influence our behaviour or even "colonise" our lifeworld expectations (Habermas, 1992). For this reason, it is especially important to examine the various media constructions of the sporting woman (Boutilier and SanGiovanni, 1983).

Literature on the sporting woman underlines the relative invisibility of woman in the media in general (Brown, 1993; McPherson et al. 1989; Cohen, 1993). When they appear, they are subject to evident stereotyping (Brown, 1993). According to Hargreaves (1991), the media treatment of sports has
cemented the representation of the woman athlete in preconceived terms as a function of attractiveness, whether they are wives, girlfriends or mothers. Media descriptions highlight appearance, clothing, style and (even more conjecturally) sexual preference (Cohen, 1993).

On the other hand, it is worth recalling that the fitness and health movement of the last few decades does possess its own merits for surpassing the aim of making women more attractive and turning her apparently more liberated, glamorous and eroticised. Some aspects of this movement challenged to a certain degree the traditional image of female gender. For example, the image of women running, training with weights and practising martial arts were, until recently, branded as male attributes.

By contrast, today, weight-training and body-building, in short, the display of the body in all its facets, has become more viable; the androgynous has become more acceptable. In this way, the image of the body in sport has not always coincided with consumer culture projections. The predominant image of the sporting woman's body is that of a well-trained body, more "attractive" than "erotic", healthy, young, well-toned and balanced - an image which contrasts with the ideal mannequin with an eroticised body, slim, long and languid (Hargreaves, 1987).

Of the various types of media discussed in international sports studies, the most common are television, newspapers and magazines, by virtue of their greater influence. Here, too, they shall be examined for their support in an analysis of the media construction of the Brazilian woman in the various Brazilian media.

Available analyses generally adopt the parameters proposed by Boutilier and SanGiovanni (1983), where attention focuses on the amount of coverage, that is time and space, devoted to women's sport, women athletes or other issues related to women's involvement in sport. Boutilier and SanGiovanni also investigate the types of coverage given to specific forms of sports. In the same way, coverage style, including written and visual text are examined as well as
women in media production. This last aspect involves documenting the extent and nature of women's participation in the production of the coverage of women in sport (including participation in print journalism, broadcasting, and media ownership).

Of all the mass media, television enjoys the greatest multiplication potential. Women's sport coverage is very scarce (Sage, 1990) and on the few occasions when it does occur, it is usually scheduled outside sporting schedules. This is because television programming is dictated not only by the values of those who control the media, but also by the demand for profit. This has consequences. At present, sporting events are only televised with the consent of the sponsors. As women's sport has been trivialised through history, sponsors are reluctant to sell or promote their products using female sport as a propaganda vehicle. In the 1970s there were some exceptions, when some female competitions were televised as propaganda vehicles for women's products such as Colgate-Palmolive, Avon, etc. (Boutilier and SanGiovanni, 1983). Today, by contrast, it is considerably more difficult to secure commercial sponsoring for women because of the stereotypes and prejudice which continue to pervade representations and constructions of women in sport. As a general rule, sponsorship is reserved for sports which are socially accepted as appropriate for women. These include, for example, tennis, golf, ice-skating, gymnastics and exclude contact and team sports, often depriving them of financial sponsorship.

It is noteworthy that during the Olympic Games, male sports and athletes are privileged. Whereas male sports are given live transmission, female events are generally recorded and broadcast as highlights at later hours. Very rarely are entire events screened, and when this is the case, it applies only to the semi-final or final stages of a given competition. The exceptions are, predictably, those events which perpetuate the stereotypical image of the woman athlete, reinforced by societal institutions and underpinned by media
constructions. Thus, television audiences leave intact the immaculate stereotype of the woman athlete and remain oblivious to women's participation problems.

Gerber et al. (1974) argue that coverage of and attention to women in sport in television has been generally shunned, suggesting that women receive less than 1% of sports coverage. Even admitting that this figure may have increased slightly in the last few years, it remains far behind the real increase in women's sports participation. More recent data confirm this: Duncan et al. (1990) and Cohen (1993) comment that whereas women account for 53% of the population at large, female sport receives a mere 5% of sports coverage in television.

One sport which appears to be breaking the stereotype of television coverage is intercollegiate basketball in the United States, which has been the subject of quite vigorous television coverage (Coakley, 1990). The tendency of television sports coverage reveals a cautious policy of the gradual incorporation of women's sports in television broadcasting. The return of such a policy privileges the young, white, middle-class girl who is attending or will attend university and may benefit from greater financial support in order to continue practising sports. She will practise sports which are socially legitimated and for reasons socially approved such as fame, money, school or parents (Boutilier and SanGiovanni, 1983).

As far as newspaper coverage of sports is concerned, there appears to be a genuine valorisation on the part of the journalistic community. There is a belief that sport sells newspapers and that the sports section is one of the most important parts of a daily newspaper which can energise subscriptions (Boutilier and SanGiovanni, 1983). Research into the newspaper coverage of women in sport reveals that many of the numerous disadvantages, sexist opinionating and models of discrimination from the past continue very much present in today's print media (Brown, 1993).

Women's sport coverage constitutes less than 15% of the sports sections of the majority of dailies (Sage, 1990). The location and style of such coverage
exposes the reinforcement of the sexist slant given to television coverage. Coverage is generally restricted to the least important pages of the sports section, with the exception of major national and international events in which women compete in socially legitimated sports (e.g. volleyball). In many ways, many reporters treat professional women athletes in a stereotypical manner, more in accordance with perceived gender-appropriate roles than with sporting roles (Boutilier and SanGiovanni, 1983; Brown, 1993). When attention is given, women are more often than not emphasised as sexual objects (Sage, 1990). Journalistic attention, which rarely surpasses mere description, focuses on physical appearance and attire. When attention becomes more interrogative, questions revolve around marriage plans, children or the husband's opinion about a sporting career. Reporters frequently ignore more talented athletes in favour of those with greater sex-appeal. In addition, considerable attention is devoted to a given athlete's sexual orientation, often indicating a thinly veiled accusatory subtext that a particular sportswoman is a lesbian.

Such coverage can affect the self-image of the woman athlete, reinforcing the socially propagated sense of a woman's inferiority. Editors and journalists inscribe into their material the stereotypes and preconceptions about women which inform our culture. Any attempt to alter the coverage of women in sport will have to start by changing these stereotypes and preconceptions (Boutilier and SanGiovanni, 1983).

A revealing study in relation to the extent and nature of media coverage was undertaken by Susan Miller (1975), who analysed 3661 newspaper photographs which appeared in the Los Angeles Times and in the Washington Post in the period between July 1973 and June 1974. In a comparison of the photographs representing the sexes, Miller discovered that there was greater exposure of men in political photographs (1:32), followed by photographs of sportsmen, where men outweighed women by 22 to 1. Furthermore, her discoveries indicated that the sports section of a newspaper contains the lowest proportion of photographs of women - 6% for the Post and 10% for the Times.
Research data concerning the localisation, newspaper, men's and women's photographs illustrate that sports remain one of the last preserves inured to the valorisation and encouragement of changes in the woman's role. Although there has been a slight increase in women's sports media coverage, this change appears to hold only for lower-circulation newspapers and in a more local market (Boutilier and SanGiovanni, 1983).

On the media production side there has been a recent increase in the number of women writing about sports for newspapers and magazines. Despite initial resistance to their presence, trends seem to indicate that the general presence of more women journalists will be accompanied by a specific increase in the field of sports journalists (Coakley, 1990).

There is less research devoted to the examination of the means by which gender roles are portrayed in magazines than that available for the fields of television and newspapers. Findings indicate that the role construed and constructed by magazines is still defined in traditional terms. This model is not quite as rigid for magazines for classes C and D or B. However, it was only in the 1970s that middle-class magazines began to view with less hostility the fact that women were beginning to work outside the home. The greater share of magazine coverage seems to be cautious and rather limited about the changes which took place in women's roles in the 1980s and the impact these changes may have on the traditional conception of women as wives, mothers and housekeepers (Boutilier and SanGiovanni, 1983).

Relative to the total space occupied by sports news, female sport receives only 10% of coverage in magazines in the USA. Citing the magazine *Sports Illustrated*, considered the most important weekly sports review in the United States, Boutilier and SanGiovanni (1983) relate that in the 25 years of the magazine's existence, women athletes have accounted for only 5% of the cover photographs, and here they represent socially legitimated or individual sports. A content analysis of the photographs revealed that of 119, 105 photographs were of men, 12 of women and 2 of both sexes together. In 14 out
of the 25 years of the magazine, there had been no photograph of a women athlete. Even recently, women did not appear in 1970, 1972, 1974, 1975, and 1979. In addition, the range of sports practised by men totalled 15, whereas women practised only 8. The articles analysed were predominantly descriptions of physical attributes with particular attention being devoted to height, weight and hair and eye colour.

In terms of the extent and nature of the coverage of sportswomen in women's magazines, Leavy (1977) discovered that in the magazines Seventeen (4.6%), Cosmopolitan (1.5%), Redbook (1%) and Ms. (2.5%), between 1970 and 1976, women's sports coverage had increased, but still demands cautious interpretation. Frequently, the question of women in sport is related to fashion, beauty, sexual discrimination, diet, affairs etc. so as not to alienate the reader (Coakley, 1990). In this way, subliminal treatment can be given to questions such as sexuality, glamour, health benefits and dieting.

To conclude this section, it is important to stress the effects of the distorted media construction of gender roles. If a woman in sport is portrayed less frequently than her real participation and in a negative and stereotypical manner, this will certainly have a strong impact on the socialisation of boys and girls in terms of their attitudes to the woman in sport (Cohen, 1993; McPherson et al., 1989). Although the mass media have the potential to change ideas about femininity and masculinity, as has already happened in some instances, it must be concluded that the mass media have influenced gender role portrayal by reproducing and perpetuating traditional gender definitions, even when such definitions are obsolete and restrictive for many (Coakley, 1990).

Based on the above review, it will be expected that in the Brazilian context the media are an influential vehicle for transmitting and perpetuating gender-role stereotypes and sport stereotypes and there is a lack of female role models portrayed in the media.
V. A PORTRAIT OF THE ADOLESCENT: HER/HIS HABITS, FEELINGS, OPINIONS, HOPES, AND INTERESTS

In the last few years the way in which adolescence has been conceived has undergone change - in part due to the profound social changes in most western societies with a direct impact on adolescents (Coleman and Hendry, 1990). These social changes have induced youth unemployment, equal opportunities policies, changes in family structures, exacerbation of urban violence and juvenile delinquency, the spread of AIDS and a new teenage sexuality, and a greater awareness of sexual abuses suffered by the adolescent population in addition to environmental problems. These social changes have provoked major changes in youth behaviour which are reflected in important advances in human development theories, particularly in adolescence.

Adolescence is a period in human life which lasts approximately ten years and is generally studied in three stages. Early adolescence, characterised by biological changes brought about at the onset of puberty and coupled with a renewed interest in the opposite sex; it lasts from the age of ten to the age of fourteen. Middle adolescence - between 15 and 17 - it is the period of growing autonomy and self-discovery which play a crucial role in identity formation. Late adolescence - 18 years and onwards - occurs for those who, for educational reasons or other social factors, delay entry into adult roles (Carnegie Quarterly, 1990). During this period reproductive functions mature together with physical, mental, social and moral roles. An appropriate comprehension of adolescence depends on the correlation between the changes which occur at this time.

Of all the changes which occur during adolescence, physical development is one of the most acute. The adolescent has to adjust to the physiological and morphological changes which come about with the onset of
puberty, which lasts about two years (Muss, 1975). This period is marked by changes in the reproductive system and in secondary sexual characteristics: in girls, menstruation begins, and in boys pubic hair appears. In girls, puberty normally starts at the age of twelve, and for boys at the age of fourteen (Muss, 1975). It is important to stress that there are individual differences even between boys and girls as to when puberty actually starts and how long it lasts (Coleman and Hendry, 1990).

Moreover, there are further changes in the functioning of the heart and lungs which affect the cardio-vascular and respiratory systems and also the size and strength of various body muscles. In physical terms, we can witness the beginning of the 'growth spurt' - characterised by an acceleration in the increase of height and weight (Malina and Bouchard, 1991). Generally, these changes occur in boys about 18-24 months after the changes in girls.

During adolescence, girls give particular importance to weight and physical appearance. Girls from the more privileged socio-economic classes in particular demonstrate marked preference for slenderness. Even in early adolescence, many start diets, without either medical or parental supervision. These unsupervised diets generally induce eating disorders, such as anorexia and bulimia - typical forms of adolescent disorder (Malina and Bouchard, 1991).

Physical and personal appearance seem to be crucially important in adolescence by virtue of their repercussions in interpersonal relations. A physically attractive individual is generally held to possess greater social power. In addition, the form of the body may influence choices of social activities and leisure. Slim and light people seem to demonstrate less involvement in the opposite sex and greater susceptibility to TV viewing. Those who are stronger and more muscular seem to be more attracted and skilful in sports than other body types (Coleman and Hendry, 1990).

The physical changes which start at the onset of puberty coupled with the period at which these changes take place, produce major psychological
effects on the adolescent, particularly as regards her/his identity, social
prestige, self-esteem and self-confidence. Identity formation, or the sense of the
self, is perhaps the greatest challenge and requires both individuation
(differentiation from others) as well as autonomy through the change in other
relationships, roles and activities (Kleiber and Rickards, 1985). During early
adolescence, the change from concrete to abstract thought in cognitive
development is accompanied by a shift from a concrete self-definition to a
more abstract self-definition. In middle adolescence cognitive skills emerge
which enable the girl to compare abstractions of different attributes and to
conduct a form of self-evaluation. This can be highly problematic and generate
turbulence. In late adolescence, new cognitive skills emerge through which the
multiple abstractions of self-concepts are mixed in order to reach a clear and
consolidated sense of the true self. A further major adolescent preoccupation
lies in the construction of the ideal self, real or imaginary. In this context, the
possibility to be observed and judged by others is crucial in the development of
self-esteem. Thus, the extent to which the adolescent feels adequate in the
realms of appearance, school achievement, social acceptance and athletic
competence and behaviour in general, will, in this order, dictate self-esteem

Many developmental changes contribute toward alterations in the way in
which adolescents interact with their families and peers. These changes include
greater cognitive and verbal competence and greater rationalisation skills in
addition to the changes associated with puberty (Bee and Mitchell, 1986).
There is also a systematic change in social development and in the nature of
relationships among peers, which becomes more intense and extensive. In this
way, peer-groups increase in size and complexity, with adolescents spending
more time with chosen friends than with school peers. To be loved, accepted
and encounter common identities becomes crucial at this stage. Friendship
among peers becomes altogether more intimate for girls than for boys (Berndt,
1982).
On account of peer-group pressure, adolescents behave in such a way as to appear to be rebelling against the adult world by using exactly the same style of clothes and hairstyles as their friends. Adolescent rituals may be perceived as a form of challenging the status quo, structural hierarchy and the authority of school and society (Murdock and Phelps, 1973).

During this phase, the adolescent also begins to experience new exigencies and expectations in social situations. It is at this time that s/he starts to use time without adult supervision. The first signs of career aspirations emerge and some can begin to work together on a short-term basis, In general, boys select occupations which are perceived as male-dominated, whereas girls opt for "feminine" occupations (Hollin, 1986). The adolescent may start to date and this is the dominant activity for many young people. Heterosexual adolescent meetings begin with social events such as dancing, or going to the pub or cinema.

During this phase, the development of sexuality is pre-eminent. It is evident that since the end of the 1960s adolescents have become sexually active in ever greater numbers at younger ages than ever before. Results from a longitudinal national survey demonstrate that at the age of 15, about 17% of boys and 6% of girls are no longer virgins. At the age of 18, 67% of boys and 44% of girls are sexually experienced. At the age of 20, this figure increases to 80% for men and 70% for women (Carnegie Quarterly, 1990). On the other hand, the surveys suggest that sexual relations are becoming more frequent during early adolescence (before 15), although it is still the exception rather than the rule (Kleiber and Rickards, 1985). In high school, full sexual relations have increased greatly with few differences between genders. Sexual behaviour still upholds traditional values of long term dual relations tied to the family. Adolescents generally hold positive attitudes toward sexuality based on a recognition of its potential for producing pleasure and intimacy (Kleiber and Rickards, 1985). Boys generally demonstrate greater desire for physical involvement during early adolescence than girls, although in subsequent years
the situation is reversed. As involvement in the relationship increases, the
tendency remains for both to desire greater affection than physical involvement
(Hollin, 1986).

Other gender differences in these social contexts begin to manifest
themselves with the onset of middle-adolescence. Here, boys continue to be
involved in their normal activities - football, going out for a drink with friends -
while they start to date (Coleman and Hendry, 1990). Conversely, girls start to
dismiss sports and youthclub activities as being infantile and non-feminine and
begin to frequent places where heterosexual encounters happen. Finally, they
aim to 'go steady' with a boyfriend. From this point onwards, girls come to
share a complex of interests revolving around clothes, personal appearance and
Romance and the "feminine culture" acquire central importance in their lives,
making it very important for a young girl to be able to discuss fashion, make-up
and boyfriends (Scraton, 1989).

Such gender differences can be explained in part by the hypothesis
relating to developmental change at adolescence, known as the 'gender-
intensification' hypothesis' (Hill and Linch, 1982). This maintains that after
menarche girls begin to follow a more rigid set of gender roles than during
earlier years, the result being that interest in, and tolerance of, stereotypically
masculine activities - such as sports and academic achievement - declines.
Instead, interest is focused on stereotypically feminine activities such as
fashion and personal attractiveness.

At this point it is extremely important to acknowledge the value given to
sports and physical activities by adolescent men and women. The
contextualization of sport into their daily lives and more personal interests may
contain the key to an understanding of adolescent models for sport and physical
activities. Moreover, it is a matter of some significance that sport is so
important in our culture and exerts a keen influence on young people, whether
they participate or not (Kleiber and Rickards, 1985). In this context, studies
examining the role of athletics in the status system of adolescents demonstrated that being remembered as an athletic star ranked the highest in prestige for males (Coleman, 1961; Eitzen, 1975; Hendry, 1978; Williams & White, 1983; Kane, 1988; Chandler & Goldberg, 1990). Girls involved in sports were given considerably higher status that were non-athletic peers (Buhmann & Bratton (1977).

In addition to these findings, Kane (1987; 1988) noted that females associated with sex-appropriate sports such as golf, tennis and volleyball were given significantly higher status by both male and female subjects than were those females associated with sex-inappropriate sport such as basketball and softball. Kane concluded that female sport participants are still associated with traditional feminine gender roles and stereotypes (Kane, 1988).

This opinion was shared by another study by Williams & White (1983). Analysing historically the results of research related to the assessment of the importance of athletics in the status system of female adolescents, they found that a high percentage of female participants in athletics had not reported wishing to be remembered as an athletic star. They explained that probably some of the labels, stereotypes and stigmatism that traditionally accompanied athlete status still plague many females today. Indeed, other studies confirm this state of affairs (Feltz, 1978; Chandler and Goldberg, 1990). Females ranked being remembered as an athletic star as a last option when they were given a choice among athletic star, brilliant student, most popular student and leader in activities. They perceived getting high grades and being a member of a leading group as their most salient role-identities (Chandler and Goldberg, 1990).

Whereas these studies demonstrate the value attributed by adolescents to sports and physical activities, they did not always make explicit if these same sports were part of their everyday lives and, more importantly still, how these activities interacted with other typical leisure activities.
Research literature clearly underscores the fact that adolescent leisure time is informed by a great variety and diversity of activities. According to Kleiber and Rickards (1985), the most common adolescent activities are hanging around, which is the pastime of those who use shopping centres, parks, street corners and their school as a context in which to be seen by others and in which to spend time with friends. In addition, the most important identity symbols for adolescents are fashion styles, drug use, delinquency, TV, cinema, sexual activity, dating, reading, solitude, dancing, listening to music etc. and practising sports.

The scope of adolescent leisure activities is generally examined according to four categories: home-centred activities, such as reading, TV etc; affiliative activities, which are social activities in general; physical-recreational activities; and cultural activities, such as going to a concert or to the cinema. A significantly higher proportion of girls than boys spend their leisure time at home. Girls are more attracted by home-centred activities, such as TV, playing records or tapes and spending time with the rest of the family. Boys display a preference for physical activities and for fresh air while girls prefer to adopt a spectator role (Chamberlain, 1983).

In terms of the value attributed to sporting leisure activities during adolescence, it is true to say that it is more instrument than expressivity, i.e. it is more a means by which to achieve social ends such as heterosexual contacts, social opportunities than a means toward significant personal ends. Even as spectators of sporting events, adolescents may very often be more concerned with being seen and seeing than with the event itself (Kleiber and Rickards, 1985). Sport is generally experienced more positively than other parts of the adolescent's daily life and is associated with higher-than average challenges, high moods and high motivation (Chalip et. al., 1984). In the same way, adolescents report that in their free-time activities they experience greater freedom, intrinsic motivation and positive affect than in productive and maintenance activities (Kleiber et al., 1986).
The importance of a specific leisure activity is influenced not only by sex, but also by intelligence, self-esteem and social class. More intelligent adolescents with greater self-esteem view sports more positively. Working-class adolescents value higher those activities which can enhance their job prospects (Chamberlain, 1983).

As stated above, the processes of development in adolescence are provoked by biological determinants, but their manifestations differ according to gender, social class, locality, education and sub-cultural life experience (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1975). They may also vary as a function of the demands of professional career, religion and values (Coleman and Hendry, 1990). In the context of the current study, gender variations have been taken as the central focus. We have clearly observed that women's development has been largely restricted and truncated by highly stereotyped and oppressive gender roles. However, gender roles are specific over time and space, and these roles can therefore be changed (Cheska, 1981).

The portrait of the adolescent presented here is far from providing exhaustive treatment of the complete data with respect to adolescent development. Whereas the isolated examination of each aspect or characteristic of adolescent life (adopted previously in this review) may offer a deeper treatment of the question, this approach falls short by obscuring the subtle interrelations between each aspect or characteristic; it is an approach which vaporises time and space. The elaboration of this portrait was an attempt to seek out these interrelations and, however incompletely, provide a vision of the adolescent as a complex being, but above all as a dynamic being in constant flux.

Based on the review of literature above, the following hypotheses may be derived in the context of Brazil:

Hypothesis 14 - As the girls' patterns of participation in sport and physical activities, their patterns of choices of career, choices of free time activities, choices of companions, and opinions about important personal...
attributes to be popular with boys are based on traditional gender role expectations and stereotypes.

Hypothesis 15 - More non-participant girls in sports and physical activities than participants will report to have a job.

VI. WHY ADOLESCENT GIRLS GIVE UP PARTICIPATION OR DO NOT PARTICIPATE IN SPORTS AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

There are individuals who may have been involved in sport or physical activities at one time and become desocialized from sport because of lack of opportunity, declining interest, competing interests took priority, or an unpleasant experience led them to drop out of sport (McPherson et al., 1989). Studies conducted in North America and Australia indicate that around 35% of those involved in sport discontinue involvement in each year (Gould, 1987).

Several important studies which sought to identify the motives for dropping out, also known as attrition, were closely examined: Burton, 1987; Gould, Feltz, Horn & Weiss, 1982; Burton & Martens, 1986; Gould, 1987; Klint & Weiss, 1986; Kirsnit, and Ham & Richards, 1989; Scott, 1989; Klint and Weiss, 1987).

According to The Wilson Report: moms, dads, daughters and sports, conducted in 1987, with a random sample of 1004 mothers and fathers and 513 of their 7 to 18-year-old daughters, 89% of the girls participated in sports. Although the report showed a high level of sport involvement, there is a relatively high drop out rate in the mid-teen years when they are in the pre-high school years. The most cited reasons for dropping out of sports were interest in other activities, lack of time, or more interest in boys than in sports (Women's Sports Foundation, 1988).
Brown (1985) examined 211 former and 193 current swimmers in her study on factors influencing girls' withdrawal from swimming. She discovered that discontinued participation is not only due to lack of success attained or negative sport experiences. Other factors are influential: decreasing importance of the athlete role in one's self-identity, perceived increase in the cost-benefit ratio of competitive swimming, and a gradual detachment from the swim world as they relate socially with peers from outside of the swim club. In short, giving up sport participation during adolescence is not solely related to failure or declining success.

Most studies included samples of 7-18 year olds from both sex groups from which clear variations in the grounds for attrition emerged: variations were not merely sex-specific but were registered for different age groups and sports activities. Among these studies it is reported that interest in and conflicts with other activities are the major reasons for adolescents to discontinue their involvement in sports (Gould et al. 1982; Klint and Weiss, 1986; Burton and Martens). This is explained by the fact that, with increasing age, adolescents have less leisure time available in contrast with greater opportunities and interests in the pursuit of nonathletic forms of leisure; from this perspective drop out of sports maybe due to interest in nonathletic activities and lack of time. Also, during childhood and adolescent peer-groups seem to impose many behaviours and attitudes which conspire to take many young girls away from sports and physical attitudes ((McPherson et al., 1989; Scraton, 1989; Weiss and Glenn, 1992). Adolescent girls withdraw themselves from the sport role as they become oriented to other interests that are valued and encouraged by the peer group and significant others (Scraton, 1989; Bardwick, 1971; Tyler, 1973; Kirshnit et al., 1989).

One line of research investigating girls' motives for dropping out of sports adopts a feminist perspective. In these studies the issues have focused on the psychological constraints determined by the images of femininity and what is considered to be gender appropriate behaviour (Kane, 1987; Hoferek, 1978;
Reis and Jelsma, 1978; Scraton, 1986). Although attitudes towards women in sport may have changed in the last decades, sport is still perceived as a male-oriented and male-dominated domain (Scraton, 1986). It has been suggested that many female participants may feel that their female and athlete roles are in conflict, and for this reason they drop out of sports (Carrington and Leaman, 1986).

In relation to motives for attrition several conclusions may be drawn: conflict of interest with non-sport activities; lack of fun; overemphasis on competition; excessive pressure (chiefly for females); burnout from overtraining; inadequate organisation and instruction (inability of youth programmes to meet achievement needs of youngsters); lack of playing, lack of free time, absence of success; little skill improvement, boredom and injury (Gould, 1987). Despite the alarming rates of attrition some sports scientists have concluded that many adolescents do not drop out completely but discontinue one sport and enter another in the search for a more enjoyable activity.

Based on the review of the literature above, it is expected that in the context of Brazil the most common reason for given up participation or non-participation in sports and physical activities will be lack of interest in these activities.

12. CONCLUSIONS AND GENERAL HYPOTHESES

The above review of literature sought to identify relevant works analysing variables which could affect the process of socialisation into sports and physical activities of adolescent girls. From this it emerged that an integration of personal attributes - age, socio-economic class, attitude, motivation, self-esteem, self-confidence, self-perceived physical competence,
notions of femininity and masculinity, and gender and sports stereotypes - and the influence of socialising agents - family, school, peer-groups, community, and mass media - can determine differences in sport participation patterns among adolescent girls. In addition it provided the theoretical framework necessary for the present dissertation aimed to determine and analyse the sports and physical activity patterns of Brazilian adolescents schoolgirls. From this review of literature the general hypotheses presented below can be deduced.

MAIN GENERAL HYPOTHESES

1. The indices of participation decrease with age during adolescence due to the girls' socialisation process which discourages their participation in sports and physical activities as they grow older.

2. The higher the socio-economic status of the girls, the higher the rates of participation in sports and physical activities.

3. The girls' attitudes towards sports, exercise and physical education will be generally negative.

4. The more negative the girls' attitudes towards sports, exercise and physical education, less likely they are to participate in sports and physical activities.

5. The most cited reasons for participation in sports and physical activities will be related to needs of affiliation, desire for physical appearance enhancement and health (Graydon, 1987).

6. The more positive the self-perceived self-esteem and physical competence the greater the participation in sports and physical activities.
7. Girls with higher self-perceived self-esteem and physical competence will participate more in sports and physical activities.

8. There is a relationship between participation/non-participation in sports and physical activities and perceptions of femininity: girls who participate in sports and physical activities will tend to perceive themselves to be less feminine than non-participants.

9. There is a relationship between participation/non-participation and stereotyped views of women in sports: there will be more girls with internalised stereotyped views of women in sports among non-participants than participants (Graydon, 1987).

10. There are more girls who were considered 'tomboys' as a child among participants than non-participants.

11. The girls will stereotype sports and physical activities in terms of appropriate or not appropriate for each gender.

12. Family, school, peers, community and past sport participation will independently predict the girls' participation in sports and physical activities.

13. Of these variables peer groups will be the most influential force in determining participation in sports and physical activities throughout adolescence.
CHAPTER THREE - METHODOLOGY

The review of the literature presented in the previous chapter indicated that several variables can determine different patterns of sport participation among adolescent girls. It also demonstrated that these patterns differ according to the nature of the socialisation process during childhood and adolescence. The review made it clear that an interaction of institutional and individual factors can determine whether adolescent girls will become sport participants.

In the present study, a adolescent girls will be considered a sports participant when she practises at least one sport at least once a week. In addition, based on this review of literature, the definition of a sports participant will broadened in accordance with the social role-social system approach to study the process of sport socialisation. According to this approach, the socialisation into sports role takes effect when the role learner (sports participant) who is

"... characterised by a wide variety of relevant ascribed and achieved personal attributes (e.g., personality traits, attitudes, motivations, values, motor ability, race, ethnicity, gender) ... is exposed to variety of stimuli and reinforcements provided by significant others (i.e., parents, peers, coaches, teachers, professional athletes, etc.) who are within one or more norm-encumbered social systems such as the family, school, church, peer group, sport group, or the mass media. Furthermore, within each social system these significant others have the potential to facilitate or inhibit role learning depending on the unique values,

Based on the review of literature the following were selected as socialising agents: the family, school, peer-group, community, and mass media, which were also investigated as a possible influence on girls' sports participation patterns through their exposures to media coverage of sports. The personal attributes chosen for analysis were motives for participation, attitudes towards sports and physical education, self-esteem, self-perceived physical competence, self-perceived femininity, gender stereotypes related to sports, and typical habits, interests, opinions and hopes of adolescent girls.

This chapter will present and examine the scope of the current research, the instrument of data collection, measurements, procedures, and data analysis chosen to study the influence of institutional and individual factors on sport socialisation into sports and physical activities of Brazilian adolescent girls outside school.

I. SCOPE OF RESEARCH

This study is designed to examine the influence of social and psychological variables on Brazilian schoolgirls' involvement in sporting activities, at each age level between 11 and 20 years. In order to meet this objective, a sample of 1 497 schoolgirls was taken. All subjects were attending 15 different state schools during the second semester of 1991 in the city of São Paulo and in the small rural university town of Viçosa.

Previous studies on girls' involvement in sporting activities have shown that the patterns of participation vary according to the cultural and social situation of the subjects (Hasbrook, Greendorfer and McMullen, 1981). In order to investigate this variation, the city of São Paulo and the town of Viçosa were selected on the assumption that they are quite different in their social and
cultural profiles. São Paulo city is the capital of the federal state of São Paulo, situated in the south-east of Brazil with a population of about 18 million inhabitants. It is the most affluent city in the country and boasts the highest per capita income and relatively well-developed trade and commerce. By contrast, Viçosa is a small rural university town in the state of Minas Gerais, to the north of the state of São Paulo. The population is about 70 thousand inhabitants and the economy is primarily based on commerce consumed mainly by university employees and students, and farmers of the region. These cities were deliberately selected to represent the opposite extremes of the rural-urban-industrial continuum. The selection was also made on the basis of convenience to the researcher and the likelihood of co-operation of the school systems to be involved.

Selection of schools and subjects

In São Paulo a preliminary investigation of the schools was conducted to ensure that they encompassed variations in sport provision and facilities and, also, the probability of co-operation. Subsequently, contact was established with the local education authority to which each school was answerable. The objectives of the study and the contents of the questionnaires were presented and permission to conduct the present study was obtained. The final decision remained throughout the prerogative of the schools. With few exceptions, almost all the heads of schools promptly agreed to participate in the study and PE teachers were requested to select a representative cross-section of students in each school year. As a result, the sample of each school partially reflected its size in terms of pupil numbers, classes and year. The heads of school who opposed participation did so on the grounds that it would disturb school routine, result in a loss of teaching time and might provoke a negative image if negative aspects of the school were to be uncovered through publications of the pupils' answers to the questionnaires. In São Paulo the total sample comprised 1
341 schoolgirls from which 504 were enrolled in first grade schools and 837 in second grade schools. The first grade and second grade schools selected were:

1. Escola Estadual de Primeiro Grau "Almerinda Rodrigues de Mello" (Almerinda);
2. Escola Estadual de Primeiro Grau "Benedita Ribas" (Benedita);
3. Escola Estadual de Primeiro Grau "Cesar Matinez" (Cesar M.);
4. Escola Estadual de Primeiro Grau "Fabiano Lozano" (Fabiano);
5. Escola Municipal de Primeiro Grau "Jean Mermoz" (J.Mermoz);
6. Escola Estadual de Primeiro Grau "Joao Borges" (J.Borges);
7. Escola Municipal de Primeiro Grau "Nelson Pimentel" (Pimentel);
8. Escola Estadual de Segundo Grau "Alberto Levy" (A.Levy);
9. Escola Estadual de Segundo Grau "Ascendino Reis" (Ascendino);
10. Escola Tecnica de Segundo Grau "Basilides Godoy" (Basilides);
11. Escola Estadual de Segundo Grau "Brasilio Machado" (B.Machado);
12. Escola Estadual de Segundo Grau "Jose Marques da Cruz" (J.M.Cruz);
13. Escola Estadual de Segundo Grau "Oswaldo Catalano" (Catalano);

In the rural town of Viçosa, one second grade school was selected: the Colégio Universitário. The questionnaires were applied to all female pupils attending school at the time of the data collection and who had agreed to participate in the study. This school was chosen for convenience, personal and employer interest, since the researcher has been, over the last 17 years, a member of staff of the university to which this school is linked. Also, its sports provision and facilities were similar to São Paulo schools. In order to permit a comparative analysis between schools of São Paulo and Viçosa, it was presumed that the sports provision and facilities of the two communities should be similar. In total, 156 questionnaires were applied in the Colégio
Universitário. Table 5 shows the number of pupils in each school, age and grade level.

Table 5. Numbers of pupils according to school, age and grade

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Age of subjects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cesar M.</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pimentel</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J.Borges</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Almerinda</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fabiano</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benedita</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J.Mermoz</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total*</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Villalva</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basilides</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J.M.Cruz</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catalano</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ascendino</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Levy</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Machado</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coluni</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total**</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total***</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total* = first grade  
Total** = second grade  
Total*** = first grade + second grade

The total sample of the present study consisted of 1,497 female subjects aged between 11 and 20, from which 504 were enrolled in first grade schools and 993 in second grade schools.
II. INSTRUMENT FOR DATA COLLECTION: QUESTIONNAIRE

(See Appendix 1)

In order to study the socialisation process into sports and physical activities of Brazilian schoolgirls, a fourteen-page questionnaire (in Portuguese) entitled "Questionnaire on Attitudes to and Interest in Sports and Physical Activities" and containing 47 questions was developed. It was divided into the following six principal sections:

Section I- Interest and involvement in sports and physical activities outside school.

Seventeen questions were asked covering the following aspects:

A. membership and representation of a sports club;

B. patterns of participation in sports and physical activities, including number of participation and hours per week of practice in different activities, and place of practice;

C. reasons for participation, non-participation and evasion;

D. availability of sports facilities near the respondent's home and opportunities for play;

E. importance of sport and motives for playing sport;

F. attitudes towards sports and physical activities;

G. ability to learn sports skills or physical activities.

Section II - Physical Education (PE) classes.

This consisted of seven questions related to:
A. activities practised in PE;

B. attitudes toward PE, other school disciplines and activities practised during PE classes;

C. what is learned in PE (health, discipline etc.);

D. self-evaluation of athletic attributes;

E. interest in participation in the school team.

Section III - Interest and/or involvement of family, friends and PE teacher/coach in sports and physical activities.
This section comprised four questions concerning:
A. frequency of participation in sports and physical activities of the parents, brothers, sisters, friends, girlfriend/boyfriend;

B. importance of respondent's being good at sports and physical activities given by parents, friends, and PE teacher/coach;

C. encouragement/ discouragement of participation received from brothers, sisters, friends, boyfriends and PE teacher/coach;

D. acceptance by friends in relation to sports and physical ability.

Section IV - Sporting and physical activities during childhood (before the age of ten).
This section involved four questions about:
A. frequency of participation in sports and physical activities and place of practice;
B. frequency with which the parents played with the respondents during childhood;

C. self-evaluation of physical competence as a child.

Section V - Opinion about sport and femininity/masculinity.

The six questions in this section aimed to provide:

A. conceptions of femininity/masculinity;

B. self-rating of femininity/masculinity;

C. opinions about the suitability of some sports for men, women or for both sexes;

D. perceptions of stereotypes of women in sports and physical activities.

Section VI - Habits, feelings, opinions, hopes, and interests.

This last section was for general information, i.e., it was not directly related to the practice of sports. It was thought that these questions would help to explain the research results. It contained eight questions related to the following topics:

A. stereotyped female professions the respondents might follow;

B. feelings about themselves;

C. requirements for being a popular girl;
D. activities during free-time, specifying the three favourite activities;

E. paid work, including numbers of hours per week and type of work.

Demographic data were also requested at the beginning of the questionnaire, which included the name of the school, sex, age, father's and mother's profession. A blank space was left for the number identification of the subject.

Once the English version of the questionnaire was translated into Portuguese and it was given to a few Brazilian colleagues and acquaintances to read over and provide criticism of format, content, objectives, expression, instruction appropriateness and whether or not questions should be added or deleted. In the next stage, the questionnaire was revised according to the criticisms received and then pilot-tested with about 25 children of different ages from the first grade level who were part of the intended population of the main study. It enabled the identification of inappropriate questions, possible difficulties in wording or comprehension, mainly for children as young as eleven who were expressing opinions about such controversial subjects as gender role stereotypes, and to forecast the average time spent in answering the questionnaire according to age. Some rewording proved to be necessary and, also, a re-selection of the questions, due to the greater amount of time spent by the youngest respondents compared to the oldest. Thus, for the final section of the questionnaire many questions, peripheral and informative in nature, were deleted in order to reduce the time spent in answering to an average of 50 minutes - that is, the usual duration of a secondary school lesson in Brazil.

The questions used in the research instrument were, in general, original and defined by the requirements of the present study. Some were borrowed in their original form from studies found in the literature on sports socialisation.
and motivation adopting a similar theoretical framework and methodology (Gould et al., 1982). Where necessary, after translation into Portuguese, they were adapted to fit the Brazilian context. The decision to use similar questions derived from the fact that if a comparative approach were to be adopted, the methodological similarity among the studies should be maximised.

The types of questions utilised in the questionnaire were open-ended and closed questions. The open-ended type were kept to a minimum, due to the greater amount of time required in answering this type of question and, most importantly, the unpopularity of this type of question among pupils in the pilot-study, who left almost all open-ended questions unanswered. Preliminary analysis of the questionnaires from the main study also confirmed the unpopularity of open-ended questions among the subjects of this sample. The closed questions predominated in the questionnaire and consisted mainly of three types: a 5-point Likert scale, categorical responses "yes" and "no", and multiple items. A covering letter was attached to the questionnaire explaining the nature and importance of the study and assuring the confidentiality of the responses.

III. PROCEDURES

In each school all students attending the selected classes on the day of the application of the questionnaires participated in this study on a voluntary basis. They were given the freedom to withdraw or discontinue participation at any time if they so wished. The administration of the questionnaires was carried out in groups of 15 to 50 pupils, after the school personnel had read aloud the covering letter attached. The researcher then provided additional information about the objectives and justification of the study, and more critically, the importance of participating in it in view of the benefits the results could bring them in the future. The purpose was to gain their full co-operation
in the project. Almost all questionnaires were completed by the pupils under the supervision of the researcher in quiet classroom conditions. In two cases in which the schools did not have spare room in which to accommodate the pupils, the questionnaires were applied in the sports hall. The pupils took approximately 30 to 70 minutes to complete the questionnaires, with younger pupils generally taking longer to finish the task. A return rate of around 96% was achieved. About 4% of the questionnaires were discarded either for lack of complete information or because the subject's age was above that established by the research design. Thus, in all 1497 questionnaires were used in the data analysis.

IV. MEASUREMENTS

In this section the measurements derived from the questionnaires applied in São Paulo and Viçosa are presented. Items of the questionnaire are grouped in terms of the variables they were designed to measure. Confirmation of these measures was to be determined by principle component analysis.

A. Index of Present Active Sport Participation

In the study of the influence of the socialising agents, the dependent variable, active sport participation, represents a broad conception of behavioural and affective dimensions based on theoretical assumptions made by Kenyon and McPherson (1973). According to these authors, "[a]s one becomes involved in sports he can be characterised as playing one of several roles. A sport role, like any role, implies that the role incumbent possesses knowledges, skills, and dispositions characterising the role in question." (p.306). Eight items informed this conception: frequency of sports playing;
importance of being good at sports; skill in sports; liking of playing sports and exercising; ease of learning sport skills, and motives for playing sports and doing exercises. Specifically, the questions related to these items were:

1 - During the current year, have you played outside school any of the physical activities or sports listed below? For each activity circle the number which best represents how often you play per week; write also the total hours per week.

The following twenty-one activities were suggested: basketball, volleyball, aerobics, cycling, gymnastics, karate, roller skating, ice skating, sailing, tennis, table tennis, weight lifting, football, handball, athletics, dance/ballet/jazz, jogging, judo, swimming, boxing and baseball. A blank space was provided to be filled with other non-cited activities. Responses to this question were reported on scales ranging from 0 := never to 5 := more than four times a week. Although subjects were also asked to indicate the total hours per week in each activity mentioned, these data were not used because a great number of respondents did not answer this question. Thus, if a respondent indicated that she had practised one sporting activity at least once a week she was considered a sport participant.

2 - How important is it for you that you be good at sports and physical activities? The possible answers ranged from 0 := not at all to 5 := very important.

3 - Which mark would you give yourself in sports or vigorous physical activities? The answers available ranged from 1 := not good at all to 5 := very good.
4 - How much do you like playing sports or doing physical activities? The options for the answers ranged from 1 = don't like at all to 5 = like very much.

5 - Do you find it easy or difficult to learn new sports skills or physical activities? The answers ranged from 1 = very difficult to 5 = very easy.

The heading for the next three questions was: "Indicate how important the following motives are for you":

6 - I like to be in a team.

7 - I want to be stronger.

8 - I want to be a great athlete.

The possible answers for questions 6, 7 and 8 ranged from 0 = not at all to 5 = very important. The decision to include these questions was based on the motivation studies of the present sample. Previous research on sport socialisation did not include the motivation aspect. However, it was thought that this dimension could improve the operationalization of the active sport involvement concept. The three questions used obtained the highest correlations among the 26 suggested motives for participation.

The data obtained in these eight questions were totalled and an over-all score was scaled so that the more active the subject, the higher her index of present active sport participation would be.

B. Index of Childhood Experiences in Sports and Physical Activities (before 10 years of age)

According to the continuity theory of ageing (Atchley, 1977), an individual carries behaviours, attitudes and values acquired at one stage in the life-cycle to subsequent stages of life. Studies on sports participation during adulthood and adolescence have shown the importance of childhood sport
experiences upon these stages of the life-cycle (Spreitzer and Snyder, 1976; Greendorfer, 1987). Therefore, the childhood sport experience index was formed by the sum of the data originating from the following questions:

1 - How often did you engage in sport and physical activities as a child? (before the age of ten)

2 - How good were you in sports and physically active games as a child? (before the age of 10)

3 - How often did your parents play with you when you were a child?

4 - When you were a child (before the age of 10), how often were you called a "tomboy" because you enjoyed climbing trees, playing with boys' toys or boys' games?

Each question was rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = never/not good at all to 5 = very frequently/very good; responses to individual items were summed together to form the childhood experience index.

C. Index of physical education teacher influence

The index of physical education (PE) influence was determined by the following questions:

1 - We would like you to say if you like PE very much = 5, like PE = 4, neither like nor dislike PE = 3, dislike PE = 2, or dislike very much = 1.

2 - "I am good at PE".

3 - "I like my current PE teacher".
For questions 2 and 3 the heading was: We would like you to say to the following statements if you strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neither agree nor disagree = 3, agree = 4, and strongly agree = 5:

4 - How important is it to your PE teacher/coach that you be good in sports and physical activities? The possible answers were: not important = 1, not very important = 2, fairly important = 3, important = 4, very important = 5.

5 - How much encouragement/discouragement do you receive from your PE teacher/coach to play sports or do physical activities? The possible answers were: strongly discouraged = 1, discouraged = 2, neither discouraged nor encouraged = 3, encouraged = 4, strongly encouraged = 5.

The numerical values corresponding to the answers given to each question were summed to form the index of PE influence.

D. Index of father influence

1 - How often does your father/male guardian play sports or do physical activities? The alternative answers were: never = 1, rarely = 2, regularly = 3, frequently = 4, very frequently = 5.

2 - How important is it to your father/male guardian that you be good in sports and physical activities? The answers were: not important = 1, not very important = 2, fairly important = 3, important = 4, very important = 5.

3 - How much encouragement/discouragement do you receive from your father to play sports and do physical activities? The possible answers were: strongly discouraged = 1, discouraged = 2, neither encouraged nor discouraged = 3, encouraged = 4, strongly encouraged = 5.
The responses to each of the three questions were summed to form the index of father influence.

E. Index of mother influence

1 - How often does your mother/female guardian play sports or do physical activities? The alternative answers were: never = 1, rarely = 2, regularly = 3, frequently = 4, very frequently = 5.

2 - How important is it to your mother/female guardian that you be good at sports and physical activities? The answers available were: not important = 1, not very important = 2, fairly important = 3, important = 4, very important = 5.

3 - How much encouragement/discouragement do you receive from your mother to play sports and do physical activities? The possible answers were: strongly discouraged = 1, discouraged = 2, neither encouraged nor discouraged = 3, encouraged = 4, strongly encouraged = 5.

The responses to each question were summed to form the index of mother influence.

F. Index of brother influence

1 - How often does your older brother play sports or do physical activities?

2 - How often does your younger brother play sports or do physical activities?
The answers for these two questions could be: never = 1, rarely = 2, regularly = 3, frequently = 4, very frequently = 5.

3 - How much encouragement/discouragement do you receive from your older brother to play sports and do physical activities?

4 - How much encouragement/discouragement do you receive from your younger brother to play sports and do physical activities?

The answers to these questions could be: strongly discouraged = 1; discouraged = 2; neither encouraged nor discouraged = 3; encouraged = 4; strongly encouraged = 5. The responses to the four questions were summed to form the index of brother influence.

G. Index of sister influence

1 - How often does your older sister play sports or do physical activities?

2 - How often does your younger sister play sports or do physical activities?

The answers for these two questions could be: never = 1, rarely = 2, regularly = 3, frequently = 4, very frequently = 5.

3 - How much encouragement/discouragement do you receive from your older sister to play sports and do physical activities?

4 - How much encouragement/discouragement do you receive from your younger sister to play sports and do physical activities?
The answers to these questions could be: strongly discouraged = 1; discouraged = 2; neither encouraged nor discouraged = 3; encouraged = 4; strongly encouraged = 5.

The responses to the four questions were summed to form the index of brother influence.

**H. Index of male peer influence**

The index of male peer influence was derived from questions concerning respondents' male friends and boyfriends. The questions were:

1 - How often does your male friend play sports or do physical activities?

2 - How often does your boyfriend play sports or do physical activities?

The answers for these two questions could be: not applicable = 0, never = 1, rarely = 2, regularly = 3, often = 4, very often = 5.

3 - How much encouragement/discouragement do you receive from your male friend to play sports and do physical activities?

4 - How much encouragement/discouragement do you receive from your boyfriend to play sports and do physical activities?

The responses to questions 3 and 4 could vary from not applicable = 0, strongly discouraged = 1, discouraged = 2, neither discouraged nor encouraged = 3, encouraged = 4, and strongly encouraged = 5.

5 - How important is it to your male friend that you be good at sports and physical activities?
6 - How important is it to your boyfriend that you are good in sports and physical activities?

The responses to questions 5 and 6 could be: not applicable = 0, not important = 1, not very important = 2, fairly important = 3, important = 4, very important = 5.

7 - How accepted are you by your friends with respect to your skill or ability in sports and physical activities?

The subjects answered according to the following: not accepted = 1, not very accepted = 2, slightly accepted = 3, accepted = 4, and very accepted = 5.

The index of male peers influence was established by summing the responses of the seven questions above mentioned.

I. Index of female peer influence

The index of female peer influence was derived from questions concerning respondents' female friends. The questions were:

1 - How often does your female friend play sports or do physical activities?

The response to the question could be: not applicable = 0, never = 1, rarely = 2, regularly = 3, often = 4, and very often = 5.

2 - How much encouragement/discouragement do you receive from your female friend to play sports or do physical activities?

The responses to this question could vary from not applicable = 0, strongly discouraged = 1, discouraged = 2, neither discouraged nor encouraged = 3, encouraged = 4, and strongly encouraged = 5.
3 - How important is it to your female friend that you be good in sports and physical activities?

The responses to this question could be: not applicable = 0, not important = 1, not very important = 2, fairly important = 3, important = 4, very important = 5.

4- How accepted are you by your friends with respect to your skill or ability in sports and physical activities?

The subjects answered according to the following: not accepted= 1, not very accepted= 2, slightly accepted= 3, accepted= 4, and very accepted= 5. This question was also included here to give equal weight to measurements of friends' acceptance on both female and male peer indices.

The index of female peers influence was established by summing the responses of the four questions presented above.

J. Index of opportunity to play

The questions presented below provided the index of opportunity to play.

1 - Are you currently a member of a sports club?

"no" = 1, and "yes" = 2 answers were required to this question.

2 - How many opportunities are there for you to play sports or do physical activities in the following places: school (not in PE classes), sports centre, club, neighbourhood streets, area around the house, and public park?

The possible answers were: none= 1, few= 2, some= 3, several= 4, many=5.

The sum of the numerical data obtained in question 1 and in the five playing areas presented in question 2 formed the opportunity to play index.
K. Motives for participation in sports and physical activities.

According to the review of literature, motivation may explain the girls' patterns of sport and physical activities. In the present study motivation was examined by asking the subjects to rate on a 5-point scale (from 1 = not at all important to 5 = very important) the degree of importance of each of the following 26 items in explaining their reasons for involvement in sports and physical activities:

- I want to have fun
- I want to be in shape
- I want to be physically able
- I want to be healthy
- I want to improve my skills
- I like the team spirit
- I like the challenge
- I like to exercise
- I like to do something I am good at
- I want to learn new skills
- I like to make new friends
- I like the action
- I like to win
- I like the coach/teacher
- I like to be with my friends
- I like to travel
- I want to be popular/recognised
- I want to release tension
- My parents want me to play
- I want to be a great athlete
- I want to be stronger
- I like to experience beauty in movement
- I like to use the equipment/facilities
- I like to get out of the house

L. Motives for giving up participation

The review of literature showed that many girls, although sport participants in the past, had given up participation for a wide range of motives. In order to assess these motives, the following list of 16 statements was presented:
I had other things to do
I did not like the pressure
I did not have enough fun
It took up too much time in my life
I wasn't as good as I wanted to be
I did not like the exhaustion
The activity made me too tense
The training was too hard
It was too competitive
I did not like the teacher/coach
I did not play enough
My friends did not play with me
There was too much emphasis on winning
I was afraid of making a fool of myself because of my lack of ability
The place was inconvenient
Others: illness/injuries/moving house.

Subjects were asked to rate each of the reasons on a 5-point Likert scale as follows: not at all applicable = 1, not very applicable = 2, fairly applicable = 3, applicable = 4, very applicable = 5.

\[M. \quad \text{Motives for non-participation in sports and physical activities}\]

Much research has reported that many girls never experience participation in sports and practising physical activities outside school. This section investigated the reasons for non-participation by requiring the students to indicate how applicable each of the 14 suggested reasons was to their individual case:

No programme was available
I didn’t have enough money
I had no time
I didn’t feel at ease in public
No facilities available/convenient
I had other things to do
I didn’t have physical ability
I was not interested
I am too competitive
My friends didn’t play
I was too lazy
No transport to get me there
I was not in shape
I was afraid to go out in the evening.

Subjects were asked to rate each of these reasons on a 5-point Likert scale as follows: not at all applicable = 1, not very applicable = 2, fairly applicable = 3, applicable = 4, very applicable = 5.

N. Perceptions of femininity and sport stereotyped views of women in sports

The review of literature indicated that self-perceptions of femininity and sport stereotyped views of women in sports can be vital to an understanding of girls' patterns of sport participation and physical activities. To assess these aspects girls were asked to answer the following questions:

1 - "Compared to other girls you know, I would rate my femininity on a scale of 1 to 7 as ... 1=much below average, 2=below average, 3=slightly below average, 4=average, 5=slightly above average, 6=above average, 7=well above average.

2 - "If a girl is taking sports seriously, it can affect her feminine image";

3 - "If a girl is taking sports seriously, it can affect her dating opportunities";

4 - "I think there is great prejudice against women who play sports - they are considered lesbians";
5 - "Girls should play only "feminine" sports, i.e., which don’t demand strength, violence or speed";

6 - "Girls should not play sports because they can become muscular";

7 - "Girls should not play sports which demand body contact as in basketball and football".

The subjects were asked to say in the statements 2 to 7 if they strongly agreed=5, agreed=4, neither agreed nor disagreed=3, disagreed=2, or strongly disagreed =1.

8 - "When you were a child (before the age of 10), how often were you called a 'tomboy' because you enjoyed climbing trees, or played with boys' toys or boys' games?"

The possible answers were: never=1, rarely=2, regularly=3, frequently=4, and very frequently=5.

9 - From the list of sports and physical activities presented below indicate which you consider to be more suitable for males only=1, females only=2, or suitable for both=3: if you don’t know the sport indicate with a 0:

```
basketball    aerobics    wind surfing
gymnastics   motorcycling football
tennis        water skiing swimming
volleyball    athletics    karate
equestrianism ice skating    dance
rowing        weight lifting table tennis
handball      cycling      judo
jogging       roller skating sailing
```
O. Physical Education classes

In order to investigate the influence of PE classes in the girls' patterns of participation in sports and physical activities the following questions were asked:

1 - We would like you to say of each of the following subjects taught in your school if you like it very much (=5), like it (=4), neither like nor dislike (3), dislike (2), strongly dislike it (1):
   - Sciences (Physics/Biology/Chemistry etc.)
   - Maths (Geometry/Algebra etc.)
   - Social Studies (History/Moral and Civic Education)
   - Portuguese
   - Physical Education
   - Foreign Languages (English, French etc.)
   - Arts Education (Music, Arts).

2 - Which of the following games/activities have you played in Physical Education classes in the current year: football, indoor football, basketball, volleyball, athletics, handball, dance/jazz, aerobics, swimming, gymnastics, other activities?

3 - Below there is a list of statements related to sports and physical activities. We would like you to comment on each if you strongly agree =5, agree =4, neither agree nor disagree =3, disagree =2, or strongly disagree =1:

I learn games in PE classes
I learn gymnastics in PE classes
I like individual sports
I like team sports
I am good at PE
I learn discipline in PE classes
I learn sports skills in PE classes
I learn social satisfaction/enjoyment in PE
I like my current PE teacher
I like indoor activities
I do not like trying new activities in PE in case someone laughs at me
I sometimes feel that my arms and legs are not doing what I want them to do in PE and games
I learn health and fitness in PE classes
I think PE is a worthwhile activity at school

4- Compared to other schoolgirls, how would you rate your athletic ability in a scale from 1 to 7? The answers could be: 1= much below average, 2= below average, 3= slightly below average, 4= average, 5= slightly above average, 6=above average, 7= much above average.

5 - Have you ever represented your school in any sport or physical activities? How often have you trained the activity? The responses were: 1= never, 2= once a week, 3= twice a week, 4= three times per week, 5= four times per week, 6= more than four times per week.

6 - If you have never represented your school in any sport or physical activity, would you be interested in doing so? The answers could be "yes" or "no".

P. Habits, feelings, opinions, hopes, and interests of Brazilian girls

In order to investigate general aspects which may indirectly explain the subjects' patterns of participation in sports and physical activities the following questions were asked:

1 - Here you will find a list of professions which you could take up. We would like you to say for each profession if you have never dreamed of taking
it up= 1, or rarely dreamed= 2, regularly dreamed= 3, frequently dreamed= 4, or very frequently dreamed of taking it up= 5. The professions suggested were:

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>artist</td>
<td>nurse</td>
<td>elite athlete</td>
<td>teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scientist</td>
<td>model</td>
<td>ballerina</td>
<td>housewife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lecturer</td>
<td>plane pilot</td>
<td>stewardess</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 - The sentences below are related to feelings someone might have towards herself/himself. We would like you to say if you strongly agree = 5, agree = 4, neither agree nor disagree = 3, disagree = 2, or strongly disagree= 1.

   a - "I don't like myself the way I am" ;
   b - "There are a lot of things I would like to change, but not completely";
   c - "I would like to stay very much as I am, there is very little I'd change".

3 - With whom do you go out most often?

The alternative answers were: 1= go out alone, 2= with boyfriend, 3= with male friends, 4= with female friends, 5= with a group of boys and girls, 6= with members of my family/relatives.

4 - We present below a list of 18 attributes which might contribute to making a girl popular or desirable to boys. For each attribute we would like you to circle the number 1 if you consider it not important, number 2 if not very important, number 3 if fairly important, number 4 if important, number 5 if very important.

   to be a good dancer                         to have a good reputation
   to dress fashionably                       to have money
   to dress properly                           to know about cars
to drink

5 - Which of the activities below mentioned do you do during your free
time and how many times per week? The frequency per week suggested were:
never= 0, once= 1, twice= 2, three times= 3, four times= 4, more than four
times= 5.

to smoke

to know about sports
to be a famous athlete
to be the crowd leader
to come from a good family
to get high grades at school
to wear state-of-the-art sport shoes
model
to play sports or do exercise
to know about famous film stars
to know about the latest pop music
to be beautiful

to wear state-of-the-art sport shoes

listening to music
dating

watching television
sewing, knitting, other crafts
going to a discothèque
practising sports or physical
activities
cooking for pleasure
reading books, magazines, and
newspapers
attendance at sports competitions
other activities

go to the cinema

going shopping/window shopping

6 - Do you work?

The alternative answers were: ”Yes” and ”No”.

V. DATA ANALYSIS

The demographic data and some questions which demanded descriptive
analysis were presented in terms of number and percentages.

A chi-square analysis was used to determine whether differences existed
between the samples from Viçosa and São Paulo, between age groups, and
CHAPTER FOUR - RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

AN APPRAISAL OF THE RESULTS UNDER INTERNATIONAL BACKGROUND

Introduction

The aim of the present study is to determine and analyse the sport and physical activity patterns, outside school, of 1497 Brazilian adolescent schoolgirls (11-20 years) enrolled in public schools, and to identify some relevant variables which influenced these patterns. Among these variables, socialising agents - family, school, peer-group, community, mass media - and personal attributes - past sport participation, attitudes towards sports and physical activities, motivation, self-esteem, self-perceived physical competence, self-perceived femininity, acquired sport stereotypes, habits, interests, opinions, hopes - were selected for analysis.

In Chapter Three the selected methodology, instrument for data collection and data analyses were addressed. Among various methodological approaches, a survey was chosen to determine the sport and physical activity patterns of Brazilian schoolgirls and to investigate the influence of all selected personal attributes and socialising agents on these patterns.

In this chapter the results of the survey data will be presented and discussed against the background of the current ideologies and practices of women in sport around the world which were presented in the Chapter Two - Review of Literature. Also, it was found to be fundamental to analyse the results within the wider context of Brazilian society and culture as a whole and within the Brazilian sports world where the girls investigated in this study normally live. It was thought that although Brazil has strongly assimilated
Western culture, mostly American and Western European, a different pattern could emerge from what was expected in the review of literature.

Therefore, this chapter is organised as follows:

I. Patterns of participation in sports and physical activities of Brazilian schoolgirls;
   A. The most popular sporting activities among Brazilian girls
   B. Places where sports are played by sport participants
   C. Patterns of sports participation in different geographical areas

II. Individual factors influencing Brazilian girls' patterns of participation in sports and physical activities:
   A. Age and developmental stages;
   B. Socio-economic class;
   C. Attitudes towards sporting activities and physical education;
   D. Motives for participation in sports and physical activities;
   E. Self-esteem and self-perceived physical competence;
   F. Self-perceived femininity;
   G. The power of sport stereotypes as the major barrier to female participation in sporting activities.
      1. Stereotyped views of women in sports
      2. Tomboysm: a precursor of participation in sporting activities?
      3. Appropriateness of sports according to gender

III. Institutional factors influencing Brazilian girls' patterns of participation in sports and physical activities:
   A. Influence of socialising agents: family, peer groups, school and communities;
   B. Physical Education and sports at school in Brazil

IV. Adolescence: habits, opinions, hopes and interests.

V. Why Brazilian girls give up participation or do not participate in sports and physical activities.
AN APPRAISAL OF THE RESULTS UNDER INTERNATIONAL BACKGROUND

I. PATTERNS OF PARTICIPATION IN SPORTS AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES OF BRAZILIAN SCHOOLGIRLS

In order to determine the patterns of sport participation of Brazilian female adolescents, this study examined 1,497 schoolgirls, aged 11 to 20, from São Paulo and Viçosa. They were asked to indicate the frequency of participation in 21 suggested sporting activities in terms of "never", "once a week", "twice a week", "three times a week", "four times a week", and "more than four times a week". The girl was considered a sport participant if she played one sporting activity at least once a week.

The results indicated that 42.8% of the sample (641 pupils) claimed to have participated in at least one sport outside school during 1991 while 57.2% (856 pupils) did not participate in any sporting activity. This percentage is slightly higher than expected - possibly due to age differences between the samples considered for comparison. This figure (35%) was based on studies including basically adult women. Considering that the index of participation decreases with age (Crompton et al., 1979), it could be expected that in the present study the percentage of participation should be slightly higher since its sample is composed of girls from 11 to 20 years.

The results also indicated that 42.2% of the girls participated in one sporting activity, 23.8% in two, 11.3% in three, 7.6% in four, and 15.1% in five or more sporting activities. This data is similar to that found in the Belgian study (Simmons et al., 1990) in which two different sports were the modal frequency of participation for all age categories.
Table 6. Number of times per week in which participants played each sport and number and percentage of participants by sport.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sports</th>
<th>Number of times per week</th>
<th>Total*</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volleyball</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gymnastics</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dance</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aerobics</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycling</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handball</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.Tennis</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.Skating</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W.Lifting</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karate</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ice Skating</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletics</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judo</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jogging</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sailing</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boxing</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>498</td>
<td>247</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* total number of participants = 641

However, the analysis of the other most practised activities - gymnastics, swimming, dance and aerobics - were in agreement with several studies on women in Belgium (Simmons et al., 1990), Canada (Fitness Ontario, 1983), England (1983 General Household Survey, 1985; Woodward et al., 1989),
Norway (Fasting, 1987), Spain (Herras, 1992), and United States (McPherson et al., 1989).

B. Places where sports were played by sport participants

The place where an individual chooses to play sports and practice physical activities was thought to be important since through this data it would be possible to reach important conclusions in relation to the availability of sporting facilities and the most common places where girls usually play sports. For this reason, sport participants were also requested to indicated where they used to play sports.

The most cited place was fitness centre/swimming/ballet school (Table 7). Basically, four sporting activities accounted for this result: gymnastics, dance, aerobics, and swimming. As was noted in the physical activity patterns around the world, women usually show preferences for indoor activities. This could be explained by social expectations that women should not expose themselves in public space, limiting her options not only for feminine sports but preferably indoor sporting activities. In the Brazilian context, this result also means that the girls who attend these fitness centres/swimming/ballet schools are from a more privileged socio-economic class since these places are private spaces and require reasonably expensive monthly fees for the use the facilities and equipments.

The second most used place, also private, was the sports club/youth centre where swimming, volleyball and basketball were practised. Some sports centre in Brazil are owned and administered by local government and charge symbolic fee to use its facilities and equipment. However, many individuals may feel inhibited to attend these places because the sports programmes on offer aim mainly those few who are skilful in specific sports instead of recreational activities.
The other two most popular places used by the adolescent girls in this sample were the neighbourhood streets and home where mainly volleyball was played. This could be a reflection of the socio-economic condition of the participants who had to look for alternative places to play sports due to financial pressures of being a member of sports clubs or attend sports/fitness centres. Also, these places could be the alternative for those girls who did not have sports facilities near home or no transport to reach there.
Table 7. Places where different sports were played indicated by sport participants, expressed in numbers of people.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sports</th>
<th>Places</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volleyball</td>
<td>4 58 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gymnastics</td>
<td>55 12 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>37 63 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dance</td>
<td>67 8 -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aerobics</td>
<td>74 16 -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycling</td>
<td>1 2 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>2 26 -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handball</td>
<td>2 9 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tab.tennis</td>
<td>- 7 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rol.skating</td>
<td>- 4 -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W-lifting</td>
<td>18 5 -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>- 10 -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>- 10 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karate</td>
<td>6 2 -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ice skating</td>
<td>- 1 -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletics</td>
<td>- 3 -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judo</td>
<td>2 4 -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jogging</td>
<td>1 3 -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>269 236 28 26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1= fitness centre;swimming/ballet school  
2= sports club, youth centre  
3= university facilities  
4= school facilities  
5= neighbourhood streets  
6= public park/sport centre  
7= at home  
8= other places  
9= no response  

This analysis demonstrated that the places where Brazilian schoolgirls usually play sports and practise physical activities are determined not only by social expectations of gender appropriate activity in the appropriate place as reported in the international literature (William, 1988), but also by socio-economic class (Luschen, 1979; Scraton, 1987).
Patterns of sport participation in different geographical areas: São Paulo and Viçosa

Since literature on sports participation has reported variations in the level of involvement according to different geographical areas, a comparison of the level of sport participation was made between São Paulo and Viçosa, respectively, a large city in the State of São Paulo and a small town in the State of Minas Gerais. It was carried out including only girls over fifteen from São Paulo attending second grade level schools since the sample from Viçosa consisted only of second grade level students aged between 15 and 20. The chi-square analysis did not reveal statistically significant differences ($\chi^2 = .31$, df=1, NS) between the two communities. Therefore, the two samples from São Paulo and Viçosa were analysed in this study as one single group.

The assumption of the present study was that the level of participation of adolescent girls in sports and physical activities living in São Paulo as an industrialised society would be higher than that of girls living in Viçosa - a small community. It was assumed that the effects of industrialisation not only increase opportunities for and access to leisure facilities, but encourage new attitudes and behaviour mainly through the mass media, including those related to sports and physical activities (Selby and Lewko, 1976). Therefore, girls from small communities were expected to be more traditional and conservative in their gender roles attitudes (Hertsgaard and Light, 1984).

Contrary to expectations, the results did not reveal statistically significant difference ($\chi^2 = .31$, df=1, NS) between the two communities.

One explanation could be related to the characteristics of Viçosa. Although it is a small community located in a remote area, its population is heavily influenced by the university community of The Federal University of Viçosa. Many of its members, both staff and students, come from much larger cities from all over Brazil, bringing with them different attitudes, behaviours, perceptions and values more pertinent to urban and industrial societies,
including those related to sports and physical activities. Perhaps the fact that girls from Viçosa are being exposed to and influenced by these new social psychological complexes via peer-group interaction means that they have acquired similar patterns in their approach to sports and physical activities to those girls from an urban and industrialised society.

Another explanation could be that the relatively good sports provision and facilities offered by the Federal University of Viçosa, coupled with the proximity of these sports facilities to their homes, are influential factors in encouraging them to take part in sports and physical activities; lack of sports provision and facilities near the communities of potential participants are considered by some as inhibitors of participation in sports and physical activities.

Finally, mass media communication is well developed in Brazil and reaches the most remote areas, including Viçosa. In the last decade women's sports have been widely televised in Brazil, even in sports considered by some to be "masculine" such as basketball and volleyball, in which Brazil has had a good reputation at international level. At the same time Brazil "imported" the North-American fashion of exercise and aerobics and it largely dominated if not the lives, then the minds of many Brazilian women. It was the theme of a soap opera which is considered an institution in Brazil with millions of viewers, screened during peak television hours for almost a year. It portrayed the lifestyle of beautiful, sensual, healthy, slim and successful women who frequently gathered in a sports club which acted as the centre stage of the soap opera. If the presence of female sports role models in television can encourage girls' sports participation and both samples - Viçosa and São Paulo - were equally exposed to the same extent, this could have helped to equalise the index of participation in sports and physical activities of the girls from Viçosa and São Paulo.
In view of the similarity between the two communities, the samples from São Paulo and Viçosa were analysed in this study as one single group. Therefore, the total sample comprised 1,497 schoolgirls aged 11 to 20.

II. INDIVIDUAL FACTORS INFLUENCING BRAZILIAN GIRLS' PATTERNS OF PARTICIPATION IN SPORTS AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

Some researchers have argued that several personal attributes can mediate the process of sport socialisation, resulting in different patterns of sport participation among girls. Therefore, based on the review of literature, in the present study several personal attributes, namely age and developmental stage, attitudes towards sports and physical activities, motivation for participation in sports, self-esteem, self-perceived physical competence, self-perceived femininity, and acquired sport stereotypes were analysed. The results are presented and discussed below.

A. Age and developmental stages

Much research has indicated that sport participation declines with age even during adolescence. In order to investigate this hypothesis 1,497 schoolgirls from 11 to 20 years of age were selected to take part in this study. It was considered essential to cover the widest possible age range of adolescence to allow comparisons between different age groups.

The assumption of the present study was that the indices of participation would decrease with age during adolescence due to the girls' socialisation
process which discourages their participation in sports and physical activities as the age increases. Support for this hypothesis was only partially found.

The chi-square analysis indicated that statistically significant differences existed between age groups ($\chi^2 = 53.66$, df=9, $p<.0001$) in relation to rates of sports participation. The rate of participation was seen to increase from the age of 11 (48.1%) to 13 (62.4%). From this age the rate of participation started declining from 57.6% at the age of 14 to 30.4% at the age of 20. The results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8. Number and percentage of Brazilian schoolgirl sport participants and non-participants at different ages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Participation</th>
<th></th>
<th>Non-participation</th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>51.9</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>59.8</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>62.4</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>57.6</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>58.5</td>
<td>275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>63.4</td>
<td>298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>61.8</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>68.6</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>69.6</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>641</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>856</td>
<td>57.2</td>
<td>1497</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 53.66$, df=9, $p<.0001$

The explanation could be that in early adolescence girls are still encouraged to participate in sports and physical activities (Bardwick, 1971; Hill and Lynch, 1983). In addition, as they grow older and through sports training they develop their sporting skills making them more equipped to engage in a more diverse range of sporting activities on offer. For example, popular games and sports in Brazil such as volleyball and basketball are introduced in physical
education classes for the fifth year girls, at the age of 11. Considering that it takes at least a year for someone to master the techniques of these sports, increases in participation in these sports may be expected from this age.

However, for the present sample, there was a slight decrease at age 14 and a more marked decrease at age 15 until age 20 (Table 8), reflecting perhaps dramatic changes occurring in the girls' gender socialisation process discouraging sports involvement (Carrington and Leaman, 1986; Scraton, 1986; Hill and Lynch, 1983). Probably at ages 11 to 14 the girls' sports participation is not yet influenced by the prejudices of "appropriateness" of sporting activity for women as was shown by the present study. At later stages, as soon they become aware of that sports participation might affect their feminine image and, possibly, their relationship with the opposite sex, it can prevent them from continuing sports involvement and force them to drop out of sports completely or to embrace more social acceptable activities.

This strategy can be clearly observed in the present sample when the data are analysed according to sporting activities in each age group. Table 9 shows the percentage of participants in each of the 21 sporting activities by age group.

Aerobics and gymnastics, considered feminine sports and generally practised by women to enhance body shape, were very little practised for the girls until they were 14 years old. After this age they became more popular. It can be that the girls started moving to a more "acceptable" females activities: gymnastics and aerobics partially replaced volleyball and swimming, the two most practised sports for the age-group 11-14. In addition, handball, considered a masculine sport, was played mainly by girls of the age-group 11-14; from these age-groups there was a decrease in the popularity in this sport among older girls. These interpretations, however, should be seen with caution since this is not a longitudinal study.

To conclude, it can be said that, for the present sample, the ages 14-15 (Table 8) could well be the key ages at which most girls drop out of sports as a
result of their inability to reconcile the prevailing concepts of femininity and sports behaviour (Carrington and Leaman, 1986). This is also confirmed by Tyler (1973) who points out that girls drop out of sports at age 15. Some girls, however, may choose to become engaged in a more female "appropriate" activities such as gymnastics.

Another reason which could have contributed to the marked decline in sports participation at age 15 may be that, in Brazil, girls at this age generally change their school milieu as they move from first level to second level school. This change in school environment demands adjustments in their new peer-groups, teachers and free-time activities which may affect sports participation (Crompton et al., 1981).
Table 9. Percentage of participants in each sport according to age group:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sports</th>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>Total N=641</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-12</td>
<td>13-14</td>
<td>15-16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volleyball</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>45.8</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gymnastics</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>32.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dance</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aerobics</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>22.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycling</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handball</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T.b.tennis</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rol.skating</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W.lifting</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karate</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ice skating</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletics</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judo</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jogging</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sailing</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boxing</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is also worthwhile to comment on the increase of popularity with ageing in some activities recognised as stereotypically masculine as it can contradict the assumption that Brazilian girls do present and reproduce behaviours stereotypically feminine.
The first activity to be mentioned is the weight-lifting, the sport ranked as the most masculine by the sample of the present study. This activity could well be confused with exercise with weights which aims to tone and shape the muscles. It could have happened as this activity has been very much practised in many fitness centres in Brazil.

The indices of participation in karate and judo, characterised as combat sports, also demonstrated a slight increase although at very low levels. Probably due to a widespread urban violence and the threats of sexual assaults suffered by women in large cities, there is a growing tendency in Brazil for women to opt learning these activities as a form of self-defence. This has certainly been a hard way of freeing from the oppressive stereotypes of "appropriate" activity for women from a more privileged social classes.

Basketball is another sport considered masculine which has been receiving greater acceptability for women and by women in Brazil. This is probably due to the growing visibility of the Brazilian women's basketball team at a national and international level. Brazilian women won the 1994 World Championship and were vice-champions in the 1996 Olympic Games which received a lot of media attention. The existence of sports role models in the television, newspaper and magazine might have influenced the girls to engage in this activity which determined increase in the rates of participation in this sport.

B. Socio-economic class

Research on socio-economic class has collected information on social status background such as salary, occupation and educational level not only from the respondents but also from their parents (Luschen, 1979; Lever, 1976; Anderson, 1979; Pellegrini et al., 1987; Hasbrook, 1987; Hasbrook et al., 1981; Anders, 1982). This information on parent's social background is identified as
being determinant in differentiating access and opportunities to sports (McPherson et al., 1989; Hasbrook, 1987).

In the present study investigation on socio-economic class was verified by asking father's and mother's occupation. Because research has also demonstrated that the educational level is also influential in determining patterns of sports participation, the results will be specified by the educational level required to follow determined occupations.

The assumption was that: 1) the higher the level of the education of the father, the higher the rates of participation in sports and physical activities; 2) the higher the level of education of the mother, the higher the sport participation.

The results did no confirm the first assumption ($\chi^2 = 1.97, df=2, NS, p<.37$). The data in Table 10 showed that the level of the father's occupation did not play an important role mainly in differentiating respondents who had fathers with occupations at the primary and secondary level. About 42% of sport participants and 58% of non-participants had fathers with primary or secondary occupational level. On the other hand, at the tertiary level the rate of participation increased about 6%, but it was still below that of non-participants: 48.2% and 51.7%, respectively.

Table 10. Level of father's occupation of sport participants and non-participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Level of father's occupation</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>42.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-partic.</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>57.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>625</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1186</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 1.97, df=2, NS, p<.37$
These results did not confirm the assumption that high level socio-economic classes are assisted by a privileged material position and have more opportunities to participate in social and sporting activities (Scraton, 1987). Although the rate of participation increased as the level of occupation increased, the rate of participation did not supplant that of non-participants.

In relation to mother's occupation, the chi-square analysis did not indicate statistically significant difference between participants and non-participants ($\chi^2 = 1.77, \text{df}=3, \text{NS}, p<.62$). The results showed a similar pattern to that for the influence of the father's occupation when the mother's occupational level was primary, secondary or where they were housewives. However, at the tertiary level, the sport participation rate increased by 10% and it was higher than non-participation: 52.3% of sport participants and 47.7%. Approximately 49% of sport participants and non-participants had mothers who were housewives (Table 11). These results suggest that mother's occupation was more influential than father's occupation in determining sport participation.

Table 11. Level of mother's occupation of sport participants and non-participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Level of mother's occupation</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particip.</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>42.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-part.</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>57.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 1.77, \text{df}=3, \text{NS}, p<.62$

This result did not confirm the assumption that the material aspects of the social status imposes differences in social participation (McPherson et al.,
1989). Also, although values and lifestyles of each social class seem to be very influential it was not the case in the present sample. However, the rate of sports participants was higher than the rate of non-participants at the tertiary level. According to Scraton (1987), middle class women have few material restrictions, but they can experience sexual oppression related to what is appropriate for women. Because sports are viewed as a male-oriented activity they are usually avoided. However, women with a more privileged social class, especially if they also have a higher educational level, tend to have different values and opinions in relation to sports and physical activities. They are more susceptible to influences of the fitness movement and consumerism to which they can respond, mainly due to their financial independence. Perhaps, in the present study, these mothers are influencing their daughters to engage in sports and physical activities such as aerobics and gymnastics which favour representations of the female body as sexually desirable (Hargreaves, 1993).

C. Attitudes towards sporting activities and Physical Education

Much research acknowledged that attitudes towards physical activities were influential on sport participation patterns of youngsters (Duan, 1985; Hendry & Singer, 1981; Nicholson, 1979; Coe, 1984; Melchen & Sage, 1978; Savin-Williams, Bolgen & Spenda, 1986; Hendry, 1974). In general, girls respond with a more favourable attitude towards certain types of activities (Zaichkowsky, 1975; Small and Schultz, 1984).

Although there is little evidence to indicate a positive relationship between actual behaviours and positive affect toward physical activity (Gill, 1986), many researchers made an attempt to investigate this relationship. They usually conclude that negative attitudes towards sports and physical activities lead to a rejection of these activities. Many specialists on women in sports
believe that women do not play sports because they have negative attitudes towards these activities as a result of the socialisation process.

In present study attitudes were examined not only towards sporting activities but also towards Physical Education. This was assessed by asking respondents how much they enjoyed 1) Physical Education (PE), 2) playing sports and 3) exercising. Three different questions on sports attitudes were put to them because it was thought they could indicate different meanings.

It was assumed that the Brazilian girls' attitudes towards PE, playing sports, and exercising would be negative as a result of inadequate sport experiences throughout their childhood and Physical Education classes; and the more negative their attitudes towards PE, playing sports, and exercising less likely they are to participate in sports and physical activities.

The results did not confirm the assumption that the girls' attitude towards PE was negative. 82.7% of sport participants and 72% of non-participants indicated that they liked PE or liked it very much. 3.1% did not answer the question (Table 12). When analysing the total sample, 77% of the respondents liked Physical Education or liked it very much. The chi-square analysis indicated a statistically significant difference between sport participants and non-participants: sport participants are more likely to enjoy PE than non-participants ($\chi^2 = 53.06$, df= 4, p< .00001).
Table 12. Intensity and percentage of PE enjoyment reported by participants and non-participants in sports and physical activities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How do you like PE?</th>
<th>Participants (N=641)</th>
<th>Non-participants (N=856)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like it very much</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>55.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like it</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neither like/dislike it</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I dislike it</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I dislike it very much</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 53.06$, df= 4, p<.00001

Also, in relation to their attitude towards playing sports, the results did not confirm the assumption that it would be negative. 83.9% of sport participants and 63.0% of non-participants reported liking playing sports or liking it very much. 6% did not answer the question (Table 13).

Table 13. Number and percentage of Brazilian schoolgirls who answered the question "How much do you like to play sports?"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I like to play sports</th>
<th>Participant (N=640)</th>
<th>Non-participant (N=848)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not very much</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like playing a little</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like playing</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like playing very much</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>45.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 96.15$, df= 4, p<.00001
However, the statistically significant difference between sport participants and non-participants showed by chi-square analysis ($\chi^2 = 96.15$, df= 4, $p< .00001$) confirmed the assumption that the more negative the girls' attitude towards playing sports less likely they are to participate in sporting activities.

In the same token, the assumption that the girls' attitude towards exercising was negative was not confirmed. When respondents were asked to report the importance of the statement "I like to exercise" as a motive for playing sport and practising physical activities, 67.2% of sport participants and 56.1% of non-participants indicated that it was important or very important. 6.6% did not answer the question (Table 14). The chi-square analysis also demonstrated a statistically significant difference between sport participants and non-participants ($\chi^2 = 27.40$, df= 4, $p< .0001$) in relation to enjoying exercising.

Table 14. Number and percentage of Brazilian schoolgirls who reported how important "I like to exercise" was as a motive for practising sporting activities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I like to exercise</th>
<th>Participant (N=595)</th>
<th>Non-participant (N=803)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not important</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not very important</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly important</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>30.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 27.40$, df= 4, $p< .0001$

From these data, it can be concluded that the majority of the respondents do not have a negative attitudes towards physical activities. Taking as a
reference the item which had the lowest rating, "I like to exercise", only 12.7% of sport participants and 17.4% of non-participants reported that this is not an important or not a very important reason to play sports. In addition, only 2.4% of sport participants and 7.6% of non-participants indicated that they did not like playing sports at all or they did not like very much. Besides, if the percentage of respondents who answered that "I like to exercise" is "fairly important" is considered, the rates go to more than 80% for both sport participants and non-participants. If the same procedure is taken with the item "I like to play sports", the rate reaches above 90% for both groups.

Another conclusion reached by this study is that the rate of sport participation found in the present study (42.8%) was much below the rates of positive attitudes held by the respondents. It can be said that it in part confirms the evidence that a positive affect towards physical activity is not an effective prediction of actual behaviour (Gill, 1986).

While the data of the present study are consistent with much research found in the literature, in that most subjects who were involved in the research studies held favourable attitudes toward physical activity (Kirshnit, Ham & Richards, 1989; Csikszentmihalyi, Kleiber & Lawson, 1984; Kenen, 1986, Ikulayo, 1983), it did not explain the low level of sport participation. To conclude, the results of the present study also coincides with Schultz et al. (1981) who concluded that attitudes are essentially specific to an activity. Thus, many schoolgirls of the present study held different attitudes towards PE, sports and exercise, although frequently they are understood as almost synonymous.

D. Motives for participation in sports and physical activities

The review of literature concerned with motivation in sports and physical activities provided a comprehensive description of motives (Longhurst
and Spink, 1987; Klint & Weiss, 1987; Tappe et al., 1990; Petrie, 1971; Gill et al., 1983; Gould et al., 1985; Scott, 1989; Women's Sports Foundation, 1988; Mathes & Battista, 1985). These studies concluded that motives for participation can vary according to age, gender, cultural settings, context in which sports are played, and levels of perceived competence. They also indicated that, in contrast with the predominant importance boys attached to achievement/status and competition, girls rated highly fitness and health, social experience, appearance, and fun.

In the present study reasons for participation in sports and physical activities were examined on the basis of information from the pilot study and previous research on motivation in sport. A list of 26 possible reasons for practising sports or physical activities was presented and they were asked to indicate whether each reason was "not important", "not very important", "fairly important", "important", and "very important". Table 15 gives the mean importance ratings and standard deviation of each reason for participation in sport and physical activities given by sport participants.
Table 15. Mean importance ratings and standard deviation of motives for playing sports and physical activities given by sport participants (N=641).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motives</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I want to be healthy.</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be in shape.</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to make new friends.</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be with friends.</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to learn new skills.</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to improve my skills.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to exercise.</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to do something I'm good at.</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be physically fit.</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the action</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to have fun.</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to release tension.</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the team spirit.</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to compete.</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to win.</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to experience beauty in movement.</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the challenge.</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be a great athlete.</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the teacher/coach.</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to travel.</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to use the equipment or facilities.</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be stronger.</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be popular.</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to get out of the house.</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My parents want me to participate.</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the review of literature, the present study operated on the assumption that the reasons for Brazilian schoolgirls' participation in sports and physical activity would be more related to needs of affiliation, desire for
physical appearance enhancement and health rather than needs for achievement.

The relative importance of the 26 suggested motives which were rated by participants (N=641) as the most important were: "I want to be healthy" (M = 4.50, SD=.84), "I want to be in shape" (M= 4.17, SD= 1.02), "I like to make new friends" (M= 4.17, SD= 1.04), "I want to be with friends" (M= 4.06, SD= 1.13), and "I want to learn new skills" (M= 4.03, SD= 1.04). In relation to the least important motive, participants indicated "My parents want me to participate" (M = 2.18, SD= 1.34). Reasons that were next rated as least important among participants were "I like to get out of the house" (M= 2.33, SD= 1.23), "I want to be popular" (M= 2.39, SD= 1.39), and "I want to be stronger" (M= 2.43, SD= 1.34).

These results confirmed the assumption of the present study and were consistent with findings of previous research and observations of the health and fitness boom imported from the United States. The data obtained also partially echoed some findings of other studies (Graydon, 1987; Tappe et al., 1990; Gould et al., 1985; Scott, 1989; Schultz and Small, 1984; Petrie, 1971; Mathes & Battista, 1985). In view of the variety of motives used in those studies it was not always possible to have total agreement among studies. In addition, the differences in type of sports or activities investigated, age, context of the practices (competitive or non-competitive), culture, ethnicity, etc., make comparisons very difficult (Klint & Weiss, 1987; Klint and Weiss, 1986; Women's Sports Foundation, 1988).

From these findings, it can be concluded that in spite of the increasing numbers of women's sport participation in Brazil, the girls of the present sample have not adopted the same competitive and goal orientation to physical activities as boys usually do, as is reported in the literature. Brazilian schoolgirls demonstrated that they are more interested in activities that not only develop fitness and health but also provide the opportunity to develop social relationship and opportunity to learn new skills.
E. Self-esteem and self-perceived physical competence

Self-esteem and self-perceived physical competence are considered to have a major influence on female sport participation, and have, therefore, received considerable research attention. It is assumed that women lack self-esteem and exhibit less self-perceived physical competence than they actually have. Many researchers understand that, for these reasons women do not play sports and avoid physical activities. Based on these assumptions and the expectations of the low level of girls' sport participation in Brazil, it was expected that the majority of the girls would not present a positive self-esteem, mainly among non-participants; the more positive the self-esteem the greater the sport participation.

Because self-esteem is a sensitive subject to talk about and many girls could be inclined to overemphasise their qualities, in the present study, three different questions related to self-esteem were put to the respondents.

In the first instance, the following statement was presented: "I do not like myself the way I am". Respondents were asked to agree or disagree with it. The results in Table 16 show that 17.5% of sport participants agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, while 13.9% of non-participants in sports had the same opinion. However, the chi-square analysis did not support the assumption that girls with higher self-esteem are likely to be among sport participants ($\chi^2 = 6.82$, df = 4, NS, $p < .15$).
Table 16. Self-esteem ratings of participants and non-participants in sports and physical activities as perceived by themselves.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I don't like myself</th>
<th>Participants (N=618)</th>
<th>Non-participants (N=838)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>35.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>31.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither agree/disagree</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 6.82, \text{df} = 4, \text{NS}, p < .15$

In the second instance, schoolgirls were asked if they agreed or disagreed with the statement "There are a lot of things I would like to change, but not completely". Results are shown in Table 17.

Table 17. Agreement or disagreement of participants and non-participants in sports and physical activities with the statement: "There are a lot of things I would like to change, but not completely".

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I like to change</th>
<th>Participants (N=616)</th>
<th>Non-participants (N=838)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither Agree/disagree</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>37.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 2.14, \text{df} = 4, \text{NS}, p < .71$
While 48.7% of participants agreed to strongly agreed with the statement, 50.9% of non-participants in sports and physical activities reported that they agreed or strongly agreed with the same statement. The chi-square analysis did not support the assumption that girls with higher self-esteem are likely to be among sport participants ($\chi^2 = 2.14$, df = 4, NS, $p < .71$).

The last statement formulated to ascertain the subjects' self-esteem was: "I would like to stay very much as I am; there is very little I'd change". They were asked to agree or disagree with this statement. The results (Table 18) reported that 59.4% of sport participants agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, while 54.3% of non-participants reported likewise. The chi-square analysis did support the assumption that girls with higher self-esteem are likely to be among sport participants.

Table 18. Agreement or disagreement of participants and non-participants in sports and physical activities with the statement: "I would like to stay very much as I am, there is very little I'd change"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I don't want to change</th>
<th>Participants (N=621)</th>
<th>Non-participants (N=840)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither agree/disagree</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 20.05$, df = 4, $p < .001$

The results presented above did not confirm the assumption that the majority of girls would not present a positive self-esteem. In fact, as was shown in Table 18, a very high rate of girls demonstrated positive self-esteem since only 17.5% of sport participants and 13.9% of non-participants reported that
they did not like themselves. The contradiction appears as many of them - 45.7% of sport participants and 50.9% of non-participants - said they would like to change (Table 17). Due to this contradiction, it was decided that the rate of respondents who demonstrated that they wanted to stay very much as they were, with very little to change (Table 18), would be used as the measure of self-esteem. It was thought that there would be less probability for the girls to over-estimate their self-esteem through this suggested statement. Based on this decision, it can be concluded that 59.4% of sport participants and 54.3% of non-participants present positive self-esteem and participants are likely to have higher self-esteem than non-participants.

The results presented in Table 18 lead to the controversy among researchers as to whether self-esteem is a factor which encourages sport participation (Weiss, 1987) in view of the indication of the existence of many girls with positive self-esteem who choose not to participate in sports and physical activities, in spite of having, theoretically, the same opportunities as participants. In addition, this coincides with the assumption that factors other than self-esteem underlie the motives for participation (Butcher, 1989). Also, there was a tendency of participants to have higher levels of self-esteem than non-participants, confirming previous research (Young, 1981).

This information points to another line of thought which defends that lack of self-confidence and self-perceived physical competence can be either a barrier to women's sport participation or a major reason why females do not reach their optimum potential in physical activities (Stewart & Corbin, 1989). It has been said that young females misjudge their physical ability (Feltz & Petlichokoff, 1983; Klint & Weiss, 1987) when they engage in activities perceived as masculine or competitive (Corbin, 1981).

Based on the evidence that sports in Brazil are still considered a masculine domain and the author's expectations of the low level of Brazilian girls' sport participation, it was assumed that the majority of the girls would not
present a positive self-perceived physical competence, mainly among non-participants.

The question posed to the respondents in order to test this assumption was related to their sports abilities: "Compared to other schoolgirls, how would you rate yourself on athletic ability on a scale of 1 (much below average) to 7 (much below average). The results are shown in Table 19.

Table 19. Self-perceived sport ability ratings of sport participants and non-participants in comparison with their peers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ratings</th>
<th>Participants (N=637)</th>
<th>Non-participants (N=853)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much below average</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below average</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly below average</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly above average</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above average</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much above average</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 59.52$, df = 6, $p < .00001$

The results confirmed the assumption since 44% of sport participants rated themselves slightly above average to much above average on athletic ability and 29.4% of non-participants were in the same rating categories. The chi-square analysis ($\chi^2 = 59.52$, df = 6, $p < .00001$) corroborated the assumption of previous research (Fox, 1988; Feltz & Petlichokoff, 1983) which concluded that subjects with higher perceived sport competence were likely to be among active participants.

These results also showed that, in absolute figures, the majority of girls do not feel at ease with their physical abilities and non-participants feel it stronger. Unlike physical education, which is a compulsory activity at school in Brazil, sports and physical activities as a form of leisure outside school may
pose more pressure on the girls because they expose them in a more public space. It implies that physical ability may be a major consideration in helping the girls to develop positive attitudes towards sports and change their behaviour (Ikulayo, 1983). The data on girls' self-perceived physical competence may help to explain why 57.2% of the Brazilian sample withdraw from sports and physical activities outside school or avoid them altogether, as reported by many other studies (Graydon, 1987; Feltz and Petlichkoff, 1983; Roberts, Kleiber, and Duda, 1981; Weiss, Bredemeier, and Shewchuk, 1984). However, more investigation on this matter is needed to discover if self-esteem and self-perceived physical competence are cause or consequence of sport participation. That is, that only individuals of higher self-esteem and self-perceived physical competence dare to enter the sports world or the experience of being in that world make them more self-confident.

F. Self-perceived femininity

In the last decades, as a result of the equal opportunity policies around the world, there has been an increasing numbers of women participating in sports and physical activities. However, the figures were not comparable to those of the males. Many studies in the social psychology area made an attempt to explain why many women were still reluctant to participate in sports (Hall, 1981; Harris, 1981; Graydon, 1987), with emphasis on sex-role identity (Colley, 1986).

Several investigations were also carried out on a possible relationship between sport participation and sex-role identity, investigated in terms of femininity and masculinity, from which the idea of androgyny and the problem of role conflict emerged (Knoppers, 1980; Sage and Loudermilk, 1979; Gregson and Colley, 1986; Snyder and Kivlin, 1977; Ostrow et al., 1981; Colley, 1985; Anthrop and Allison, 1983; Nicholson, 1979; Savin-Williams et
156

al., 1986; Ho and Walker, 1979; Butcher, 1989). From these studies it has emerged that self-perceptions of femininity can influence girls in taking up sports as a leisure activity during free time.

The present study also attempts to analyse Brazilian adolescent girls' physical activity patterns and its interrelationship with the self-perception of femininity. To investigate whether a relationship existed between sport participation and self-perception of femininity Kendall's tau rank correlation was performed using listwise deletion.

It was assumed that there would be a relationship between sport participation and perception of femininity: girls who participate in sports and physical activities tend to perceive themselves to be less feminine than non-participants since it is believed that the practice of sports detracts from a woman's femininity, developing traits considered to be masculine such as muscularity, aggressiveness, assertiveness, etc.

This study, however, does not confirm this assumption. Kendall's rank correlation revealed that there is a very low, but significant correlation between sport involvement and self-perception of femininity ($\tau = .08, p<.001, N=1429$): participants tended to rate themselves as more feminine than non-participants.

To ascertain whether the relationship between sport participation and self-rating of femininity remained constant in different age groups Kendall's rank correlation was calculated for the age groups 11 to 14, 15 to 17 and 18 to 20. The results revealed no statistically significant correlation for the age group 11 to 14; for the age group 15 to 17 the correlation remained similar to that found for the whole group ($\tau = .07, p<.02, N=702$); and for the age group 18 to 20 there was an increase in the correlation ($\tau = .16, p=.001, N=387$).

The explanation of the absence of a relationship is that, possibly, at 11 to 14, the girls are not yet as preoccupied with the image of femininity as they are at later stages of adolescence. From this period onwards, due to considerable biological changes coupled with an intensification of the gender socialisation process, the girls become more aware of prevailing conceptions of
femininity (Hill and Lynch, 1983). If they have enjoyed sporting activities and they want to continue with the activities they may feel in conflict because, traditionally, sports are still considered a male oriented and male dominated activity (Scraton, 1986). It is suggested that the traditional image of women as fragile and delicate is not consistent with the aggression and prowess involved in contact games such as basketball (Ho and Walker, 1982).

One clear strategy which girls use to overcome the stigma of being a sportswoman is either to drop out of sports altogether or choose activities considered to be feminine or asexual/neutral by the general population. For example, the present study found that the five most popular sports were volleyball, gymnastics, swimming, dance and aerobics - usually accepted by the general population as appropriate for women in Brazil. When analysing sport popularity by age group it became visible that more older girls (fifteen and over) engaged most in activities considered basically feminine: aerobics, gymnastics and dance; girls between 11 and 14 engaged mainly in volleyball and swimming. This pattern of choice of sports adopted by the girls over 14 and the fact that the reasons for participation in these "feminine" activities are to develop fitness, grace, to be in shape, in short, to be feminine It is, then, not surprising that participants reported being more feminine than non-participants.

The findings of this study do not differ substantially from those reported in the literature on female sports participation. Where consistency with other studies was not found, this was due basically to differences in type of sports analysed, characteristics of the sample regarding age group and category of sport participation, i.e., non-athletes or athletes. To conclude, some caution should be taken in the interpretation of the findings regarding age differences in the correlations. Since the data of this study are not longitudinal, differences between age categories should not be interpreted only as a result of developmental changes. Also, this study did not establish causal relationship; therefore, any possible explanation provided in this study regarding variable relationships was conjecture (Hertsgaard and Light, 1984).
G. The power of sport stereotypes as the major barrier to female participation in sporting activities

1. Stereotyped views of women in sports

In addition to notions of femininity, stereotyped views of women in sport can be a barrier to sport participation (Graydon, 1987). The stereotyping can manifest itself in different forms: a negative stigma linked to female athletes mainly to those engaging in 'masculine sport', a loss of femininity through sport competition, and masculinization through sports practice not only physically but psychologically and behaviourally (Anthrop and Allison, 1983). A variety of socialising agents contribute to the perpetuation and reproduction of these stereotypes attributing a complex of specific rules and expectations for girls and for boys (Wolfson et al., 1985).

Based on these findings reported in the international literature, this study reproduced six sport stereotypes most common in Brazilian culture: 1) practice of sports reduces femininity, 2) practice of sports reduces dating chances, 3 and 4) girls should play only 'feminine' and non-contact sports, 5) practice of sports develops musculature, 6) sportswomen are lesbian. The assumption was that there would be a relationship between sport participation and these stereotyped views of sport for women.

In order to investigate this assumption, Kendall's tau rank correlation was performed using listwise deletion. Table 18 presents the results of the correlation analysis between sport participation and stereotyped views of women in sports. Kendall's rank correlation analysis of the total group revealed a very low negative, but significant correlation between sport involvement and the following five suggested stereotyped views of sports for women:

"If a girl takes sports seriously, it can reduce her feminine image"

\( \tau = -.06, p < .01, N = 1429 \);
"If a girl takes sports seriously, it can reduce the possibility of finding a date" (τ = -.08, p < .001, N = 1429);
"Girls should play only feminine sports i.e. which do not demand strength, violence or speed" (τ = -.07, p < .002, N = 1429);
"Girls should not play sports because they become muscular" (τ = -.08, p < .001, N = 1429);
"Girls should not play sports which demand body contact such as basketball and football" (τ = -.05, p < .03, N = 1429).

In all five cases participants tended to disagree more than non-participants with the stereotyped views of sports for women presented to them. It can be interpreted that non-participants have in general internalised more stereotypes related to sports than participants which could have prevented them from engaging in sports and physical activities. Furthermore, participants may have already overcome prevailing sport stereotypes in order to engage in sports and physical activities. The suggested stereotyped view of women in sports - "I think there is a great prejudice against women in sports; they are considered lesbians" - revealed no significant correlation with sport participation. It may be that the meaning of lesbianism in sports is not yet fully understood by the adolescents of the sample or the wording used in the question created different interpretations among them.

Having in mind that perceptions of sport stereotypes may vary according to age group further Kendall's rank correlations were calculated for the age groups 11 to 14 (G1), 15 to 17 (G2) and 18 to 20 (G3).

The results revealed no statistically significant correlation in any stereotyped view in the age group 11 to 14. Perhaps in this age group the girls are not yet so aware of and influenced by gender role socialisation and pressures to adhere to gender appropriate behaviour (Bardwick, 1971).

Following similar patterns of the results found in the analysis of the total sample, the statement "I think there is a great prejudice against women in sport;
they are considered lesbians", remained not significant for all age groups. The explanation was already suggested earlier: it can be either that the meaning of lesbianism in sport is not yet fully understood by the adolescents of the sample or the wording used in this question created different interpretation among the girls.

Therefore, the following aspects remained statistically significant for the age groups 15-17 and 18-20:

"If a girl takes sports seriously, it can reduce her feminine image": $\tau = -.11 \ (p < .002, \ N= 702)$ for G2 and $\tau = -.14 \ (p < .001, \ N= 387)$ for G3;

"If a girl takes sports seriously, it can reduce the possibility of finding a date": $\tau = -.13 \ (p < .001, \ N= 702)$ for G2 and $\tau = -.17 \ (p < .001, \ N= 387)$ for G3;

"Girls should play only feminine sports, i. e. which not demand strength, violence or speed": $\tau = -.12 \ (p < .001, \ N= 702)$ for G2 and $\tau = -.14 \ (p < .001, \ N= 387)$ for G3;

"Girls should not play sports because they become muscular": $\tau = -.12 \ (p < .001, \ N= 702)$ for G2 and $\tau = -.11 \ (p < .02, \ N= 387)$ for G3;

"Girls should not play sports which demand body contact such as basketball and football": $\tau = -.12 \ (p < .001, \ N= 702)$ for G2 and $\tau = -.09 \ (p < .03, \ N= 387)$ for G3.

The results of the analyses of the total sample and by age group are summarised in Table 20.
Table 20. Relationship between sport participation and six suggested stereotyped views of women in sports at different age groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prejudices</th>
<th>G1* (11-14)</th>
<th>G2 (15-17)</th>
<th>G3 (18-20)</th>
<th>Gtotal** (N= 1429)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;If a girl takes sports seriously, it can reduce her feminine image.&quot;</td>
<td>NS***</td>
<td>τ = -.11</td>
<td>τ = -.14</td>
<td>τ = -.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p &lt; .002</td>
<td>p &lt; .001</td>
<td>p &lt; .001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;If a girl takes sports seriously, it can reduce the possibility of finding a date.&quot;</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>τ = -.13</td>
<td>τ = -.17</td>
<td>τ = -.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p &lt; .001</td>
<td>p &lt; .001</td>
<td>p &lt; .001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;I think there is a great prejudice against women in sports; they are considered lesbians.&quot;</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Girl should play only feminine sports i.e. which do not demand strength, violence or speed.&quot;</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>τ = -.12</td>
<td>τ = -.14</td>
<td>τ = -.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p &lt; .001</td>
<td>p &lt; .001</td>
<td>p &lt; .002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Girls should not play sports because they become muscular.&quot;</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>τ = -.12</td>
<td>τ = -.11</td>
<td>τ = -.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p &lt; .001</td>
<td>p &lt; .02</td>
<td>p &lt; .001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Girls should not play sports which demand body contact such as basketball and football.&quot;</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>τ = -.12</td>
<td>τ = -.12</td>
<td>τ = -.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p &lt; .001</td>
<td>p &lt; .03</td>
<td>p &lt; .03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Group 1 - 11-14 year olds  ** Gtotal - All age groups together  *** NS= not significant

In this analysis by age group the correlations revealed that sport participants tended to disagree more than non-participants with some of the stereotyped views of women in sport presented to them. Sport participants might have already felt themselves, to some extent, to be the subject of the prejudices and stereotypes against women in sports through involvement in sports. If they feel that in playing sports they are breaking the norms of female appropriate behaviour, as a form of defence or justification of their own involvement in sports they may disagree more emphatically with the stereotypes presented to them.

The present study also give some partial strength to the 'gender-intensification' hypothesis (Hill and Linch, 1983), although no control of the age of menarche was made. According to this hypothesis, after menarche girls
adopt a more rigid set of gender roles than during earlier years. As a result, their interest in activities considered masculine such as sports and academic achievement decreases and they become more inclined towards activities viewed as feminine, for example, fashion and personal attractiveness. There was an indication in the present sample that stereotypically masculine team sports such as volleyball, handball and basketball were played more frequently at younger ages. As they get older, there was indication that more feminine sports appeared more frequently in the list of those girls usually played (gymnastics, aerobics).

However, the present study is at variance with the time when 'gender intensification' is held to occur. The gender-intensification hypothesis predicts that decline in interest in sports by adolescent girls coincides with puberty. It occurs later for Brazilian girls (14-15-year-olds), possibly because time is taken up by other activities, such as school work, fashion, appearance and boys. This can also be due to changes in the school environment, since in Brazil at the age of 15 they usually move from first to second grade schools.

2. **Tomboyism: a precursor of participation in sporting activities?**

Another sport stereotype investigated in this study is 'tomboyism'. A girl considered a tomboy tends to like vigorous activities in open spaces, preferably boys' ball games, prefers functional dress and hair styles, is not particularly interested in dolls where she represents roles linked to maternity, or in boyfriends, marriage or romance. Some studies in an attempt to relate tomboyism to sport participation suggested that a woman athlete had a tendency to be a tomboy during childhood.

In order to test this finding in the Brazilian sample the following question was asked: "When you were a child, how often were you called a
'tomboy' because you enjoyed climbing trees, play with boys' toys and boys' games?

It was expected that more girls participants in sporting activities than non-participants were called a 'tomboy' as a child. The results (Table 21) confirmed this assumption: 33.7% of sport participants were called 'tomboy' frequently or very frequently in contrast with 23.7% of non-participants who were called 'tomboy' in the same response category. The chi-square analysis ($\chi^2 = 20.60, df = 4, p < .001$) confirmed the assumption that there would be more girls who were considered 'tomboy' as a child among sport participants than non-participants.

Table 21. Number and percentage of sport participants and non-participants who were called 'tomboy' as a child.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequencies</th>
<th>Participants (N=635)</th>
<th>Non-participants (N=848)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>never</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rarely</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>24.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regularly</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frequently</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>very frequently</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 20.60, df = 4, p < .001$

This result gives some credit to the assumption that women who enjoy playing sports were in the past active children with a tendency to engage in vigorous activities in open spaces, and a preference for ball games considered typical of boys. In the present study the aim of this question was principally to ascertain if past preference for vigorous activities as a precursor of present sport participation as was confirmed in this study. No attempt was made to collect data on other characteristics of tomboyism such as dislike of playing
with dolls, representing roles related to motherhood or other caring activities, lack of interest in romance, boyfriends and marriage which erroneously lead to suspicions of lesbianism (Lenskyj, 1987). There was no intention to discuss at this moment homophobia in sports. This issue will be reviewed later when discussion on contemporary Brazilian female athletes will demand reference to this matter.

3. Appropriateness of sports according to gender

Another widespread sport stereotype is the notion of appropriateness of sports according to gender. Despite recent social changes in the female role, women still remain oppressed by conceptions of "appropriate" sport for women in many Western contemporary societies. These conceptions lead to serious consequences for women in sports such as restricted number of sports available for women, role conflict for women playing 'masculine' sport, restricted opportunities for women who want to play 'masculine' sport, etc., and, worst of all, the maintenance of the stereotype which takes many women away from sports.

It was thought that the knowledge of this situation in the Brazilian context would be of extreme importance in helping to explain and understand the extent of adolescent girls' sports participation. In order to assess the sex stereotyping of sport in Brazil the subjects were asked to indicate the appropriateness of 24 sports for men only, women only and for both sexes.

The assumption was that the girls would still stereotype sports and physical activities in terms of appropriate or not appropriate for each gender. The maintenance of the traditional stereotyped masculine and feminine sports was expected. The results are shown in Table 22.
Table 22. Number and percentage of girls who considered the 24 suggested sports cited below as being appropriate for men only, women only, or for both sexes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sports</th>
<th>For men only</th>
<th>For women only</th>
<th>For both</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%(*)</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volleyball</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handball</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aerobics</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletics</td>
<td>414</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycling</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>1165</td>
<td>78.0</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dance</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gymnastics</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equestrian</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jogging</td>
<td>406</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motorcycling</td>
<td>1010</td>
<td>68.0</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ice skating</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roller skating</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table tennis</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rowing</td>
<td>978</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sailing</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water skiing</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight lifting</td>
<td>1217</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wind surfing</td>
<td>477</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karate</td>
<td>605</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judo</td>
<td>603</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* % = percentage of the total sample (N= 1497)

81.3% of the respondents indicated that weight lifting was the most appropriate sport for men, followed by football (77.8%), motorcycling (67.5%), and rowing (65.3%). The activities considered most appropriate for women were dance (46.2%), aerobics (42.8%), gymnastics (23%), and ice skating...
When asked which sports were appropriate for both sexes the respondents indicated swimming (93.3%), volleyball (88.2%), ice skating (81.4%), table tennis (77.8%), roller skating (76%), basketball (75.1%), cycling (74.3%) and gymnastics (70.7%). This analysis made it clear that for the present sample the least appropriate sports for men were dance (0.2%), aerobics (0.9%), and gymnastics (1.2%). For women, the least appropriate sports were weight lifting (0.9%), football (2.4%), and motorcycling (1.5%).

The findings of the present study demonstrated that, after more than thirty years, the findings of Metheny's work (1965) for countries with few variations (Kane and Snyder, 1989; Colley, Nash, and O'Donnel, 1987; Ostrow, Jones and Spiker, 1981; Fasting, 1987), are still confirmed in Brazilian society. Weight lifting was considered the most appropriate sport for men, followed by football, motorcycling, and rowing, in this order. The percentage of girls who sex-typed these four activities as masculine varied from 81% to 65%. This analysis made it clear that those traditionally masculine sports are still highly sex-typed as masculine sports and are therefore not suitable for women. It means that not only will most girls be very reluctant to select these sports as a leisure time activity, but probably men also will be reluctant to accept this fact.

On the other hand, the activities considered as most appropriate for women - dance, aerobics and gymnastics - were sex-typed as feminine by 46% to 23% of the respondents. These data made it possible to concluded that these activities, in the past taken to be a feminine activity, became more accepted for men by the girls, since around 52% had the opinion that dance and aerobics were suitable for both sexes. Therefore, the few changes in the conceptions of appropriateness of sports according to gender were more in the direction of a greater acceptability of 'feminine' sports for men than of 'masculine' sports for women.

Many sports have become acceptable for both sexes, such as swimming, volleyball, ice skating, table tennis, roller skating, basketball, cycling, gymnastics and handball, according to more than 68% of the girls. However, it
should be noted that a politically correct opinion of not sex-typing activities does exist among girls. Thus, many girls could have followed this line of reasoning and indicated all the suggested activities, with no exception, as suitable for both sexes. This assumption could lead to the reasoning that the stereotyping of sports in the Brazilian context is in reality more serious than it appears. The consequences of this reality will be discussed in Chapter Five - Conclusions.

III - INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS INFLUENCING BRAZILIAN GIRLS' PATTERNS OF PARTICIPATION IN SPORTS AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES.

A. Influence of socialising agents: family, peer groups, school, and community

Research on why some people play sports and practise physical activities and others do not has analysed individual differences in an attempt to define personal characteristics which could be associated with sporting activities. Another school of thought has attempted to determine the environmental influences in studies on the sport socialisation process based on social learning theory (Bandura, 1977). This approach claims that engagement in sporting activities is a consequence of social reinforcement and imitation of models of significant others.

More precisely, researchers tried to determine the socialising agents which could exert greatest influence on an individual to play sports or practise physical activities. From this point of view, many researchers have investigated the influence of family, peer-groups, school, and community (Gregson and Colley, 1986; McGuirre Jr. & Cook, 1983; Greendorfer, 1987, 1977; Godin & Shephard, 1986; Higginson, 1985; Wood & Abernethy, 1989; Brown, Frankel
The present study also makes an attempt to determine the degree of influence exerted by family members, teachers/coaches, peer groups, and the community in girls' sport and physical activity patterns. This attempt was based on the belief that if an interventional approach were to be taken to improve the quality of life of the Brazilian adolescent girls, firm targets should be set not only for the girls themselves, but also for those who live closest to them.

To reach this aim the girls were asked to indicate which one of the following significant others encouraged or discouraged the practice of sports and physical activities: father, mother, sister, brother (family), female peer, male peer, boyfriend (peer-group), or physical education teacher (school). They were also asked to report on the availability of sports facilities within the community where they lived and on their sport participation during childhood. Based on the data obtained from these questions, the present study sought to determine the degree of influence exerted by significant others on the patterns of participation in sports and physical activities in the Brazilian context using stepwise multiple regression analysis with listwise deletion. In all multiple regression analyses the size of the samples vary because the listwise procedure for deleting cases with missing information was used. This procedure involves dropping cases from the sample when information is missing on any of the variables being analysed.

The multiple regression analysis shows to what extent the zero-order relationships are changed by introducing additional predictor variables, and what is the relative strength of the various independent variables in accounting for the variance in adolescent sports participation. The index of sport participation is the dependent variable and it includes behavioural and affective dimensions. It is operationalized by means of a summated scale composed of indicators concerning (1) the individual's active participation in sport; (2) the
importance of being good in sport; (3) how much the subject likes to play sport; (4) the sport mark given by the subject; (5) how much the subject likes to be in a team; (6) the importance of being a great athlete; (7) the importance of being stronger, and (8) the ability to learn sport. The independent variables analysed were the family, school, peer group, community, and childhood sport participation.

The operative assumption was that peer-group would be one of the most influential forces in determining girls' sports participation during adolescence (McPherson and Kenyon, 1973; Snyder and Spreitzer, 1976; Lau, Quadrel & Hartman, 1990; Greendorfer, 1977, 1979; Anderssen and Wold, 1992; Brown et al., 1989; McGuire and Cook, 1983). This was not confirmed. The school, through the physical education teacher and PP classes, was the most influential institution. The summary of the first stepwise multiple regression analysis can be found in Table 23.
Table 23. Summary table of the stepwise multiple regression analysis* on Brazilian adolescent girls' sports involvement according to age groups and the total sample.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indices</th>
<th>Multiple R</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$R^2$ change</th>
<th>Beta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total sample (N=728)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE teacher</td>
<td>.426</td>
<td>.182</td>
<td>.182</td>
<td>.426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to play</td>
<td>.486</td>
<td>.236</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td>.237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female peer</td>
<td>.522</td>
<td>.272</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>.214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Childhood play</td>
<td>.528</td>
<td>.279</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age group 11 to 14 (N=165)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE teacher</td>
<td>.475</td>
<td>.225</td>
<td>.225</td>
<td>.475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to play</td>
<td>.578</td>
<td>.343</td>
<td>.108</td>
<td>.349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female peer</td>
<td>.636</td>
<td>.405</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>.294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age group 15 to 17 (N=357)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE teacher</td>
<td>.376</td>
<td>.141</td>
<td>.141</td>
<td>.376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to play</td>
<td>.439</td>
<td>.193</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female peer</td>
<td>.468</td>
<td>.219</td>
<td>.026</td>
<td>.181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age group 18 to 20 (N=206)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE teacher</td>
<td>.447</td>
<td>.200</td>
<td>.200</td>
<td>.447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male peer</td>
<td>.481</td>
<td>.231</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>.498</td>
<td>.248</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>.140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* It was used the listwise procedure for deleting cases from the sample when information is missing on any of the variables being analysed.

The findings presented in Table 23 indicate that the independent variables used in this study explain approximately 28% of the variance in sports participation among the total sample. The stepwise regression analysis reveals that the PE teacher (18%), the opportunity to play (5%), the female peer (4%), and childhood play (1%) make the strongest relative contribution to the explained variance.
This was partially confirmed by Smith (1979) who found that PE teachers/coaches, female peer and mother were the most responsible socialising agents for generating initial interest in sports of approximately 1,000 adolescents with age varying from 13 to 19 years old, participants in a summer training camp in Canada. Similarly, Greendorfer (1977) found that peers and teachers/coaches were the most influential socialising agents during adolescence for intercollegiate athletes. Also, Greendorfer and Ewing (1981) reported that mothers and teachers influenced schoolgirls aged 9 to 12 years old in the participation in sports.

The literature on sport socialisation makes it clear that the degree of influence of significant others vary in different stages of life (Higginson, 1985; Greendorfer, 1977). Thus, the next phase of the study involved separate analysis of groups according to three different age groups, as follows: age group 11 to 14 years; age group 15 to 17 years, and age group 18 to 20 years.

It was assumed that the degree of influence of each socialising agent would change according to age-group during adolescence and this was corroborated. The results found in Table 23 indicated that for the age group 11 to 14, the stepwise regression analysis revealed that the variables used in this study accounted for approximately 40% of the variation in sports participation: PE teacher (22%), opportunity to play (11%), and female peer (7%) make the strongest relative contribution to the explained variance. For the age group 15 to 17, the variables accounted for approximately 22% of the variation in sports participation: PE teacher (14%), opportunity to play (5%), and female peer (3%). For the age group 18 to 20, approximately 25% of the variation was accounted for by the following variables: PE teacher (20%), male peer (3%), and mother (2%).

In this analysis by age group the physical education teacher remained the strongest influence throughout adolescence, especially in early and late adolescence. On the other hand, the opportunity to play decreased in importance as age increased: it explained 11% of the variance for the age-group
11-14 years, 5% for the age-group 15-17 years, and no influence for the age-group 18-20 years. The same patterns followed the influence of the female peer, who was replaced by the male peer and mother in the oldest age-group. These results partially confirmed the findings of Higginson (1985) who found that the influences of socialising agents on female athletes changed from being most parental at the under-13 life cycle stage to mostly coach/teacher-oriented during junior and high school years.

Another assumption was that the degree of influence of each socialising agent would change among participants and non-participants in sporting activities (Greendorfer, 1987). A girl was considered a sport participant if she played one sporting activity at least once a week. Thus, the following phase of the study consisted of separate analysis of participants (N=309) and non-participants (N=419). The size of the sample decreased due to the listwise procedure for deleting cases with missing information on any of the variables being analysed.

Table 26 shows that the independent variables used in this study accounted for approximately 21% of the variation in sports participation among participants and 26% of the variance among non-participants. The stepwise regression analysis showed that PE teachers accounted for 14% of the variation among participants and 22% among non-participants. On the other hand, opportunity to play accounted for 4% of the variance among participants and 3% among non-participants; female peer explained respectively 3% and 1% of the variance among participants and non-participants.

These results confirmed the assumption that the degree of influence changes among participants and non-participants. However, the physical education teacher, opportunity to play, and female peer, in this order, continued to be the most influential socialising agents for both participants and non-participants. The PE teacher was more influential for non-participants (22%) than for participants (14%). On the other hand, opportunity to play (3% and
4%) and female peer (1% and 3%) influences remained relatively similar among non-participants and participants in sports and physical activities.

Table 24. Summary table of the stepwise multiple regression analysis* of Brazilian adolescent school girls' sports involvement according to participation (Part) and non-participation (Nonp) and different age groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indices</th>
<th>Multiple R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>R² change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Part</td>
<td>Nonp</td>
<td>Part</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total sample</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE teacher</td>
<td>.375</td>
<td>.467</td>
<td>.140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opport. to play</td>
<td>.424</td>
<td>.496</td>
<td>.179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female peer</td>
<td>.457</td>
<td>.514</td>
<td>.209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age group 11 to 14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE teacher</td>
<td>.462</td>
<td>.518</td>
<td>.214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opport. to play</td>
<td>.559</td>
<td></td>
<td>.313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>.615</td>
<td></td>
<td>.388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female peer</td>
<td>.636</td>
<td>.598</td>
<td>.404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sister</td>
<td>.644</td>
<td>.415</td>
<td>.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age group 15 to 17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE teacher</td>
<td>.260</td>
<td>.446</td>
<td>.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female peer</td>
<td>.339</td>
<td>.485</td>
<td>.114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opport. to play</td>
<td>.429</td>
<td>.484</td>
<td>.184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age group 18 to 20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE teacher</td>
<td>.429</td>
<td>.484</td>
<td>.184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sister</td>
<td>.516</td>
<td>.267</td>
<td>.032</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* It was used the listwise procedure for deleting cases from the sample when information is missing on any of the variables being analysed.
To further investigate the possible differences between participants and non-participants, a separate analysis of different age groups seemed to be worthwhile because previous analysis had already given an indication of age differences. To reach this aim the following phase of the study involved separate analysis of participants and non-participants of the total sample at different age groups (see Table 24). The analysis confirmed the same pattern of influence discovered in the investigation across the age groups of the total sample.

The stepwise multiple regression analysis of school girls aged 11 to 14 and participants in sports, PE teacher (21%), opportunity to play (10%), brothers (6%), and female peers (3%) accounted for approximately 40% of the variance in sports participation. For the non-participants, PE teacher (27%), female peers (9%), and sisters (5%) accounted for 41% of the variance.

These results, for the age-group 11-14 years, showed that the socialising agents used were more effective in predicting participation among non-participants than participants: 41% and 40%, respectively. However, there was a difference not only in the degree of influence of each socialising agent, but in the socialising agents which influenced them to participate. For example, PE teacher and female peers were more influential for non-participants (27% and 9%) than for participants (21% and 3%). Opportunity to play and brothers were influential only for participants, accounting for 10% and 6%, respectively, and sisters influenced only non-participants (5%).

These results were also partially found by Greendorfer et al. (1986). They discovered that Brazilian elementary school children (9-12 years) are mainly influenced by opportunity set and sisters, respectively. These constructs accounted for 43% of the variation while all other systems were eliminated from the equation. According to the authors, sister influence never exhibited any important role in research on sport socialisation. They suggested that it could be a cultural pattern specific to the Brazilian context. This was also
detected in the present study in the age-groups 11-14 and 18-20 non-participant in sports.

The stepwise multiple regression analysis of school girls aged 15 to 17 and participants in sports, female peers (7%) and opportunity to play (4%) accounted for approximately 11% of the variance in sports participation. For the non-participants, in addition to female peers (2%) and opportunity to play (2%), PE teachers made a substantial contribution to the explained variance: 19%. These results showed that the model used was even more effective for non-participants (23%) than sport participants (11%) than in the younger age-group. PE teachers made a major contribution (19%) only among non-participants. On the other hand, female peers (7% and 2%) and opportunity to play (4% and 2%) were more influential for participants than non-participants in sports.

Finally, the multiple regression analysis of the age group 18 to 20 of sport participants, indicated that the PE teacher alone accounted for approximately 18% of sport participation. On the other hand among non-participants, PE teacher and sisters accounted for respectively 23% and 3% of the variance in sport participation. For the age group 18-20, the model was more effective for non-participants (26%) than for participants (18%). As in the age-group 11-14 years, the PE teacher was a greater influence for non-participants (23%) than for participants (18%), and sister (3%) was influential only for non-participants in sports.

These results on influence differences between participants and non-participants partially coincide with Greendorfer (1987). She found that the social role-social systems framework as used in the present study is a more effective predictor of sport participation for non-athletes and the relative order or contributing importance of socialising agent influences differed for athletes and non-athletes. However, in her study, childhood sport involvement was the strongest predictor of sport involvement for athletes and non-athletes and the teacher was the second most influential system only for athletes. In the present
study, childhood experiences had no influences when the sample was analysed according to participants and non-participants in sports.

The main results of the research on influences of socialising agents on Brazilian girls' sport participation, can be summarised as follows:

a) the social role-social systems framework used in the present study accounted for 11% (age-group 15-17) to 41% (age group 11-14) of the variation in sport participation;
b) the framework used was a more effective predictor for non-participants than sport participants;
c) the framework used was a more effective predictor for the age-group 11-14;
d) the PE teacher was the most influential socialising agent for all age groups, accounting for 18% to 27% of the variance in sport participation, excepted for the age-group 15-17 participant in sports;
e) Peers, only female peers, were the most influential socialising agent for the age-group 15-17 of sports participants; the second for the age-group 15-17 and 11-14 non-participants; they had no influence in age-group 18-20;
f) Opportunity to play was the second strongest influence for age-groups 11-14 and 15-17 of participants in sports; the third most influential socialising agent for the age-group 15-17 of non-participants in sports; they had no influence in the age-group 18-20;
c) Family members, represented by sisters, were influential only for the age-group 11-14 and 18-20 of non-participants; brothers were influential only for participants from the age-group 11-14.

**Concluding remarks**

The present study investigated the degree of influence exerted by family members, teachers/coaches, peer groups, and community in the girls' sport and physical activity patterns. It was expected that peer-groups would be one of the
most influential socialising agent during adolescence but it was found out that peers had little influence in the socialisation process into sport and physical activities among Brazilian schoolgirls. The school, through the PE teacher, was the most influential institution in all age-groups.

However, previous research by Greendorfer et al. (1986) had pointed to the lack of teacher influence in Brazilian schoolchildren in their study on gender differences in socialisation into sports. This finding placed a question mark against those researchers who concluded that lack of teacher influence could be unique to the Brazilian sample and due to cross national differences in the sport socialisation process. The author of the present study also viewed physical education classes as one major possible influence in socialising children, mainly girls, into sports and physical activities for Brazilians. In order to examine this issue in more depth several questions on physical education were put to the subjects of the present study. The discussions on PE influence in the Brazilian context will be carried out in the next section.

B. Physical Education and sports at school in Brazil

The review of international literature on girls' involvement in sports and physical activities demonstrated that the way in which Physical Education is taught at school, the sports learned, experiences in sports competition, and the athletic abilities acquired during school years, had a negative influence on physical education, sports and physical activities and, consequently jeopardised the possibility of taking up sporting activities as a leisure pursuit (Almond, 1983).

These opinions have been broadly reinforced by many others investigations (Hendry, 1974; Coe, 1984; Geron, Mashiach, Dunkelman, Raviv & Levin, 1985; Hendry & Thorp, 1977; Gleeson, Tancred & Banks, 1989; Standeven & Thompson, 1986; Knoppers, 1988; Frey & Massengale, 1988;
Chioggy, 1988; Sleap, 1987; Scraton, 1989; Hendry, 1988). Based on these findings, it was assumed that Physical Education in Brazil would also be viewed as a negative and worthless activity at school, since Brazilian physical education ideologies, policies and practices are not very much different from most Western countries. That is, the Physical Education and sports taught at school, the sports learned, experiences in sports competition, the athletic abilities acquired during school years can influence attitudes and opinions towards sports and physical activities and, consequently, the possibility of taking up sporting activities as a leisure pursuit. Based on these assumptions, several questions related to these matters were posed to the respondents.

The first question sought to determine how much participants and non-participants liked Physical Education in relation to other disciplines.

Table 25. Preference of PE in relation to other disciplines at school given by participants and non-participants in sport and physical activities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disciplines</th>
<th>Participants (N=641)</th>
<th>Non-participants (N=856)</th>
<th>t-test</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Education</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts (Music, Arts)</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign languages</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social studies</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maths</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sciences</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results presented in Table 25 indicated that participants liked most, in order of preference: PE (M= 4.21, SD=1.21), Arts (M= 4.10, SD=1.16), and Foreign languages (M= 3.68, SD=1.33); non-participants ranked, in order of
preference, Arts (M= 4.06, SD=1.10), PE (M= 3.97, SD=1.12), and Foreign languages (M= 3.56, SD=1.27).

This data, however, contradicts expectations since they show that Physical Education at school is well accepted by the majority of schoolgirls. Among the disciplines in the curriculum, girl participants in sport liked most, in order of preference: PE, Arts, and Foreign Languages. Non-participants ranked, in order of preference, Arts, PE, and Foreign languages. As could be expected, PE was more accepted by participants than non-participants (t-test = 3.88, N= 1317, p < .000).

The second question was related to the types of activities learned in PE classes. It was thought that experiences learned during certain periods of life frequently tend to be recalled later in life. Therefore, it is very important to have a wide range of options of sporting activities during school time if plenty of options of possible leisure activities are to be given for future life. In addition, many researchers have indicated that secondary school physical education programmes are limited and heavily dominated by team games (Johnstone & Thomas, 1980; Mawer, 1984) which are very much disliked by the majority of girls. It was expected that in Brazil the same patterns of activities would be found.

In order to know the types of sporting activities schoolgirls had experienced a list of the 10 most common physical activities taught in Brazilian schools was suggested. Also, an open space was provided in which other possible activities specific to a respondent's region, city or school could be added. In fact, in this survey of physical activities made in the present study also indicated this pattern: the most common activities taught in Brazilian Physical Education classes were volleyball (84.1%), basketball (52.4%), gymnastics (49.1%), and handball (41.8%). This results are summarised in Table 26.
Table 26. Main sporting activities taught in Physical Education classes reported by total sample.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sports</th>
<th>Number of pupils</th>
<th>Percent of pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indoor football</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>785</td>
<td>52.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volleyball</td>
<td>1259</td>
<td>84.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletics</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handball</td>
<td>626</td>
<td>41.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dance/Jazz</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aerobics</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gymnastics</td>
<td>735</td>
<td>49.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third question was related to sports competition: "Have you ever represented your school in any physical/sporting activities?" The results showed that 35.1% participants (N=641) had represented their schools in some kind of sport whereas 54.8% had never represented. On the other hand, 25.7% of non-participants (N=856) had represented their schools in sporting activities and 67.6% had never represented in any kind of sport. 10.1% of participants and 6.7% of non-participants did not answer this question. When they were asked if they would be interested in representing their school in any sporting activity, 37.1% of the non-participants answered "yes" and 43.5% "no". On the other hand, 40.2% of the participants said "yes" and 29.3% "no".

Another criticism is that games and activities are still usually competitive, and many programmes offered to them overemphasise competitiveness (Almond, 1986). The argument is that competition inevitably produces winners and losers and leads many pupils to an experience of failure in physical education. This is likely to contribute to girls' detachment not only from physical education itself but from participation in other sporting activities.
outside school. Based on these findings, it was assumed that the majority of Brazilian schoolgirls would not participate in extra-curricular sports programmes such as intercollegiate competitions.

The data analysis showed that although participants (N=641) enjoyed playing sports in their free time, the majority of 54.8% never had interest in competition for one reason or another. However, 25.7% of non-participants (N=856) chose to compete in their extra-curricular activities representing their school in sporting activities. Thus, about 62% of the total sample did not have opportunity to compete and the final analysis indicated that 38% of them had no interest in competing. In addition, only 22.7% of sport participants and 23.4% of non-participants agreed or strongly agreed with the statement "I do not like competing against others, I prefer competing against myself - as in a fitness test". 53.1% of sport participants and 52.5% of non-participants disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement and 4.5% did not answer the question (Table 27).

Table 27. Number and percentage of sport participants and non-participants who rated the statement "I do not like competing against others; I prefer competing against myself - as in a fitness test".

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I do not like competing...</th>
<th>Participants (N=641)</th>
<th>Non-participants (N=856)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither agree/disagree</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 5.77, \ df = 4, \ NS, \ p = .22$
Also, the chi-square analysis indicated that non-participants do not dislike competition more than participants ($\chi^2 = 5.77, df = 4, NS, p < .22$). Therefore, this result does not admit the conclusion that Brazilian girls dislike competitions.

The fourth issue was related to opinions and feelings towards PE. On this matter the teaching methods were exposed to criticism because of their excessive emphasis on performance of skills (Almond, 1984) and discipline (Scranton, 1989) which could lead to alienation from physical education and sports.

To test this assumption in the Brazilian context, 16 statements related to Physical Education which could influence girls' attitudes towards and motivation for sport participation were selected. They were asked to indicate how much they agree or disagree with the statements. The results, shown in Table 28, detected that participants agreed most with the following statements about PE, in order: "I like outdoor activities" (M= 4.16, SD=1.07), "I think PE is a worthwhile discipline in the curriculum" (M=4.09, SD=1.15), "I like team games" (M=3.82, SD=1.27), "I like my current PE teacher" (M=3.82, SD=1.31), and "I learn games in PE classes" (M=3.78, SD=1.10). On the other hand, they agree least with: "I like individual sport" (M=2.51, SD=1.31), "I like indoor activities" (M=2.52, SD= 1.35), and "I sometimes feel that my legs and arms do not do what I want them to do in PE classes" (M=2.87, SD=1.31).

Non-participants in sports and physical activities selected the following statements: "I like outdoor activities" (M=4.04, SD=1.11), "I think PE is a worthwhile discipline" (M=3.88, SD=1.17), "I like my current PE teacher" (M=3.69, SD=1.33), "I learn games in PE classes" (M=3.66, SD=1.13), and "I like team games" (M=3.60, SD=1.25). They least agreed with the following statements: "I like indoor activities" (M=2.39, SD=1.22), "I like individual sport" (M=2.52, SD=1.26), and "I sometimes feel that my legs and arms do not do what I want them to do in PE classes" (M=2.88, SD=1.29).
Table 28. Opinions and feelings related to Physical Education (PE) classes reported by sport participants and non-participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opinions on PE classes</th>
<th>Participants (N=641)</th>
<th>Non-participants (N=856)</th>
<th>t-test</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I like outdoor activities.</td>
<td>4.16 1.07</td>
<td>4.0 1.11</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is a worthwhile discipline.</td>
<td>4.09 1.15</td>
<td>3.88 1.17</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like team games.</td>
<td>3.82 1.27</td>
<td>3.6 1.25</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like my current PE teacher.</td>
<td>3.82 1.31</td>
<td>3.69 1.33</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learn games in PE classes.</td>
<td>3.78 1.10</td>
<td>3.65 1.13</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy social satisfaction/fun.</td>
<td>3.64 1.24</td>
<td>3.54 1.24</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learn sports skills.</td>
<td>3.63 1.23</td>
<td>3.43 1.20</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learn health and physical fitness.</td>
<td>3.63 1.38</td>
<td>3.52 1.27</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I dislike trying new activities in case someone laughs at me.</td>
<td>3.56 1.36</td>
<td>3.54 1.38</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learn gymnastics.</td>
<td>3.33 1.37</td>
<td>3.17 1.36</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learn discipline.</td>
<td>3.33 1.26</td>
<td>3.18 1.28</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am good at PE.</td>
<td>3.33 1.06</td>
<td>3.0 1.02</td>
<td>5.93</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not like competing; I prefer competing against myself.</td>
<td>3.31 1.50</td>
<td>3.3 1.41</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I sometimes feel my legs and arms do not do what I want them to do.</td>
<td>2.87 1.31</td>
<td>2.88 1.29</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>.875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like indoor activities.</td>
<td>2.52 1.35</td>
<td>2.39 1.22</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like individual sport.</td>
<td>2.51 1.31</td>
<td>2.52 1.26</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.958</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Also, t-tests were performed and the results indicated that participants show stronger opinions and feelings towards issues related to PE: I like outdoor activities (t = 2.19, N = 1406, p < .03), I think PE is a worthwhile discipline (t = 3.40, N = 1495, p < .001), I like team games (t = 3.36, N = 1495, p < .001), I learn games in PE classes (t = 1.97, N = 1495, p < .05), I learn sports skills in PE classes (t = 3.11, N = 1495, N = 1495, p < .01), I learn gymnastics in PE classes (t = 2.33, N = 1495, p < .03), I am good at PE (t = 5.93, N = 1495, p < .000) and I like indoor activities (t = 1.97, N = 1300, p < .05).
In addition to investigating the order of importance of the 16 suggested statements on Physical Education, it was thought useful to have more information on some opinions on Physical Education which were considered by many studies central to Physical Education practices and ideology. Thus, the number and percentage of respondents who agreed or disagreed with some of the suggested statements were investigated.

The first statement analysed was "I think PE is a worthwhile discipline in the curriculum". The results showed that 79.6% of sport participants and 73% of non-participants agreed with the statement. About 2.8% did not answer the question (Table 29). The chi-square analysis showed that participants are more likely to enjoy PE than non-participants ($\chi^2 = 22.85, df = 4, p < .001$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PE is a worthwhile discipline</th>
<th>Participants (N=641)</th>
<th>Non-particip. (N=856)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither agree/disagree</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>44.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 22.85, df = 4, p < .001$

The second statement was related to the PE teacher: "I like my current PE teacher". 70.7% of sport participants and 66.8% of non-participants agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. 4.1% did not answer the question (Table 30). The chi-square analysis demonstrated no statistically significant difference
between sport participants and non-participants on this matter ($\chi^2 = 8.35$, df = 4, NS, $p < .08$).

Table 30. Number and percentage of sport participants and non-participants who agreed or disagreed with the statement "I like my current PE teacher".

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I like my PE teacher</th>
<th>Participants (N=641)</th>
<th>Non-participants (N=856)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither agree/disagree</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>33.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 8.35$, df = , NS, $p < .08$

Research on Physical Education activities reviewed in the international literature has demonstrated that team games are disliked by many girls, and an excessive emphasis on them in physical education programmes is likely to lead to alienation from physical education altogether. It is argued that the games which are most frequently offered to girls, such as netball and rounders, not only have less prestige than those for boys but are seldom pursued into adult life (Evans, 1974; Scraton, 1989).

In the present study, however, the survey of activities showed that the games played by the girls are the same as those of boys, eliminating the possibility of girls disliking them because they have less prestige. On the contrary, the Brazilian girls demonstrated that they did not dislike them as 78.5% of sport participants and 63.9% of non-participants indicated that they prefer team games to individual activities. This stronger preference demonstrated by sport participants in relation to team games was confirmed by
the chi-square analysis ($\chi^2 = 29.46$, df = 4, $p < .00001$). This data, shown in Table 31, originated from the statement "I like team games".

Table 31. Number and percentage of sport participants and non-participants who rated the statement "I like team games".

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I like team games</th>
<th>Participants N=641</th>
<th>Non-participants N=856</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither agree/disagree</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>40.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>37.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The discussions above made it possible to conclude that Physical Education in Brazil is well accepted by schoolgirls; they practise in PE lessons mainly team games, they enjoy team sports instead individual sports, they like outdoor activities opposed to indoor activities, and they like their PE teachers. This picture probably contributed to the fact that PE teacher is the most influential socialising agent in their socialisation process into sport and physical activities. However, it is necessary to note that this fact should not be construed as an apology of existing Physical Education in Brazil, as if it somehow had no need of change.

In Brazil, Physical Education ideologies, policies and practices are not very much different from most Western countries. The major constraints are related to lack of financial sources and ideological meanings which leaves education as secondary or tertiary priority in the Brazilian programme for development.
Physical Education in Brazil is a compulsory discipline in all levels of education, although optional in cases of the over-thirties, maternity, excessive working hours, etc. It has been decreed that PE should be taught twice per week during the first four grades and three times after that (Ministério de Educação e Cultura, 1982).

However, according to Ferreira (1984), this determination remains a dead letter for a great number of public schools, because of the limited resources which prevent the implementation of legislation. This situation is complicated further by the secondary importance physical education and sports were given in the priorities enshrined by the Brazilian government in its development planning. Many of the schools lack not only sports facilities but properly trained PE teachers. This is the case of the majority of primary state schools in which PE is taught by the classroom teacher, the majority of whom have no qualification in physical education.

The problem of teacher qualification still persists today in many parts of Brazil despite of the growing number of physical education courses at university level responsible for qualifying PE teachers and coaches. According to Caram (1983), in 1963 there were in Brazil only 9 PE courses, whereas in 1980, there were 95. The 1980 Census demonstrated that 53% of physical education final year students were women. It is noteworthy that 75 physical education institutions were situated in the Southeast and south of the country. In these areas of the country the problem of the physical education related to lack of qualified PE teachers was not so acute as elsewhere in the country. However, it was replaced by another problem: dismissal of physical education specialists by the government because of restricted financial resources. The pre-school and the first four years of primary school were most affected by this measure.

This picture of physical education in Brazil leaves the young person who wants to participate in sports with no alternative other than to look for opportunities in the private sector, sports clubs, or sports centres (Ferreira,
It can be concluded that sport tends to become an experience for few people who can afford a membership in a sport club or who are talented enough to be selected by coaches in the sports centres.

In 1969 the Ministry of Education created the Brazilian School Games (Jogos Estudantis Brasileiros), assuming that school should assist in revealing new talents in different sports. However, schools seemed not to have any major role in the formation of new athletes, as indicated by the evaluation carried out during the XI Brazilian School Games (JEBS). Only 38% of boys and 54% of girls had started playing sports at school; the major influence for an athlete to become interested in sport came from community sport, represented mainly by sports clubs. In addition, only 19% of the boys and 20% of the girls improved their sport abilities in the school (Ministério de Educação, no date supplied).

These figures suggest that girls rely more on the school to become involved in sport. This fact reinforces the view that, in the context of women's education, school is a privileged institution in relation to female learning. Because of the restriction to freedom suffered by the girl and the young woman and the more repressive education coupled with the urban violence, school could offer them the protective environment they need to begin their participation in sports (Rosenberg & Pinto, 1985).

The JEBS could well be clear evidence of the reflection of the equal opportunities policies in the context of extramural school sport programmes in Brazil, as it allows "22 states to send an equal number of boys' and girls' teams to compete in everything from basketball, gymnastics, swimming to chess" (Holm, 1978, p.153). However, in a wider context, the JEBS can be interpreted as an elitist programme, and therefore a discriminatory one, because they select a very few athletically privileged students, leaving out millions of other pupils who do not have either sports facilities in their schools or even a qualified PE teacher. Even so, the physical education legislation in Brazil seems to be in accordance with equal opportunities policies as the following early comment
from an American researcher working as a physical education curriculum specialist for two years in Brazil suggests:

"...I've had the opportunity to observe that although the macho's desire for attractiveness may permeate Brazilian society, in physical education, sports participation, public reinforcement and funding, opportunities and interest are equal for males and females" (Holm, 1978, p.152).

From this statement, it became clear that Holm was oblivious to the Brazilian situation beyond the limits of its legislation, as was shown earlier in the analysis of the situation of physical education in Brazil in the last decades. She also referred to the privileged situation of Brazilian women in the following terms: "An example of the positive reinforcement that the Brazilian female athlete receives is evident when boyfriends go to watch their girlfriends competing on the basketball court or in other activities" (p.153). It can be reasonably conjectured that during those two years spent working in Brazil, she did not learn the significance of the control which infiltrated such male behaviour in the complex gender relations within the Brazilian culture.

IV. ADOLESCENCE: HABITS, OPINIONS, HOPES AND INTERESTS

In order to investigate other aspects of adolescence not related to sports, which may indirectly explain the subject's patterns of participation in sports and physical activities, some general questions were asked. It was pertinent to cast a glance at adolescent self-perceptions, values, opinions, feelings and habits in a wider context, to see if there are other constants which tend to have an impact on female adolescent sports participation. It was expected that, as the girls'
patterns of participation in sport and physical activities, their patterns of career choice, free-time activities, companions and opinions about personal attributes needed to meet the expectations of the opposite sex, they would be influenced by stereotypical and traditional gender role expectations and behaviours.

The first question of this kind was about the requirements which contribute to making a girl more popular or desirable for boys. The aim was to ascertain whether being somehow linked to sports could be positive for the girls' popularity among boys according to their own point of view. For this reason, a list of 18 attributes was presented to the respondents. They were asked to indicate if each one was not important to very important. The responses are set out in Table 32.
Table 32. Requirements for girls' popularity among boys according to sport participants and non-participants in sports and physical activities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirements</th>
<th>Participants (N=641)</th>
<th>Non-particip. (N=856)</th>
<th>t-test</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Dress appropriately</td>
<td>3.83 1.22</td>
<td>3.89 1.04</td>
<td>-0.92</td>
<td>.356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Good reputation</td>
<td>3.76 1.37</td>
<td>3.86 1.19</td>
<td>-1.46</td>
<td>.145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Come from a good family</td>
<td>3.34 1.58</td>
<td>3.40 1.39</td>
<td>-0.79</td>
<td>.430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Be beautiful</td>
<td>3.30 1.43</td>
<td>3.21 1.37</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>.198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Dress fashionably</td>
<td>3.26 1.29</td>
<td>3.16 1.21</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Practise sporting activities</td>
<td>3.24 1.40</td>
<td>2.82 1.27</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Get good marks at school</td>
<td>3.10 1.56</td>
<td>3.00 1.43</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>.198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Be a good dancer</td>
<td>2.95 1.29</td>
<td>2.79 1.21</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Talk about sports in general</td>
<td>2.77 1.50</td>
<td>2.52 1.25</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Have money</td>
<td>2.61 1.39</td>
<td>2.54 1.29</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.316</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Be abreast of pop music</td>
<td>2.27 1.29</td>
<td>2.20 1.19</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>.280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Wear state-of-the-art sports shoes</td>
<td>2.23 1.40</td>
<td>2.00 1.23</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Be a famous athlete</td>
<td>2.12 1.46</td>
<td>1.85 1.20</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Be abreast of famous film stars</td>
<td>1.97 1.29</td>
<td>1.82 1.10</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Be crowd leader</td>
<td>1.97 1.29</td>
<td>1.89 1.19</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>.232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Know about cars</td>
<td>1.86 1.21</td>
<td>1.70 1.00</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Drinking</td>
<td>1.26 0.84</td>
<td>1.25 0.79</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.978</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Smoking</td>
<td>1.18 0.78</td>
<td>1.25 0.77</td>
<td>-1.73</td>
<td>.084</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data in Table 32 indicated that sports participants considered the most important attributes to dress appropriately (M=3.83, SD=1.22), good reputation (M=3.76, SD=1.37), a good family background (M=3.34, SD=1.58), be beautiful (M=3.30, SD=1.42), dress fashionably (M=3.26, SD=1.29), and practise sport or physical activities (M=3.24, SD=1.40). Non-participants ranked as the most important the following attributes: dress appropriately (M=3.89, SD=1.24), good reputation (M=3.86, SD=1.19), a good family background (M=3.40, SD=1.39), be beautiful (M=3.21, SD=1.37), dress fashionably (M=3.16, SD=1.21), get good marks at school (M=3.00,
SD=1.43), and practise sports or physical activities \( (M= 2.82, \ SD=1.27) \). In addition, t-tests were performed and the results indicated that participants showed stronger opinions in relation to the following requirements: practise sports and physical activities \( (t = 5.97, \ N = 1298, \ p < .000) \), be a good dancer \( (t = 2.42, \ N = 1495, \ p < .02) \), talk about sports \( (t = 3.53, \ N = 1227, \ p < .000) \), wear state-of-the-art sports shoes \( (t = 3.27, \ N = 1273, \ p < .001) \), be famous athlete \( (t = 3.73, \ N = 1220, \ p < .000) \), be abreast of famous film stars \( (t = 2.42, \ N = 1247, \ p < .02) \), and know about cars \( (t = 2.70, \ N = 1225, \ p < .01) \).

The second question of this nature was related to professions which the subjects would take up. The aim of this question was to verify if more non-participants than participants in sports and physical activities were inclined to choose traditionally feminine occupations. The results, presented in Table 33, showed that participants chose the following professions in order of preference: model \( (M= 2.70, \ SD=1.55) \), elite athlete \( (M= 2.57, \ SD=1.61) \), artist \( (M= 2.53, \ SD=1.49) \), stewardess \( (M= 2.44, \ SD=1.51) \), and ballerina \( (M= 2.36, \ SD=1.56) \); on the other hand, non-participants chose to be a model \( (M= 2.51, \ SD=1.40) \), artist \( (M= 2.46, \ SD=1.39) \), stewardess \( (M= 2.42, \ SD=1.43) \), teacher \( (M= 2.28, \ SD=1.48) \), and ballerina \( (M=2.18, \ SD=1.41) \). The chi-square analysis indicated that that participants showed stronger preferences than non-participants in the following professions: model \( (t = 2.46, \ N = 1299, \ p < .01) \), elite athlete \( (t = 7.45, \ N = 1239, \ p < .000) \), ballerina \( (t = 2.26, \ N = 1298, \ p < .02) \), and scientist \( (t = 2.00, \ N = 1306, \ p < .05) \).
Table 34. Professions which girls who were sport participants and non-participants in sporting activities wanted to follow.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professions</th>
<th>Participants (N=641)</th>
<th>Non-participants (N=856)</th>
<th>t-test</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>2.70 1.55</td>
<td>2.51 1.40</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elite athlete</td>
<td>2.57 1.61</td>
<td>1.98 1.36</td>
<td>7.45</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artist</td>
<td>2.53 1.49</td>
<td>2.46 1.39</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>.307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stewardess</td>
<td>2.44 1.51</td>
<td>2.42 1.43</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ballerina</td>
<td>2.36 1.56</td>
<td>2.18 1.41</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>2.32 1.59</td>
<td>2.28 1.48</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>1.93 1.42</td>
<td>1.93 1.34</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scientist</td>
<td>1.78 1.32</td>
<td>1.65 1.20</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurse</td>
<td>1.63 1.14</td>
<td>1.53 1.07</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housewife</td>
<td>1.58 1.09</td>
<td>1.64 1.09</td>
<td>-1.13</td>
<td>.257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aeropl. pilot</td>
<td>1.48 1.15</td>
<td>1.41 1.02</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>.226</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to finding out the order of preference of the 11 suggested professions, it was thought useful to have more information on being an athlete as an occupational option for Brazilian schoolgirls. Thus, the number and percentage of respondents who wanted to be an athlete were investigated. The results showed that 49.3% of sport participants and 32.4% of non-participants thought regularly about being a great athlete.

The next step was to investigate how adolescent schoolgirls spent their leisure time and how much sports and physical activities were a choice of activity during this time. For this aim a list of 12 possible leisure activities was presented. Participants and non-participants were asked to indicate how frequently they engaged in those activities during a typical week. The results are presented in Table 34. Among participants, the most cited leisure activities were: listening to music (M= 4.32, SD=1.39), watching television (M= 3.83, SD=1.66), reading books, newspapers or magazines (M= 2.86, SD=1.64),
practising sports or physical activities (M=2.49, SD=1.80), and dating (M=2.27, SD=2.10).

Non-participants indicated the following activities as the most common leisure pursuits: listening to music (M=4.20, SD=1.49), watching television (M=3.80, SD=1.70), practising sports or physical activities (M=2.39, SD=1.68), dating (M=1.96, SD=2.11), and window shopping (M=1.53). Both participants (M=1.74, SD=1.61) and non-participants (M=1.37, SD=1.41) ranked watching sports competition seventh.

Table 34. Activities during leisure time of adolescent schoolgirl participants and non-participants in sports and physical activities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities in leisure time</th>
<th>Participant (N=641) Mean SD</th>
<th>Non-participants (N=856) Mean SD</th>
<th>t-test</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening to music</td>
<td>4.32 1.39</td>
<td>4.20 1.49</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>.119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watching television</td>
<td>3.83 1.66</td>
<td>3.80 1.70</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.692</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading books, newspapers or magazines</td>
<td>2.86 1.64</td>
<td>1.72 1.47</td>
<td>14.01</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practising sporting activities</td>
<td>2.49 1.80</td>
<td>2.39 1.68</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>.244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dating</td>
<td>2.27 2.10</td>
<td>1.96 2.11</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Window shopping</td>
<td>1.92 1.60</td>
<td>1.87 1.53</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watching sports competition</td>
<td>1.74 1.61</td>
<td>1.37 1.41</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooking</td>
<td>1.34 1.62</td>
<td>1.34 1.65</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to the cinema</td>
<td>1.16 1.36</td>
<td>1.09 1.31</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>.326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to the disco</td>
<td>1.04 1.40</td>
<td>0.84 1.21</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sewing</td>
<td>0.46 1.07</td>
<td>0.48 1.09</td>
<td>-.37</td>
<td>.710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other activities</td>
<td>0.54 1.44</td>
<td>0.42 1.29</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>.083</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the comparative analysis of the leisure time activities, t-tests were performed and the results indicated that participants had stronger interest than non-participants in the following activities: reading books, newspaper or magazines (t = 14.01, n = 1292, p < .000), dating (t = 2.79, N = 1495, p < .01),
watching sports competition ($t = 4.70, N = 1271, p < .001$), and going to a disco ($t = 2.87, N = 1261, p < .00$).

In addition to finding out how sporting activities took priority among the most common leisure activities of Brazilian schoolgirls, it was thought useful to know how many girls spent their leisure time in the suggested activities. Thus, the number and percentage of respondents in each leisure activity were calculated (Table 35). Listening to music and watching television were the most popular activities among participants and non-participants: more than 90% of the respondents engaged in these activities at least once a week. Reading, playing sports, and window shopping, in this order, were the following three activities most common among sport participants. Among non-participants, the next three most common activities were playing sports, window shopping, and reading.
Table 35. Number and percentage of sport participants and non-participants engaging in different leisure activities at least once a week.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leisure activities</th>
<th>Participants (N=641)</th>
<th>Non-participants (N=856)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening to music</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>95.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watching TV</td>
<td>584</td>
<td>91.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>563</td>
<td>87.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing sports</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>81.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Window shopping</td>
<td>509</td>
<td>79.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watching sport events</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>71.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dating</td>
<td>407</td>
<td>63.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to the cinema</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>60.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to the disco</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>54.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooking</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>54.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sewing</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another detail required of the respondents was related to habitual companion for going out. They following question was posed: "With whom do you go out most"? The results (Table 36) indicated that sport participants go out mainly with boyfriends (25%), with a group of boys and girls (24%), with a group of girls or with family members/relatives (19.8%). They may go out sometimes on their own (3.9%) or with a group of boys (2.2%).

On the other hand, non-participants in sports and physical activities reported that they go out mainly with a group of girls (25.5%), with a group of boys and girls (23.5%), with family members/relatives (23.5%), or with a boyfriend (21.8%). Sometimes, they may go out alone (2.6%) or with a group of boys (2.3%). The chi-square analysis revealed no statistically significant difference between participants and non-participants in the choice of companion for going out ($\chi^2 = 6.84$, df= 5, NS, $p < .23$)
Table 36. Most common companions for going out reported by sport participants and non-participants expressed in number and percentage.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I go out (with...)</th>
<th>Participants (N=641)</th>
<th>Non-participants (N=856)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alone</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boyfriends</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>22.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys&amp;girls</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family/relatives</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 6.84$, df = 5, NS, $p < .23$

In order to find out if the fact of having a job was influential to participation/non-participation in sports and physical activities respondents were asked if they worked. The results showed that 201 adolescent girls (13.42% of the total) had a paid work: 13.9% of sport participants and 13.7% of non-participants. Due to the low levels of adolescent employment registered in this sample, it may be reasonably assumed that other inhibiting factors are at work.

The data obtained above apply to the communities described and analysed in Brazil. How do these findings compare with current international trends?

The survey "The new teen world" was conducted in 1995 and 1996 in 41 countries in North America, Latin America, Western Europe, Africa, and Asia (Folha de São Paulo, 28/6/1996). Although focused on consuming habits, the results provided a more general picture of adolescent behaviour (Table 37 and 38). Approximately 25 000 female and male adolescents were interviewed, aged between 15 and 18, in the main from urban middle and upper middle classes. In Brazil, 1 384 adolescents enrolled in state schools in São Paulo, Rio
de Janeiro, Recife and Porto Alegre were interviewed. Each subject filled in a seven-page questionnaire administered by the US company The Brain Waves, and co-ordinated by Elissa Moses.

Table 37. Percentage of adolescents who consider each item in terms of its importance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is more important</th>
<th>Brazil</th>
<th>L. America</th>
<th>Global</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relationship with family</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship with friends</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have fun</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find a job which I like</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To finish my course</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success in my career</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Brazilian teenagers like dating more than adolescents in other countries. 47% reported enjoying dating, whereas the global average was 36%, and in Asia 13%. They also seem to be more preoccupied with sexual issues (70%), than teenagers in other countries (43%). These findings coincide with earlier findings published in Brazil. In 1995, the research project Sexo Teen (Isto É, nº 1340, 07/6/1995) indicated a clear tendency to begin sexual life earlier than in earlier decades (15 as opposed to 16). At the same time, however, there are still many young people who prefer to postpone their initiation into sexual life. In her portrayal of young Brazilians, Tânia Zagury (1995) also pointed out that Brazilian adolescents (70%) were more concerned with sexual issues than adolescents in other countries (43%).

In view of the importance attached to sexual questions and the patriarchal, discriminatory values with which they are still treated, the desire to participate in sports for adolescent girls may be difficult to reconcile with the exigencies of sexual initiation, which demand apologetic femininity.
Another inhibiting factor which emerges from the New Teen World survey is preoccupation with weight. The fear of losing body shape is rated as highly as the fear of unplanned pregnancy (39%). Male adolescents, too, register their concern in this area. Today, almost half the 1 500 daily consumers of one of the biggest sports clubs in São Paulo are under the age of 20. In relation to the global average, Brazilian adolescents wear sports shoes (88%:82% in the rest of the world); T-shirts (87%:78%). Female adolescents wear more lipstick (74%-54%), eye-crayon (57%:22%), blusher (56%:12%) and eye shadow (51%:12%). More emphatic evidence of the pressure to conform with the demands for stereotypical femininity and its consequences for sports participation can hardly be imagined.

In addition to these pressures, Brazilian adolescents demonstrate a greater willingness to engage in entertainment and to have fun. The survey findings are reproduced in Table 38.

Table 38. Most common entertainment for adolescents (in percentage).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entertainment</th>
<th>Brazil</th>
<th>Global</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Go to parties</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drinking</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening to music</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dancing</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dating</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More in love</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Whereas the desire for fun and relaxation may extend to the activities listed in Table 38, it does not include sports participation, which, like dance, is an obvious expression of bodily pleasure. The above forms of relaxation reinforce in part the view that certain types of physical recreation are conducive to companionship and dating success (e.g. dancing), where they conform to
stereotypical expectations of femininity. Where these expectations are not met (i.e. in sport and physical activities), participation must inevitably be low.

In the next section the reasons given by Brazilian girls for non-participation and given up participation in sports and physical activities will be presented.

V. WHY BRAZILIAN GIRLS GIVE UP PARTICIPATION OR DO NOT PARTICIPATE IN SPORTS AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

It was predicted in the present study that some individuals would not be sport participants from the moment at which the data of this research was being collected, but had been involved in sports in the past. This kind of behaviour, also known as attrition, has been closely examined because it can enlighten research as to why women are not visible in the sports world. In general, data on this matter have appointed lack of adequate opportunity, a declining interest, other interests that took priority, or an unpleasant experience that caused a drop out of sport (McPherson et al., 1989).

This contingent made up 35.6% of non-participants who had practised sporting activities in the past but were physically inactive during 1991 (N=533). Similar patterns were found in studies carried out in United States of America and Australia which concluded that about 35% of those involved in sport give up participation in each year (Gould, 1987).

In the present study the 16 suggested reasons for giving up participation in sports and physical activities were based on information from the pilot study and previous research on why people usually give up participation in sporting activities. were asked why they had given up participation. Subjects were questioned if each reason was "not applicable", "not very applicable", "fairly applicable", "applicable", "very applicable" for their cases.
The major reasons given were, in order of importance: "I had other things to do" (M= 2.69, SD= 1.62); "The place/time was not convenient" (M= 1.74, SD= 1.51); "It took too much time of my life" (M= 1.72, SD= 1.35); and "Other reasons such as injury, illness or moving house/town" (M= 1.69, SD= 1.48). Reasons rated as least applicable by these dropouts were: "I was afraid of making a fool of myself" (M= 1.28, SD= 1.08); "The activity made me too tense" (M= 1.30, SD= 1.08); and "I did not like the pressure" (M= 1.38, SD= 1.15). Table 39 shows the mean importance ratings and standard deviation of each motive given by giveupers.
Table 39. Mean and standard deviation of motives for giving up participation in sports and physical activities given by non-participants who were active prior to 1991 (N= 533).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I had others things to do.</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The place/time was not convenient.</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>1.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It took too much time of my life.</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others: injury, moving house, illness.</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>1.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not play enough.</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was not as good as I wanted to be.</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The training was too hard.</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too much emphasis on winning.</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was too competitive.</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not have enough fun.</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not like the teacher/coach.</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not like the physical exhaustion.</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My friends did not play with me.</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not like the pressure.</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The activity made me too tense.</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was afraid of making a fool of myself.</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Those who had not participated in any kind of sporting activity outside school during 1991 were asked if they simply had given up participation or if they had never experienced sport participation. The results showed that 20.7% of the total sample had never participated in any kind of sport outside school (N=311). In the present study reasons for non-participation in sporting activities were examined based on information from the pilot study and existing research on why some people never engage in sporting activities. A list of 14 possible reasons for non-participation were presented and respondents were
asked to indicate whether each reason was "not applicable", "not very applicable", "fairly applicable", "applicable", and "very applicable". Table 40 shows the mean importance ratings and standard deviation of each motive for non-participation.

The reasons which were most applicable for not playing sports were: "I did not have time" (M = 3.22, SD = 1.73), "I had other things to do" (M = 3.01, SD = 1.66), "I was not interested" (M = 2.48, SD = 1.72), and "I had not enough money" (M = 2.40, SD = 1.70). Reasons indicated as least applicable were: "No transport to take me there" (M = 1.41, SD = 1.18), "My friends did not play with me" (M = 1.58, SD = 1.30), and "Afraid of going out at evenings" (M = 1.67, SD = 1.41).

The results of the investigation of the motives for giving-up participation and non-participation are partially consistent with other research (Women's Sport Foundation, 1988; Burton, 1987; Gould, Feltz, Horn & Weiss, 1982; Burton & Martens, 1986; Gould, 1987; Klint & Weiss. 1986; Kirshnit, and Ham & Richards, 1989; Scott, 1989; Klint and Weiss, 1987). Any comparison between studies with several variables makes final conclusions very difficult, however. In addition, the majority of studies on reasons of dropping out of sports by young people have shown not only one, but many reasons which sometimes are interlinked and hard to explain. Brown (1985), suggested that factors such as decreasing importance of the athlete role in one's self-identity, re-evaluation of cost-benefit ratio of sport participation, and a gradual detachment from the sport world as they relate socially with peers from outside this world can determine attrition in sports.
feel uneasy playing sporting activities. For this reason, they may drop out of sports altogether (Carrington and Leaman, 1986).

Concluding remarks

The main hypothesis of this thesis was that there would be a low level of sport participation among adolescent girls in Brazil. This hypothesis was confirmed since only 42.8% of adolescent girls in Brazil play sports or do physical activities of any kind at least once a week. Other expectations was also confirmed by this study. For instance, gymnastics, aerobics, dance and swimming were expected to be among the main activities in which the girls would be involved; health, being in shape and being with friends would be among the major reasons why the girls were participating in sports and physical activities; girls called a "tomboy" as a child were more likely to be among participants than non-participants; and, the existence of sport stereotypes, mainly those related to appropriateness of sporting activities for women or men.

On the other hand, other expectations were not met and it is worthwhile to comment on them, for they are the most significant and peculiar to Brazilian context. Probably, cultural and socio-economic factors were heavily influencing this outcome and this information could add significantly to knowledge permeating in the Western society which belongs to the so called First World.

The most revealing pattern specific to the Brazilian context was related to the choice of the sporting activity and the places where the girls usually play this activity. That ends to give an a clear account of the struggle of what is to be a girl in Brazil in the 90s. Regardless of the cultural, social and economic pressures the Brazilian girls may experience, they are still able to meet their sporting aspirations as a young woman within their possibilities.
Volleyball was the most popular activity played by 48% of the sports participants; the other most popular activities, gymnastics, swimming and dance had approximately 20 to 24% of participants. The popularity of volleyball among girls of all age groups seems to be very specific to the Brazilian culture as no other country investigated in the review of literature showed this pattern. For example, in the most recent large survey with young people and sports conducted in Britain (Mason, 1995) volleyball does not figure among the five top activities among boys and girls. The popularity of this sport becomes more visible in Brazil when the analysis considers the most popular place used to play it: neighbourhood streets. The socio-economic conditions of the majority of the girls studied come predominantly from working class which has led to few alternatives to attend fitness centres, sports clubs, sports centres and the like. The State, on the other hand, does not provide enough sports facilities and equipment for poor people in Brazil where they can enjoy playing sports or doing physical activities. When there are public places available for them to play sports, they are usually very far from their homes and it is necessary transport to take them there. In Brazil transport is scarce and expensive and many of them cannot afford it because of their economic circumstances.

Here it is worthwhile to discuss how the girls investigated in this study face and challenge the financial and social/cultural barriers to be involved in an activity which gives them pleasure and fun. It is expected that volleyball is usually carried out in sports clubs or sports centres. However, in Brazil, the girls play it mainly in the neighbourhood streets facing not only the dangers of the car traffic but verbal abuse from their male counterparts in order to be engaged in this activity. This picture very characteristic of Brazilians contradicts another expectation that girls would be engaged and would enjoy more indoor rather than outdoor activities. This notion comes from the assumption that public places are not suitable or appropriate for women and as a consequence they would prefer more secluded places and indoor activities to be involved with.
Another data which demonstrates how Brazilian girls challenge their financial constraints is the case of gymnastics (not Olympic gymnastics), the second most popular activity. It is also expected that they would practice this activity in the fitness centre. However, the results indicated that it is played mainly at home. In Brazil, since the fitness movement in the 80s, gymnastics activities became very popular within the age group researched in this study as they were widely disseminated through mass media attention. The reasoning is that in order to answer to the appeal of the mass media in relation to being in shape and to overcome their financial restrictions to pay private lessons at fitness centres they reach their aims practising gymnastics at home on their own.

Also very significant to the Brazilian context is the result of the multiple regression analysis which aimed to investigate the variables which most influenced the girls participation in sports and physical activities. The expectation was that peers would be the most influential force in determining girls' sports participation was not confirmed. By the same token, the assumed strong influence of childhood experiences (before the age of 10) in sports and physical activities in actual sports participation was not detected. It is very much debated difficulties in assessing a parameter which relies heavily on individual capacity in recalling childhood experiences. Many people can remember only vaguely facts which occurred before the age of 10 as it was solicited in the present study. Thus, the data collected based on people accounts of their experiences as a child are not completely reliable.

Finally, especial reference should also be given to the results of the multiple regression analysis which indicated the school, through Physical Education, as the most powerful influence in moving girls towards sports and physical activities. The school and the physical education classes has been very much criticised as a deterrent of girls' participation in sports (Scranton, 1992; Kay, 1995; Romero, 1995; Daolio, 1995; Evans et al., 1996; Fox, 1996; Armstrong and McManus, 1996; Williams, 1993; Talbot, 1993; Evans, 1993).
CHAPTER FIVE - CONCLUSIONS

WHY SPORT CAN AND SHOULD BE AN OBJECTIVE IN GIRLS' EDUCATION

The results of this study should, it is hoped, assist in the elaboration of recommendations to be made to the Brazilian education authorities who have sponsored the research. These recommendations will cover policies and programmes devised to promote participation in sport and physical activities among adolescent girls as a vehicle not only for improved health and well-being but also for pleasure and fun. This experience, should increase the probability that the girls will carry into adulthood the value of an active lifestyle acquired during the adolescent years.

The reasons why mass sport as a public good are not given any priority in Brazilian planning, are readily understood. In a country beset by social problems on a massive scale as a result of high unemployment, or subemployment, problems in health caused by malnutrition, the dissemination of sports and physical activities seems little more than a political ornament. Although infant malnutrition fell 16.9% between 1989 and 1996 according to the latest findings of the PNDS (National Research on Demography and Health), it remains alarming. The index of child malnutrition is calculated by the number of children under the age of 5 with below-normal weight. This year (1996), 5.9% of Brazilian children are malnourished, when international rates are about 2%. It is therefore self-evident that programmes designed to eradicate child malnutrition have a far greater urgency than any attempt to further the cause of Physical Education and physical activities. Physical Education and physical activities as health-promoters thus recede further into the background.
As far as the unemployed are concerned, physical education and physical activities can offer a meaningful leisure activity and help to counterbalance excessive disposable time. Unfortunately, as stated above, school physical education in Brazil does not prepare children for free-time or leisure, and even less so for unemployment as a social reality. In August 1996 according to the Regional System Foundation for Analysis and Data (FSEAD) and Interunion Department for Statistics and Socio-economic Studies) 15.5% of the economically active population were unemployed. That means that millions of people have not only lost their jobs, but also their individual identity in many cases (Kelvin, 1981). Research has demonstrated that the unemployed tend to experience more solitude, anxiety and lose self-belief (Department of Education and Science, 1983), and suffer from demoralisation and downward social mobility (Jahoda, 1982). Leisure can be extremely valuable in creating opportunities for the development of identity, social relevance, competence and satisfaction (Ingham, 1987). Despite this positive role, leisure activities do not generate money. In fact, lack of money is one of the principal reasons why the unemployed drop out of sports and leisure pursuits - merchandised in consumer society - in the first place. Consequently, access to leisure would have to be predicated on a social development programme which aims to facilitate participation - at present, still very much a remote possibility.

In terms of improved health, leisure and sports can play a key role. There is an acknowledged world-wide obesity crisis (confirmed by the World Health Organisation). The World Health Organisation has included obesity in a group of illnesses which can be fatal. In Brazil, one third of the population (concentrated mostly in the South and south-east) registers a body weight in excess of ideal body weight (where weight is the ratio between height and weight, known as the index of body mass (kg·m2)). In addition to the 8.3% of the population who are obese, 25.1% are overweight; an estimated 150 000 die each year as a result of weight-related problems. Sedentary lifestyles, in the
main necessitated by urbanisation and industrialisation, have exacerbated this problem.

Schools might attempt to manipulate the local environment by increasing the value of fitness as a socially desirable commodity. Involvement of parents and children in physical fitness and health awareness schemes in the community may help transmit fitness values to groups who have yet to be affected by the recent trends towards fitness and healthy lifestyles. Conversely, physical educators may have a role to play in counteracting the overemphasis society places on certain self components, particularly when they become detrimental to self-esteem. Physical appearance dominates self-esteem throughout life (Harter, 1988). It is the major determinant of the physical self-concepts of both males and female college students (Fox and Corbin, 1988b). The evidence suggests that its influence far outweighs that of physical abilities in the structure of the self, and it is a major source of low esteem in females because of the high importance attached to it. An effective fitness education programme might enlighten youngsters to the fashion of slenderness that to be at play, helps them to make a realistic appraisal of their bodies, and suggest changes that are necessary for health but otherwise encourage acceptance (Fox, 1988).

In the last few years, the importance of education for leisure has become apparent in schools. The principal preoccupation has been to increase choice at school, and also teach the individual to make informed and effective decisions. Never the less, the school not only offers opportunities, but also imposes limitations on children. The range of extracurricular activities is extended to but a few adolescents, who come from middle-class backgrounds, are academically successful and have a greater appeal for boys than for girls (Hendry, 1983). This should be changed to opportunity for all, regardless of gender, age, ethnic or religious background.

It is important to stress that the school experiences of adolescents will inevitably have repercussions not only on their attitudes or ability to deal with
work in the world of adults and unemployment, but also for sport and leisure (Coleman and Hendry, 1990).

The pressing question is whether schooling and Physical Education reinforce images of femininity via institutions or teaching practices. Scraton (1989), claims, for instance, that Physical Education remains caught in a trap where it must offer attractive activities for the adolescent girl and thus reinforce the culture of femininity. This situations worsens by virtue of repressive training and ideology inherited from repressive and ideologically limited university courses. Even the most innovative proposals for change, such as coeducational Physical Education, tend to offer only a superficial challenge to the ideology of femininity. Scraton (1986) has argued that Physical Education reflects the economic, social and political status of women at the turn of the last century. There is the clearest evidence that adolescent girls and boys experience school in different ways (Deem, 1980). Within school there exists a strong counter-school feminine culture, just as this is the case for boys. Girls' resistance acquires a peculiarly feminine form, however, challenging the school definition of what it means to be a 'nice girl': good appearance, neatness, passivity, assiduousness and politeness (Coleman and Hendry, 1990). It is important to underline the importance of appearance as a form of adolescent girls' resistance. The use of make-up, jewellery and changes to the uniform are frequently an explicit sexual way to say that they are crossing the line between girlhood and womanhood. Paradoxically, this form of resistance confirms patriarchal power relations in (patriarchally defined) norms of femininity (McRobbie, 1978). Therefore, more research should be encouraged in this area in order to promote the learning and understanding of girls' experiences of school and physical education.

It is pertinent at this stage to examine trends in gender-relation formation in Physical Education and physical activities in Brazil in comparison with other countries. Research studies in this area only really began to mark any presence at the beginning of the 1990s. The work of Romero (1990) was in this regard
highly innovative in its identification of the presence of masculine and feminine stereotypes in Physical Education teachers. Romero concluded that Physical Education reproduces the dominant and discriminatory sexist ideology in sex roles, thus fuelling further sexual inequality. This had been suggested previously by (predominantly) North American and European scholars. Physical Education was identified as promoting and perpetuating the sex role stereotypes acquired elsewhere (Geadelmann, 1980; Hoferek, 1982; Evans, 1984; Graydon, 1984; Scraton, 1987).

The international review of literature above also demonstrated that Physical education ideology applies conventional conceptions of gender differences rooted in traditional social expectations of appropriate behaviour for each sex and in myths and misconceptions related to women's physiology, psychology and perceived female physical ability. These conceptions and myths promote gender divisions in Physical Education through separate sex Physical Education classes with separate sex achievement expectations - a primary source of sex role stereotyping (Hargreaves, 1991).

In her study of the history of Physical Education in the city of Belo Horizonte, Sousa (1994) also demonstrates that this has also been the case in Brazil. She claims:

"Physical Education - by organizing separate classes by sex, by laying down separate teaching contents for women and men, requiring female teachers for girls and male teachers for boys, by characterizing gestures in a sexual manner, moralizing female strips and habits of hygiene amongst other procedures - makes explicit values enshrined by the cultural tradition of society." (p.211)

In Brazil, despite the very belated introduction of gender investigations in Physical Education in the 1990s, the polemic about the question of gender division had already arisen in São Paulo on the occasion of the selection of
female and male Physical Education classes. In observation of the anti-discrimination legislation, teachers were allowed to opt for mixed sex Physical Education classes, thus breaking with the traditional norm that only female teachers could teach girls and male teachers boys (Corpo e Movimento, 1984). In the neighbouring state of Minas Gerais, the gender debate took off as late as 1991, also as a result of changes in teaching norms in the public school system in Belo Horizonte (Sousa, 1994). In the state of Espírito Santo, separate sex classes remain firmly in place (Romero, 1994).

The 1990s in Brazil have been marked by changes to the university curriculum which put an end to the distinction between female and male student in Physical Education. Some schools of Physical Education, such as the Federal University of Viçosa in Minas Gerais, introduced as early as 1990 mixed sex studies, thus enabling equal training of female and male Physical Education teachers. Courses in Physical Education had once been separated according to sex, with at times absurd distortions in the quest to offer equal treatment to female and male students in Physical Education in relation to the number of hours in the curriculum.

In concrete terms, dance was considered the equivalent of football, rhythmic gymnastics of judo, gymnastics for men of gymnastics for women. Although this absurd gender separation appears to have been eliminated in the case of obligatory disciplines, in elective subjects conventional conceptions continue to obtain. For example, when a university department offers 11 different sports, of which the student must take 6, men and women continue to elect their disciplines in accordance with traditional gender expectations.

The current situation can change only if there is an increase in professional market demand for teachers who teach mixed-sex groups. However, this fact alone will in no way vouchsafe change. There must also be changes in pedagogy in university Physical Education courses in order to make teaching methodologies in putatively male- or female-only sports attractive to both men and women, and of course to the teacher her/himself.
Subsequent to the polemic about mixed-sex teaching, attention turned to the need to train teachers to react appropriately to mixed groups. At the same times, difficulties began to emerge in the face of new mixed-sex classes against the background of the old sexism which pervades Physical Education teaching practices (Sousa, 1994).

There is, then, a considerable degree of similarity between findings for North America/Europe and the conclusions reached by Brazilian researchers in their recent studies on mixed-sex teaching of Physical Education. Arguments for and against this new practice differ widely.

Some teachers point to the administrative inviability of redesigning the school timetable to attend to the changes (Galucci Neto, 1984). However, his charge can be countered with some ease when compared with ideological arguments, adduced in the defence of separate sex-teaching. Some team sports should not, it is believed, be practised by both sexes (Abreu, 1984). In mixed classes, sex discrimination would become all the more acute, with a concomitant reluctance on the part of boys to venture into teams with girls (Abreu, 1995). In addition, ideological arguments make use of the dearth of appropriately trained personnel (surely a rather circular undertaking this) in order to claim the inviability of new practices, alleging even bodily danger in the case of women teachers of schools in the notoriously violent São Paulo suburbs (Lucena, 1984).

On the other hand, arguments in favour of co-education hold up the value of shared experience for boys and girls. This in turn will facilitate conflict-resolution and discussion and even open up the possibility of a discussion of the prevailing sex stereotypes (Abreu, 1995). For this to take place, however, there will have to be an appropriate change in teacher training.

Present realities in Brazilian Physical Education in terms of the gender question tend to lend (at least theoretical) support to the idea that coeducation is the most appropriate step forward. This is balanced by concerns that a boy
defeated by a girl, for instance, may suffer deleterious effects on his development at a sensitive age!

From these realities the pervasiveness of stereotype, prejudice and discrimination in Brazilian Physical Education remains clear. The corollary is the curricular alienation of girls from Physical Education, depriving them of the chance to acquire a full range of sporting skills (Burden, 1988; Hoferek, 1980; Scraton, 1986; Humberstone, 1986; Carrington and Leaman, 1986).

The present study showed that sports are still sex-typed; the variety of sports appropriate for women are more centred in those sports in which the emphasis is on aesthetic movements, appearance and health enhancement. The consequence for women is the maintenance of low levels of participation in team sports which demand physical contact and individual sports centred on activities developing muscularity, risk, speed, and long distances. Those women involved in sporting activities such as weight lifting, basketball, football, bodybuilding, etc., will still be stigmatised, their efforts minimised, trivialised (Kane and Snyder, 1989), or even associated with lesbianism, because physical prowess is admired only when it is displayed in the form of a beauty object (Gilroy, 1989). This is alarming because the figures of girls' participation in sport in the present study indicate the majority of them are embracing sporting activities whose the main objective is physical appearance enhancement, grace, and aesthetics, thus promoting their own oppression.

The future points to further perpetuation of sports typology according to gender while women maintain their interests in sports considered stereotypically feminine centred on displaying their bodies as an object for admiration. This perpetuation of sports typology also means perpetuation of women's oppression and the dominant masculine hegemony in the sports world (Theberge, 1985). Physicality through body size or muscularity is the major symbol of masculine power (Hargreaves, 1987). Because one common criteria for classifying certain sports according to each gender is physicality, typically feminine sports tend to be less important, therefore, less powerful. This is why
many researchers find it easy to understand why sport typology according to gender is essential for maintenance of masculine hegemony in sports (Kane and Snyder, 1989).

Sport typologies are considered by some to be a form of control as a means to minimise and "contain" the involvement of women in specific forms of sport (Kane and Snyder, 1989). In this way, cultural constructions legitimate the notion of equal opportunities, but at the same time maintain the ideology of male supremacy. Thus, sport typology has fuelled functions of hegemony maintenance by allowing the continuance of male domination in sport through the supervvalorization of more physical or "masculine" sports. In order to perpetuate the status quo cultural constructions use these mechanisms to depress the entry of women into traditionally male sporting preserves; sport typology fuels precisely this. The result is manifest when one observes that women athletes continue to be barred from the majority of sports typified as "masculine".

However, in the 1990s, in Brazil, as in mostly Western countries, many women are daring to enter the 'masculine' domain of stereotypically men's sports in spite of having to face the widespread homophobia in the sports world. Heterosexuality in the gender order, obliging many women to prove femininity and heterosexuality not only in international competitive sports events but in their everyday lives. In an attempt to avoid the lesbian label they adopt an 'apologetic' behaviour, that is, they exaggerate their feminine appearance wearing clothes, hairstyles, and make-up that is overtly feminine.

There has been a tendency for several Brazilian female elite athletes to appear in magazines and newspaper in supposedly artistic sensual nude poses, including pregnant athletes. In addition, they openly discuss their private lives, talking about boyfriends, husbands, children, and many of them emphasise that they are anti-feminists because feminism in Brazil still suggests the idea of a movement initiated by women who were ugly, unloved, men-haters, and therefore, possibly lesbians.
Taking into account the social, economic, religious, and essentially patriarchal background of Brazilian women, for a female athlete to thrive in a context heavily dominated by ambiguous messages about women athletes such behaviors are not difficult to understand. However, is that the price women should pay to enjoy playing whatever sport they want? The question now is to know how these women feel 'playing men's games'. Are they really 'winning the game'? The right answers inevitably rest in the hands of each woman and her conceptions of the ends of sports and physical activities in her life. More importantly, the future of women in sports will inevitably be dependent on how gender relations are progressing in each society, culture, and country.

The future points to the fact that more and more women are going out to work and double working hours will be the most common pattern. As research has demonstrated, women do not play sports and practice physical activities because they do not have time available due to their domestic responsibilities. Unless women learn that they have the right to negotiate and share with men such responsibilities as housework and child rearing, changes in the current patterns of sport participation will be most improbable.

This year (1996), the Ministry for Education and Culture proposed the introduction of sexual education classes in schools and has been roundly criticized by various segments of society, most notably the Church, through the National Confederation of Brazilian Bishops. The proposal may be seen as valid and innovative since it suggests that sex guidance should "sheer sexuality of its taboos, affirming sexuality to be a source of pleasure and life". Furthermore, for "manifestations of childhood sexuality" the Ministry proposes that the educator offer limits, while demonstrating the "understanding that such manifestations are pleasurable and are part of the development of all human beings" (Folha de Sao Paulo, 27/9/1996).

At the same time, the most noteworthy aspect of the proposal is the emphasis given to gender relations. "The proposal does not reduce sexuality merely to the genitalia and the sexual. Sexuality needs to embody the question
of pleasure, of relationships with the other, and respect for gender differences. The ability to love is a result of all this” (Folha de Sao Paulo, 28/09/1996).

Throughout this study, the most evident constant factor was the question of gender relations. This obviously includes power relations and the consequent hierarchy of gender and its implications not only in the decision of the woman to participate or not in sports and physical activities but in the form her participation takes when she opts to do so. Perhaps the most important step toward broadening women's participation in sport lies in the improvement in gender relations. This may then dovetail very neatly with the proposals of the Brazilian government and the GTPOS - Grupo de Trabalho e Pesquisa em Orientação Sexual (Suplicy et al., 1995).
In this epilogue, I shall relate my own personal experience as a professional in sports education and to the debate about women's participation in sport, in the conviction that "... research did not develop from a desire to investigate a specific problem that was 'out there' requiring explanation and proof." (Scraton, 1988). I defend the idea that just as the responses of the questionnaire subjects were central to my investigations on the invisibility of adolescent girls in sport, so too my personal experience as a sport subject cannot be overlooked. In the final analysis, it was as an active female participant that I myself engaged in a range of sports throughout my adolescence, such as basketball, athletics and volleyball.

The research presented here is the fruit of 22 years of study and lecturing experience in the field of Physical Education. As a mother of two girls, I have also been in a position to observe how they rise to motor challenges in the home and thus provide a well-equipped research laboratory in which sport socialisation can be observed at work.

The pleasure I derived from sports participation flourished in childhood in a small provincial town in a family environment where both parents gave full support to participation in the belief that this is fundamental to physical well-being. At the same time, my most vivid memory is that of the élan, pleasure and joy my brothers exuded in their physical and sporting activities. I considered these experiences to be entirely normal for boys and do not recall having envied them for this.
I played with my girlfriends in the garden or in the street, although I knew that my mother did not fully agree with these activities. While I played, I was constantly aware that I might be called into the house at any moment without any apparent reason. Often, I would have to sneak out in order to play in the street (I shall refer more specifically to the type of games played later).

On entering high-school I was formally introduced to sport in Physical Education and enjoyed the opportunity to experience various forms of sport. I no longer recall what made me enjoy sports, but from this moment onwards, sports became a central feature in my life. I believe that the school I attended, my Physical Education teachers and the pleasure I experienced in sports and physical activities contributed to my initial involvement in sports. I also believe that sport was a passport to a different lifestyle, and would provide me with experiences which, as a woman, I could never have outside sport.

Participation in sporting events also required a large amount of travelling, to which, to my relief, my parents did not object. This was one of the outcomes of sports training I particularly enjoyed. Immediately prior to the end of secondary schooling I became a primary school sports teacher, through a primary school teacher training course in children's Physical Education, with its emphasis on child-appropriate activities. This experience equipped me formally with the children's games which had been very much part of my childhood as a young girl. It is curious to recall that despite teaching girls and boys, I received no training in boys games.

My university involvement with sports and physical education began with the Physical Education course at the University of São Paulo at the beginning of the 1970s. As a woman, I received a special training, quite distinct from that given to male students. The emphasis was on gymnastics, dance and children's games. In addition to athletics, female students were trained to teach only in volleyball and basketball. Handball was on the point of being introduced, together with weight-lifting, but only as a specific form of training for other sports. Martial arts and football were deemed impossible for female
students. Further emphases included the technical and medical aspects of the sports mentioned above.

Until this time, research had been almost exclusively concerned with such typically female sports. Psychology had only recently been introduced, and little attention was devoted to pedagogy and sociology. I vividly remember that at this time, the principal course in Physical Education in Brazil entirely neglected the subject of women in sports. At the same time, I remember the veiled conversations about suspicions of lesbianism raised against women whose behaviour fell outside the norms of femininity of the age. I graduated in 1974 and in 1976 assumed my first lecturing post in tertiary education.

I can say today that the study presented above has its origins in the 1980s, when I took a Masters degree in PE in Brazil. As a lecturer I had always been concerned with maintaining a link between my teaching duties and the wider benefits sports participation creates for children and adolescents and adults, be they men or women. At that time, my interests were dominated by child development, and, as a Physical Education lecturer, I decided to investigate the extent to which neuromotor-perceptive development can influence learning and, more particularly, literacy.

The development of this study required an evaluation of the neuro-psychomotor development of Brazilian children (Myotin, 1983). Existing research then predicted that girls should exhibit better motor performance, by virtue of their earlier maturation in relation to boys (Connoly and Brown, 1968; Cratty, 1971; Singer, 1975; Tanner, 1971; Zaickowski et al., 1980).

My research into Brazilian children at this time did not, however, confirm this prediction, since no difference was detected between girls and boys. In my discussion of this result, I argued that boys had overcome the initial disadvantage in relation to later maturation by virtue of the greater opportunities for motor experience imposed by cultural conditioning, as Malina (1981) had also suggested.
Whereas, on the one hand, this finding represented a confirmation of the opinion of classical authors who defended the need for motor experience for motor development (Espenchade and Eckert, 1967; Malina, 1980; Piaget, 1973), on the other, a number of implications resulted for education and girls' motor development. In my conclusion I asked:

... the challenges of learning at school, in relation to neuro-psychomotor development, are not differentiated according to sex and, in consequence, both require the same basic conditions in order to overcome them. If there is cultural conditioning which favours boys' development and inhibits the full development of girls' potentials in the process of maturation, this raises the question: to what extent do these limitations persist and what are the long-term implications of such a fact? (Myotin, 1983, p.110)

This interrogation on the differences between boys and girls was perhaps the first seed from which my subsequent reflections and interrogations on why such differences exist between girls and boys in the first instance, and why women are frequently considered inept in movement.

By the mid-1980s, after continued reflection on this subject, I took up the Cooper movement, imported from the USA and took part in road races promoted by Avon. In reality, this experience flowed directly into the studies which produced this doctoral thesis.

Neither long-distance running nor marathon races had featured amongst my plans for my sporting preferences. It is a matter of conjecture whether this was due to dislike for such races, or whether I also considered them inappropriate for women. For this reason, I planned, organised and devoted many hours per week for training purposes. So doing, I learnt that even in the 1980s discrimination persisted against women runners in Brazil. Conventional perceptions questioned the moral standing of a woman who took to the streets
in shorts and deemed it gender-inappropriate. In conventional understanding, a woman is not entitled to leisure or physical activity, and her place is firmly in the home. While my training reflected social exclusion procedures, my male colleagues who also took part, were praised for their masculine behaviour.

Despite such ill-feeling, I reached the goal of taking part in marathon races. I took part, not in the expectation of a medal, but in the pursuit of a physical challenge and a sharing of experiences with other men and women. The sense of success derived primarily from this overcoming of physical and social barriers.

My running experiences raised a range of questions; but the key factor which influenced this thesis was the participation of 6 000 women in road races. I asked myself: what do we have in common which propels us to overcome all the social barriers and become a sports participant? More appropriately: What distinguished us from other women in our sports participation? The doctoral research I started at the Loughborough University in 1988 was an attempt to respond to these questions and, indeed, overcome them.

My first reading in the bibliographical review indicated that the roots of adult women's non-participation lay in some remote area, still in adolescence, which would have an impact on behaviours and attitudes. I learned that adolescence is a crucial stage in determining future sports participation. In reality, this confirmed the continuity theory (Atchley, 1977).

In 1996, at the point of concluding this arduous, but none the less pleasurable and stimulating undertaking, I should like to return to continuity theory and propose and justify a cultural study of childhood for boys and girls before the age of ten.

In the present study it emerged that 14.4% found that "I like to exercise" is not an important or not very important reason to play sports and 5.3% indicated that they did not like very much or did not like at all to play sports. Based on this data, a participation rate of 85% might be expected. However, the
sports participation rate amounted to only 42.8%. This finding provides some evidence that additional factors are at play here which were not the explicit object of analysis, which divert girls from sports and which may have in their origins in childhood. It may also be, as suggested by the longitudinal study conducted by Pease and Anderson (1986), that the most important period for the formation of attitudes in relation to sports participation occurs before 10-12 years of age.

Another important finding which underlines the importance of a more thoroughgoing analysis of the deep factors which determine low sports participation levels in this context is the study of Brazilian institutions with greatest influence on sports participation. The multiple regression analyses explained only between 11% and 41% of the variation in sport participation in the study of the influence of family, school, peer-groups, community and childhood participation. As in other studies, it was expected that childhood participation would be the principal factor which would explain a good deal of the total variance (Greendorfer, 1987), but in reality, this accounted for a mere 1% of the sport participation of the total sample.

Prima facie, this unexpected finding is a flagrant contradiction of the theory of continuity (Atchley, 1977), but a more detailed analysis reveals that this theory, in reality, not only partially confirmed continuity in sporting habits - 47.3% of the 641 girls who practise sports today affirmed that they had also practised sports in childhood. In addition, these data may also indicate a major part of the absence of sporting habits in this sample - the sports participation index of the total sample lay below that of childhood rates (before the age of 10) - circa 42% - and remained thus in adolescence. Moreover, 35.5% of the 856 girls who do not practise sports today are also considered non-participants in childhood.

On the other hand, the fact that 39% of childhood practitioners dropped out at the time of the application of the questionnaire and 28.6% of childhood non-participants became participants, suggests that other values relative to
childhood and not the explicit subject of analysis in this study, were influencing the sporting behaviour of girls. The determinants of such value-formation will be the subject of my subsequent empirical analyses of sports gender stereotyping in the mass-media in Brazil. This will include analyses of television broadcasts for children and the thematisation of sports in children's comics, such as the series *Turma da Mônica*, a veritable institution in Brazil.
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This questionnaire is part of a study which aims to explore the interest in sports and physical activities during leisure-time in addition to the feelings and opinions a young person of your age might have about life in general. You are one of 2000 young people from Sao Paulo and Minas Gerais who will take part in the study. Since you are the best person to help us in this study, we would be grateful if you could answer this questionnaire. We remind you that there are no correct answers. There is no need to write your name in the questionnaire; your teacher, friends or family will not read your answers. If you have any difficulty in filling in this questionnaire, please ask the person who has given you the questionnaire for help.

Thank you very much for your help

EMILY MYOTIN
Department of Physical Education
Federal University of Viçosa – Minas Gerais
BRAZIL
Number:  
Identification number:  
Name of school:  
school year:  
Sex:  (1) ..... Female  (2) ..... Male  
Age: ..... years ..... months  
Profession of father/guardian:  
Profession of mother/guardian:  

PART I

YOUR INTEREST AND INVOLVEMENT IN SPORTS AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES OUTSIDE SCHOOL

1 - Are you currently a member of a sports club?  
Circle the number which best represents your answer.  
Yes 1  
No  2  

2 - During the current year have you played outside school any of the physical activities or sports listed below? (If you no longer play any of them, answer question number 5).  
For each activity circle the number which best represents how often you play per week; write also the total hours per week.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Hours/week</th>
<th>Place of practice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Basketball</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>b) Volleyball</td>
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<tr>
<td>c) Aerobics</td>
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<tr>
<td>d) Cycling</td>
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<tr>
<td>e) Gymnastics</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Karate</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>g) Roller skating</td>
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<td>h) Ice skating</td>
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<tr>
<td>i) Sailing</td>
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<tr>
<td>j) Tennis</td>
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<tr>
<td>k) Table tennis</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>l) Weight lifting</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>m) Football</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n) Handball</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>o) Athletics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p) Dance/ballet/jazz</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q) Jogging</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r) Judo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s) Swimming</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t) Boxing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u) Baseball</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other(s) not listed above:  
........................................................................................................................................
3 - If you have played one or more of the activities listed above write down why you have played it/then.

4 - If you have never practised any sport or physical activities outside school write down why.

5 - Answer this question only if you have practised any sport or physical activity outside school but have given up recently (before January 1991).

5a - Which sport(s) did you play? ...........................................

5b - Below there is a list of reasons for giving up practising sports or physical activities outside school mentioned by young people of your age. Please indicate how applicable each reason is to your case.

Circle the appropriate number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>not at all</th>
<th>not very applicable</th>
<th>fairly applicable</th>
<th>very applicable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I had other things to do.....1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not like the pressure...1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not have enough fun.....1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It took too much time of my life.....1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not like the teacher/coach.....1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My friends did not play with me.....1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The training was too hard.....1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The activity made me too tense.....1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not like the exhaustion.....1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was afraid of making fool of myself because of lack of ability.....1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was not as good as I wanted to be.....1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was too competitive.....1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There was too much emphasis on winning.....1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not play enough.....1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The place was not convenient.....1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others: illness/injuries/moving house.....1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Specify other reasons: ..........................................................................................................................
6 - If you wanted to, which sports or physical activities could you easily learn or practise near your home?

7 - Which sports or physical activities would you like to be able to learn or practise near your home?

8 - Which mark would you give to yourself in sports or vigorous physical activities?

   1  Not good at all
   2  Poor
   3  Average
   4  Good
   5  Very good

9 - How important is it for you that you be good in sports and physical activities?

   1  Not at all important
   2  Not very important
   3  Fairly important
   4  Important
   5  Very important

10 - How much do you like playing sports or doing physical activities?

   1  Don't like at all
   2  Don't like very much
   3  Like a little
   4  Like
   5  Like very much

11 - In your opinion, how often do you play sports or do vigorous physical activities?

   1  Never
   2  Rarely
   3  Regularly
   4  Frequently
   5  Very frequently
You will find below a list of motives for playing sports or doing physical activities given by young people of your age. Indicate how important these motives are for you.

Circle the number which best represents your answer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motive</th>
<th>Not at all important</th>
<th>Not very important</th>
<th>Fairly important</th>
<th>Very important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) I want to have fun.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) I want to be in shape.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) I want to be physically able.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) I want to be healthy.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) I want to improve my skills.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6) I like the team spirit.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7) I like the challenge.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8) I like to exercise.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9) I like to be in a team.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10) I like to compete.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11) I like to do something I'm good at.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12) I want to learn new skills.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13) I like to make new friends.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14) I like the action.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15) I like to win.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16) I like the teacher/coach.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17) I like to be with my friends.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18) I like to use the equipment/facilities.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19) I like to get out of the house.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20) I like to travel.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21) I want to be popular/gain recognition.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22) I want to release tension.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23) My parents want me to play.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24) I want to be stronger.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25) I want to be great athlete.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26) I like experiencing beauty in movement.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Have you ever represented a club outside school in any sport or physical activities?

Circle the number which best represents your answer.

Yes 1
No 2

If the answer is Yes, please, specify the activities: ...........................................................
.................................................................................................................................
.................................................................................................................................
.................................................................................................................................
14) Answer this question only if you have never played any sport or physical activities outside school.
Below you will find a list of reasons for not playing sport or physical activities given by young people of your age.
Indicate how applicable each reason is to your case: circle the appropriate number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>not at all</th>
<th>not very applicable</th>
<th>fairly applicable</th>
<th>very applicable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) No programmes available.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Facilities not available/convenient</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) I had no time</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) I didn't have physical ability.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) There was no transport to get me there</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) I didn't have enough money</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) I had others things to do</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) I was not interested.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) I was afraid to go out in the evening</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j) My friends didn't play.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k) I was not in shape.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l) I'm too lazy.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m) I am not competitive.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n) I didn't feel at ease in public.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Specify other motives:...............................................................................................................
...............................................................................................................

15 - In the places listed below, how many opportunities are there for you to play sports or to do physical activities?
In each row circle the appropriate number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>none</th>
<th>few</th>
<th>some</th>
<th>several</th>
<th>many</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) School (not PE classes)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Sports centre</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Club</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Neighbourhood streets</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) At home - back garden or playground</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Public park</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
16 - How far are the places listed below from your house? How many street blocks away?
In each row circle the appropriate number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>more than 17</th>
<th>16</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>3 or less than 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) School with sporting facilities</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Sports centre</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Club</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Public park</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17 - Do you find easy or difficult to learn new sports skills or physical activities?
Circle the appropriate number

1 Very difficult
2 Difficult
3 Neither difficult nor easy
4 Easy
5 Very easy

PART II

PHYSICAL EDUCATION (PE) CLASSES

1 - Here you will find a list of subjects taught in your school. We would like you to say of each subject if you like it very much (5), like (4), neither like nor dislike (3), dislike (2), or dislike it very much (1).
Circle one number in each line.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>like very much</th>
<th>like</th>
<th>neither like</th>
<th>dislike</th>
<th>dislike very much</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Sciences (Physics/Biology/Chemistry/etc.)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Maths (Geometry/Algebra/etc.)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Social studies (History/Moral &amp; Civic Education)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Portuguese</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Physical Education</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Foreign languages (English, French, etc.)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) Artistic education (Music, Arts, etc.)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2 - Which activities/games you have in PE classes in the current year?

1 Football
2 Indoor football
3 Basketball
4 Volleyball
5 Athletics
6 Handball
7 Dance/Jazz
8 Aerobics
9 Swimming
10 Gymnastics

Specify others: .................................................................
...................................................................................
...................................................................................

3 - Which activities not offered in your PE classes you would like to see introduced? List below.
...................................................................................
...................................................................................
...................................................................................

4 - Below there is a list of statements relating to sports and physical education. We would like you to say for each one if you strongly agree (5), agree (4), neither agree nor disagree (3), disagree (2), or strongly disagree (1).

Circle the appropriate number following each statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Neither Agree nor Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) I learn games in PE classes.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) I am good at PE.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) I sometimes feel that my arms and legs are not doing what I want them to do in PE and games.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) I don't like trying a new activity in PE in case someone laughs at me.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) I learn discipline in PE classes.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) I like team sports.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) I learn gymnastics in PE classes.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) I like individual sports.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) I don't like competing with others; I would rather compete against myself - as in a fitness test.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j) I learn sport skills in PE classes.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k) I think PE is a worthwhile activity at school.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l) I learn health and fitness in PE classes.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m) I like my current PE teacher.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n) I learn social satisfaction/enjoyment in PE</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o) I like indoor activities</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p) I like outdoor activities</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5 - In comparison with other schoolgirls, how would you rate yourself on athletic ability on a scale of 1 to 7?

Circle the appropriate number

1 Much below average
2 Below average
3 Slightly below average
4 Average
5 Slightly above average
6 Above average
7 Much above average

6 - Have you ever represented your school in any sport or physical activities?

Which activities?........................................................................................................
..............................................................................................................................

Circle the number which best represents how often per week you trained the activity.

1 Never
2 Once a week
3 Twice a week
4 Three times per week
5 Four times per week
6 More than four times per week

7 - If you have never represented your school in any sport or physical activity, would you be interested in doing so?

Circle the number which best represents your answer.

Yes 1
No 2

Specify the activities you would find interesting: .......................................................
PART III

INTEREST AND/OR INVOLVEMENT OF YOUR FAMILY, PE TEACHER AND FRIENDS IN SPORTS AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

1 - How often do the following people play sports or do physical activities?
Note: Circle 0 (zero) if the person doesn't exist, doesn't live with you, or you don't know the answer.
In each row circle the appropriate number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>not applicable</th>
<th>never</th>
<th>rarely</th>
<th>regularly</th>
<th>frequently</th>
<th>very frequently</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Father/male guardian</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Mother/female guardian</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Older brother</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Younger brother</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Older sister</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Younger sister</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) Female friend</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) Male friend</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) Boyfriend</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 - How important is it to the following people that you are good in sports and physical activities?
Note: Circle 0 (zero) if the the person doesn't exist, doesn't live with you, or you don't know the answer.
In each row circle the appropriate number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>not applicable</th>
<th>not very important</th>
<th>not important</th>
<th>fairly important</th>
<th>very important</th>
<th>very important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Father/male guardian</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Mother/female guardian</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Female friend</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Male friend</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Boyfriend</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) PE teacher/coach</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3 - How much encouragement/discouragement do you receive from the following people to play sports and do physical activities?

Note: Circle 0 [zero] if the person doesn't exist, doesn't live with you, or you don't know the answer.
In each row circle the appropriate number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>not applicable</th>
<th>strongly discouraged</th>
<th>discouraged</th>
<th>neither encouraged nor strongly discouraged</th>
<th>encouraged</th>
<th>strongly encouraged</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Father/male guardian</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Mother/female guardian</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Older brother</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Younger brother</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Older sister</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Younger sister</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) Female friend</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) Male friend</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) Boyfriend</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j) PE teacher/coach</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4 - How accepted are you by your friends with respect to your skill or ability in physical activities and sports?

Circle the appropriate number

1 Not accepted
2 Not very accepted
3 Slightly accepted
4 Accepted
5 Very accepted

PART IV

SPORTS AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES DURING CHILDHOOD

1 - How often did you engage in sports and physical activities as a child (before the age of 10)?

Circle the appropriate number

1 Never
2 Rarely
3 Regularly
4 Frequently
5 Very frequently
2 - Describe a masculine boy of your age.

3 - Compared to other girls I know, I would see my femininity on a scale of 1 to 7 as...

Circle the appropriate number

1 Much below average
2 Below average
3 Slightly below average
4 Average
5 Slightly above average
6 Above average
7 Much above average

4 - From the following list of sports and physical activities indicate which you consider to be more suitable for males (circle number 1), for females (circle number 2) or suitable for both sexes (circle number 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>Don't know</th>
<th>Suitable for males</th>
<th>Suitable for females</th>
<th>Suitable for both sexes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Basketball</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Volleyball</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Handball</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Aerobics</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Athletics</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Cycling</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) Football</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) Dance</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) Gymnastics</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j) Equestrianism</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k) Jogging</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l) Motorcycling</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m) Ice skating</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n) Roller skating</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o) Swimming</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p) Table tennis</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q) Tennis</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r) Rowing</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s) Sailing</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t) Water skiing</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u) Weight lifting</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v) Wind surfing</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w) Karate</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x) Judo</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5 - Here you will find a list of statements related to women's participation in sport. We would like you to say for each one if you strongly agree (5), agree (4), neither agree nor disagree (3), disagree (2), or strongly disagree (1). Circle the appropriate number following each statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) If a girl is taking sports seriously, it can affect her feminine image. ..........5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) If a girl is taking sports seriously, it can reduce her dating opportunities. ..........5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) I think there is a great prejudice against women in sport - they are considered lesbians. ..........5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Girls should play only feminine sports, i.e., which don't demand strength, violence or speed. ..........5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Girls should not play sports because they become muscular. .......................5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Girls should not play sports which demand body contact as in basketball and football. ..........5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6 - When you were a child (before the age of 10), how often were you called a "tomboy" because you enjoyed climbing trees, play with boys' toys or boys' games?

Circle the appropriate number

1 Never
2 Rarely
3 Regularly
4 Frequently
5 Very frequently
PART VI

YOUR HABITS, FEELINGS, OPINIONS, HOPES, AND INTERESTS

1 - Here you will find a list of professions which you could take up. We would like you to say for each profession if you have never dreamed to take it up (1), or rarely dreamed (2), regularly dreamed (3), frequently dreamed (4), or very frequently dreamed to take it up (5). Circle the appropriate number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Regularly</th>
<th>Frequently</th>
<th>Very Frequently</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Artist</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Model</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Nurse</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Stewardess</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Scientist</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Plane pilot</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) Ballerina</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) Teacher</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) Lecturer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j) Elite athlete</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k) Housewife</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 - The sentences below are related to feelings someone might have towards her/himself. We would like you to say if you strongly agree (5), agree (4), neither agree nor disagree (3), disagree (2), or strongly disagree (1). Circle the appropriate number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentence</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Neither Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) I don't like myself the way I am.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) There are a lot of things I would like to change, but not completely.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) I'd like to stay very much as I am; there is very little I'd change.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3 - With whom do you go out most often?

Circle the appropriate number.

1. I go out alone
2. With boyfriend
3. With male friends
4. With female friends
5. With a group of boys and girls
6. With members of your family/relatives

4 - We present below a list of attributes which might contribute to making a girl popular or desirable to boys. For each attribute we would like you to circle the number 1 if you consider it not important; number 2, not very important; number 3, fairly important; number 4, important; number 5, very important.

Circle the appropriate number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>not important</th>
<th>not very important</th>
<th>fairly important</th>
<th>important</th>
<th>very important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) to be a good dancer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) to dress fashionably</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) to dress properly</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) to have a good reputation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) to have money</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) to smoke</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) to drink</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) to know about the latest of pop music</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) to know about cars</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j) to know about famous film stars</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k) to play sports or do exercise</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l) to know about sports</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m) to be a famous athlete</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n) to get high grades at school</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>o) to come from a good family</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p) to be the crowd leader</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q) to be beautiful</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r) to wear the latest sports shoes model</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Specify other attributes: .................................................................
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
........................................................................................................
5 - Which of the activities below mentioned do you do during your free time and how many times per week? In each line circle the appropriate number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>never</th>
<th>once</th>
<th>twice</th>
<th>3 times</th>
<th>4 times</th>
<th>+4 times</th>
<th>hours per week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Listening to music</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Attendance at sports competitions</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Watching television</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Going shopping/window shopping</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Reading books, magazines or newspapers</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Practising sports or physical activities</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) Going to a discotheque</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) Dating</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) Going to the cinema</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j) Cooking for pleasure</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k) Sewing, knitting and other crafts</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l) Other activities</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Specify which activity(ies):

6 - Specify below 3 (three) favourite activities you do during your free time.

1: .........................................................................................................................
2: .........................................................................................................................
3: .........................................................................................................................

7 - Do you work?
Circle the appropriate number.

Yes 1
No 2

8 - If you work, how many hours per week?

...... hours

9 - Describe below which kind of work you do.

.................................................................................................................................