

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION (SETTING THE STAGE)

A woman has to be twice as good as a man to make it half as far. [Fanny Hurst]

1.1 Setting the Stage

In this thesis, I will investigate girls' and boys' sports participation in Malaysia. The areas are gender typing in sports participation, the relationship between gender and stereotypes, perceptions and influences and the relationship between gender within ethnicities in relation to stereotyping, perception and influences.

This thesis demonstrates the importance of gender by itself and in conjunction with ethnicities in understanding sports participation.

The purpose of this thesis is to test the theory of equality that relates to gender and ethnicity (these variables will be the independent variable in this research) to gender typing of sports and its relationship to stereotyping, perception and influences (the dependant variable) for boys and girls at urban schools in the Klang Valley. Independent variable is the variable that influences the values of the dependant variable and the dependant variable is the variable where the values are foretold by the independent variable (Collis & Hussey, 2009).

1.2 Problem Statement

The issue of equal participation of boys and girls in sports is an area of concern and a condition that needs to be improved. Traditionally, boys are expected to participate in sports and this is not expected of girls and therefore girls have not been provided with the

same opportunities for participation in sports as boys. It is a troubling question that exists in scholarly literature, in theory and in practice and much has been said about gender equity in sports as being tied to gender ideology and in how people think about masculinity and femininity. Sports has been always considered to be a unification factor for young children however the issue is whether participation of sports is influenced by less apparent relations to gender differences due to the various ethnicities interactions.

Therefore, there is a need for a meaningful understanding of this problem towards addressing the issues of gender and ethnicity in sports participation. In my study the focus is on the gender typing of sports, people's perception of gender stereotyping of sports, masculine and feminine values in sports participation and family and society's influence in sports participation which are factors that may limit the development of equal participation of boys and girls from various ethnicities in sports.

1.3 Research Background

Traditionally, sports are popular among men (Duquin 1988). Duquin explained over a decade ago, being feminine is incompatible with the "sado-asceticism" of aggressive sports, which are designed to prepare boys and young men for the physical sacrifices of adult competition, particular war: "Females are expected to keep their sympathies and values off the sporting-field". In our society, the types of traditional sports and games are *sepak takraw*, kite flying and top spinning. These were outdoor games. However, the women played indoor games such as *congkak* and *batu seremban*. There was very little development and variety in sports then. The reason for this was because before Independence in Malaysia, the people were financially disadvantaged, they were mainly

farmers and fishermen, and most times were taken up in harvesting and livelihood activities therefore there were no time for luxurious sports.

In 1826 the British took over Melaka (from the Dutch), and ruled Penang and Singapore under the East India Company in Calcutta (Turnbull C.M., 2002). The British formed their own colony states of the Peninsula called the Straits Settlement and intervened with many previously independent states. In the late 19th Century, the British education system was introduced which included sports. Sports like football, rugby, cricket and hockey were introduced for boys and sports like hockey and netball for girls in schools.

Since then sports permeate our everyday culture. In fact, the modern definition of culture will include sports (Moyo, 2008). Sports establish and provide a strong foundation in the development of early childhood. Today, in most Malaysian schools, sports are not emphasised as strongly as compared to academic excellence. Although sports and physical education in school is compulsory there is a lack of female participation or even encouragement in games like rugby, football or *sepak takraw*. The Malaysian School Sports Council (MSSM) runs 24 sports championship in a year, however, at the time of this thesis; the above mentioned games are not open to females. Sports are important especially in schools where physical education is included as a subject as this will allow students to benefit on an overall wellbeing (Sallis et al., 2012).

In some countries like Australia and New Zealand, this has taken place through implementation of policies and legislations. In Australia, “Gender Equity in School Sports” is a policy adopted by the Department of Education in Queensland and it is incorporated in the Department of Education Manual and “The Women and Sports Policy” presents a large area of interest for The Australian Sports Commission. Further, under the Australian Constitution, Education falls within the state jurisdiction therefore each state

would have its own policies and legislations (Equity considerations for the development of curriculum and test materials, 2001).

Therefore, it is important for physical education teachers to motivate all students equally to participate in sports as this will motivate boys and girls to participate in types of physical activity (Ning, Pope, & Gao, 2015), however in Malaysia, the National Sports Council and the Malaysian School Sports Council has to come up with policies and objectives to facilitate greater access and participation of both boys and girls in sports. Studies have been undertaken in Morocco, Egypt, Iran, Iraq and Zanzibar in relation to Muslim women and sports (Walseth & Fasting (2003); Soubhi A.M (1977); Pfister G., K., Fasting, S. Scraton, & B. Vazquez (2002). In these researches it has been found that football may not necessarily represent the cultural value. In fact, this could be seen as a challenge to the cultural values of that society.

1.4 Research Design

Vogt (1993) stated that research design is the “science and art of planning procedure for conducting studies so as to get the most valid findings”. Prior to the construction of research design, the research paradigm has to be ascertained (see chapter 3). This is crucial as it will give important implication to the choice of methodology and methods for collecting data. This also gives inference to the research problem and research questions. Therefore, the first step in a research design is to identify a research problem or issue (as discussed above). In a positivist study, a theoretical framework has to be developed that will lead to hypothesis.

1.5 Research Question and Research Hypothesis

The research question or hypotheses expands on the general direction of the study (purpose statement) by providing details. This is crucial to the research. It has been suggested that a good research question for a positivistic study should express a relationship between variables, should be stated in unambiguous terms in question form and should imply the possibility of empirical testing (Kerlinger, 1986).

From a positivist's perspective, it is recommended that the research questions are followed by hypothesis (Black, 1993).

RQ 1: Are there gender differences in students engaged in gender typing of sports?

No hypothesis required

RQ 2: Do the various ethnicities associate differently in the practice of gender typing of the sports?

Hypothesis 1

There is a significant association in the response of various ethnic groups regarding gender typing of sport.

RQ 3: Does gender influence students view of people's perception of gender stereotyping and its impact in sports participation?

Hypothesis 2

There is a significant difference in male and female's view of people's perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation.

RQ 4: Does gender influence students' perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation?

Hypothesis 3:

There is a significant difference in male and female's view of overall student's perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation.

RQ 5: Does gender impact on family and society's influence in sports participation?

Hypothesis 4:

There is a significant difference in male and female's view of family and society's influence on sports participation

RQ 6: Does ethnicity influence students' view of people's perception of gender stereotyping and its impact in sports participation?

Hypothesis 5:

There is a significant difference in Malays, Chinese and Indian view of people's perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation.

RQ 7: Does ethnicity influence students' perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation?

Hypothesis 6:

There is a significant difference in Malays, Chinese and Indian view of overall student's perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation.

RQ 8: Does ethnicity impact on family and society's influence in sports participation?

Hypothesis 7:

There is a significance difference in Malay, Chinese and Indian view of family and society's influence on sports participation.

RQ 9: Is there a relationship between gender within different ethnicities in gender stereotyping, perception of masculine and feminine values and family and society's influences in sports participation by gender within the various ethnic groups?

Hypothesis 8:

There is a significance difference in students' view of people's perception of **stereotyping** and its impact on sports participation by gender within various ethnic groups

Hypothesis 9:

There is a significant difference in the view of overall student's **perception** of masculine and feminine values in sports participation by gender within various ethnic groups.

Hypothesis 10:

There is a significant difference in family and society's **influence** on sports participation by gender within various ethnic groups

1.6 Research Objectives

1. To examine gender typing of sports between boys and girls and to establish their level of involvement in sports participation
2. To identify if there exists gender typing of sports within various ethnic groups (Malay, Chinese, Indian)
3. To examine students' views of people's perception on gender stereotyping of sports participation and impact on sports participation by gender and ethnicity.
4. To examine students' perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation by gender and ethnicity
5. To determine the extent of family and society's influence on students' participation in sports by gender and ethnicity.
6. To investigate difference in student's views of gender stereotyping in sports participation, student's perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation and family and society's influences in sports participation by gender within various ethnic groups.

1.7 Limitation and Delimitation

A limitation identifies potential weaknesses in the research. Delimitation is how the scope of the study is focused on one particular area. The limitation that was identified was that income could not be considered in the MANOVA testing as when the stratified analysis was undertaken; the category of income was not considered. This delimitation in the research was in relation to the cohort of respondents and the geographical area (predominantly urban middle class). The survey was confined to urban schools in the Klang Valley and the schools were decided upon the approval given by the Head of the School. Due to the category of urban middle class, income was not considered in the sampling frame.

Besides that, for example, Sekolah Menengah Sri Hartamas did not allow students who were sitting for the government exams at the end of the year (Form 3 and Form 5) to be interviewed, although the interview was undertaken in April. Since the questions were answered in the class, the status of the income was questionable as it was filled by the students and therefore income was not used in the analysis of the data but ethnicity and gender were used in the analysis.

1.8 Organisation of the Chapters

This study is divided into 7 chapters. The present chapter (Chapter 1) provides the introduction, Purpose Statement, Research Problem, Research design, Research questions and research hypothesis, Research Objectives, Limitation and delimitation and Organisation of the Chapters. Chapter 2 discusses the literature review, research framework thus exploring the conceptual and theoretical debates of the issues under investigation and hypothesis. Chapter 3 is concerned with the research methodology, research tools and data collection procedures and analysis. Chapter 4 discussed and analysis gender typing of sports and sports participation. Chapter 5 will show if there exists significant association between the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others students in their views as to whether there is a relationship in their responses on types of sports considered suitable for boys, girls or both genders. Chapter 6 established the validity and reliability test on the dependent variables which are student's views of peoples' perception on gender stereotyping, student's perception on masculine and feminine values and family and society's influence and whether there existed a relationship between gender and ethnicity and the three variables as mentioned above. Chapter 7 closed this dissertation with conclusion, summary of findings, implications and directions for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

Chapter 2 begins with a review of literature, conceptual and theoretical literature followed by the development of the conceptual and theoretical framework for this study and ends with hypothesis.

2.1 Literature Review

The literature review begins with the understanding of sports as a social construction. Coakley (1997, p.16) stated that “sports is a part of the social world that are created by people as they interact with one another under particular social, political and economic conditions”. It has been stated that the definition of sports varies from culture to culture and sports has been defined as “it oscillates between game, dance, competition, fights, gymnastics, festivals, rituals, carnival, theater, health techniques, magic, erotic presentation, and other forms of physical culture (Eichberg, 1984). Other explanations given has been “Sports activities and games particularly in their national forms, reflect cultural configurations and stable patterns (Elias & Dunning, 1970). In 2003, the UN Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace (UN Office on Sport for Development and Peace, 2016) defined sport, for the purposes of development, as “all forms of physical activity that contribute to physical fitness, mental well-being and social interaction, such as play, recreation, organized or competitive sport, and indigenous sports and games.” (UN Office on Sport for Development and Peace, 2016). In the area of sports and development, sports is “generally understood to include physical activities that goes beyond competitive sports” (Sport and Development Organisation, 2013) developed the

Sports Development Programme and International Working Group and Right to Play (SDP IWG/Right To Play) defines sport as: “all forms of physical activity that contribute to physical fitness, mental well-being and social interaction, such as play, recreation, organized or competitive sport, and indigenous sports and games.” (Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group (SDP IWG) Secretariat, 2007) The European Sports Charter (2001) defined Sports to as “ all forms of physical activity which, through casual or organized participation, aim at expressing or improving physical fitness and mental well-being, forming relationships or obtaining results in competitions at all levels.” (Council Of Europe, 1992) . Nelson Mandela stated that “ Sport has the power to unite people in a way little else can. Sport can create hope where there was once only despair. It breaks down racial barriers. It laughs in the face of discrimination. Sport speaks to people in a language they can understand” (Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group (SDP IWG) Secretariat, 2007) The Olympic Truce, International Olympic Committee President Jacques Rogge said: “Sport fosters understanding between individuals, facilitates dialogue between divergent communities and breeds tolerance between nations.” (Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group (SDP IWG) Secretariat, 2007). Unicef has defined sports as “‘sport’ as all forms of physical activity that contribute to physical fitness, mental well-being and social interaction. These include play; recreation; casual, organized or competitive sport; and indigenous sports or games. Sport involves rules or customs and sometimes competition. Play – especially among children – is any physical activity that is fun and participatory. It is often unstructured and free from adult direction. Recreation is more organized than play, and generally entails physically active leisure activities. Play, recreation and sport are all freely chosen activities undertaken for pleasure.” (United Nations Children's Fund, 2004).

Therefore, what it is understood is that sports includes all forms of physical activities, and exercise relating to physical fitness, overall happiness in relation to mental and physical and social relations and inclusion. In relation to this study in Malaysia, this would be important as the significance of gender and ethnicity and its impact in sports participation of school children has not been investigated. Besides that the purpose of my study is to investigate if students are influenced by peoples stereotyping of sports participation and students view of masculine and feminine values and the influences of family and society by gender and ethnicity and would also enrich the literature in this field especially knowledge of sports participation in a non-western context.

2.1.1 Historical Development of Women in Sports

In the world, in the structures of social order, gender issues represent a key issue. As early as Aristotle's time, women were considered as incomplete men (Merchant, 1989). Therefore, it is not surprising to read that "historically, sports have been organised as a male preserve, in which the majority of opportunities and rewards go to men" (Theberge, 2000).

The ideal woman was considered to be weak, fragile and passive during the Victorian Era (Spears, 1974). Women have been described as "on a pedestal somewhere above the realities of life" (Gerber et al., 1974) and it was an expectation that "women remain indoors, and pursue such feminine pastimes as embroidery and painting on glass" (Spears 1974). Sports have always been regarded as a masculine affair and therefore, women were not allowed to participate in any sporting activities. There have been justification in the effect of feminist involvement in sport sociology and Hargreaves (1994,

p 26) stated that it has been “to uncover ways in which men’s power over women in sports has been institutionalised”. It was further stated that men were viewed as naturally forceful/aggressive and competitive due to patriarchal assumptions as opposed to women who were viewed as naturally emotional, cooperative and passive (Hargreaves, 1994: 42-3). Their involvement in sports further showed women to be unladylike (Swanson & Spears, 1978).

This traditional cultural belief more often than not, kept women as housewives and mothers . This was because these perceptions were falsely founded on biology rather than seen as cultural constructed (Therberge, 1991; Willis, 1982). This made it difficult to argue against it or to alter that kind of perceptions. What was even more disturbing was that if there were any arguments on the male and female differences, sports was always used as a tool to prove that females could not measure up to the standards of male performance or aggression found in the type of sports played by real men (Messner, 1988). Due to these problematic views imposed on females in the field of sports, females were stereotyped to be frail and this led to widespread exclusion of females in sports (Therberge, 1997).

If women were allowed to participate in sports they were encouraged to participate in “aesthetically pleasing” sports as this allowed them to display their gethnicityful bodily movement as they should and not use their body as instruments of power for “aggressive” type of sports (Metheny, 1965:49). Boys were encouraged to play ball as it tested speed, strength, agility and skill but girls were discouraged because they were seen as not needing such capabilities (Twin, 1979). However, there were occasions where both genders participated together in recreational games which did not require much skills and ability for example archery, bowling, croquet and golf (Gerber et al., 1974). It was only after the 19th

century, the women's movement began to accept and stand up for gender equality. However, during that time there were still great reluctance and resistance in providing women with higher education, because it was assumed women lacked the mental and physical strength as compared to men (Kane and Snyder, 1989).

Games such as team sports of basketball, volley ball and field hockey were introduced, however, women and girls, wanted a different kind of physical education and athletic structure by the 20th Century (Cuneen, 1981). The twentieth century was an era of the tomboy and the misconception of the sickly, weak Victorian woman was laid to rest (Twin, 1979). Even so, in the early 20th Century, the western industrialized societies were reluctant to accept this change to participate in sports that required physical strength and greater involvement in delivering activities that was thought to be more appropriate for boys. This is reflective of the gruelling challenges that American women and girls who wished to participate faced (Motley & Lavine, 2001). Women's athletics, however, were still not considered due to the fact that the development of strength was inappropriate (Gerber et al., 1974).

Physical educators, instead, campaigned for "play days": where regional or one day meets were arranged in several sports between shifting and temporary teams (Twin, 1979). But the women's physical education teachers were not given a salary, release time or any other compensation (Cuneen, 1989). The games that these women competed in were intended to conform to women's physical limitations (Twin 1979). This was the philosophy of athletics for women and girls and this "play day" attitudes continued into the early 1960s (USCCR, 1980). In 1924, the Conference of College Directors of Physical Education did not allow women's intercollegiate athletics competition. The reasoning behind this was that it would assist women to avoid the "evils" of men's athletics (Swanson & Spears, 1978).

This discouraging response by the society was held from 1920s to the 1960s and this in many ways destroyed the opportunity of girls and women's participation in competitive sports and in the nation's education institutions which formed the training ground for male athletes. This resulted in women wanting to be in sports with limited opportunities. However, women found success as there were some women who proved to be excellent and was recognised for their athletic skills (Rader, 1983).

In 1920, the efforts of the Amateur Athletic Union in America were rewarded when their swimmers won gold, silver and bronze in the Olympic (Hickok 1999). In 1926, an English woman, Gertrude Ederle shocked the world by swimming the English Channel in a record time better than previous channel crossing which were all by men (Motley & Lavine, 2001). This proved their ability to defy chauvinist barriers and limited views about the attributes of women's appearance, physical strength and their participation in sports. However, women were still faced with challenges as women sports programs were depicted to be more of a sex appeal than merit (Twin, 1979). This further risked the accusation of being masculine or unladylike, which in many ways condemned the social progress of women's sports (Sexton, 1969).

In North America, men have dominated leisure and participatory sport activities (Wiley, Shaw, & Havitz, 2000). Participation in sports by boys have been considered a norm, however, girls' participation in sports is exceptional (Messner, Duncan, & Jensen, 1993). Recently in the United States, one in three women participates in organised sports (Sabo and Jensen, 1992). It has also been researched that girls from the ages of nine to 14 show more interest in playing sports such as basketball; this is in comparison to boys (Gardyn & Rebecca, 2001). This clearly shows that the support for participation in sports among young girls is increasing, at the foundation level.

Further research was undertaken on a group of female consumers in two generations (X and Y) and it was found that the younger generation Y possessed a deeper commitment to sports and their preference were similar to boys (Bradish, Lathrop & Sedgwick, 2001). The separation between men and women and boys and girls into different spheres, remains a prevention of self-expression in participatory activities, especially organised activities (Thorne, 1993). Men will be allowed to control, if this physical separation is differentiated, maintained and exaggerated. This is irrespective of whether it is real or artificial (Reskin, 1998).

Physical separation allows for unequal treatment because it locates people in different places where disparity in treatment from the dominant group can be kept away from the subordinate group (Reskin, 1998). It was observed that throughout the twentieth century, women's growing autonomy, education, and economic productivity have almost erased the distinction between masculine and feminine values, which were once very clear (Twin, 1979).

When we look at the Malaysian context, prior to Independence, the headmasters and teachers were mainly made up of British nationals who encouraged leadership in sports and this was the start of active participation of school children in sports. This was a radical shift from the traditional and conservative ideas held by Malaysian parents. These parents were reluctant to allow their daughters to participate in sports which required them to wear skirts and to play in public. This active participation of school girls began as early as 1950s, of course with much reservation from the parents (Khoo Kay Khim, 1996). There is still much more work that needs to be done on women's participation in sports from the past to the present. Besides that there is also a need to see if there is greater acceptance of women's participation in sports in Malaysia. It is also critically important to examine if there is both

societal and institutional support for women's participation in sports. More research is certainly needed in this area.

2.1.2 Gender Equality and Equity in Sports for Girls and Women

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child states that every child has the right to recreation opportunities. This section will provide a review of related literature and recommendations regarding gender equality and equity in women's sports participation. Gender is defined as "a process of social construction, a system of social stratification, and an institution that structures every aspect of our lives because it is embedded in the family, the workplace, and the state as well as in sexuality, language and culture" (Ferree, Lorber, & Hess, 1999). There has been confusion and opposition on the concept of gender equality; this is because it is a concept that conflicts with the traditional and cultural mind-set. However, there has been gradual acceptance of this term which clearly shows the process of change of human behaviour within the society (Meier 2005).

Gender analysis does not mean concentrating on females only. Mainstreaming gender means considering the perspectives, roles and responsibilities of both genders, i.e. females and males (Sancar & Sever, 2005). Women and girls are disadvantaged and are in a weaker position in most countries, this is especially so in the areas of social, political, economic, legal, educational and physical matters. It is because of this, there is a need to concentrate on gender discussions as a female issue (Meier, 2005). The inequalities and experiences of males and females are covered by using terminologies such as "adolescents, youths or teenagers" which is a crucial stage in the development of gender differences (Mensch, B. S., Bruce, J., & Greene, M. E. , 1998).

Equality is crucial in primary and secondary school, to provide opportunities for women and change the perception that some sports are only appropriate for men (Priest and Summerfield, 1994). Despite all the news and focus on “equal education” for all students, does gender equality really exist? Women have been struggling with a three-hundred-year-old barrier to gain full participation in education. Women were predominantly instructed to learn household chores and domestic skills for becoming a wife.

It was not until 1767 that women in America had the opportunity to have schooling, offered before or after men’s instructional time (Owens, Smothers, & Love, 2003). Separate schools were built for women, and eventually one school was built with the genders on separate floors. Progress was slowly being made in a harsh environment, but what is important is that progress was being made. A leading magazine in Canada stated “There may be worse (more socially serious) forms of prejudice in the United States, but there is no sharper example of discrimination today than that which operates against girls and women who take part in competitive sports” (Gilbert,1973). The effort by the UN-Declaration for Women (1975–1985) to create greater awareness to include gender analysis has been seen in policy making, programs, projects and research (Meier, 2005). The analytical frame work for “Women in Development” has been changed to “gender and development” due to the fact that gender roles and relations have become deeply involved in the world’s social structures (Touwen 1996). Specific efforts in empowerment of women for equal participation are crucial to development for everyone (Un.org, 2005).

2.1.3 International Instruments, National Machineries and Declarations on Women and Sports

Children and youths have rights to development and education as stated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948 (UDHR hereafter) (Un.org, 1948). In fact this declaration as inspired many countries and individuals to protect and promote basic human rights and freedoms.

The support for women and sports is clearly evident in the universal declaration of human rights as **Article 24** states:

“Everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay.”

Article 26 states that:

“(1) Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.

(2) Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

(3) Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

Article 27 states:

“(1) Everyone has the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits.

(2) Everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he/she is the author.” Therefore this declaration clearly showed that women’s right to participate in sports and physical activity is a woman’s fundamental human right.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child (Ohchr.org, 1989) and UDHR (implicitly) have identified sports, physical activity and play and support the right to participate in sports and physical activity. Participation in physical education and sports is a “fundamental right” (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation, 1978). Significant improvements can be seen as early as 1962, where the international women’s movement made significant in-roads socially and legislatively. The Women in Development (WID) approach was implemented to improve women’s lives around the world but it was heavily criticized for using western methods to challenge gender relations and ideologies (Rogers, 1980).

Women’s international sports movement were made up of women from western countries and it did not make an effort to represent the interest of diverse groups of marginalised women (Hargreaves, 1999; 2000; Meier, 2005). There was a transition from women in development to women and development and due to this, women showed resistance to power and social structures that are dominated by men (Hargreaves, 1999; Meier 2005). The WID approach was later changed to Gender and Development (GAD). The Gender and Development approach implemented gender sensitive strategies and this covered both males and females (Hargreaves 1999; Meier, 2005). In 1979, the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) was promulgated (Un.org, 1979) and the Third World Women’s conference called for recognition of women’s differential location in the social order and in this way,

the notion of a global sisterhood was challenged by drawing attention to the differences between women (Hargreaves 1999; Meier, 2005).

Due to the commitment of states to the international instruments mentioned above many countries, started recognizing that sports was an important tool for development and a way to improve gender relations and this was also based on studies done that showed the benefits of girls and women's participation in physical activities (Brady 2005; Hargreaves 1997; Meier, 2005; Saavedra 2005). There were gender equity campaigns and legislations and national organisations were established in wealthy countries to improve and promote the participation of girls and women in sports ; Women's Sports Foundation in 1974 and Canadian Association for the Advancement of Women in Sports and Physical Activity in 1981). This was a stepping stone for a number of organisations which were formed in 1990 which also spurred the World Conference on Women and Sports (Brighton, England, 1994). This conference on 'Women, Sport and Challenge of Change was targeted to address the issue of how to speed up the progression of change that would restore the inequalities women face in their involvement and participation (Women and Sports Progression Report 1998-2002). The formation of the International Working Group on Women and Sports and The International Women and Sport's Strategy which was aimed at coordinating work on women and sports issues in the international arena was directly the result of the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sports .

The Brighton Declaration was developed as an international strategy approach to allow for model programmes and successful developments to be shared among national and international sporting federations, to support the change for an equitable sporting culture and tradition , (Sportsbiz.bz, 1994). The overriding aim of The Brighton Declaration is "to

develop a sporting culture that enables and values the full involvement of women in every aspect of sports” (The Brighton Declaration, 1994).

This declaration was addressed to all governments, public authorities, organisations, businesses, educational and research establishments, women’s organisations and individuals who are directly or indirectly involved in the areas of development and promotion of sports (The Brighton Declaration, 1994). From the conference ten principles were formulated which invited all involved to implement the policies, structures and mechanisms being developed. Principles like equity and equality in society and sports; facilities; school and junior sport; developing participation; high performance; leadership in sport; education, training and development; sports information and research; resources and domestic and international cooperation (The Brighton Declaration 1994).

The first principle in the declaration is crucial to the success of women in sports. It states:

“Every effort should be made by state and government machineries to ensure that institutions and organisations responsible for sports comply with the equality provisions of the Charter of the United Nations, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. Equal opportunity to participate and be involved in sport whether for the purpose of leisure and recreation, health promotion or high performance, is the right of every women, regardless of ethnicity, colour, language, religion, creed, sexual orientation, age, marital status, disability, political belief or affiliation, national or social origin. Resources, power and responsibility should be allocated fairly and without discrimination on the basis of sex, but such allocation should redress any inequitable balance in the benefits available to women and men.” (The Brighton Declaration, 1994)

In relation to the above, governments and organisations committing to be a part of the International Strategy on Women and Sport aimed to ensure that government and decision makers from all over the world take cognizant of women’s and girls’ sports as a serious

issue and ensure that proper planning and steps are taken to address inequity in sports participation.

The sanction and commitment given to the application of the declaration of the principles were to be known as the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sports (The Brighton Declaration, 1994). The above was clearly seen in the Fourth World Conference for Action for Equality, Development and Peace in Beijing, China which provided a platform for action where the governments who signed the Beijing Platform for Action were committing to improving women's involvement in sports. Malaysia was a signatory to The Fourth World Conference on Women (UN Women, 1995).

The second principle in the Brighton Declaration states that:

“Women's participation in sports is influenced by the extent, variety and accessibility of facilities. The planning, design and management of these should appropriately and equitably meet the particular needs of women in the community, with special attention given to the need for childcare provision.” (The Brighton Declaration, 1994).

The third principle in the declaration is related to school and junior sports and it states:

“Research demonstrates that girls and boys approach sport from markedly different perspectives. Those responsible for sports, education, recreation and physical education of young people should ensure that an equitable range of opportunities and learning experience, which accommodate the values, attitudes and aspirations of girls, is incorporated in programmes to develop physical fitness and basic sport skills of young people” (The Brighton Declaration, 1994)

This principle is crucial to address issues around accessibility and opportunities and experience for appropriate sports and physical education. Girls and young women who are interested in sports must be motivated in a positive manner in sports participation.

The fourth principle in the declaration was on developing participation; the declaration states that:

“Women's participation in sport is influenced by the range of activities available. Those responsible for delivering sporting opportunities and

programmes should provide and promote activities which meet women's needs and aspiration" (The Brighton Declaration, 1994)

This is important as developing participation in sports is crucial to everyone involved in sports. The fifth principle in the declaration on high performance sports states that:

"Governments and sport organisations should provide equal opportunities to women to reach their sports performance potential by ensuring that all activities and programmes relating to performance improvements take account of the specific needs of female athletes. Those supporting elite and or professional athletes should ensure that competition opportunities, rewards, incentives, recognition, sponsorships, promotion and other forms of support are provided fairly and equitable to both women and men" (The Brighton Declaration, 1994).

In order to achieve this, the international and national sports federations play an important role in making sure that women are able to reach their full potential in performance and in elite sports women are given equal opportunities in competition, rewards and recognition.

The sixth principle in the declaration reflects the inadequate representation of women in decision making and leadership positions in sports. This principle states that:

" Women are under represented in the leadership and decision making of all sport and sport related organisations. Those responsible for these areas should develop policies and programmes and design structures which increase the number of women coaches, advisers, decision makers, officials, administrators and sports personnel at all levels with special attention given to recruitment, development and retention." (The Brighton Declaration, 1994).

The seventh principle in the Brighton Declaration on education, training and development states that:

"those responsible for the education, training and development of coaches and other sports personnel should ensure that the education processes and experiences address issues related to gender equity and the needs of female athletes, equitably reflect women's role in sports and take account of women's leadership experiences, values and attitudes" (The Brighton Declaration, 1994).

This principle reflects the benefits to female athletes in terms of taking account of women's leadership experiences, values and attitudes.

The eighth principle in the declaration on sports information and research states:

“.....those responsible for research and providing information on sports should develop policies and programmes to increase knowledge and understanding about women and sports and ensure that research norms and standards are based on research on women and men” (The Brighton Declaration, 1994) .

In order to achieve this, conferences and seminars have been organised to provide increased knowledge and understanding on women and sports.

The ninth principle in the declaration is on resources and support for women’s sports and it states that:

“.....those responsible for the allocation of resources should ensure that support is available for sportswomen, women’s programmes and special measures to advance this declaration of principles” (The Brighton Declaration, 1994)

This is crucial in obtaining funding and grants for women in sports.

The tenth and final principle in the declaration is in relation to domestic and international cooperation and it states that:

“.....governments and non- government organizations should incorporate the promotion of issues of gender equality and the sharing of examples of good practices in women and sports policies and programmes in their association with other organizations, within both domestic and international arenas” (The Brighton Declaration ,1994).

This declaration emphasises the promotion of gender equity, good practices and cooperation across organisations, countries and regions.

The achievement of the declaration is that over 400 delegates from 74 countries organisations have adopted it and many have begun to take positive action to reach out beyond the traditional boundaries of sports and to work with concerned organisations to address inequalities in the Second World Conference, Windhoek, Namibia 1998. This Windhoek Call for Action 1998 (Sportdevelopment.info, 1998)was crucial as it moved

from the Brighton's Declaration statement of principles and raising awareness to call for Action (Moving on From Windhoek).

This call for action were in the following areas (Women and Sports Progress Report 1998- 2002):

“1. Develop action plans with objectives and targets to implement the principles of the Brighton Declaration, and monitor and report upon their implementation.

2. Reach out beyond the current boundaries of the sport sector to the global women's equality movement and develop closer partnerships between sport and women's organizations on the one side, and representatives from sectors such as education, youth, health, human rights and employment on the other. Develop strategies that help other sectors obtain their objectives through the medium of sport and at the same time further sport objectives.

3. Promote and share information about the positive contribution that girls' and women's involvement in sport makes, inter alia, to social, health and economic issues.

4. Build the capacity of women as leaders and decision-makers and ensure that women play meaningful and visible roles in sport at all levels. Create mechanisms that ensure that young women have a voice in the development of policies and programmes that affect them.

5. Avert the "world crisis in physical education" by establishing and strengthening quality physical education programmes as key means for positive introduction to young girls of the skills and other benefits they can acquire through sport. Further, create policies and mechanisms that ensure progression from school to community-based activity.

6. Encourage the media to positively portray and significantly cover the breadth, depth, quality and benefits of girls' and women's involvement in sport.

7. Ensure a safe and supportive environment for girls and women participating in sport at all levels by taking steps to eliminate all forms of harassment and abuse, violence and exploitation, and gender testing.

8. Ensure that policies and programmes provide opportunities for all girls and women in full recognition of the differences and diversity among them - including such factors as ethnicity, ability, age, religion, sexual orientation, ethnicity, language, culture or their status as an indigenous person.

9. Recognize the importance of governments to sport development and urge them to develop appropriate legislation, public policy and funding monitored through gender impact analysis to ensure gender equality in all aspects of sport.

10. Ensure that Official Development Assistance programmes provide equal opportunities for girls' and women's development and recognize the potential of sport to achieve development objectives.

11. Encourage more women to become researchers in sport, and more research to be undertaken on critical issues relation to women in sports" (Windhoek Call for Action 1998)

This approach was to translate policy into practice to ensure that women and men are treated as equal partners and beneficiaries in the political, economic and social development of their own country (The Windhoek Call for Action 1998). The governments of the Commonwealth Heads of Government, the IOC, Paralympics committees and Commonwealth Games Federation and in the International Federation of Physical Education and International Council for Health and Physical Recreation Sports and Dance were some of the organisations who adopted this Windhoek Call for Action. This was considered a leading-edge for women and sports movement in several ways (Women and Sports Progress Report 1998- 2002).

In 1996, the president of the International Olympic Council (IOC) during a conference stated that:

“We have already made some important achievements, but much still remains to be done, There are obstacles of all kinds whether cultural, technical or economic. Therefore, a co-operative effort is required from the IOC, the International Federation, the National Olympic Committees, the sports organisations, governments and inter and non-governmental organisations, and the media. The Olympic Movement is determined to make its contribution and to ensure that the twenty first century will be the beginning of a new era for women in sports all over the world” (Mr. Juan Antonio Samaranch, World Conference on Women and Sport, 1996, Lausanne, Switzerland)

In 1995, the Olympic Charter was amended to include women's role in the Olympic Movement which states:

“...the IOC strongly encourages, by appropriate means, the promotion of women in sports at all levels and in all structures, particularly in the executive bodies of national and international sports organisations with a view to the

strict application of the principle of equality between women and men” (Article 2 Para 5 of the Olympic Charter).

In February 2010 the charter was updated. It states that the IOC’s role is to:

“...encourage and support the promotion of women in sports at all levels and in all structures, with a view to implementing the principle of equality of men and women” (Rule 2 Para 7).

This clearly opens the possibility of sports as a right that we acquire from birth (Factsheet Women In The Olympic Movement, 2011).

The challenges and successes faced by Asian women in wanting to be involved in sports have been aptly stated in a paper presented by Josefina Vizar Bauzon (1998) during the International Working Group meeting on Women and Sports stated:

“...customs that are deeply honoured by some Asian countries typically become the usual barriers in promoting openness. Calls for more involvement in sports have ignited strong resistance especially because it contradicts some cultural practices and norms widely accepted by the population..... In short, the condition of women and sports in Asia is one that is not totally devoid of challenges and constraints.....the participation of women in sports is locked in different degrees of defeats and triumphs, wherein those who are successful in widening women’s involvement are usually those that balance the right of women to participate vis-à-vis the right to respect the nation’s customs and traditions” (Josefina Vizar Bauzon, 1998).

In conclusion, again in the words of Josefina Vizar-Bauzon:

“There are still several barrier, various challenges that should be overcome and remedied. Women in the (Asia) region have no more options but to confront and comprehensively address these problems immediately with collective wisdom and through collective action and determination”(1998).

It is clear from this section that international instruments and declarations led to national machineries dealing with sports having to pay greater attention to issues of equity and equality in sports participation and the section below will provide details on how national authorities tried to fulfil the Malaysian state’s obligations as signatory to the international instruments and declarations.

2.1.4 Laws, Regulations and Bodies Governing Sports in Malaysia

The regulation of sports in Malaysia are divided into six levels of laws which are administered and regulated by national authorities and international authorities and these laws can be divided into informal and formal type of laws. The informal laws are the disciplinary laws, the rules and regulations related to the individual games and the administrative law of the governing sports bodies. The formal laws are the national law or Malaysian law which governs Malaysian citizens at all levels. The International Governing Body regulates international regulations or laws which are relevant and work on getting it applied in Malaysia. In certain states in Malaysia, English Common Law and Overseas National Law may still be applied (s3 and s5 CLA 1956 revised 1972).

Further, legislations have been enacted to govern and regulate the welfare and development of Malaysian Sports such as The Merdeka Corporation Act 1957, The National Sports Council of Malaysia Act 1971, and The Sports Development Act 1997. The Government of Malaysia prepared a report in relation to the Beijing conference which outlines (i) the enabling environment for the advancement of Malaysian women; (ii) a review of the situation of women in the early 80's prior to the Windhoek Call for Action in Nairobi; (iii) the changes that have taken place since that conference in the context of the seven critical areas of concern and finally (iv) the future strategic goals and objectives. The report had acknowledged and noted the progress made by women in some areas to improve their socio-legal status.

There are also other regulations which empower important individuals of authority to make and implement regulations such as The Federal Constitution Act 1957; The Education Act 1996; The Contracts Act 1950; The Employment Act 1955; The Criminal Procedure Code and The Malaysian Penal Code. The signs of support for women and

development began with the Declaration of the Women's Decade (1975-1985) by the United Nations. In showing support for this the Malaysian government established the National Advisory Council on Women in Development (NACIWID) and HAWA which provided advise to the government on women related issues in development. In 1982-1983, Women's Affairs Secretariat was set up within the Prime Minister's department. In the Third Malaysia Plan, funds were allocated to the development of women.

In 1989 a National Policy for Women was promulgated. The contents of it were included in the Sixth Malaysia Plan (1991-1995). It states:

“The government recognises that specific strategies must necessarily be formulated to effectively incorporate women in the process of development. Towards this end concerned efforts will be made to progressively reduce existing constraints and facilitate the assimilation of women into the mainstream of social and economic activities”.

The Ministry of Family and Women Development together with United Nations Development Programme published a document on the Progress of Malaysian Women since Independence 1957-2000 (The Progress of Malaysian Women, 2003 from Utusan Malaysia, 2003). This study used 'gender equality' as a yard stick to assess women's progress.(The Progress of Malaysian Women,2003).

The report on gender and development stated that the National Policy for Women, 1989 contributed to the following being stated in the Sixth Malaysia Plan:

The equitable sharing in the acquisition of resources and information as well as access to opportunities and benefit of development for both men and women; The need to integrate women in all sectors of national development in line with their abilities and needs in order to improve the quality of life, eradicate poverty, abolish ignorance and illiteracy, and ensure a peaceful and prosperous nation.

The National Action Plan for the Development of Women was formulated as early as 1992 and it set the National Policy on Women in motion. Various programmes were drawn up and implemented by governmental agencies and as a result of the Beijing Conference, the plan was reformulated which adopted the Platform for Action and one of the 13 critical areas addressed in the National Action Plan in Malaysia is Women and Sports. This was approved by the Cabinet and the progress of this plan was monitored firstly by HAWA and later by the Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development through an Inter-Ministerial Coordinating Committee. This National Policy for Women was reviewed and revised in 2005. This updated policy recognised women as vital to the economy and integrated women as equal partners in nation building and maintained Women and Sports as one of the critical areas to be addressed in the National Action Plan.

The Ministry of Youth and Sport also spearheaded “Malaysia Cergas” or Fitness Malaysia campaign in 1989. The outcome of this campaign was that women’s organisations were encouraged to participate in mass exercises which were promoted for women and girls as well as increasing the number of physical fitness instructors. In 1996, the National Sports Convention in Langkawi was officiated by the former Prime Minister, YAB Tun Dr Mahathir Mohammad, and this showed that the Malaysian government was committed to support women in sports.

In 1996 the Women’s Sport and Fitness Foundation Malaysia (WSFFM) was formed. WSFFM is committed to promote the well-being of women in Malaysia and this voluntary organisation is committed to increasing opportunities for women to participate in sports and fitness (White 1996). In 1998, the reaffirmation of this was seen in the 2nd World Conference on Women and Sports held in Windhoek, Namibia, called the Windhoek Call

for Action. This action was a stepping stone from The Brighton Declaration and it provided the links to the Beijing Platform for Action and the Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). Malaysia acceded to CEDAW in July 1995.

There are other important milestones in the National Policy on Women. The Ninth Malaysian Plan (2006-2010) was developed to allow for effective participation of women in national development. The Tenth Malaysia Plan (2011-2015) was developed to address issues confronting women to allow them to realise their full potential and participate more effectively in the economic and social development of the country. This plan recommended for right opportunities, change of mind-set and environment for women so that they can participate and contribute in the various fields of national development.

There have been signs of support for women in sports in Malaysia, where the first National Women Games was organised by the Women's Sports and Fitness Foundation in partnership with the Ministry of Youth and Sports Malaysia, National Sports Council Malaysia and Olympic Council Malaysia. It was held from 10-17 December 2005 and the purpose of this game was to:

“ to develop a sports culture that enables and values the participation of girls and women in sports and with greater outreach to girls and women in every aspect; to provide more opportunities for communities at all levels to integrate and work together to increase the involvement of girls and women in sports at all levels and in all functions and roles and to serve as a catalyst and encourage national and other sports organisations to enhance the development of policies, plans and programmes for girls and women in sports, including participation, administration, communication, management, technical and all other aspects”.

The budget allocated for this event was about RM5 million and it was to be held every two years. The outcomes of these games were the participation of girls and women in sports and the prominence given to the girls and women in different states at different

community levels. This created closer ties with National, State and community level organisations and personnel working together for the enhancement of girls/women in sports (National Women Games, 2010).

The implications where polices are concerned will be that there should be a minimum number of sporting events included for female participants and a minimal number of women officials for women's team. Further the establishment of Women in Sports Committee under the Olympic Council of Malaysia is perhaps a good sign that participation of women in sports is being encouraged. A sports commentator stated that in Malaysia women were not treated equally in the pursuit of sporting excellence (Thangaraju, NST, n.d. 2004). There have been only 39 women participants in comparison to 340 male participants in the last 12 Olympic Games. Also in the last 12 Commonwealth Games, there were only 185 women participants in comparison to 336 male participants.

Lobby groups and the organisations mentioned above help to increase the participation of women athletes and number of women in sport-leadership position by influencing international sport federations and major sport organisers for example the International Olympic Committee. The International Working Group on Women and Sport provides guidelines to increase participation, in their respective countries and due to this, time and resources have been insufficient to be shared with marginalised communities (Hargreaves 1999).

It is evident there are support at the parliamentary level and ministerial level. In the former a Cabinet Committee on Gender was established in 2005. The Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development was established in 2001 and the objective was to function as a gender mainstreaming institution. The government also established a gender focal point in all ministries. There was a pilot gender budgeting with five ministries in

2003. The Department of Women's Development was established in 2004 to undertake and develop income generating activities, health and leadership programmes and to create gender awareness among men and others.

2.2 Gender and Sports

Inequality amongst genders may be the result of cultural environment in that the endorsement of personas and performances that characterize males and females are considered to be the basis of what is a gender (Bem, 1981). Sports today is much needed in schools as this will be instrumental in conditioning students to achieve their fullest potential and also enjoy the experience of sporting activities. It has been stated that there are several issues which contribute to sports participation and sports experience namely demographics, gender, and ethnicity ((Greer, Hardin & Homan, 2009; Erkut, Fields, Sing & Marx, 1996). There are many factors which contribute to participation, this have been discovered (Kjonnixsen, , Fjortoft, and Wold, 2009) such as whether people are interested in organised or informal sports. It has been discovered that students have the interest in both types of sports where informal sports may start from the influences of family and organised sports may be further encouraged through yet again family, peers, schools and media(Recours,Souville & Griffet, 2004). More masculine roles are displayed by both boys and girls participating in sports despite the presence of conservative gender expectations around sports participation (Haines, Deaux, & Lofaro2016).

The different types of sports can be further divided into mainstream sports such as walking, running, football, rugby, badminton to niche sports such as taekwondo, swimming, diving and even cycling. So, why are people so involved in sporting activities, it has been found that it is because of their enjoyment towards these types of sporting

activities, a form which allows them to vote by feet instead of hands when they are faced with bad experiences such as the facilities provided and there are those who continue to play because they are already enjoying good experience in such sporting activities. Perception has also been identified as to what makes good experience in sports participation this is related to people's perception of sports as more appropriate for males than for females (Fredricks & Eccles, 2005). These centres around emotional and subjective issues such as: physical pain, glory and fame, encouragement and family support to cite a few examples.

Therefore, those who do not obtain the optimal experience in sports participation will sooner or later lapse in sports. This will also create a negative perception to sporting activities. Sports too have many elements involved; there can be solo participants and also team participation. The relevance of social interaction may be limited in solo participants as opposed to team participation; however, this could also be due to the influences of family and society on the types of sports that are encouraged for girls and boys. Biased social and traditional cultural expectations can shape gender stereotyping of sports participation amongst boys and girls and this leads to expectations of boys and girls to participate in certain types of sports that would be suitable for them. (B.Shen 2015)

As part of the on-going academic debate on the need to redefine women in sports, Marcia D. Greenberger Co-President, National Women's Law Centre who presented a paper on "Athletics Discrimination: International Remedies" during the International Olympic Committee III World Conference on Women and Sports "New Strategies, New Commitments (2004) has called for international remedies in athletics discrimination.

Malaysia has adopted the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women ("CEDAW"); however its enforcement has yet to be

achieved. CEDAW has influenced national courts in Botswana, India, Greece, Australia, Turkey, Tanzania, Columbia and Germany in interpreting national laws and led to adoption of new laws. (O'Connel & R.Sharma, 2003), however, this is yet to happen in Malaysia. Hajjah Norminshah Sabirin who presented a country report on "Women in Sports Committees" during the 1st Asian Conference on Women and Sports (2001) called for more participation of women in sport committees and suggested that data and statistics on women and sports must be collected and collated. Further she has suggested that research and surveys must be undertaken to understand why there is a lack of involvement of women in sports committees in Malaysia (Sabirin, 2001). Chua & Owi (n.d.) conducted a study on the programmes for Women by Sports Association choose randomly three sports clubs (Taekwondo, Squash and Netball) to analyse the participation of women in these sports. The report suggested that women athletes are as active and interested as their male counterparts; however they must be given more priority and support by higher authorities such as the relevant ministries and the National Sports Council.

Furthermore, the Assistant Secretary General of the Olympic Council of Malaysia, at the time, Latifah Tan Sri Ya'cob reported that government departments, including the Ministry of Youth and Sports, the National Sports Council and Sports Schools, have all been involved in promoting equity for female athletes.

This was based on the Women and Sports Progress Report (2000-2004) (International Olympic Committee, 2004). However, this report does not state the steps that have been taken to promote gender equality. In 2007, Prof. Dr. Shamala Subramaniam (Subramaniam, 2012) spoke about the issue of the merger between the men's and women's hockey association which has become a source of dispute. Prof. Dr. Shamala was convinced that the dispute is not about the sport itself but rather a gender issue and about

making changes. She had further highlighted about the laws which govern Malaysian Sports and if it is being used unwisely to deal with a non-existent problem. However, it is interesting to note that in her recent article “Cat and Mouse Game” 4 January 2012, she commented that:

“The women hockey officials deserve more credit than what is often given to them. For upon the dawning of the New Year 2012, they now stand on equal terms with their colleagues from the men's hockey fraternity, thanks to the International Hockey Federation's (FIH) insistence of a merged body to run hockey in Malaysia.” (Subramaniam, 2012)

The influence of peers in sports participation affects the rate of participation in sports, girls were reluctant to participate in sports when they were teased by their peers especially boys (Slater, A., & Tiggemann, M. (2011).

Raija Mattilla the Counsellor for Cultural Affairs Chair of the Code of Ethics and Equity of the Council of Europe in her speech “Fair Play – the winning play” presented at the 3rd European Conference of Women and Sports said (Mattila, 2004):

“We know both through research and observations that in most European countries the principle of equal opportunity is incorporated in the national legislation, but in very few countries serious measures have been taken to promote equality in practice” (Mattila, 2004).

She views that this is the real challenge for the European Women and the Sports movement and has called for support for the promotion of equality de facto in Europe.

However, although the academics mentioned above have, in one way or another, conducted studies on women in sports both in Malaysia where the concentration in Malaysia has mostly been in “Women in Sport Committees” and the participation of

women in the Olympics and the like; and internationally whereby the concentration has been on gender equality and gender equity on management of sports or general issues. However, there has not been a study investigating the issue of boys' and girls' participation in sports at the school level and how it contributes to the development of sports in Malaysia. This is unlike what can be seen in Australia, where the Department of Education Manual clearly sets the policy on gender equity in school sports (EQUITY CONSIDERATIONS for the development of curriculum and test materials, 2001).

However, the dominance of females in sports in the media has always been because of negativity, for example their negative portrayal through the prominence of their physical attractiveness instead of their athletic accomplishments (Daddario, 1994; Duncan, 1986, 1990, 1993; Duncan & Messner, 1998; Hall, 1993; Kinkema & Harris, 1998). It was further established that poses of females in sports were pictured more prominently rather than active shots; this meant that femininity was emphasised instead of their sports abilities. Female athletes who were pictured mainly was in traditional sports which were perceived to be feminine such as rhythmic gymnastics and figure skating and it was also inferred it could have been because of their revealing costumes or that they looked good in these outfits (Fink and Knsicki, 2002). Although women may have been covered in the media such as television, it was found that the coverage was for individual sports rather than female team sports (Alexander, 1994). The findings show that female athletes were pictured most for tennis, this was because tennis was perceived to be more feminine in that the way the female athletes dress were sexually appealing than other sports, this is despite the dramatic increase of females competing in sports at all levels in international, professional and collegiate level. This could be attributed to male hegemony in that the media was always male dominated and this was shown in their poor perceptions and evaluation of female athletes. Therefore if ever the females were covered in the media it

was not because that they were recognised as central figures but merely as an afterthought, or unless they were dressed femininely (Kane & Greendorfer, 1994). In the United States, it was found that female athletes were side-lined by limiting the amount and type of coverage and the reasoning was because females were inferior when compared to male athletes and when they were pictured or covered it was because of their femininity rather than their success in sports (Lumpkin, & Williams, 1991).

2.3 Ethnicity and Sports

Malaysia is a country that is ethnically diverse and sports is an area where this ethnic complexities may be evident due to the influences brought about by culture and traditions. Therefore this assists in problematizing the 3 major ethnic groups in sports participation as it is critical to establish if a relationship exists between the cultural differences and how that influences sports participation. (Howard & Navarro2016).

Stereotyping has been said to occur in relation to ethnicity and it is theorized as a core component in stereotyping where cultural, social and environmental factors have been considered as attributes to ethnic differences (Carlston, 1983; Harpalani, 1998; Harrison, 1995; Lillie-Blanton & Laveist,1996). The issue of ethnicity as an obstacle has been an explosive issue in the western sporting field however it has also been part and parcel of the Asian sporting field (Anderson et al, 1993; Wiggins, 1997, 2000; Sellers, 2000; Sailes, 2000).

To define and recognise the appropriateness of a particular ethnic group by the practise of ethnic stereotyping has long been a practise in the western world in order to decide the suitability of participation in a sport (Opotow, 1990; Maguire, 1991; Long et al, 1995). Ethnicity has been considered as “ingredients of the social institutions of our nation

...and are a part of the social structure...people live within a system and ethnic relations, but ethnic relations also live within us”(Higginbotham & Andersen, 2009:3 & 113). . Previous research (Carroll& Hollinshead, 1993; Taylor et al, 1999; Johnson, 2000; Tirone et al, 2000) which was undertaken in relation to cultural and ethnic differences in the support of sports participation or physical activity showed conflicting findings. One research suggested that adolescents (teenagers) from different ethnic backgrounds did face different barriers and the research suggested that the reason for each group should be looked into separately (Bobbins et al., 2003; Sallis et al. 2000).

More recent research (Dwyer, et al, 2006) however have suggested that the participants (here adolescents too) had similar perceptions of their limitations in sports participation but the solution given by the participants as to how to overcome the limitations differed. This research although conducted in Canada proves useful for my research in Malaysia which explores differences in the views of boys and girls from different ethnic background on their participation in sports. This allows for my research which has an ethnically diverse participation to be more generalisable.

In the western society, literature reviews suggest that it is not uncommon to be faced with ethnic/cultural barrier and concerns in gender and physical activity in relation to females from south Asian communities (Carroll et al, 1993; Rai et al, 1997; Johnson, 2000; Tirone et al, 2000). Ambiguity in the perception of masculine and feminine values due to social and cultural expectations in sports participation where boys are encouraged into masculine sports and girls into feminine sports affects the students intention and engagement (Tischler and McCaughtry, 2011) There are researchers (Taylor et al, 1999; Tirone et al, 2000) who have suggested that the barriers to sports participation by these women are due to adaptation to what is culturally acceptable and other researchers suggest

that it is due to negative attitudes towards sports participation (Porter, 2002). Moreover, academic excellence and family commitments are imparted on them instead of pursuing their own interests and needs (Gallop et al, 1981; Lyons, 1990; Figueroa, 1993). The inconsistency in the outcome of the results between the various ethnic groups perhaps could be explained by cultural differences in that in being a member of a particular group and other social needs such as friends and social status intensifies the collectivist cultural values in each group which can influence sports participation (Kondric, Sindik, Furjan-Mandic, & Schiefler 2013).

Further research has even suggested that ethnicity is an important social variable (Zarate & Lewis, 1985; Steele & Aronson, 1995; Stone et al., 1999). Cultural milieu through socialization factors such as parents and peers are the motivating factors influencing school children's intention whether or not to participate in sports. (Atkins Johnson, Force, & Petrie, 2013). Stereotyping has been said to occur in relation to ethnicity/ethnicity and it theorized as a core component in stereotyping and cultural, social and environmental factors have been considered as attributes to racial/ethnic differences (Carlston, 1983; Harpalani, 1998; Harrison, 1995; Lillie-Blanton & Laveist 1996). The issue of ethnicity or ethnicity as an obstacle has been an explosive issue in the western sporting field however it has also been a part and parcel of the sporting field. (Anderson & South, 1993; Sailes, 2000). To define and recognise the appropriateness of a particular ethnic group by the practise of ethnic stereotyping has long been a practise in the western world in order to decide the suitability of participation in a sport. (Opatow, 1990; Maguire, 1991).

. Research has suggested that that ethnicity are organizing principles of social life affecting or implicating everyone in society (Cornell & Hartmann, 2006). Further research

has even suggested that ethnicity is a social variable (Zarate & Smith, 1985; Steele & Aronson, 1995; Stone et al., 1999).

A study of individual pictures on *Sports Illustrated* in the 1990s showed that the level of participation was in accordance to the types of sports, ethnicity and gender (Lumpkin, & Williams, 1991). The research further identified that although black American may have been pictured on more covers than European Americans; there were only five pictures of female sports women on the covers in any years. This meant that the females were pictured less than then males even though their participation numbers may have been higher than the European American males who were pictured more on covers of *Sports Illustrated* than their level of participation in sports. Perhaps this stems from the fact that the persons covering the sports may perceive women as being physiologically incapable or unable to cope emotionally with competitive pressure and hence unable to accept that these women are competing in sports on equal grounds as men.

This is even more so surprising that America since the mid twentieth century has enacted laws that provides for equal treatment and equal opportunity and the societal attitudes and prejudices towards women were changing. Even though in the early twenty first century saw more African American women participating in sports, it appeared that the media continued to report extensively on the European American males. This was reflected in the research conducted by Levy and Bryant (1993) and Rainville and Mc Cormick (1997), where it was seen that more European American Sportsmen were featured in media, both print and electronic than the accomplishments of ethnic minorities. It was interesting to note that the success of ethnic minorities was contributed to their in born natural abilities than their hard work (Davis, 1990; Johnson, Hallinan, & Westerfield, 1999; Murrel & Curtis, 1994; Rainville & Mc Cormick, 1977; Sabo & Jensen 1994). There were increased

participation by African American since 1990s; however, it was found that they were unfavorably treated by the media due to covert and systemic racial stereotyping (Sabo and Jensen, 1994; Levy and Bryant 1993). It was further established that ethnicity ideologies played a role in the way African Americans were portrayed in the media. The ethnicity ideology perceives that white American winnings or success in sports is due to their character, intellect and organisation, while the black Americans perceived success in sports is due to their biological strength and natural ability and unfortunately not attributing their success to hard work which allows for more credit (Davis, 1990; Johnson, Hallinan, & Westerfield, 1999; Murrell & Curtis, 1994; Rainville & Mc Cormick, 1977; Sabo & Jensen, 1994). Students of different cultural ethnicity background characterized parents/relatives, friends, supporters and environmental factors as motivation and influential factors, despite these support some students were not motivated to participate in sports due to academic commitment. (Kondric, Sindik, Furjan-Mandic, & Schiefler 2013).

The literature above reaffirms that in America, African Americans and Females were not treated equitably although legally they were recognised as equals and discrimination was not socially desirable, however, more coverage were given to European American males. The above reviews suggest there exists a convergence of views amongst researchers on stereotyping in relation to boys and girls participation in sports. Gender has gained relevance in the area of stereotyping. The literature review above shows that my research which examines sports participation by boys and girls in the context of a different demography i.e. in urban schools in the Klang Valley, in multi ethnic Malaysia would add on to the knowledge on the influence of gender and ethnicity on sports participation. Besides that it will also add on to the knowledge on the influence of family, peers and society on sports participation. What is expected from the boys and girls in that particular

culture will shed lights on the cultural differences in gender role attitudes (Helgeson2015). The study also has a narrower focus which is on sports rather than physical activity which would have included any form of physical activity. The WHO has defined physical activity as “any bodily movement produced by skeletal muscles that requires energy expenditure” (Carlston, 1983). Sports has been defined under the Oxford Dictionary as “an activity involving physical exertion and skill in which an individual or team competes against another or others for entertainment” (Oxforddictionaries.com, n.d.).

2.4 Gender Typing of Sports

Sports are gender typed on the degree of masculinity and femininity of their characteristics and it is further perpetuated and reinforced by the belief that although boys and girls deserve equal opportunity in sports, they are however naturally different. (Hardin & Greer, 2009; Messner 2002).

There exist many differences between male and female and in various spheres. No doubt, some divergences are looked at to be unfair and unacceptable; however, some are viewed to be genuine. Metheny developed an original framework that show some sports have been considered to be more acceptable for women and this is based on the original framework developed by Metheny (1965). This framework has been accepted by other researches (Messner & Disch 2008; Colley et al., 1987; Koivula, 1995, 2001; McAllister et al., 2003; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1983). Research undertaken has shown that sports are classified under the male category (Burke, 1985; Matteo, 1986; Messner, 2009,1988, 1990; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1983). Metheny suggested that individual activities that had aesthetic value were the type of sports that were acceptable for girls and women (Metheny, 1965). For example, gymnastics was considered more suitable for girls as it was not a forceful or aggressive

sport. The framework/model proposed by Metheny suggests that the sports field is prejudiced as individuals are not judged by their ability or competence but if the suitability of the sporting activity can be considered to be gender appropriate. However, this research was conducted on college women.

Metheny in her research had identified and suggested what type of sporting activity that was or was not acceptable (Metheny, 1965) or was or was not appropriate for women (Kane & Snyder, 1989). There are four classifications made by Metheny. The first classification is in relation to sports at the international level which is not considered appropriate such as contact sports like boxing. The second classification was competitive sports in the college level which is not acceptable to American college women but acceptable to minority women (including Germanic descendant) such as gymnastics. The third classification was some form of individual sports acceptable for college women to participate in such as swimming, figure skating, golf and bowling. The fourth classification was face to face sports acceptable to college women such as tennis and badminton as there was only light force used and there was a barrier to the opponent.

A survey conducted by Snyder and Spreitzer (1983) among adults who responded on their perceived appropriateness regarding sports participation for women and the findings showed that games such as basketball, track and softball does not invoke and enhance the feminine qualities, however, sports such as swimming, tennis, and gymnastics does not detract the feminine qualities. It was further found that individual sports such as tennis, figure skating, golf and gymnastics are seen to be more suitable for women (Colley et al, 1987). It is worth noting that “socially sanctioned images of femininity and masculinity are always relative, they differ from era to era, from culture to culture and from group to group within a given social organisation” (Metheny, 1965:p.48). This is

interesting as the image that males and females are at the opposite end of the scale was captured by Metheny. Attributing factors such as aesthetics, beauty, gethnicity, femininity and being womanly contributed to the factors that certain sports were regarded as feminine while attributing factors such as danger or risk , violence, team spirit, speed, strength and endurance as masculine contributed to the factor that certain sports were regarded as masculine (Koivula 2001).

The conclusion based on the analysis of sports using the 12 factor based scales were that women's sports were based deeply on philosophies of participation, cooperation and play while men's sports encouraged completion through a war like structure (Koivula, 2001). It was found that gender stereotyping and the perceived attractiveness of sports for women were based on the fact that certain sports influenced the person's idea of attractiveness of sports that were related to women (Kane, 1987). It was further found that female athletes were found to be more attractive in feminine related sports as opposed to other types of sports which lacked the attributes of femininity (Kane, 1987). A female athlete was considered to be more physically attractive if the sport type was considered to be extremely feminine, while the physical attractiveness increased if male athletes participated in sports that were considered to be extremely masculine (Ross & Shiner,2008).

It was also found that "social assessments made about female sport participation within high school status systems remained heavily influenced by traditional beliefs regarding feminine, ladylike behaviour" (Kane, 1987). This clearly reflects the relationship and the link between being female and athletic. Further studies augurs that women who participated in feminine appropriate sports were preferred by their peers as opposed to participation in unfeminine sports where it was concluded that " a greater role conflict for

female athletes would be expected to occur among participants in sex-inappropriate sports, such as basketball or softball, because this participation presents a greater departure from traditional feminine expectations than does participation in sex-appropriate sports” (Holland & Andre, 1994). Athletes also believed that gender typing of sports exists due to sports stereotypes undertaken by media coverage and media consumers in society (Jones & Cooley 2015). Therefore the role of the societal perception on the types of sports suitable for male and females will determine the stereotyping of sports resulting in gendered inequalities in sports participation.

.In an elementary school interview, girls were asked on their perception of female and male athletes and it was found that boys were generally regarded to be tough while girls were regarded to be fragile (Mc Callister et al., 2003). In the interview the activities that were related to boys were football, soccer, baseball, kickball, hockey, basketball and wrestling while the girls jumped rope, played softball, were involved in cheerleading, dance, ballet and gymnastics (Mc Callister et al., 2001). Furthermore, in a dualistic understanding of gender, the structure of sports will continue to restrain the participation of girls and women in sports in differing degrees (Hargreaves 1994; Krane 2001; Krane et al. 2004; Mc Callister et al. 2003; Shaw 1994). It is indeed difficult to change the traditional perceptions which have been taken for granted that feminine and masculine appropriate sports “are in the ‘natural order’ of things” (Hargreaves, 1994).

Messner (2009, 2002) observed that it was a fact that males ran faster than females. Of course, to a large extent biological differences cannot be escaped in gender differences, however there were studies that proved that the differences in physical ability only contributed 5% to gender differences (Eagly, 1995). Gender differences or gender typing could be natural actions and also related to environmental influences (Wood & Eagly

2012). It has been found that females participate less in motor activities from childhood (Hines, 2004). Studies have also discovered that gender differentiating have played an important role in the performance of children (Kinsel et al., 2009) in that females are less encouraged to participate in sports. This has also played a role in contributing to boys and girls participation in physical education classes at school (Chen & Darst, 2002) and also as to which gender has a higher perception in sporting capability (Biddle, Atkins, Cavill & Foster, 2011; Fredricks & Eccles, 2005). Granted, that there exists gender differences physically but it is not satisfactory to explain the gender differences perceived in sports participation and performance. Social Psychology of stereotypes is defined as common beliefs about the individual characteristics, and also conducts of a certain group of people (Leyesn, Yzerbyt & Schadron 1994). Therefore it can be deduced that social beliefs gives birth to social reality. In other words, it is because people believe that gender differences in sport exist therefore, in fact it can be socially observed! In the past, gender issues related to sports have been investigated along the line of gender typing of sports which examines sporting activities that are considered to be more appropriate for males, females and both genders and how does gender stereotyping encourages or discourages sports participation.

Riemer and Visio(2003) revisited Metheny's postulate nearly 40 years after its original publication. The difference in their research was that they asked school children to assess Metheny's formulation. They found that "we may see girls participating in what Metheny viewed as masculine sports the opposite does not seem to be true for boys and feminine sports. They concluded that this does not mean that girls are socially accepted when they participate in masculine sports but that the girls see it as an opportunity to participate.

Although it was found that women have been given increased opportunity to participate however, to have greater liberation, there must be freedom of access in any activities irrespective of reference to gender (Mc Ginnis, Chun & McQuillan, 2003). Indeed there is no denying that in the past decade women and girls have made inroads in sports participation. Gender stereotypes may be removed by categorizing sports a gender neutral instead of gender typing it by male and female sports .(Hively & El-Alayli2014). In Malaysia, the gender typing of sports has yet to be studied therefore; this research will investigate if school children by gender and ethnicity view certain sports to be suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

2.5 Stereotyping in Sports Participation

Gender stereotypes exist from birth itself (Bem, 1974; Birns 1976). Babies are either dressed in pink or blue the moment the sex is identified and the gifts given to the babies are divided into strong or delicate gifts (Malszecki and Cavar, 2005; Zimmerman and Reaville, 1998). Findings in western countries suggest that sex stereotypes and gender roles in differences observed in sports are internalised during early childhood (Chalabaev, Sarrazin, Fontayne, Boiché, & Clément-Guillotin2013). In Malaysia gender stereotyping is definitely practiced. Gender stereotyping also exists in sports. “How can you win if you’re female? Can you just do it? No. You have to play the femininity game”. Women are said not to be ruthless, aggressive, competitive and victorious. It is not feminine to have a killer instinct, to want with all your heart and soul to win. It is not feminine to know exactly what you want, then go for it. Femininity is about appearing beautiful and vulnerable and small. It is about winning male approval (Nelson, 1994). How a female looks and behaves

is an issue of femininity (Sherrow, 1996) and when this principle is applied, females are expected to adhere to this gender perception held in mainstream society.

A gender biased view of sports could affect the self-perceptions of gender norms thereby gender stereotyping the types of sports played by both boys and girls (Boiché, Plaza, Chalabaev, Guillet-Descas, & Sarrazin2013). In schools context, social interaction produces gender stereotype biasness within girls and boys in sports participation and academic achievements (Leaper & Brown 2014).

Stereotypes can come in the form of portrayals of a male participating and performing better in sports than a female (Chalabaev, Sarrazin, Fontayne, Boiché, & Clément-Guillotin, (2013).Females interested in participating in aggressive sports are dissuaded from participating and competing in sports as it would produce a more manly look and sweating and grunting for example in sports like weight lifting and wrestling is certainly not acceptable. This is said to not reflect a ladylike behaviour and characteristics. This is also clearly reflective of the gender stereotyping upheld by the society in general in Malaysia. In Malaysia, gymnastics is strongly encouraged by parents because it is recognised as a feminine sport for it shows the gethnicityful and flexible aspect of a woman (Snyder and Kivlin, 1975) and it is artistic and visual (Metheny, 1965). It is also considered as a feminine type of sports.

The gender stereotyping here is that it does not reflect aggressiveness in sports. If a female sports participant do go against this general stereotyping and so called “crossed the line”, they would be questioned with regards to their sexual identity, sexual orientation, values and social roles (Griffin, 1998). This consequently produces a negative influence in sports participation for women. The reason why Malaysian women lack the staying power

in sports is because it is in their own belief that “sports are a men’s thing” (Sports News Malaysia, 2009). The Malay parents are also reluctant to encourage their daughters to participate in sports due to the fact that certain sporting attires could be seen to be too revealing (Shanmugarajah, 2008).

Today perception of stereotyping of men and women continue to exist as was present in the past, this is notwithstanding the acceptance and progress made by women in sports. (Haines, Deaux, & Lofaro2016). Haines et al (2016) further found that basic stereotypes continue to exist influencing men and women’s perception of themselves despite the frowning acceptance of female participation in non-traditional sports.

Peoples stereotypes may differ due to the magnitude of stereotyping they would anticipate (Pinel, 1999). Pinel found that peoples experiences of stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination was as a result of the differences in “stigma consciousness” that brings about mental, intellectual and behavioural concerns (Pinel, 1999). People believe that they live in a stereotyping world when there are individual differences and this further is reinforced when people consider their stereotyped status pervading their interactions with other people outside of their group (Pinel, 1999). Pinel further found that people with stigma consciousness accepted as truth stereotypes about them and this affected their lives in a huge way (Pinel et al, 2000). However, another research showed that there were other people who were stereotyped (low stigma consciousness) but they were not at all bothered with the stereotyped status (Crocker & Major, 1989). In order to understand the individual differences among the people of stereotyped status, Pinel in 1999 developed the Stigma Consciousness Questionnaire for women and this questionnaire has been validated for the use on different ethnicities and ethnicities (Pinel et al, 2000).

There were researchers who found that people are able to maintain their global self-esteem (Crocker, Voelkl, Testa & Major, 1991) and performance self-esteem (Ruggiero and Taylor, 1997) when they are discriminated against. In as much as there can be positive effects when the person who is stereotyped lives in this prejudiced world; however there can also be negative effect in one's self-confidence (Brown, Pinel, Rentfrow, & Lee, 2001). Further to this there were also researchers who found that many stereotyped peoples suffered from nervous and poor performance due to the fear that they may be discriminated against even before undertaking a relevant stereotyped activity (Aronson, Quinn, & Spencer, 1998; Steele, 1997; Steele & Aronson, 1995). There were increased participation by African American since 1990s; however, it was found that they were unfavorably treated by the media due to covert and systemic racial stereotyping (Sabo and Jensen, 1994; Levy and Bryant 1993).

Bem (1974, 1981) and Eccles et. al (1983) used models to determine if stereotyping influences individual perception and behavior. However research done by Steel (1997) showed that stereotypes do affect the behavior of females who feel competent and value a "masculine" activity. This is known as stereotype threat theory. This means that there are certain females who may have looked at stereotyping as a positive internalization compared to negative stereotypes (Chalabaev, Sarrazin, Stone, & Cury, 2008). Negative stereotyping occurs when individuals are faced with undesirable and harmful characteristics that are smeared to their group, they are fearful of endorsing them, and they are shunned due to the fact that these type of bad characterizations actually damage people's self-confidence (Steele & Aronson, 1995). The opposing views of stereotyping identified that female are more likely to receive positive feedback compared to boys related to their sporting activities in their physical education classes. This could be considered to be positive as it

assists the development of stereotypes that approves female participation in sports (Nicaise, Bois, Fairclough, Amorose and Cogérine, 2007). Therefore, these individuals probably would discard negative group stereotypes as traits of themselves (Darley & Gross, 1983; Steele & Aronson, 1995).

The stereotyping of social roles of men and women are a part of different gendered behaviours which is described in the Social Role Theory (Eagly, 1987). In relation to stereotypes concerning the gender appropriateness of athletics which influences perceptions of and participation in athletic activities, a study of children between the ages of 5 to 9 was undertaken and it was found that boys compared to girls believed that they would be good at sports and it was important for them to do so (Eccles & Harold, 1991). It is the society's expectations of what amounts to proper and right action for men and women based on beliefs about the physical attributes and capabilities of men and women that produces these stereotyped behaviours (Eagly, 1987; Eagly and Wood 1999; Eagly et al, 2000).

Exposure to mediated messages such as sports messages in the form of assumed appropriate behaviours for male and female athletes, in that males are required to be aggressive and dominant, on the other hand females are required to be unassertive yet charismatic and these type of messages can employ specific stereotypical gender roles (Banet- Weiser, 2002; Halbert and Latimer 1994). The result of this would be that, depending on what is the right and proper behaviour for the athletes, some sports will be labelled masculine or feminine (Daddario 1994; Koivula 2001). Another study also found that gender differences do persist over time due to stereotyping (Kane, 1988).

Various social roles are assumed by people in the society and this is due to the societal expectation about behaviour that is regarded to be appropriate (Desertrain and Weiss, 1988) to the respective genders. Therefore, women in sports face role conflict

situations as there is an inconsistency between the societal expectation and their behaviour (Sage and Loudermilk, 1979). Society views a female role to be incompatible with the role of an athlete this is because apart from sports being dominated by men, it is also male defined by sex-typed traits and behaviours (Desertrain and Weiss, 1988). Consequently, women in sports have the tendency to develop more stereotypically masculine traits and characters such as being aggressive, self-sufficient and self-assured. In order to succeed in sports women must come out of the gendered stereotypical roles.

There have been numerous rejections and discriminations, where women in sports are concerned. During the transitional period and during the twentieth century, the usual rejection was on the fact that women athlete failed to live up to a particular notion of being feminine (Twin, 1979). There was sex stereotyping that was born out of the idea that it was not feminine for women to participate in sports (USCCR, 1980). This was further made worse by implying that women athletes were unable to find a man or worse still they were lesbians (Davis & Weaving, 2009). If women were to participate in sports, they were considered to be a “tomboy” and it discouraged girls to participate in sports which decreased their strength and physical well-being (USCCR, 1980). Women who participated in sports were said to have bulging muscles (Myers, 1981). This muscle bulge was a myth (Hart, 1979) and due to this fallacy some women were reluctant to perform any kind of sports that may result in bulging muscles (Myers, 1981). There are instances where women’s sports are referred to as “the other” while men’s sports are taken as “the standard” (Kane, 1995; Kane and Greendorfer, 1994; Kane and Parks, 1992; Messner & Sabo, 1990).

It is worthy to note that the parental level of sports gender stereotypes becomes the mediating factor of young athletes gender sports stereotypes (Boiché, Plaza, Chalabaev, Guillet-Descas, & Sarrazin2013).There have been suggestions by some academics that

gender stereotyping can be enforced when watching televised sporting events, and this in turn increases the individual's beliefs in gender stereotyping in sports (Steele, 1997). The notion that men and women are different in the area of masculine sports and feminine sports have been constructed out of social reality, which in turn encourages societal gender inequity in that men are dominant and women are inferior in sports (Eastman and Billings, 2000; Halbert and Latimer, 1994; Spender, 1980). In fact, this further reinforces the fact that men's sporting events are a "must see" and women's sporting events are "non-events" (Messner et al., 1996). The way men's and women's sports are named (gendered identification of women's sports) further reasserts the notion that there are societal differences which exists between men and women.

This reinforces a hierarchical perception that men are superior over women (Holtzman, 2000). Sports commentators usually call female athletes by their first name, while they refer to male athletes by their surnames as a sign of respect to men both in and outside the arena of sports. This clearly shows the societal dominance of men over women (Messner et al., 1993). The connection between gender role identification and role conflict has not been researched in detail and although it is recognised these both exists, they have not been linked as a relationship. Self-perceived gender role orientation research shows that there is a relationship between perceived masculinity and femininity and sports participation (Colker & Widom, 1980).

Attributes towards individual people is recognised as individual stereotypes. Physical appearances for example can be a foundation of individual stereotypes. A group stereotype however, slightly differs from personal stereotypes as here the attributes are founded on if the person is a member of an in-group or an out group (Ashmore and Del Boca 1981a,

1981b; Wilder 1981). The stereotype Threat Theory proposes that people circumvent in tolerating a negative trait that their group is assigned to (Steele, 1997).

There are three factors that consider what attitudes are. Firstly the cognitive component, this is based on a set of beliefs about the group or individual, secondly an affective component and this is based on the feeling towards the group or individual and thirdly a behavioural component that is founded on a set of behaviours or actions directed towards the group or individual based on the other two components. An extreme version of stereotyping is recognised as prejudice. This cognitive component is the stereotype that the affective components are feeling of liking or disliking and the behavioural component is the various types of discriminating actions.

This prejudicial behaviours can progress into five stages (Allport, 1954) of anti-locution which for example is a verbal putdown such as “you are tomboyish because you play football”, avoidance and discrimination where the tomboyish student is excluded from certain rights in a group socialisation and physical attack and extermination.

Allport (1954) stated that prejudice can be felt or expressed. Prejudice has been said to be a hatred founded on damaged and uncompromising oversimplification concentrated towards the whole group or towards an individual because he is a part of the group (Allport, 1954). It has to be noted that much demonstration is not needed for the existence of prejudice. In fact it is quite easy to maintain prejudice as it becomes fairly stable over time (Rothbart, Davis-Stitt, & Hill, 1997). Therefore, this means that over time the prejudice will be kept in mind. It has been established that people often remember better those factors that support their stereotype (Rothbart, Davis-Stitt, & Hill, 1997). Therefore, reinforcement and sustainment of prejudice is through a filtering process. This is because people are

always able to recall prejudicial points than favourable points. Polarized judgments are also based on stereotypes (Rothbart,, Davis-Stitt, & Hill, 1997).

This means a tendency to see “exceptions” to stereotypes as precisely "exceptional" and therefore the rule are proven through this exception. What has to be noted is that once a stereotyping is made it is considered to be very difficult to break it down (Lee, McCauley, & Jussim,2013) . Also stereotyping is linked to the idea of self-fulfilling prophecy in that an action that reinforces the prejudice is where people respond most (Fredricks & Eccles, 2005; Koivula, 1999). Therefore stereotyping is internalised in the way that boys have a perception about themselves that they are more able physically in sports than girls (Eccles & Harold, 1991; Fredricks & Eccles, 2005)for example only tomboys play football or only boys play football well compared to girls.

There are two forms of stereotyping that is positive and negative stereotyping that subsists in the society (Steele, 1997; 2000; Steele & Aronson, 1995; Stone, Lynch, Sjomeling, & Darley, 1999). However, it is always the negative stereotyping that is often talked about and identified with. The positive stereotyping is rarely acknowledged as it hardly leads to any problems. Stereotype has been recognised as descriptive instead of derogatory which possibly could be attractive positively or aversive negatively (Ashmore & Del Boca, 1981a,1981b). Stereotypes have been debated as a spinoff of society’s normal perceptive propensity to classify the generalisability of the internal and external world (Hamilton & Trolier, 1986). Gorham (1999) has described stereotypical perceptions by using the term racial myths. Gorham further noted that media had played an important role by maintaining these myths through the disclosure of language and contextual links with mythical perspectives.

It has been debated (Berry & Mitchell-Kernan, 1982; Fujioka, 1999; Gandy, 2001; Gilens, 1996; Graves, 1999; Leifer, Gordon and Gethnicity, 1974; Taylor & Stern, 1997) that stereotype has been linked with limited experience of human beings with the unknown world and this is further formed through vicarious experiences of other conduits such as the media.

“A woman in man’s territory” (Birell, 1983:49) is how women’s sports participation has been understood as. Gender appropriate type of sports has long been a question to women who were keen in sporting activities. Due to this, sports has traditionally been categorised as male, female or gender neutral sports (Matteo, 1986) and this has gone to influence the choices and the types of sports that are participated by men and women (Matteo, 1986). Furthermore, Matteo’s study showed the respondents view on how society stereotypically viewed 68 types of sports as being appropriate for males, females or both genders (Matteo, 1986). In addition, Matteo’s study not only looked at gender stereotyping of sports but also the perception of the respondents’ society’s views in sports participation.

Bem (1974, 1981) and Eccles et al. (1983) used models to determine if stereotyping influences individual perception and behaviour. However, research done by Steel (1997) showed that stereotypes do affect the behaviour of females who value “masculine” activity. This is known as Stereotype Threat Theory. This means that there are certain females who may have looked at stereotyping as a positive internalisation compared to negative stereotypes (Chalabaev, Sarrazin, Stone, & Cury, 2008). Negative stereotyping occurs when individuals are faced with undesirable and harmful characteristics that are smeared to their group, they are fearful of endorsing them, and they are shunned due to the fact that these type of bad characterizations actually damage people's self-confidence (Steele

& Aronson, 1995). The opposing views of stereotyping identified that females are more likely to receive positive feedback compared to males related to their sporting activities in their physical education classes. This could be considered to be positive as it assists the development of stereotypes that approves female participation in sports (Nicaise, Bois, Fairclough, Amorose and Cogérine, 2007). Therefore, these individuals probably would discard negative group stereotypes as traits of themselves (Darley & Gross, 1983; Steele & Aronson, 1995).

2.6 Masculine and Feminine Values and Social Perceptions in Sports

In order to investigate stereotyping in sports, firstly the idea of social perception has to be understood. Social perception contributes to the development of an attitude towards another person or group of persons. Therefore, this leads to the understanding of stereotyping as this is an attitude towards a person or group on the basis of some expectations and beliefs about the characteristics of groups perceived as different from one's own (Cauthen, Robinson, & Krauss, 1971; Hamilton, Sherman, & Ruvolo, 1990; Wittenbrink, Gist, & Hilton, 1997). One of the more important points in sports participation would be the gender roles in relation to masculine and feminine values (Heinze, , Davis, Butchart, Singer, & Clark2014). Heinz et al further noted that perception of masculine and feminine values in sports in relation to parental belief may influenced females athlete's decision to participate in sports, however this study was conducted in pay to play fees in public schools place.

A recent study however, shows that students possibly would have masculine and androgynous gender role orientation when they participate in or identify with sports while

students would have a feminine gender role orientation if they do not participate or identify with sports (Lantz and Schroeder, 1999). Significant identity conflict is experienced by these females when they negotiate their identities as both athletes and women and they continue to struggle to maintain a feminine identity while being recognised with stereotypical masculine characteristics (Krane, Choi, Baird, Aimar & Kauer, 2004). The androgyny concept is particularly important for women in sports because it mitigates the role conflict assumption (Hoferek, 1982). This means a person is not constrained by the feminine or masculinity in her behaviour for both has intrinsic worth. With regards to gender role orientation, there is research which shows that female athletes who were competitive in sports were generally androgynous, and this is in spite of which type of sports they participated in (Harris and Jennings, 1977; Myers and Lips, 1978; Ugucioni and Ballantyne, 1980). In fact team sports athletes were considered to be more androgynous while their counterparts in the individual sports were considered to be feminine and undifferentiated (Caron, Carter and Brightman, 1985). Perceptions of boys and girls abilities in sports participation and performance were found not are impacting one another however some sports are perceived to be more masculine whilst some are perceived to be more feminine. (Hively, & El-Alayli2014). The presence of masculine and feminine values whilst supported by gender role norms of male does create a stereotypical perception of female athletes (Daltry,2012). Therefore the negative outcome would be that boys may be reluctant to participate in sports that are perceived to be more feminine

The power of media in creating a reality of women in sports participation is strong. Stereotypical ideals are also reflected by television networks in sports broadcasting. This results in specific sports beings labelled as masculine or feminine and this indirectly creates a perception that such sports are only appropriate for male or female participants. More

full-court camera shots are broadcasted during men's games than women's games, which imply that viewers are more interested in the men's games than the women's games (Hallmarks & Armstrong, 1999). Shots that are longer in women's game are close-ups, peripheral shots and partial court shots, which results in parts or all of the game taken out of the sight of the viewer (Hallmark & Armstrong, 1999). Close-up is usually directed to the teams' coaches, who more often are males (Hallmark & Armstrong, 1999). In fact the close-ups are because of the coach's advice or explanation for the team's success (Hallmark & Armstrong, 1999). This indirectly reflects the success of the women's team because of the male coach. Even if women's sports received greater air-time, it is because the sports are considered to be feminine sports (for example gymnastics and figure skating) and the overall focus is on the attractiveness and actions of the participants (Koivula, 2001). These athletics are described to be elegant, enchanting and beautiful (Daddario, 1994). Masculine sports such as football and wrestling are considered to be inappropriate for women as it is characterized as "aggressive and competitive" (Koivula, 2001).

A stereotype is an example of an implicit personality theory (Li, Harrison , and Solmon, 2004). These theories attribute internal properties to a person, such as character traits, on the basis of external properties (Cauthen, Robinson, & Krauss, 1971; Hamilton, Sherman, & Ruvolo, 1990; Wittenbrink, Gist, & Hilton, 1997). In stereotype this attribution is based on a physical external property such as skin colour, physical features or behaviour (Cauthen et al., 1971). Young children's decision to participation in sports have been often perceived to be the outcome from natural biological factors however self-perception of masculine and feminine values do form a link on the gender stereotypes and the decision to participate or not to participate in sports. (Boiché, Plaza, Chalabaev., Guillet-Descas, ., & Sarrazin,.2013). Social influences on stereotypically masculine sports

have put real pressure on adolescent females to shun against masculine labelled sports which in turn pressures females to participate in feminine types sports thus emphasis on feminine norms similarly boys are encouraged to embethnicity stereotypically masculine sports that enhances their masculinity thereby amplifying the masculine and feminine norms due to inborn predisposition associate with gender (Deaner, O. Geary, Puts, Ham, Kruger, Fles & Grandis 2012).

There exist many differences between male and female and in various spheres. No doubt, some divergences are looked at to be unfair and unacceptable; however some are viewed to be genuine. Messner (2002) observed that it was a fact that males ran faster than females. Of course, to a large extent biological differences cannot be escaped in gender differences, however there were studies that proved that the differences in physical ability only contributed 5% to gender differences (Eagly, 1995). Gender differences or gender typing could be natural actions and also related to environmental influences (Wood & Eagly 2012). It has been found that females participate less in motor activities from childhood (Hines, 2004).

Studies have also discovered that gender differentiating have played an important role in the performance of children (Knisel et al., 2009) in that females are less encouraged to participate in sports. This has also played a role in contributing to boys and girls participation in physical education classes at school (Chen & Darst, 2002) and also as to which gender has a higher perception in sporting capability (Fredricks & Eccles, 2005). Granted, that there exists gender differences physically but it is not satisfactory to explain the gender differences perceived in sports participation and performance.

Social Psychology of stereotypes is defined as common beliefs about the individual characteristics, and also conducts of a certain group of people (Leyens, Yzerbyt &

Schadron 1994). Therefore, it can be deduced that social beliefs gives birth to social reality. In other words, it is because people believe that gender differences in sport exist therefore, in fact it can be socially observed! In the past issues related to sports have been the line of gender typing of sports which examines sporting activities that are considered to be more appropriate for males, females and both genders and how does gender or discourages sports participation.

2.6.1 Sports as a Construction of Gendered Culture

Studies have also been undertaken to analyse the structure of the adolescent subculture by examining the values of high school students (Coleman, 1961). A survey conducted by Coleman (1961) found that high school boys wanted to be remembered as participating athletes, however, it was found that participating opportunities for females were limited and therefore the word “athlete star” was substituted with “being a leader in activities and it was found that more girls wanted to be remembered as a leader in comparison to being popular” (Coleman, 1961).

After this study by Coleman, there were other studies conducted and it was recognised that there was an increase in female sport opportunities and substituted terms need not be used (in fact identical terms are used for both boys and girls in sports participation) (Goldberg & Chandler, 1989, 1991; Holland & Andre, 1994; Kane, 1988). It was further found that today, more male adolescents wanted to be recognised as athletes; on the other hand females want to be recognised as “leader in activities” and or “brilliant student” (Goldberg & Chandler, 1989). Being an athlete star is an important value placed by boys and this supports the idea that the preferred maleness is linked with sports (Bryson, 1987). Sport participation is considered as a reward to males. Sports has been stated as “a

product of culture, and a reflection of the ideologies of dominant values and ideals, as portrayed in what sport means, how play is structured, who may participate, and notions of ideal athletes” (Schell & Rodriguez, 2000) .

Many studies have been undertaken on the agreed perceptions of gender behaviour and appearance to gauge the particular styles of athletes’ participation (Kane, 1987; Koivula, 1995, 2001; Matteo, 1986; Metheny, 1965; Messner & Sabo, 1990) which shows that social acceptability of various sports was influenced by gender stereotypes for example which type of sports is acceptable for women depended on whether it needed aesthetically pleasing movement patterns, use of manufactured devices to facilitate movements, use of a light object, and a spatial barrier separating one from an opponent would be acceptable for women. While the type of sports which were suitable for male athletes were any physical attempt to subdue opponent, use of force, resistance to heavy object, and bodily contact (Metheny, 1965; Koivula 2001). Metheny (1965) was one of the first to identify gender stereotype and captured the polarized image of masculinity and femininity being at the opposite pole of the same scales. In fact based on this, sports was seen to be classified as masculine and feminine (Matteo, 1986, 1988). If the sport was considered to be typically female, then the degree of physicality in that particular sport differed considerably than if the sport was considered to be typically male (Kane & Snyder, 1989). Literature which distinguished feminine sports based on aesthetic beauty as opposed to strength have been heavily criticized (Cahn, 1994). However bipolar scales were created (Spence, 1991) and this scale was mirrored on cultural norms (Bem, 1974). There is research that suggests that there are many meaning given to genders and it is also based on ethnicity or ethnicity (Hall, 1996). Therefore, this brings about unipolar terms of masculinity and femininity. Studies have shown that there are perceived different constructs on femininity (Royce, Gebelt &

Duff, 2003). This is because females are perceived to hold dual roles, one on the field and the other off the field. Therefore, the perception of femininity in relation to female athletes is more likely than not to be influenced by their behaviour while not on the field (Royce, Gebelt & Duff, 2003). These so called experts have been criticized as having “fortified a set of problematic cultural links between femininity, beauty and female athleticism” (Matteo 1988; Metheny 1965). Although it is recognised that by and large all sports do have an aesthetic dimensions, and it is a prevailing assumption that sports which are for women should not be expected to be violent, aggressive and exhausting, in some way has contributed to women’s sports participation being limited (Cahn, 1994).

2.7 Family, Peer and Society’s Influences

If parents and respected adults are interested in sports, children are generally motivated to participate in both organized and informal sports.(Dawes, N. P., Vest, A., & Simpkins, S. 2014). In the examination of influences of gender differences, it has been stated that “in play, games, and sport, children are brought into contact with social order and the values inherent in society, and are provided a context within which desirable social behaviours are developed” (Roberts, Treasure, and Hall, 1994:631). Researches in sport socialisation have argued that parents produce the best motivation for children participating in sports and learning occurs through athletes’ exposure to sport while reinforcement occurs through other socialising agents such as coaches and peers (Mead 1934). When parents reported a more implicit connection between sports and feminine or masculine values , the child did the same. This is important as this shows that parents do influence the social desirability of sports (Boiché, Plaza, Chalabaev, Guillet-Descas, & Sarrazin. (2013).

Although sports are starting to unite people from all societal background, it also is determined through solo and team participations. In team participation, the participants tend to receive more support, encouragement at the same time; they are faced with judgments from their peers if they do not perform as well as the rest. Therefore, the need to participate in sports is not only internally (McCullagh, Matzkanin, Shaw, & Maldonado, 1993) but also externally (Ryan and Deci, 2000) motivated. Internal motivation means that students may feel pride when there is accomplishment in their sports participation, knowledge to know that they obtain satisfaction in learning a new sport or a variation in their current sport and stimulation as they experience the adrenaline rush when they compete in their sporting activity (Weinberg & Gould, 2003).

The influence of peers in sports participation affects the rate of performance in sports, girls were reluctant to participate in sports when they were teased by their peers especially boys (Slater & Tiggemann 2011). This is unlike the solo types of sports which are based only externally. External motivation here means that the athletes participate in sport for external reasons such as to receive rewards and recognition (Weinberg & Gould, 2003). Furthermore, the influences are not only within the individuals themselves but also through family and peers in team participation. Research in recent times has recorded a decrease in physical activities which includes sports participation especially during adolescence (Allison, Dwyer & Makin, 1999a; 1999b; Frankish, Milligan & Reid, 1998). This is a finding that may provide the answer to understanding why adolescent girls are reluctant to participate in sports or any form of physical activities.

This has been noted especially in relation to female participants. However, there have been also researches that were conducted to identify perceived and real barriers to participation (in physical activity) in large ethno racially and socioeconomically diverse city such as in a country like Canada (Dwyer., Allison, Goldenberg, Fein, , Yoshida, &

Boutilier2006). The research shows that there were a number of factors which influenced physical activity of adolescent - these included insufficient time, the students would rather be involved in computer related activities, the facilities for physical activity were expensive, the students were conscious of their body parts, safety concerns and the influence of parents, teachers and peers played an important role in their decision whether or not to participate in physical activities.

In addition the above research included participants perceived barriers to lack of time, involvement in technology related activities, influence of peers, parents and teachers, safety issues, inaccessibility, cost of facilities, competition and body centred issues. It also looked into the issue of perceived barriers faced by girls and boys in sports participation which is embedded in the society, however the factors influencing their participation was also examined.

In Canada, evidence from studies show that lack of physical activity is due to various factors. One of the reasons given was the influence that parents, teachers and peers have on their participation in physical activity. This research has been supported by previous study where peer influence (Allison & Adlaf, 1996; Culp, 1998; Taylor, Legrand, & Newton, 1999) and societal influence (Frankish et al, 1998; O'Dea, 2003; Taylor et al, 1999) were crucial factors which were identified as barriers to physical activity and participation in sports of adolescent. Research also found that issues such as perception of the parents in relation to gender stereotyping disallowed girls from participation in physical activity.

It was interesting to note that parents were still advocating that it would be better for girls to be more involved in domestic activities than sports participation in a country such as Canada which is a developed country with equal opportunity laws. In fact, the research

recorded that the parents disallowed their daughters to be physically active. Another research also pointed to the fact that teenage girls are restricted from participating in sports by their parents (Coakley & White, 1992). The findings of another research by Gulp (1998) showed that the restriction was related to gender roles or social norms. Gulp (1998), Taylor, Legrand and Newton (1999) also found that perceptions as to what amounted to fitting roles as were anticipated for each gender also impacted the participation in sports by teenage girls.

Parents and family environment have also been recognised as a primary contributing factor in their children's decision to play a sports apart from the justification that their children's decision to play in a sport is for fun or to feel great (Martens, R. 1996). There has been evidence that show that family and the gender of the parents play an influential role in ascertaining the participation of children in sports (Lewko & Ewing, 1980;; Coakley, 1993; Power & Manire, 1992).

Children's participation in sporting activities is influenced by parents gender role believes around sport.(Simpkins, Fredricks, & Eccles,2012). The role that parents play is so significant in creating an environment which influences the child's participation in sports and it was found that the parental support system in providing a healthy environment was important in inspiring sports participation in children especially during the adolescent ages (Martin, Jackson, Richardson, & Weiller1999). It is also important that parents impart confidence in their children's sports participation which provide a lasting influence on their children (Welk, 1999). This is a concern because this stereotyping may influence the family, friends and peers on their decisions to support boys and girls in sports participation and allow for gender typing of sports in the schoolchildren selection of sports. (Atkins, Johnson, Force, & Petrie2013).

In Canada, it was found that children were actively involved in sports as they had supportive families and at least one of the parents were involved in organised sports. This was supported by the findings that it did not matter if the child lived with two parents or one parent as it was found the participation of children were similar in both types of families. However, it was also found that the participation rates did differ if their parents were actively involved in sports in any way for example athlete or administrative position compared to parents who were not involved at all where it was found that the children were less active (Kremerik, 2000).

Social environmental factors such as motivation and support by teachers have been recognized as important structures and directions as influential forerunners to sports participation (Shen et al 2010. The negative impact of social influences exists and are seen especially when sports are used as a form of punishment to school children. The experience and attitudes of boys and girls are further impacted by coaches and teachers in order to manage the students. (Burak,Rosenthal, and Richardson. (2013), Students especially females are influenced by the motivation of high autonomy of teachers (Zhang et al 2012) .

My study is different from previous studies which have used qualitative data where obstacles to sports participation have been studied in diverse multi ethnic groups of adolescent girls. My research will use quantitative data and since Malaysia is predominantly made up of Malays, Chinese and Indians, my study looks into whether there exists a difference between the boys and girls of the various ethnic groups in terms family and societal influences in sports participation. This is unique as there are not many countries that have diverse ethnic groups that have been brought together due to the history

of British colonization and where they have permanently made Malaysia their home after Independence in 1957.

2.8 Theoretical Debates

For the purposes of an introduction, it may be useful for the reader to be aware of some of the current theoretical debates in sports participation in order to appreciate the theme of this research.

Social rules of gender take an important place in sports participation, despite efforts towards equality. Children from an early age have been ingrained on what is the “appropriate” gendered behaviour and activities. The goal of this research is to discuss whether gender equality has been achieved in sports participation and whether the existing views taken by researchers who have investigated the experiences of girls and women in sports and physical activities from a variety of perspectives (Henderson, Bilaleschki, Shaw & Freysinger, 1999) are relevant to recreational and organised sports which are common leisure pursuit among school children. It is also the goal of the research to assess whether children are conscious of social stereotypes of gender in sports and physical activity and the effects of gender stigmas on girls’ participation.

I will argue that while agreeing that sport has become a place of equal opportunity struggles concerning gender (De Haan and Breedveld, 2000), the increase in gender equality in sports participation is due to the fact that the concept of sport has included fitness activities and this is only a small shift in traditional gendered sports patterns and to the understanding of athletic masculinity (Knoppers and Elling, 2001). There are evidences (in the literature review chapter, examples such as soccer, volleyball, hockey started off as a male dominated sports as compared to netball, rhythmic gymnastics which were generally

considered to be female sports) that today many of the sports which were considered to be “male sport bastions” in competitive sport can challenge and strengthen binary, hierarchical and stereotypical gendered conceptions (Coakley, 1998; Hargreaves, 1994). The democratisation and feminisation of sport participation is accommodated by hegemonic masculinity. Gramsci’s (1971) definition of hegemony is “a particular form of dominance in which a ruling class legitimates its position and secures the acceptance-if not outright support-from those classes below them”. This definition was adopted by Anderson (2005) in that the important aspect of hegemony is when the weaker groups believe that their place in the system is right and natural and this complicates matters. Therefore, it can be said that hegemony is an ideology in that men are viewed as natural, strong and independent leaders, while women are viewed as naturally weak and dependent care givers.

This can be further supported when this ideology is explained in relation to the outcome that can be advantageous to one group while disadvantageous to another group and these results in the collective thinking of a culture (Theberge and Birrell, 1994). Therefore, it can be said that this also creates an acceptance of difference in powers which is acknowledged and further interferes with the way people live (Theberge, 1987). In relation to this, sports can be said to be closely associated with the likeness and replication of attitudes, beliefs, rituals and values of society (Birrell and Cole, 1994; Hargreaves, 1986; Kane and Snyder, 1989; Koivula, 2001; Messner, 1988, 2002). Furthermore, Connell (1995) and Hargreaves (1995) have opined that this power seem to be acknowledged as apparent and widespread by both subordinate and marginalised groups in a way it is a form of institutionalised power (Connell, 1995; Hargreaves, 1995). They have argued that hegemonic power is reinforced in competitive sports by ordinary social and cultural practices and this

gives an illusion of social equality (Connell, 1995; Hargreaves, 1995). This is based on the arguments within the context of social practice of sport where there exist challenges in asymmetrical power dealings in sports where women in elite sports seem to be resigned to the fact that they have subordinate social statuses as compared to their male counterpart in the same type of sports (Elling and Knoppers, 2005). This study also examines if society provides opportunities to girls to participate in sports.

Theories are important because it is critical to the understanding of this research and will explain gender issues in sports participation, theorizing will give reflection and analysis for this research. There are six major theories which are used to study sports and society. Gender Schema Theory, Socialisation Theory, Stereotype Threat Theory and Feminist Theory have been mentioned in the literature review

2.8.1 The Different Feminist Theories

In relation to the study of gender equality, feminist theory is an alternative reasoning as compared to traditional social theory. Men's historical control over the labour of women have always been emphasised under the social feminist theory (Tong, 1989). It has been through the evolution of patriarchy and capitalism that men have gained control over women's labour. In order to maintain and reproduce gender inequality, patriarchy and capitalism has to work together. Major institutions such as the education system, the economic system and the family are the structures which play out the effect of patriarchal capitalism on gender inequality. Because sports has had a long history which is interlinked

with patriarchal capitalism, sport as an institution is looked at using the socialist feminist theoretical framework (Kimmel, 1990).

The theory of liberal feminism however, has had the most impact for gender equality within the institution of sports; therefore before looking into socialist feminism, liberal feminism must be discussed first. The roots of liberal feminism is found in liberalism, this school of thought states that every individual have the right “to exercise their autonomy and to fulfil themselves” (Tong, 1989). The arguments set by liberal feminists are that women in industrialized societies are discriminated and denied equal rights on the basis of their gender. Socialisation and the learning of appropriate gender roles are the result of gender differentiation, however it must be noted it is not inherent (Abbott & Wallace, 1990). Liberal feminist are divided into two groups, because their arguments that women are denied rights are based on different reasoning (Tong, 1989). States should protect civil liberties of both genders is the view of the first group. Civil liberties here means the fundamental freedom and privileges of individuals as accorded by the constitution and bill of rights, which also includes due process, equal protection of laws and freedom from discrimination. These inalienable rights as viewed by the classical liberal feminists should not be provided by the state as “a gift”. They preferred that the state provided women with “equal opportunity to determine their own accumulations within the market” (Tong, 1989). The freedom which was “naturally” given to men was the type of freedom the liberal feminist preferred. The underlying believe of liberal feminist related to the field of sports is that it is fundamentally sound and represents a positive experience to which girls and women need access. This gives a more positive result in that a number of statements made by activists working on women and sports initiatives such as International Association of PE and Sports for Girls and Women a vital importance of sports and

physical education for girls and women as seen in the 1994 Brighton Declaration on Women and Sports, 1998 Windhoek Call for Action and the 2008 IAPESGW "Accept and Respect" Declaration (Scruton & Flintoff 2013).. However on the other hand radical sports feminist argue that complex gender inequalities still exist and continue to impact women and men in sports as the changes are merely superficial and hide the real complex challenges on issues of inequalities in relation to, femininity, racism, oppression (Henderson & Gibson 2013).

Egalitarian or welfare liberal feminists are the other type of liberal feminist who concentrate primarily on economic matters instead of civil matters. They view from the perspective that people join the world of business and commerce with different resources and competitive abilities. In ensuring that the marketplace does not continue indefinitely the inequalities currently present, advantages and disadvantages must be recognised by the government in order to intervene. There are many governmental programs designed to help women who are not yet involved in the marketplace (Tong, 1989).

Most of the advancement behind the sporting institutions has been the work of and contribution of the egalitarian liberal feminist. In the US, Title IX of the Education Amendments 1972 legislation was passed for a positive action in the sport world. Commonly known as Title IX, this law states: "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance...": this is an example of egalitarian liberal feminist theoretical framework at work (Messner and Sabo, 1972). It must be noted that prior to 1972, the funding of women in sports were unequal as compared to men's' funding and with the passing of Title IX,

there was a clear increase of 60 per cent of schoolgirls in the US participating in sports (Sabo, 1988).

There have been some criticisms against the liberal feminist, although bearing in mind that they have had the most concrete successes in the sporting culture. They have been accused of being “too eager to adopt male values” (Tong, 1989). However, it has also been recognised that this “eagerness” could have been the reason behind the successful creation of more opportunities for women in sports participation (Messner and Sabo, 1990). The failure to change or transform patriarchal structures is also the criticism hurled towards the liberal feminists by the socialist feminists. The result is that women adopt the patriarchal and competitive values of male dominated institutions such as sport and this results in increased opportunity which increases equality in participation but not at the same rate (Messner and Sabo, 1990). The issue with this is that socialisation of this type has been in the past, fraught with uncertainty. Looking back, it has promoted traditional gender role stereotypes in relation to men and sports in sports participation (Lindsey, 2015). These could result in more positive views of masculine stereotypes as a result of this socialisation since women are now participating within the sporting culture as opposed to being excluded from the sporting culture. More access and more funding have been lobbied by liberal feminism through legislative change for women in sports. However, the patriarchal nature of sports still remains despite these changes.

Socialist feminists argue that gender stereotypes are learnt by boys and girls through sports participation (Curry, 1991; Messner, 1989, 1992; Sabo, 1985, 1989). Unfortunately it has also been found that the root of gender disparity has been assisted by beliefs and behaviours within the sporting institution and this contributes to a structural defect that brings about an oppressive effect (Curry, 1991; Messner, 1989, 1992; Sabo, 1985, 1989). One of

the objectives of this research is to investigate the relationship between gender and sports participation. The feminine and masculine values are also looked into to establish the attitudes of people towards sports participation. The feminist theory that forms a socialist feminist perspective emphasises the American history and it has shown that the development of patriarchy and capitalism does result in men to command superior control over the efforts of women (Tong, 1989; Kimmel, 1990).

It will be interesting to consider this perspective in relation to Malaysia as the Asian tradition also practices patriarchy. The socialist feminists believe that the liberal feminists are overzealous to embrace male values (Tong, 1989). Therefore, this has resulted in the implementation of various opportunities in the sporting field for women; however it must be cautioned that this may result in the loss of funding if the programs for these female athletes fit into the framework and philosophy of male sporting culture (Messner and Sabo, 1990). The criticism of the socialist feminist is that liberal feminist has omitted to change or transform the patriarchal structures that has resulted in women having to adopt the competitive values that is related to masculinity in a male controlled sporting field (Messner & Sabo, 1990). This has not allowed equality to increase in the rate that socialist feminist would like to. Further these researchers have found that most of the sports developed for women are as similar to men's sporting activity and the outcome of this would be that the socialisation process of this program would be similar to those of men.

This is a problem because socialisation by sport for women will result in gender stereotypes as they will participate in the same field when previously they were not allowed to do so (Messner & Sabo, 1990). Although legal development will bring forward institutional change, it may not bring about societal changes in the patriarchal society. The

emergence of this theory is as a result of the feminist appropriation and the rearticulating of classical sociological theories of ethnomethodology (first established by Harold Garfinkel and his colleagues in 1967), dramaturgy and classical theories of social interactions.

Ethnomethodology is involved with the structure in which the actual or ordinary activities of members which conveys a comprehension of social structures and institutions. This means the human society and its members bring into being and convey the social order by way of their actions (Garfinkel, 1967). Dramaturgy was first established by Erving Goffman, where the theatre is used as analogy to society and social interactions (Goffman, 1959). In the approach of dramaturgy, it is argued in the similar lines of Jacques's famous melancholic lines in the pastoral comedy written by William Shakespeare (1599-1600) "As You like It". "All the world's a stage, and all the men and women merely players; they have their exits and their entrances; and one man in his time plays many parts, His acts being seven ages." (Shakespeare, *As You Like It*, Act II, Scene VII, lines 139-143). This shows that the individuals are likened to "actors" acting in a play where the "world is a stage" and just like actors who have to learn their lines in their roles, the individuals in the society too have to do the same (Goffman, 1959). These theories are related, in one way or another, to the classical symbolic interactionist theory which was first established by George Herbert Mead (Mead, 1934). The ways, in which this theory works are that, it is through the interactions with others that social actors' expression or wishes which are conveyed are said to be significant.

Individuals produce and control shrewdly symbols which gives them the capability to produce a readily distinguishable culture in which the symbolic interactionism assumes the existence through a social psychological theory. On the whole, this theory endeavours to comprehend how individuals express in a significant manner their bodies, selves,

interactions as well as the wider society (Goffman, 1959). To a point, the “founding fathers” (Mead, 1934; Garfinkel, 1967 and Goffman, 1959 to name a few) of interactionism in their research did direct their effort to sex or gender issues (the classic study was of “Agnes” the male to female transsexual by Garfinkel 1967) However, it was only in the late 1980s, a more complex comprehension of gender emerged as cardinal in this theory, where previously the feminist theory concentrated on the sex roles approach. Sex roles are how one fits in a traditional gender role by characterizing the personality such as masculine, feminine, androgynous or undifferentiated. The argument that gender is a ‘routine accomplishment’ rather than “not innate, neither variable nor set of traits is buried in day-to-day interactions which was stated in a classic article, “Doing Gender” (West and Zimmerman, 1991). The belief that gender differences are socially constructed through social interactions and not through natural or biological factors is one of the major parts of this outlook. As such, gender can be viewed to be neither a schematic idea which shows little if any change nor does one specific concept about gender continue to exist or hold firmly through. It is through social interaction, which changes historically and cross culturally that gender is set up and therefore gender is a consequence of social relations (West and Zimmerman, 1991).

There are three types of theories which explain gender socialisation: Freud Psychoanalytic Theory, Social Learning Theory and Cognitive Development Theory. This interpretation of gender in a conceptual way is a formulation which varies from socialisation theories, where through the passage of socialisation into prominent social institutions for example the family or school concentrates on how gender roles are learned. The creation of the gender classification is “done” through the passage of individuals communicating with one another in the circumstance of broader social relations is the

arguments of Vygotsky's social interaction theory (Ariza and Hancock, 2003) and this is based on symbolic interaction theory (Blumer, 1969; Mead, 1934; Goffman 1959, 1963, 1967) which states that socialisation is the major determinant of human nature in that human behaviour is decided by how people define situation or by how they attribute it (Longmore, 1998). On the other hand, the arguments put forth by socialisation theorists are that although gender roles are established through social interactions; this theory frequently presumes a "deterministic" top-down outlook. Such as, it is through the interaction with social institutions like families, school or peer group that children assimilate the pertinence of suitability of gender roles. There is limited scrutiny with traditional socialisation theories on what manner or to what extent can individuals employ agency in these interactions (Corsaro 1997; Thorne 1993). This specific limitation of socialisation theories is dealt with by the social interactionist through the "doing gender" conceptualisation (West and Zimmerman, 1987).

In our interactions, gender is constantly in existence. The interactionist conceptualization contends that gender is an evolving accomplishment, where in contrast to the socialisation conceptualization which contends that we assimilate our gender roles and these roles are what we put into effect during our adulthood. This goes to show that during our life process, individuals are internalising and doing gender. Through the day-to-day interactions with peers in schools, sports and playgrounds, children actively conceptualize gender; however, children do not passively adopt societal gender roles. This was recognised in relation to research on children's gender play positions where they engage in the construction and active negotiation of gendered subjectivities within the larger context of school and peer interactions (Thorne, 1993). Other researchers in these areas have continued in this custom (Adler & Adler, 1998; Corsaro, 1997; Messner 1990, 2000).

There are restrictions to this conceptualisation; however, the “doing gender” theories have received sensational impetus on feminists’ theoretical comprehension of gender (West and Zimmerman, 1987). It has been proposed that doing gender “successfully” represents social classification supported on divergence as normal and natural. This means that if women do gender befittingly, this generates social institutions which suppress women. For that reason, women are perceived as willing participants to their own suppression and they should fight gender oppression by doing gender in the construction that calls into question the gendered existing state of affairs, however, through not, doing gender (West and Zimmerman, 1987).

It must be noted; that doing gender is possible only if one does ethnicity and class at the same time, however, on the methods in the circumstances ethnicity and class are complexly secured to gender was not discussed in the original theory (West and Fenstermaker, 1995; Pyke and Johnson 2003). This means social interaction is composed of specific “ethnicityd” and “classed” gender roles. The success of emphasised femininity on the sporting field is crucial in the makeup of gendered identities because research suggest that there have been peer pressure to subject adolescent girls to cultural demands (Adams, Schmitke, & Franklin, 2005; Malcolm 2003). There are however, scholars who are in agreement with the professional sports women who currently adopt a “heterosexy” image while there are those who criticize it (Heywood & Dworkin, 2003 contrast with Griffin, 1998). Women who adopt the sporting institution have been faced with obstacles in their participation and have made great effort to deal with gendered outlook and ideologies (Dworkin, & Wachs 2009). This is due to the fact that men have defined and interpreted sports as a space where boys and men “do” hegemonic masculinity (Dunning & Sheard, 1979).

The Cultivation Theory states that repeated exposure to media messages will lead to distorted beliefs and attitudes of social reality which conforms more to the media world than the real-world (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan & Signorelli, 1994). This may result in a negative impact on the development of women in sports participation. “Advertising in women’s magazines play an influential role in formulating, maintaining, and alternating how readers understand the construction of socially acceptable gender norms” (Inness, 2004). Researchers have shown that generally magazines focuses on how to correct woman’s imperfections and inadequacies, therefore, this is a clear signal on how women should look and what men should look for in women (Malkin, Wornian & Chrisler, 1999). Therefore, girls and adolescents learn about culture and adopt the cultural expectations for their behaviour, attitudes and beliefs based on this self- objectification (Ziegler, 2006).

2.8.2 Gender Schema Theory

Gender Schema Theory is derived from the idea that suggests society has an inherent perception that offers them hope and anticipation when information is processed by people (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Therefore, gender-schematic are individuals who pledge to the behaviours that are considered to be acceptable in the eyes of the society based on their gender and therefore this limits their behavioural options and to a large extent will not move away from the way they are expected to behave (Bem, 1974; Starr & Zurbriggen 2016). Therefore gender schemata are powerful not only in influencing how children construe and recollect their new practices , but they are also powerful in influencing what hiow children understand and guide their conduct and communications with the surrounding environment (Martin & Halverson Jr1981). Therefore, children when

confronted and relying on their own gender identity within a cultural stereotypes, will categorise objects as “for boys” or “for girls”.

The constructivist approach to gender development is seen thru the dual pathways model (DPM) and this was argued gender schemata is important in supervising children's gendered behaviors and development (Liben & Bigler, [2002](#)). Although almost all young children are familiarized with what the culture defines as “for girls” and “for boys” it was crucial to identify the influence of individual differences in relation to cultural gender stereotypes, processing of information through their view of gender and their own interest and talent that exists independent of their gender(Bigler & Liben, [2007](#)) These were looked at by postulating that gender stereotypes attitudes about others drives patterns of commitment for the self and this is related to the attitudes of the children. The children's attitudes may also be influenced by their own interests and behaviors about what can be construed to be gender appropriate for others (Liben & Bigler, [2015](#)). This could be based on the constructive process of gender development in that many of the attributes differ across people and this is more so as children are cognitively able to infer what are their important characteristic due to their own unique environment this could be based on ethnicity and cultural differences that may bring about discriminating selection hardwired in them (Bigler & Liben, [2006](#)). However this could be reduced by socialization processes that allow children to form social group stereotypes due to social group categorization and stereotyping within a culture or society (Star & Zurbriggen 2016). This could be based on implicit social policies where societies may either minimize or exaggerate these differentiating factors (Bigler, [2013](#); Bigler & Liben, [2006](#); Liben & Bigler, [2015](#); Liben, Bigler, & Hilliard, [2014](#)).

Women have always been thought of to be feminine and men to be masculine (Colley, Nash, O'Donnell, & Restorick, 1987; Kane, 1990; Koivula, 1995; Matteo, 1986; Shaw, 1994, 1999; Shaw & Kemeny, 1989). Therefore, it can be seen that gender is looked at from the perspective of femininity and masculinity. According to Sage (1998:64) "organised sports have been a powerful cultural arena for reinforcing the ideology and actuality of male superiority and dominance; its traditions, symbols, and values tended to preserve patriarchy and women's subordinate position in society". Women's appearance, demeanour and value are the socially constructed standard which is recognised as feminine (Bordo, 1993). Two identities are created which are athlete and women, this is where female athletes are put in a position where they may have to conform to the ideal female image which are created by the society and culture or try to settle and resolve the social outlook of feminism within athletes (Krane, Choi, Baird, Aimar and Kauer, 2004; Leaper (2013).). Women struggle to gain proper recognition for the sporting abilities and overall athleticism, in comparison to men who are seen and accepted as athletes.

The gender Schema Theory argues that people are socialised (through their agents) into believing that differences are significant and worth maintaining (Bem1981, 1983 ; Heyder & Kessels2015). In sports, the female participants pose threat to the preservation of gender ideology which suggests that males are relatively big, tough and powerful in comparison to women and they are considered to be far more superior to women (Coakley, 2004). Women have to concern themselves with the outcome of the traditional gender ideology, unlike their male counterpart (Duncan and Hasbrook, 1988). To fight some of these effects, women athletes will most of the time dress femininely, wear ribbons in their hair and eventually make mention that they would like to start a family (Mennesson, 2000). The traditional male role results in men being portrayed as athletes, being an athlete is

compatible with male roles (Coakley and White, 1992). Female athletes appear to be more gender role compatible due to the fact that portrayals of female athletes concentrate on facets of their femininity (Knight and Giuliano, 2002). Terms such as “girls”, “young ladies” and “women” are among the terms of references used by media broadcasters during women’s events, in comparison to men’s event where terms used are “men” and not “boys” or “young men”. Social representations and descriptions of women athletes through media coverage can contribute to the additional support of gender construction of gender stereotyping, this is especially so, as young children are avid consumers of mass media (Sage, 1998) .

Each society strives to develop the early socialization of boys and girls through behaviours, features and activities that is suitable for their gender (Cross & Madson, 1997; Hanish, Fabes, Leaper, Bigler, Hayes, Hamilton, & Beltz2013). Unfortunately, sporting activities and many social activities are gender-typed according to cultural stereotypes and what is considered to be gender appropriate (Koivula, 1985; Matteo, 1986, 1988). Unfortunately these gender-typed individuals are always encouraged to decide on actions that obey to cultural beliefs and behaviours for masculinity and femininity (Bem, 1981).

When gender stereotype in sports participation exists the females participants belief that they face role conflict and this happens when they participate in sporting activity that is considered to be gender inappropriate as compared to gender appropriate sports (Anthrop & Allison, 1983; Sage and Loudermilk, 1979). This conflict is said to occur during the transition period of girl to womanhood (Brown, 1985). This was further asserted by other researchers on the occurrence of gender role intensification (Hill and Lynch, 1983) where these adolescents are influenced to conform to gender role stereotypes and expectations (Eccles & Bryan, 1994; Hill and Lynch, 1983).

Researchers have found that due to this gender role conflict, these girls choose not to participate in sports (Lindsey 2015; Kane and Snyder, 1989). Therefore, in relation to this gender role theory, it has been found that what differentiates a gender-typed individual from a non-gender typed individual is the use of gender as an element to translate and shape behaviour even though other elements are readily accessible (Bem, 1993; Athenstaedt, 2003; Deaux & Lewis, 1984; Starr & Zurbriggen 2016).

2.8.3 Social Role Theory

The social role theory suggests that social observers in a given society conclude that the social groups derive their practices according to their usual social roles in the general population (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Wood, 2012; Wood & Eagly, 2012). Therefore the inference is that their social roles impact the characters of the social group for example a Physical Education teacher may have a high influence in sports related activities in the school he or she works. This may be based on a membership in a social group based on demographic factors such as ethnicity or gender stereotypes within the culture observed by the social groups (Chan et al, 2012). This is important to the claim of the social role theory as a groups typical role behaviours to their group stereotypes that what that which curtails the individuals opportunity and creates biasness, however the social reality is that his may not necessarily mean that all individuals in the group may practices biasness of stereotyping (Wood & Eagly, 2013; Koenig & Eagly2014). The dogmas of the characteristics of a groups' distinctive roles are powerfully related to the way groups practice the stereotyping on close relationships that are agency related, however this can be altered due to social role changes and this may result in either a less or more pronounced stereotyping (Koenig & Eagly, (2014).

2.8.4 Socialisation Theories

Socialisation in the context of sports has been defined by Greendorfer (1990). He stated that “.....female interest and involvement in sport is not a chance occurrence that depends on legislation or on innate skill and motor talent. Rather, it is an outcome of a complex and systematic process called socialisation . . . this dynamic social process related gender [and racial] roles and how roles influence the likelihood of who will and will not become involved in sport . . .” (Greendorfer, 1990:p3). This means that participation of females by gender and ethnicity in sports is determined by the social world. In sports participation, gender has an important and deep impact on the socialisation process as they influence the development of people into their gender and racial roles and expectations in society (Hargreaves, 1994; Nilges, 1998). Coakley (1998) stated that “an active process of learning and social development that occurs as people interact with one another and become acquainted with the social world in which they live, and as they form ideas about who they are, and make decisions about their goals and behaviours”(Coakley, 1998:p88). This view suggest that socialisation occurs when the personal and social development of people take places when they get accustomed with one another through communication and dialogues.

Socialisation agents are families, siblings, peers, teachers and coaches, who have influence and impact on the way people learn and the perspective from which they perceive the world around them (Messner, 2002). Messner stated that “ Day-to-day interactions among children, as contextualized by parents, teachers, institutions, and popular culture, still tend mostly to push men and masculinity to the centre of the athletic status system, while marginalising girls, women and femininity” (Messner, 2002:p22). This shows how the social construction of girl’s interest should be nurtured to create increased participation

of girls in sports which will include the characteristics of both hegemonic masculinity and creations of a new construction of femininity which is hoped to erase the dichotomous construction of gender inequality in sports participation. At each level, formal and informal structure, social interactions, cultural discourses and representations on gender, sport and feminism impact the structure, the social and the collective interactions. Female sport socialisation has been widely researched from a social learning theoretical perspective (Greendorfer 1977a, 1977b, 1983; Greendorfer and Ewing, 1981; Greendorfer and Lewko, 1978; Lewko & Greendorfer, 1982). The two important agents of sport socialisation for young females are family and peers (Greendorfer, 1974). However, this changes later on, when another important agent is introduced which are coaches (Greendorfer, 1977b). Women's participation in sports are criticized more often and men's participation in sports is more often praised (Billings, 2003; Billings and Eastman, 2002, 2003). Women's achievement in sports are attributed to luck or guidance of a strong male influence (Eastman & Billings, 2000; Hallmark & Armstrong, 1999), whereas the men's achievement in sports is attributed to their athletic skills; their overall dedication to their sports, team and their overall courage (Eastman & Billings, 1999). Instead of allowing women's achievement to stand on their own they are always compared and contrasted to the men's (Eastman & Billings, 2000; Halbert & Latimer, 1994). Words such as 'strong', 'powerful', and 'big' are used to describe men in sports where their performance are concerned (Eastman & Billings, 1999; Messner et al., 1993). In fact men are also commented on the physical aspect of 'size', and athletic appearance (Billings & Eastman, 2002). The stereotypical superiority is definitely exhibited when men who lose in sports are more often said to be because of the successes of the opponents, however, if it was women, then they were said to be lacking in concentration, experience, aggression or skill (Billings & Eastman, 2002, 2003; Eastman and Billings, 1999, 2000; Halbert and Latimer, 1994;

Messner et al, 1993). There has been comments like “[She’s] just not ready for this kind of competition (Eastman & Billings, 2000) and “No girl would ever have [got] that” (Halbert & Latimer, 1994). These statements reflect a lack of confidence in their skills and a reflection of gendered hierarchy in sports.

In fact, this is not only related to young girls learning but young boys also learn through cultural observations about what their roles are in relation to girls or women and what are their expectation towards female behaviour (Ziegler, 2006). This is based on the Social Learning Theory, where sports participation is proper for male but not necessarily for females (Greendorfer, 1983). These cultural stereotypes cause female athletes to look at themselves as “different” and having adversative qualities on and off the field (Harris, 1980). The social learning model has shown that the role conflict between a female athlete viewing herself as a female and as a sport woman takes a few shapes (Felshin, 1974; Harris, 1980; Tyler, 1973; Vealy, 1983). The researchers identified a few possible scenarios for example a female athlete may decide not to attend any social gatherings which expects her to behave in a feminine way, the athletic will behave as a sportswoman in the social gathering or she may be “apologetic”(Felshin, 1974). The outcome of this would be that she downplay the importance of her sporting ability by using more accessories to make her more female, she may also advocate a woman’s role to be more conservative and traditional which excuses sports participation or the worst undesired outcome would be that she may decide to withdraw from sports participation completely due to the conflict becoming too great to handle.

The monopoly of sports by men has been strongly supported by many (Anderson, 2005; Birell and Theberge, 1994; Bryson, 1987; Cszima et al., 1988; Hargreaves, 1986; Messner, 1988, 2002; Messner and Sabo, 1990; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1983). Male sports

participation has always been considered “natural” or “normal” and has been encouraged by parents and peers (Messner, 1998). The key route to prestige and self-esteem is successful competition and this has been taught since childhood to males (Messner & Sabo, 1990). The opportunity and experience of social acceptance and lessons to fulfil their social roles has been learnt through sports participation (Ross & Shiner, 2007).

In a male dominated culture, the gender inequities are supported by sport practices (Hargreaves, 1986). However, it has been recognised that the patriarchal nature of sports may cause harm and limit both men and women (Kidd, 1990). In a larger society, sports are “systems of inequality and exclusion which exist as effects of a dominant group ideology of an elite minority who control the major factions of sport: economic, political and cultural” (Schell & Rodriguez, 2000). The ways in which societal values and norms are regulated by males and conveyed to females are through the media, the governing structure of sports and the socialisation of process (Schell & Rodriguez, 2000). Therefore, patriarchal values and gender differences which are exaggerated oppress women and a great number of men in sports through social learning which takes place in society and through the media (Sabo 1985).

Female sport participation numbers have increased in the recent years (Acosta & Carpenter, 1990). This could be due to the fact that sports environment have become more inclusive. It is the hope of the proponents of equal opportunity for women in sports that new opportunities will trigger a dramatic shift in cultural values regarding women’s sports; however this may not necessarily be a reality (Sabo & Messner, 1993). Although women continue to be admitted into sporting activities they are continuously discriminated (Sabo & Messner, 1993). It has been observed that simply by increasing the numbers and finances does not change the overall environment of sports (Wahington & Karen.2001).

The Social Learning Theory states that gender role socialisation progress through communication and contact with the social environment firstly and in the shape of corroboration and observational learning (Bandura, 1977; Mischel, 1970). There is a great contribution in the study and where socialisation of females in sports can be understood (Greendorfer 1974; 1977b). The Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura 1977, 2001; Baranowski, Perry & Parcel, 2002) states that watching television can influence an individual's belief on a certain topic which creates negative impact. Therefore, it would be reasonable to believe that exposure to stereotype portrayals of female athletes would have an impact on viewer's overall beliefs about the societal roles of women (Angelini, 2008). The Social Identity Theory states that being exposed to stereotypical portrayal of a group will only reinforce an individual's previous held stereotyped belief and how members of the stereotyped groups can begin to believe the stereotypes (Tajfel 1978; Tajfel & Turner 1979). Therefore, it is only possible to accept that if society is exposed to the traditional portrayals of female athletes, then the stereotypical societal views towards women will only be reinforced and that will lead women to identify and relate to the female athletes that they are seeing (Angelini, 2008).

While women may be approaching equalization of opportunity (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985, 2004, 2006), they are moving forward without upsetting the order of society which embethnicity the existing traditions and male dominances (Hargreaves, 1994). This research along with the policies, views and encouragement from adults and the social attitudes in girls' sports participation shows how it is important in achieving gender equality in sports participation in school.

2.8.5 Stereotype Threat Theory

Stereotype Threat Theory is a well-established research in the academic field that has been frequently used (Croizet et al., 2004; Schmader, 2002; Steele, Spencer, & Aronson, 2002; Spencer, Steele & Quinn, 1999). Stereotype threats that are induced bring about gender stereotypes in relation to general athletic ability especially in relation to women. They influence male and females' general athleticism (Heidrich & Chiviawowsky2015). This theory has been tested in the sports field in relation to ethnicity and gender stereotypes from the western perspective (Beilock, Jellison, Rydell, McConnell, & Carr, 2006; Beilock & Mc Connell, 2004; Stone, 2002; Stone et al., 1999). . Stereotype threat takes place when an individual dreads being judged negatively based on a negative in-group stereotype and this leads to the confirmation of the stereotype (Schmader, Johns & Forbes, 2008; Steele, 1997). It has have been found that the stereotype threat is most workable on persons who find the field of stereotype to be significant (Leyens, Desert, Croizet & Darcis, 2000). This is situational approach that brings about an induced identity condition due to stereotypes that is present in the society (Chalabaev, Philippe, Fontayne, Boiche, Guillotin (2013).

Studies have found that this stereotype threat is most vigorous in the gender category (Spencer et al., 1999) and ethnicity (Steele & Aronson, 1995). This theory also has a merging effect in that the stereotype threat diminishes negative performance through motivation (Schmader et al., 2008). An example is when a sports person is motivated not to fail in any competition. This means that there are certain females who may have looked at stereotyping as a positive internalization compared to negative stereotypes (Chalabaev, Sarrazin, Stone, & Cury, 2008). Negative stereotyping occurs when individuals are faced with undesirable and harmful characteristics that are smeared to their group, they are

fearful of endorsing them, and they are shunned due to the fact that these type of bad characterizations actually damage people's self-confidence (Steele & Aronson, 1995). In order to avoid stereotyping threat, a positive social identity needs to be activated to negate negative stereotyping identity (Martiny, Gleibs, Parks-Stamm, Martiny-Huenger, Froehlich, Harter, & Roth2015).

The opposing views of stereotyping identified that female are more likely to receive positive feedback compared to boys related to their sporting activities in their physical education classes. This could be considered to be positive as it assists the development of stereotypes that approves female participation in sports (Nicaise, Bois, Fairclough, Amorose and Cogarine,2007). Therefore, these individuals probably would discard negative group stereotypes as traits of themselves (Darley & Gross, 1983; Steele & Aronson, 1995). This theory does not rest on the basis of the perception of a person's ability and they do not suffer the negative consequences of stereotypes as it is not an outcome of the internalisation of cultural stereotypes into one's self during the process of socialisation (Chalabaev et al.,2008).

There have been research undertaken in stereotype threats in the field of ethnicity (Stone, Lynch, Sjomeling, & Darley, 1999) and gender namely male (Beilock, Jellison, Rydell, McConnel, and Carr 2006) and female in the area of golf putting which is viewed as a male gender-typed activity in Western Europe (Stone & McWhinnie, 2008). Another study conducted with females in a soccer dribbling activity, it was found that stereotype threat does affect females in male gender-typed sports (Chalabaev, et. al., 2008). It has also been found that words too can have an automatic but unconscious stereotyping effect on persons (Bargh et al., 1996). For example in relation to this research "People think I am an athletes because I am masculine" or " People think I am talented because I am tomboyish".

Statements like this can either decrease or increase the performance of the female participants in sports.

The concepts in relation to social critical analysis of gender and sports are hegemonic power and ideology, embodiment and social identification (Butler 1993; Coakley, 1998; Connell 1995; Hargreaves 1994; Hargreaves 1995; Hooks 1995). The assumption here is that the construction and the challenge within the social practice of sports is a reflection of unequal power relations and dominant meanings. Traditional gender inequalities and dominant ideologies are not only challenged by marginalised groups like women but also the new generation of our young people. It is worthwhile asking if the young people challenge or resist dominant gender ideology with respect to sport participation.

The leading concepts in a critical approach to sports participation and gender equality are hegemonic power relations, social constructions and embodiments and social identification. Hegemonic or marginal norms and values are used by people to identify with a team, town or social groups, however in the same way they also use this on other groups and their assigned values to distant themselves (Messner and Sabo, 1990). With regards to social identification, there are some specific sports that are considered to be masculine and some considered feminine. In the Malaysian context, it is more acceptable for boys to go out and play sports especially masculine related sports as compared to girls.

The argument that sports are associated with males are challenged by feminist scholars, however, although they are no longer officially excluded from participation, however, the dominant sports media often marginalise and make them invisible (Birell and Theberge, 1994; Duncan and Messner, 2000; Knoppers and Elling, 2001). One dimensional social relation (Lukes 1974) such as gender, ethnicity, age or ability have been

focused under theoretical and policy oriented analysis of social inclusion and exclusion, despite the fact that individuals belong to various constructed social identities within specific status positions in sports and society (Anthias, 2001).

Attention in the areas of intersecting social relations, social cultural norms and images and the complexity and paradoxical nature of process and mechanisms of inclusion and exclusion has been relatively rare. The question is to what extent young girls still hold hegemonic subject positions compared to their male majority especially since social identities have become more fluid especially among youngsters. Besides that sport practices have become more different as there is greater diversity of activities and organisations which have made sport opportunities more accessible to people.

2.9 Conceptual and Analytical Framework for this Study

Academics mentioned above, have in one way or another, conducted studies on the issue of gender and sports for women, however, to my knowledge, there has not been a study investigating the same phenomenon in Malaysia. Culture, history and laws, in western countries are very different from that of Malaysia, and therefore, it is not known to what extent the western studies may be applicable to the Malaysian experience. There has not been a comprehensive work done on the participation of girls and women in sports. Therefore this research aims to fill the gap in the knowledge on gender equality in sports in Malaysia.

This study will apply the concepts above in analysing the data. Firstly the study will see if there is gender typing of sports (see figure 2.1). Secondly, it will analyse if there are gender and ethnic differences on stereotyping, perceptions and influences (see figure 2.2) on sports participation, finally the study will examine the relationship between gender

within different ethnicities in stereotyping, perception and influences on sports participation (see figure 2.3).

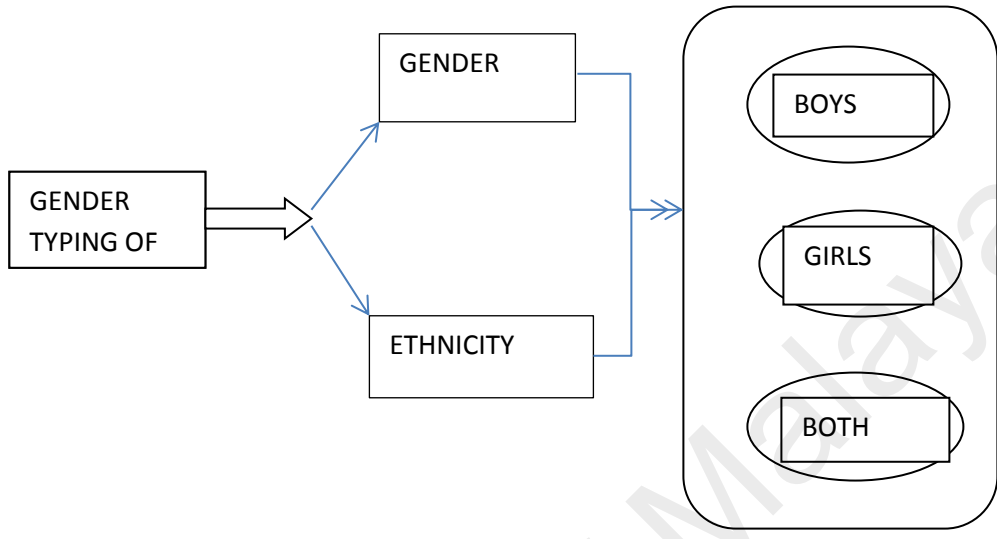


Figure 2.1 Gender Typing of Sports

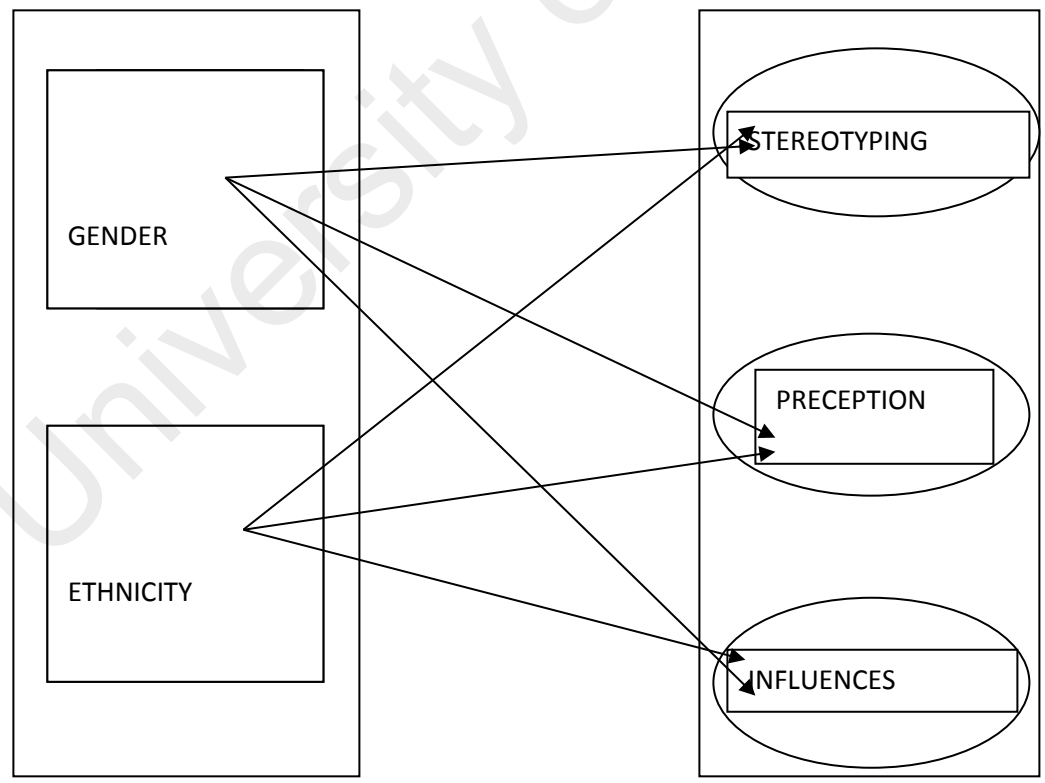


Figure 2.2 Gender and Ethnicity on Stereotyping, Perception and Influences.

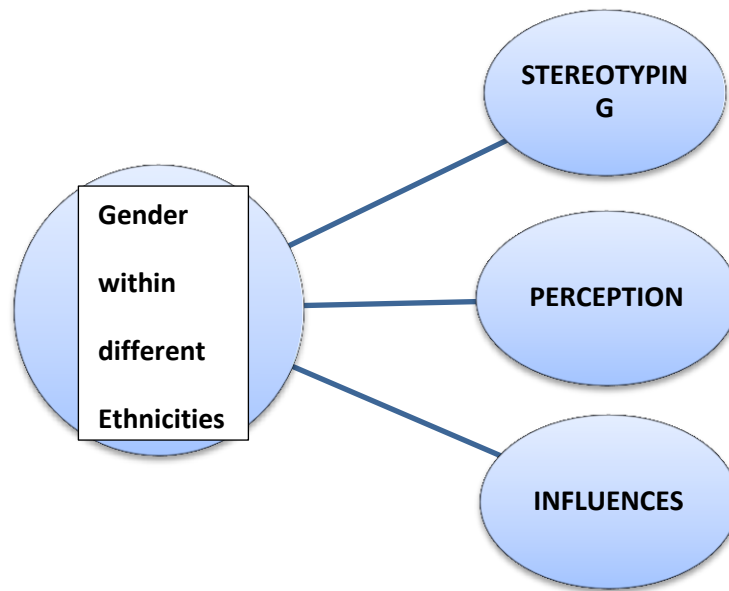


Figure 2.3 The relationship between gender within different ethnicities in stereotyping, perception and influences on sports participation

2.10 Crossing the Border and Integrating These Frameworks

Each formulation of these framework only explain one area of gender and gender relations in the society, therefore these approaches must be combined to bring about a logical deduction that can answer some unanswered questions (Messner, 2000). The interaction and structure theories can be synthesised to question the ways structures are created and regenerated through day-to-day interaction in the society. The culture and interaction theory can be synthesised to question the processes that are buried deep within the discussions of studies of cultural texts and artefacts (Goffman, 1959; Corsaro 1997; Thorne 1993). An insight of the power of institution to limit or restrain and allow distinct social interactions and individual and collective agency is found in the structure theory (Messner, 2000). The shortcoming of this is that how the institutions restrain and allow particular ways of interaction of performance are disregarded when paying attention to group dynamics. Feminist can turn to Cultural Studies to show how social interaction can

be formed by cultural discussion and media texts. It follows suit that they can also recognise how social structures are influenced by cultures. It would be interesting to observe if these can be used in the area of feminism and sports.

Gender, as a structure in sports, will be explored. In understanding gender, it is recognised and widely accepted that an examination of structure and agency is important. In fact, the conceptualisation of gender as a social structure has been called for a clearer examination of the ways in which gender is snugly fixed in the individual and institutional aspects of the society (Risman, 2004). The structures allow social actors to make certain choices, experiences and opportunities however; it limits the social actor's participation. It was further stated that "a social structural analysis must help us to understand how and why actors choose an alternative over another" (Risman, 2004). The synthesis and the construction of empirical analyses of structure and agency in the study of gender in youth sports have been examined (Grasmuck & Goldwater, 2005; Messner, 2000). I would like to examine the the girls and boys views and perception on sports participation in Malaysia that it is based on both structural restrictions and individual and collective agency.

I will further explore that girls participation in sports are based on the forces and the motion of interaction between the wider social structure and collective and individual agency (Giddens 1984; Ingham and Hardy 1984; Sugden and Tomlinson, 2002). This is where social structures are built upon the continuation of collective social actions and the experience of the girls in participation of sports is based on the structures of restrain and choices. Power is said to be an important tool in the relationship between agency and structure – "a dialectic control" (Sugden and Tomlinson, 2002; Giddens, 1984). Therefore it must also be understood that agency is continuously ever changing and constraining.

Agency is recognised as either an empowerment or a constraint (Mikkelsen, 2005) or even reproductive of social structures (Hays, 1994).

In this thesis, the participation of girls and boys will take on a structural approach in that it will concentrate on the wider structures of opportunity which restrict or allow girls and boys to participate in sports. The structures will be determined on the opportunities given to the girls and boys to participate in sports. This is where we would have to also analyse the support given in the education system to the girls in school for sports. The approach taken here will be that gender and sports is deeply rooted in liberal political philosophy and democracy as this provides an opportunity and avenue to bring into existence or being a new structure which allows opportunity and expansion in allowing girls to be fairly represented if not more in the institutions (Cooky and McDonald, 2005; Shakib and Dunbar, 2002).

It must be noted that these experts discussed the restrictions of liberalism as a strategy to terminate dehumanisation practices and ideologies in girls' sports. However, it must be accepted that increased structural opportunities not necessarily mean increased recognition for minorities in a dominant group (Bonilla-Silva, 2004). Girls have been left out in the discussion or discussed in a lesser manner and this is even so when they had performed better than the boys (Shakib and Dunbar, 2002). For example, women have not been discussed as much as their male counterparts in the media (Messner, Duncan and Cooky, 2003). Historically women and girls in sports participation and their restriction and lack of support in sports have been written widely (Cahn, 1994; Hargreaves, 1994) especially in sports which are male dominated (S & Wach, 2009; Howe, 2003; Theberge, 2000). This is still in existence to date.

The main reason sports was invented was to give men and boys the hegemonic power when their lives were changing drastically as their lives were feminised during the Industrial Revolution (Burstyn, 1999; Bryson, 1990; Messner, 1992). There clearly is a reason for the liberal political strategy to eliminate oppression by increasing opportunities and participation in institutions to minorities and girls can be considered minorities within sports. If this is unsuccessful, it will not change the sexist and racist ideologies and discrimination that is frequently used to support institutional discrimination (Bonilla-Silva, 2004). It is recognised and accepted that structures exist inside human interaction and individuals act inside of structural forces and institutions (Messner, 2002; Hays, 1994; Giddens, 1984).

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODS

3.1 Introduction

The aim of the thesis is to examine gender equality in sport participation. To address the research questions in this study, I have laid down an introduction to the study and a discussion of the methods used. These were the procedures that were used to examine the issues relating to gender equality in sports participation in Malaysia.

1. The main objectives of the study are: To examine gender typing of sports between boys and girls and to establish their level of involvement in sports participation
2. To identify if there exists gender typing of sports within various ethnic groups (Malay, Chinese , Indian)
3. To examine students' views of people's perception on gender stereotyping of sports participation and impact on sports participation by gender and ethnicity.
4. To examine students perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation
5. To determine the extent of family and society's influence on students' participation in sports by gender and ethnicity.
6. To investigate difference in students views of gender stereotyping in sports participation, students perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation and family and society's influences in sports participation by gender within various ethnic groups.

This study was undertaken to establish whether there exists gender typing of sports and does it differ according to the respondents' gender and ethnicity? Do students view's of people's perception on gender stereotyping of sport participation, students perception of masculine and feminine values in sports, extent of family and society's influence impact sports participation by gender and ethnicity? The students were also asked to give their reasons for choosing certain types of sports (boys and girls within form 3 to form 6) in seven secondary school in the Klang Valley. In other words, the reason why the survey was undertaken was to obtain data on the schoolchildren's interpretation and perception of what sports are suitable for them and whether they conform or challenge socialisation and stereotyping of sports participation. Further it was also to gain a better understanding of the interplay between the development of sports participation and the dynamics of students' participation at the school and community level in the social context of urban schools in the Klang Valley.

This chapter will include the sample profile and the treatment of scales and the descriptive results of the scales used to measure each of the variables in the questionnaires. The results have been presented in the following chapters according to the research objectives and questions of this thesis.

3.2 Research Paradigms

The process of scientific practise based on people's philosophies and assumptions about the world and the nature of knowledge is what is understood as paradigm or philosophy. Kuhn (1962) stated that paradigm 'universally recognised scientific achievements' that for a time provide model problems and solutions to a community of practitioners (1962). A framework is grounded on the recognised and acknowledged set of theories, methods and approaches of defining data. In fact, due to the term being

understood differently in academic research, (Burrell, & Morgan, 1979) has suggested that the term can be used at three different levels.

The first level he states is at the philosophical level where it is used to replicate or mirror the basic beliefs about the world and the second level is at the social level, where it is used to deliver guidelines about how the researcher should conduct his or her actions and the third level is at the technical level, where it is used to stipulate the methods and techniques that preferably should be implemented when conducting research (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). This would allow the researcher to convey and reflect the views and opinions of the world through the way the research has been designed. This is undertaken through the identification of the research paradigm that is set to determine the course of the research project.

There are mainly two paradigms. The first is recognised as positivist (also termed as quantitative objectivist, scientific, experimentalist and traditionalist). The second is recognised as phenomenological (also terms as qualitative, subjectivist, humanistic and interpretive). Weaver and Olson's (2006) defined paradigms to disclose how research could be influenced and steered by a definite paradigm by stating, "paradigms are patterns of belief and practises that regulate inquiry within a discipline by providing lenses, frames and processes through which investigation is accomplished". This describes the condition of analysis and selection of methodologies used by the author.

Sociologist Auguste Comte had argued that sociology should be a positivist science (Ritzer & Goodman, 2004) this is although many gender and sports researchers adopt the phenomenological paradigm by using qualitative methodologies. This thesis adopts a positivist paradigm by using quantitative methodologies that shares philosophical foundation. This thesis is based on the notion that the positivist framework used should be studied empirically and scientifically. A value free sociology of this framework means

that prejudices and beliefs are quashed in pursuit for objective, empirical and coherent actuality of facts.

The philosophy that is identified in this study is based on firm rules of reasoning and quantity, truth, unconditional values and forecast that argues there is one objective reality (Cole, 2006). Therefore the positivist approach adopted in this study is based on that the relationship between social reality and humans are independent, object of the cause and effect type.

3.3 Study Design

“Research Design is the science (and art) of planning procedures for conducting studies so as to get the most valid findings” (Vogt,1993).This study was undertaken using a quantitative design which as stated above is a positivist paradigm. It included some open ended questions in a quantitative method. Selection of the participants and study location, gaining access, data collection, data analysis and relevant research issues is presented in this chapter.

Through use of these methods, the study explains whether socialisation, stereotypes, gender typing of sports, stereotypes ,perception and ethnicity influence girls and boys participation in sports. The quantitative approach is where the participants complete a self-administered questionnaire under the guidance of teachers and the researcher. A quantitative research strives to quantify the data. Conclusive evidence is looked for and this is largely centred on large, representative samples and some form of statistical analysis is to a large extent a key requirement (Malhotra, 2008). Since this research was based on quantitative analysis, the data collected used a highly structured approach. A highly structured approach is where the research pre-decides the wording of

the questions put to the respondents and the availability of the range of answers. This allows the researcher a complete appreciation on the range of responses that would be acceptable. The study used multiple answer options and 5 point Likert Scales. There were some open ended questions in the questionnaire. This permitted the respondents free responses and this allowed for spontaneity that was probably more valid to support the reason why these respondents did not choose to participate in any sporting activities. The need for this was to obtain an insight into the comprehension of the answer in some of the quantitative questions.

3.4 Selection of Participants and Study Location

The study was aimed at secondary school girls and school boys in the Federal Territory and Selangor. The school girls and boys are from three types of schools. Three schools are co-ed and the other two schools are all girls' school. Another two schools are boys' schools. The sample population of 2,500 students were limited to schoolchildren in Form Three to Form Six and who had consented to answer the questionnaire. These included all students and not restricted to only those who participated in sports, For the data collection, letters were sent out to the Ministry of Education Malaysia. After about 2 months, a reply was received consenting to this research to be undertaken in schools. The Ministry agreed on the condition that separate approvals were gathered from the Education Department in Malaysia. Letters were sent out to the Department of Education in Federal Territory and Selangor The Department of Education for both these states informed that consent had to be obtained from the schools for this research. Letters were sent out to all schools in Federal Territory (101) and Selangor (275). Many schools were late in responding as a 3 month waiting period was given to the schools and despite calls made to schools while some calls were unanswered or the head of schools were busy

involved with school work. Further some schools did not respond at all. A total of 30 schools responded however they placed conditions such as dates, timing and the types of students that were allowed to be interviewed for example only Form 1 and Form 2 students were allowed to be interviewed as they were not sitting for the Government Examinations that year, the interview was only allowed after the mid year examination that would be in June or only selected classes were allowed to be interviewed. Therefore taking all these challenges 13 of schools were identified for the purpose of this study, however, due to the timing, schools commitments to other projects, not all were able to assist in this research. Therefore, the schools which agreed and were fully committed to this research were in the Federal Territory (*Sekolah Menengah St John (boys)*, *Sekolah Menengah Methodist (girls)*, *Sekolah Menengah Bangsar (co-ed)*) and Selangor State (*Sekolah Menengah La Salle (boys)*, *Sekolah Menengah Assunta (girls)*, *Sekolah Menengah Bandar Utama (1) (Co-ed)*). These schools were chosen mainly because of the approval and full cooperation given by the school principal and the Ministry of Education. The age group was from 15-18 and they were mentally and emotionally able to understand and appreciate the questions posed to them. The students were also given They were capable of dealing with what is meant by being a female or male and the options available to them.

3.5 The Sample

One of the fundamental elements of a positivistic study is in the selection of sample. Sample size is crucial to the main interest of a study and sample is a subset of a population (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, (1993). A precisely defined set of people or collection of items under consideration is recognised as a population. The sample size should be large because it is crucial if statistical analyses are conducted. This would allow the research to obtain results from a representative sample that can be assumed true for the whole

population. Vogt (1993) stated that a sampling frame is “a list or other record of the population from which all the sampling units are drawn”

The sampling design process for this study was as follows:

- (1) Target population: male and female from secondary schools
- (2) Sampling unit : Schoolchildren from Form 3 to Form 5, 6
- (3) Extent : Selangor and Wilayah Persekutuan
- (4) Time: Period of the survey (February – May 2010)
- (5) Sampling frame: Seven schools from Federal Territory Kuala Lumpur and Selangor

(List of population from which sampling units were drawn from)

- (6) Sampling Technique: Probability Sampling based on stratified selection
- (7) Sample size: 2500 (questionnaire distributed to six schools with the assistance of the sports teachers)
- (8) Execution: Use of computer programme using stratified sampling and the questionnaires were self- administered.

3.6 The Profile of the Sample and Respondents

There were a total of 4084 students enrolled in form 3 to form 6 (2 boys school, 2 girls school and 2 co-ed schools from urban areas in Petaling Jaya and Kuala Lumpur in 2010). A total of 2544 questionnaires were given out, this figure was derived from the stratified sampling selection. This is a type of probability sampling where the sampling unit are selected by chance, however, the stratified sampling was preferred over other methods of sampling. This was because a random sampling is more apt for a small population and it would result in some members of the population being significantly under or overrepresented. The stratified sampling overcomes this issue by looking and taking into

account each identifiable strata of the population. This is crucial as gender and ethnicity were factors that were investigated.

Each school was given 424 questionnaires. The questionnaires were self-administered with the assistance of the form and sports teachers in the schools. The school administrator with the permission of the school principal had provided the list of students in each form (where the list was divided into gender, ethnic group and streams).

The sampling frame was then done by determining the total number of students within each subgroup; they were then tagged based on the sample size and selected using the XLStat in Excel in the computer. Once this was completed, the questionnaires were passed to the teachers with the instruction to pass the questionnaires to students who were selected from the class register. In this matter, the names of the students were not disclosed by the school to protect and respect their privacy; therefore the respective class teachers would then give the questionnaires to the students concerned. A total of 2250 questionnaires were collected out of which only 1715 could be validly used. 535 were not valid due to incomplete information provided on the dependant measures.

This figure was lower than what was given, this was due to students were absent due to illness, exam preparation and the teachers were not able to collect all due to unforeseen reasons given by the teachers. This was even after call back was undertaken.

3.7 Types of Research Methodology

There are a number of different types of research methodology. It is important to choose the right research methodology to reflect the assumption of the research paradigm. In this research two types of positivistic methodologies was used. The first is cross-sectional studies that are designed to obtain information on variables in different context. In this research different schools and groups of students were selected and the study was

conducted to ascertain how factors differ. Here statistical tests were conducted to find out if there are any correlations between the variables.

The second is a survey that was undertaken. This is where a sample of subjects are drawn from a population and studied to make inference about the population. Since the population was large it would have been too time consuming and expensive to collect the data of each student, therefore, a sample from the population was used. The sample is representative as statistical techniques were used to demonstrate the likelihood that the characteristic of this sample will also be found in the population. This meant that it was possible to generalise from the findings. In a survey it is crucial to select the right sample to ensure that the sample is not biased and is representative of the population from which it is drawn. This was undertaken through stratified sampling which is elaborated further below. The next was the mode of the implementation of the survey which was done face to face through the assistance of the school teachers.

There are two major types of survey. A descriptive survey is concerned with identifying and counting the frequency of specific items at a point in time or at various times for comparison. This was used for this research to assess the student's attitudes in certain sections of the questionnaire. The other major type of survey that was also undertaken in this research is analytical survey where the intention is to determine whether there is any relationship between different variables.

3.8 The Quantitative Component

This study consists of a questionnaire to be completed by the participants. The questionnaire was drafted in English and it was then translated into Bahasa Malaysia by a professional translator. The reason for it was due to the language proficiency in Bahasa Malaysia of the secondary school students in the national medium schools. It must be noted

that students generally answered using the English version of the questionnaire. 2500 questionnaires were administered. Each questionnaire was 12 pages long. The purpose of the questionnaire was to investigate secondary boys and girls views on sports participation. This questionnaire took approximately 20-30 minutes to answer.

3.9 Instrumentation - Designing and Format of the Questionnaire.

For effective and flawless data collection, survey is one of the methods that are extensively used. In this research the survey method was the technique used for data collection. It provided for a systematic ways of looking at events, collecting data, analysing information and reporting the results. Therefore this allowed the researcher to extract the relevant information and assist in most effective way of data analysis.

From a positivists stand point, it is important to know the subject matter of the research before even designing questions for the questionnaire. The knowledge of the subject matter usually is derived from literature review and past studies conducted that had used questionnaires.

Questionnaires were adapted to competently adopt the survey method. Therefore, in the design of the questionnaires the potential respondents were kept in mind. This questionnaire was straightforwardly designed based on existing scales as it dealt with significant concepts such as stereotyping, perception and influences were all related to factors in sports participation. Therefore this motivates the respondents to give easy, accurate and unambiguous response that does justice to each category. Hussey and Hussey (1997) stated that there are general rules for designing questions. The rules are that the essential features or traits of question design is important and according to them once the questions are asked to the respondents, nothing can be done to improve the excellence of the answers or to be able to increase the response rate. In order to obtain a

more discerning response from the respondents, it was decided in this research to provide the respondents with a rating scale. This rating scale is the Likert scale. Here, the respondents will see the questions as statements and they would be required to state their level of agreement by ticking in the boxes.

Hussey and Hussey (1997) stated that this method has advantages, in that this method would not take up much space as the number of statements can be provided in a list. This style is easy for the respondents to complete and less complicated for the researcher to code and analyse.

3.10 The Questionnaire

Questionnaires are associated with both positivistic and phenomenological methodologies. A questionnaire is a list of carefully structures questions, chose after considerable testing, with a view to eliciting reliable responses from a chosen sample. The aim is to find out what a selected group of participants do, think or feel. Since the survey was conducted in a large scale, therefore a positivistic paradigm questionnaire was more effective.

Each question was coded at the design stage and complete questionnaires were computer processed for ease of analysis. There were a few factors that were considered carefully for the purpose of this questionnaire. Firstly the question designs that is related with the type of questions, wording, reliability and validity of the responses. Secondly, the style of the questionnaire presentation and much was undertaken to encourage and assist the respondents to complete the questionnaires correctly as they were student. The questionnaire was in simple English and Bahasa Malaysia. This questionnaire was approved by the Malaysian Education Ministry and o the Department of Education in Kuala Lumpur and Selangor for the purpose of sending it to the schools) and the purpose

of the questionnaire was apparent and the respondents were clear with questions that were being posed. This was done by an introduction in the questionnaire with an explanatory paragraph. Precise and clear instructions were given to the respondents in relation to the boxes that had to be ticked to indicate their responses. Each questionnaire was numbered to allow maintaining control of the project and this also allows the identification of which respondents if it was necessary to follow up. This also made the subsequent analyses of the data much easier. Funnelling was undertaken in that the questionnaire was presented in a logical manner starting from demographic variables and moving to specific factors. Filter questions were also presented as certain answers required another batch of particular answers.

For example the respondents were asked if they participated in sports and if not they were asked why. The students who had completed the quantitative section were also required to complete the open ended questions. This type of questioning was included at the end of Section B with the purpose of providing greater detail and strength in comprehending the quantitative data. These questions were kept short because of time limit of the duration of interviews.

The following are details about the questions in each section of the questionnaire:

Section A

The schoolchildren were required to answer questions in relation to their family background. This part contained demographic questions on ethnicity, sex, age of the student, level of education which also involved the streaming they were in, education level of both parents and the overall income of family.

Section B

The schoolchildren were required to list the types of sporting activities which they believed should be undertaken by boys, girls or both genders. The measure that was used

was adopted by and adapted for the purpose of sports participation by schoolchildren in Malaysia. There were categories formerly developed by Colley, Nash, O'Donnell & Restorick (1987) and Koivula (1985); Matteo (1986); and Metheny (1967) and they were on feminine, masculine and gender-neutral sports and additional items were included to complement the types of sports which were played or watched by schoolchildren in Malaysia. The types of sports excluded were lacrosse, snowboarding, baseball, weightlifting, American football, ice hockey and riflery.

They were removed from the list as these sports are not played in the Malaysian public school due to weather or climatic conditions, safety reasons or generally not recognised in the Malaysian sporting context or culture. The final list included 29 types of sporting activities, out of which 19 were from the original scale. The above mentioned researchers found that eight sporting activities such as ballet, aerobics, softball, cheerleading, field hockey, gymnastics, ice-skating and dance were recognised as feminine sports, four sporting activities such as karate, wrestling, soccer/football, basketball were recognised as masculine sports and seven sporting activities such as golf, tennis, bicycling, diving, volleyball, swimming, jogging or running were recognised as sports suitable for both genders.

For the purpose of the Malaysian schools, the term football is understood and widely accepted as the English soccer. However in the original scale the term football referred to American football, while soccer was used in relation to English football. The other types of sports (i.e. silat, sepak takraw, etc) added in the list to represent the Malaysian context was after consultation with my supervisor which had not been subjected to any form of research and this could be understood as never having been gender-typed within the student's cultural context. The schoolchildren were also required to state which type of sporting activity they were involved in by using the similar category.

Section C

The school children were required to complete a 10- item version of the Stigma Consciousness Questionnaires (Pinel, 1999). This linked to students view on people's perception on stereotyping in sports participation. The content covered two areas, namely women's and men's phenomenological experiences when interacting with female and men, therefore the the respondents were informed that questionnaires had to be answered from their gender preference. for example "I almost never think about the fact that I am female (male) when I interact with men (female).

(I do not consider myself a girl(boy) when I play male(female) related sports with the boys(girls)" and attitudes or thoughts about how men view women for example "Most men (female) have a problem viewing women(men) as equals (Most boys(girls) have problem treating me like one of them even though I play boys (girls) sports.)" The schoolchildren were expected to indicate their response on a 5 point Likert scale where this scale ranges from 1 (strongly disagree), midpoint of 3 (neither agree nor disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). These 10 Stigma Consciousness Questionnaires for Women items were originally intended for adult participants, however, for the purpose of this research, this scale has been added by including sports related statements in bracket at the end of each item.

Section D

This section required the schoolchildren to complete a 13 item scale on the overall perception of gender stereotyping in sports (Bruening, 2005). Categories which were identified and included were the respondents and societal perception of female athletes who were involved in sports (for example - Female athletes are perceived to be sex symbols or people do not show interest and understanding in relation to women's sports), respondents experiences in the society in relation to sex roles and how they are perceived

by the society in that context (for example - people think I am an athlete because I am masculine, or people think I am talented because I am tomboyish) and the respondents perception and understanding of the media's coverage of sports in relation to gender. (For example - Women's sports received less coverage on TV in comparison to male sports or equal coverage is given to women's sports in the newspaper). The schoolchildren used the 5-point Likert scale to answer this section.

Section E

This section required the schoolchildren to complete an 8 item scale or instrument on the influences of society in sports participation (Shakib and Dunbar, 2004). The items were adopted, adapted and modified which included rewording statements which were more comprehensible to the understanding of school children in Malaysia. The statements were compiled and reworded in that the statements reflected the interest and participation of the respondents' parents, siblings, relatives, school teachers or peers in influencing them. The students answered this section using a 5 point Likert scale. They were asked why they choose to be involved in sporting activities and the factors surrounding their reasons.

This is to show how socialisation agents affect sports participation of students (Greendorfer, 1993; Coakley, 1998 and Yiannakis & McIntyre, 1993).

3.11 Measurement Assessment

3.11.1 Validity

Validity is the assessment of instrument measures and the extent to which the measurement scale is intended to measure (Leedy & Omrod, 2010). This means validity is the extent to which the research findings accurately represent what is really happening in the situation. Coolican (1992) stated that validity is "an effect or test is valid if it demonstrates or measure what the research thinks or claims it does". It is worth

remembering that research errors must be at a minimal level or almost none as such faulty research procedures, poor samples and erroneous or distorted measurement can challenge the validity. There are a number of ways the validity of the research can be assessed. The first is face validity which makes certain that tests or measures used by the research do actually measure or represent what is supposed to be measured or represented. The other form is construct validity that is related to the problems that there are a number of phenomenon that are not directly observable which is related to hypothetical constructs and this is important as research must be able to demonstrate that the observations and research finding can be explained by the constructs.

Validity questions whether the test measures the students views of people's stereotyping in sports participation, students perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation and family and societal' influences in sports participation does in fact measure or otherwise. This answer depends on the credibility of the students answers. It is accepted that the students responded to these terms truthfully. In the scale used for stereotyping, 9 out of the 10 items were validly accepted. The statement "My being female does not influence how people act with me (People are not bothered about the type of sports I play just because I am girl)" was removed to allow the statements to load.

In the scale used for students' perception on feminine and masculine values 9 out of the original 13 statements were validly accepted. The statements female athletes have to compete to be recognised than their male athletes, equal coverage is given to women's sports in the newspaper and sufficient sports is given to women's sports by the media were removed to allow the statements to load. In the scale used for family and social influences 8 out of the 8 statements were validly accepted.

This will be followed by Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to address convergent and discriminant validity of measures. EFA requires the data to meet 3 significant

assumptions. KMO sampling adequacy determines if the sampling has been carried out adequately. In a large homogenous sample such as this, the data set is expected to meet this assumption. Bartlett's test of Sphericity determines if inter-correlation exists. The theoretical underpinning shows that the constructs correlated with each other, meeting the second assumption for EFA. To run EFA, the ratio of sample size on number of items [(sample size)/ (number of items)] must be > 5 . This poses a limitation as with a minimum of 5 items for each construct, this assumption may be difficult to meet. As such, more items based on exploratory research and theoretical framework will be included in the study to avoid failing this assumption. EFA identifies items that are appropriately designed for dimensions of Stereotyping, perception and influence

3.11.2 Reliability

Reliability is related to the findings of the research and is one aspect of the credibility of the findings and the other is validity. Raimond (1993) stated that the question to be asked is "will the evidence and the conclusion stand up to the closets scrutiny?" The research is considered to be reliable if the findings can be repeated. Replication is also understood as repeating the research study to test the reliability of the results. It is crucial in positivist study to have a high reliability (Hussey and Hussey, 1997).

The scales which were used were existing scales. However, these scales have been only tested in western countries such as United States and countries like Norway in Europe. Therefore a Cronbach Alpha was used to test the reliability of the scales to the Malaysian scenario, the test of reliability is crucial for the precise measurement of dependent variable (Field & Hole, 2002). Cronbach's alpha can be written as a function of the number of test items and the average inter-correlation among the items. As the number of items increase, the Cronbach's alpha increases. Additionally, as the average inter-item correlation

increases, Cronbach's alpha increases as well. The reliability of the measure is vital for the research outcomes as there is limited or no audited data on the stereotyping, perception and influences factors of student's sports participation in Malaysia. The obtained Cronbach values of all the two questions were above the minimum value of 0.6. Hence, the reliability of the questions was established. This is important as this creates a consistency in the measuring instrument that brings about a certain result that is valid and reliable (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). This would allow for this research to be confirmed, reproduced, generalisable and important (Field & Hole, 2002).

3.11.3 Generalisable

Generalisation is related to the application of research results to case or situation beyond those examined in the study. Vogt (1993) stated that generalisability is the "extent to which you can come to conclusion about one thing (often population) based on information about another (often a sample)". However it has been argued (Gummesson, 1991) that using statistics to generalise from a sample to a population is just one type of generalisation. This supports the view (Denzin, 1970) that it is possible to generalise from a very few cases or even a single case as long as the analysis has captured the interactions and characteristics of the phenomena studied. Thus the concern here is whether the patterns, concepts and theories which have been generated in a particular environment can be applied in other environments. This is to make sure that the findings will have a wider applicability than merely the original study. The best way to measure generality is to undertake empirical testing. This is undertaken by sampling methods. In this research the stratified sampling was used.

A two-step process to partition the population into subpopulations, or strata was done. This was preferred over other methods of sampling. This method uses element which

are selected from each stratum by a random procedure. This sampling is preferred because the sample elements are selected probabilistically rather than based on convenience or judgment.

The stratified sampling was chosen because it increased precision without increasing cost as opposed to even simple random sampling which one of its limitations would be it results in lower precision with larger standard error than other probability sampling techniques and it may or may not result in a representative sample though it may well represent the population on average but may grossly represent the target population (Kish & Frankel, 1983; Frankel & Frankel, 1977). I.e the summated scores of items extracted from EFA were generated for each construct (stereotyping, perception and influence).

3.12 Pilot Study/Testing

The questionnaires was pilot tested before distributing to discover any faults or defects that may cause misunderstanding the questions. This exercise was undertaken even though the survey adopted existing scales that have been widely used in the western sphere. The pilot testing consisted of 200 questionnaires distributed to schoolchildren in Sekolah Kebangsaan Sri Hartamas. This was to authenticate and endorse the viability and submission with the objectives of this research.

There were 3 steps undertaken for pilot-testing of the questionnaires. The first step was in the adapting of the questions as in that it must be noted that these original questionnaires were adapted for the Malaysian scenario . The survey questions were based on the questionnaires from the pilot study. The questionnaires were distributed to a group of students who were not part of the respondents of the survey questionnaires. They

were informed that these questions were developed for a survey. Their comments and feedback was used to modify some of the questions. The second step was the pilot testing it. 100 revised questions were distributed to another set of respondents from Sekolah Menengah Bandar Utama 1. Their feedback assisted in the development of the final survey questions. There were some additions to the gender typing scale and some of the words were reworded in the stereotyping and perception scales based on the feedback. The third step was pilot analysis. In this frequency tables for responses to each scale were generated to object an early impression of the results. This trial analysis ensures that the survey would fulfill the survey's aims and yield data valuable to the overall study.

After the initial testing of pilot data, there were no changes in the questionnaire design and coding were undertaken. Perhaps this is because these scales have been previously pilot tested by other researchers.

A validity test of the existing scales was undertaken and a study was done based on the pilot study. This was to check for the validity and reliability of the instrument. The Cronbach Alpha, KMO measure of adequacy and the Bartlett test of sphericity were conducted. The measure of the internal consistency reliability of the instrument was calculated using Cronbach Alpha. Here since the value of Cronbach's alpha was great than 0.6 therefore the instrument can be considered to be reliable. In the stereotyping scales the value of Cronbach alpha was 0.945, the perception scale the value of Cronbach alpha was 0.915 and the influences scale was 0.995. Therefore this proves that the instrument is reliable for this research. Next the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test was run to measure the homogeneity of variance and The Bartlett's test of sphericity was run to show the correlation among the variables used. The KMO test for stereotyping was 0.913, perception 0.916 and influences was 0.923. These were considered to be a good value.

The Bartlett test showed results that were significant and therefore these scales can be used for this research.

The table below shows the significant results for validity of these scales by showing the Cronbach Alpha, KMO measures of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett Test

Table 3.1 Test of Validity of Questionnaires.

Sections of Questionnaires	No of items	Cronbach Alpha	KMO measure of adequacy	Bartlett's test	
Stereotyping	10	0.945	0.913	Approx. Chi Square	3985.02
				Df	293
				Sig	0.000
Perception	13	0.915	0.916	Approx. Chi Square	3889.15
				Df	295
				Sig	0.001
Influences	8	0.995	0.923	Approx. Chi Square	3995
				Df	296
				Sig	0.000

3.13 Main Study Testing.

The first part is to establish the validity and reliability test on the dependent variables which are student's views of peoples' perception on gender stereotyping, student's perception on masculine and feminine values and family and society's influence.

3.13.1 Test of Validity and Reliability of Dependent Variables.

Reliability measures give the causal assessment in the research and these measures are required to make statements about validity. These measures must be stable and repeatable. The validity test is undertaken to look into the true cause of outcomes that is observed in this study. This validity test must not only show the reliable outcomes but also strong validation that causally links the independent and dependent variable.

3.13.2 Treatment of Students Views of Peoples' Perception on Gender Stereotyping Scales.

Factor analysis was carried out to test the validity of the items used to represent perception on stereotyping. Table 3.2 below is the test of assumptions for factor analysis that was carried out and it shows the following findings:

Table 3.2KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.749
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1444.227
	Df	45
	Sig.	.000

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) table 6.1 above shows $KMO = 0.749$ i.e. > 0.7 , sampling is adequate for this study

Bartlett's test show p-value = 0.0001 i.e. p-value < 0.05 , showing the hypothesis on identity matrix of data is rejected, thus, the data does not form identity matrix. Thus, the assumptions that the sampling is adequate and the data has no identity matrix are met. The above implies that this particular set of data on dependent measures fulfil factor analysis.

Table 3.3 Reliability Test

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.632	9

Reliability test on respondents' perception on gender stereotyping scales was undertaken. Cronbach's alpha test was run to test the reliability of the 10 items representing gender stereotyping and table 3.3 above show the findings.

Table 3.4 Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
24.21	29.554	5.436	9

Table 3.4 above shows the scale statistics. The original scale contained 10 statements. After removing one item, the Cronbach Alpha = 0.632 showing the nine remaining statements are reliable with a mean 24.21 and standard deviation of 5.44.

Table 3.5 Pattern Matrix on Student’s View of Peoples’ Perception on Gender Streotyping

	Component – Cross Gender View on Stereotypes		
	Expecting	Suspecting	Confirming
Most men do not judge women on the basis of their gender.	.699		
When interacting with men, I feel like they interpret all my behaviour in terms of the fact that I am a woman.	.655		
I never worry that my behaviour will be viewed as stereotypically female	.567		
Stereotypes about women have not affected me personally	.537		
Most men have a problem viewing women as equals.		.730	
I often think that men are unfairly accused of being sexist.		.680	
Most men have a lot more sexist thoughts than they actually express.		.661	
I almost never think about the fact that I am female when I interact with men.			.810
My being female does not influence how men act with me.			.559

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation. a. Rotation converged in 16 iterations.

The Pattern matrix Table 3.5 above is finalised when one statement was removed as it was not fitting in the components or factors appropriately.

The statement “My being female does not influence how people act with me (People are not bothered about the type of sports I play just because I am a girl)” was removed to allow the statements to load at Eigen value (this shows how evenly (or otherwise) the variances of matrix are distributed (Field, 2009) of 1. The remaining nine statements have been added to represent stereotyping.

Table 3.6 Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1(Expecting)	2.510	25.097	25.097	2.510	25.097	25.097
2(Suspecting)	1.241	12.412	37.509	1.241	12.412	37.509
3(Confirming)	1.139	11.387	48.896	1.139	11.387	48.896

Table 3.6 shows variance explained which shows these statements can be separated into three components. These components explain the gender stereotyping items used to measure students’ views on peoples’ perception of gender stereotyping.

Expecting explains 25.1% of the variances in the data, Suspecting explains 12.4% and Confirming explains 11.4%. Thus the total 48.9% of the variances are explaining. The respondents found 4 statements were valid for expecting that is these four statements were hanging together to explain students view on people perception of stereotyping.

These 4 statements were linked in a certain manner; therefore the construct has been renamed as expecting. It was expected for students to view that people would perceive stereotyping in relation to girls’ participation in a certain manner. The respondents found 3

statements were highly recognised as confirming in that these 3 variances were hanging together to explain students view on peoples' perception of stereotyping. Thus the three statements confirmed students view on peoples' perception of stereotyping. The respondents found another 3 statements were valid for suspecting that is these 3 variances were hanging together to explain that the student highly suspected people would perceive stereotyping in relation to girls participation in sports. Thus these statements explained the students' high suspicion on people's perception of stereotyping.

3.13.3 Treatment of Students' Perception of Masculine and Feminine Values in Sport Participation Scale.

Factor analysis was carried out to test the validity of the items used to represent perception on masculine and feminine values in sports participation. The test of assumptions for factor analysis that was carried out shows the following findings:

Table 3.7 KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.788
Bartlett's Approx. Chi-Square	2695.167
Test of Sphericity Df	36
Sig.	.000

The KMO Table 3.7 above shows $KMO = 0.788$ i.e. > 0.7 , sampling is adequate for this study. Bartlett's test show $p\text{-value} = 0.0001$ i.e. $p\text{-value} < 0.05$, showing the hypothesis on identity matrix of data is rejected, thus, the data does not form identity matrix.

Table 3.8 below show that the reliability test on respondents (here students) perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation scales was undertaken. Cronbach's Alpha test was run to test the reliability of the 13 items representing perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation. Below are the findings:

Table 3.8 Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.749	.749	9

Table 3.9 Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
29.09	40.806	6.388	9

The above Table 3.9 scale statistics shows the original scale contained 13 statements. The above Table 3.9 shows Cronbach reliability (above) test shows the perception statements are reliable based on Nunnally's (1978) 0.6 limit of reliability with a mean 29.09 and standard deviation of 6.388. The Cronbach reliability test was run four times to obtain the optimum results. This resulted on the validity of nine statements as shown in the table 3.10 below.

Table 3.10 Pattern Matrix on Students' Perception of Masculine and Feminine Values in Sports Participation.

	Component	
	Assumption	Presumption
People do not show interest and understanding in relation to women's sports	.739	
Women's sports received less coverage on TV in comparison to Male sports	.735	
Less live coverage is given to women's sports	.727	
Women's sporting activities are not respected and not treated seriously	.714	
Female athletes sportswomen are given less priority over male athletes sportsmen	.599	
People think I am an athletes because I am masculine		.769
People think I am talented because I am tomboyish		.758
Female athletes are perceived to be sex symbols		.666
There are mixed messages that women should or should not be athletes		.550

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation.

a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

The above Table 3.10 shows that the pattern matrix was finalised when 1 statement was removed. The statement "Female athletes are not as recognised a male athletes in sports" was removed to allow the statements to load. The table 3.10 above for this particular set of data i.e. all the dependent measures except for statements f (Female athletes have to competes to be recognised than their male

athletes), 1 (Equal coverage is given to women's sports in the newspaper) and m (Sufficient coverage is given to women's sports by the media). The components have been loaded highly into 2 columns except for the above 3 statements mentioned above. Overall using the Cronbach Alpha and Pattern matrix four statements out of the 13 statements were removed to allow for validity in the Malaysian scenario. The remaining nine statements were kept to represent the students' perception on the masculine and feminine values in sports participation.

Table 3.11 Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1. Assumption	3.027	33.630	33.630	3.027	33.630	33.630	2.747
2. Presumption	1.465	16.283	49.913	1.465	16.283	49.913	2.185
3	.922	10.243	60.156				
4	.795	8.833	68.989				
5	.657	7.305	76.294				
6	.641	7.126	83.420				
7	.559	6.209	89.629				
8	.481	5.348	94.977				
9	.452	5.023	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

- a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

The Table 3.11 above shows these statements can be separated into two components. Component 1 (Assumption) explains 33.6% of the variance in the data, component 2 (Presumption) explains 16.3% of variance in the data. Thus the total 49.9% of the variances are explained. These two components explain the students' perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation. The respondents found 5 statements were valid for assuming that is these five statements were hanging together to explain the assumption of students' perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation. These 5 statements were linked in a certain manner; therefore the construct has been renamed as assumption. The students were assumed to perceive masculine and feminine values in sports participation in a certain manner. The respondents found another 4 statements were highly recognised as presuming in that these 4 variances were hanging together to explain students' perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation. Thus the four statements presumed the students perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation.

3.13.4 Treatment of Students' Family and Society's Influence on Sports Participation Scale

Factor analysis was carried out to test the validity of the items used to represent the students' family and society's influence on sports participation. The test of assumptions for factor analysis that was carried out shows the following findings:

Table 3.12 KMO Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.845
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3280.595
	df	28
	Sig.	.000

The KMO Table 3.12 above shows $KMO = 0.845$, $e > 0.7$, sampling is adequate for this study. Bartlett's test show $p\text{-value} = 0.0001$ i.e. $p\text{-value} < 0.05$, showing the hypothesis on identity matrix of data is rejected, thus, the data does not form identity matrix. The above implies that this particular set of data on the dependent measures fulfil factor analysis.

Table 3.13 Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardised Items	N of Items
.815	.815	8

Table 3.13 Reliability Statistics above that shows the reliability test on students' family and society's influence on sports participation scales was undertaken. Cronbach Alpha test was run to test the reliability of the eight items representing family and society's influence on sports participation and below is the findings

Table 3.14 Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
24.83	39.292	6.268	8

The Table 3.14 on scale statistics above shows original scale contained eight dependent measures. The Cronbach's reliability test was run only once to obtain the optimum results. This resulted in the validity of eight statements. The above Cronbach's reliability test show the influence statements are reliable based on Nunnally's 0.6 limit of reliability with a mean 24.83 and standard deviation of 6.268.

Table 3.15 Pattern Matrix on the students' family and society's influence on sports participation.

	Component	
	Personally	Socially
My interest and participation in sporting activities is because of my mother	.884	
My interest and participation in sporting activities is because of my father	.772	
My interest and participation in sporting activities is because of my brother	.632	
My interest and participation in sporting activities is because of my sister	.578	
My interest and participation in sporting activities is because of my peers		.887
My interest and participation in sporting activities is because of my teachers		.753
My interest and participation in sporting activities is because of my relatives		.595
My interest and participation in sporting activities is because of my coaches		.532

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation.

a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

The above Table 3.15 on pattern matrix is finalised. No statements were removed to allow the statements to load. The statements represented the students' family and society's influence on sports participation.

Table 3.16 Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1. Personally	3.492	43.649	43.649	3.492	43.649	43.649	2.910
2. Socially	1.013	12.658	56.307	1.013	12.658	56.307	2.774
3	.745	9.316	65.623				
4	.711	8.883	74.505				
5	.611	7.632	82.137				
6	.563	7.032	89.169				
7	.457	5.710	94.879				
8	.410	5.121	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

The Table 3.16 on variance shows these statements can be separated into two components. Component 1 (Personally) explains 43.6% variance of the data while component 2 (Socially) explains 12.7% variance of the data. Thus the total 56.3% of the variances explaining. These two components explain the student's family and social influences on sports participation.

3.14 Chapters in this Thesis in Relation to Research Questions

The research questions will be discussed in the following chapters as follows:

Chapter 4 – Descriptive analysis on background information and students response on Gender typing of sports and sports participation

- (1) A descriptive analysis on the background information.
- (2) Whether the students are engaged in gender typing of sports?
- (3) Are schoolchildren likely to participate in these sports according to the gender typing of the sports?

Chapter 5 - The Relationship between gender and ethnicity in the gender-typing of sports.

- (1) Is there any significant association between the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others students in their views as to whether there is a relationship in their responses on types of sports considered suitable for boys, girls or both genders?

Chapter 6 - Students Response on the relationships between gender and ethnicity on students' participation in sports.

- (1) Is there a difference between gender and students views of peoples' perception on gender stereotyping, gender and students perception on masculine and feminine values and also gender and family and social influences and their impact on sports participation?
- (2) Is there a difference between ethnicity and students views of peoples' perception on gender stereotyping, ethnicity and students' perception on masculine and feminine values and also ethnicity and family and social influences and their impact on sports participation?

- (3) Is there a difference in peoples' perception on gender stereotyping, students' perception in masculine and feminine values and family and society's influences in sports participation by gender within various ethnic groups?

Chapter 7 - Conclusion

This chapter will summarise and discuss the findings, implication and direction for future research.

3.15 Credibility

The credibility of the quantitative component was ascertained by ensuring that the students were monitored by the teachers, class monitor and the researcher. This was to make certain that the students understood the questions. There was also an organised audit trail of transcripts, notes of observations during data collection and copies of the questionnaire was kept.

3.16 Data Collection

Data collection methods are used in that part of the research process which is concerned with collection of data. There are many methods of data collection. The method used here is a survey using a questionnaire (this is also stated by some as research instruments). Since the positivistic paradigm is adopted, it is important that the data used is highly specific and accurate. This is the reason for this data being a quantitative data. The reason is justified that the measurement is an important component of the research process under this paradigm and significant firmness and rigour must be applied to make certain the correctness of the measurement. It has been stated that high levels of integrity is crucial to all researchers (Bonoma, 1985). Hussey and Hussey (1997) defined data integrity to mean description of characteristics of research that affect error and bias in the research results,

while results currency is referred to as generalisability. The main advantage of a quantitative approach to data collection is the comparative straight forwardness and swiftness with which the research is managed.

Before the start of data collection, the documents relevant for the research were submitted to the Ministry of Education. These included a letter of introduction, consent forms and the questionnaires and a copy of the PhD proposal. The introduction and purpose of the study were stated to the Ministry of Education of Malaysia. A letter of approval was then given with the instruction that a similar submission should be done to the Department of Education for the Federal Territory and Department of Education for Selangor. This took about 2 months. Once the approvals were given by both the departments, only then the questionnaires were distributed to the selected schools with the approval of the relevant heads/principals.

The questionnaires were distributed in the schools with the assistance of the Sports teachers and the questionnaires were collected immediately after completion to avoid delay in the collection. With a few exception the researcher, administered the questionnaires with the assistance of the sports teachers, and school prefects. However, this was also made not possible in a number of schools due to the examinations and school and state sports meets which the students were involved in. In these circumstances, the assistance of the relevant sports teachers were obtained, in that, the designated teachers will administer the questionnaires to the students at a selected time which were convenient to the students. The researcher had prior to this, briefed the teachers on the questionnaire and was in close contact with the teachers by way of telephone to ensure that no issues would arise in regards to the comprehension and completion of the questionnaires. However, before this took place, the teachers were instructed to inform the students to complete the consent form and this consent form would be read out aloud to the students by the teachers. The students

were encouraged to ask any questions with regards to their involvement in answering the questionnaire. The students were asked to state whether they understand what is required of them and those who agree to participate would be asked to state in the consent form “yes I agree”. This procedure could serve as an important note to find out if the students were interested in participating in the interview of this research. This was also important to ensure that the students understood that they were not required to answer the questions and this was also undertaken to ensure the ethics requirement was satisfied.

The participants would also be informed that this research is not compulsory and they would be participating on a voluntary basis. The participants’ identities would be treated in the strictest confidence where the questionnaires to the students were given numbers. The teachers agreed to the best time to ask these students to take part in this study that was during the Physical Education (PE) classes offered in their curriculum. The time allocated was about 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire which was well-within the PE class hours.

3.17 Data Treatment.

Facts which are known or things that are used as a source for inference or estimating are recognised as data. Data can be derived from two main sources. The first original data and this is data collected at source as in this research the survey data. The secondary data is the second type of data which has already been documented in the literature chapter. Data that were used in this study is quantitative.

Data were analysed using a computer programme. The analysis of the data received used the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) system. Any questionnaires with missing data were excluded from the analysis. The initial process was to organise the data and become familiar with the raw data. The data was then cleaned after reading

through all the transcription. The researcher then examined the data by attempting to categorise and interpret the data by looking for relevant topics and meaning which included gender stereotyping, students' perception, socialisation and societal influences etc.

3.18 Measurement

In order to address the research questions, the treatment of scales must be discussed. Before the questionnaire was undertaken, it was important to decide which form of measurement (scales) would be used. This is to decide which statistical procedure will be used in the data processing. A numerical attribute of an individual or object is what is known as a quantitative variable. In order to establish a quantitative variable, a suitable measuring instrument has to be established. Quantitative variables are divided into discrete quantitative variables and continuous quantitative variables. A discrete quantitative variable can take only one of a range of distinct values between the start and end of a scale and a continuous quantitative variable can take on any value between the start and end of a scale (ref). For the purpose of this research the variable used was the discrete quantitative variable. There are four categories of measurement scales for recording and describing quantitative data. These are : (1) nominal (named), (2) ordinal (ordered), (3) interval and (4) ratio (Stevens, 1946).

The questionnaire is designed with mainly three types of measurement scales. There are nominal, ordinal and interval data. The nominal scale uses number to identify different categories of people (here gender and ethnicity), though it may not reflect a particular quantity or degree of something (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). This scale allows on the classification of data, this permits the researcher to make statements of equality or difference but nothing else. The ordinal scales have the same amount of information as

measures on a nominal scale, since data can be classified in terms of equality and difference. However this scale gives supplementary information since this scale allows the researcher to mandate individual data and make conclusions on which score could be greater. The ordinal scales measures terms of values which is to determine the median, percentile rank and rank correlations (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The interval scale measures in terms of equal internals or degree of differences and enables inferential statistical analyses to be conducted (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The other two remaining scales that are not used are the interval scale all the characteristics of both nominal and ordinal scales but delivers extra evidence of the data concerning the degree of variance between individual data items within a set or group. The Ratio scale signifies the highest level of accuracies. A ratio scale is mathematical numerical method which makes it necessary to have a fixed zero point to the scale.

3.19 Coding for Computer Analysis

Coding is crucial to the analysis of data collected. Due to the large questionnaire survey, question is structured to fit in with the processes. Therefore the SPSS computer software was used to help these processes. Since the statistical packages expect the data to be in numerical form, column number and codes were located to each variable this is important as the keying in of the data would be less cumbersome and produce less error. Records are important and have to be kept for each of the question as each code would signify a data. The first item that was coded in the questionnaire was the number that identified with the entire questionnaires.

This was printed on each questionnaire before it was distributed. This allows the researcher to identify the data on the form with each respondent. Since 2550 respondents were targeted, there were four columns. This was placed at the right hand corner of the cover page of the questionnaire.

3.20 Analysing Quantitative Data

Since this is a positivistic paradigm, and once the data was collected, the next step was to analyse it. A suitable computer statistics packaged was chosen that is SPSS. Rowntree (1991) stated that “statistics enables us to recognise and evaluate the errors involved in quantifying our experiences, especially when generalising from what is known of some small group (a sample) to some wider group (population).” This allowed the researcher to conduct a wider range of analysis (from descriptive to inferential as mentioned below) and the test were quick and accurate and the results were either presented in table form or charts. This proved to be useful. In this research the total number of observations or frequencies for the variables was derived from the numerical values of the quantitative data.

The choice of statistical procedures is based not only because it saves times, cost and the choice of suitability of software due to access, it was also whether the exploratory data analysis or confirmatory data analysis were conducted. The former analysis is where through summary and description the data is displayed while the latter analysis uses the sample data to make inferences. If the data has a normal distribution, powerful parametric techniques were used. Statistics allows the researcher to analyse the number of variables at the same time and since inferential techniques were also adopted, there were implications to the measurement scale of the data.

3.21 Data Analysis.

There are two type of analysis used. These are as below:

1. Descriptive analysis

Descriptive statistics are compiled for the demographic data and the responses to the various scales. The analysis conducted consisted of two proportions which is femininity and masculinity. Here a univariate analysis was undertaken. There are few approaches. The frequency table shows the number of respondents and the percentage belonging to each of the categories for the variables in questions. Diagrams were used for displaying quantitative data. The bar chart, the pie chart and histograms are methods used with nominal or ordinal variables.

With regards to dimensions of the stereotyping and perceptions the data collected provided information which will unify the stereotyping and discrimination validity of stereotyping and perception for women. This instrument is used to identify the differences and to what level the students would feel as though stereotypes affect their daily life in sports participation and their private and public self-consciousness. It has been stated by many writers that sport is an institution that maintains and reproduces a type of gender inequality (Messner & Sabo 1990; Crosset 1990; Bryson 1997).

2. Inference analysis (Test of significance)

This is where conclusions are made from data analysis. This would result on a question as to what should be done next and assumptions will be made in relation to the data.

The Four Tests

The four three tests undertaken were to help the researcher make decisions about the data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010):

1. Chi squared test: This research will show that exists significant association between the various ethnicities in the gender typing of various sports. The research will further establish

if gender typing of sports exists more in which ethnic group (Malay, Chinese, Indian or Others)? Is it more obvious according to each type of sports?

To establish if a systematic association exists, the probability of obtaining a value of Chi-Square as large as or larger than the one calculated from the cross tabulation is appraised. The result of the Chi-Square will define the effect in each type of sports. . The significance of the association is only clear from the Chi-Square testing. The question will be if the difference is large enough to be statistically significant.

The assumption for chi-square test is as below:

Even though chi-square is a nonparametric statistic which does not need a normally distributed population, there are however, a few constraints concerning its usage.

1. Representative sample.
2. The data must be in frequency form (nominal data) or greater.
3. The individual observations must be independent of each other.
4. Sample size must be adequate.
5. Distribution basis must be decided on before the data is collected.
6. The sum of the observed frequencies must equal the sum of the expected frequencies.

1. Independent T-test: In relation to gender, this test was undertaken under the SPSS to establish the differences of gender in stereotyping, perception and influences.

T-test assumptions:

There are a few conditions to be met in order for the t-tests to be accurate. These are the following assumptions:

The dependant variables from which the sample data are drawn are normally distributed.

This was undertaken with the checking of Q-Q plot.

- (a)The variances of two groups to be compared are equal. This was undertaken by looking at the Levene's test.

(b)The two groups are independent of one another.

2. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): This analysis was undertaken to establish the differing effects of various ethnicities and income groups on stereotypes, perception and influences.

ANOVA Assumptions:

To prove the reliability of the value of F in an F distribution table, there are several assumptions that need to be proven. They are the following:

- a. the values in each of the groups (as a whole) follow the normal curve,
- b. with possibly different population averages (though the null hypothesis is that all of the group averages are equal) and
- c. Equal population standard deviations.

3. **MANOVA:** This analysis is to establish if there was any relationship between gender within ethnicities in stereotypes, perceptions and influences. It was important to show this as it had been viewed that Sports exists as an institution in the world of capitalism, however still battling with gender inequality (Messner & Sabo 1990; Crosset 1990; Kimmel 1990; Bryson 1987). Since Malaysia is made of various ethnicities it was important to see if there existed a relationship between these variables.

MANOVA Assumptions:

These assumptions are to enable MANOVA analysis:

- a. Dependent variables : metric or continuous, independent variables: categorical or discrete
- b. Dependent variables follow a multivariate normal distribution
- c. Observations are independent
- d. Variance-covariance matrices must be equal for all treatment groups

Additional assumptions: linearity and multicollinearity of variate of dependent variables

3.22 Testing of Hypotheses and Test of Significance

As mentioned previously, one of the major functions of inferential statistics is testing of hypotheses. Hypothesis will identify the independent variable and the dependent variable. A hypothesis is a statement about the relationship between them. There are two types. A research hypothesis exists because there is a research problem which has invoked curiosity in the researcher's mind. A statistical hypothesis refers to null hypotheses (H_0) proposes that any results observed is the result of chance alone. The testing of null hypotheses is the process of linking observed data with the results that would be expected from chance alone (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The null hypothesis must always be stated first.

The reason of the null hypothesis to make certain that a cautious and critical approach is adopted when conducting statistical tests. The significance level or alpha (α) is the probability that the researchers use as their cut-off point (0.05). A result based on this criterion is said to be statistically significant. A null hypothesis is rejected if the process of deciding the results is in something other than chance. Since in this research there are a number of hypotheses, it is crucial to adopt a formal rhetorical style by repeating the same key phrases in the same order as seen in the next section below.

3.22.1 Hypothesis: Significant Association

Various ethnic groups to gender typing of sports

Hypothesis: There exists significant association in the response of various ethnic groups regarding gender typing of sport.

Significant Relationship

Gender:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant difference in male and female's view of people's perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant difference in male and female's view of overall students' perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation.

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant difference in male and female's view of family and society's influence in sports participation

Ethnicity:

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant difference in Malay, Chinese, Indian and Other ethnic group's view of people's perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation.

Hypothesis 5: There is a significant difference in Malay, Chinese, Indian and Other ethnic group's view of overall students' perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation.

Hypothesis 6: There is a significant difference in Malay, Chinese, Indian and Other ethnic group's view of family and society's influence in sports participation.

Gender and Ethnicity:

Hypothesis 7: There are significant differences in stereotyping, perception and influence in sports participation by Gender within different ethnicities.

3.22.2 Statistical Techniques for Testing Hypotheses.

There are two types of statistical techniques for testing hypotheses which are parametric and non-parametric (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The Chi Square (X^2) test is without a doubt the most important and most used nonparametric statistical tests. Chi

Square is employed to test the difference between an actual sample and another hypothetical or previously established distribution such as that which may be expected due to chance or probability. Thus Chi Square in this case is used to see if the observed frequencies differ from those that would be expected by chance (Field & Hole, 2011). Therefore the sum of the squared differences between each observed frequency and its associated expected frequency is the chi square. This means that the bigger the value of (X^2), the greater the difference between observed and expected frequencies, the more confident it can be stated that the observed frequencies have not happened by chance (Field & Hole, 2011).

The parametric test was used as it works on the arithmetic mean and therefore the data used was measured at a ratio level and the assumptions about the variances between groups is roughly the same i.e. the homogeneity of variances (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Therefore this test can be used to test and compare mean in different conditions (gender and ethnicity category). The Levene's test was used as the assumptions of homogeneity of variances were most suitable.

The independent T-test was used because the measurement of dependent variables is interval while the independent variable is measured with nominal value and since nominal is dichotomous, independent T-test was used. From here, the independent T-test was used in the gender analysis as this compared two means (male and female) and different participants were used. The other test used was the ANOVA for ethnicity analysis. This was because this test extended to the testing the null hypotheses that three or more means are roughly equal. The One way Independent ANOVA test were used to test three or more experimental groups (different ethnic groups) and different participants were used in each group. The multivariate test (MANOVA) was used to test gender within the various ethnicities. There are two main differences between MANOVA and ANOVA.

MANOVA takes into account the multiple independent and multiple dependant variables within the same model allowing for greater complexity, and the significance value is tested using the multivariate measures as opposed to F value in ANOVA.

It is important to show the relationship between these variables as sports has been stated by many writers that sport is an institution that maintains and reproduces a type of gender inequality (Messner & Sabo 1990; Crosset 1990; Kimmel 1990; Bryson 1997).

3.23 Matrix Table on Research Questions, Hypotheses, Variables and Data Analysis

Table 3.17 Matrix Table

Research Question	Hypothesis	Independent Variables	Dependent Variable(s)	Data Analysis
1a. Are students engaged in gender typing of sports?	NOT APPLICABLE	GENDER	TYPES OF SPORTS	DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS
1b. Are students likely to participate in these sports according to the gender typing of the sports?	NOT APPLICABLE	GENDER	TYPES OF SPORTS	DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS
2. Do the various ethnic groups (Malay, Chinese, Indian and Others) respond differently to views/opinion regarding gender typing of sports?	There is a significant association in the response of various ethnic groups regarding gender typing of sport.	GENDER	GENDERTYPING OF SPORTS.	CHI – SQUARE ANALYSIS

3a. Does gender influence students views of peoples' perception on gender stereotyping and their impact on sports participation?	There is a significant difference in male and female's view of people's perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation.	GENDER	STEREOTYPING	INDEPENDENT T-TEST
3b. Does gender influence students' perception on masculine and feminine values their impact on sports participation?	There is a significant difference in male and female's view of overall students' perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation.	GENDER	PERCEPTION	INDEPENDENT T-TEST
3c. Does gender impact family and social influences on sports participation?	There is a significant difference in male and female's view of family and society's influence on sports participation	GENDER	FAMILY AND SOCIETAL INFLUENCES	INDEPENDENT T-TEST

<p>4a. IDoes ethnicity influence students views of peoples' perception on gender stereotyping, and their impact on sports participation?</p>	<p>There is a significant difference in Malay, Chinese, Indian and Other ethnic groups' view of people's perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation.</p>	<p>ETHNICITY</p>	<p>STEREOTYPING</p>	<p>ANOVA</p>
<p>4b. Does ethnicity influence students perception of masculine and feminine values and their impact on sports participation?</p>	<p>There is a significant difference , Chinese, Indian and Other ethnicities ethnic groups' view of overall students' perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation.</p>	<p>ETHNICITY</p>	<p>PERCEPTION</p>	<p>ANOVA</p>
<p>4c. Does ethnicity impact onfamily and social influences on sports participation?</p>	<p>There is a significant difference in Malay, Chinese, Indian and Other ethnic groups' view of family and society's influence on sports participation</p>	<p>ETHNICITY</p>	<p>FAMILY AND SOCIAL INFLUENCES</p>	<p>ANOVA</p>

<p>5a. Is there a relationship between gender within different ethnicities in gender stereotyping in sports participation by gender within the various ethnic groups?</p>	<p>There are significant differences in stereotyping in sports participation by Gender within different ethnicities.</p>	<p>GENDER & ETHNICITY</p>	<p>STEREOTYPING, PERCEPTION & FAMILY AND SOCIAL INFLUENCES</p>	<p>MANOVA</p>
<p>5b. Is there a relationship between gender within different ethnicities in perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation by gender within the various ethnic groups?</p>	<p>There are significant differences in perception in sports participation by Females within different ethnicities.</p>	<p>GENDER & ETHNICITY</p>	<p>STEREOTYPING, PERCEPTION & FAMILY AND SOCIAL INFLUENCES</p>	<p>MANOVA</p>
<p>5c. Is there a relationship between gender within different ethnicities in family and society's influences in sports participation by gender within the various ethnic groups?</p>	<p>There are significant differences in influence in sports participation by Males within different ethnicities.</p>	<p>GENDER & ETHNICITY</p>	<p>STEREOTYPING, PERCEPTION & FAMILY AND SOCIAL INFLUENCES</p>	<p>MANOVA</p>

3.24 Ethical and Moral Undertaking

In relation to sensitive questions, the research was alert to the outcome that it could be threatening or embarrassing therefore these types of questions were not incorporated. Letters were given to the respondents to have their parents or guardians to allow these school children to participate in the research questionnaires and since they were below the age of 18. Even if there were some questions that may have been considered sensitive in relation to questioning on gender and ethnicity sensitivity on the decision of stereotyping, perception or influences and therefore the language used were non-threatening familiar to respondents. Further the respondents were informed at the beginning of the session that they had every right to decline to take part or to answer any questions they were uncomfortable with. This affects the ethical issues in the research and therefore the researcher had to be alert to the feelings or sentiments of the respondents.

The background information section was completed with the assistance of the relevant teachers, who were present while the students completed the questionnaires. However, even with the assistance of the teachers, there were still students who choose not to fill some questions in the questionnaires. This was due to the fact that they were informed that they had a choice not to complete any questions which they felt uncomfortable. This was in accordance to their liberty, privacy and their moral right. This is the ethical undertaking of the research in relation to the research. At this point in time there were no ethical guidelines from the University of Malaya and most importantly clearance by the Ministry of Education of Malaysia to use these questionnaires as these questionnaires were sent to the ministry to obtain approval..

CHAPTER 4

GENDERTYPING OF SPORTS AND SPORTS PARTICIPATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will start with the discussion on gender typing of sports which is form Section B of the questionnaire. Here an analysis of gender typing of sports is taken and a further cross analysis of male and female is discussed. The analysis of gender typing of sports was measured using the scale as stated in chapter 3 on Methods. There was a list of 29 sports provided and the respondents were required to state which type of sports were preferred by boys, girls or both genders. Once they had completed this, they were asked if they are currently involved in sporting activities and if so, they were then required to complete the current sporting activities which they were involved in reflecting the list of sports in the scale given.

4.2 Demography Background Information

This section gives a descriptive study of the demographic background variables such as family income, mother's education, and father's education, age of the respondents, ethnicity, and sex of students, level of education, and the number of students in each of the selected schools. Mapping the demographic background of the respondents is important as the first step to find out and whether the variables chosen for this study namely gender and ethnicity affects the relationship in shaping gender equality in chapter 4, chapter 5 and chapter 6 of this thesis.

Therefore the chosen demographic variable output will be especially so in Malaysia crucial for the future research challenges in education and sports policy making output.

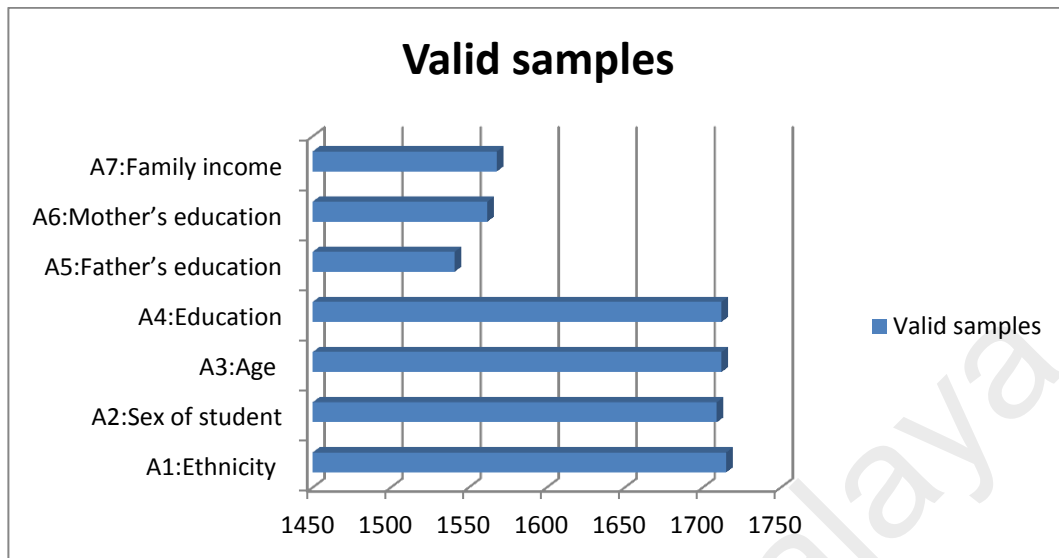


Figure 4.1 Demography: Background Information

Figure 4.1 reflects the total outcome of the background information received from the respondents/students. This study considered the independent variables A1 (ethnicity), A2 (sex) and A7 (income). On the whole, there were 1715 completed questionnaires received which were considered valid for the purpose of this study. The students answered correctly in relation to their ethnicity (1709) and students also answered correctly in the question related to gender of the student (1712). They also answered correctly in relation to their age and level of education. However in relation to father's and mother highest level of education, only 1541 and 1562 students answered respectively to the questions.

This could have been due to the fact that the students were uncertain of the level of education of the parents or parents were not willing to disclose their level of education. This was the same for the overall level projected monthly family income, where 1568 answered. This could have been due to the fact that either they were uncertain or parents were not willing to disclose the family income.

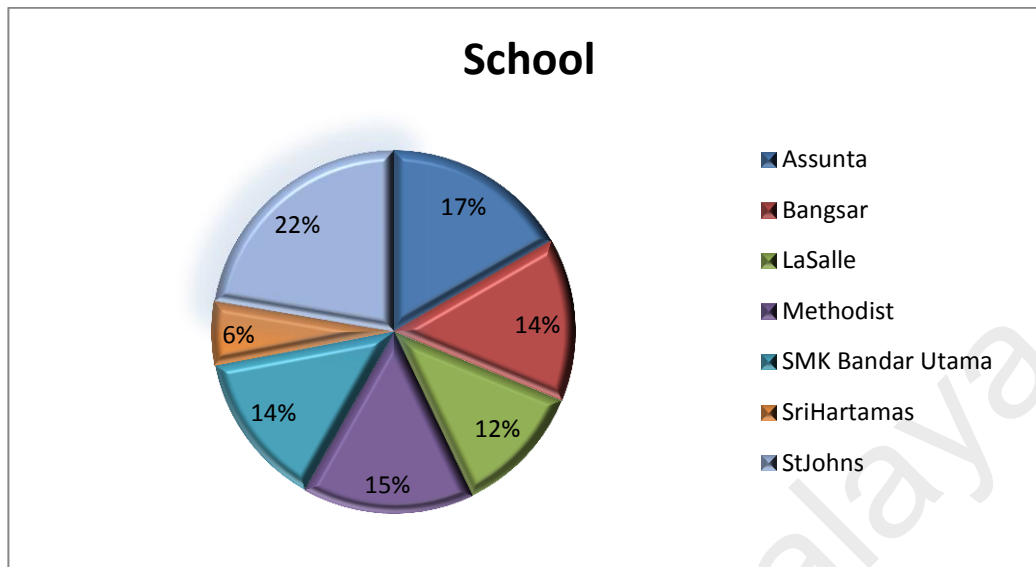


Figure 4.2: Number of Students in each School.

Figure 4.2 reflects the number of students by each School. There were in total 1715 respondents from seven schools.

In total there were 1715 respondents. SMK St John (Boys) had the highest respondents with total of 382 (22%), followed by SMK Assunta (Girls) with a total of respondent of 287(17%) , SMK Methodist (Girls) with a total respondents of 263 (15%), SMK Bangsar (co-ed) with a total respondents of 248 (14%) , SMK Bandar Utama (Co-ed) with a total respondents of 236 (14%), SMK La Salle with a total of 201 (12%) and SMK Sri Hartamas with a total of 98 (6%).

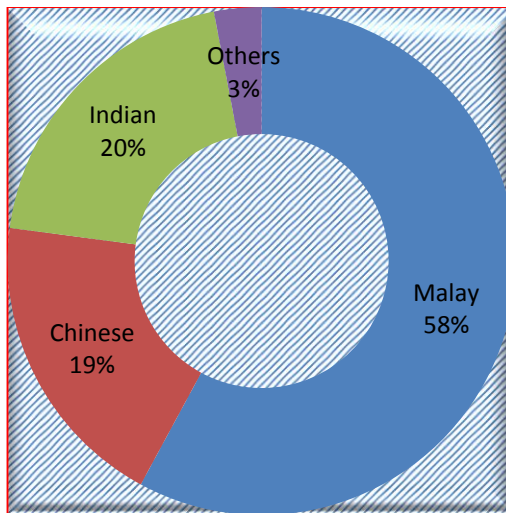


Figure 4.3: Ethnicity of Respondents

The above Figure 4.3 reflects ethnicity of the response rate. The majority were Malays with 988 respondents(58%). The Chinese with 328 respondents (19 %). The Indians with 340 respondents(20%) and others with 51 respondents (3%).

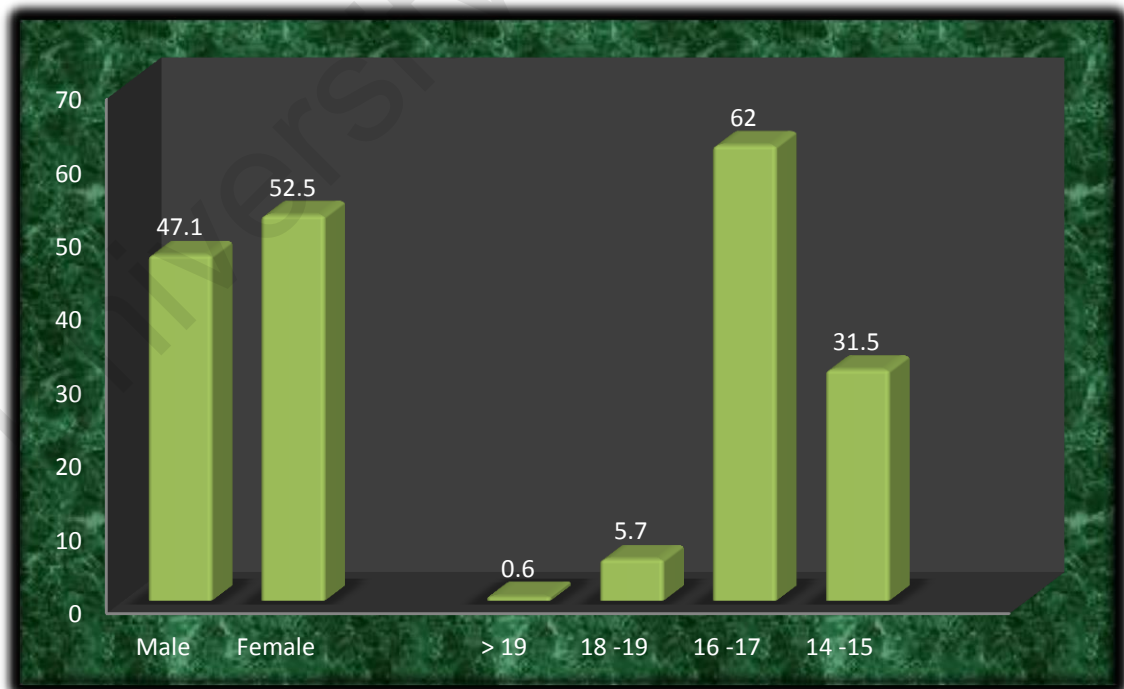


Figure 4.4 Gender and Age Group

Figure 4.4 reflects the participation profile by gender and age group. The majority of the respondents are female with 901(52.7%) and the male with 808 (47.3%). The above figure also reflects the age of the majority of the respondents falling in the 16-17 age brackets. The number of respondents was 1063 in that age bracket (62%); this percentage could have been due to the fact that students who are currently in Form 4 and From 5 would fall within this age group. This was followed by respondents in the 14-15 age group, the number of respondents were 540 (31.5%). The remaining fell within the 18-19 age group with 98 respondents (5.7%) and above 19 years with 11 respondents(0.6%).

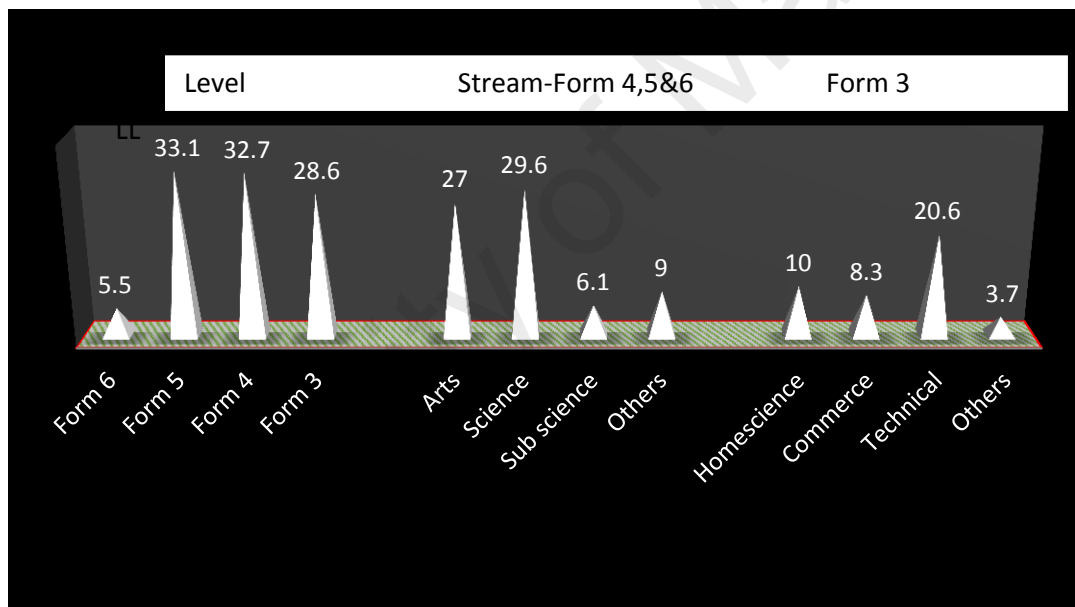


Figure 4.5 Levels and Stream of Education

The majority of the students were found in Form 4 and Form 5 (see Figure 4.5). Form 5 had a total of 567 respondents (33.1%), form 4 had a total of 560 respondents (32.7%). Form 3 had a total of 490 respondents (28.6%) and Form 6 had a total of 95 respondents (5.5%). The samples taken from the Form 6 were from the Form 6 Upper students as the intake for the Lower 6 had not commenced. Further the total would be

small due to the fact that many students prefer to enter into public universities for a Diploma or foundation course and pre-university colleges locally and abroad to undertake A levels or Diploma compared to sitting for the STPM examinations.

The discrepancy number of respondents found in the level of education and the age category would be due to the fact that some Form 4 students would still be in the age bracket of 15 years, while the remaining would be due to the students having joined the national medium school from a vernacular school, where the policy is that students who had not performed well during the primary UPSR Standard 6 examination will have to undertake an extra year (remove class) in the secondary school before entering from 1, thereby increasing their age factor.

The science stream formed the majority with a total of 508 respondents (29.6%), while the Arts stream followed by a total of 463 (27%), others with a total of 155 respondents (9.0%) and sub-science with a total of 104 respondents (6.1%). A total of 485 students chose not to respond. This could have been due to the fact that some streams in some schools were named differently and they may not have included themselves in the others category. The “other” streams have been identified in the questionnaire and have been attached in the appendix of the thesis.

The Form three students in the technical stream were the majority with a total of 354 (20.6 %), followed by home sciences with a total of 171 respondents (10%), commerce with a total of 142 respondents (8.3%) and other streams with a total of 64 respondents (3.7%). The streams in the form three are different from the upper forms, therefore, the need for a separate analysis.

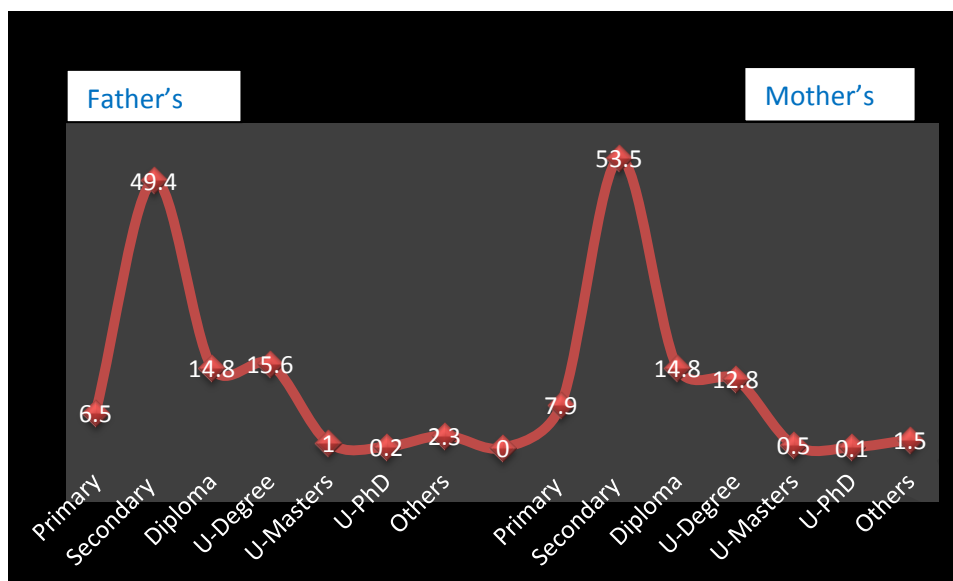


Figure 4.6 Father's & Mother's Education Level

In regards to the accuracy of information in the category of education and income, the respective class/sports teachers were met earlier and advised on how to guide the students. The teachers had informed the students prior to the questionnaires being administered, to enquire from their respective parent/s or guardian/s on this information. It was also informed that the parents had a right not to disclose the level of education if they were not comfortable. The highest number of fathers came from the secondary school level of education category with a total of 848 (49.4%), followed by university, in which three sub-categories were created to ensure the precision of the level of education, in these categories, fathers who had degree qualifications totalled 267 (15.6%) and, masters qualification total was 18 (1%), PhD qualification totalled 4 (0.2%). Fathers who had diploma qualifications totalled 253 (14.8%).

The lowest qualification totalled 111 in that the fathers had primary school qualifications (6.5%). In the category of others, some discrepancies to the answers were discovered, whereby technical college and college (*kolej*) would be presumed to be in the

diploma qualifications; engineer in the degree qualification and STPM and Pre U in the secondary level. A total of 174 respondents did not state their father's qualification which reflects (10.1%).

The highest number of the participants' mothers level of education attained was secondary school qualifications with a total of 918 (53.5%), this was followed by diploma qualification with a total of 254 (14.8%), the university category was further divided into sub-categories, whereby university degree with a total of 220 (12.8%), university master's degree with a total of 8 (0.5%) and university- PhD a total of 2 (0.1%). The lowest qualifications of the participants' mothers fell in the category primary with a total of 135 (7.9%). There were participants who responded to the question on qualifications in the category of others with a total of 25 (1.5%) and there were 153 who did not state their mother's qualification.

In relation the mothers' other qualifications, just as in the fathers, there were some minor discrepancy in that STPM qualification should have been listed in the secondary school, teacher listed in the diploma or degree qualification and one respondents even listed University of Louisiana under that category of others , which should have been included in the university category.

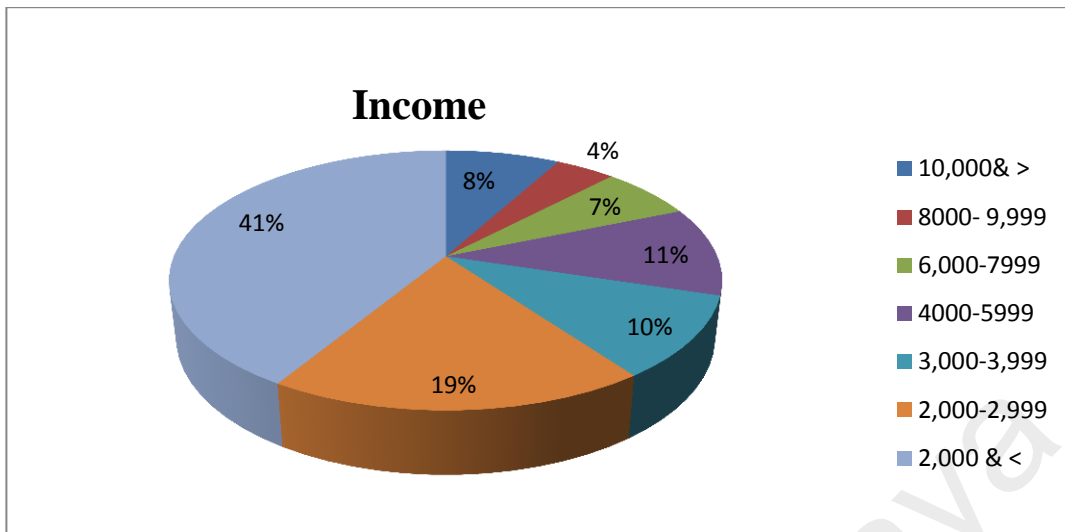


Figure 4.7 Family Income of the students' family

In the income category, the highest sample was derived from households with an income of RM2000 and below with a total of 646 (41%), followed by a household income of RM2000-2999 with a total of 294 (19%), followed by a household income of RM4000-5999 with a total of 174 (11%), followed next by a household income of RM3000-RM3999 with a total of 159 (10%), followed by the next income level of RM10000 and above with a total of 126 (8%), followed by the next income level of RM6,000 – 7999 with a total of 106 and therefore the lowest numbers of sample was in the household income category of RM8000-8999 with a total of 66(4%).

The following section is the descriptive test findings, which is depicted in the research framework below:

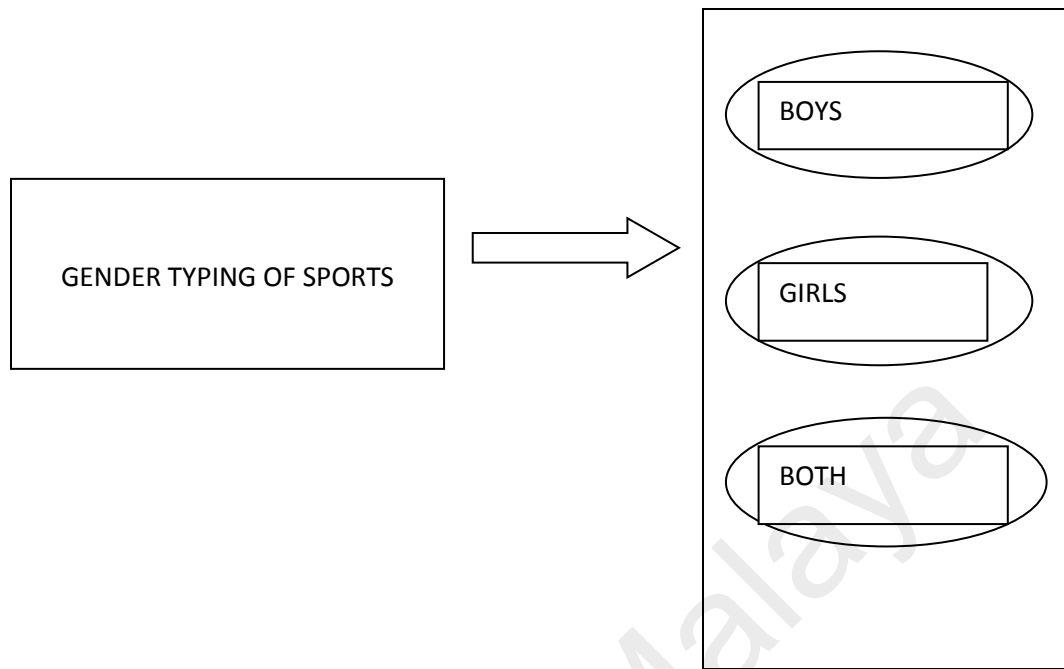


Figure 4.8 Gender typing of Sports

4.3 Gender Typing of Sports

It must be noted that in the first part of this discussion the respondents listed the type of sports as being a boys or girls or both gender type of sports irrespective of their gender. Subsequently the cross analysis of gender of the students and the type of sports were discussed. The number of respondents however, differed in the type of sports they actually participated in which will be reflected in the subsequent results listed below.

A frequency test was undertaken to show what the relevant sports are considered by the respondents to be suitable for both genders, boys or girls. This is irrespective of the gender of the respondents.

Table 4.1 Gender Typing of Sports

Type of Sports	Grand Total	Gender Typing of Sports		
		Boys' sports (%)	Girls' sports (%)	Both (%) (sports for both Boys and Girls)
Ice-Skating	1625	12	6.9	81.1
Tennis	1646	2.8	7.9	89.3
Karate	1639	19.3	2.6	78.1
Wrestling	1622	80.2	1.2	18.6
Golf	1644	24.0	1.1	74.9
Ballet	1631	3.0	74.1	29.9
Jogging or running	1651	8.1	1.8	90.1
Walking	1637	8.1	1.8	86.9
Aerobics	1629	2.8	43	54.1
Swimming	1619	4.9	3.9	91.2
Diving	1627	14.6	3.1	82.3
Kayaking/Canoeing	1630	33.1	2.4	64.5
Softball	1625	31	15.5	57.5
Volleyball	1644	7.2	17.1	75.7
Netball	1643	6.6	56.6	37.7
Basketball	1643	43.3	5.3	51.4
Football	1656	68.2	2.5	29.2
Dancing	1648	3.0	35.7	61.2
Cheerleading	1631	4.2	69.4	26.4
Hockey	1655	25.4	3.7	70.8
Gymnastics	1633	5.1	40.7	54.2
Rhythmic gymnastics	1637	2.9	71.5	25.6
Bicycling	1657	21	2.2	76.8
Archery	1629	19.7	2.3	78
Taekwondo	1655	13.4	1.2	85.4
Ping Pong	1646	12.8	3.5	83.7
Badminton	1663	5.1	1.7	93.2
Squash	1634	5	8.7	86.3
Silat	1644	42.2	2.1	55.7
Others				

The above Table 4.1 shows the students responses on the type of sports that is considered suitable in relation to gender. The response was based on the total respondents who answered the questionnaire irrespective of the gender of the respondents. Therefore the

question is whether there is gender typing of sports irrespective of the gender of the students?

A total of 1652 students responded to this question. The results below indicate there are differences between the type of sports that are considered boys' type sports and girl's type sports i.e the predominant response from all respondents on the types of sports that are suitable for boys, girls or both genders are provided below. The details are discussed in Table 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4 below.

Table 4.2 Response from both boys and girls on types of sports suitable for boys

Types of Sports	Response rate for boys' type sports (%)
Wrestling	80.2
Football	68.2
Basketball	43.3
Silat	42.2
Kayaking/Canoeing	33.1
Softball	31
Hockey	25.4
Golf	24.0
Bicycling	21

4.3.1 Discussion of Results on the response of both genders for boys

The Table 4.2 above shows that the respondents viewed certain sports to be more suitable for boys. These are wrestling in a response of 80.2%, football in a response of 68.2%, basketball in a response of 43.3%, silat in a response of 42.2%. The above results in order of ranking shows, only wrestling and football are considered most suitable for boys by the respondents.

This result differed only slightly from the original scale (Colley, Nash, O'Donnell and Restorick 1987; Koivula 1995; Matteo 1986, Metheny 1967) which recorded four sporting activities which were karate, wrestling, football and basketball as male dominated sports. Karate, one of the four activities recorded a response of 19.3% which shows that it is not a male dominated sports but sports suitable for both genders in a response of 78.1% and basketball recorded a response of 43.3% to be suitable for boys, however recorded a response 51.4% majority to be most suitable for both genders. Therefore this research shows that overall boys and girls practice less gender typing of sports but this differs only slightly from previous studies done in the west.

Table 4.3 Response from both boys and girls on the types of sports as suitable sports for Girls

Types of Sports	Response rate for Girls' type sports (%)
Ballet	74.1
Rhythmic Gymnastics	71.5
Cheerleading	69.4
Netball	56.6
Aerobics	43
Gymnastics	40.7
Dancing	35.7

4.3.2 Discussion of Results on the Response from both gender for girls

The Table 4.3 above shows that there were certain other sports the respondents viewed as more suitable for girls. These are ballet in a response of 74.1%, rhythmic gymnastics in a response of 71.5%, cheerleading in a response of 69.4%, netball in a response of 56.6%.

The original research that used the same scale also recorded three types of sports to be gender-typed as feminine sports. However, the 3 types of sports in the Malaysian sample differed from the original results. As mentioned above the 3 sports are in order of ranking rhythmic gymnastics, cheer-leading, netball as compared to the original scales where the three types of sports considered girls type sports were softball, field hockey and ice-skating (Colley, Nash, O'Donnell and Restorick 1987; Koivula 1995; Matteo 1986, Metheny 1967). In the Malaysian context, the results were low as softball recorded a response of 15.5%, ice-skating recorded a response of 6.9% and hockey recorded a response of 3.7%. This research however, found that ice-skating in a response of 81.1%, hockey in a response of 70.8% and softball in a response of 57.5% was considered to be suitable for both genders. This meant that the results in the original scale in what showed to be gender typed as feminine type of sports was considered to be gender-neutral in the Malaysian context. This is further shown by the 15.5% response for softball, and ice-skating with a response of 6.9%. This marked differences could be attested to the cultural differences where although softball, ice-skating and hockey are played by girls in the western context but it is considered to be more suitable for both genders in the Malaysian context.

Table 4.4 Response from both boys and girls on types of sports that is suitable to both genders

Types of Sports	Response rate for sports suitable for both boys and girls (%)
Badminton	93.2
Swimming	91.2
Jogging or running	90.1
Tennis	89.3
Walking	86.9
Squash	86.3
Taekwondo	85.4
Ping Pong	83.7
Diving	82.3
Ice-Skating	81.1
Karate	78.1
Archery	78
Bicycling	76.8
Volleyball	75.7
Golf	74.9
Hockey	70.8
Kayaking/Canoeing	64.5
Dancing	61.2
Softball	57.5
Silat	55.7
Gymnastics	54.2
Aerobics	54.1
Basketball	51.4

4.3.3 Discussion of Results on the Response from both genders for both genders.

Table 4.4 above shows that certain sports were viewed by both male and female respondents as suitable for both genders. The sports which fell in the above 90% response rate were badminton in a response of 93.2%, swimming in a response of 91.2%, jogging/running in a response of 90.1%.

The 80% to 90% response rate were in tennis in a response of 89.3%, walking in a response of 86.9%, squash in a response of 86.3%, taekwondo in a response of 85.4%,

ping pong in a response of 83.7%, diving in a response of 82.3%, ice-skating in a response of 81.1%.

The types of sports which were included in the 70%-79% response rate were, karate in a response of 78.1%, archery in a response of 78%, bicycling in a response of 76.8%, volleyball in a response of 75.7%, golf in a response of 74.9%, hockey in a response of 70.8%.

Kayaking/canoeing in a response of 64.5% and dancing in a response of 61.2% fell in the 60%-69% response rate.

The types of sports that fell in the category of 50%-59% were softball in a response of 57.5%, *silat* in a response of 55.7%, gymnastics in a response of 54.2%, aerobics in a response of 54.1%, basketball in a response of 51.4%.

The original scale, (previous researches Colley, Nash, O'Donnell & Restorick 1987; Koivula 1995; Matteo 1986, Metheny 1967) have determined such classifications to be feminine, masculine and gender neutral) had seven sports which were recognised as sports suitable for both genders. These sports were golf, tennis, bicycling, diving, volleyball, swimming, and jogging/running. The current research not only accepted the original scale's results but also included badminton, walking, squash, taekwondo, ping pong, ice-skating, karate, archery, hockey, kayaking/canoeing, dancing, softball, *silat*, gymnastics, basketball and aerobics to be gender neutral sports therefore suitable for both genders.

Note: In relation to other types of sports. The respondents listed rugby, cricket and cadet/marching. The two schools who listed the first two sports were SM. St John's Kuala Lumpur and SM La Salle Petaling Jaya.

4.3.4 Types of Sports Participated by Respondents.

Table 4.5 Response by both boys and girls on their involvement in types of sports

Type of Sports	Total	Are you currently involved	
		No (%)	Yes (%)
Ice-Skating	1698	93	7
Tennis	1698	91.7	8.3
Karate	1699	95.4	4.6
Wrestling	1698	96.5	3.5
Golf	1698	95.8	4.2
Ballet	1698	97.6	2.4
Jogging or running	1700	79.7	20.3
Walking	1700	93	7
Aerobics	1700	93.6	6.4
Swimming	1699	87.5	12.5
Diving	1700	95.7	4.3
Kayaking/Canoeing	1700	97.3	2.7
Softball	1700	94.6	5.4
Volleyball	1700	87	13
Netball	1699	88	12
Basketball	1700	84.1	15.9
Football	1698	76.1	23.9
Dancing	1700	83	17
Cheerleading	1700	92.7	7.3
Hockey	1700	89.4	10.6
Gymnastics	1700	96.1	3.9
Rhythmic gymnastics	1700	97.9	2.1
Bicycling	1699	74.1	25.9
Archery	1700	95.7	4.3
Taekwondo	1699	90.8	9.2
Ping Pong	1700	87	13
Badminton	1700	51.5	48.5
Squash	1699	96.6	3.4
Silat	1699	94	6
Others	1690	91.6	8.4
Not relevant	1696	98.3	1.7

Table 4.5 shows that there were certain sports participated by most of the respondents. However, note that the response fell below 50%. These were badminton in a response of 48.5%, bicycling in a response of 25.9%, football in a response of 23.9%,

jogging or running in a response of 20.3%, dancing in a response of 17%, basketball in a response of 15.9%, volley ball in a response of 13%, swimming in a response 12.5%, ping pong in a response of 13% and net ball in a response of 12%.

Note: In relation to other types of sports. The respondents listed rugby, cricket and cadet/marching. The two schools who listed the first two sports were SM. St John's Kuala Lumpur and SM La Salle Petaling Jaya.

There were 1696 respondents in relation to whether the types of sport were relevant. 1667 respondents in a response of 98.3% stated that it was not, while 29 respondents in a response of 1.7% stated that it was relevant.

The data shows that badminton which was not considered in the original scale (Colley, Nash, O'Donnel & Restorick 1987; Koivula 1995; Matteo 1986, Metheny 1967) that was included in the current study elicited the highest response, irrespective of gender. This could be due to the fact that badminton is a type of sport that is well recognised not only at school level but even played in the evenings in the neighbourhoods with friends and families.

Besides that Malaysia is recognised globally for it has produced globally recognised champions and the government has also supported this sport so the visibility of this sport could also be a reason for the greater participation and interest of both girls and boys in this sport.

4.4 Open Ended Questions- Reasons to Participate or not to Participate in Sports

The students were asked the reasons for choosing to participate in the various types of sports. There were a number of key themes that were found to be the reasons which the respondents identified which made it difficult or challenging to be involved in sports. Influences from family, peers and society, perception and stereotyping on gender, culture, religion, demands of study and examination over sports, physical issues – perceived or otherwise, IT gadgets, lack of time, safety issues and other miscellaneous issues were listed by respondents as reasons why it was difficult or challenging for them to participate in sports. The next section will provide the key themes on reasons given in the open ended question.

4.4.1 Family, Peers and Society

There were respondents who stated that they chose not to participate because of the views of the society in Malaysia and that the views were conservative or that their parents have stated that many of the sports were not suitable for females or dangerous to females. The respondents also stated that their parents were not able to spend time with them playing some sports, for example one student stated that when he or she was younger, parents had more time playing games with them but as they grew older their parents were either too tired from work or are not physically able due to age and health issues. One respondent stated that the friends are not interested in the sports she likes and therefore she had to choose between the sports and hanging out with friends. The demands of having special friends from opposite sex were identified as a reason why they choose to participate or not

to participate in sports. One girl stated that since her boyfriend liked sports, she is involved in sports.

4.4.2 Studies and Examination over Sports Participation

It was interesting to note that many respondents stated that teachers and parents are reluctant to encourage them to participate in sports as it was an important government examination year and therefore they were asked to concentrate in studies so that they would perform well in exams. Sports activities in schools and outside were given low priority as parents preferred them to be at home or tuition centres preparing for exams. One student commented that the Physical Education period towards the end of the year was used for revision and that was frustrating.

4.4.3 Perception and Stereotyping of Sports: Gender, Culture and Religion

Some respondents reported that their parents believed that sports were more for males. Some respondents stated that there were types of sports more suitable for females as compared to males. There were also comments that if males participated in certain types of sports it would imply that they were like females. For example, one respondent stated that “netball is not basketball and that would not be healthy as it would make males look like females; it would make males look like transvestites (*pondan*)”. Certain types of sports are too soft and some respondents stated that certain sports were targeted for females. For example, rhythmic gymnastics are for girls and not boys. Some have stated that the teachers themselves encourage them by grouping girls for sports such as netball, while boys are encouraged to play football during their PE classes. One respondent stated that boys and girls were not allowed to play football together as this would become a moral issue for

example bodily contact with boys. Some stated that wrestling is too rough and should be for boys. Some respondents did not participate in sports because they were wearing the Malay head gear (*tudung*). One respondent stated that although she like to participate in gymnastics and swimming, her parents did not like the idea of wearing tight fitting costumes that may bring about unwanted attention to her physical body. Sports teachers make them “act like monkeys by asking them to exercise (jumping up and down)” and the respondent was not interested in animal antics.

4.4.4 Physical Issues – Perceived or Otherwise.

Physical health issues such as asthma or heart condition or skin problems (dermatitis) were also the reasons given on why they preferred not to participate in these sports. The respondents stated that playing certain sports required them to be too fierce such as wrestling. There were respondents who stated that their body was not suited to the type of sport or it was not a type of sport suited to them or the sports were not their choice.

Some respondents did not enjoy tennis although their parents encouraged them to play in school as this sport relied on too much physical strength. One respondent said that gymnastics was too extreme and too challenging. One respondent said that his or her back ached from having to bow for a long time in warm up exercises. Some stated that the participation in sports required them to be strong physically (*lasak*) and they did not have the stamina for such sports. Some sports were too strenuous (*ketat*) and made them feel exhausted easily and this caused problems as they were not able to concentrate in class after that. Some respondents stated that they had a phobia against balls and from past experience

they have had some 'painful' moments in sports. Some sports required respondents to jump; hence they were not interested in that.

Respondents also mentioned that sports participation needed a lot of energy and expertise. However, some respondents were positive on the importance of sports as they stated that it made them healthy and attentive. Despite this, there were female respondents who expressed that they were interested in sports but monthly issues such as menstruation cycle disallowed them from participating as their parents did not encourage them to play sports during that time. Some stated that it made them uncomfortable during their menstruation cycle as they were worried and conscious that they may leak and that would put them in an embarrassing situation.

Some gave reasons such as not feeling well during those time and that they could not undertake simple warming up exercises or running around the field as required by the PE teacher. Some female respondents also mentioned that they did not like to participate in the PE or any form of sports as that made them "sweaty" and "smelly". They wanted to stay fresh all day long and not looking messy, therefore sports participation was not appealing. One male respondent stated that he liked football but the girls in his class always said he was 'sweaty' and 'smelly'. One female respondent stated that since she was physically well endowed it was embarrassing as the boys would smile and start staring when they saw her jumping or running.

4.4.5 The Bane of I.T. Gadgets

Some respondents preferred a more sedentary lifestyle. They chose watching TV when they get back home rather than going for games. Since their friends did not live in

the same neighbourhood, they preferred to spend time talking to their best friends from school as they do not have enough time to talk to them during classes.

Some preferred to spend time on their computer games to relax themselves after a long day of studying instead of exercising. They looked forward to internet chatting or making friends on the internet rather than going out in the evening for sports. Further there was one respondent who stated that it was more fun playing computer games which test him intellectually compared to physical games and therefore he was not motivated (*tidak diransang*) to participate in sports.

4.4.6 Lack of time

There were respondents who stated that they had no free time due to pressure from studies and examinations. They also stated that they did not have sufficient time to memorise the steps (perhaps related to aerobics or dancing or karate or taekwondo). Some respondents stated that they did not have the time to try new games and if they had, they would be pleased to do it.

4.4.7 Safety Issues

Some respondents stated that the parents were worried in allowing them to go out to play unaccompanied due to safety concerns such as sexual assaults and kidnapping. Therefore, they could not stay back after-school to participate in some activities as the school bus would not wait for them or the parents were not available during those times. One respondent stated that her parents said “it was not safe to play after dark or walk back after-school activities as there were dangerous people out there”.

4.4.8 Miscellaneous Reasons

Sports were not their hobby as they did not enjoy sports was another reason stated by some respondents for not participating in sports. Some respondents stated that they were not interested in any sports that were competitive in nature as it would bring about more stress and pressure, when in fact they are already experiencing it in their studies through their parents and teachers. It was interesting that one respondent stated that he preferred football as there is no pressure as everyone wins or losses. Some were unsure why they were not interested and although some liked swimming but were afraid that they might drown. One respondent was positive in stating that sports are enjoyable and can be undertaken by anyone. Too much time is spent under the sun during sports and it burns the skin was another reason given for not being interested in sports participation. Some perceived that sports were very dangerous for example softball and there was no future or advantage in sports in Malaysia.

Some even used the reason that they had difficulty to do stretching while some said it was not best and not suitable to the soul (*jiwa*). Sports participation was stated as unattractive to one of the respondent. There were some respondents who stated that they did not know how to dance and that their body was not flexible. Though, some respondents did state that they may participate if they were coached.

The Co-curricular system (*koko sistem*) was “terrible” as stated by some respondents and that it forced students to participate in sports. In the Malaysian Physical Education syllabus the co-curricular system makes it compulsory for students to participate in at least one indoor sport and one outdoor sport. Some respondents said that they would like to play some sports like their friends but it was too expensive to play tennis, join swimming, karate or taekwondo as they needed to buy the necessary equipment’s.

4.5 Gender Typing of Sports and Involvement in Sports by Male and Female Respondents.

Table 4.6 below reflects the analysis of the gender typing of sports by the gender of the respondents. Boys and girls were asked to state if the sports were suitable for boys, girls or both. The analysis also reflects the cross tabulation results between male and female students and whether or not they are involved in any sporting activities.

Table 4.6 Gender typing of sports and involvement in sports by gender (male and female respondents)

Type of Sports	Grand Total	Male Respondents (%)			Female Respondents (%)			Are you currently involved (%)?			
		Boys' Sports	Girls' Sports	Both	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys		Girls	
								No	Yes	No	Yes
Any sports								18.7	81.3	27.8	72.2
Ice-Skating	1625	12.6	6.6	80.9	11.6	7.1	81.3	92.8	7.2	93.2	6.8
Tennis	1646	3.9	4.6	91.5	1.8	10.8	87.4	86.9	13.1	96	4
Karate	1639	26	1.6	72.4	13.4	3.5	83.1	94.1	5.9	96.7	3.3
Wrestling	1622	76	1.7	22.3	83.9	0.7	15.4	93.8	6.2	99	1
Golf	1644	23.6	0.9	75.5	24.4	1.3	74.4	94.5	5.5	97	3
Ballet	1631	3	73.8	23.2	3	74.3	22.7	97.6	2.4	97.5	2.5
Jogging or running	1651	12.5	1.7	85.8	4.1	1.9	94	78.6	21.4	80.9	19.1
Walking	1637	10	6.8	83.2	7.9	2.1	90.1	91.9	8.1	94	6
Aerobics	1629	3.3	39.7	57	2.4	45.9	51.7	97.5	2.5	90.1	9.9
Swimming	1619	6.9	4.8	88.3	3.2	3.1	93.8	86.3	13.7	88.7	11.3
Diving	1627	16.3	3.9	79.7	13.1	2.3	84.5	95	5	96.3	3.7
Kayaking/Canoeing	1630	36.2	3	60.8	30.3	1.8	67.8	96.9	3.1	97.7	2.3

Softball	1625	37.7	16.8	45.4	25.2	6.9	67.9	93.9	6.1	95.2	4.8
Volleyball	1644	8	20.2	71.8	6.6	14.4	79	87.7	12.3	86.3	13.7
Netball	1643	8.1	62.8	29	5.3	49.4	45.2	98.1	1.9	79	21
Basketball	1643	52	5.1	42.9	35.7	5.5	58.8	77.2	22.8	90.3	9.7
Football	1656	63.7	2.4	33.8	72.2	2.6	25.1	55.3	44.7	94.7	5.3
Dancing	1648	3.9	39	57.1	2.3	32.9	64.8	91.4	8.6	75.2	24.8
Cheerleading	1631	5.1	70.9	24	3.3	68.1	28.6	97.3	2.7	88.5	11.5
Hockey	1655	36.4	3.6	59.9	15.8	3.8	80.3	88.3	11.7	90.3	9.7
Gymnastics	1633	6.8	28.2	65	3.7	51.6	44.7	97.1	2.9	95.1	4.9
Rhythmic gymnastics	1637	3.7	65.8	30.5	2.2	76.5	21.3	99	1	96.9	3.1
Bicycling	1657	30.6	2.6	66.8	12.6	1.9	85.5	74.5	25.5	74	26
Archery	1629	17.9	1.6	80.5	21.3	2.9	75.8	93.9	6.1	97.3	2.7
Taekwondo	1655	17.7	0.9	81.4	9.5	1.5	89	87.9	10.3	91.9	8.1
Ping Pong	1646	13.7	3.7	82.7	12.1	3.4	84.5	81.3	18.7	92.2	7.8
Badminton	1663	8.3	1.3	90.4	2.1	2.1	95.7	54.9	45.1	48.4	51.6
Squash	1634	6.1	7.3	86.6	4	9.9	86.1	95.4	4.6	97.8	2.2
Silat	1644	40.2	22.9	57	43.9	1.5	56.6	91.4	8.6	96.4	3.6

4.5.1 Gender Typing of Sports by Male Respondents

The results show that male students viewed the following sports as male type sports: wrestling in a response of 76%, football in a response of 63.7%, basketball in a response of 52%, silat in a response of 40.2%, softball in a response of 37.7%, kayaking/canoeing in a response 36.2%, hockey in a response of 36.4%, bicycling in a response of 30.6%, karate in a response of 26%, golf in a response of 3.6%. These data shows that male students considered wrestling, football and basketball as clearly male type sport.

Male students' responses on the types of sports considered female type sports showed the following sports as female type sports: ballet in a response of 73.8%, cheerleading in a response of 70.9%, rhythmic gymnastics in a response of 65.8%, netball in a response of 62.8%, aerobics in a response of 39.7%, dancing in a response of 39%, gymnastics in a response of 28.2%, silat in a response of 22.9%, volleyball in a response of 20.2% softball in a response of 16.8% and squash in a response of 7.3%. It is certainly clear that male students considered ballet, cheerleading, rhythmic gymnastics and netball as female type sports.

However, most sports were considered suitable for both males and females. The results show that the majority of sports are suitable for both genders. Type of sports that are stated as suitable for both genders are tennis in a response of 91.5%, badminton in a response of 90.4%, swimming in a response of 88.3%, squash in a response of 86.6%, jogging or running in a response of 85.8%, walking in a response of 83.2%, ping pong in a response of 82.7%, taekwondo in a response of 81.4%, ice-skating in a response of 80.9% and archery in a response of 80.5%.

The overall results from male respondents shows that the gender typing of sports occur amongst male respondents and the following are sports that are clearly gender typed: wrestling, football, basketball (male type sports), ballet, cheerleading, rhythmic gymnastics and netball (female type sports). This is in support of Metheny's model (Metheny, 1965) that the arena of sports is biased in that individuals may not be judged on the competency of their activity but the gender appropriateness of the activity. Though it must be noted that the majority of Metheny's scale has been conducted with adult participation unlike in this research where the respondents are from 15-18 years of age.

This study supports Costos on gender role identity who believed that children view things differently from adults (Costos, 1990). The believe is that children observe things from an ego centric point of view in that external features are gender role markers and sexes are regarded in relation to social roles.

4.5.2 Gender Typing of Sports by Female Respondents

The results show that female respondents viewed the following sports as boys' sports: wrestling in a response of 83.9%, football in a response of 72.2%, silat in a response of 43.9%, basketball in a response of 35.7%, kayaking/canoeing in a response 30.3%, softball in a response of 25.2%, golf in a response of 24.4%, archery in a response of 21.3%, hockey in a response of 15.8%, karate in a response of 13.4%. These data show that female respondents viewed wrestling, football and silat as clearly male type sports.

Female students' responses on the types of sports considered female type sports show the following sports as girls' sports - rhythmic gymnastics in a response of 76.5%, ballet in a response of 74.3%, Cheerleading in a response of 68.1%, gymnastics in a response of 51.6%, net ball in a response of 49.4%, aerobics in a response of 45.9%, dancing in a response of 32.9%, volleyball in a response of 14.4%, ice-skating and squash in a response of 9.9%. It is certainly clear that female students considered rhythmic gymnastics, ballet, cheerleading, gymnastics and netball as female type sports.

Nevertheless, the majority of sports were considered suitable for both genders.

The result show that female respondents viewed the following sports most suitable for both genders. The type of sports that are stated by female respondents as suitable for both gender are badminton in a response of 95.7%, jogging or running in a response of

94%, swimming in a response of 93.8%, walking in a response of 90.1%, taekwondo in a response of 89%, tennis in a response of 87%, bicycling in a response of 85.5%, diving and ping pong in a response of 84.5% , karate in a analysis of 83.1% .

The overall results from the female respondents shows that the gender typing of sports occur amongst female respondents and the following are sports that are clearly gender typed: wrestling, football and silat (male type sports), rhythmic gymnastics, ballet, cheerleading, gymnastics and netball (female type sports). Nonetheless, the majority of sports were not gender typed by the female respondents. This compares to an elementary school interview conducted by Mc Callister (Mc Callister et al., 2003) where the , girls were asked on their perception of female and male athletes and it was found that boys were generally regarded to be tough while girls were regarded to be fragile. The result was that the girls viewed some activities related to boys were football, soccer, baseball, kickball, hockey, basketball and wrestling while the girls viewed that some activities related to girls were jumping rope, softball, cheerleading, dance, ballet and gymnastics (Mc Callister et al., 2003).

4.6 Overall Discussion – Comparison of Male and Female Respondents’ Responses on the Gender Typing of Sports

Table 4.7 below provides the top ten sports considered as male type sports by male and female respondents. However, 30.6% of male students considered bicycling as a male sports but the responses from female respondents completely left bicycling out as a male type sport. However, female respondents included archery (21.3%) as a male type sports. It is also important to point out that both male and female respondents had similar responses - chosen 9 similar sports out of the top 10 listed on the type of sports considered male type sports.

Table 4.7 Male and Female Respondents' Responses on Male Type Sports

Males respondents responses of the type of sports considered boys' sports		Female respondents responses of the type of sports considered boys' sports	
Wrestling	76 %	Wrestling	83.9 %
Football	63.7	Football	72.2
Basketball	52	Silat	43.9
Silat	40.2	Basketball	35.7
Softball	37.7	Kayaking/Canoeing	30.3
Kayaking/canoeing	36.6	Softball	25.2
Hockey	36.4	Golf	24.4
Bicycling	30.6	Archery	21.3
Karate	26	Hockey	15.8
Golf	23.6	Karate	13.4

In relation to gender typing of sports, it is clear that the boys viewed wrestling, football and basketball to be sports most suitable for boys, however the girls viewed only wrestling and football to be most suitable for boys

The table 4.8 below provides the top ten sports considered as female type sports by male and female respondents. The results show that the boys viewed most suitable sports in order of ranking for females were ballet, cheerleading, rhythmic gymnastics and netball. The females' view were slightly different as in order of ranking the first sports was rhythmic gymnastics followed by, ballet, cheerleading and gymnastics as the types of sports most suitable for females.

Table 4.8 Male and Female Respondents Responses on Female Type Sports

Males respondents view of the type of sports considered female type sports		Female respondents view of the type of sports considered female type sports	
Ballet	73.6	Rhythmic Gymnastics	76.5
Cheer leading	70.9	Ballet	74.3
Rhythmic Gymnastics	65.8	Cheer leading	68.1
Netball	62.8	Gymnastics	51.6
Aerobics	39.7	Netball	49.4
Dancing	39	Aerobics	45.9
Gymnastics	28.2	Dancing	32.9
Silat	22.9	Volleyball	14.4
Volleyball	20.2	Ice-skating	9.9
Softball	16.8	Squash	9.9

From the Table 4.8 above, it is clear that male and female respondents' responses differed slightly, where 22.9% of the male respondents included silat and 16.8% of the male respondents included softball to be female type sports, while 9.9% of the female respondents included ice-skating and squash to be within the top ten sports considered female type sports. Note however that the percentage is very low for the female responses on these two types of sports. It is also important to point out that both male and female respondents had similar responses, chosen 8 similar sports out of the top 10 listed on the type of sports considered as female type sports.

When looking at sports that are considered suitable for both genders there was substantial similarity in male and female responses. Table 4.9 below shows that there are

similarities in the responses of the male and female respondents in regards to the types of sports considered suitable for both genders.

Table 4.9 Type of sports considered suitable for both boys and girls by genders.

Types of Sports	Boys Responses As Suitable for Both Gender	Types of Sports	Girls Responses As Suitable for Both Genders
Badminton	95.7	Badminton	93.2
Jogging or running	94	Swimming	91.2
Swimming	93.8	Jogging or running	90.1
Walking	90.1	Tennis	89.3
Taekwondo	89	Walking	86.9
Tennis	87.4	Squash	86.3
Squash	86.1	Taekwondo	85.4
Bicycling	85.5	Ping Pong	83.7
Diving	84.5	Diving	82.3
Ping Pong	84.5	Ice-Skating	81.1
Karate	83.15		
Ice-Skating	81.3		
Hockey	80.3		

It can be clearly observed that the responses of female and male respondents' match where all the 10 sports listed by the female respondents as suitable for both genders were also listed by male respondents but male respondents included three additional sports as suitable for both genders and they are bicycling, karate and hockey.

More than 90% of the boys viewed that badminton, jogging or running, swimming and walking in order of ranking were most suitable for both genders and more than 90% of girls viewed that badminton, swimming, jogging or running in order of ranking were most suitable for girls. This meant that the top three sports that received the highest response rate from both male and female respondents as being suitable for both genders are badminton, jogging or running and swimming. The response rate of 80%-89% in order of ranking from the highest and the lowest to be considered by male respondents as suitable

for both genders were taekwondo, tennis, squash, bicycling, diving, ping pong, karate, ice-skating, hockey and the girls viewed tennis, walking, squash, taekwondo, ping pong, diving and ice-skating to be suitable for both genders.

It can be said that predominantly male and female responses on the gender typed sports are similar and also in their responses with regards to sports considered suitable for both genders.

4.7 Involvement in Sports and its Relevancy by Gender

The discussion above focus on the views of male and female students on the gender typing of sports and in the following section I will discuss to what extent the gender typing of sports impacts on their actual participation and involvement in sports.

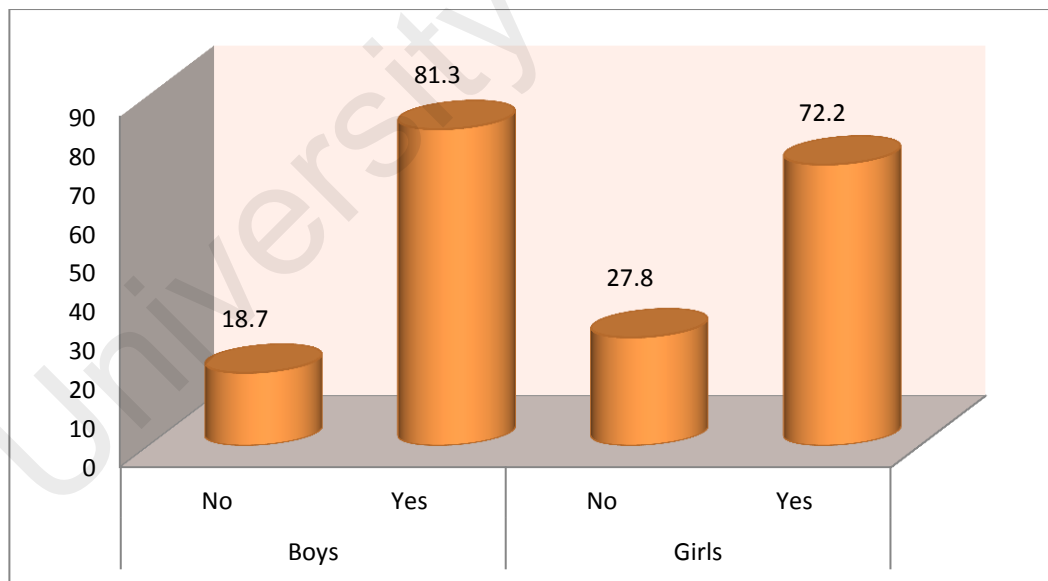


Figure 4.9 Involvement in sports by gender

Figure 4.9 shows the cross tabulation results between male and female respondents and whether or not they are involved in any sporting activities. The results were as follows:

18.7% of the male respondents stated they were not involved in sporting activities, 81.3% of the male respondents said they were involved in some sporting activities, 27.8% of the female respondents were not involved in any sporting activities, 72.2% of the female respondents were involved in some sporting activities .The above is reflective of the results that percentage of participation in sports is higher for males compared to females.

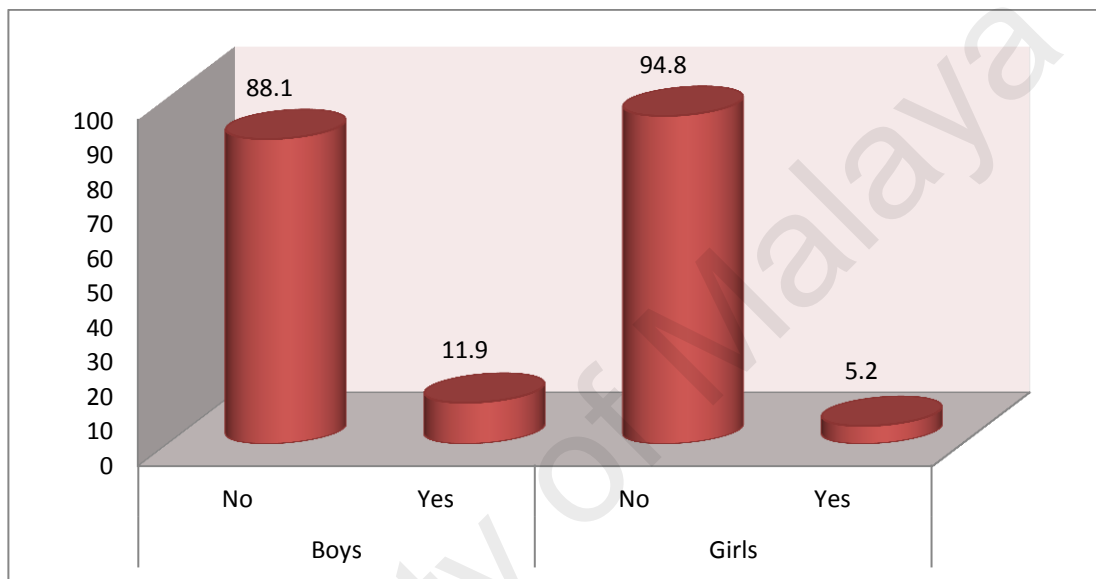


Figure 4.10 Involvement in any other sports by gender

With reference to Figure 4.10, any other type of sports refers to other types of sports that were not included in the scale. The questionnaire had asked for students to list if there were any other sports that they played and the students had listed other sports played were cricket, fencing, and taekwondo. With regards to any other type of sports besides the one listed the results show 88.1% of the male respondents stated they were not involved while 11.9% of the male respondents said that they were involved. Among the female respondents 94.8% said they were not involved and 5.2% of the female respondents stated they were involved in any other type of sports. The above results show that that there are more females who are not involved in any other sporting activities compared to males.

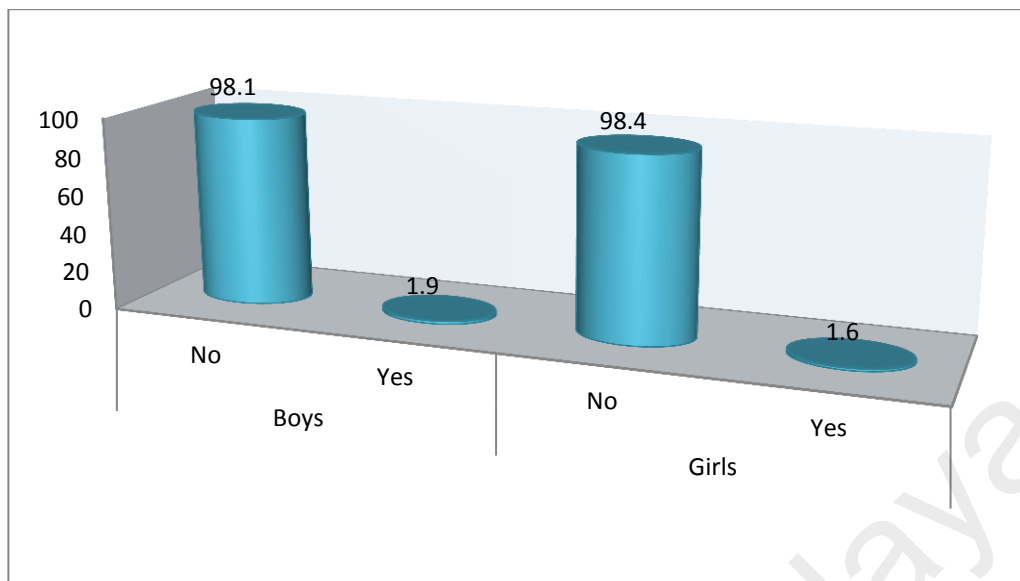


Figure 4.11 Relevancy of the type of sports they are involved in

Figure 4.11 is related in regards to whether or not the type of sport is participated by the respondents is relevant the results are as follows: 98.1% of the male respondents stated it was not relevant and 1.9% of the male respondents stated it was relevant. Among the female respondents 98.4% said the choice of the type of sports participated by them was not relevant while 1.6% of the female respondents said it was relevant. in relation to whether or not the type of sport is relevant.

Therefore the above results show that both male and female viewed that the types of sports they participated in were not relevant as the difference the difference was only 0.3% reflecting a minimal percentage of difference between the two genders. This means that both genders were willing to participate in any sports and that choice did not matter on the type of sports.

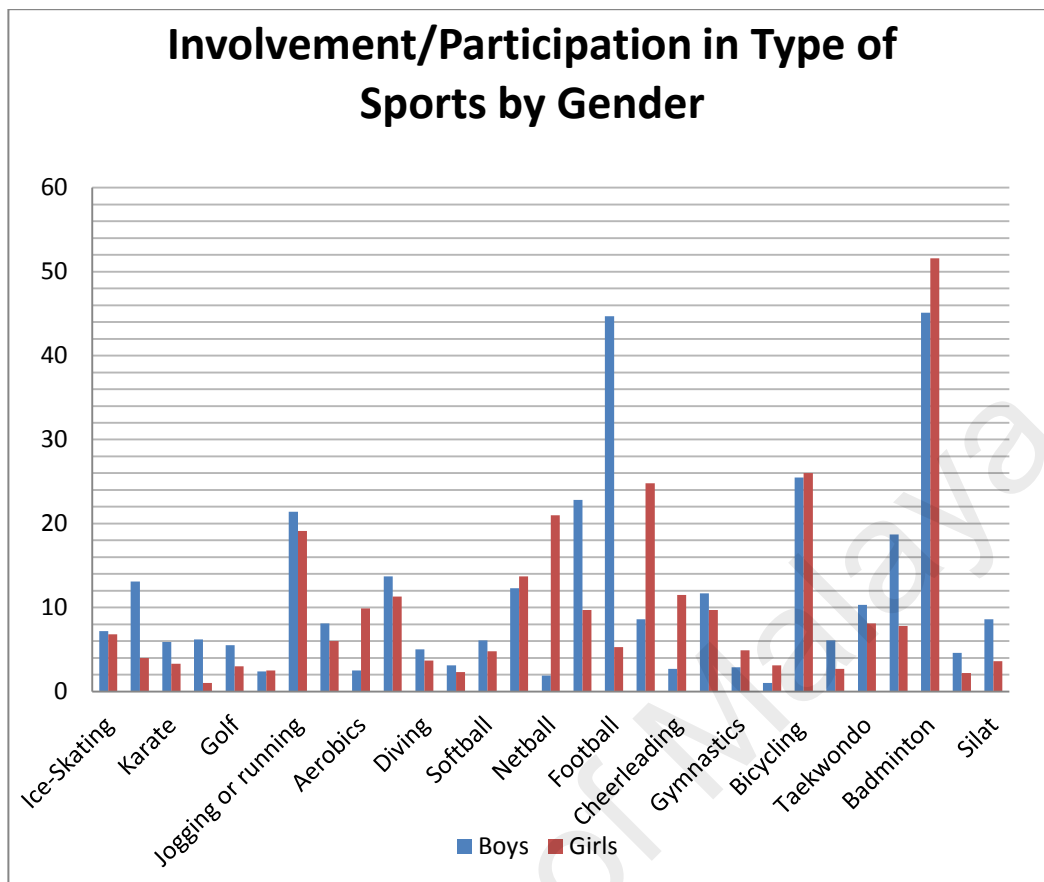


Figure 4.12 Involvement/Participation in types of sports by boys and girls

Looking from Figure 4.12 above, whether the boys or girls respondents are more involved in the various types of sports. The results identified that the boys are more involved in badminton in a response of 45.1%, football in a response of 44.7%, bicycling in a response of 25.5%, basketball in a response of 22.8%, jogging/running in a response of 21.4%, ping pong in a response of 18.7%, swimming in a response of 13.1%, tennis in a response of 13.1%, volleyball in a response of 12.3% and hockey in a response of 11.7%..

This above results is slightly different from the original scale (Colley, Nash, O'Donnel & Restorick 1987; Koivula 1995; Matteo 1986, Metheny 1967) as badminton was not included in the original scale. In the current research badminton elicited the highest response for current involvement of sport for boys. Therefore, the top ten sports currently

participated or involved in by boys are in the order of hierarchy from most important are badminton, football, basketball, jogging/running, ping pong, swimming, tennis, volley ball and hockey.

In relation to girls current involvement in types of sports they were more involved in the highest level of involvement was for badminton in a net response of 51.6%, followed by bicycling in a net response of 26%, dancing in a net response of 24.8%, netball in a net response of 21%, jogging or running in a net response of 19.1%, volleyball in a net response of 13.7%, cheerleading in a net response of 11.5%, swimming in a net response of 11.3%, aerobics in a net response of 9.9% and basketball in a net response of 9.7%.

The above results are slightly different from the original scale (Colley, Nash, O'Donnel & Restorick 1987; Koivula 1995; Matteo 1986, Metheny 1967) as badminton was not included in the original scale. In the current research, badminton elicited the highest response for current involvement of sport for girls. In fact, the percentage was slightly higher (51.6%) than boys (45.1%) involvement in badminton even though badminton was ranked the highest by both male and female respondents. Therefore the top ten sports where girls were currently involved in were badminton, bicycling, dancing, netball, jogging or running, volleyball, cheerleading, swimming, aerobics and basketball.

4.8 Discussion, Analysis and Conclusion

As seen in table 4.7 only 3 types of sports (wrestling, football and basketball) the male respondents gender typed to be most suitable for male participation, however there were only 2 types of sports that were gender typed by girls to be most suitable for boys that are wrestling and football.

The boys viewed most suitable sports in order of ranking for females were ballet, cheerleading, rhythmic gymnastics and netball. The female's views were slightly different as in order of ranking the first sports was rhythmic gymnastics followed by ballet, cheerleading and gymnastics as the types of sports most suitable for female participation.

My study provides a contrast to the original study. Firstly, the original study did not consider the boys and girls views separate according to gender typing of sports. This study considered not only the overall gender-typing of sports irrespective of the gender of the respondents but also further investigated the gender-typing of sports according to responses of the students' gender and according to their level of involvement in the types of sports.

The results overall reflect that in the Malaysian urban school context, there is less gender typing of sports except for the few sports mentioned above. Although the perception that Malaysia would have a much more gendered notions of sports but it was not observed in the above data. In the original scale administered in the western context there was more pronounced gender typing of sports compared to the Malaysian context.

This is interesting because as much as the results above does not support gender typing of sports, the reasons given for participation or not participating is informed by the pressure to performs academically, the second pressure is from culture and religion.

In as much as one would assume that culture and religion would have informed participation level but the findings in this study shows to the contrary. Academic pressure tends to be the predominant results. This is reflected on the statement given by the headmistress of a school under study "do not involve the Form 3 and Form 5 student for they have to focus in their exams". Therefore, the priority given to academic performance

and not sports is the reason given. Therefore, it is understandable why school children's participation in sports is low.

The findings in this chapter shows that boys and girls participated in sports deemed socially appropriate for their gender. It also reflects that sports participation is still being gender-typed instead of cross gender-typed. In the outcome of the results shown in Table 4.4 and 4.5 that boys still view that sport such as wrestling, football, basketball, silat, softball, kayaking, hockey, bicycling, karate and golf to be sports suitable for boys. The girls had similar views to the boys, except that the girls did not consider bicycling to be a sport exclusively suitable for boys and they included archery instead which the boys did not.

The boys viewed sports to be most suitable for girls were ballet, cheerleading, rhythmic gymnastics, netball, aerobics, dancing, gymnastics, silat, volleyball and softball. The girls also had almost the similar view with some minor differences. The boys included *silat* however the girls did not. The girls included ice-skating and squash as sports suitable for girls and the boys did not include those two sports as suitable for girls.

The types of sports viewed by boys in the top 20% to be suitable for both genders were badminton, jogging or running, swimming, walking, taekwondo, tennis, squash, bicycling, diving, ping pong, karate, ice-skating and hockey. The girls had almost the similar view except that karate, hockey and diving were not included in the top 20% response rate for the sports suitable for girls.

It is important to state that the gender typing of sports was lower in the Malaysian context compared to the western context as mentioned above but in terms of participation boys and girls participated in sports deemed appropriate for their gender. Therefore, culture

and gender norms do play a role in informing sports participation at the school level. Relating these findings to the Malaysian sports scene it can be said that many women transcended gender norms and what was considered appropriate for women, to succeed in sports. For example, for Malaysia won a silver medal in the 1987 SEA games in Jakarta and a bronze medal in the 1988 Olympic Games in Seoul for Taekwondo (Top10malaysia.com, 2015). This was an exceptional feat in the record of Malaysia international games history as it has never been repeated and it also does not show taekwondo as a sport that is actively participated by the current 16 -19 years' school children.

It is observed that there have been many female athletes from various sporting fields that have contributed to our nation's growth and development in sports. For example Nurul Huda Abdullah who won seven gold medals in swimming at the 13th SEA Games in Bangkok in 1985 and broke 6 SEA Games records (Top10malaysia.com, 2015) M Vasugi, in 1988 won the first Olympic Medal ever for Malaysia, even though it was a bronze in taekwondo; it was a landmark success for Malaysia. She won a gold medal in the 1989 SEA Games, the 1990 World Invitational Championships in Kuala Lumpur and the 1991 SEA Games in Manila. It is unfortunate that a talent like her is not employed in public schools in Malaysia which could further encourage school children's participation in this sport. She is currently a coach at several international schools in Malaysia (Top10malaysia.com, 2015).

In badminton, Sylvia Ng won the badminton singles at the Commonwealth Games in 1978 and the Asian Games in 1966; Rosalind Singha Ang won gold in the badminton mixed double (Top10malaysia.com, 2015). Toh Puan Zainon and Rani Kaurare became female hockey legend in the 1980s while Annie Goh Koon Gee who was known as "The Shooting Star" won a gold medal in the SEAP Games in 1965 and 1969

(Top10malaysia.com, 2015) . The legends in athletics are Datuk Mumtaz Jaafar, Marina Chin, Datuk M Rajamani, Saik Oik Cum and G.Shanthi who had all contributed to the medals for Malaysia in the track and field events (Top10malaysia.com, 2015).

In the current sporting events, the female athletes Pandelega Rinong who won the bronze medal for diving in 2012 and Heidi Gan in swimming who was placed 16th in the finals for the 2012 Olympic Games London (Wong, 2012) . It should be noted that there were 16 female participants in various fields who had qualified for the Olympics in London but unfortunately they did not advance. This goes to show that more emphasis should be given to schoolchildren who are keen in participating in any type of sports irrespective of their gender. From these examples we can see that women can excel in sports that are not considered suitable for women and school children need to be exposed to the achievements of such sports women in order for them to be encouraged to participate in sports and also to transcend the gender typing of sports.

CHAPTER 5

ETHNICITY AND THE GENDER TYPING OF SPORTS

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter the two-way Chi-Square is used. This is a convenient technique for determining the significance of the difference between the frequencies of occurrence in two or more categories with two or more groups. This chapter will show if there is any significant association between the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others students in their views as to whether there is a relationship in their responses on types of sports considered suitable for boys, girls or both genders. This is in relation to their gender typing of the various sports. This is called a two-way classification since we would need two bits of information from the students in the sample, their gender and their ethnicity.

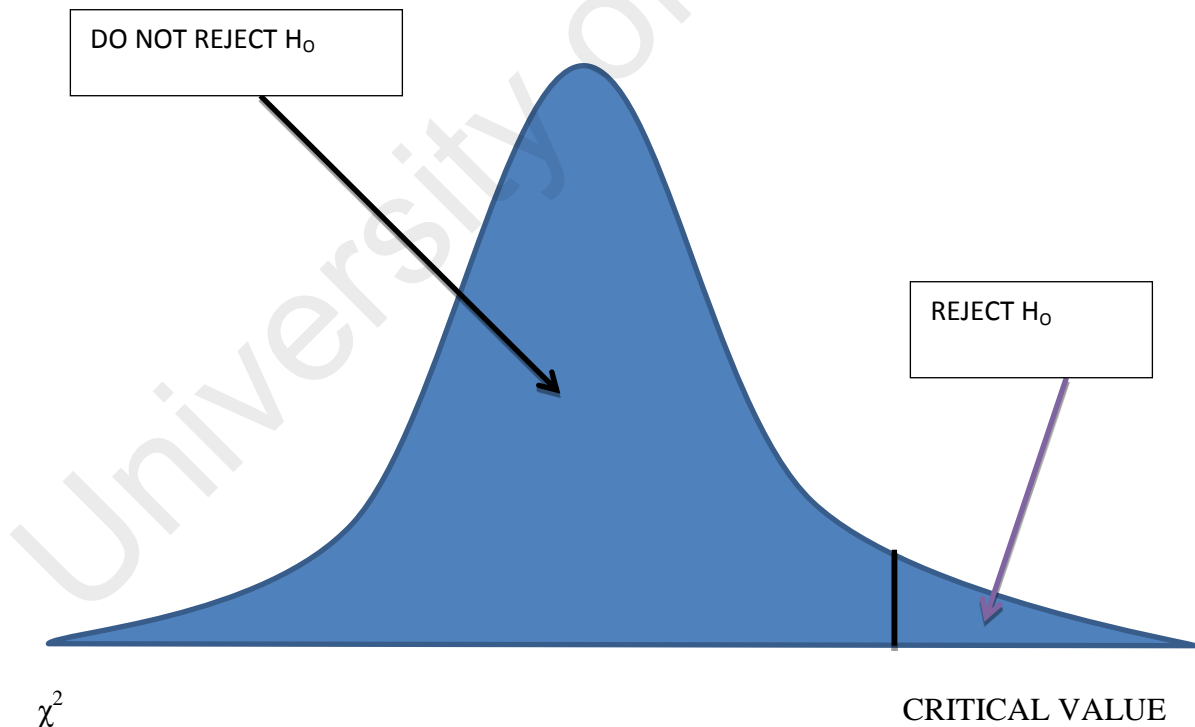


Figure 5.1 Pearson Chi –Square Statistics

The figure 5.1 above shows the Pearson's Chi-Square statistic (χ^2) that is used to test the statistical significance of the observed association in a cross tabulation. The null hypothesis (H0) of no significant association between the various ethnic groups will be rejected only when the calculated value of the test statistic is greater than the critical value of the Chi-Square distribution with the appropriate degrees of freedom.

5.2 Ethnicity and the Gender Typing of Sports

The following research question will be tested for significance:

RQ: Do the various ethnic groups (Malay, Chinese, Indian and Others) respond differently to views/opinion regarding gender typing of sports.

This research will reveal that there are significant association between the various ethnicities in the gender typing of various sports. The examination will further determine whether gender typing of sports exists more in which ethnic group (Malay, Chinese, Indian or Others)? Is it more prevalent according to each type of sports?

Therefore, to determine whether a systematic association exists, the probability of obtaining a value of Chi-Square as large as or larger than the one calculated from the cross tabulation is estimated. The result of the Chi-Square will determine the outcome in each type of sports. This also goes to show that the cross tabulation may show a systematic association. However, the significance of the association is only evident from the Chi-Square testing. The question will be if the difference is large enough to be statistically significant.

The following formula will be used to show whether there is any difference between the various ethnic groups regarding gender typing of sports:

H₀: no significant association in the response of various ethnic groups regarding gender typing of sport

H_a: significant association in the response of various ethnic groups regarding gender typing of sport.

Chi-square is used to explore the relationship between *two* categorical variables. The smaller than five observations in a cell are not allowed but here there is no choice. This is allowed as long as the small observation does not interfere with the main comparisons i.e. main ethnic group.

5.2.1 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Ice-skating

Table 5.1Type of Sports-Ice-Skating * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others	
Type of Sports-Ice-Skating	Count	123	11	56	5	195
	Boys % within Ethnicity	13.0%	3.5%	17.8%	10.2%	12.0%
	Count	63	25	21	3	112
	Girls % within Ethnicity	6.7%	7.9%	6.7%	6.1%	6.9%
	Count	760	280	237	41	1318
	Both % within Ethnicity	80.3%	88.6%	75.5%	83.7%	81.1%
Total	Count	946	316	314	49	1625
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0	100.0	100.0%
				%	%	

The above Table 5.1 on ice-skating shows a total of 1625 respondents: 945(100%) respondents were Malays. A total of 123(13%) Malay respondents viewed ice-skating to be a sport suitable for boys (male type sports); 63(6.7%) Malay respondents viewed ice-skating as a sport suitable for girls (female type sports) and 760(80.3%) Malay respondents listed ice-skating to be suitable for both genders. There were 316(100%) Chinese respondents A total of 11(3.5%) Chinese respondents viewed that this is a type of sports suitable for boys, while 25 (7.9%) respondents found that it was more suitable for girls and 280(88.6%) Chinese respondents viewed ice-skating to be suitable for both genders. The

Indian respondents were 314(100%). There were 56(17.8%) Indians who viewed that it was sport suitable for boys while 21(6.7%) respondents believed that this sport was suitable girls and 237(75.5%) respondents 75.5% listed that ice-skating was suitable for both genders. The other ethnicities were 49(100%). There were 5(10.2%) respondents who listed that it was suitable for boys, 3 (6.1%) respondents who listed it was suitable for girls and 41(83.7%) respondents who believed it was suitable for both genders.

Table 5.2 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	29.519 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	32.456	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.460	1	.498
N of Valid Cases	1646		

a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.37.

Findings:

H₀: There is no significant association between various ethnicity and ice-skating

H_a: There is significant association between various ethnicity and ice-skating

From Table 5.2 since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square=29.519 and p-value = 0.000 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant association between the various ethnicity and ice-skating. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to ice-skating being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.2 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Tennis

Table 5.3Type of Sports-Tennis * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

			Ethnicity				Total
			Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others	
Type of Sports-Tennis	Boys	Count	28	9	8	1	46
		% within Ethnicity	2.9%	2.8%	2.5%	2.0%	2.8%
	Girls	Count	76	7	44	3	130
		% within Ethnicity	8.0%	2.2%	13.7%	6.1%	7.9%
	Both	Count	851	304	270	45	1470
		% within Ethnicity	89.1%	95.0%	83.9%	91.8%	89.3%
Total	Count	955	320	322	49	1646	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above table 5.3 shows the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether tennis is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders. The total respondents were 1646(100%) The total respondents for Malays were 955(100%). A total of 28(2.9%) Malay respondents viewed tennis to be a sport suitable for boys, while 76(8%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 851(89.1%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 320(100%) 9(2.8%) respondents viewed tennis to be suitable for boys, while 7(2.2%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 304(95%) respondents viewed that it is most suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 322 (100%) of these 8 Indian respondents(2.5%)viewed it was suitable for boys, while 44 respondents(13.7%)viewed it to be suitable for girls and 270 respondents(83.9%) viewed tennis to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnicities were 41(100%) of these 1 respondent (2%) viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while

3 respondents(6.1%) viewed it to be suitable for girls and 41 respondents(91.8%)found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.4 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	29.519 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	32.456	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.460	1	.498
N of Valid Cases	1646		

a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.37.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and tennis

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and tennis

From Table 5.4 since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square=29519 and p-value = 0.000 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant association between the response of various ethnic groups and tennis. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to tennis being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.3 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Karate

Table 5.5 Type of Sports-Karate * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports-Karate	Boys	Count	196	61	51	8	316
		% within Ethnicity	20.7%	19.2%	15.6%	16.7%	19.3%
	Girls	Count	30	5	6	2	43
		% within Ethnicity	3.2%	1.6%	1.8%	4.2%	2.6%
	Both	Count	721	252	269	38	1280
		% within Ethnicity	76.1%	79.2%	82.5%	79.2%	78.1%
Total	Count	947	318	326	48	1639	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above table 5.5 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether karate is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders. The total respondents were 1639(100%). The total respondents for Malays were 947(100%) A total of 196(20.7%) Malay respondents viewed karate to be a sport suitable for boys, while 30(3.2%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 721(76.1%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 318(100%) of these a total of 61 (19.2%) respondents viewed karate to be suitable for boys, while 5(1.6%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 318(79.2%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders.

The Indian respondents were 326 (100%) of these 51(15.6%) Indian respondents viewed it was suitable for boys, while 6(1.8%) respondents viewed it to be

suitable for girls and 269(85.2%) respondents viewed karate to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnic group were 48(100%) of these a total of 8 respondents(16.7%) viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 2(4.2%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 48(79.2%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.6 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.342 ^a	6	.214
Likelihood Ratio	8.653	6	.194
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.686	1	.030
N of Valid Cases	1639		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.26.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and karate

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and karate

From Table 5.6 above since Pearson Chi-Square shows Chi-Square=8.342 and p-value = 0.214 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is not rejected, showing that there is no significant association between the response of various ethnic groups and karate. This means that all the ethnicities were equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had the similar view in relation to karate being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.4 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Wrestling

Table 5.7 Type of Sports-Wrestling * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others	
Type of Sports- Wrestling	Count	794	210	264	33	1301
	Boys % within Ethnicity	84.4%	67.3%	82.5%	67.3%	80.2%
	Count	12	1	3	3	19
	Girls % within Ethnicity	1.3%	0.3%	0.9%	6.1%	1.2%
	Count	135	101	53	13	302
	Both % within Ethnicity	14.3%	32.4%	16.6%	26.5%	18.6%
	Count	941	312	320	49	1622
	Total % within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 5.7 above shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether wrestling is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders. The total respondents were 1622(100%).

The total respondents for Malays were 941(100%). A total of 794(84.4%) Malay respondents viewed wrestling to be a sport suitable for boys, while 12(1.3%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 135(14.3%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders.

The Chinese respondents were 312 (100%). A total of 210(67.3%) respondents viewed wrestling to be suitable for boys, while 1 (0.3%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 101(32.4%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders.

The Indian respondents were 320 in a net response of 100% of thesea total of 264(82.5%) Indian respondents viewed it was suitable for boys, while 3(0.9%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 53(16.6%) respondents viewed wrestling to be suitable for both genders.

The other ethnic group were 49 (100%) of these 33(63.7%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 3(1.6%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 13(25.6%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.8 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	65.446 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	56.311	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	9.395	1	.002
N of Valid Cases	1622		

a. 3 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .57.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and wrestling/boxing

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and wrestling/boxing

From Table 5.8 above since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square=65.446 and p-value = 0.000 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant association between the response of various ethnicity and wrestling/boxing. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to wrestling/boxing being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.5 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Golf

Table 5.9Type of Sports-Golf * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

			Ethnicity				Total
			Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others	
Type of Sports-Golf	Boys	Count	248	50	87	10	395
		% within Ethnicity	26.0%	15.7%	26.9%	20.8%	24.0%
	Girls	Count	14	1	3	0	18
		% within Ethnicity	1.5%	0.3%	0.9%	0.0%	1.1%
	Both	Count	691	268	234	38	1231
		% within Ethnicity	72.5%	84.0%	72.2%	79.2%	74.9%
Total	Count	953	319	324	48	1644	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above table 5.9 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether golf is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders. The total respondents were 1644 in a net response of 100%.

The total respondents for Malays were 953(100%). 248(26%) Malay respondents viewed golf to be a sport suitable for boys, while 14(1.5%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 691(72.5%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 319(100%) of these 50(15.7%) respondents viewed golf to be suitable for boys, while 14(0.3%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 268(0.3%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 324(100%) of these a total of 87(26.9%) Indian respondents viewed it was suitable for boys, while 3(0.9%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 234(72.2%) respondents viewed golf to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnicities

were 48(100%) of these 10 respondents (20.8%) viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 0(0%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 38(79.2%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.10 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.424 ^a	6	.002
Likelihood Ratio	22.652	6	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.017	1	.313
N of Valid Cases	1644		

a. 3 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .53.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and golf

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and golf.

The above Table 5.10 Pearson Chi-Square shows Chi-Square 20.424 -value = 0.002 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant association between the response of various ethnicity and golf. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to golf being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.6 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Ballet

Table 5.11Type of Sports-Ballet * Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports-Ballet	Boys	Count	24	9	12	4	49
		% within Ethnicity	2.5%	2.8%	3.8%	8.2%	3.0%
	Girls	Count	753	196	233	26	1208
		% within Ethnicity	79.2%	61.4%	74.7%	53.1%	74.1%
	Both	Count	174	114	67	19	374
		% within Ethnicity	18.3%	35.7%	21.5%	38.8%	22.9%
Total	Count	951	319	312	49	1631	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.11 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnicities there is an association between the views of different ethnicities in relation to whether ballet is a sport participated by boys, girls or both genders. The total respondents were 1631 in a net response of 100%.

The total respondents for Malays were 951(100%). A total of 24(2.5%) Malay respondents viewed ballet to be a sport suitable for boys, while 753(79.2%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 174(18.3%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 319 (100%) of these 9(2.8%) respondents viewed ballet to be suitable for boys, while 196(61.4%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 114(35.7%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 312(100%) of these 12(3.8%) Indian respondents viewed it was suitable for boys, while 233 (74.7%) respondents viewed it to

be suitable for girls and 67(21.5%) respondents viewed golf to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnicities were 49 (100%). 4(8.2%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 20(53.1%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 19(38.8%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.12 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	56.374 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	52.025	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.515	1	.011
N of Valid Cases	1631		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.47.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and ballet

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and ballet

The above Table 5.12 Pearson Chi-Square shows Chi-Square=56.374 -value = 0.000 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant association between the response of various ethnicity and ballet. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to ballet being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.7 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Jogging/Running

Table 5.13Type of Sports-Jogging/Running * Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports-Jogging or Running	Boys	Count	68	37	24	4	133
		% within Ethnicity	7.1%	11.7%	7.3%	8.2%	8.1%
	Girls	Count	21	3	5	1	30
		% within Ethnicity	2.2%	0.9%	1.5%	2.0%	1.8%
	Both	Count	868	276	300	44	1488
		% within Ethnicity	90.7%	87.3%	91.2%	89.8%	90.1%
Total	Count	957	316	329	49	1651	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.13 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnicities and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnicities in relation to whether jogging or running is a sport participated by boys, girls or both genders. The total respondents were 1651(100%)

The total respondents for Malays were 957(100%)of these a total of 68(7.1%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 21(2.2%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 868 (90.7%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 316(100%). A total of 37(11.7%) respondents viewed jogging or running to be suitable for boys, while 3(0.9%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 276(83.7%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 329(100%) of these a total of 24 (7.3%) Indian respondents viewed jogging or running was suitable for boys, while 5 (1.5%)

respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 300(91.2%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnicities were 49 (100%) of these 4(8.2%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 1(2.0%) respondent viewed it to be suitable for girls and 44(89.8%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.14 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.126 ^a	6	.167
Likelihood Ratio	8.773	6	.187
Linear-by-Linear Association	.201	1	.654
N of Valid Cases	1651		

a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .89.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and jogging and running

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and jogging and running.

From the above Table 5.14 Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square= 9.126 and p-value = 0.167 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is not rejected, showing that there is no significant association between the response of various ethnicity and jogging and running. This means that all the ethnicities were equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had similar views in relation to jogging and running being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.8 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Walking

Table 5.15Type of Sports-Walking * Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports-Walking	Boys	Count	85	32	27	1	145
		% within Ethnicity	9.0%	10.1%	8.3%	2.1%	8.9%
	Girls	Count	45	7	17	1	70
		% within Ethnicity	4.7%	2.2%	5.2%	2.1%	4.3%
	Both	Count	818	277	281	46	1422
		% within Ethnicity	86.3%	87.7%	86.5%	95.8%	86.9%
Total	Count	948	316	325	48	1637	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.15 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnicities and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnicities in relation to whether walking is a sport participated by boys, girls or both genders. The total respondents were 1637(100%).

The total respondents for Malays were 948(100%). A total of 85(9.0%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 45(4.7%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 818(86.3%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 316(100%) of these a total of 32(10.1%) respondents viewed walking to be suitable for boys, while 7(2.2%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 277(87.7%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 325(100%) of these 27(8.3%) Indian respondents viewed walking was suitable for boys, while 17(5.2%) respondents

viewed it to be suitable for girls and 281(86.5%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnicities were 48(100%) of these 1(2.1%) respondent viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while another 1 (2.1%)respondent viewed it to be suitable for girls and 46(95.8%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.16 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.557 ^a	6	.200
Likelihood Ratio	10.383	6	.109
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.081	1	.298
N of Valid Cases	1637		

a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.05.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and walking

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and walking

From the above Table 5.16, since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square= 8.557 and p-value = 0.200 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is not rejected, showing that there is no significant association between the response of various ethnicity and walking. This means that all the ethnicities were equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had similar view in relation to walking being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.9 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Aerobics

Table 5.17Type of Sports-Aerobics * Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports-Aerobics	Boys	Count	29	9	8	0	46
		% within Ethnicity	3.1%	2.9%	2.5%	0.0%	2.8%
	Girls	Count	433	106	151	11	701
		% within Ethnicity	45.6%	33.7%	47.6%	22.9%	43.0%
	Both	Count	487	200	158	37	882
		% within Ethnicity	51.3%	63.5%	49.8%	77.1%	54.1%
Total	Count	949	315	317	48	1629	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.17 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnicities and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnicities in relation to a sport participated by boys, girls or both genders.

The total respondents were 1629(100%). The total respondents for Malays were 949(100%) of these 29(3.1%) Malay respondents 3.1% viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 433 (45.6%) respondents 45.6% believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 487(51.3%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 315(100%) of these 9(2.9%) respondents viewed aerobic to be suitable for boys, while 106(33.7%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 200(63.5%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 317 (100%) of these 8(2.5%) Indian respondents viewed aerobics was suitable for boys, while 151(47.6%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 158(49.8%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for both genders. The other

ethnicities were 48(100%)of these 0(0%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 11(22.9%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 37(77.1%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.18 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	27.873 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	29.846	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.295	1	.038
N of Valid Cases	1629		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.36.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and aerobics

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and aerobics

From the above Table 5.18, since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square=27.873 and p-value = 0.00 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant association between the response of various ethnicity and aerobics. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to aerobics being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.10 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Swimming.

Table 5.19Type of Sports-Swimming * Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports-Swimming	Boys	Count	55	14	11	1	81
		% within Ethnicity	5.7%	4.4%	3.4%	2.0%	4.9%
	Girls	Count	39	11	14	0	64
		% within Ethnicity	4.1%	3.5%	4.3%	0.0%	3.9%
	Both	Count	864	292	300	48	1504
		% within Ethnicity	90.2%	92.1%	92.3%	98.0%	91.2%
Total	Count	958	317	325	49	1649	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	Ethnicity						

The above Table 5.19 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether swimming is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

The total respondents were 1649(100%).

The total Malay respondents were 958(100%) . A total of 55 (5.7%)Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 39(4.1%)respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 864 (90.2%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 317(100%) of these 14(4.4%) respondents viewed swimming to be suitable for boys, while 11(3.5%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 292(92.1%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders.

The Indian respondents were 325(100%) of these a total of 11(3.4%) Indian respondents viewed swimming was suitable for boys, while 14(4.3%) respondents i viewed it to be suitable for girls and 300(92.3%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for both

genders. The other ethnic group respondents were 48(100%) of these 1 (2%) respondent viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 0(0%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 4(98%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.20 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.572 ^a	6	.362
Likelihood Ratio	8.828	6	.183
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.501	1	.034
N of Valid Cases	1649		

a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.90.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and swimming

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and swimming

From the above Table 5.20, since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square=6.572 and p-value = 0.200 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is not rejected, showing that there is no significant association between the response of various ethnicity and swimming. This means that all the ethnicities were equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had similar views in relation to swimming being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.11 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Diving

Table 5.21Type of Sports-Diving * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others	
Type of Sports-Diving	Count	140	34	58	6	238
	Boys % within Ethnicity	14.7%	10.8%	18.7%	12.2%	14.6%
	Count	29	7	14	0	50
	Girls % within Ethnicity	3.0%	2.2%	4.5%	0.0%	3.1%
	Count	785	273	238	43	1339
	Both % within Ethnicity	82.3%	86.9%	76.8%	87.8%	82.3%
Total	Count	954	314	310	49	1627
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The above Table 5.21 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether diving is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

The total respondents were 1627 (100%). The total respondents for Malays were 954(100%) . A total of 140(14.7%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 29(3.0%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 785(82.3%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 314(100%). A total of 34(10.8%) respondents viewed diving to be suitable for boys, while 7(2.2%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 273(86.9%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 310 (100%) of these a total of 58(18.7%) Indian respondents viewed diving was suitable for boys, while 14(4.5%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 238 (76.8%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnic group respondents were 47 (100%) of these 6(12.2%) respondents viewed this sport

to be suitable for boys, while 0 (0%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 43(87.8%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.22 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13.309 ^a	6	.038
Likelihood Ratio	14.664	6	.023
Linear-by-Linear Association	.709	1	.400
N of Valid Cases	1627		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.51.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and diving

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and diving

From the above Table 5.22, since Pearson Chi-Square shows Chi-Square=13.309 and p-value = 0.038 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant association between the response of various ethnicity and diving. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to diving being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.12 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Kayaking/Canoeing

Table 5.23Type of Sports-Kayaking/Canoeing * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others	
Type of Sports- Kayaking/Canoeing	Count	315	89	123	12	539
	Boys % within Ethnicity	32.9%	28.3%	39.7%	24.5%	33.1%
	Count	17	7	15	0	39
	Girls % within Ethnicity	1.8%	2.2%	4.8%	0.0%	2.4%
	Count	625	218	172	37	1052
	Both % within Ethnicity	65.3%	69.4%	55.5%	75.5%	64.5%
Total	Count	957	314	310	49	1630
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The above Table 5.23 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnicities and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnicities in relation to whether kayaking/canoeing is a sport participated by boys, girls or both genders.

The total respondents were 1630 (100%). The total respondents for Malays were 957(100%). A total of 315 (32.9%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 17(1.8%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 625(65.3%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 314(100%) of these 89(28.3%) respondents viewed kayaking/canoeing to be suitable for boys, while 7(2.2%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 218(69.4%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 310(100%) of these 123(28.3%) Indian respondents viewed kayaking/canoeing was suitable for boys, while 7(2.2%) respondents viewed it to be

suitable for girls and 218(69.4%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnicity respondents were 49 (100%) of these a total of 12 (25.5%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 0(0%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 37(75.5%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.24 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	23.892 ^a	6	.001
Likelihood Ratio	23.517	6	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.302	1	.254
N of Valid Cases	1630		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.17.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and kayaking/canoeing

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and kayaking/canoeing

From the above Table 5.24, since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square=23.892 and p-value = 0.001 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant association between the response of various ethnicity and kayaking/canoeing. This means that all the ethnicity were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to kayaking/canoeing being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.13 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Softball.

Table 5.25 Type of Sports-Softball * Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports-Softball	Boys	Count	318	78	93	15	504
		% within Ethnicity	33.6%	24.8%	29.3%	31.3%	31.0%
	Girls	Count	89	33	63	2	187
		% within Ethnicity	9.4%	10.5%	19.9%	4.2%	11.5%
	Both	Count	539	203	161	31	934
		% within Ethnicity	57.0%	64.6%	50.8%	64.6%	57.5%
Total	Count	946	314	317	48	1625	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.25 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnicities and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnicities in relation to whether softball is a sport participated by boys, girls or both genders.

The total respondents were 1625 (100%). The total respondents for Malays were 946 (100%). A total of 318(33.6%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 89(9.4%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 539(57%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 314(100%) of these 78(24.8%) respondents viewed softball to be suitable for boys, while 33(10.5%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 203(64.6%)believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 317(100%) of these a total of 93(29.3%) Indian respondents viewed softball was suitable for boys, while 63(19.9%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and

161(50.8%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnicity respondents were 48 (100%) of these a total of 15 (31.3%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 2(4.2%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 31(64.6%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.26 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.954 ^a	6	.550
Likelihood Ratio	4.828	6	.566
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.501	1	.114
N of Valid Cases	1644		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.47.

H₀: There is no significant association between ethnicity and softball

H_a: There is significant association between ethnicity and softball

From the above Table 5.26, since Pearson Chi-Square shows Chi-Square= 4.954 and p-value = 0.550 (< 0.05), thus the null hypothesis is not rejected, showing that there is no significant association between ethnicity and softball. This means that all the ethnicities were equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had similar views in relation to softball being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.14 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Volleyball

Table 5.27Type of Sports-Volleyball * Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports-Volleyball	Boys	Count	62	22	31	4	119
		% within Ethnicity	6.5%	7.0%	9.5%	8.3%	7.2%
	Girls	Count	160	55	60	6	281
		% within Ethnicity	16.8%	17.5%	18.4%	12.5%	17.1%
	Both	Count	733	238	235	38	1244
		% within Ethnicity	76.8%	75.6%	72.1%	79.2%	75.7%
Total	Count	955	315	326	48	1644	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.27 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether volleyball is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders. The total respondents were 1644 in a net response of 100%.

The total respondents for Malays were 955(100%) of these a total of 62 (6.5%) Malay respondents viewed volleyball to be suitable for boys, while 160(16.8%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 733(76.8%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 315(100%)of these 22(7%) respondentsviewed volleyball to be suitable for boys, while 55(17.5%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 238(75.6%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 326(100%) of thesea total of 31(9.5%) Indian respondentsviewed volleyball was suitable for boys, while 60(18.4%)

respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 235(72.1%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnic group respondents were 48(100%) of these 4(8.3%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 6(12.5%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 38(79.2%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.28 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	56.394 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	55.972	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	12.544	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	1643		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.12.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and volleyball

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and volleyball

From the above Table 5.28, since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square=56.394 and p-value = 0.00 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant association between the response of various ethnicity and volleyball. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to volleyball being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.15 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Netball

Table 5.29 Type of Sports-Netball * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports- Netball	Boys	Count	59	19	27	4	109
		% within Ethnicity	6.2%	6.0%	8.3%	8.5%	6.6%
	Girls	Count	600	135	153	26	914
		% within Ethnicity	62.9%	42.7%	46.9%	55.3%	55.6%
	Both	Count	295	162	146	17	620
		% within Ethnicity	30.9%	51.3%	44.8%	36.2%	37.7%
Total	Count	954	316	326	47	1643	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.29 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether netball is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

The total respondents were 1643(100%). The total respondents for Malays were 954(100%) . A total of 59(5.9%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 600(62.9%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 295(30.9%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 316(100%) of these 19(6.0%) respondents viewed netball to be suitable for boys, while 135(42.7%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 162(51.3%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 326(100%) of these a total of 27(8.3%) Indian respondents viewed netball was suitable for boys, while 153(46.9%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for

girls and 146(44.8%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnicities respondents were 47 (100%) of these only 4(8.5%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 26(55.3%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 17 (36.2%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.30 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	56.394 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	55.972	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	12.544	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	1643		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.12.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and netball

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and netball

From the above Table 5.30, since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square=56.394 and p-value = 0.00 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant association between the response of various ethnicities and netball. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to volleyball being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.16 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Basketball

Table 5.31 Type of Sports-Basketball * Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others	
Type of Sports-Basketball	Count	501	88	105	17	711
	Boys % within Ethnicity	52.5%	27.4%	33.0%	34.0%	43.3%
	Count	56	8	21	2	87
	Girls % within Ethnicity	5.9%	2.5%	6.6%	4.0%	5.3%
	Count	397	225	192	31	845
	Both % within Ethnicity	41.6%	70.1%	60.4%	62.0%	51.4%
Total	Count	954	321	318	50	1643
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The above Table 5.31 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnicities and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnicities in relation to whether basketball is a sport participated by boys, girls or both genders. The total respondents were 1643 in a net response of 100%.

The total respondents for Malays were 959(100%). A total of 501(52.5%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 56(5.9%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 397(41.6%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 321 (100%). A total of 88 (27.4%) respondents viewed basketball to be suitable for boys, while 8(2.5%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 225(70.1%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 318(100%) of these a total of 105(33%) Indian respondents viewed basketball was suitable for boys, while 21(6.6%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 192(60.4%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnicities respondents were 50(100%) A

total of 17(34%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 2 (4%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 31 (62%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.32 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	98.402 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	100.568	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	56.547	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	1643		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.65.

H₀: There is no significant association between ethnicity and basketball

H_a: There is significant association between ethnicity and basketball

Since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square = 98.403 and p-value = 0.00 (< 0.05), thus null hypothesis is rejected and there is significant association between ethnicity and basketball. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to basketball being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.17 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Football

Table 5.33Type of Sports-Football * Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others	
Type of Sports-Football	Count	689	189	220	32	1130
	Boys % within Ethnicity	71.8%	59.6%	66.7%	64.0%	68.2%
	Count	23	8	10	1	42
	Girls % within Ethnicity	2.4%	2.5%	3.0%	2.0%	2.5%
	Count	247	120	100	17	484
	Both % within Ethnicity	25.8%	37.9%	30.3%	34.0%	29.2%
Total	Count	959	317	330	50	1656
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The above Table 5.33 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnicities and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnicities in relation to whether football is a sport participated by boys, girls or both genders. The total respondents were 1656(100%)

The total respondents for Malays were 959(100%) in a net response of 100%. A total of 689(71.8%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 23(2.4%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 247(25.8%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 317(100%) of these a total of 189(59.6%) respondents viewed football to be suitable for boys, while 8(2.5%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 120(37.9%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 330 (100%)of these a total of 220(66.7%) Indian respondents viewed football was suitable for boys, while 10(3.0%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 100(30.3%) respondents

viewed this sport to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnicities respondents were 50(100%) of the a total 32 (64%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 1(2.0%) respondent viewed it to be suitable for girls and 17(34%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.34 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.523 ^a	6	.005
Likelihood Ratio	18.088	6	.006
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.751	1	.009
N of Valid Cases	1656		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.27.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and football

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and football

From the above Table 5.34, since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square= 18.532 and p-value = 0.05 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant association between the response of various ethnicity and football. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to football being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.18 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Dancing

Table 5.35 Type of Sports-Dancing * Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports-Dancing	Boys	Count	31	11	6	2	50
		% within Ethnicity	3.2%	3.5%	1.9%	4.0%	3.0%
	Girls	Count	387	83	104	15	589
		% within Ethnicity	40.4%	26.1%	32.3%	30.0%	35.7%
	Both	Count	540	224	212	33	1009
		% within Ethnicity	56.4%	70.4%	65.8%	66.0%	61.2%
Total	Count	958	318	322	50	1648	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.35 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnicities and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnicities in relation to whether dancing is a sport participated by boys, girls or both genders.

The total respondents were 1648(100%). The total respondents for Malays were 958(100%). A total of 31(3.2%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 387(40.4%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 540(56.4%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 318(100%) of these a total of 11(3.5%) respondents viewed dancing to be suitable for boys, while 83(26.1%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 224(70.4%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 322(100%) of these a total of 6 (1.9%) Indian respondents viewed dancing was suitable for boys, while 104(32.3%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 212(65.8%) respondents 65.8 % viewed this sport to be suitable for both

genders. The other ethnicity respondents were 50 (100%). 2(4%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 15(30%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 33(66%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.36 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	26.943 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	27.705	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	12.661	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	1648		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.52.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and dancing

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and dancing

From the above Table 5.36, since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square= 26.943 and p-value = 0.00 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant association between the response of various ethnicity and dancing. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to dancing being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.19 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Cheerleading

Table 5.37Type of Sports-Cheerleading * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports-Cheerleading	Boys	Count	28	21	17	2	68
		% within Ethnicity	2.9%	6.7%	5.4%	4.1%	4.2%
	Girls	Count	718	169	215	30	1132
		% within Ethnicity	75.1%	53.8%	68.9%	61.2%	69.4%
	Both	Count	210	124	80	17	431
		% within Ethnicity	22.0%	39.5%	25.6%	34.7%	26.4%
Total	Count	956	314	312	49	1631	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.37 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether cheerleading is a suitable sport for boys, girls or both genders. The total respondents were 1631 (100%). The total respondents for Malays were 956(100%). A total of 28(2.9%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 718(75.1%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 210(22%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 314(100%). A total of 21(6.7%) respondents viewed cheerleading to be suitable for boys, while 169(53.8%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 124(39.5%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 312 (100%) . A total of 17(5.4%) Indian respondents viewed cheerleading was suitable for boys, while 215(68.9%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 80 (25.6%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnic group

respondents were 49(100%) 100%. 2(4.1%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 30 (61.2%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 17(34.7%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.38 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	54.292 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	52.308	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.217	1	.073
N of Valid Cases	1631		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.04.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and cheerleading

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and cheerleading

From the above Table 5.38, since Pearson Chi-square shows 54.292 and p-value = 0.00 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant association between the response of various ethnicity and cheerleading. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to cheerleading being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.20 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Hockey

Table 5.39Type of Sports-Hockey * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others	
Type of Sports-Hockey	Count	189	120	98	14	421
	Boys % within Ethnicity	19.7%	37.6%	29.9%	28.6%	25.4%
	Count	41	10	10	1	62
	Girls % within Ethnicity	4.3%	3.1%	3.0%	2.0%	3.7%
	Count	729	189	220	34	1172
	Both % within Ethnicity	76.0%	59.2%	67.1%	69.4%	70.8%
Total	Count	959	319	328	49	1655
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The above Table 5.39 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether hockey is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

The total respondents were 1655(100%). The total respondents for Malays were 959(100%). 189(19.7) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 41(4.3%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 729(76%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 319 (100%) of these 120(37.6%) respondents viewed hockey to be suitable for boys, while 10(3.1%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 189(59.2%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 328(100%) . 98(29.9%) Indian respondents viewed hockey was suitable for boys, while 10(3%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 220(67.1%) respondentsviewed this sport to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnic group respondents were 49(100%) of these 14

(28.6%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 1(2%) respondent viewed it to be suitable for girls and 34(69.4%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.40 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	45.907 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	44.776	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	18.668	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	1655		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.84.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and hockey

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and hockey

From table 5.40 above, since Pearson Chi-Square shows 45.907 and p-value = 0.00 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant association between the response of various ethnicity and hockey. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to hockey being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.21 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Gymnastics

Table 5.41Type of Sports-Gymnastics * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports- Gymnastics	Boys	Count	42	17	22	3	84
		% within Ethnicity	4.4%	5.4%	7.0%	6.1%	5.1%
	Girls	Count	440	92	123	9	664
		% within Ethnicity	46.1%	29.1%	39.2%	18.4%	40.7%
	Both	Count	472	207	169	37	885
		% within Ethnicity	49.5%	65.5%	53.8%	75.5%	54.2%
Total	Count	954	316	314	49	1633	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.41 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether gymnastics is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

The total respondents were 1633(100%). The total respondents for Malays were 954(100%). A total of 42 Malay respondents (4.4%) viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 440(46.1%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 472(49.5) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 316(100%). A total of 17(5.4%) respondents viewed gymnastics to be suitable for boys, while 92(29.1%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 207(65.5%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 314(100%) of these a total of 22 (7%)Indian respondents viewed gymnastics was suitable for boys, while 123(39.2%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 207(65,5%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for both genders.

The other ethnic group respondents were 49(100%) of these 3(6.1%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 19(18.4%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 37(75.5%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.42 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	42.277 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	43.715	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.706	1	.017
N of Valid Cases	1633		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.52.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and gymnastics

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and gymnastics

From Table 5.42, since Pearson Chi-square shows 42.227 and p-value = 0.00 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant association between the response of various ethnicity and gymnastics. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to gymnastics being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.22 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Rhythmic Gymnastics

Table 5.43Type of Sports-Rhythmic Gymnastics * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports- Rhythmic Gymnastics	Boys	Count	27	6	12	2	47
		% within Ethnicity	2.8%	1.9%	3.8%	4.2%	2.9%
	Girls	Count	716	194	231	30	1171
		% within Ethnicity	74.7%	61.6%	73.3%	62.5%	71.5%
	Both	Count	216	115	72	16	419
		% within Ethnicity	22.5%	36.5%	22.9%	33.3%	25.6%
Total	Count	959	315	315	48	1637	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.43 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether rhythmic gymnastics is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

The total respondents were 1637(100%). The total respondents for Malays were 959(100%) of these a total of 27(2.8%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 716(74.7%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 216(22.5%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 315 (100%) of these 6 (19%) respondents viewed rhythmic gymnastics to be suitable for boys, while 194(61.6%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 115(36.5%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 315 (100%) of these a total of 12 (3.8%) Indian respondents viewed rhythmic gymnastics was suitable for boys, while 231(73,3%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 72 (22.9%) respondents viewed this sport to be

suitable for both genders. The other ethnic group respondents were 48(100%) of these 2 (4.2%) viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 30 (62,5%)respondentsviewed it to be suitable for girls and 16(33.3%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.44Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	28.876 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	27.472	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.851	1	.174
N of Valid Cases	1637		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.38.

H₀: There is no significant association between the response of various ethnicities and rhythmic gymnastics

H_a: There is significant association between response of various ethnicities and rhythmic gymnastics

From Table 5.44 since Pearson Chi-square shows 28.876 and p-value = 0.00 (0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant association between the response of various ethnicity and rhythmic gymnastics. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to rhythmic being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.23 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Bicycling

Table 5.45Type of Sports-Bicycling * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others	
Type of Sports-Bicycling	Count	236	33	69	10	348
	Boys % within Ethnicity	24.6%	10.3%	21.2%	20.0%	21.0%
	Count	24	4	9	0	37
	Girls % within Ethnicity	2.5%	1.3%	2.8%	0.0%	2.2%
	Count	701	283	248	40	1272
	Both % within Ethnicity	72.9%	88.4%	76.1%	80.0%	76.8%
Total	Count	961	320	326	50	1657
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The above Table 5.45 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether bicycling is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

The total respondents were 1657(100%). The total respondents for Malays were 961(100%) of these a total of 236(25.6%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 24(2.5%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 701(72.9%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 320(100%) of these a total of 33(10.3%) respondents viewed bicycling to be suitable for boys, while 4(1.3%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 283(88.4%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 326(100%) of these a total of 69(21.2%) Indian respondents viewed bicycling was suitable for boys, while 9(2.8%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 248(76.1%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for both genders. The other

ethnic group respondents were 50(100%) of these a total of 10 (20%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 0 (0%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 40(80%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.46 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	34.027 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	38.889	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.968	1	.015
N of Valid Cases	1657		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.12.

H0: There is no significant association between ethnicity and Bicycling

Ha: There is significant association between ethnicity and Bicycling

From Table 5.46 since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square = 34.037 and p-value = 0.0001 (< 0.05), the null hypothesis is rejected showing that there is significant association between ethnicity and bicycling. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to bicycling being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.24 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Archery

Table 5.47Type of Sports-Archery * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

			Ethnicity				Total
			Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others	
Type of Sports-Archery	Boys	Count	190	47	76	8	321
		% within Ethnicity	19.8%	15.0%	24.7%	16.3%	19.7%
	Girls	Count	23	4	9	1	37
		% within Ethnicity	2.4%	1.3%	2.9%	2.0%	2.3%
	Both	Count	746	262	223	40	1271
		% within Ethnicity	77.8%	83.7%	72.4%	81.6%	78.0%
Total	Count	959	313	308	49	1629	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.47 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether archery is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders. The total respondents were 1629 (100%) .

The total respondents for Malays were 959 (100%). A total of 190 (19.8%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 23(2.4%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 746(77.8%) respondents% stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 313 (100%) of these a total of 47 (15%) respondents viewed archery to be suitable for boys, while 4 (1.3%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 262(83.7%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 308(100%) of these a total of 76(24.7%) Indian respondents in viewed archery was suitable for boys, while 9(2.9%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 223(82.4%) respondents viewed this

sport to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnic group respondents were 49(100%) of these a total of 8 (16.3%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 1 (2%) respondent viewed it to be suitable for girls and 40(81.6%) respondents in found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.48 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.288 ^a	6	.056
Likelihood Ratio	12.541	6	.051
Linear-by-Linear Association	.623	1	.430
N of Valid Cases	1629		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.11.

H0: There is no significant association between ethnicity and Archery

Ha: There is significant association between ethnicity and Archery

From Table 5.48 above, since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square = 12.288 and p-value = 0.06 (>0.05), thus the null hypothesis is not rejected showing there is no significant association between ethnicity and archery. This means that all the ethnicities were equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had similar view in relation to archery being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.25 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Taekwondo

Table 5.49Type of Sports-Taekwondo * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports-Taekwondo	Boys	Count	137	37	40	7	221
		% within Ethnicity	14.3%	11.6%	12.2%	14.0%	13.4%
	Girls	Count	13	4	3	0	20
		% within Ethnicity	1.4%	1.3%	0.9%	0.0%	1.2%
	Both	Count	808	279	284	43	1414
		% within Ethnicity	84.3%	87.2%	86.9%	86.0%	85.4%
Total	Count	958	320	327	50	1655	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.49 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnicities in relation to whether taekwondo is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

The total respondents were 1655(100%). The total respondents for Malays were 958(100%). A total of 137(14.3%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 13(1.4%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 808 (84.3%)respondents in stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 320(100%) of these a total of 37(11.6%) respondents viewed taekwondo to be suitable for boys, while 4(1.3%0 respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 279(87.2%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 327(100%) of these a total of 40(12.2%) Indian respondents viewed taekwondo was suitable for boys, while 3 (0.9%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 284(86.2%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnic

group respondents were 50 (100%) of these 7 (14%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 0(0%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 43(86%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.50 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.076 ^a	6	.799
Likelihood Ratio	3.725	6	.714
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.252	1	.263
N of Valid Cases	1655		

a. 3 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .60.

H₀: There is no significant association between ethnicity and taekwondo

H_a: There is significant association between ethnicity and taekwondo

From table 5.50 above, since Pearson Chi-Square shows Chi-Square = 3.076 and p-value = 0.799 (>0.05), thus the null hypothesis is not rejected showing there is no significant association between ethnicity and taekwondo. This means that all the ethnicities were equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had similar views in relation to taekwondo being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.26 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Ping Pong

Table 5.51Type of Sports-Ping Pong * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others	
Type of Sports-Ping Pong	Count	168	19	16	8	211
	Boys % within Ethnicity	17.5%	6.0%	5.0%	16.3%	12.8%
	Count	29	5	24	0	58
	Girls % within Ethnicity	3.0%	1.6%	7.5%	0.0%	3.5%
	Count	761	294	281	41	1377
	Both % within Ethnicity	79.4%	92.5%	87.5%	83.7%	83.7%
Total	Count	958	318	321	49	1646
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The above Table 5.51 above shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether ping pong is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders. The total respondents were 1646 (100%).

The total respondents for Malays were 958(100%). A total of 168(17.5%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 29(3%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 761(79.4%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 318 (100%) of these a total of 19 (6%) respondents viewed ping pong to be suitable for boys, while 5(1.6%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 294(92.5%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 321(100%) of these a total of 16(5%) Indian respondents viewed ping pong was suitable for boys, while 24 (7.5%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 281(87.5%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for

both genders. The other ethnic group respondents were 49 (100%) of these a total of 8(16.3%) viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 0(0%) respondents in viewed it to be suitable for girls and 41(83.7%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.52 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	69.720 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	74.641	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	23.867	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	1646		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.73.

H₀: There is no significant association between ethnicity and ping pong

H_a: There is significant association between ethnicity and ping pong

From Table 5.52 above, since Pearson Chi-Square shows Chi-Square = 69.720, p-value = 0.0001 (< 0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected showing that there is significant association between ethnicity and ping pong. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to ping pong being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.27 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Badminton

Table 5.53Type of Sports-Badminton * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports-Badminton	Boys	Count	54	12	16	2	84
		% within Ethnicity	5.6%	3.7%	4.8%	4.0%	5.1%
	Girls	Count	13	2	13	1	29
		% within Ethnicity	1.4%	0.6%	3.9%	2.0%	1.7%
	Both	Count	894	308	301	47	1550
		% within Ethnicity	93.0%	95.7%	91.2%	94.0%	93.2%
Total	Count	961	322	330	50	1663	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.53 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether badminton is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders. The total respondents were 1663(100%). The total respondents for Malays were 961 (100%). A total of 54(5.6%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 13(1.4%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 894(93%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 322(100%) A total of 12(3.7%) respondents viewed badminton to be suitable for boys, while 2 (0.6%)respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 308(95.7%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 330(100%) of these a total of 16(4.8%) Indian respondents viewed badminton was suitable for boys, while 13(3.9%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 301(91.2%) respondents viewed this

sport to be suitable for both genders. The other ethnicities respondents were 50(100%) of these a total of 2 (4%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 1 (2%) respondent in a net response of 2% viewed it to be suitable for girls and 47(94%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.54 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-side)
Pearson Chi-Square	14.534 ^a	6	.024
Likelihood Ratio	13.052	6	.042
Linear-by-Linear Association	.035	1	.851
N of Valid Cases	1663		

a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .87.

H₀: There is no significant association between ethnicity and badminton

H_a: There is significant association between ethnicity and badminton

Since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square = 14.53, p-value = 0.02 (< 0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected and there is significant association between ethnicity and badminton. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to badminton being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.28 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of Squash

Table 5.55 Type of Sports-Squash * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports-Squash	Boys	Count	50	16	16	0	82
		% within Ethnicity	5.2%	5.1%	5.0%	0.0%	5.0%
	Girls	Count	92	11	36	3	142
		% within Ethnicity	9.7%	3.5%	11.4%	6.3%	8.7%
	Both	Count	811	289	265	45	1410
		% within Ethnicity	85.1%	91.5%	83.6%	93.8%	86.3%
Total	Count	953	316	317	48	1634	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.55 shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnicities and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnicities in relation to whether squash is a sport participated by boys, girls or both genders. The total respondents were 1634 (100%). The total respondents for Malays were 953(100%) of these a total of 50(5.2%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 92(9.75%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 811 (85.1%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders. The Chinese respondents were 316(100%) of these a total of 16 (5.1%)respondents viewed squash to be suitable for boys, while 11(3.5%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 289(91.5%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders.

The Indian respondents were 317 (100%) of these a total of 16 (5%) Indian respondents viewed squash was suitable for boys, while 36 (11.4%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 265(83.6%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for

both genders. The other ethnicity respondents were 48(100%) of these a total of 0(0%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 3(6.3%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 45 (93.8%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.56 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.027 ^a	6	.006
Likelihood Ratio	23.107	6	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	.878	1	.349
N of Valid Cases	1634		

a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.41.

H₀: There is no significant association between ethnicity and squash

H_a: There is significant association between ethnicity and squash

Since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square = 18.03, p-value = 0.006 (< 0.05), thus the null hypothesis is not rejected showing that there is significant association between ethnicity and squash. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different views in relation to squash being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.2.29 Ethnicity in the Gender Typing of *Silat*.

Table 5.57Type of Sports-*Silat* * Ethnicity Crosstabulation

		Ethnicity				Total	
		Malay	Chinese	Indian	Others		
Type of Sports- Silat	Boys	Count	326	153	198	16	693
		% within Ethnicity	34.1%	48.4%	61.3%	32.7%	42.2%
	Girls	Count	14	10	10	1	35
		% within Ethnicity	1.5%	3.2%	3.1%	2.0%	2.1%
	Both	Count	616	153	115	32	916
		% within Ethnicity	64.4%	48.4%	35.6%	65.3%	55.7%
Total	Count	956	316	323	49	1644	
	% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The above Table 5.57 above shows the nature of relationship between the various ethnic groups and whether there is an association between the views of different ethnic groups in relation to whether *silat* is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both genders. The total respondents were 1644(100%). The total respondents for Malays were 956(100%) . A total of 326 (34.1%) Malay respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 14(1.5%) respondents believed it was suitable for girls and the remaining 616 (64.4%) respondents stated that it was suitable for both genders.

The Chinese respondents were 316(100%). 153(48.4%) respondents viewed *silat* to be suitable for boys, while 10(3.2%) respondents stated it was suitable for girls and 153(48.4%) respondents believed it to be suitable for both genders. The Indian respondents were 323(100%) of these a total of 198(61.3%) Indian respondents viewed *silat* was suitable for boys, while 10(3.1%) respondents viewed it to be suitable for girls and 115(35.6%) respondents 35.6 % viewed this sport to be suitable for both genders.

The other ethnic group respondents were 49(100%). 16(32.7%) respondents viewed this sport to be suitable for boys, while 1 (2%) respondent viewed it to be suitable for girls and 32(65.3%) respondents found it to be suitable for both genders.

Table 5.58 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	92.108 ^a	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	92.415	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	57.643	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	1644		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.04.

H₀: There is no significant association between ethnicity and silat

H_a: There is significant association between ethnicity and silat

From Table 5.58 above, since Pearson Chi-square shows Chi-Square = 92.108 and p-value = 0.000 (< 0.05), thus the null hypothesis is rejected and showing that there is significant association between ethnicity and silat. This means that all the ethnicities were not equal in their views with regards to gender typing of sports. This shows that the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others had different view in relation to silat being suitable for boys, girls or both genders.

5.3 Cross tabulation of ranking on systemic association

The Table 5.59 below shows sports which are considered in order of ranking to have systemic association between all the ethnic groups (Malays, Chinese and Indians) with regards to the gender typing of sports. The order of ranking whether it is a sport suitable for boys, girls or both are the same for all the ethnic groups is presented in the table. It shows the interpretation of the results from all the three ethnic groups and the gender typing of sports. The result shows that all 3 ethnic groups gave similar responses in the order of ranking for the sports listed below. Therefore all the three ethnic groups (Malays, Chinese and Indians) had the same systemic association.

Table 5.59 Cross Tabulation of ranking on systemic association.

Type of Sports	Cross Tab on Ethnicity and Gender typing		
	Boys	Girls	Both
Karate	2	3	1
Wrestling	1	3	2
Golf	2	3	1
Ballet	3	1	2
Jogging or running	2	3	1
Walking	2	3	1
Aerobics	3	2	1
Diving	2	3	1
Kayaking/Canoeing	2	3	1
Volleyball	3	2	1
Softball	2	3	1
Football	1	3	2
Dancing	3	2	1
Cheerleading	3	1	2
Hockey	2	3	1
Gymnastics	3	2	1
Rhythmic gymnastics	3	1	2
Bicycling	2	3	1
Archery	2	3	1
Taekwondo	2	3	1
Badminton	2	3	1

The above Table 5.59 show the systemic association of expected frequencies in the choice of gender typing of the various sports by the Malays, Chinese, Indians and Others:

Number 1 shows that all the ethnicities have decided that either the boys, girls or both genders are the first choice for the particular type of sport;

Number 2 shows that all the ethnicities have decided that either boys, girls or both genders are the second choice for the particular type of sport and ;

Number 3 shows that all the ethnicities have decided that either boys, girls or both genders are the third choice for the particular type of sport.

5.4 Cross tabulation of ranking on non-systemic association

Tables 5.60-5.67 show the ethnic differences in gender typing of sports in ice-skating, tennis, swimming, netball, basketball, ping pong, squash and *silat*. However, the difference is only taken from the cross-tabulation tables above.

Table 5.60 Ranking of Ice-Skating within Ethnicity

Type of Sports within Ethnicity	Ranking		
	Boys	Girls	Both
Ice-Skating			
Malays	2	3	1
Chinese	3	2	1
Indians	2	3	1

Note: 1- first choice; 2 –second choice; 3- third choice

Table 5.61 Ranking of Tennis within Ethnicity

Type of Sports within Ethnicity	Ranking		
	Boys	Girls	Both
Tennis			
Malays	3	2	1
Chinese	2	3	1
Indians	3	2	1

Note: 1- first choice; 2 –second choice; 3- third choice

Table 5.62 Ranking of swimming within Ethnicity

Type of Sports within Ethnicity	Ranking		
	Boys	Girls	Both
Swimming			
Malays	2	3	1
Chinese	2	3	1
Indians	3	2	1

Note: 1- first choice; 2 –second choice; 3- third choice

Table 5.63 Ranking of Netball within Ethnicity

Type of Sports within Ethnicity	Ranking		
	Boys	Girls	Both
Netball			
Malays	3	1	2
Chinese	3	2	1
Indians	3	2	1

Note: 1- first choice; 2 –second choice; 3- third choice

Table 5.64 Ranking of Basketball within Ethnicity

Type of Sports within Ethnicity	Ranking		
	Boys	Girls	Both
Basketball			
Malays	1	3	2
Chinese	2	3	1
Indians	2	3	1

Note: 1- first choice; 2 –second choice; 3- third choice

Table 5.65 Ranking of ping pong within Ethnicity

Type of Sports within Ethnicity	Ranking		
	Boys	Girls	Both
Ping Pong			
Malays	2	3	1
Chinese	2	3	1
Indians	3	2	1

Note: 1- first choice; 2 –second choice; 3- third choice

Table 5.66 Ranking of Squash within Ethnicity

Type of Sports within Ethnicity	Ranking		
	Boys	Girls	Both
Squash			
Malays	3	2	1
Chinese	2	3	1
Indians	3	2	1

Note: 1- first choice; 2 –second choice; 3- third choice

Table 5.67 Ranking of Silat within Ethnicity

Type of Sports within Ethnicity	Ranking		
	Boys	Girls	Both
Silat			
Malays	2	3	1
Chinese	1	3	1
Indians	1	3	2

Note: 1- first choice; 2 –second choice; 3- third choice

The above data derived from the crosstabulation tables show the effect sizes are only minimal however the chi-square records the overall significant differences between the various ethnicities. Hence the results are more powerful in relation to Chi-square Table 5.68 below shows the Breakdown on the Association of Ethnicity and Gender Typing of Sports.

Table 5.68 Chi-Square Results on Ethnicity and Gender Typing of Sports.

Type of Sports	Chi-Square Test of Sig	Type of Sports	Chi-Square Test of Sig
Ice-Skating	Y	Karate	N
Tennis	Y	Softball	N
Wrestling	Y	Swimming	N
Golf	Y	Jogging or running	N
Ballet	Y	Walking	N
Aerobics	Y	Archery	N
Diving	Y	Taekwondo	N
Kayaking/Canoeing	Y		
Volleyball	Y		
Netball	Y		
Basketball	Y		
Football	Y		
Dancing	Y		
Cheerleading	Y		
Hockey	Y		
Gymnastics	Y		
Rhythmic Gymnastics	Y		
Bicycling	Y		
Ping Pong	Y		
Badminton	Y		
Squash	Y		
Silat	Y		

Note: Y= Significant Association; N = No Significant Association.

Table 5.68 above shows that although the cross tabulation may have shown a systematic association, the Chi-Square determined that there were significant association between ethnicity and gender typing of sports in tennis, karate, wrestling, golf, ballet, aerobics, diving, kayaking/canoeing, volleyball, netball, basketball, football, dancing, cheerleading, hockey, gymnastics, rhythmic gymnastics, bicycling, ping pong, badminton, squash and *silat*. However, no significant associations were recorded in softball, swimming, jogging or running, walking, archery and taekwondo

5.5 Discussion, Analysis and Conclusion

The original scale only looked at the gender typing of sports, however my study explored the scale to another dimension where a cross analysis was done based on ethnicity in gender-typing of sports. It is clear that ethnicity appears to contribute more to the gender-typing of sports compared to the original study of gender typing of sports in relation to the views of boys, girls as seen in chapter 4. However this chapter shows that there is a more pronounced gender typing of sports based on ethnicity.

Culturally when we look at ethnicity the responses was less in line with the overall findings on the gender typing of sports. With reference to the non-systemic association tables of 5.60-5.67, overall there do not seem to be much varied differences between the Malays, Chinese and Indians. However it was interesting to note that in reference to the table 5.64 the Malays viewed Basketball to be more suitable for boys as opposed to Chinese and Indians who viewed the sport to be most suitable for both genders. On the other hand in reference to table 5.67 the Malay respondents viewed the sport of silat, that is a Malay traditional sport to be most suitable for both genders , followed by boys and finally girls . This was however different with the Chinese where it was viewed to be most suitable for boys and by both genders and finally for girls. The Indians viewed Silat to be most suitable for boys, followed by both genders and finally girls. At the same time it must be noted that in Malaysia, the sport of silat is predominantly actively participated by the Malays and the sport Basketball is predominantly actively participated by the Chinese.

Looking at the systemic association of the three ethnic groups in cross tabulation tables, only Dancing, Cheerleading, Ballet and Rhythmic Gymnastics were considered to be most suitable for girls, on the other hand Karate, Golf, Jogging, Running, Walking, Diving, Kayaking/Canoeing, Volleyball, Softball, Basketball, Football, Hockey,

Gymnastics, Bicycling, Archery, Taekwondo and Badminton were associated by Malays, Chinese and Indians to be most suitable for boys. Whereas the remaining two other sports that were considered to be most suitable for both genders by these 3 ethnic groups were wrestling and aerobics.

The cultural behavior of what types of sports is deemed acceptable to which gender clearly shows there is no marked difference between the Chinese, Malays and Indians. In the 8 types of sports mentioned in tables 5.60-5.67 there are some differences between the various ethnicities of what could be deemed to be an acceptable behavior in sports participation. This clearly shows that in the selected urban schools cultural and social values of the students are firstly identified to their ethnic groupings and secondly to their gender.

CHAPTER 6

A GENDER AND ETHNIC ANALYSIS ON STUDENTS VIEW OF PEOPLES PERCEPTION ON GENDER STEREOTYPING , STUDENTS PERCEPTION OF MASCULINE AND FEMININE VALUES AND FAMILY AND SOCIETY'S INFLUENCE ON SPORTS PARTICIPATION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is divided into two sections . For the purpose of the analysis of the results the validity and reliability test on the dependent variables which are student's views of peoples' perception on gender stereotyping, student's perception on masculine and feminine values and family and society's influence have been undertaken and reported in the research methods chapter. The three sections has with the three different objectives:

- (1) To examine students views of peoples' perception on gender stereotyping and impact on sports participation, to examine students perception on masculine and feminine values and also to determine family and social influences and their impact on sports participation by gender .
- (2) To examine students views of peoples' perception on gender stereotyping and impact on sports participation, to examine students perception on masculine and feminine values and also to determine family and social influences and their impact on sports participation by ethnicity.
- (3) To investigate difference in students views of gender stereotyping in sports participation, students perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation and family and society's influences in sports participation by gender within various ethnic groups.

The following section is the findings of the test of significance based on the hypotheses as discussed in chapter 2 and chapter3 as depicted in the research framework below:

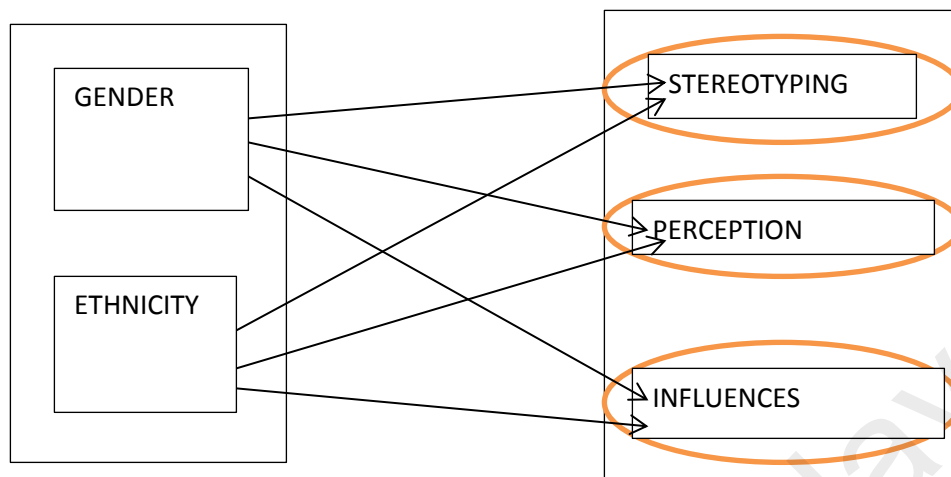


Figure 6.1 Research framework of gender and ethnicity towards stereotyping, perception and influences.

6.2 Stereotyping, Masculine and Feminine Values and Family and Society's Influences and Its Impact on Students Sports Participation by Gender

This section, firstly, will attempt to examine students views of peoples' perception on gender stereotyping and impact on sports participation by gender , secondly to examine students perception on masculine and feminine values by gender and finally also to determine family and social influences and their impact on sports participation by gender .

6.2.1 Students Views of Peoples' Perception on Gender Stereotyping and its Impact on Sports Participation by Gender.

Independent T-test is run to find the difference between the independent variable and dependent variable whereby independent variable is discrete data with two groups (dichotomous) and dependent is continuous data.

The assumption for independent T-test:

Test of equality of variance or homogeneity of variances was found. This means that the stereotyping variance among male is equal to the stereotyping variance among female. Stereotyping is the dependent variable and measured using interval scale i.e. continuous data. Gender is the independent variable and measure using nominal scale i.e. discrete and is dichotomous.

Table 6.1 Levene Test of homogeneity of variance and T-test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Stereotyping	Equal variances assumed	12.579	.000	5.963	1442	.000	1.70568	.28605
	Equal variances not assumed			5.785	1131.584	.000	1.70568	.29486

Homogeneity of variances test:

$$H_0 : \sigma_M^2 = \sigma_F^2 \text{ (homogeneity of variances)}$$

$$H_a : \sigma_M^2 \neq \sigma_F^2 \text{ (heterogeneity of variances)}$$

Table 6.1 Levene's test above for stereotyping shows $F = 12.58$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0001$, therefore H_0 is rejected showing stereotyping has heterogeneity of variances. So, stereotyping data does not fulfil the assumption for independent T-test. Therefore, we refer to the second line (bold), a test when equal variance is not assumed to test the significance differences between genders on stereotyping.

RQ: Does gender influence students view of people’s perception of stereotyping and its impact in sports participation?

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant difference in male and female’s view of people’s perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation:

H₀ : $\mu_M^2 = \mu_F^2$ (no difference between average male’s view and average female’s view of people’s perception on stereotyping and its impact on sports participation).

H_a : $\mu_M^2 \neq \mu_F^2$ (significant difference between male’s view and average female’s view of people’s perception on stereotyping and its impact on sports participation).

From Table 6.1 above: $t = 5.79$, $df=1132$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0001$, thus null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is a significant difference between the genders on gender stereotyping of sports. Therefore, Table 6.2 on descriptive statistics displays the nature of relationship that shows average sports stereotyping for male ($m= 25.1$, $sd = 5.88$) is greater than average sports stereotyping for female (mean =23.37, $sd = 4.95$).

Table 6.2 Descriptive Statistics

Sex of the student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Total14 Male	594	25.0774	5.87768	.24116
Female	850	23.3718	4.94618	.16965

6.2.2 Students Perception on Masculine and Feminine Values in Sports Participation by Gender.

Perception on masculine and feminine values is the dependent variable and measured using interval scale i.e. continuous data. Gender is the independent variable and measure using nominal scale i.e. discrete and is dichotomous.

The assumption for independent T-test:

1. Test of equality of variance or homogeneity of variances - meaning that the perception variance among male is equal to the perception of variance among female.

Table 6.3 Levene's Test of homogeneity of variance and T-test

PERCEPTION ON MASCULINE AND FEMININE VALUES	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	2.775	.096	-4.308	1531	.000	-1.29874	.30149
Equal variances not assumed			-4.275	1420.027	.000	-1.29874	.30380

Homogeneity of variances test:

$$H_0 : \sigma_M^2 = \sigma_F^2 \text{ (homogeneity of variances)}$$

$$H_a : \sigma_M^2 \neq \sigma_F^2 \text{ (heterogeneity of variances)}$$

Table 6.3 on Levene's test above for students perception on masculine and feminine values shows $F = 2.78$, $p\text{-value} = 0.10$, therefore H_0 is not rejected, showing students perception has homogeneity of variances. So, students' perception data fulfil the assumption for independent T-test. Therefore we refer to the first line (in bold), a test when

equality of variance is assumed to test the significant differences between gender on perception of masculine and feminine values.

RQ: Does gender influence student's perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation?

Hypothesis: There is a significant difference in student's perception on masculine and feminine values in sports participation between male and female

$H_0: \mu_M^2 = \mu_F^2$ (no difference between average male students' perception and average female students perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation).

$H_a: \mu_M^2 \neq \mu_F^2$ (significant difference between male students perception and average female students perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation).

From the above Table 6.3 (highlighted in bold): $t = - 4.31$, $df=1513$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0001$, thus null hypothesis is rejected, showing there is significant difference in the gender perception on masculine and feminine values in sports. Therefore, table 6.4 on group statistics below displays the nature of relationship that shows average students perception on masculine and feminine values in sports for male (mean = 24.6, sd = 6.10) is lower than average students perception on masculine and feminine values in sports for female (mean =25.9, sd = 5.69).

Table 6.4 Group Statistics on Average Students Perception on Masculine and Feminine Values in Sports

Sex of the student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Total15 Male	688	24.5959	6.10911	.23291
Female	845	25.8947	5.67000	.19505

6.2.3 Family and Society's Influence on Students' Participation in Sports by Gender.

Family and society's influence is the dependent variable and measured using interval scale i.e. continuous data. Gender is the independent variable and measure using nominal scale i.e. discrete and is dichotomous.

The assumption for independent T-test:

1. Test of equality of variance or homogeneity of variances - meaning that the family and society's influence variance among male is equal to the family and society's influence variance among female.

Table 6.5 Levene's Test of homogeneity of variance and T-test

FAMILY AND SOCIETY'S INFLUENCES	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	.826	.364	-3.314	1552	.001	-1.05297	.31777
Equal variances not assumed			-3.316	1525.909	.001	-1.05297	.31758

Test of homogeneity of variances for Family and Society's Influence on Sports Participation

Homogeneity of variances test:

$$H_0 : \sigma_M^2 = \sigma_F^2 \text{ (homogeneity of variances)}$$

$$H_a : \sigma_M^2 \neq \sigma_F^2 \text{ (heterogeneity of variances)}$$

Table 6.5 on Levene's test above for family and society's influence on sports participation shows $F = 0.826$, $p\text{-value} = 0.40$, therefore H_0 is not rejected showing family and society's influences has homogeneity of variances. So, family and society's influence

on sports participation data fulfil the assumption for independent T-test. Therefore we refer to the first line (highlighted in bold), a test when equality of variance is assumed to test the significant differences between gender on perception.

RQ: Does gender impact on family and society's influence on students' participation in sports?

Hypothesis: There is a significant difference in family and society's influence on sports participation between male and female.

$H_0 : \mu_M^2 = \mu_F^2$ (no difference between average male and average female's family and society's influence on participation in sports).

$H_a : \mu_M^2 \neq \mu_F^2$ (significant difference between average male and average female's family and society's influence on participation in sports).

From Table 6.5 (highlighted in bold): $t = - 3.31$, $df=1552$, $p\text{-value} = 0.001$, thus null hypothesis is rejected, showing that there is significant difference in gender on family and society's influence in students participation in sports.

Therefore, Table 6.6 on group statistics below displays the nature of relationship that shows average sports influence of family and society for male (mean = 24.2, sd = 6.22) is lower than average sports influence of family and society for female (mean =25.33, sd = 6.27) Refer to Table 6.6 below.

Table 6.6 Group Statistics

Sex of the student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Total16 Male	723	24.2683	6.21921	.23129
Female	831	25.3213	6.27341	.21762

6.3 Stereotyping, Masculine and Feminine Values in Sports and Family and Society's Influences on Sports Participation by Ethnicity.

This section, firstly, will attempt to examine students views of peoples' perception on gender stereotyping and impact on sports participation by ethnicity , secondly to examine students perception on masculine and feminine values by ethnicity and finally also to determine family and social influences and their impact on sports participation by ethnicity .

One-way ANOVA is run when there is a need to find the difference between an independent variable measured using discrete scale with more than two groups (options) and dependent variable which is measured using continuous scale. Independent variable: ethnicity – Malay, Chinese, Indian, others (discrete and more than two groups). Dependent variable: stereotyping and family and society's influences measured using interval scale i.e. continuous.

6.3.1 People's perception on gender stereotyping and its impact on sports participation by ethnicity.

This section will establish if there is a difference on students view of people's perception on gender stereotyping and its impact on sports participation by ethnicity.

Test of assumption for ANOVA

Independent variable: ethnicity – Malay, Chinese, Indian, others (discrete and more than two groups)

Dependent variable: stereotyping measured using interval scale i.e. continuous.

RQ: Does ethnicity influence students' view of people's perception of stereotyping and its impact in sports participation?

Hypothesis: There is a significant difference in Malay, Chinese, Indian and Others' view of people's perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation:

Test of significance:

$H_0: \mu_M = \mu_C = \mu_I = \mu_O$ (no difference between average student's view of people's perception of stereotyping between the ethnicities) ; M = Malay, C = Chinese, I = Indian, O = Others.

$H_a: \mu_M \neq \mu_C \neq \mu_I \neq \mu_O$ (significant difference between average student's view of people's perception of stereotyping between the ethnicities)

Table 6.7 ANOVA Table

Stereotyping	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	786.436	3	262.145	9.099	.000
Within Groups	41487.783	1440	28.811		
Total	42274.219	1443			

The above Table 6.7: $F = 9.10$, $df = 3, 1440$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0001$, so null hypothesis is rejected, since at least 1 significant difference is sufficient to reject null hypothesis, the above Post-hoc comparison test result in Table 6.23 below show:

Table 6.8 Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Stereotyping

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.871	3	1440	.035

$H_0: \sigma_M^2 = \sigma_C^2 = \sigma_I^2 = \sigma_O^2$ (homogeneity of variances)

$H_a: \sigma_M^2 \neq \sigma_C^2 \neq \sigma_I^2 \neq \sigma_O^2$ (heterogeneity of variances)

Table 6.8 on Levene's test above show Levene Stats = 2.87, p-value = 0.035, null hypothesis rejected, thus heterogeneity of variances is noted. Tukey is used when there is homogeneity; Tamhane, when there is heterogeneity. Thus, in this case as there is heterogeneity of variances in the data, Tamhane in Table 6.9 is referred.

Table 6.9 Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Stereotyping

	(I) Ethnicity	(J) Ethnicity	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tamhane	Malay	Chinese	-1.50494*	.35307	.000	-2.4376	-.5723
		Indian	-1.23729*	.37441	.006	-2.2264	-.2482
		Others	-2.48039	1.09575	.161	-5.5080	.5472
	Chinese	Malay	1.50494*	.35307	.000	.5723	2.4376
		Indian	.26765	.44354	.991	-.9034	1.4387
		Others	-.97545	1.12125	.948	-4.0601	2.1092
	Indian	Malay	1.23729*	.37441	.006	.2482	2.2264
		Chinese	-.26765	.44354	.991	-1.4387	.9034
		Others	-1.24310	1.12815	.856	-4.3433	1.8571
	Others	Malay	2.48039	1.09575	.161	-.5472	5.5080
		Chinese	.97545	1.12125	.948	-2.1092	4.0601
		Indian	1.24310	1.12815	.856	-1.8571	4.3433

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The findings from Table 6.4 multiple comparisons show a significant difference between Malay and Chinese stereotyping, Chinese respondents show more inclination to be more agreeable to the statements posted compared to Malays. The difference between the average Malay compared to Chinese is mean = -1.505, std. error = 0.353, p-value = 0.0001, where closer to 1 indicates strongly disagree and closer to 5 indicates strongly agree

Similarly, the Indians seem to be more agreeable to the fact that students view on people's perception of stereotyping does impact sports participation compared to the Malays i.e. the mean difference = - 1.24, Standard error = 0.374, p-value = 0.006. However, there no significant difference in the perception of stereotyping between Malays and others with p-value = 0.11

There is also no significant difference between the Chinese perception of stereotyping and Indian perception i.e. p-value = 0.99, the average difference being a marginal 0.27 with a standard error of 0.44. Similarly, the difference seems insignificant between Chinese, Indian and Others. The difference between the major ethnicities and others are insignificant as this result may have been due to the significantly smaller number of others compared to the major ethnicities in the sample of respondents.

Therefore the Malays are observed to be least agreeable compared to the Chinese and the Indians in regards to students view on people's perception of stereotyping. This means that the Malay students did not agree to the statements that students believe that people have certain perception of stereotyping in sports participation.

6.3.2 Perception of Masculine and Feminine Values on Sports Participation by Ethnicity.

The test of ANOVA will be used in to establish if there exists a difference on student's perception of masculine and feminine values on sports participation by ethnicity.

Test of assumption for ANOVA

Independent variable: ethnicity – Malay, Chinese, Indian, others (discrete and more than two groups)

Dependent variable students' perception on masculine and feminine values on sports participation measured using interval scale i.e. continuous.

RQ: Does ethnicity influence student's perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation?

Hypothesis: There is a significant difference in student's perception of masculine and feminine values on sports participation between the various ethnicities (Malay, Chinese, Indian and Others).

Test of significance

$H_0: \mu_M^2 = \mu_C^2 = \mu_I^2 = \mu_O^2$ (**no difference between average students perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation and the various ethnicities**); M = Malay, C = Chinese, I = Indian, O = Others.

$H_a: \mu_M^2 \neq \mu_C^2 \neq \mu_I^2 \neq \mu_O^2$ (**significant difference between average students perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation and the various ethnicities**).

Table 6.10 ANOVA

Perception	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	151.641	3	50.547	1.451	.226
Within Groups	53261.315	1529	34.834		
Total	53412.956	1532			

The above Table 6.10 shows $F = 1.45$, $df = 3, 1529$, $p\text{-value} = 0.25$, so null hypothesis is not rejected, indicating there is no significant difference in average students perception on masculine and feminine values on sports participation. The Post-hoc comparison test result below show:

Table 6.11 Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Perception

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.262	3	1529	.853

$H_0 : \sigma_M^2 = \sigma_C^2 = \sigma_I^2 = \sigma_O^2$ (homogeneity of variances)

$H_a : \sigma_M^2 \neq \sigma_C^2 \neq \sigma_I^2 \neq \sigma_O^2$ (heterogeneity of variances)

The above Table 6.11 on Levene's test show Levene Stats = .26, p-value = 0.835, null hypothesis is not rejected, thus homogeneity of variances is noted.

Tukey is used when there is homogeneity. Tamhane when there is heterogeneity.

Thus, in this case as there is homogeneity of variances in the data, Tukey in Table 6.27 is referred.

Table 6.12 Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Perception

	(I) Ethnicity	(J) Ethnicity	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	Malay	Chinese	-.73432	.39651	.250	-1.7541	.2855
		Indian	.10319	.38924	.993	-.8979	1.1043
		Others	-.69426	.97766	.893	-3.2087	1.8201
	Chinese	Malay	.73432	.39651	.250	-.2855	1.7541
		Indian	.83751	.48005	.301	-.3971	2.0721
		Others	.04005	1.01724	1.000	-2.5761	2.6562
	Indian	Malay	-.10319	.38924	.993	-1.1043	.8979
		Chinese	-.83751	.48005	.301	-2.0721	.3971
		Others	-.79745	1.01442	.861	-3.4064	1.8115
	Others	Malay	.69426	.97766	.893	-1.8201	3.2087
		Chinese	-.04005	1.01724	1.000	-2.6562	2.5761
		Indian	.79745	1.01442	.861	-1.8115	3.4064

The findings in Table 6.12 multiple comparisons above show that there is no significant difference between all the ethnic groups. There is no significant differences between Malay and Chinese in perception on masculine and feminine values on sports participation with $p\text{-value} = 0.25$. Similarly the difference seemed insignificant between Malay and Indian with a $p\text{-value} = 0.99$, Chinese and Indian with a $p\text{-value} = 0.301$. The difference between the major ethnicities and others are also insignificant. This is where closer to 1 indicates strongly disagree and closer to 5 indicates strongly agree.

Thus the Malays, Chinese and Indians students do not perceive that there exists a masculine and feminine value on sports participation. This means all ethnicities hold the similar perception on masculine and feminine values on sports participation.

6.3.3 Family and Society's Influence on Students' Participation in Sports by Ethnicity.

The ANOVA test is run to find the relationship between family and society's influence on students' participation in sports by ethnicity.

Test of assumption for ANOVA

Independent variable: ethnicity – Malay, Chinese, Indian, others (discrete and more than two groups)

Dependent variable influences measured using interval scale i.e. continuous.

RQ: Does ethnicity impact on family and society's influence on students' participation in sports?

Hypothesis: There is a significant difference in family and society's influence on student's participation in sports between the various ethnicities (Malay, Chinese, Indian and Others).

Test of significance

$H_0 : \mu_M^2 = \mu_C^2 = \mu_I^2 = \mu_O^2$ (no difference between average students' family and society influence student's participation in sports and the various ethnicities);

M = Malay, C = Chinese, I = Indian, O = Others.

$H_a : \mu_M^2 \neq \mu_C^2 \neq \mu_I^2 \neq \mu_O^2$ (significant difference between average students family and society influence students' participation in sports and the various ethnicities).

Table 6.13 ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	676.644	3	225.548	5.794	.001
Within Groups	60343.183	1550	38.931		
Total	61019.828	1553			

The above Table 6.13 shows $F = 5.794$, $df = 3, 1550$, $p\text{-value} = 0.001$, so null hypothesis is rejected, since at least two of the ethnicities show significant difference is sufficient to reject null hypothesis. The Post-hoc comparison test result in Table 6.29 below shows:

Table 6.14 Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.809	3	1550	.489

$H_0 : \sigma_M^2 = \sigma_C^2 = \sigma_I^2 = \sigma_O^2$ (homogeneity of variances)

$H_a : \sigma_M^2 \neq \sigma_C^2 \neq \sigma_I^2 \neq \sigma_O^2$ (heterogeneity of variances)

Table 6.14 on Levene's test above show Levene Stats = 0.809, $p\text{-value} = 0.489$, null hypothesis is not rejected, thus homogeneity of variances is noted. Tukey is used when

there is homogeneity. Tamhane when there is heterogeneity. Thus, in this case as there is homogeneity of variances in the data, Tukey in Table 6.15 is referred.

Table 6.15 Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Influences

	(I) Ethnicity	(J) Ethnicity	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	Malay	Chinese	-1.39812*	.41444	.004	-2.4640	-.3323
		Indian	.48085	.40997	.644	-.5735	1.5352
		Others	-1.34148	.94341	.486	-3.7678	1.0848
	Chinese	Malay	1.39812*	.41444	.004	.3323	2.4640
		Indian	1.87897*	.50244	.001	.5868	3.1712
		Others	.05664	.98711	1.000	-2.4820	2.5953
	Indian	Malay	-.48085	.40997	.644	-1.5352	.5735
		Chinese	-1.87897*	.50244	.001	-3.1712	-.5868
		Others	-1.82234	.98525	.251	-4.3562	.7115
	Others	Malay	1.34148	.94341	.486	-1.0848	3.7678
		Chinese	-.05664	.98711	1.000	-2.5953	2.4820
		Indian	1.82234	.98525	.251	-.7115	4.3562

Table 6.30*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The findings in Table 6.15 on multiple comparisons above show a significant difference between Malay and Chinese on influences of family and society in sports participation, Chinese showing more inclination to be more agreeable to the statements posted compared to Malays.

The difference between the average Malay compared to Chinese is mean = -1.398, std. error = 0.414, p-value = 0.004, where closer to 1 indicates strongly disagree and closer to 5 indicates strongly agree.

Similarly the Chinese seem to be more agreeable to the fact that family and society does influence students participation in sports compared to the Indians i.e. the mean difference = -1.878, Std. error = 0.374, p-value = 0.001.

There is also no significant difference between the Malay students on family and society's influence in sports participation and Indian students' family and society influence i.e. p-value = 0.644, the average difference being a marginal mean 0.480 with a standard error of 0.414. The difference between the major ethnicities and others is insignificant as this result may have been due to the significantly smaller number of others in the sample of respondents compared to the major ethnicities of respondents.

This results show that the Chinese are more agreeable than the Malays and Indians on the fact that family and society does influence students participation in sports. This is compared to the Malay and Indian students who did not agree to the fact that family and society influences students participation in sports.

6.4 Relationship between Gender and Ethnicity and Its Impact on Students Sports Participation.

The section will attempt to establish if there exists a firstly relationship between gender within the various ethnicities and peoples' perception on gender stereotyping, secondly a relationship between gender within various ethnicities and students perception on masculine and feminine values in sports participation and finally a relationship between gender within various ethnicities and family and society's influences on student's participation in sports.

6.4.1 Relationship Between Gender and Different Ethnicities in Peoples' Perception on Gender Stereotyping, Students Perception of Masculine and Feminine Values in Sports and Family and Society's Influences in Sports Participation.

MANOVA analysis is run when you need to find there is more than one dependent variable. This test is undertaken to establish if there is relationship between the independent variables (gender within different ethnicities) and the dependent variables (stereotyping, perception and influences) This will show whether there are statistically significant mean differences among groups on a combination of dependent variables.

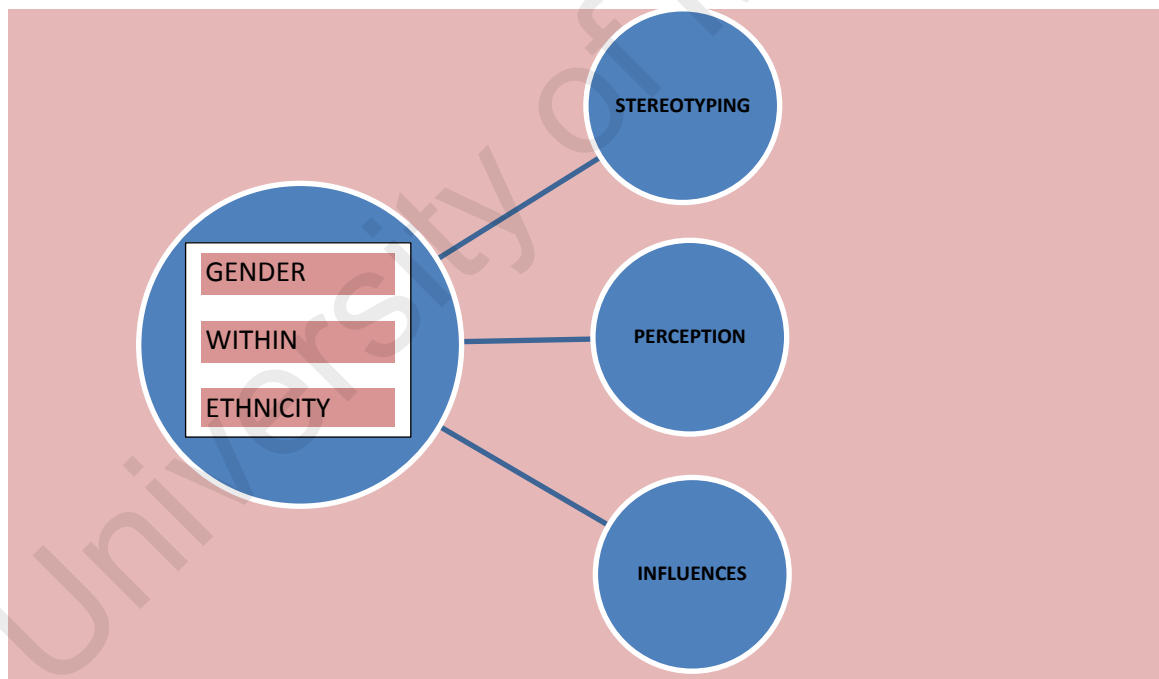


Figure 6.2 Research Framework of gender within ethnicity towards stereotyping, perception and influences.

Table 6.16 Breakdown of respondents based on ethnicity and gender Between-Subject Factors

		Value Label	N
Ethnicity	1	Malay	763
	2	Chinese	258
	3	Indian	262
	4	Others	33
Sex of the student	1	Male	531
	2	Female	785

Table 6.16 above shows the breakdown of respondents gender analysis which is also reflected in the descriptive findings in Chapter 4. Sample size in each group is more than 100 except for ethnicity in the category of “others”

The assumptions to enable MANOVA analysis:

1. Dependent variables: metric or continuous, independent variables: categorical or discrete
2. Dependent variables follow a multivariate normal distribution
3. Observations are independent
4. Variance-covariance matrices must be equal for all treatment groups

Addition assumptions: linearity and multicollinearity of variate of dependent variables

Test of assumptions

Assumption 1: Stereotyping, Perception on masculine and feminine values in sports and family and society’s influences in sports participation are dependent variables which are metric while gender and ethnicity are independent variables which are discrete.

Assumption2: No direct test is available for multivariate but based of univariate tests previously on stereotyping, perception and influence proofs normality. Moreover Box M's test and large sample size provides lesser impact when this assumption is violated.

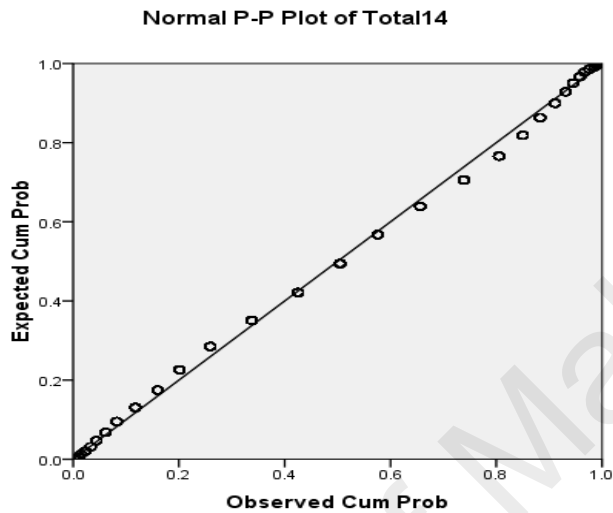


Figure 6.3 Normal P-P Plot of students' views of peoples' perception on gender stereotyping and its impact on sports participation (also known at Total 14).

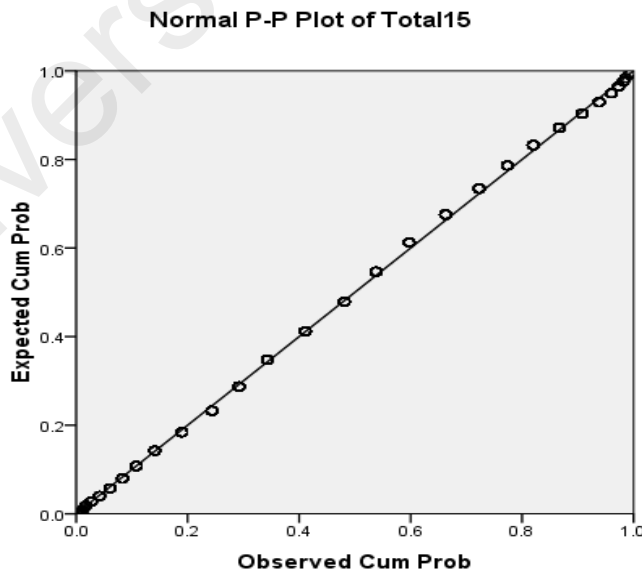


Figure 6.4 Normal P-P Plot of students' perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation (also known as Total 15)

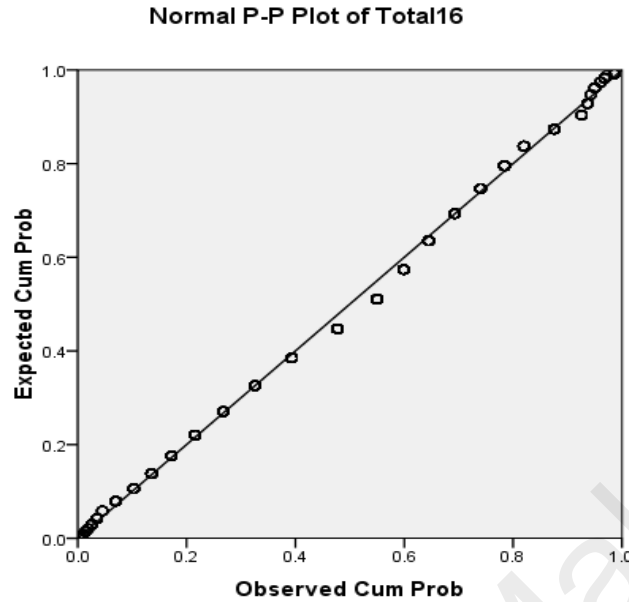


Figure 6.5 Normal P-P Plot of the relationship between family and society influence on students' participation in sports (also known as total 16).

It is established that all 3 P-P plots shows normality (Hair et.al, 2010).

Assumption 3: verified as the data was collected on cross-sectional basis. Data/information was collected from individuals separately (non-group settings).

Assumption 4: Box's M test as referred to as a test of equality of covariance matrices. Significance of this test shows the likelihood of differences between groups, thus non-significance is required to enable MANOVA.

Table 6.17 Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices^a

Box's M	85.137
F	1.972
df1	42
df2	31542.799
Sig.	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + A1 + A2 + A1 * A2

Table 6.17 above shows Box's M = 85.137, df = 42, 31548, p-value = 0.0001, thus this test shows non-significance and the covariance matrices are not equal. Thus the assumption is violated. Despite this, with the strength or power of sample size is used as the backbone of this study and MANOVA is run, the following is the result:

The Multivariate Test of Significance Test

Multivariate Test Criteria:

There are four Statistical Measures to be selected from:

- a. Hotelling's Tethnicity
- b. Wilk's Lambda
- c. Pillai's Tethnicity
- d. Roy's Largest Root

From the above four Statistical Measures it was found that:

- a. Pillai's is more robust and commonly used when sample size, unequal cell sizes and homogeneity of covariances are violated

- b. Wilks' Lambda used to test overall significance between groups in a multivariate situation
- c. Hotelling's is similar to Pillai's
- d. Roy's is used when there is no violation of assumptions**

Table 6.18 Multivariate Tests

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Tethnicity	.927	5492.870 ^b	3.000	1306.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.073	5492.870 ^b	3.000	1306.000	.000
	Hotelling's Tethnicity	12.618	5492.870 ^b	3.000	1306.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	12.618	5492.870 ^b	3.000	1306.000	.000
A1	Pillai's Tethnicity	.032	4.758	9.000	3924.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.968	4.777	9.000	3178.611	.000
	Hotelling's Tethnicity	.033	4.786	9.000	3914.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.024	10.414 ^c	3.000	1308.000	.000
A2	Pillai's Tethnicity	.025	11.085 ^b	3.000	1306.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.975	11.085 ^b	3.000	1306.000	.000
	Hotelling's Tethnicity	.025	11.085 ^b	3.000	1306.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.025	11.085 ^b	3.000	1306.000	.000
A1 * A2	Pillai's Tethnicity	.008	1.162	9.000	3924.000	.315
	Wilks' Lambda	.992	1.162	9.000	3178.611	.315
	Hotelling's Tethnicity	.008	1.162	9.000	3914.000	.315
	Roy's Largest Root	.006	2.753 ^c	3.000	1308.000	.041

Note: A1(Gender) and A2(Ethnicity)

a. Design: Intercept + A1 + A2 + A1 * A2

b. Exact statistic

c. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

Homogeneity of variances test:

H0: no between group differences (homogeneity of variances)

H1: there is between group differences (heterogeneity of variances)

Table 6.18 on multivariate tests show the intercept of the model that indicates there is a significant model: $F=2.753$, $p\text{-value} = 0.041$, there are significant differences between gender and ethnicity in terms of stereotyping, perception on masculine and feminine value and influence of family and society on sports participation. Roy's largest root is used in this case as there is no violation of assumptions.

The above table also shows test on Ethnicity (A1) indicates Roy's largest root significant i.e. $p\text{-value} = 0.0001$, thus there is significant differences between the groups in ethnicity. The test on gender (A2) indicates Roy's Largest root significant i.e. value = 0.0001, thus there is significant differences between the groups in gender. Therefore this shows that the two independent variables i.e. gender and ethnicity have significant influence on stereotyping, perception on masculine and feminine values and family and society's influence on sports participation.

Table 6.19 Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances^a

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Stereotyping	3.048	7	1308	.003
Perception	1.143	7	1308	.333
Influences	1.066	7	1308	.383

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + A1 + A2 + A1 * A2

The above Table 6.19 on Levene's test for stereotyping shows $F = 12.58$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0001$, therefore H_0 is rejected showing stereotyping has heterogeneity of variances. So, stereotyping data does not fulfil the assumption for independent T-test. Therefore, we refer

to the second line (bold), a test when equal variance is not assumed to test the significant differences between genders on stereotyping.

Levene's test for stereotyping has indicated homogeneity of variances as $F = 3.05$, $df (7, 1308)$, $P\text{-value} = 0.003$ ($P < 0.05$), therefore H_0 is rejected, showing that stereotyping has heterogeneity of variances. Similarly Levene's test for perception on masculine and feminine values in sports participation has indicated homogeneity of variances as $F = 1.143$, $df (7, 1308)$, $P\text{-value} = 0.333$ ($P > 0.05$), therefore H_0 is not rejected, showing that Perception has homogeneity of variances.

Finally, Levene's test for family and society's influence has indicated homogeneity of variances as $F = 1.07$, $df (7, 1308)$, $P\text{-value} = 0.383$ ($P > 0.05$), therefore H_0 is not rejected, showing that influence has homogeneity of variances.

RQ: Is there a relationship between gender within different ethnicities in stereotyping, perception on masculine and feminine values and family and society's influences in sports participation?

Hypothesis 1: There are significant differences in stereotyping, perception and influences in sports participation by gender within different ethnicities.

$H_0 : \mu_G^2 = \mu_E^2$ (no differences in stereotyping, perception and influences in sports participation by Gender within different ethnicities)

$H_a : \mu_G^2 \neq \mu_E^2$ (significant difference differences in stereotyping, perception and influences in sports participation by Gender within different ethnicities)

Table 6.20 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Total14	2030.053 ^a	7	290.008	10.305	.000
	Total15	1366.444 ^b	7	195.206	4.841	.000
	Total16	865.890 ^c	7	123.699	3.135	.003
Intercept	Total14	255487.521	1	255487.521	9078.069	.000
	Total15	342838.936	1	342838.936	8502.794	.000
	Total16	253557.897	1	253557.897	6426.698	.000
A1	Total14	815.374	3	271.791	9.657	.000
	Total15	226.525	3	75.508	1.873	.132
	Total16	592.969	3	197.656	5.010	.002
A2	Total14	645.234	1	645.234	22.927	.000
	Total15	70.206	1	70.206	1.741	.187
	Total16	50.712	1	50.712	1.285	.257
A1 * A2	Total14	206.890	3	68.963	2.450	.062
	Total15	137.289	3	45.763	1.135	.334
	Total16	30.354	3	10.118	.256	.857
Error	Total14	36811.536	1308	28.143		
	Total15	52739.529	1308	40.321		
	Total16	51605.620	1308	39.454		
Total	Total14	800077.000	1316			
	Total15	1160514.000	1316			
	Total16	865151.000	1316			
Corrected Total	Total14	38841.589	1315			
	Total15	54105.973	1315			
	Total16	52471.510	1315			

Note: A1(Gender) and A2(Ethnicity)

a. R Squared = .052 (Adjusted R Squared = .047); b. R Squared = .025 (Adjusted R Squared = .020); c. R Squared = .017 (Adjusted R Squared = .011).

Testing interaction and main effects

The above table 6.20 on tests between subject effects provides MANOVA results for testing interaction and main effects. The multivariate effects are shown in the above table. The statistical test confirms that there is no significant ordinal interaction effect between ethnicity and gender.

Estimating Main effects

Since the interaction effect is not significant, we proceed to estimate the significance of main effect (differences across the groups). The multivariate test table 6.33 above shows separately, gender and ethnicity have significant differences. So there is an impact of main effect by gender and ethnicity.

The univariate between-subject effects also show gender and ethnicity being significant with stereotyping, perception and influences and there is no significance in differences for gender as it shows no significant differences in perception, while ethnicity shows no significant differences in perception and influences.

Therefore the cross product of gender and ethnicity which are more primary or respondent based or individual based, which show better interactions.

Table 6.21 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics					
	Ethnicity	Sex of the student	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Stereotyping	Malay	Male	24.5258	5.63027	310
		Female	22.7061	5.15190	456
		Total	23.4426	5.42121	766
	Chinese	Male	25.3048	5.62810	105
		Female	24.6558	4.50182	154
		Total	24.9189	4.98886	259
	Indian	Male	25.7692	6.36012	104
		Female	23.9198	4.97694	162
		Total	24.6429	5.62040	266
	Others	Male	30.1176	6.37262	17
		Female	24.5294	3.64207	17
		Total	27.3235	5.84507	34
	Total	Male	25.0970	5.87835	536
		Female	23.3752	5.02594	789
		Total	24.0717	5.45084	1325

Perception on masculine and feminine values	Malay	Male	24.0806	6.10082	310
		Female	25.7500	5.85793	456
		Total	25.0744	6.00966	766
	Chinese	Male	25.1524	6.06976	105
		Female	26.5649	5.35037	154
		Total	25.9923	5.68419	259
	Indian	Male	24.3462	6.15144	104
		Female	25.3210	5.48929	162
		Total	24.9398	5.76556	266
	Others	Male	27.0000	6.98212	17
		Female	25.2941	5.59871	17
		Total	26.1471	6.29156	34
	Total	Male	24.4347	6.14706	536
		Female	25.8112	5.68626	789
		Total	25.2543	5.91348	1325
Family and society's influences	Malay	Male	23.9258	6.24974	310
		Female	25.0461	6.55929	456
		Total	24.5927	6.45517	766
	Chinese	Male	25.8476	6.54684	105
		Female	26.3052	5.43209	154
		Total	26.1197	5.90142	259
	Indian	Male	23.8654	6.03880	104
		Female	24.4568	6.16653	162
		Total	24.2256	6.11230	266
	Others	Male	25.2353	6.75952	17
		Female	25.9412	6.18941	17
		Total	25.5882	6.39184	34
	Total	Male	24.3321	6.31611	536
		Female	25.1901	6.28465	789
		Total	24.8430	6.30909	1325

Table 6.21 on descriptive statistics above shows that there is a significant difference in gender and ethnicity with stereotyping, perception and influences and there is no significance difference for gender as it shows no significant difference in perception. The table also suggests that there are no significant differences for ethnicity in perception and influences.

6.4.2 The differences in stereotyping, perception and influence by female within different ethnicities.

The tests below were carried out to establish the differences in stereotyping, perception and influences by female students within ethnicities.

Table 6.22 Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances^{a,b}

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Total1 4	1.328	3	781	.264
Total1 5	.890	3	781	.446
Total1 6	2.194	3	781	.087

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Sex of the student = Female

b. Design: Intercept + A1 + A2 + A1 * A2

Homogeneity of variances test:

H0: no between group differences (homogeneity of variances)

H1: there is between group differences (heterogeneity of variances)

The Table 6.22 above indicates the Levene's test for stereotyping that has homogeneity of variances as $F = 1.328$, $df (3, 781)$, $P\text{-value} = 0.264$ ($P > 0.05$), therefore H0 is not rejected; showing that stereotyping has homogeneity of variances. Similarly the Levene's test for perception indicated that it has homogeneity of variances as $F = 0.890$, $df (3, 781)$, $P\text{-value} = 0.446$ ($P > 0.05$), therefore H0 is not rejected, showing that perception has homogeneity of variances. Also, the Levene's test for influence shows that it has homogeneity of variances as $F = 2.194$, $df (3, 781)$, $P\text{-value} = 0.087$ ($P > 0.05$), therefore H0 is not rejected, showing that influence has homogeneity of variances.

Research Question: Is there a relationship between females within different ethnicities in stereotyping, perception on masculine and feminine values and family and society's influences in sports participation?

Hypothesis 1: There are significant differences in stereotyping, perception and influence in sports participation by female within different ethnicities.

$H_0 : \mu_F^2 = \mu_E^2$ (no differences in stereotyping, perception and influences in sports participation by Female within different ethnicities)

$H_a : \mu_F^2 \neq \mu_E^2$ (significant difference differences in stereotyping, perception and influences in sports participation by Female within different ethnicities)

Table 6.23 Tukey HSD Test on Stereotyping

Dependent Variable		(I) Ethnicity	(J) Ethnicity	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Stereotyping	Tukey HSD	Malay	Chinese	-1.9416*	.45907	.000
			Indian	-1.0593	.45365	.091
			Others	-1.8151	1.21641	.443
		Chinese	Malay	1.9416*	.45907	.000
			Indian	.8823	.55674	.388
			Others	.1264	1.25849	1.000
		Indian	Malay	1.0593	.45365	.091
			Chinese	-.8823	.55674	.388
			Others	-.7558	1.25653	.932
	Others	Malay	1.8151	1.21641	.443	
		Chinese	-.1264	1.25849	1.000	
		Indian	.7558	1.25653	.932	

The Table 6.23 above shows the results for Tukey HSD and it shows the differences in stereotyping among female students based on ethnicity.

Table 6.24 Descriptive in stereotyping

	Ethnicity	Mean	Std. Deviation	Total
Female	Malay	22.7061	5.15190	456
	Chinese	24.6558	4.50182	154

The above Table 6.24 on descriptive in stereotyping shows that there is significant difference in stereotyping between female Malay and female Chinese students (with Malay mean = 22.71, std. deviation = 5.15 while Chinese mean = 24.66, std. deviation. = 4.50).

Table 6.25 Tukey HSD Test on Perception on Masculine and Feminine Values

Dependent Variable		(I) Ethnicity	(J) Ethnicity	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Perception	Tukey HSD	Malay	Chinese	-.7214	.56500	.578
			Indian	.4420	.55833	.858
			Others	.6159	1.49710	.977
		Chinese	Malay	.7214	.56500	.578
			Indian	1.1634	.68521	.325
			Others	1.3373	1.54890	.824
		Indian	Malay	-.4420	.55833	.858
			Chinese	-1.1634	.68521	.325
			Others	.1739	1.54648	.999
		Others	Malay	-.6159	1.49710	.977
			Chinese	-1.3373	1.54890	.824
			Indian	-.1739	1.54648	.999

The above Table 6.25 shows the Tukey HSD results, and it shows that there is no significant difference in perception on masculine and feminine values in sports between female students based on ethnicity.

Table 6.26 Descriptive Table in Perception on Masculine and Feminine Values.

	Ethnicity	Mean	Std Deviation	Total
Female	Malay	25.7500	5.85793	456
	Chinese	26.5649	5.35037	154
	Indian	25.3210	5.48929	162

Table 6.26 on descriptive table in perception shows that there is no significant difference in perception on masculine and feminine values in sports between female Malay and female Chinese and also of female Indians.

Table 6.27 Tukey HSD on Family and Society's Influences on Sports Participation

Dependent Variable		(I) Ethnicity	(J) Ethnicity	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Influence	Tukey HSD	Malay	Chinese	-1.2371	.58366	.148
			Indian	.6090	.57677	.716
			Others	-.8730	1.54654	.943
		Chinese	Malay	1.2371	.58366	.148
			Indian	1.8461*	.70784	.046
			Others	.3640	1.60005	.996
		Indian	Malay	-.6090	.57677	.716
			Chinese	-1.8461*	.70784	.046
			Others	-1.4821	1.59755	.790
		Others	Malay	.8730	1.54654	.943
			Chinese	-.3640	1.60005	.996
			Indian	1.4821	1.59755	.790

Table 6.27 above shows the results for Tukey HSD and it shows that there is significant difference in family and society's influences in sports participation between female students from the different ethnic groups.

Table 6.28 Descriptive in Family and Society's Influences

	Ethnicity	Mean	Std. Deviation	Total
Female	Indian	24.4568	6.16653	162
	Chinese	26.3052	5.43209	154

Table 6.28 on descriptive in influences shows that there is significant difference in the family and society's influences in sports participation between female Chinese and female Indian students (with Indian mean = 24.46, std. deviation = 6.17 while Chinese mean = 26.31, std. deviation = 5.43).

Results:

The above outcomes show that there is a significant difference in students' views on stereotyping between female Malay and female Chinese. Neither of these groups shows any difference in perception on masculine and feminine values in sports participation and family and society's influences in sports participation. The results above also show that there is a significant difference in family and society's influences between female Chinese and female Indian. However, the results above also show that there is no significant difference in perception on masculine and feminine values in sports participation between females of any ethnicity. This is an interesting observation as the Malaysian society assumes that Malays are more conservative than the Chinese and Indians. Thus this shows that sports mean different things to different social groups. The results also means that the Malays do not attach any social stigma to sports participation as compared to the other two ethnicities. This could be argued based on our culture of equity and access.

This is due to the socialisation processes that could either build and reinforce cultural barriers or encourage participation, though no doubt today, in line with the NEP policies the Malays are seen to be dominant in any field including sports. Therefore the

social determinants that influence socialization are the family and society. In line with Figueroa's framework, these determinants can be said to be influenced by the society's beliefs about gender roles and ethnic identity. Therefore the individual's choice to participate in sports, their choice of sports and their level of achievement is influenced by the social determinants.

6.4.3 The differences in stereotyping, perception and influence by male within different ethnicities.

The tests below were carried out to establish the differences in stereotyping, perception and influences by the male students within different ethnicities

Table 6.29 Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances^{a,b}

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Stereotyping	1.378	3	527	.249
Perception	.541	3	527	.654
Influences	.332	3	527	.802

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Sex of the student = Male

b. Design: Intercept + A1 + A2 + A1 * A2

Homogeneity of variances test:

H0: no between group differences (homogeneity of variances)

H1: there is between group differences (heterogeneity of variances)

The above Table 6.29 shows that Levene's test indicates that stereotyping has homogeneity of variances as $F = 1.38$, $df (3, 527)$, $P\text{-value} = 0.23$ ($P > 0.05$), therefore H_0 is not rejected, showing homogeneity of variances in stereotyping.

Similarly Levene's test also indicates that perception on masculine and feminine values has homogeneity of variances as $F = 0.541$, $df (3, 527)$, $P\text{-value} = 0.654$ ($P > 0.05$), therefore H_0 is not rejected, showing homogeneity of variances in perception. Also Levene's test above shows that family and society's influences has homogeneity of variances as $F = 0.332$, $df (3, 527)$, $P\text{-value} = 0.802$ ($P > 0.05$), therefore H_0 is not rejected, showing homogeneity of variances in influence.

RQ: Is there a relationship between males within different ethnicities in stereotyping, perception on masculine and feminine values and family and society's influences in sports participation?

Hypothesis 1: There are significant differences in stereotyping, perception and influence in sports participation by male students within different ethnicities.

$H_0 : \mu_M^2 = \mu_E^2$ (no differences in stereotyping, perception and influences in sports participation by Male within different ethnicities)

$H_a : \mu_M^2 \neq \mu_E^2$ (significant difference differences in stereotyping, perception and influences in sports participation by Male within different ethnicities).

Table 6.30 Tukey HSD Test on Stereotyping

Dependent Variable		(I) Ethnicity	(J) Ethnicity	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Stereotyping	Tukey HSD	Malay	Chinese	-.7818	.66048	.637
			Indian	-1.2799	.66287	.216
			Others	-5.6713*	1.49328	.001
		Chinese	Malay	.7818	.66048	.637
			Indian	-.4980	.80957	.927
			Others	-4.8894*	1.56393	.010
		Indian	Malay	1.2799	.66287	.216
			Chinese	.4980	.80957	.927
			Others	-4.3914*	1.56494	.027
		Others	Malay	5.6713*	1.49328	.001
			Chinese	4.8894*	1.56393	.010
			Indian	4.3914*	1.56494	.027

The Tukey test from table 6.30 above shows that there is no significance difference in stereotyping between male students of different ethnicity, except for others but the sample size of others is small to make a difference.

Table 6.31 Tukey HSD Test on Perception

Dependent Variable		(I) Ethnicity	(J) Ethnicity	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Perception	Tukey HSD	Malay	Chinese	-1.0371	.76620	.529
			Indian	-.1016	.76897	.999
			Others	-3.4554	1.73229	.191
		Chinese	Malay	1.0371	.76620	.529
			Indian	.9355	.93915	.752
			Others	-2.4183	1.81425	.542
		Indian	Malay	.1016	.76897	.999
			Chinese	-.9355	.93915	.752
			Others	-3.3538	1.81543	.252
		Others	Malay	3.4554	1.73229	.191
			Chinese	2.4183	1.81425	.542
			Indian	3.3538	1.81543	.252

The above Table 6.31 on perceptions shows that there is no significant difference in perceptions on masculine and feminine values in sports among male students in different ethnicity.

Table 6.32 Tukey HSD Test on Influences

Dependent Variable		(I) Ethnicity	(J) Ethnicity	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Influence	Tukey HSD	Malay	Chinese	-1.9242*	.71581	.037
			Indian	.0386	.71840	1.000
			Others	-1.4002	1.61836	.823
		Chinese	Malay	1.9242*	.71581	.037
			Indian	1.9628	.87738	.115
			Others	.5240	1.69493	.990
		Indian	Malay	-.0386	.71840	1.000
			Chinese	-1.9628	.87738	.115
			Others	-1.4387	1.69603	.831
		Others	Malay	1.4002	1.61836	.823
			Chinese	-.5240	1.69493	.990
			Indian	1.4387	1.69603	.831

The above Tukey HSD Table 6.32 shows that there is a significant difference in family and society's influence between male Malay students and male Chinese students.

Results:

It is observed that although there are no significant differences between males in different ethnicities in stereotyping and perception, it is revealed that there is a significant difference in family and society's influence in sports participation between Malay male and Chinese male students. This could be based on the Malay and Chinese social and cultural attitudes. This shows that stereotypes bring about overgeneralized characterisation of Malays compared to Chinese. The stereotypical view would be that the Malays are generally considered to be more conservative and traditional in their family value system.

Therefore the stereotypes opinions of the Malay Male assume that all Malays will think and behave in the same way.

6.5 Discussion, Analysis and Conclusion

This chapter shows that sports participation by students based on gender and ethnicity shows very interesting results. This chapter is important as it gives a new insight to schools, parents, school children and government officials who have a keen interest in sports to understand Malaysian students' participation in sports based on gender and ethnicity and also gender within various ethnicities.

This chapter analysed each research question and hypotheses and the tables below (6.33, 6.34 and 6.35) show the summary of hypotheses and the outcome of the results in sports participation.

Table 6.33 Gender Analysis of the Results of the Hypothesis

Hypothesis	Results
1. There is a significant difference in male and female's view of people's perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation.	Significant Male > Female
2. There is a significant difference in male and female's view of overall students' perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation.	Significant Female > Male
3. There is a significant difference in male and female's view of family and society's influence on sports participation.	Significant Female > Male

Table 6.33 above on gender analysis shows the hypothesis results for the statistical analysis of independent T-test by gender. All predictors were significant.

Hypothesis 1 which states that there is a significant difference in male and female's view of people's perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation was supported. This shows that gender had statistical significant effect on male and female's views of people's perception of stereotyping in sports participation. The results illustrates

that the nature of relationship shows average sports stereotyping for male was greater than average sports stereotyping for females. In the previous research there were results which showed that as children grow up they seem to have a better idea on what is gender stereotype and are able to allocate the types of activities suitable to the respective gender category. It has been researched that children are more flexible in their perception of gender during their middle childhood but their cognizance of gender stereotype persists ((Liben, Bigler & Krogh, 2001)). Children who turn into teenagers find that their firm belief of what is correct gender behaviour according to the respective gender is further reinforced (Liben, Bigler & Krogh, 2001).

Hypothesis 2 which states that there is a significant difference in male and female's view of overall student's perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation were supported. This shows that gender had statistical significant effect on male and female's view of overall student's perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation. The result shows that the nature of relationship shows average student's perception on masculine and feminine values in sports for male is lower than average student's perception on masculine and feminine values in sports for female. This is similar to the previous research where it was found that secondary school student valued strength and masculinity to be more important especially amongst the girls (Klomsten, Marsh & Skaalvik, 2005). The same research showed that boys would probably participate in traditional masculine sports and girls in the traditional feminine sports as it was found that perception of a sport as masculine, feminine or suitable for both genders affect the awareness of whether it was perceived to be possible for boys, girls or both genders (Klomsten, Marsh & Skaalvik, 2005). A probable reason is that it is commonly more conventional for women to cross over into traditional masculine territories than for men to participate in traditional feminine sports (Palan, 2001).

Hypothesis 3 which states that there is a significant difference in male and female's view of family and society's influence on sports participation was supported. This shows that gender had statistical significant effect on male and female's view of family and society's influence on sports participation. The results demonstrate that the nature of relationship shows average influence of family and society for male is lower than average influence of family and society for female in sports participation. This is in line with the idea that gender-role socialization has an important influence on sports' attitudes and that the gender socialization process may be different for men and women, bringing about different manifestations of each gender variable (Eccles & Harold, 1991; Spence, 1993).

The overall results support previous researchers (Cash et al., 1994; Gill & Overdorf, 1994; Koivula, 1999) who have found that males and females have significant differences in sports participation. Previous researches findings show that it is the society's expectations of what amounts to proper and right action for men and women based on beliefs about the physical attributes and capabilities of men and women that produces these stereotyped behaviours (Eagly, 1987; Eagly and Wood, 1999; Eagly et al, 2000). This is supported in hypothesis 1. Other research such as Mc Clung and Blinde (2002) supports this current finding.

The research showed that stereotypes existed according to societal perceptions such as tomboy or masculine or even lesbian. Their results showed that although women's sports participation had increased they were still motivated by society's belief and acceptance of women in sports. This is supported by the results in hypothesis 2. Which affirms that women who participated in sports decide to exclude themselves from gender stereotyping as for feminism as a perspective has been held negatively by the society. This clearly is related to issues with regards to patriarchy in society and its prevalence in influencing female sports participation. Hypothesis 3 supports previous research where the two

important agents of sport socialisation for young females are family and peers (Greendorfer, 1974) and another important agent that was discovered which coaches were (Greendorfer 1977).

Table 6.34 Ethnic Analysis of the Results of the Hypothesis

Hypothesis	Results
1. There is a significant difference in Malay, Chinese, Indian and Other students' view of people's perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation.	Significant: 1. Malay & Chinese (<i>Chinese > Malay</i>) 2. Malay & Indian (<i>Indian > Malay</i>)
1. There is a significant difference in Malay, Chinese, Indian and Other ethnicities of overall student's perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation.	Not significant
2. There is a significant difference in Malay, Chinese, Indian and Other students' family and society's influence on sports participation	Significant: 1. Malay & Chinese <i>Chinese > Malay</i> 2. Chinese & Indian <i>Chinese > Indians</i>

Table 6.34 above on ethnic analysis shows the hypothesis results for the statistical analysis of ANOVA by ethnicity. Not all predictors were significant.

Hypothesis 1 which states that there is a significant difference in Malay, Chinese, Indian and Other students' view of people's perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation was supported. This shows that ethnicity had statistical significant effect in Malay, Chinese, Indian and other students' view of people's perception of stereotyping in sports participation. The results show the significant difference in stereotyping is between the Malay and Chinese students, Chinese respondents are showing more inclination to be more agreeable to the statements posted compared to Malays. Similarly there is significant difference in stereotyping between Indians and Malays. Indians seem to be more agreeable to the fact that students view on people's perception of stereotyping does impact sports participation compared to the Malays. There is no

significant difference in the perception of stereotyping between Malays and others. There is also no significant difference between the Chinese perception of stereotyping and Indian perception and similarly, the difference seems insignificant between Chinese, Indian and Others. The results also recorded that the difference between the major ethnic groups and others were insignificant. This was possibly because of the significantly smaller number of others compared to the major ethnic groups in the sample of respondents.

Hypothesis 2 which states that there is a significant difference in Malay, Chinese, Indian and Other ethnic group of overall student's perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation was rejected. This shows that ethnicity did not have statistical significant effect in Malay, Chinese, Indian and Other ethnic groups of overall student's perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation.

Hypothesis 3 which states that there is a significant difference in Malay, Chinese, Indian and Other students' family and society's influence on sports participation was supported. This shows that ethnicity had statistical significant effect in Malay, Chinese, Indian and Other students' family and society's influence on sports participation. The result shows a significant difference between Malay and Chinese on influences of family and society in sports participation, Chinese showing more inclination to be more agreeable to the statements posted compared to Malays. Similarly the Chinese seem to be more agreeable to the fact that family and society does influence students participation in sports compared to the Indians. There is also no significant difference between the Malay students on family and society's influence in sports participation and Indian students' family and society influence. The difference between the major ethnic groups and others are insignificant as this result may have been due to the significantly smaller number of others in the sample of respondents compared to the major ethnic groups of respondents.

The above overall results partially support previous research that there seems to be differences in sport participation based on ethnicity (Elling & Knoppers, 2005). It has to be noted however, the results by Coakley (1990) was hypothesised in the context of African American high school student-athletes and their Caucasian counterparts. This would be different here as there were four groups of ethnicities that were considered that is Malays, Chinese, Indians and others.

Table 6.35 Analysis of Gender within various Ethnic Groups of the Results of the Hypothesis

Hypothesis: Gender within various Ethnic Groups	Results	
	Female	Male
1. There is a significant difference in students' view of people's perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation by gender within various ethnic groups.	Significant Malay & Chinese	Not significant
2. There is a significant difference in the view of overall student's perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation by gender within various ethnic groups.	Not significant	Not significant
3. There is a significant difference in family and society's influence on sports participation by gender within various ethnic groups.	Significant Chinese & Indian	Significant Malay & Chinese

Table 6.35 above on gender analysis within various groups shows the hypothesis results for the statistical analysis of MANOVA by gender within various ethnic groups. Not all predictors were significant

Hypothesis 1 which states that there is a significant difference in students' view of people's perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation by gender within various ethnic groups was partially supported. This shows that there was a statistical significant difference in student's views on stereotyping between female Malay and female Chinese. However the results also show that there was no statistical significant difference in

student's views on stereotyping between males in various ethnic groups here Malays, Chinese, Indians or Others.

Hypothesis 2 which states that there is a significant difference in the view of overall student's perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation by gender within various ethnic groups was rejected. This shows that there were no statistical significant differences in student's perception of masculine and feminine values in sport participation by females or males in various ethnic groups (Malays, Chinese, Indians and others).

Hypothesis 3 which states that there is a significant difference in family and society's influence on sports participation by gender within various ethnicities is supported. This result shows that there were statistical differences in family and society's influences between female Chinese and female Indian and also Malay male and Chinese male.

This is interesting to note that previous researcher have found that socialisation agents are families, siblings, peers, teachers and coaches, who have influence and impact on the way people learn and the perspective from which they perceive the world around them (Messner, 2002). However, it was in the context of gender and socialisation agents but not in relation to gender within ethnicities, therefore this research's finding would be unique.

Perhaps the closest research that could be related to this would be the findings that stereotypes are not only related to young girls learning but young boys also learn through cultural observations about what their roles are in relation to girls or women and what is their expectation towards female behaviour (Ziegler, 2006). These cultural stereotypes cause female athletes to look at themselves as "different" and having adversative qualities on and off the field (Harris 1980). This would be related as the various ethnic groups in Malaysia come from different cultural background and experiences. One of the most

important parts of Malaysian students' lives is the nature of relationship with others in the school. Perhaps this is where the results establish there exists a relationship between gender within ethnicities and family and social influences. From the analysis of gender and ethnicity, it was established that coaches play an important influence with school childrens' sports participation. This shows there exists societal influences with male and female students of various ethnicities and how it impacts on sports participation. From the above it is noted that where the results show statistical significant differences, this means that these differences may carry significant consequences or effect in sports participation in Malaysian schools that should be taken into consideration.

However there were some limitations in this research as the sample was taken from an urban context in the Klang Valley in Malaysia. Therefore, there may be limitations in generalising the outcome of the results to those who may experience different routines in their daily life in other states in Malaysia.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, IMPLICATION AND DIRECTION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

7.1 Objective of Research

The main objective of this research is to find out if there is a relationship between gender typing, ethnicity in gender typing, gender stereotyping of sports and sports participation in a selection of upper secondary students in the Klang Valley in Malaysia. In doing this, gender typing of sports, perceptions on masculine and feminine values and also family and society's influences in sports participation are necessary to be included in this research. This chapter is designed to summarise and conclude the preceding chapters in a logical and consistent conclusion. The results of the research questions will be looked into again, implication presented and suggestions for further research in this field are provided.

7.2 Summary of Findings

The primary objective of this study is to examine gender typing in sports participation by gender (boys and girls) to see if there is any difference in male and female responses to gender typing of sports and to identify if there exists gender typing of sports within various ethnic groups (Malay, Chinese, Indians) Further this study also examined and determined the differences of students' views of people's perception on gender stereotyping of sports participation and impact on sports participation by gender and ethnicity, the students perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation by gender and ethnicity and the extent of family and society's influence on students' participation in sports by gender and ethnicity. The study also investigated difference in students views of gender stereotyping in sports participation, students perception of

masculine and feminine values in sports participation and family and society's influences in sports participation by gender within various ethnic groups.

This research uses a quantitative approach and the data is obtained from questionnaires which contribute in answering the research questions. There are three main questions which are identified at the beginning of this research.

The first question uses descriptive analysis which is in relation to gender typing in sports and the second question uses Chi-square in relation to gendertyping and ethnicity. The third question uses independent T-test and ANOVA techniques to establish the relationship between gender and stereotyping, perception and societal influence and also to establish the relationship between ethnicity and stereotyping, perception and societal influence respectively. This is further divided into six research questions. The fourth question uses MANOVA technique to establish the relationship gender within various ethnicities. This is the ninth research question.

7.2.1 Gender Typing of Sports by Gender

(1) Research Question: Are there gender differences in students engaged in gender typing of sports?

Firstly, the answer to this research question is reflected through descriptive analysis. A frequency test was undertaken to show what the relevant sports are considered by the respondents to be suitable for both genders, boys or girls. This is irrespective of the gender of the respondents.

There is a list of 29 types of sports provided and the respondents were asked to identify the types of sports suitable for boys, girls and both genders. Further they were also asked if

they participated in any of those 29 types of sports. Reasons were also asked if they did not participate in any form of sports.

The results show that 80.2% stated that wrestling is for boys out of which 76% of the boys felt it was suitable for boys and 83.9% of the girls felt it was suitable for the boys, while 74% stated that ballet is for girls out of which 73.8% of the boys felt it was suitable for the girls and 74.3% of the girls felt it was suitable for the girls. An overall of 56.6% felt netball was suitable for girls, out of which 62.8% of the boys felt netball was a sport suitable for girls while only 49.4% of the girls felt it was suitable for girls. A total of 68.2% stated that football was for boys out of which 63.7% of the boys stated it was a boys sports while 72.2% of the girls stated it was a boys sports.

About 69% stated that cheerleading are for girls out of which 70.9% of the boys stated it was a girls sports and 68.9% of the girls stated it was a girls sports, 71.5% stated that rhythmic gymnastics are for girls out of which 65.8% of the boys stated it was a girls sports and 76.5% of the girls stated it was a girls sports.

The findings also reflected that the highest percentage of sports participated by boys was badminton at 45.1% followed by football at 44.7%. The highest percentage participated by girls was badminton at 51.6%. Overall 81.3% of the boys were involved in various types of sports and 72.2% of the girls were involved in various types of sports.

This shows that both boys and girls had almost similar views about the types of sports which were suitable for boys, girls and both genders. Looking at the top ten sports chosen by both boys and girls in each category, it is found that both boys and girls viewed almost similarly that sports such as wrestling, football, basketball, *silat*, softball, kayaking/canoeing, hockey, karate and golf were suitable for boys, with the exception that boys included bicycling as a sport suitable for boys and girls included archery as a sport suitable for boys. In the next category of the top ten types of sports most suitable for girls,

both boys and girls responses were almost similar in that the boys and girls included ballet, cheerleading, rhythmic gymnastics, netball, aerobics, dancing, gymnastics and volleyball. The difference in the choices was that boys included *silat* and softball while the girls included ice-skating and squash to be the types of sports suitable for girls.

Based on the top 80% response rate, it is found that both boys and girls listed sports such as badminton, swimming, jogging or running, tennis, walking, squash, taekwondo, ping pong, and diving, ice-skating to be the type of sports suitable for both genders. In addition to this in the top 80% response rate, the boys further included bicycling, karate and hockey.

There was further subsequently a cross analysis test of gender of the students and the type of sports were discussed. Both males and females students seem to have similar ideas about what sport should be played by boys and what should be played by girls. For examples boys and the girls that wrestling, football, basketball, *silat*, kayaking were types of sports suitable for boys and ballet, rhythmic gymnastics, cheerleading, netball, aerobics were types of sports suitable for girls and further tennis, badminton, swimming, jogging or running, walking, taekwondo and ping pong were suitable for both genders. Therefore, this output showed that students are engaged in gender typing of sports. Perhaps this could be due to their upbringing and what they used to watching on television.

In 1965 as mentioned in this thesis, Methany came up with a list of sports that were gender-typed. This research differs from the previous research (Colley, Nash, O'Donnell & Restorick 1987; Koivula 1995; Matteo 1986, Metheny 1967) in that in the original scale where previous researches used university respondents and adults compared to as this research that used school children from the age of 15-18 years as respondents and are from different ethnic backgrounds which is unique to Malaysia. In 2001, a study by Koivula on university students (Koivula, 2001) found that sports such as tennis, volleyball and

swimming were viewed as suitable for both genders, gymnastics, and aerobics were considered suitable for girls while baseball, soccer, and football were considered suitable for boys. The research conducted by Koivula (2001) also discovered that the choice of sports was decided by perceiving the purpose of the sports and it was also concluded that what is gender typed in sports is decided by social definitions of sex-appropriateness (Koivula, 2001). Therefore, it is worth noting that the above choices may change in the future because the construction of gender is founded on historical, social and cultural determination and this is subject to change when the society develops socially and politically.

From the above research, it seems to suggest that the students in the selected urban secondary schools in Malaysia practised less gender-typing of sports as compared to studies in the western context. Therefore, on the whole, boys and girls in secondary school were able to decide clearly on the sports that were considered to be suitable for boys, girls or for both genders.

7.2.2 Gender Typing of Sports by Ethnicity

(2) Research Question: Do the various ethnicities associate differently in the practice of gender typing of the sports?

This research question was answered with Chi-Square statistical analysis. There were a list of 29 types of sports provided and the respondents by ethnicity were asked to identify type of sports which were suitable for boys, girls and both genders. The findings reveals that although some type of sports show that the cross tabulation may have shown a systematic association, the Chi-Square determined that there were significant association between ethnicity and gender typing of sports. Sports such as ice-sking, tennis, wrestling, golf, ballet, aerobics, diving, kayaking/canoeing, volleyball, netball, basketball, football,

dancing, cheerleading, hockey, gymnastics, rhythmic gymnastics, bicycling, ping pong, badminton, squash and *silat* shows that there are significant association within the various ethnic groups. However, no significant associations are recorded in karate, softball, swimming, jogging or running, walking, archery and taekwondo. Therefore, a majority of sports presented in the questionnaire (22 types of sports) show significant association between ethnicities and gender typing of sports (except those listed just above) it can be said that different ethnicity associate different sports with different gender.

The findings also demonstrate that there are systematic associations between the Malays, Chinese and Indians that are statistically significant. These various ethnic groups viewed that certain sports to be most suitable for males for example karate, golf, walking, jogging or running, diving, kayaking/canoeing, volleyball, softball, volleyball, football, hockey, gymnastics, bicycling, archery, taekwondo and badminton. The sports that were most suitable for females were ballet; dancing, cheerleading and rhythmic gymnastics and sports most suitable for both genders were wrestling and aerobics The remaining sports such as ice-skating, tennis, swimming, netball, basketball, ping pong, squash and *silat* showed that there were no systematic association between the various ethnicities.

Despite some patriarchal evidence (where the Chinese scored a little higher than the Indians and Malays) in the results of ethnicity and gender-typing of sports, the overall results did not reflect the conservative traditions, cultural and religious practises that upholds gender based differentiations and which requires both the genders to conform to the expected gender norms.

7.3 Gender and Ethnicity Analysis

An analysis is undertaken in order to examine and determine the differences of students view of peoples' perception on gender stereotyping, students perception of masculine and feminine values in sports and family and society's influences in sports participation by gender . secondly examine and determine the differences between ethnicity and peoples' perception on gender stereotyping, students perception of masculine and feminine values in sports and family and society's influences in sports participation by ethnicity.

7.3.1 Gender Analysis of Gender Stereotyping, Masculine and Feminine Values and Family and Society's Influence on Sports Participation.

To establish the difference between gender and students views of peoples' perception of stereotyping in sports participation, gender and students' perception on masculine and feminine values in sports participation and also gender and family and society's influences in sports participation the following research question was tested.

(3) Research Question: Does Gender Influence Student' Views of People's Perception of Stereotyping in Sports Participation?

The findings show that more students viewed that peoples' perception on gender stereotyping did affect sports participation. Under independent T-test analyses, the null hypothesis was rejected. This shows that there is significant difference in male and females view of peoples perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation. There was a greater degree of average sports stereotyping for males compared to females. Gender differences or gender typing could be natural actions and also related to environmental influences (Wood & Eagly 2012). It has been found that females participate less in motor

activities from childhood (Hines, 2004). Studies have also discovered that gender differentiating have played an important role in the performance of children (Kinsle et al., 2009) in that females are less encouraged to participate in sports. This has also played a role in contributing to boys and girls participation in physical education classes at school (Chen & Darst, 2002) and also as to which gender has a higher perception in sporting capability (Biddle, Atkins, Cavill & Foster, 2011; Fredricks & Eccles, 2005). Granted, that there exists gender differences physically but it is not satisfactory to explain the gender differences perceived in sports participation and performance.

Social Psychology of stereotypes is defined as common beliefs about the individual characteristics, and also conducts of a certain group of people (Leyens, Yzerbyt & Schadron 1994). Therefore it can be deduced that social beliefs gives birth to social reality. In other words, it is because people belief that gender differences in sport exist therefore, in fact it can be socially observed!

In the past, gender issues related to sports have been investigated along the line of gender typing of sports which examines sporting activities that are considered to be more appropriate for males, females and both genders and how does gender stereotyping encourages or discourages sports participation. It was further established that poses of females in sports were pictured more prominently rather than active shots; this meant that femininity was emphasized instead of their sports abilities. Female athletes who were pictured mainly was in traditional sports which were perceived to be feminine such as rhythmic gymnastics and figure skating and it was also inferred it could have been because of their revealing costumes or that they looked good in these outfits (Fink and Kensicki, 2002). Although women may have been covered in the media such as television, it was found that the coverage was for individual sports rather than female team sports (Alexander, 1994).

The findings show that female athletes were pictured most for tennis, this was because tennis was perceived to be more feminine in that the way the female athletes dress were sexually appealing than other sports, this is despite the dramatic increase of females competing in sports at all levels in international, professional and collegiate level. This could be attributed to male hegemony in that the media was always male dominated and this was shown in their poor perceptions and evaluation of female athletes. Therefore if ever the females were covered in the media it was not because that they were recognized as central figures but merely as an afterthought, or unless they were dressed femininely (Kane & Greendorfer, 1994).

In the United States, it found that female athletes were sidelined by limiting the amount and type of coverage and the reasoning was because females were inferior when compared to male athletes and when they were pictured or covered it was because of their femininity rather than their success in sports (Lumpkin, A., & Williams, L. D. (1991). The literature above reaffirms that in America, African Americans and Females were not treated equitably although legally there were recognized as equals and discrimination was not socially desirable, however, more coverage were given to European American males.

Looking back, men have always been related to the professional sports industry. This has resulted in men dominating sports as they were and still are the main players and consumer or spectators of sports. This allows them to decide on the types of programs in relation to sports that is projected and made visible by the media. Clearly this further aggravates and encourages gender stereotypes in sports. It leads to women being discouraged from full participation (Johnstone & Millar, 1992). The serious challenges would be that women have faced great difficulty in obtaining corporate sponsorship. Compared to their male counterparts, these sportswomen receive a lower income. In order to triumph over this, there should be directives on equity content programming. Money

earned through spectators should be invested back into the society particularly to address equity in sports programmes starting from the school level and also in educating students by creating greater awareness on the negative implications of gender stereotyping in sports. Addressing gender stereotyping in the education system is an extremely important step that needs to be taken at the school level in order to facilitate greater participation of females in sports.

The results clearly showed that different gender seem to think differently in terms of peoples perception of gender stereotyping in sports participation. This may be the reason for male students to lean towards sprots so called meant for male while female students to sprots meant for them.

(4) Research Question: Does Gender Influence Student's Perception of Masculine and Feminine Values in Sports Participation?

The findings show that gender does influence student's perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation. The independent T-test analysis was used and the answer reflected that there is a significant difference in male and females view of overalls students' perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation. The significant difference show that gender have different perception of masculine and feminine values in sports. The boys' perception on masculine and feminine values in sports is lower than the girls' perception on masculine and feminine values in sports. This supports the choice made by students in answering Research Question 1 (Are students engaged in gender typing of sports) and Research Question 2 (Do various ethnicities engage differently in the practice of gender typing of sports) in that gendertyping and the different ethnicities engage differently in the practice of gendertyping of the sports.

The problem with this assumption is that performance discrepancies are attributed to physiology. Therefore, the expression, “you throw like a girl”, which has been echoed by numerous coaches would be ignorance on the part of the coaches. In a research done in Arizona State University, boys and girls were asked to throw with their weak hands and neither group could throw the balls significantly (Cochrane, Hoffman and Kincaid, 1977) so to relate physiological weakness to gender is unfair. Therefore, it is paramount to work on increasing female participation in sports.

In previous research undertaken in relation to sports based on gender construction according to masculine and feminine values, it was found that males in colleges strongly followed a traditional notion about gender roles and that they were reluctant to participate in sports that were not considered to be masculine (Matteo, 1986). However, the same research found that women were less likely to follow the traditional ideas about gender roles in sports even though they strongly followed gender roles (Matteo, 1986). It was found that these young women were willing to take a leap outside this notion of feminine sports and even ventured bravely to try masculine sports (Matteo, 1986). It was suggested in the study that it was perhaps because masculine sports were considered to be important in the United States (Matteo, 1986).

A later research had revealed that secondary school children valued strength and masculinity to be more important than femininity (Klomsten, Marsh & Skaalvik, 2005). The same research showed that boys would probably participate in traditional masculine sports and girls in the traditional feminine sports as it was found that perception of a sport as masculine, feminine or suitable for both genders affect the awareness of whether it was perceived to be possible for boys, girls or both genders (Klomsten, Marsh & Skaalvik, 2005) to participate in it. The findings however shows that girls would tend to adhere more

too masculine and feminine values in sports participation compared to boys where the socialization of girls to conform to gender norms are higher in the Malaysian school context.

It must be appreciated that socialization is a complex and life long process and therefore the girls in the Malaysia internalise cultural values and norms from an Eastern and Asian perspective. This is because in the everyday life of a Malaysian school girl, it is expected that they see themselves as part of the cultural norms as any member of the society might. This is based on the theory of social behaviorism that explains the development of individual's personality through the social experience (Mead, 1934). This however institutionalizes the girls in a controlled environment without the capacity for independence living. Therefore the issue here would be that socialization crushes the individuality of a school girl rather than empowering her interest in sports participation.

(5) Research Question: Does Gender impact Family and Society's Influence on Student's Participation in Sports?

The findings demonstrate that there is a significant difference in the male and females view of family and society influence on sports participation.. The independent T-test analysed showed that family and society's influence were greater in females than males. This significant difference indicated that male students view family and society's influence on sports differently compared to female students. However, the gender inequality faced by women in sports has been in existence for a very long time and will also take time to be addressed for the obstacles are not only at the level of access and opportunity made available but also at the level of entry and participation which is also governed by culture, religion and ideology which influences attitude of family and society. Besides, it also informs norms and values about female participation in sports. Society

shapes the way we think, feel and act. Like the actors in a stage, human beings too influenced by the directorial forces. A society is a make up of culture that brings about class, ethnicity and gender. As social creatures governed by political processes, one is never free absolutely. However, although the society does shape life, the persons affected can be free from influences to do what is believed to be right and not to be dictated in an oppressive manner.

This will allow girls to be free to allow their dreams and aspirations to be achieved in sports participation. Mead (1934) believed that society makes demands on its people and sometimes limiting their options to be spontaneous in their choices. Mead (1934) also believed that human being were capable to be creative to act on the society's demand and yet to bring about the change as human beings have the capacity to evaluate, criticize but ultimately to choose and change.

7.3.2 Ethnicity Analysis of Gender Stereotyping, Masculine and Feminine Values and Family and Society's Influences on Sports Participation.

To establish the difference between ethnicity and students views of peoples' perception of stereotyping in sports participation, ethnicity and students perception on masculine and feminine values in sports participation and also ethnicity and family and society's influences in sports participation the following research questions were tested.

(6) Research Question: Does Ethnicity Influence Students' View of People's Perception of Stereotyping in Sports Participation?

The findings show that there are significant differences between some of the ethnic groups. An ANOVA analysis was conducted and the results show that there is a significant difference between Malay and Chinese students on stereotyping and Malay and Indian students on stereotyping. It is noted that the Chinese and Indian students when compared to

Malays were more agreeable that the students views of peoples stereotyping does influence sports participation. However, no significant difference between Malay and Others was observed. With regards to the views by Chinese and Indians and also others, there are no significant differences between all the three ethnic groups. Therefore this showed that there is a significant difference in Malay, Chinese, Indian students view of people's perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation. This means that there is a significant difference in the opinion of students of different ethnicity with regards to people's perception of gender stereotyping in sports participation in that the Chinese stereotype more than Malays and Indians stereotype more than the Malays. Previous research (Carroll & Hollinshead, 1993; Taylor et al, 1999; Johnson, 2000; Tirone & Pedlar, 2000) which was undertaken in relation to cultural and ethnic differences in the support of sports participation or physical activity showed conflicting findings. One research suggested that adolescents (teenagers) from different ethnic backgrounds did face different barriers and the research suggested that the reason for each group should be looked into separately (Sallis et al. 2000).

More recent research (Dwyer et al, 2006) however have suggested that the participants (here adolescents too) had similar perception of their limitations to sports participation but the solution given by the participants as to how to overcome the limitation differed. This research although conducted in Canada would prove useful for my research in Malaysia which explores differences in the views of boys and girls from different ethnic background on their participation in sports as this has not been yet researched. This allows for my research which has an ethnically diverse participation to be more generalizable.

In the western society, literature reviews suggest that it is not uncommon to be faced with ethnic/cultural barrier and concerns in gender and physical activity in relation to female from south Asian communities (Carroll & Hollinshead, 1993; Johnson, 2000; Tirone

& Pedlar, 2000). There are researchers (Taylor et al, 1999; Tirone & Pedlar, 2000) who have suggested that the barriers to sports participation by these women are due to adaptation of what is culturally acceptable and one researcher suggest that it is due to negative attitudes towards sports participation (Porter, 2002). Therefore academic excellence and family commitments are imparted on them instead of pursuing their own interests and needs (Gallop & Dolan, 1981; Lyons, 1990; Figueroa, 1993). It was further established that ethnicity ideologies played a role in the way African Americans were portrayed in the media.

The ethnicity ideology perceives that white American winnings or success in sports is due to their character, intellect and organization, whilst the black Americans perceived success in sports is due to their biological strength and natural ability and unfortunately not attributing their success to hard work which allows for more credit (Davis, 1990; Johnson, Hallinan, & Westerfield, 1999; Murrell & Curtis, 1994; Rainville & Mc Cormick, 1977; Sabo & Jensen, 1994). However, the dominance of females in sports in the media has always been because of negativity, for example their negative portrayal through the prominence of their physical attractiveness instead of their athletic accomplishments (Daddario, 1994; Duncan, 1990, 1993; Duncan & Messner, 1998; Kinkema & Harris, 1998).

(7) Research Question: Does Ethnicity Influence Students' Perception of Masculine and Feminine Values in Sports Participation?

The findings show that there are no significant differences in Malay, Chinese and Indian on overall students perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation. . This means that the Malays and Chinese, the Malays and Indians, the Chinese and Indians and the major ethnic groups and other ethnic group's views are not

significantly different. This means that the major ethnic groups are similar in their perception on masculine and feminine values in sports participation. Thus the Malays, Chinese and Indians students do not perceive that there exists a masculine and feminine value on sports participation. Therefore students from all 3 ethnic groups are not influenced by students' perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation. This could be due to the fact that all schools that participated were located in predominantly urban areas. This by itself allows the respondents with numerous opportunities for community based sport participation.

Other researchers have observed that there are ample opportunities to participate in out side of school sports are more predominant in higher income urban communities (Fredricks & Eccles, 2008). This could be due to or can be assumed that these students who are unable to play or uninterested in school sports have many choices to participate out side of the school.

(8) Research Question: Does Ethnicity Impact on Family and Society's Influence on Student's Participation in Sports?

The findings show that there is a significant difference in Malay, Chinese, Indian on students' family and society's influence on sports participation. There is a significant difference in the opinion of students of different ethnicity with regards to family and society influence in sports participation. The findings established that Chinese are more influenced than the Malays. Therefore the Chinese were more agreeable than the Malays that family and society's influence did impact sports participation. Significant differences are also found between the Chinese and Indians. The Chinese were more influenced than the Indians therefore this means that the Chinese were more agreeable that family and

society's influence impacted sports participation that the Indians . There are no significant differences between the Malays and Indians. These points to the fact that Chinese and Indians tend to view that family and society can influence their sports participation. They also rely on support from family and society more than the Malays for sports participation this can be due to lesser institutional support or that the Malays get more support from other institutions and do not rely on familial or societal support for sports participation. This is in reference to the the NEP policies that encourages preferential treatments and affirmative actions for the Malay socio and economic development.

7.4 Gender within Ethnic Group Analysis

To establish the relationship by gender within various ethnic groups in the students views of peoples' perception of stereotyping in sports participation, students perception on masculine and feminine values in sports participation and also family and society's influences in sports participation the following research questions were tested.

(9) Research Question: Is there a difference in students view of people's perception on gender stereotyping, students perception on masculine and feminine values , and family and society's influences in sports participation by gender (Male and Female) within various ethnic groups (Malay, Chinese, Indian and Others)?

The findings show that there is a significant different in students view of people perception of stereotyping and its impact on sports participation by gender within various ethnic groups. Based on Tukey's HSD it showed that female Malay and female Chinese show a significant difference in stereotyping in that malay females practised less stereotyping than Chinese females. However there were no significant difference in male stereotyping in that the Malay male and Chinese male did not show any significant

difference in stereotyping. It is also found that although there was a significant difference in family and society's influence in sports participation between Malay male and Chinese male, the female from both groups did not show a significant difference.

There was a significant difference in the view of overall students' perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation by gender within the various ethnic groups (Malay, Chinese or Indian).

Based on Tukey's HSD there was no significant difference on female students perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation within various ethnic groups and the same result was report on male students perception of masculine and feminine values in sports participation within various ethnic group.

There was a significant difference in family and society's influence on sports participation by gender within various ethnic groups. Based on Tukey's HSD the females showed significant influence in that the Chinese females showed that family and society influences sports participation more than Indian females. However based on the Tukey's HSD on males showed significant influence in that Malay males perceive less influence from family and society in sports participation compared to Chinese males.

When a gender and ethnic analysis is done the findings becomes much more complex where there was a significant difference in stereotyping by ethnicity and gender for Malay and Chinese females but not for males. Besides that Chinese and Indian females also showed a significant difference in family and society's influence in sports participation. Both this dependent variables (stereotyping and family and society's influences) tend to impact females more than it does males predominantly amongst the Chinese.

The nearest research as mentioned in Chapter 6 above would be the result by Ziegler that stereotypes are not only related to young girls learning but young boys also learn through cultural observations about what their roles are in relation to girls or women

and what is their expectation towards female behaviour (Ziegler, 2006). Female athletes look at themselves as “different” and having adversative qualities on and off the field due to cultural stereotypes (Harris 1980). This would be related as the various ethnic groups in Malaysia come from different cultural background and experiences. One of the most important parts of Malaysian students’ lives is the nature of relationship with others in the school.

It is in the school where the students from various ethnic back ground come together and this was the reason the Stratified sampling was undertaken as it allows for the selection of people based from distinct sub-groups within the society. Despite the urban setting such as these schools where relatively there is a similar demographic profiles in the same community, the results show that there still exists stereotyping by Malay and Chinese females compared to their male counterparts and the Chinese females were more heavily influenced by their family and society as compared to their male counterparts.

Table 7.1 Summary of Results on Hypotheses Test of Research Model

Hypothesis and Hypothesised Path	T-Value and P-Value	Decisions	Descriptive Statistics	Nature of Relationship
Gender→ Stereotyping	t = 5.79, p= 0.0001 Significant Difference	Supported	M (m=25.1, sd = 5.88) ; F(m =23.37, sd = 4.95)	Male ≥ Female
Gender→ Perception	t : - 4.31, p: 0.0001 Significant Difference	Supported	M (m = 24.6, sd = 6.10); F(m=25.9, sd = 5.69)	Male ≤ Female
Gender→ Influences	t = - 3.31, p = 0.001 Significant Difference	Supported	M(m= 24.2, sd = 6.22); F (m=25.33, sd = 6.27)	Male ≤ Female
Ethnicity→Stereotyping	F= 9.10, p = 0.0001 Significant Difference	Supported	Malays v Chinese (m= -1.505, p-value = 0.0001) Malays v Indians (m = - 1.24, p = 0.006	Malays ≤ Chinese Malays ≤ Indians
Ethnicity→Perception	F= 1.45,p=0.23 No significant difference	Not Supported	Malays v Chinese (p=0.25) Malays v Indians (p=0.99) Chinese v Indians (p=0.301)	Malays ≠ Chinese; Malay ≠ Indians; Chinese ≠ Indians

Ethnicity→Influences	F= 5.794, p= 0.001 Significant difference	Supported	Malays v Chinese (m= -1.398, p = 0.004) Indians v Chinese (m= -1.878, p = 0.001. Malays v Indians (p=.644)	Chinese ≥Malays Chinese ≥ Indians Malay ≠ Indians
Gender within various Ethnicities→Stereotyping, Perception and Influences	Roy's Largest Root =2.753, p = 0.041 Significant difference	Supported	Gender (ethnicities) v Stereotyping (p=0.000) Gender (ethnicities) v Influences (p=0.002) Gender (ethnicities) v Influences(p=0.000)	Gender within ethnicities ≠ Stereotyping, Perception and Influences (Individual based instead of communal based)
Female within Ethnicities	Roy's Largest Root =2.753, p = 0.041 Significant difference	Supported	Stereotyping: Malay v Chinese (m=-1.94, p=0.00) Influences: Chinese v Indian (m=1.84, p-0.046)	Malay females ≤ Chinese Females Chinese Females ≥ Indian Females
Male within various Ethnicities	Roy's Largest Root =2.753, p = 0.041 Significant difference	Supported	Influences : Malay v Chinese (m= -1.92, p=0.037)	Malay males ≤ Chinese males

7.5 Implications for Students' Participation in Sports

This research is important to the field of sports in a society where the education culture is driven by academic achievement and excellence. This research provided results discussed above in relation to gender and ethnic differences in secondary school student's views of gender typing of sports, their views of people's stereotyping in sports participation, the students perception of masculine and feminine values in sport participation and the family and societal influences in sports participation.

The findings indicate that there exists gender typing of sports and it is more visible among boys compared to girls. This means that their sports participation may differ according to

their gender. The implication of this research is that there is a continuous need for examining gender stereotyping, perceptions of masculine and feminine values in sports participation and family and society's influence in relation to gender and ethnicity as this is imperative to bringing about greater gender equity in a multicultural society.

It is necessary to allow the students to stay connected to successful integration which would lead to better outcomes. By addressing these it would lead the students to experience overall equality in sports participation.

Therefore, it is necessary to gain a better understanding of how ethnicity and gender intersects to lead to different outcomes for boys and girls in sports participation in a multicultural environment,

This is noteworthy as no research has been undertaken in Malaysia so far and further very few researches have looked at these four factors when studying student's participation in sports. Further the results of research will provide a Malaysian context to the study of gender equality in sports participation, namely the investigation of factors contributing to outcomes of sports participation at secondary school level.

Most importantly this study is important because the information gathered on how students in the selected urban secondary schools by gender and ethnicity perceived their sport participation activities and the contributing factors (people's stereotyping views, perception of masculine and feminine values by the students themselves and their family and societal influences) in sports participation. The results are likely to be helpful for sports educators, the ministry of education and departments of education, sports policy makers, parents and the society. They would be able to read the results and determine if the findings can further help them in promoting the importance of sports practices and participation. These findings could inform reform that would be beneficial as it would

help to excel the practice of sports in schools and narrow the gap between sports and academic priorities that many parents in Malaysia place today regardless of gender, or ethnicity and status. The value of a more positive attitude of sports participation will bring about greater balance in the mental, physical and health development of students. This is a goal worthwhile to be pursued that would result in a healthier future generation irrespective of their gender and the ethnici group they come from.

7.6 Obstacles and Strategies

There are obstacles identified for poor participation of women in sports in this research. The issue of stereotyping is found to be present in males and females in gender typing of sports although less compared to the original context from which the scale was developed (Chapter 4) and this is further fuelled by patriarchal influences in the gender typing of sports within various ethnicities (Chapter 5). Other factors (in Chapter 6) such as stereotyping, perception and societal influences in sports participation have been found to have significant differences by gender, by ethnicity and by gender within ethnicities. There are probable reasons that could be identified with these findings. Firstly, governing bodies have become more supportive to female sportswomen as they have recognised the challenges faced in achieving gender equality for women in sports participation. Secondly it is clear from the literature review that the governing bodies are aware of these issues and have undertaken steps to address and solve these problems. This is indicated by the various programmes promoted for women in sports participation in Malaysia.

However, there are inconsistent views; in order to rise above these obstacles one of the strategies used is to make certain that there is encouragement for gender neutrality and equal access to sports programmes and facilities should be promoted and provided. It must

be noted here that neutrality and access does not amount to the support for equality (Howe, 1997). Furthermore, the third reason is because cultural stereotypes among certain ethnic groups still exist as mentioned in Chapter 6. It is also found that there are significant differences between female Malays and female Chinese in regards to stereotyping. However, no difference exists in regards to perceptions but there exists differences between female Chinese and female Indian and Malay male and Chinese males in societal influences on sports participation.

In relation to gender stereotyping, clearly aggression is associated with males and therefore competitive sports which is seen to be aggressive is seen as being not suitable for females. In sports, controlled aggression in women should be seen as a positive asset (Szirom, 1988). It has been observed in relation to language, the attempts to exclude gender non conformity will result in a gender biased assesment in itself (Philbin, Meier, Huffman & Boverie ,1995). The solution to this is to make sure that equity and equality is achieved. However, the challenge faced here is that equity has to exist in the structure of the system it is in. Therefore, it can be concluded that gender is not merely an issue of sex, but it involves relationships which exists between the people and the way power is exercised through these relationships (Philbin, Meier, Huffman & Boverie,1995) and the way power is distributed between the genders in these institutions and structures.

Consequently as was discussed in the literature review the approaches taken to address gender inequity in sports participation is at the level of institutions and structures which is within the control of governments who have ratified declarations and conventions that requires states to be obliged to implement programs to address such inequities.

However, socioeconomic factors which also contribute to prejudice and discrimination can be better overcome with greater awareness and funding being made

available for female sports participation. There should be greater commitment from the agencies and there should be greater transparency and democracy given to the public which will ensure that governing bodies give good governance. By this, the gender inequality experienced by women in sports can be reduced and equality can be achieved.

7.7 Conclusion and Directions for Future Research

The findings indicate that there exists some gendered typing of sports and it is more visible among boys compared to girls. This means that their sports participation may differ according to their gender. The findings also point to the fact that there is a significant difference on the influence of family and society for male is lower than for females in sports participation. This is in line with the gender role socialization theory (Bandura, 1977; Michels, 1970; Messner, 2002). This is because this study has shown different results in relation to ethnicity and gender on stereotyping, perceptions on masculine and feminine values and family and society's influences. By addressing these it would lead the students to experience overall equality in sports participation which is important given that our findings indicated different relationships between gender and ethnicity.

Therefore it is necessary to gain a better understanding of how ethnicity and gender intersects to lead to different outcomes for boys and girls in sports participation in a multicultural environment. This is because stereotyping which is found in this study especially related to ethnicity could be related to their socialisation agent's in particular family influences. This is because the study considered three major ethnic groups and there could be a perceived stereotyping which may influence the students sports participation and development in sports and this may vary across gender and ethnicity. This is because

students' perception of gender stereotyping was assessed and the integration of gender and ethnicity was analysed in relation to sports participation so efforts at undoing the stereotyping can be addressed if the socialisation agents are gender sensitised and greater gender awareness need to be instilled in the family and society. The findings also suggest that perhaps there is a need to examine the socialisation agents of stereotyping and perception of masculine and feminine values as well as institutional structures, practices and policies in relation to stereotyping and perception that leads to gender inequality in sports participation.

In doing this, it will allow us to develop culturally accurate theoretical frameworks and allow female and male students to experience equality in sports participation irrespective of difference in gender and ethnicity. However, this research should not give the assumption that all students in Malaysia face similar challenges in sports participation as our finding reflects a selected sample of students from schools in the Klang Valley in Malaysia.

The major part of my study is focused on gender typing of sports participation and the influence of ethnicity and gender on stereotyping, perception and socialisation agents like the family and society as the main areas of my investigation. Overall, my findings suggest that there is stereotyping among some ethnic groups and genders in Malaysia. As proved, ethnicity and gender does impact on students' participation in sports. This suggests that students are not excluded from issues of stereotyping within the ethnicities and genders. It is also seen that more traditionally male dominated sports had the capacity to be stereotyped based on gender and ethnicity than traditionally female dominated sports.

The findings also indicate that there is a gender difference in relation to sports participation which was due to their experiences from different types of socialisation agents

and therefore it could be inferred that their responses on gender typing of sports and stereotyping in sports participation was related to their family influences. Therefore, this indicates that boys and girls are likely or not likely to participate in sports due to their family's influence, reactions and responses. It is interesting to note that boys and girls from differing ethnic background did differ in relation to stereotyping, perception and influences.

This is a first ever investigation of contributing factors to sports participation in Malaysia. However in the American and European context there exists research in relation to gender and ethnicity as discussed in the conclusion of Chapter 6. The significant relationship between ethnicity, gender and stereotyping and perceptions on sports participation is an interesting observation, given that Malaysia is made up of three major ethnic groups and therefore these boys and girls who come from different religious, cultural, educational and income background do differ in their expectations on sports participation.

Despite these findings we cannot conclude that the issue of ethnicity and gender do affect levels of sports participation between boys and girls at school level. There is a more important reason to establish the relationship between genders within various ethnicities as Malaysia is working towards the ideology of 1MALAYSIA. Hence there is an urgent need to see if the unification of multiculturalism can be achieved through sports participation in school which would be the grass root level for success of 1 MALAYSIA.

Children are able to identify activities and behaviours that are considered to be socially correct for boys and girls and it has been validated that this can restrict their actual behaviours (Liben & Bigler, 2002; Liben, et al., 2001; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975). It is not uncommon for children to group the world into female and male groups (Huston, 1985). However, it has also been noted that as children grow up they seem to have a better

idea on what is a gender stereotype and are able to allocate the types of activities suitable to the respective gender category. It has been researched that children are more flexible in their perception of gender during their middle childhood but their cognizance of gender stereotype perseveres (Liben et.al. 2001). Children who turn into teenagers find that their firm belief of what is correct gender behaviour according to the respective gender is further reinforced. This is also the reason why teenagers are selected for this study to investigate the level to which they observe their long held identifications of gender and that impact on their behaviour, activities and perceptions. Therefore, it is hoped that this research will be the starting and reference point for future research on how consciousness and assumptions of gender stereotypes, perceptions on masculine and feminine values and family and society's influences informs the gender norms which effects secondary school and university students' participation in sports.

From an early age, children are able to recognise activities and behaviours deemed socially "appropriate" for men and women, and they can curb their behaviours accordingly (Levy, Sadovsky, & Troseth, 2000; Liben & Bigler, 2002; Liben, et al., 2001; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1975). The inclination to categorise the world into female and male categories appears to be particularly common among young children (Huston, 1985). As they get older they (a) understand and have a clearer notion about gender stereotypes and (b) assign activities according to gender more stringently, if asked. Research suggests that during middle childhood, children afford greater latitude to their perceptions of gender, but that their awareness of gender stereotypes persists (Liben & Bigler, 2001). As children approach adolescence, their rigid notions of appropriate behaviour according to gender returns. Thus, adolescent children are selected for this study so as to explore the degree to which they adhere to their long held understandings of gender behaviour, and this study can

be used as a baseline for future research investigating how awareness and internalisation of gender stereotypes in sports and physical activities may affect participation into adolescence.

The perception of identity to traits in sports participation also influences children sports participation (Koivula, 1995). This is an important area for further study to see if this is observable in the Malaysian context whether ethnic identity and traits associated with these ethnic groups have an impact on sports participation.

It has also been found that the treatment children receive from parents, siblings, teachers and peers may differ hence the significance of the influences of the socialisation agents (Holland and Andre, 1994) cannot be neglected. However in exploring stereotypes, perception and influences in sports participation it is dependent on the child's individual sensitivity on how the activity is essential to the schoolchildren's character and personality (Schlenker & Weigold, 1989). There is also clear evidence (Messner, 1992) that shows that sports are a domain in which stereotypes are significant (Bem, 1974; Spence et al.1975).

The major contribution of my study is to bring to the forefront that gender typing of sports that are informed by the gender norms of a society, stereotypes, masculine and feminine values in sports and family and society's influence in students sports participation shows areas for intervention that can address gender inequality in sports participation. These areas for intervention have to deal with gender norms that perpetuate inequality.

Looking at some of the theories that have been previously mentioned in the literature review and the theoretical framework chapters. The gender role theory is derived from the idea that each society strives to develop boys and girls through behaviours,

features and activities that is suitable for their gender (Cross & Madson, 1997). Unfortunately, sporting activities and many social activities are gender-typed according to cultural stereotypes and what is considered to be gender appropriate (Koivula, 1995; Matteo, 1986; 1988). Unfortunately these gender-typed individuals are always encouraged to decide on actions that obey to cultural beliefs and behaviours of masculinity and femininity (Bem, 1981). Even if the gender typing of sports was lesser in this study compared to the studies conducted in the west but participation and involvement in sports was informed by what was considered appropriate for female and male students.

One other theory that is the Social Learning Theory presumes that sports participation that is acceptable for males may not necessarily be acceptable for females (Greendorfer, 1983). In fact, this is not only related to young girls learning but young boys also learn through cultural observations about what their roles are in relation to girls or women and what are their expectation towards female behaviour (Ziegler, 2006). These cultural stereotypes cause female athletes to look at themselves as “different” and having adversative qualities on and off the field (Harris 1980). The social learning model has shown that the decision of role conflict between a female athlete viewing herself as a female and as a sport woman takes a few shapes (Felshin, 1974; Harris, 1980; Tyler, 1973; Vealy, 1983). The researchers identified a few possible scenarios for example a female athlete may decide not to attend any social gatherings which expects her to behave in a feminine way, the athletic will behave as a sportswoman in the social gathering or she may be “apologetic”(Felshin, 1974). The Gender Schema Theory comes from a perspective that believes society has an inherent perception that offers them hope and anticipation when information is processed by people (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Therefore, gender-schematic are individuals who pledge to the behaviours that are considered to be acceptable in the

eyes of the society based on their gender and therefore this limits their behavioural options and to a large extent will not move away from the way they are expected to behave (Bem, 1974). Women have always been thought of to be feminine and men to be masculine (Colley, Nash, O'Donnell, & Restorick, 1987; Kane, 1990; Koivula, 1995; Matteo, 1986; Shaw & Kemeny, 1989).

Therefore it can be seen that gender is looked at from the perspective of femininity and masculinity. The Gender Schema Theory argues that people are socialised (through their agents) into believing that differences are significant and worth maintaining (Bem 1981, 1983). Socialist feminist argue that gender stereotypes are learnt by boys and girls through sports participation (Curry, 1991; Messner, 1989, 1992; Sabo, 1985). In sports, the female participants pose threat to the preservation of gender ideology which suggests that males are relatively big, tough and powerful in comparison to women and they are considered to be far more superior to women (Coakley, 2004). Women have to concern themselves with the outcome of the traditional gender ideology, unlike their male counterpart (Duncan and Hasbrook, 1988). The findings on the masculine and feminine values in sports participation show that female students tend to conform to these values for the socialization agents tend to expect compliance to the preservation of gender ideology more from women compared to men.

The Social Learning Theory states that gender role socialisation progress through communication and contact with the social environment firstly and foremost in the shape of corroboration and observational learning (Bandura 1977; Mischel 1970). There is a great contribution in the study and where socialisation of females in sports can be understood (Greendorfer 1974; 1977b). On the other hand the arguments put forth by socialisation theorists are that although gender roles are established through social interactions; this

theory frequently presumes a “deterministic” top-down outlook. Such as, it is through the interaction with social institutions like families, school or peer group that children assimilate the pertinence of suitability of gender roles.

There is limited scrutiny with traditional socialisation theories on what manner or to what extent can individuals employ agency in these interactions (Cosaro 1997; Thorne 1993). It is obvious that there were female students in this study who did not conform or comply to the gender norms and we can see that there were female students who were involved in sports that were said to be suitable for boys although the numbers might be low. There were also some responses that showed that female students also viewed certain male typed sports as suitable for females although the responses predominantly referred to as suitable for males.

There were also female students who were involved in sports considered male type sports. This to some extent shows that female students do use their agency to some extent although socialisation tends to control behaviour to a large extent. The responses by the family and society would not allow for female students to display aggressive behaviours in sports.

Stereotype Threat Theory is a well-established research in the academic field that has been frequently used (Croizet et al, 2004; Schmader, 2002; Steele, Spencer, & Aronson, 2002; Spencer, Steele & Quinn, 1999). This theory has been tested in the sports field in relation to ethnicity and gender stereotypes from the western perspective (Beilock, Jellison, Rydell, McConnell, & Carr, 2006; Beilock & Mc Connell, 2004; Stone, 2002; Stone et al., 1999). Stereotype threat takes place when an individual dreads being judged negatively based on a negative in-group stereotype and this leads to the confirmation of the stereotype (Schmader, Johns & Forbes, 2008; Steele, 1997). It has have been found that the

stereotype threat is most workable on persons who find the field of stereotype to be significant (Leyens, Desert, Croizet & Darcis, 2000).

This is a situational approach that brings about an induced identity condition due to stereotypes that is present in the society (Chalabaev A, Sarrazin Philippe, Fontayne P, Boiche J, Guillotin C.C (2013). Studies have found that this stereotype threat is most vigorous in the gender category (Spencer et al., 1999) and ethnicity (Steele & Aronson, 1995) which can explain why female students in this study see stereotyping as impacting on sports participation especially within certain ethnic groups.

Therefore, all these theories suggests as seen in the findings of this research that there still exists differences by gender, ethnicities and gender within ethnicities in stereotyping and family and societal influences. These are important contributing factors in understanding sports participation. The major contribution of my study is to bring about awareness that gender norms and ideology that manifest in the form of the contributing factors (dependent variables in this study) still influences sports participation and that intervention to address gender inequality in sports participation will have to deal with such norms and ideologies.

These suggest that there is a need to examine and bring about change in the socialization agents of gender stereotyping and perceptions of masculine and feminine values as well as institutional structures, practices and policies that will lead to gender equality in sport participation.

Finally the future research should include further factors generally linked with sport participation. Interpretation of results was narrowed by a sample of only seven schools. This did not permit for an examination of social grouping by school. Future studies should

include an adequate number of schools to permit use of the school as the unit of investigation. Future studies should take into account the application of more objective methods of school sport participation such as coach reports, teachers' observations, outdoor and indoor individual, club and team activities.

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