

GENDER ISSUES IN SPORT AND EXERCISE

Proceedings of the Gender Issues in Sport and Exercise Conference organised by the Centre for Physical Education and Sport, the Physical Education and Sports Science Unit of the University of Hong Kong, and sponsored by the Hong Kong Sports Development Board.

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GENDER ISSUES IN SPORT AND EXERCISE

Proceedings of a one-day conference held in Hong Kong at the Jockey Club Lecture Theatre, Sports House, Causeway Bay, on Saturday, 25 November, 1995.

Editor's Note:

These Proceedings represent a record of the oral and poster presentations of the sixth in a series of annual conferences hosted by the University of Hong Kong.

The theme for the conference, *Gender Issues in Sport And Exercise*, reflects a concern that the gender bias in sport and exercise often reported in other countries, maybe just as prevalent in Hong Kong and that during Hong Kong's current phase of rapid growth and development, this was an opportune time to address these issues. It is hoped that this conference and its proceedings will play some part in encouraging the development of equity and equality in society, sport and exercise, and that it will make others more aware of this important area by stimulating thought, discussion, and future research.

The papers presented in these Proceedings can be divided into three sections. The first two papers were given by the two 'keynote' international speakers, Professor John Loy and Dr Anita White, who set the scene of the conference from an international perspective. The next section of six papers were given by local speakers who provide an insight on gender issues at a more domestic level, yet often provide excellent comparisons with other international work. The final section provides the Abstracts from a series of Posters that were displayed throughout the conference and reflect studies performed by local researchers in this field.

The papers produced in these Proceedings are essentially in the format they were presented. Some follow a fully descriptive and academic format, while others are in more of a note-form that reflects the greater emphasis on the visual format used in their presentation. However, it is hoped that all papers provide a relevant and valuable record of the information presented at this conference.

Thanks are especially due to the Hong Kong Sports Development Board for their continuing support in co-hosting this conference, to all those who helped organise the conference, and to those who supported the conference by their attendance.

D. J. Macfarlane
Editor

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INTRODUCTION TO THE CONFERENCE

The University of Hong Kong's Centre for Physical Education and Sport and the Physical Education and Sports Science Unit are delighted to welcome delegates to the annual conference.

The 1995 Conference is the sixth in a series which began in 1989, whose themes have been Health-Related Fitness (1989), Children in Competitive Sport (1990), Children in Sport (1991), Sport and Exercise Participation: Motivation and Barriers (1993) and Recreation Management and Sports Administration (1994).

The Conference aims to attract international specialists who can bring new and different insights to the theme for Hong Kong, but at the same time allow local researchers and specialists an opportunity to deliver new, local insights which can be of benefit to Hong Kong's policy makers, administrators, teachers and students.

The 1995 Conference focuses on an area which is beginning to attract interest in Hong Kong - gender. There is now a Gender Research Programme at the Chinese University of Hong Kong and a new Women's Studies Research Centre at the University of Hong Kong. It has long been believed that sport and exercise were in themselves historically liberating media for women in society. This conference will explore some of the issues which liberate and others which inhibit females in society, particularly through the medium of exercise and sport. There are major differences in attitudes towards exercise and sport and in participation between males and females. This conference will seek to identify differences and similarities and propose solutions to problems.

Our thanks go to all who have supported this conference in any way, and particularly to the Hong Kong Sports Development Board who are again our partners. We hope that delegates enjoy the Conference and that it will play its part in improving the quality and quantity of sport and recreation available to all in Hong Kong.

Mr. Mike Speak - Director, CPES & Head, PESSU
Dr. Duncan Macfarlane - Conference Convenor

From the Hong Kong Sports Development Board:

Sports Conference 1995

GENDER ISSUES IN SPORT AND EXERCISE

The University of Hong Kong has shown considerable initiative in recent years in organising meaningful seminars, which support the development of sport. The Hong Kong Sports Development Board has been pleased to be associated with these programmes.

At its 47th Meeting in August 1995, The Board discussed and endorsed the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport. It is our intention to play a leadership and coordinating role to allow this important issue to remain at the forefront of people's minds in Asia.

We are indeed fortunate to have two such eminent speakers as John Loy and Anita White addressing this seminar. Both have done a great deal to further the cause of sport on a broad front.

Our thanks go to Mike Speak, Duncan Macfarlane and their teams for bringing this seminar to fruition.

Howard J. C. Wells
Chief Executive
Hong Kong Sports Development Board

9.40 - 10.50 Keynote Address:

Professor John Loy, Professor of Sport and Leisure Studies

Gender relations in sport

About the Keynote Speaker

John Loy is Professor of Sport and Leisure Studies at the University of Otago. He is currently serving as Vice-President of the International Sociology of Sport Association and is Past-President of the North American Society for the Sociology of Sport. He is the co-author or co-editor of 10 books, author or co-author of 30 chapters of books, and author or co-author of over 40 articles on the sociology of sport. His research has been published in a variety of journals, including: the *American Sociological Review*, the *British Journal of Sociology*, *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, *Quest*, the *Sociology of Sport Journal*, and *Sport Science Review*. He is a Fellow of the American Academy of Kinesiology and Physical Education and a former Associate of the Center for Advanced Study at the University of Illinois. He has lectured throughout the world at universities in Belgium, Canada, Denmark, England, Finland, France, Germany, Japan, Norway, South Africa, South Korea, Sweden, and Switzerland.

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Abstract

The paper provides an overview of the study of gender in sport during the past twenty-five years. Gender Issues and inequalities in sport are examined in a twofold manner. First, gender issues are discussed in terms of the reflection thesis. Second, gender inequalities are treated in terms of categorical, distributive and relational levels of analysis. The focus on the reflection thesis and categorical analysis highlights gender differences; the focus on the reproduction thesis and distributive analysis emphasises matters of equity; while the focus on the resistance thesis and relational analysis stresses differential power relations of gender in sport. The paper concludes with an account of the problematics of diversity and empowerment in sport.

GENDER RELATIONS IN SPORT¹

John W. Loy

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ABSTRACT:

The paper provides an overview of the nature of gender relations in sport. Specifically, it discusses the concept of gender, describes the different forms of gender analysis, and outlines the major strategic options for women engaged in sport. A common focus throughout the paper is the embodiment of gender and the idea that women's expression of physicality can be viewed as both agency and resistance.

My primary purpose is to provide a simple but basic overview of the nature of gender relations in the context of sport. I attempt to achieve my purpose in a threefold manner. First, by way of introduction, I discuss the concept of gender as a social category and highlight the relationships among gender, sport and society. Second, I describe different forms of gender analysis and illustrate them with sporting examples. Third, by way of conclusion, I outline the chief strategic options for athletic females desiring to enhance both their degree and kind of sport involvement.

INTRODUCTION: THE CONCEPT OF GENDER

To date, perhaps the single most significant impact of feminist scholarship on physical education and sport science is the fact that we now use the term "gender" rather than "sex" when discussing differences between men and women (cf. Keller, 1989). I am continually surprised, however, by the number of students and staff that I interact with who don't know why we use the term gender and have ceased using terms such as sex roles and sexual identities.

In brief, sex is a biological category while gender is a socio-cultural category. We are born male or female, but we learn to become a man or woman. Notions of masculinity or femininity are social constructions. Our ideas about manhood and womanhood are based on prevailing stereotypes of our specific culture and historical period. In sum, as I state to my colleagues in exercise science, rats have sex, humans have gender.

Admittedly, sex and gender interact in any psychological function (Maccoby, 1988) and are connected when individuals engage in any form of physical activity. Further, gender (like age and race) is an embodied social category. For example, nearly all forms of body language (e.g. gestures, posture and movement), and nearly all forms of body adornment (e.g., cosmetics, dress, jewellery, painting and tattoos) constitute gender signs and symbols. Indeed we can speak of the "commodified gendered body" so characteristic of consumer culture of late capitalist society (after Hall, 1989, p. 1).

The embodiment of gender has special significance in sport situations. As John Hargreaves (1987) notes: "... it is the body that constitutes the most striking symbol, as well as constituting the material core of sporting activity" (p. 141). Moreover, as he further observes: "The body... constitutes a major site of social struggles and it is in the battle for control over the body that types of social relation of particular significance for the way power is structured - class, *gender*, age, and race - are to a great extent constituted" (Hargreaves, 1987, p. 141, *italics mine*).

Let me concretely illustrate the embodiment of gender, and sport as a site of social struggle about gender relations, by giving an overview of three theses about the relationships between sport and society. I label these theses the *reflection*, *reproduction* and *resistance* theses, respectfully (see Donnelly, in press; Ingham & Loy, 1980; McPherson, Curtis & Loy, 1989).

The Reflection Thesis. This thesis proposes that sport is a "mirror" or "microcosm" of society and, thus, reflects both the positive and negative aspects of social life. Sport provides a ludic window of gender relations by showing forms of compliance, and forms of resistance, associated with changing patterns of inequality, domination and subordination, between men and women in society. Historically sport has long been a male preserve and a clear reflection of sexism. Men have effectively constructed barriers to women's sport participation through four concrete processes identified by Lois Bryson (1987) as follows: (1) male definitions of sport, (2) direct male control of women's sport, (3) males' ignoring women's sport, and (4) male's trivialization of women's sport.

The Reinforcement Thesis. This is a stronger thesis. It proposes that sport not only passively reflects but actively reproduces social formations and actively reinforces social inequalities. According to John Hargreaves (1987): "The significance of sports in relation to the way power is structured ... is that they are uniquely endowed with the capacity for deploying the body in such a way as to represent and reproduce social relationships in a preferred manner" (p. 142).

One of the more forceful examples of the reproduction thesis in the world of sport is gender relations. Until very recent times the majority of sport situations have been colonized by men and modern sports have long served to socialize children and youth into "preferred" gender roles. The contemporary commercial connections of sport and mass media are especially powerful mechanisms for producing and reproducing conventionally appropriate notions of masculinity and femininity (cf., e.g., MacNeill, 1988; Miller, 1990).

Lois Bryson (1987) documents in some detail precisely how sport serves to construct and reconstruct masculine hegemony. She proposes that:

The are two fundamental dimensions to the support sport provides for masculine hegemony. First it links maleness with highly valued and visible skills and second it links maleness with the positively sanctioned use of aggression/force/violence. (p. 350)

Evidence for the first dimension identified by Brazen is readily found in the media coverage of sport wherein most attention is given to those sports embodying the highly valued and visible physical abilities of power, speed and strength - abilities generally attributed to men rather than to women. As Jennifer Hargreaves (1994) points out: "If endurance, flexibility, skill, artistry, creativity and timing were accorded higher value, sports would have a very different meaning" (p. 286).

The linkage of violence and masculinity in the context of support is clearly illustrated in Michael Messner's (1990) observation that:

... violent sports as spectacle provide linkages among men in the project of the domination of women ... in contrast to the bare and vulnerable bodies of the cheerleaders, the armoured male bodies ... are elevated to mythical status, and as such, give testimony to the undeniable "fact" that here at least is one place where men are clearly superior to women. (p. 213)

In short, sport serves as an effective social mechanism for maintaining masculine hegemony and 'deploying the body to represent and reproduce social relations in a preferred manner'.

The Resistance Thesis. This thesis proposes that sport situations are "contested terrains" wherein participants can actively engage in actions to change social conditions and social relations for the betterment of disadvantaged individuals and oppressed, subordinate groups. Although examples of the resistance thesis are not as common as examples of the reflection or reproduction theses, it is evident that

the body in sport can provide a site of social struggle for the resistance to dominant ideologies and practices.

An exemplary example of gender resistance in sport is Susan Birrell and Diana Richter's (1987) four-year study of a women's summer recreational softball league in the American Midwest. Their female informants were highly critical of masculine sporting practices and put their own practices into place. As summarized by Birrell and Richter (1987):

Several themes emerged as central issues in their complaints: the overemphasis on winning; the hierarchy of authority; the élitism of skill; the exclusivity represented by sexism, classism, racism, ageism, sizism, and heterosexism; the disparagement of opponents; and an ethic of endangerment. These criticisms served as a blueprint for the changes they were putting into practice: a form of softball which is process oriented, collective, inclusive, supportive, and infused with an ethic of care. (cf. 'Synopsis' by Birrell and Richter, 1987, p. 395)

In sum, the research of Birrell and Richter shows how the physicality of women in a sport situation can be viewed as both agency and resistance and, thus, well demonstrates the emBody-ment of power in the context of gender and physical activity (cf. Gilroy, 1989).

Having illustrated the interrelationships of gender, sport and society in terms of the reflection, reinforcement and resistance theses, let me now turn to a more detailed examination of gender in sport by focusing on different forms of gender analysis.²

Forms of Gender Analysis

Alan Ingham (1987) notes that: "Sociologists in their attempts to analyze inequality are currently operating on three levels of discourse: (1) the categoric, (2) the distributive, and (3) the relational" (p. 1). Alison Dewar (1991) discusses these levels of discourse in some detail in examining "... the ideological positions adopted in existing research on gender issues in sport" (p. 18). And Peter Donnelly (in press) gives a historical overview of social inequality in the sociology of sport literature using these levels of analysis and considering class and race/ethnicity in addition to gender. Drawing upon the works of Ingham, Dewar and Donnelly I define each form or level of analysis and give sporting examples from the Modern Olympic Games.

Categorical Analysis of Gender. As Alan Ingham (1987, p. 1) records, this is the most primitive form of analysis and: "It is exemplified by studies which provide the demographics of sport participants." For example, reporting the number of male vs. female, or black vs. white, or young vs. old, participants is representative of categorical analysis.

Categorical analysis places a premium on research regarding "differences." "When gender is framed as a categoric issue, the primary focus is on quantifying and empirically studying differences between males and females in abilities and behaviors" (Dewar, 1991, p. 18). These "differences" include: anatomical, biological, genetic, morphological, neurological, physical, physiological, and psychological differences. The underlying rationale of research regarding differences between men and women is to account for the performance gap between men and women (the so-called "muscle gap"). But as Alison Dewar (1991) importantly points out, this type of research does not "... question why the performance gap in sport is given so much attention and how this is used to bolster images of male power and dominance as natural and immutable" (pp. 18-19).

The patriarchal ideology implicit in research regarding gender differences has long been explicitly expressed by authoritative sporting figures. One of the most striking examples is Baron De Coubertin's views on female participation in the modern Olympic Games. In giving his overall view of the Games, Baron De Coubertin stated that the foundation of Olympism is: "...the solemn and periodic exultation of male athleticism with internationalism as the base, loyalty as a means, art for setting and female applause as its rewards" (Brukner & Kahn, 1993, p. 541). On another occasion he observed that: "The indecency, ugliness and impropriety of women in sports, because women engaging in strenuous activities were destroying their feminine charm and leading to the downfall and degradation of sport" (Mitchell, 1977, p. 213).

The legacy of patriarchy still exists in the Olympic Games. For example, Margaret Duncan (1990), in a recent analysis of the sports photographs of male and female athletes in the 1984 and 1988 Olympic Games, clearly shows how visual images of physical appearance, poses and body positions, facial expressions, emotional displays and camera angles are used to emphasize sexual difference. She concludes that: "*Focusing on female difference is a political strategy that places women in a position of weakness*" (p. 41).

No doubt the most forceful example of gender difference in the context of the Olympic Games is the gender verification tests that female participants are subjected to. Jennifer Hargreaves (1994) comments that: "By stereotyping femininity according to heterosexual standards, the tests force women to 'prove' themselves and

can be particularly threatening to those women who are naturally flat-chested and heavily muscled" (p. 222).

Distributive Analysis. Whereas the focus of categorical analysis is on differences, the focus of distributive analysis is on equity. The problem of inequality is seen to be one of unequal access to scarce resources and rewards. The key question of distributive analysis is "Who gets what and why?" As Alison Dewar (1991) notes: "When gender is defined as distributive issue, the major focus of the research is directed away from the description of individual differences towards documenting and describing the nature and extent of the opportunities available to different categories of individuals" (p. 19). The enactment and long term effects of Title IX and the NCAA 1991 gender equity survey in the United States are prime examples of distributive analysis (cf., e.g., Hasbrook, 1988; Kane, 1989; Shaw, 1995; Stangl & Kane, 1991; Staurowsky, 1995).

For purposes of this paper I draw an example from the Summer Olympic Games to illustrate distributive analysis and the matter of equity.

Table 1
Male and Female Athletes in the Summer Olympic Games, 1986-1992

<u>Year</u>	<u>Host City</u>	<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>	<u>% Females</u>
1896	Athens	311	0	0.00
1900	Paris	1,319	12	0.90
1904	St. Louis	617	8	1.28
1908	London	2,034	43	2.07
1912	Stockholm	2,491	585	2.16
1920	Antwerp	2,628	76	2.89
1924	Paris	2,956	136	4.40
1928	Amsterdam	2,724	290	9.62
1932	Los Angeles	1,281	127	9.02
1936	Berlin	3,738	328	8.07
1948	London	4,062	385	8.66
1952	Helsinki	4,407	518	10.51
1956	Melbourne	2,813	384	12.00
1960	Rome	4,736	610	11.41
1964	Tokyo	4,457	683	13.29
1968	Mexico City	4,749	781	14.12
1972	Munich	6,086	1,299	17.59
1976	Montreal	4,834	1,251	20.56
1980	Moscow	4,238	1,088	20.43
1984	Los Angeles	5,458	1,620	22.89
1988	Seoul	7,105	2,476	25.84
1992	Barcelona	6,658	2,708	28.91

Source: Hargreaves, 1994, pp. 219-220

Table 1 shows the relative number of male and female athletes competing in the modern Summer Olympic Games from 1896 until 1992. It is evident from the far right column, giving the percentage of female athletes at each Olympiad, that female participation was extremely restricted until after World War II, and women didn't obtain 25 percent representation until the Seoul Olympic Games in 1988. In short, after 100 years of Olympic competition female athletes have yet to comprise even a third of all competitors.³

An even more striking example of the lack of equity is the gender composition of the International Olympic Committee (IOC). From 1894 to 1981 the IOC didn't have a single female member; in 1994 the IOC was comprised of 95 men and 6 women.

Relational Analysis. As nicely described by Peter Donnelly (in press): "Relational analysis shifts beyond the notion of discrete categories, and the distribution of resources among those categories, to consider whole sets of social relations -- among men and women, social classes, and racial/ethnic groups; and it examines such relationships in their social context (e.g., among men and women who belong to social class and racial/ethnic groups in a particular time and place)." With respect to gender *per se*, Alison Dewar states that: "relational work links theory and practice in an attempt to understand the complex and often contradictory processes involved in the struggles over the maintenance of hegemony in sport" (1993, p. 162).

The modern Olympic Games seem ripe for a relational analysis of gender issues. Steps toward such an analysis have been made by Hargreaves (1994), Duncan (1990), and Lee (1992). Duncan's analysis of photographic portrayals of the 1984 and 1988 Olympic Games in combination with Lee's analysis of media portrayals of the 1984 and 1988 Olympic Games empirically support Hargreaves account of gender stereotyping as a basic feature of the development of Olympic sports and support her fuller examination of Olympic women's struggle for recognition (Hargreaves, 1994, pp. 209-234).

An embodied glimpse of gender stereotyping and tacit indications of gender relations in sport is given by the data in Table 2 showing the designed events for women in the Olympic Games during the last century.

Table 2
Women's events in the Summer Olympic Games, 1896-1992

YEAR	CITY	ACTIVITY	EVENT
1896	Athens	None	
1900	Paris	+Tennis	Singles, mixed doubles
1904	St. Louis	+Archery -Tennis	Double National Round, Double Columbia Round, team
1908	London	Archery +Skating +Tennis ¹	National Round only Figure, pair Singles
1912	Stockholm	-Archery +Diving +Swimming Tennis ²	Plain 100m freestyle, 400m f/s relay +Mixed doubles
1920	Antwerp	Diving +Figure Skating Lawn Tennis ³ Swimming	+Fancy Singles, doubles +Doubles +300m f/s
1924	Paris ⁴	+Fencing -Figure Skating ⁵ Swimming	Individual foil +400m f/s, ⁶ 100m backstroke, 200m breaststroke
1928	Amsterdam	Diving +Gymnastics +Track and Field	High and springboard ⁷ Teams 100m, 800m, 400m relay, high jump, discus
1932	Los Angeles	-Gymnastics Track and Field	-800m +80m hurdles, javelin
1936	Berlin	+Gymnastics	

¹ Lawn and Covered courts

² Lawn and Covered courts

³ Covered court tennis was removed from the programme

⁴ Women's events were given full status

⁵ Figure skating was transferred to the programme of the first Winter Olympic Games in Chamonix

⁶ Replaced 300m freestyle

⁷ Replaced plain and fancy diving

1948	London	+Canoeing Track and Field	Kayak singles +200m, long jump, shotput
1952	Helsinki ⁸	Gymnastics	+individual, vault, balance beam, asymm. parallel bars, floor, hand apparatus
1956	Melbourne	Gymnastics Swimming	-floor, hand apparatus +free standing +100m butterfly
1960	Rome	Fencing Gymnastics Swimming Track and Field	+foil teams -freestanding, +floor +4x100m Medley relay +800m
1964	Tokyo	Swimming Track and Field +Volleyball	+400m Individual Medley +400m, Pentathlon
1968	Mexico City	Canoeing Swimming	+Kayak doubles +200m f/s, 800m f/s, 200m bk/s, 100 br/s, 200m fly, 200m IM
1972	Munich	+Archery Canoeing Track and Field	+kayak slalom singles +1500m, 100m hurdles ⁹ , 4x400m relay
1976	Montreal	+Basketball Canoeing +Handball +Rowing	-kayak slalom singles Single, double and quadruple sculls, coxed pairs, coxless pairs, eights
1980	Moscow	+Field Hockey Rowing	+Coxed fours ¹⁰

⁸ Equestrian events were opened to women (Hargreaves, 1994)

⁹ Replaced the 80m hurdles event

¹⁰ Replaced the coxed pairs

1984	Los Angeles	Gymnastics +Synchronised swimming +Shooting Track and Field	+Rhythmic +3000m, marathon
1988	Seoul	+Table Tennis +Tennis Track and Field	+10,000m
1992	Barcelona	Canoeing +Judo +Windsurfing	+Canoe Slalom

Sources:

Hargreaves, J. (1994). Sporting Females. London: Routledge.

Henry, B., & Henry Yeomans, P. (1984). An Approved History of the Olympic Games. Sherman Oaks, CA: Alfred

It is evident that for the first quarter of the century women were restricted to participating in the sports of archery, tennis, figure skating, swimming and fencing with the foil. It was not until 1928 that women were permitted to compete in gymnastics and track and field. Unfortunately, a number of female competitors in the 800 meters suffered distress and this middle distance running event was excluded from the Games for women until 1960.

Table 2 shows that women were not permitted to compete in a true team sport until 1964 when volleyball became an official Olympic sport for both men and women. Perhaps more significantly, women were not allowed to run any distance over 1500 meters until the 1984 Olympic Games in Los Angeles wherein they took part in both the 3000 meters run and the marathon for the first time. The 10,000 meters run was introduced for women in the Seoul Olympics in 1988 but women remain excluded from the 5,000 meters run and the 3,000 meter steeplechase in the distance events. However, in the 1996 Olympic Games in Atlanta women will have the opportunity to participate in the following new sporting events: triple jump, road individual time trial and points race in cycling, mountain biking, 4 x 200 meter free-style relay, mixed doubles in badminton, team and individual epee, and the team sports of soccer, softball and beach volleyball.

It is evident from this overview of the types of Olympic events designated for women that they typically reflect individual sports, sports of an aesthetic nature, and sports where "white is right." In short, historically the predominant Olympic events for women were sporting activities highlighting conventional notions about feminine grace and charm. More significantly, the socially sanctioned image of feminine competition within the Olympic Games is an embodied one.

Although her typology is very dated now, it is interesting that Eleanor Metheny's (1965) analysis of the feminine image of sports in terms of symbolic forms of movement closely captures the bodily attitudes about specific sporting events. For example, compare the Olympic events for women shown in Table 2 with the following summary of Metheny's analysis:

1. "It is *not appropriate* for women to engage in contests in which:
 - (a) the resistance of the *opponent* is overcome by bodily contact,
 - (b) the resistance of a *heavy* object is overcome by direct application of body force; and
 - (c) the body is projected into or through space over long distances or for extended periods of time.

2. It *may be appropriate* for women identified in the lower levels of socioeconomic status to engage in contests which:
 - (a) the resistance of an *object of moderate weight* is overcome by direct application of force; and
 - (b) the body is projected into or through space over moderate distances for relatively short periods of time.

3. It is *wholly appropriate* for women identified with the more favoured levels of socioeconomic status to engage in contests in which:
 - (a) the resistance of a *light object* is overcome with a *light implement*;
 - (b) the body is projected into or through space in aesthetically pleasing patterns,
 - (c) the velocity and maneuverability of the body is increased by the use of some manufactured device, and
 - (d) a spatial barrier prevents bodily contact with the opponent in face-to-face competition. (Metheny, 1965, pp. 43-56).

In sum, the bodily dimensions of Olympic sporting events for women illustrate men's control of women's sports and bodies, and confirm Bourdieu's (1978) contention that:

Sport, like any other practice, is an object of struggles between the fractions of the dominant class and also between the social classes ... the social definition of sport is an object of struggles ... the field of sporting practices is the site of struggles in what is at stake inter alia, is the monopolistic capacity to impose the legitimate definition of

sporting practices ... this field is itself part of the larger field of struggles over *the definition of the legitimate body* and *the legitimate use of the body* ... (pp. 826-827, italics added)

Strategic Options for Sportswomen

Although the preceding examination of gender in sport is relatively brief, it should be evident that gender relations in sport are complex and contradictory. Moreover, it is clear that sporting women confront many barriers to their sport participation and must make strategic choices regarding their degree and kind of sport involvement.

Jennifer Hargreaves (1993, 1994) suggests that women have only three choices: "(1) Co-option into a male sphere of activity, (2) a separatist all-female strategy, (3) a co-operative venture with men for qualitative new models in which differences between sexes would be unimportant" (1993, p. 183). She points out that:

If the third option were encouraged and resources were concentrated on participatory, co-operative activities, including regulating and controlling sports competition in order to maximize its 'valuable' elements and minimize its 'destructive' ones, there would be a shift away from the conventionally aggressive, male-dominated, competitive model of sports. (1994, p. 40)

Given the long history of male control of sport, and granted the commercial value of the entertainment appeal of professional and top-level sport, it seems likely that the majority of elite female athletes, if given the choice, will chose co-option into a male model of sport. However, there will also be increasing numbers of "all women" forms of competition at the elite level, and selected female participants across the range of athletic ability may well select a separatist all-female model of sport. Further, as idealistic as it might be, an increasing number of sport participants, especially very young and very old athletes, will give innovative gender neutral sports a go.

Finally, I note that there is yet another strategic approach that might be considered. In a recent article Mary Jo Kane (1995) argues for exposing sport as a continuum. To give a flavor of her argument I quote her at some length to the effect that:

... there exists today a sport *continuum* in which many women routinely outperform many men and, in some cases, women outperform most - if not all - men in a variety of sports and

physical skills/activities. The acknowledgement of such a continuum could provide a direct assault on traditional beliefs about sport - and gender itself - as an inherent, oppositional binary that is grounded in biological difference. In short, an awareness of sport as a continuum of physical, athletic competence could serve as an important vehicle for resistance and transformation. (p. 193)

Although I can not do justice to Kane's argument in this paper, I believe that it has much merit, and indeed has been effective in the case of race in sport.

To illustrate Kane's conception of a continuum in sport I cite a series of examples of women breaking gender barriers in sport:

1. In 1977 sportswriter Melissa Ludtke charged the New York Yankees with sex discrimination when she was barred from their locker room during the World Series of professional baseball; and ever since this date women sportswriters have been allowed into the locker rooms of professional male athletic teams.
2. In December 1988 Diane Plaz became the first woman to referee a men's university basketball game.
3. In March 1989 freshman (sic) Julie Crotean became the first woman ever to play in an intercollegiate baseball game where she started at first base for St. Mary's College in Maryland.
4. In September 1989 Victoria Brucker, age 12, became the first American girl to complete in a Little League World Series.
5. In the 1988-89 school year Dawn Higginbottom, a freshman (sic) at Fort Zumwalt North High in St. Charles, Missouri competed on the men's cross-country team, soccer team, and wrestling team.
6. In September 1989, Ann Trason became the first woman to win an open national athletic championship. In a field of 47 ultramarathoners she won the Sri Chinmay TAC/UCA 24 hour race overall, with a U.S. record-setting 143 miles.
7. In August 1992, Manon Rheume became the first woman to try out for a national hockey league team.

8. Dame Naomi James of New Zealand held the round-the-world solo-sailor record.
9. Bev Francis of Australia set a women's world weight-lifting record in a man's middle-weight lifting competition, beating all of the men!
10. In 1995 Alison Hargreaves became the first woman to conquer Mount Everest alone and without oxygen. Unfortunately, she lost her life in a fierce storm on K2 on August 17th.

By way of concluding my overview of gender in sport, let me cite three respected feminist sport studies scholars. First, I quote Alison Dewar (1991) who argues that:

An important part of the critical project for feminists may be to find ways of understanding the consequences of acts of resistance, accommodation, and incorporation which might foster the development of a multitude of strategies for successfully breaking down the hegemony of white, masculinist, heterosexist sport. (p. 21)

Second, I quote Ann Hall and Dorothy Richardson (1982) who pointed out some years ago that:

... we must not accept the notion that women, although different, are physically inferior to men and therefore require special consideration and protection; we should refute the dogma that boys are more naturally predisposed than girls to athletic activity; and we should constantly challenge the stereotyping of human traits on a masculine/feminine dichotomy as serving only to accentuate the oppressive effect of our culture on both females and males. Achieving these changes in the domain of sport will bring our society one step closer to obtaining equality and liberation for everyone. (p. 102)

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Author's Notes

1. I wish to thank Duncan Humphries for assistance in the preparation of tables for this paper.
2. During the past 30 years there has been an ever expanding body of literature focused on gender issues in sport. Accordingly, the following discussion of forms of gender analysis is highly superficial. For excellent overviews of the sport studies literature dealing with gender analysis the reader is referred to Birrell (1988), Hall and Richardson (1982), Hargreaves (1994), and Lenskyj (1994).

3. A comparison of the number of men's and women's events in the Summer Olympic Games from 1896 to 1992 shows similar parallels in terms of lack of equity and relative percentages for men and women.

11.15 - 12.25 Keynote Address:
Dr. Anita White, Acting Director of National Services

Changing the culture of sport

About the Keynote Speaker

Anita White, Director of National Services at the British Sports Council, is one of the most senior women in sports administration in the United Kingdom. Before joining the Sports Council in 1990 she was a Principal Lecturer at West Sussex Institute of Higher Education where she led the Sports Studies Programme. Her postdoctoral research focused on sport and gender, and sport and young people.

Anita has played a leading role in the development of the Women and Sport Movement in the UK and internationally. A former international hockey player and coach, she is a founding member and former Chair of the Women's Sports Foundation (UK) and is currently Co-Chair of the newly formed International Working Group on Women and Sport.

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Abstract

This paper discusses the male culture of sport and the prevailing patterns of gender relations that exist in organisations concerned with sport: schools, clubs, national governing bodies and international organisations. In arguing for changes in the culture of sport, the paper will first ask what kinds of changes sports feminists are striving for, and then suggest ways in which these changes might be brought about by physical educators, sports scientists and sports administrators.

12.25 - 12.35 International Developments in the Women & Sport Movement.
(e.g., The Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport)

CHANGING THE CULTURE OF SPORT

Dr. Anita White

Director of National Services, The Sports Council
Co-chair International Working Group on Women and Sport

INTRODUCTION

My talk this morning is structured in four parts. First, I will look at what we mean by the 'male culture of sport'. Second, I will look at gender relations in sports organisations. Third, I will ask what kinds of changes we might be seeking to bring about. And finally, I will suggest some strategies for changing the culture of sport working within the physical education, sports science and sports administration systems. My talk is based on studies of women and sport conducted largely in the UK, Europe and North America and on my personal experience as a sportswoman, physical educator, sports scientist, coach, and administrator. My basic thesis is that sport is largely male-defined, that we need to recognise what that means, and work towards ways of changing and improving sport to make it more inclusive of women, and ultimately better for women and men.

1. The Male Culture of Sport

It is widely accepted that sport is one of the most distinctly male of all social institutions. The historical precedents for this are well known : sport was created by men for men. Despite advances that have been made in women's sport, sport is still played more by men, watched more by men, and, crucially, it is largely controlled and managed by men. Sport provides a setting for the affirmation of masculinity. Through sport boys learn the values of toughness, aggression and winning and to grow up to be "real men", rather than "sissies".

I am of course talking about sport in the traditional sense of the term - the public perception of sport, what it is and what it means. Mass media representation of sport epitomises this. In Britain the back pages of national newspapers are filled almost entirely with football, horse racing, rugby and cricket. Athletics gets a mention, especially if the British happen to be doing well, and tennis gets coverage during Wimbledon, even though the British consistently perform very badly. Nearly all of this coverage is of men's sport. The mass media reinforce a traditional male definition of sport. Sporting heroes abound; women's achievements are minimised and marginalised. From what I have seen since I have been here it is much the same

story in Hong Kong. It is not surprising that most people think of sport in terms of the way it is presented in the media, and that many girls and women get the message that sport is something for men and not for women.

Just as sport is male-defined, so sporting organisations tend to be concerned primarily with men's sport, to reflect masculine values in sport, and to be controlled and run by men. This is not surprising. But we must recognise that we are caught in something of a vicious circle; sport invented by men, for men, played by men, controlled by men. Do we want to keep it that way, or do we want to change it? I believe this is an important question for this conference and I hope I will convince you that we need to change it! All of you here are engaged in sport and physical education, and as scientists, teachers and administrators you play your part in the process of either accepting or challenging current sporting practice. I believe we need to challenge existing male definitions and male dominance of sport to make sport equally accessible and relevant to women as well as men.

2. Gender Relations in Sports Organisations

In order to mount an effective challenge we need to understand gender relations in sports organisations. I will briefly describe the situation, as I see it, in schools, clubs, and sports organisations, both national and international.

Although schools are not sports organisations, they are the organisations in which most young people get their first experience of sport. Furthermore physical education and sport, though not the same, are interdependent. Education is often viewed as the key to changing attitudes, so it is essential that we examine what goes on in our schools to see what kinds of values and patterns of behaviour are being established. To what extent do physical education programmes reinforce gender stereotypes? Do girls get the same encouragement and opportunities as boys to develop physical competence and confidence in their bodies? Do we offer a curriculum which caters adequately for girls and boys?

In a special issue of the NZ Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation on Gender Equity published in 1992. Bevan Grant, the President, wrote:

"Like it or not, opportunities are not equal. A casual glance around the playground or inside many PE lessons and systematic observation ... will reinforce the view that inappropriate practices are alive and well. Look at the use of playground space, examine the curriculum content, study the illustrations in texts, listen to the language used by teachers and take note of teacher expectations for boys and girls. The hidden curriculum in schools today and its effect on the socialisation is subtly at work in much the same way as it always has been."

These gender issues identified in New Zealand Physical Education mirror those in many parts of the world. Male and female PE students now train together, but this has not brought about a sharing of the best of male and female PE cultures, but rather an assimilation of female culture within dominant male traditions based on competition and performance. For a while we thought mixed, or co-ed PE would bring about equity but we soon found out that girls got overshadowed in mixed classes and that teachers paid more attention to the boys. All but the most able girls got sidelined. We need a careful reappraisal of PE for girls to ensure that women and girls interests are valued and properly provided for, and that girls do not have to adopt a male model of PE and sport to participate fully and succeed.

Gender inequity in school PE currently underpins and reinforces gender inequity in sport. The starting point for bringing about change must be in the school environment through the way that physical education is taught, and through the extra-curricular opportunities open to girls and boys.

Clubs To move on to clubs. I will make some observations about the club scene in England, you must judge if a similar situation exists in Hong Kong. There are many small clubs in England and nearly all villages will have a football and a cricket club. Larger towns will have several football and cricket clubs and probably will also have tennis, hockey and rugby clubs. Club premises, pitches and courts are sometimes privately owned but more often use public land leased by the local council to the club.

In many villages the cricket and football pitch has pride of place at the centre of the village - the symbolic centre of village life. This set-up epitomises the central place of sport in rural English village life - male sport that is.

Women have an important part to play of course, in fact the club could not function efficiently without the labour of women to make the tea and wash the kit. But woe betide them if they actually want to play cricket or football. Tennis clubs have traditionally offered greater equality of access to courts and facilities, but an examination of the structure of any club is likely to reveal lists of male Presidents and Chairmen. Sports clubs are usually run by male-dominated committees. If women are involved at all, it is likely to be on junior and social committees.

Golf and bowls clubs are another story - the majority continue to discriminate against women by not allowing women access to facilities at peak times - that is, when men want to use them. As private clubs they are outside the aegis of the Sex Discrimination Act and they serve the interests of the majority of their members - who are men. Very often their constitutions bar women from the decision-making processes that would allow women to challenge these access issues, but it also has

to be said that many women members accept the situation happily because they pay reduced subscriptions.

So the degree of gender inequity varies between clubs according to their traditions and the sports they cater for. There is much that needs to be done to ensure clubs cater more effectively for women and girls' sporting needs. In Germany, the system of large multi-sport clubs with a family orientation, results in a high level of female participation. The provision of junior development programmes and childcare facilities can also be very helpful in enabling young mothers to participate and their daughters get a good introduction to sport. Changing long established traditions in voluntary or private clubs is not an easy task, but public funding bodies can influence club development through their funding policies. This is something the British Sports Council is attempting to do through the criteria it uses for distributing Lottery funds to sports clubs in the UK.

Governing Bodies

The situation in clubs is mirrored in sports Governing Bodies. The major, high profile sports have well-established organisational structures, employ a number of paid staff and have a substantial financial turnover. These are mainstream, or 'male stream' sports. Where these governing bodies cater for both men's and women's sport it is common for greater emphasis to be given to the men, more resources (human and financial) to be put into the development of the men's game, and for the women to be the poor relations. In mixed governing bodies men usually hold the most powerful and important decision-making positions on boards and committees. Their attitudes are not always conducive to the development of women's sport, as this 'quote of the year' from the president of the Scottish Bowling Association illustrates:

"If women stayed at home and concentrated on the washing and looking after the kids there would be no problem. I know times have changed, but the situation in bowling clubs hasn't." Bob Young, the president, on the Scottish Bowling Association's restrictions on women.

As in clubs, women are marginalised on junior and social committees. Traditional gender roles - men as decision makers, women as supporters and carers - regularly appear and reappear through cycles of committee elections and appointment panels.

Of course some sports have developed separate governing bodies for women's sport. Is this the way forward? Historically these organisations were formed because the existing organisation catered only for men and refused to acknowledge

or cater for women. The All England Women's Hockey Association is a prime example. As in women-only clubs, women's needs are paramount, women make decisions for their women players. Women's values and the ethos of 'women's sport' prevail. These organisations did and still do much good work, but in many countries the move is towards "amalgamation" or "integration" often encouraged by national and international sports organisations who wish to relate to one mixed organisation rather than separate women's and men's organisations. The key question for us is "Is it in the interests of women's sport for women's and men's organisations to amalgamate, or are sportswomen better served by separate organisations?" This is a knotty problem, similar issues exist elsewhere, in education for example, with the debate around single-sex and co-education. My thoughts are that integration/amalgamation is the best way forward, but only if, as part of that process, safeguards are built in which acknowledge sportswomen's interests, the values and traditions associated with women's sport, and the need for women in decision making positions. It is an important issue, one which we must get right if the best traditions of women's sport are not to be lost by so called "integration".

International Organisations

The majority of international sports organisations follow a pattern of mixed sport, that is, they include men's and women's sports. However, the patterns of inequity that can be observed in most clubs and governing bodies are mirrored at international level. Most international sports organisations focus on men's sport, decision making is in the hands of men and so male sporting values are reinforced.

The International Olympic Committee (IOC) is a prime example. Arguably the highest profile and most powerful sporting organisation in the world, it has an impeccable tradition of male privilege and power. Dating from Baron de Coubertin's classic statement that the role of women was to place laurel wreaths around the necks of the victors, women's position in the Olympic movement has always been secondary and subordinate. The history of the Olympic movement has been well documented and researched, and I do not have time to reiterate it here. Suffice to say that far fewer events are open to women than to men. Women's events which reinforce traditional definitions of femininity (e.g., synchronised swimming and gymnastics) have been accepted more readily than those which are associated with traditional definitions of masculinity (e.g., football, boxing).

The IOC itself has a tiny proportion of women members. It aligns itself with multi-national business and communications systems and fosters allegiances with powerful political systems; fields of human enterprise in which women are generally marginal.

So sports organisations, from the village club to the IOC, epitomise gender inequality, and define women's sports as inferior, peripheral and of lower status than men's sport. At this point it is easy to be overwhelmed by the enormity of the task that confronts us in trying to change sport.

3. Bringing about Change

I think the first thing we need to do is to think out what changes we are striving for. What do we mean by change? What changes do we want? Are we merely talking about making sporting institutions and sporting culture more accessible to women? Do we (as women) want a bigger slice of the cake that they (men) have? I think not. Although the power and influence of women in sports organisations may be desirable to redress the balance, if when women get there we adopt the male agenda, if we adopt a male management style and if we embrace male values in sport, then we will have achieved nothing, more than to prove "women can do it too" - we too can be "one of the boys". No, I think there is a much more fundamental and radical agenda for women in sport. That is to bring feminist values to sport and to contribute towards a redefinition of sport that is more humanistic and which will create a better sportsworld for both women and men in the second millennium.

A number of writers have articulated a new vision for sport which embraces and draws upon women's experience of sport and shows what it can contribute to sport in the future. Some of them draw on earlier traditions of women's sport when it was developed separately from men's sport, and usually by physical educators. For example, Carol Oglesby, an American feminist, identified six key belief statements underpinning the tradition of "Sport for Women" which flourished in the USA in the 1930s and 1940s. Sport should be:

1. Inclusive (not élitist or exclusive). The motto involved with this philosophy was for years "A sport for every girl, every girl in a sport".
2. In Balance with other aspects of her life (not over-emphasised or out of perspective).
3. Educational in orientation (not profit or win-oriented).
4. Cooperative and social in spirit (not hyper-competitive).
5. Safe and scientifically sound (not adventuresome nor risky). There was great emphasis on medical supervision of participation. This was probably heavily motivated by a climate of fear that sports were

potentially injurious in some special way for females, a fear that is only subsiding today.

6. Coached, officiated, and administered by women (not men).

These ideas, dating back some fifty years, may seem outdated and anachronistic. But I think many of us would still subscribe to them and wish to see modern sport redefined in line with them.

More recently, Mariah Burton Nelson, a former professional basketball player and sports journalist from the United States advocated a 'partnership' model of sport in the future. In her entertaining book entitled "Are we winning yet? How Women are Changing Sports and Sports are Changing Women" she draws on her own experiences and those of other North American sportswomen; ordinary runners, rowers and riders and champions like Olympic heptathlete Jackie Joyner Kersee, racing driver Lyn St James, and triathlete Paula Newby Fraser. With them she addressed the question: 'How are women faring in the increasingly integrated sports arena? Now that women have increased opportunities to play alongside men, are they playing like men? How is the women's sport ethic evolving? Were women better off in the all female domain?'

Mariah puts forward a 'partnership' model of sport, contrasting it with the military model increasingly prevalent in male sport.

<u>Partnership Model</u>	<u>Military Model</u>
comrades	enemies
respect for peers	rivalry
cooperation	authoritarianism
power "to"	power "over"
competence	domination

Her 'partnership' model emphasises that team-mates, coaches and even opposing players view each other as comrades rather than enemies. Players with disparate ability levels are respected as peers and sportswomen care for each other and their own bodies. She contrasts this to the 'military' model characterised by obsessive ranking of teams and individuals, authoritarian relationships between athletes and coaches, and antagonism between opponents. "The partnership model

is a compassionate, egalitarian approach to sport in which athletes are motivated by love of themselves, of sports and of each other". Power is understood as "power to" rather than "power over" - personal competence rather than domination over another. Like the tradition of 'sport for women' described by Carol Oglesby, the partnership model maintains that sport should be inclusive, in balance, cooperative, social and safe. It should be stressed that this view does not contradict the pursuit of excellence or competition. Achieving one's full potential and striving to be the best that one can be is part of the essence of sporting endeavour, and we should continue to help women (and men) to reach the top. Competition is fundamental to sport. The origin of the term "competition" is the Latin word "competere" which means "to seek together". Many top sportswomen demonstrate this kind of competition.

Chris Evert and Martina Navratilova had a fourteen year period of rivalry within which Chris's baseline game was challenged by the play of Martina so that Chris had to go back to the practice courts and develop a new aspect to her game. The competitor became the co-creator of the game, presenting the challenge to move Chris' game to a higher level. Throughout their period of rivalry at the top of women's tennis, Chris and Martina's rivalry was marked by friendship and respect for each other as each lifted the other's game to new heights through competition.

I could give other examples of how the 'partnership model' works but time does not allow me to expand more fully on what women bring to this new agenda for sport. I hope, however, that I have convinced you that it is not enough to just get more women into sport, and into sports organisations. We must be clear about what women can contribute to sport. In what ways might women help change the system of sport? How can we ensure women's values come through? These are important questions for all women and men who have a commitment to seeing sport change for the better.

4. How to bring about Change

Deciding it would be nice to see sport change is one thing. Doing something that might bring about change is another. It is easy to get swept along with the tide, and feel powerless as an individual to change things, but in the words of an old Chinese proverb, 'only dead fish swim with the tide'.

Everyone, whatever their position in an organisation has some power. It is erroneous to think that those at the top have all the power. I can assure you, as someone now relatively close to the top, that organisations are dependent on all their members or workers. Where there is a ground swell of opinion that things ought to change, when a good case is put for that change together with a strategy for making

the change, then management is unlikely to resist it.

Throughout the world the idea of 'fair play' is central to sporting ethos. Few people would disagree with the principle of equal opportunities for women in sport. But many are unaware of the inequities that exist. They do not recognise the barriers to women's participation. How often have I heard the phrase 'women can play sport if they want to - there's nothing stopping them' or 'our organisation is open to women and men, women are free to join/stand for election if they wish'. It would not occur to these people that to make sport genuinely accessible it has to be marketed and delivered in a way that takes full account of women's lives, needs and interests.

So the first task in bringing about change is getting agreement to the principle of Equal Opportunities for women in sport.

At an international conference held in Brighton in May attended by 280 delegates from 84 countries we thought it would be useful to those working for equality for women and sport to have some kind of statement, that was universally accepted, setting out the principles of equality for women in sport. So we produced the 'Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport' which was endorsed by the conference delegates and which is subsequently being adopted by governmental and sporting agencies world wide. I am pleased to say Hong Kong was well represented at the Brighton conference when the declaration was drafted, and the Hong Kong Sports Development Board has subsequently endorsed the Declaration.

I will tell you more about the international women and sport movement later, but the important point to note here is the power of having a set of principles which have some kind of world wide currency is that you can use it as a tool to lay the foundations for change. Getting agencies to 'sign up' to the Declaration has not so far proved difficult. Once organisations have signed up, then you can use this public commitment as a lever to get them to take some action.

The second task, and it may be smart to do this in conjunction with the first, is to raise awareness of the inequities which currently exist. An effective way of doing this is through a conference or seminar - today's conference is a good example. But you have to be careful that you are not just "preaching to the converted". I was a little concerned that today's conference was advertised as appropriate to 'those with an interest in sport and gender'. We must find ways of reaching those who do not have an interest in sport and gender, those who may believe, either through ignorance or prejudice, that this is not an issue.

Another useful way of raising awareness is through research and information which demonstrates the inequities which exist. This is where sports science has such an important role. Studies which highlight the discrepancies between male and female involvement in sport are needed. These studies need to go beyond quantifying the differences. We need studies and theories with the explanatory power to show us why these differences exist, what they mean to people, and how they became established. There is a growing body of research and literature, predominantly in the sociology of sport area, which sheds light on the issue.

Research and information does not have to be on the grand scale that gets published in academic journals and put on students' reading lists. Localised, specific information will often be more effective in bringing the issue close to home, and providing the basis for setting targets for change. For example, statistics which show the number of extra-curricular clubs and teams in a school and participation in them by boys and girls may highlight inequities in a school setting just as statistics on men and women 'on the board' may demonstrate inequities in sports administration, or a register of research projects analysed by gender of subjects and researchers shows imbalance in sports science research.

Having established commitment to the principles and raised awareness of inequities, the next stage is to draw up an action plan to bring about change. As with any action plan, it will need to be realistic, practical, and time-limited with clear targets to measure achievement. It should also be created and owned by those with the responsibility for putting it into practice. Some sports organisations set up 'Women's Committees' to do this work. For example, several international sports federations have women's committees, as have a number of governing bodies in the UK. Is this a good idea or not? The advantages are that you pull together highly-committed people who have the understanding and determination to see things through. The experience of working together can be enormously empowering and effective. The disadvantages are that women's issues may get marginalised and ghettoised. Moreover, the focus can easily become 'greater involvement of women in sport' rather than 'changing the culture of sport' for the benefit of women and men. Also by setting up a separate committee it is easy for the board to absolve responsibility and take the attitude 'we've done our bit - they've got their committee'.

There will be different solutions for different organisations. Women's committees can be successful provided that they are not isolated, that the main board (or equivalent) of the organisation receives, considers and acts upon their recommendations, commits resources (human and financial) to the implementation of their plan, and monitors its effectiveness. So there are three key stages in bringing about change in whatever field you are involved. Acceptance of the principle of equal opportunities for women, raising awareness of inequities that

exist, and drawing up, implementing and monitoring an action plan to redress inequities.

In Physical Education there are major issues surrounding the curriculum, the hidden curriculum and extra curricular activities. Both content and method need attention. Is the curriculum sufficiently broad based to cater for the differences between boys and girls? (remember equality does not mean 'doing the same thing'). Are there equal opportunities for extra curricular sport? Are the achievements of girls given as much recognition as boys? What are the effects of co-ed teaching? How is competition handled? Is cooperative behaviour nurtured?

In Sports Science a similar range of issues concerning content and method exist. What kinds of questions underpin research? Do questions of performance enhancement take priority over questions of ethics, equity and the well being of the athlete? Are male norms used as the bench mark for all research? What recognition is given to the social sciences? How much encouragement is given to female sports scientists to make a full contribution?

In Sports Administration there is an even greater challenge to bring about change, as this field, unlike education and science, is not by definition innovative and committed to the education of individuals or the pushing back of scientific frontiers. But sports administrators do need to see sport succeed in a changing world, and to ignore gender inequities is to bury their heads in the sand. Sport needs women as much as women may need sport, but there is much work to be done to convince sport of this.

Some key questions are:

- (i) To what extent is your organisation providing for the needs, interests and abilities of women?
- (ii) To what extent are you involving women in your organisation as volunteers, professionals and decision makers?

CONCLUSION

I hope through this talk I have provided some thoughts about gender and sport, convinced you that changes need to be made, and inspired you to play your part in the process of changing the culture of sport.

Hong Kong is on the threshold of a period of significant change - political and social. Sport is part of Hong Kong society, and you have a unique opportunity to reconstruct sport in a new society here. I was privileged to visit South Africa a few months before Mandela's election and was enormously impressed by the way that sport was seizing the opportunity to create new sporting practice in a new South Africa. They were, of course, focusing their attention on racial inequality in sport, rather than gender inequality. But gender inequality is pervasive world wide, and I hope that you will take the opportunity you have during a period of change in Hong Kong, to change the culture of sport here to more fully embrace women and women's values.

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13.45 - 14.05 Presentation

Dr. Veronica Pearson, Senior Lecturer

Department of Social Work and Social Administration

Introduction to gender issues in Hong Kong

About the Speaker

Dr. Veronica Pearson is a senior lecturer in the Department of Social Work and Social Administration and has worked in Hong Kong for fifteen years. She has published extensively in the areas of mental health and of gender, focusing on Hong Kong and China and is a Founding Member of the recently established Women's Studies Research Centre at the University of Hong Kong.

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Abstract

The paper will briefly discuss data from Hong Kong that show how the educational experience is a different one for young men and women. The education system is a major socialising system in any society and, amongst other things, must be seen to prepare young people for socially accepted roles. Thus subjects become 'genderised' and the Organisation and management of the school system reflects socially accepted hierarchies. In turn this has long-term effects on self-image, motivation and career.

14.05 - 14.25 Presentation

Dr. Alison McManus, Assistant Lecturer, PESSU

Inactivity of male & female children

About the Speaker

Dr. Alison McManus chose gender issues as a focus for her research following her undergraduate days at the University of Exeter. She won the annual Bergman-Osterberg prize in 1990 for the best undergraduate dissertation of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, for her study 'Gender Ideologies: Serious Barriers for Girls Participation in Physical Education' presented at the House of Commons. She went on to graduate from Exeter University with a Ph.D. in 1994, exploring sex differences between prepubertal children's cardiopulmonary responses to exercise and training. She now works as a lecturer in the Physical Education and Sports Science Unit at Hong Kong University, and continues to research differences in the physiological response to physical activity and exercise between Hong Kong Chinese girls and boys.

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Abstract

Many English and Hong Kong primary school children seldom experience the frequency and intensity of physical activity known to be associated with health-related outcomes. Young girls, regardless of ethnicity, are significantly more torpid than boys. It has been suggested that the low levels of physical activity apparent in girls are a product of the social constraints placed upon them and have little to do with biologically determined differences. This may be too simple an explanation however, since further data with British prepubertal children revealed that girls also have lower peak oxygen uptake levels than boys. Evidently physiological differences do exist, but in order to fully understand the current activity behaviour of girls we cannot detach the physical from the sociocultural. This paper will therefore discuss the physical activity patterns of English and Hong Kong primary school children, interpreting the results in relation to possible physiological and sociocultural explanations.

THE PHYSICAL ACTIVITY PATTERNS OF BOYS AND GIRLS

Alison McManus
The University of Hong Kong

Neil Armstrong
University of Exeter

INTRODUCTION

In comparison to other nations, there has been a low incidence of death from lifestyle related diseases such as coronary heart disease among Hong Kong residents. Whilst in the US coronary heart disease (CHD) accounts for almost half the total annual deaths, only 17% of deaths in 1988 were related to CHD in Hong Kong (Hong Kong Medical and Health Department, 1990). Despite being comparatively low, the mortality rate for CHD has increased threefold over the last two decades (Hong Kong Medical and Health Department, 1991) and of concern are a number of pertinent changes in health parameters in the child population of Hong Kong which may contribute towards a continued rising trend in the incidence of lifestyle related disease. In particular there has been an increase in the prevalence of overweight children, an increase in adolescent obesity, particularly notable in girls, and an increase in adverse childhood lipid profiles (Leung 1993). These changes have been attributed to the increasing 'Westernisation' of the diet of children and adolescents in Hong Kong and to a perceived lack of physical activity.

THE PHYSICAL ACTIVITY OF HONG KONG PRIMARY SCHOOL CHILDREN

We know little about the habitual physical activity patterns of children in Hong Kong. Habitual physical activity assessment is beset with many problems, particularly with regards the inability of the chosen technique to accurately assess intensity and duration and achieve a true picture of the habitual activity profile. Data collected in the UK (Armstrong *et al.*, 1990) using continuous heart rate recordings made over three normal school days, has shown that neither primary nor secondary school girls and boys experience those levels of physical activity associated with improved health in adult life (Sallis and Patrick, 1994). In both groups, girls were significantly less active than boys, and the girls' activity levels decreased with increasing age, whilst those of the boys remained relatively stable.

Using the same technique, we assessed the habitual physical activity of a group of Hong Kong primary school children. The data presented in Table 1 illustrates a similar pattern to those data from the UK, that is, very few of the Hong Kong children experienced those levels of physical activity associated with the

maintenance or improvement of aerobic fitness, and again the girls were significantly less active than the boys ($p < 0.05$). Of particular concern was that the Hong Kong primary school children were significantly less active than the UK children ($p < 0.05$).

Table 1 - Number of sustained periods with Heart rate >139 bpm or >159 bpm.

Period	Number	Boys n=21		Girls n=14	
		>139 bpm	>159 bpm	>139 bpm	>159 bpm
5 min	0	3	11	8	13
	1	6	6	3	1
	2	2	3	0	0
	≥ 3	10	1	3	0
10 min	0	7	16	12	14
	1	8	3	1	0
	2	4	2	1	0
	≥ 3	2	0	0	0
20 min	0	18	20	14	14
	1	3	1	0	0
	2	0	0	0	0
	≥ 3	0	0	0	0

It would seem from these data that the inactivity of our younger population is a global issue, however, the question of why girls are less active than boys remains unanswered.

WHY SEX DIFFERENCES?

To date there are no laboratory measures of aerobic fitness levels of Hong Kong Chinese primary school children. Previous data (Armstrong *et al.*, 1990), however, indicates that aerobic fitness levels are significantly greater in prepubertal boys in comparison to girls. Aerobic fitness and physical activity were not been found to be related in these prepubescent children, although this is of no surprise considering the low levels of physical activity recorded. It would seem that physiological differences between prepubescent girls and boys evidently exist, however, it would make sense to interpret the differences in physical activity patterns as potentially also a psycho-social phenomenon.

The play patterns of boys and girls have been found to be different and whilst girls generally interact with their peers in a co-operative manner, boys have generally been found to exhibit egocentric behaviour (Garcia, 1994). As such, boys'

play is often characterised by aggressive and competitive activities, whilst girls seem to prefer more passive activities with small groups (Liss, 1986). Indeed if you watch Hong Kong primary school children during recess time, most of the girls will be involved in games such as band-jumping - a game of self-improvement, whilst the boys will be playing much more vigorous games such as football. These patterns of play emphasise the continuing disparity between the gender expectations of girls and boys and in the achievement goals held by both sexes in relation to physical activity. Whereas boys are generally concerned with the outcome of their performance in relation to others, girls appear to find success and enjoyment through self-improvement (Ewing, 1981), and of course this has a significant influence on the choice of physical activity each sex participates in.

The inactivity of girls in Hong Kong may also be related to a general decrease observed in the independent mobility of children over the last two decades, which is more perceptible for girls (Hillman *et al.*, 1991). Although the work of Hillman is based on data from the UK, girls in Hong Kong may also have less freedom outside of the home than boys, which may well promote sex differentiated physical activity habits. This proposition deserves further research attention.

A lack of confidence in the exercise domain is common amongst girls and Scraton (1986) proposes that this is a product of the social constraints placed upon girls and the dominance of boys in competitive situations. Whilst physical education has the ability of foster a sense of value of the body, for many girls, games in which they fail or feel clumsy can have exactly the opposite effect. If the activity focuses upon competitiveness the social interaction style of girls could become a limiting factor in their learning fundamental motor skills. What we need to be developing in physical education is a range of activities which allow both co-operative and competitive learning experiences so that skill acquisition can be enhanced in girls as well as boys.

CONCLUSION

The data have significant ramifications for those in education and in the leisure industry. Given the low levels of physical activity shown, particularly by the girls, our goal should be to promote lifetime physical activity among children in Hong Kong. PE very often is the only experience many children in Hong Kong will have of exercise and physical activity, therefore we need to design a physical education programme which is both *girl* and *boy* friendly. Community recreation programmes need to foster more activities which both sexes can identify with. Until we shift from the obsession with fitting girls into the male model we are unlikely to achieve this goal for our young female population.

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14.25 - 14.45 Presentation

Ms Amy Chan Lim-chee, Athlete Affairs Manager

Why Hong Kong female athletes perform better

About the Speaker

Amy Chan was awarded a Bachelor of Physical Education Degree from Springfield, Massachusetts in 1991. She is currently Manager of Athlete Affairs Department, Hong Kong Sports Institute, dealing with more than 250 Hong Kong elite athletes to help them not only in education and career but the total development of well being.

She is a former Hong Kong badminton ladies singles champion on ten occasions and the highest rank in her ladies' singles and mixed doubles in the world was 13th and 3rd respectively. In 1990, she won her first mixed double gold medal with her mixed doubles partner, Chan Chi Choi in XIV Commonwealth Games in Auckland, New Zealand.

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Abstract

Why is it that Hong Kong's females are having a much greater impact on the ultra-competitive sporting world than their male counterparts?

Asian Champion rower, Ho Kim Fai; World Champion board-sailor, Lee Lai Shan; World Class table tennis players - Chan Tan Lui and Chai Po Wa; Wu Shu gold medallists Ng Siu Ching and Li Fai; Ironman, Kim Isherwood; 100m hurdler, Chan Sau Ying - are the most outstanding athletes in Hong Kong and have gained very high international recognition. They have a variety of sports and a variety of backgrounds. What they have in common, of course, is that they are all female.

The aim of this paper is to give an overview of why Hong Kong can produce a series of golden girls and what are the supporting elements behind these female athletes.

WHY HONG KONG FEMALE ATHLETES CAN PERFORM BETTER?!

Amy Chan

Manager, Athlete Affairs Department
Hong Kong Sports Institute

Why Hong Kong Female Athletes perform better?! After my presentation may be you can give me a clue.

To begin with let me show you the medal chart since 1986.

Comparison between the Male and Female Athletes performances in major games since 1986.

The chart shows that in 1986 Seoul Asian Games the total number of medals won by females were three (one gold, one silver and one bronze), whilst males won only two bronze medals; thus the total was five medals.

In 1990 at the Beijing Asian Games, the total number of medals won by female were three (one silver and two bronze), whilst the male athletes also won the same number of medals; the total being six medals.

In 1994 at the Hiroshima Asian Games, the total number of medals won by our Hong Kong athletes improved greatly. There were altogether 13 medals won by our athletes, with females winning ten of these and the male only three.

What about in 1998 Asian Games? What are our medals hopes?

I think we should first take a look at our medal hopes in the coming 1996 Atlanta Olympic Games. Hong Kong so far has never won any medals in the Olympic Games, except when Chan Chi Choi and I got a bronze medal in a badminton exhibition match in the 1988 Seoul Olympics.

Female vs Male prospective medalists.

What about Ho Kim Fai in her light weight singles/doubles? Or Chiang Wing Hung in his men's light-weight IV.

The two table-tennis queens - Chan Tan Lui and Chai Po Wah

Ng Siu Ching in her Tai Chi Quan/ Leung Yat Ho in his Nanquan

Lee Lai Shan/Wong Tak Sum on her/his sailor board

There are many more athletes..... Does any body wants to bet which sex will be the winner? The answers no doubt will be provided soon in 1996.

Coca-cola Sports Stars Award

The Coca-cola Sports Stars Award is Hong Kong's most prestigious award presentation for athletes. The award will be celebrating its 10th anniversary this year and since 1991 it has included the "Hong Kong Sports Star of the Year" award. This is the highest athletic award - regarded as going to the "star of the stars" - as has only ever gone to two persons:- One is Lee Lai Shan - she won the award 3 times 1991, '92 and '94, and to Chai Po Wah who won the 1993 award.

So it seems that female athletes perform better than the men?

I had an interview with Jeremy Walker, a top sports writer and he gave me some good reasons why females can perform better and I would like to share these with you.

First, he quoted the Chinese National Ladies Soccer Coach, Ma Yuan Yuan, on why his female athletes can perform so well? His comments are as follows:

"women can learn to endure hard training"

"women are more humble when they achieve something and they do not think that they are a star immediately"

"men's attitude change when they achieve something and immediately they think that they are a star and do not want to go any further (Santos) - it seems that they are "number one" in Hong Kong but have no ambition to succeed overseas"

What are the major factors that help the female Hong Kong athletes perform better?

1. The female athletes themselves acknowledge that it is easier to reach the top in women's sport than it is in men's sport because the competition is not as strong.
 - 1.1 A quotation from Ho Kim Fai, former school teacher, who gave up her job to become a full-time athlete four years ago, said: "I think the girls have more confidence to believe that they can be better in sport."
 - 1.2 "Also, there are not as many girls involved in sport as there are men, so maybe it is not as competitive; if girls have a really strong wish to be good they can do it."
 - 1.3 For Ho Kim Fai, it is a way to show others that girls are not weak. "I think people have an image that girls are weak and I do not want that."
 - 1.4 "I want to use my actual results to show that a female can still be a fighter if it is needed and so that people do not look down on you."
2. The traditional role of the Chinese male in society puts him under more pressure to support the family, especially in the late teens and early 20's - vital years for potential champions.
 - 2.1 An example of this is that we had a very good young male badminton player here called Chan Kin-ngai. He reached the last 16 in the Barcelona Olympics at the age of 21 and could have gone further, but he just quit.
 - 2.2 He had been playing badminton for eight or nine years and really loved the game but competitive badminton did not satisfy his needs. He wanted more money and thought that he was "a big boy now" and that he should do something else. I was very upset because if he had broken through that mental-block he could have reached a higher level.
3. In some sports, the history of female participation seems very short - e.g., the women's marathon was not held in the Olympic Games until 1984 because they did not think females were suitable. They were wrong and it has been confirmed that female athletes can run very fast marathons without any dangers.

4. Training partners: a female can have an advantage in raising her standards by training with male partners (e.g., Chai Po Wah training with Wong Yiu Wing), as the male is physically stronger than female, which places the female under more pressure and requires her to respond by improving her performance.
5. I consider female athletes in Hong Kong are very lucky compared to other countries in the world (e.g., some Muslim countries - these do not have, or only allow very few, female athletes to participate in sports). In America, the sex discrimination in the past means that women have been convinced to take less seriously the desirability and even the possibility of developing their own athletic abilities. The unequal funding for female athletes hinders the development of female participation in sports in these countries.
 - 5.1 However, in Hong Kong, females and males are both welcome to enter to any sports and therefore Hong Kong females may have a greater advantage when competing with other athletes in the world. Also, the advances in the sports science may also be able to increase the progress of female athletes. We have the right people in Hong Kong at the current time and they are taking advantage of these opportunities.
6. The establishment of the Jubilee Sports centre (now we call Hong Kong Sports Institute) and especially their Sports Scholarship Programme which started in 1987, was an important initiative for Hong Kong sportsmen and sportswomen in their pursuit of sporting excellence.
 - 6.1 The purpose of the Sports Scholarship Programme is to provide a support system comprising of access to coaching, facilities, sports science, sports medicine, insurance, dietary advice, overseas training, living subsidies, accommodation, meals and support for education and career development.
 - 6.2 The components of each scholarship and the level of financial assistance varies from sport to sport and from athlete to athlete.
 - 6.3 The Sports Scholarship Programme is open to all athletes who have shown potential and commitment in their respective fields - no matter if the athlete is MALE OR FEMALE.
 - 6.4 The Programme started in 1987 with 52 athletes from 8 sports and had been extended to now incorporate 259 athletes from 20 sports. There are 167 male and 92 female athletes in this programme.

Conclusion

I believe not all the successful athletes in Hong Kong are physiologically gifted but they have a lot of following characteristics in common.

1. They always compensate their disadvantages by sheer determination and hard work.
2. They never miss a training session and never need any encouragement to train.
3. Their training is very aggressive and they are always looking for high-quality competition. During races they never give up and will continue to attack, even when it is obvious they cannot win.
4. They work towards clearly defined goals with very specific and measurable targets. Their commitment to quality training shows in the way they record everything that is done in training and adhere to their diet and sleeping patterns to ensure the right fuels are provided for exercise and adequate rest is obtained. Nothing detracts them from their training.
5. Their coaches are often accused of being the driving force behind these athletes' success, but nothing could be further from the truth; they themselves are their own driving force and coaches are merely the catalyst that has pointed them in the right direction and has shown them what they need to do.
6. The athletes' will to succeed and the hunger for achievement comes entirely from within themselves.

In conclusion: the majority of outstanding athletes that I work with and those who perform very well internationally possess many of the qualities which I have mentioned above. But it is not just the female athletes who can perform better, male athletes in Hong Kong also have the same qualities to do so.

15.30 - 15.50 Presentation

Miss Ip Hay Wood, Acting Director of Sports Development.

Promotion of female sport in schools

About the Speaker

Ip Hay Wood is the Director of Sports Development of the Hong Kong Sports Development Board. Before she joined the Board in September 1991, she taught physical education (P.E.) in Heep Yunn Primary School for four years and later she was transferred to Heep Yunn Secondary School as the department head of PE for ten years. During her teaching, she took two years off for further study in physical education and education.

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Abstract

When I was a P.E. teacher in a girls' school, I saw it as my duty to enthuse girls and persuade them that physical education (P.E.) was not macho and 'unfeminine' activity. Instead P.E. would help them to develop their leisure activities, and they should refuse to have it co-opted by the leisure interest of their husbands/boyfriends/children/parents as is so prevalent at the moment. I showed my girls how significant their leisure is, how they should carve out for themselves in their present and future lives a portion of time and space which is their own and inviolable.

PROMOTION OF FEMALE SPORT IN SCHOOLS

Ip Hay Wood

Acting Director of Sports Development
Hong Kong Sports Development Board

Why are girls negative towards participation in sport

A lot of parents, men, women and adolescent girls have negative attitudes towards physical education (P.E.) and sports. They think that a lot of sports are not ladylike. Men think that women who are interested in sports lose their femininity and stress manliness. Girls are always afraid that their muscles will become too strong and too hard when they indulge in too much exercise. Even people in the medical field throughout the last century thought that girls should not jump further than two-thirds of their own length in the long-jump or that they should not jump higher than their knees in the high jump. These views were written in some medical statements.

Some P.E. experts are against women playing soccer because they argue that this game would not suit the women's condition, but women's soccer has increased so fast that medical advisers now must give the exact contrary view - they agree that women's soccer is healthy and now women have their own international soccer competition and they play whatever they want to play.

Adolescent girls generally show an ambivalence towards sporting activities. Adolescence and early adulthood is a period for reflecting on one's attitudes, values and ideas and for re-examining one's relationship with members of the opposite sex. Girls, at this stage, are often strenuously involved in constructing their notion of femininity and, invariably, are preoccupied with attracting and retaining a boyfriend. Many will identify with the lifestyles of the female characters in teenage magazines, who are frequently described as helpless and dependent upon others, especially young men. In these magazines, serious involvement in sport and P.E. tends to be portrayed as part of the naive world of childhood and at variance with an adult female persona. It is not surprising that many girls, when confronted by these conventional conceptions of femininity during the latter years of secondary education, will come to view sporting activities (and their associated masculine images of muscle, sweat and showers) with increasing disdain, perhaps thereby establishing lifelong habits of physical inactivity.

Furthermore, females in most parts of the world learn helplessness in sport. Sport participation is determined by early learning experiences within the community and family. Reading is one way children are socialized and the way sports are portrayed in reading material can have a lasting impact on the way children view their role in sports activity.

Although there has been a great increase in organised programmes for girls, the traditional gender roles continue to be perpetuated through socialization experiences. Learned helplessness, and emotional and cognitive conditioning which arises when an individual concludes from experience that nothing he or she does really matters, is promoted by society's lower expectations of women in sports activities. Traditional female roles are incompatible with being successful in sport.

While women do compete in sport, the majority compete in individual activities that are aesthetic and enhance the "female" image. Team sports are less popular among female athletes because they cause role conflicts. Being a female athlete causes a conflict between the necessity to live up to "feminine" ideals, but at the same time to display competency in the sport. Not only must the female athlete deal with the weight of negative public opinion, but also her own doubts as to the appropriateness of those activities.

Also many reading materials available in the school libraries present certain prescribed roles for girls and boys in sports activities. Since reading is one way that learned helplessness in sport is promoted, pupils are guided to form stereotyping in sports.

When I was a P.E. teacher in a girls' school, I persuaded them that physical education was not an "unfeminine" activity. Instead P.E. would help them to develop their leisure activities, and they should refuse to have it co-opted by the leisure interest of their husbands/boyfriends/children/parents as was so common at the time. I showed my girls how significant their leisure is, how they should carve out for themselves, in their present and future lives, a portion of time and space which is their own and inviolable.

Developing a favourable attitude to sport in school girls

I have tried hard to develop favourable attitudes in my girls towards P.E. According to the research conducted by Figley (1985), who investigated potential causal determinants of students' attitudes forward the physical education experience,

two major features were found which influenced attitudes towards P.E.: (i) teacher behaviour and (ii) curriculum. If positive attitudes towards physical education are valuable attributes and if physical educators have direct influence over the determinants of attitudes, then we have to be concerned with what characteristics a successful P.E. teacher should possess. I would consider the following five characteristics to be the most important:

1. Demonstrates a good relationship with children;
2. Helps students build self-awareness and positive self-esteem;
3. Has knowledge in all aspects of the physical education subject matter;
4. Aids in the development of students' physical skills and abilities;
5. Shows dedication to teaching physical education.

In order to enhance the students' positive attitudes towards P.E., the characteristics in the table shown below should be adopted by the physical educators.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A PHYSICAL EDUCATOR

Characteristics		
Personal	(1)	Exhibits enthusiasm
	(2)	Establishes a democratic, non-authoritarian environment
	(3)	Has a good sense of humor
	(4)	Demonstrates a good relationship with children
Professional	(5)	Shows dedication to teaching physical education
	(6)	Has knowledge in all aspects of the physical education subject matter
	(7)	Maintains a positive relationship with staff
	(8)	Exhibits professional demeanor
	(9)	Attends professional meetings, workshops
Instructional	(10)	Aids in the development of students' physical skills and abilities
	(11)	Exhibits ability to adapt to changing situations appropriately
	(12)	Organizes time, resources, and materials for effective instruction
	(13)	Implements a variety of instructional strategies to motivate students
	(14)	Utilizes valid testing techniques based on identified objectives
	(15)	Incorporates student ideas and points of view
Human Relations	(16)	Provides positive reinforcement to students
	(17)	Reacts with sensitivity to the needs and feelings of others
	(18)	Interacts and communicates effectively with parents and staff
	(19)	Develops and maintains rapport with students
	(20)	Helps students build self-awareness and positive self-concept
Management	(21)	Maintains class discipline
	(22)	Treats students firmly and fairly
	(23)	Demonstrates a concern for students' safety
	(24)	Provides a positive learning environment
	(25)	Efficiently handles non-teaching activities, such as roll taking, game preparation, etc
	(26)	Prepares students for inter-schools competitions

Anyone involved in teacher preparation, student teaching supervision, or secondary school physical education in Hong Kong would generally agree that P.E. programmes, have some problems. I would say that most of the faults lie within the curriculum, the way activities are offered, and the way they are taught.

It is evident that the problems in many schools are common; lack of equipment, large classes, on-going discipline problems, a lack of enthusiasm by students towards physical education, an ever increasing percentage of students who are not "appropriately dressed" for the day's activity, very narrow curriculum, poor teaching, etc. The P.E. of primary school students reflects short weekly activity, inadequate time and facilities and a heavy reliance on relays and informal games. The P.E. of secondary schools reflects a heavy emphasis on group sports and competitive games and other activities that they are not likely to continue throughout adulthood. P.E. teachers and coaches are characterized as higher in prejudicial, absolutist and authoritarian attitudes in comparison to secondary school teachers from other academic areas.

The curriculum of P.E. in Hong Kong is criticized as

- (a) an outmoded umbrella programme with no real focus;
- (b) supervised recreation, glorified recess;
- (c) a criminal waste of time;
- (d) a boring experience;
- (e) an irrelevant learning setting, where there are no teacher or curriculum effects
- (f) a setting in which embarrassment, humiliation, anger, discomfort, non-involvement, rebellion, compliance, and irrelevant activity appear to be the norm;
- (g) a setting where accountability for teaching and learning is minimal, if not non-existent.

It is very evident that P.E. programmes desperately need complete restructuring, from curriculum revision to instructional techniques. Most programmes today do not develop skills or basic fitness. Students do not always have a choice of activities, and activities offered have no depth or progression.

There is room for much improvement in P.E. However, we have to bear in mind that if reforms and innovations are to succeed at all, teachers must be made part of the initial reform or innovation movement. The future of education reform and teaching practice does not lie in the hands of scholars alone, or merely in the concepts of reform or innovation. It lies in scholars, teachers, school administrators

and students trying to understand the school culture and joining together in all phases of curriculum and instructional planning, implementation and evaluation within the classrooms and gymnasiums. Everyone must share in the responsibility of setting the proper conditions under which schools and teachers can function effectively.

Here are some suggestions that I hope can help solve some of the problems in P.E.

1. When designing the curriculum make sure that the students' needs and interests are taken into account. Give the students a voice and a feeling that they help to design the P.E. curriculum.
2. Offer a selective programme in P.E. If the students have a choice of activities, they are more likely to participate, to enjoy, and to continue to engage in this activity after formal instruction is over.
3. In the basic activities offered, such as basketball, volleyball, etc., there is a need to offer classes at an intermediate and/or advanced level. In other words, add progression into the activities offered. Activities offered must also have depth, which means longer teaching units than two or four weeks. A more comprehensive unit of six to eight weeks, for example, would allow a student more time to practice the skills, to see improvement, and to play the game.
4. When developing a curriculum that offers a wide variety of activities such as individualized programmes, independent study, and sequenced courses, it is imperative to make good use of the faculty's expertise, not only within the P.E. department, but also within the entire teaching staff. For example, if the teaching staff has a mathematics teacher who is an expert basketball player, he/she can be in charge of the basketball team.
5. Once the curriculum is revised, there is still one ingredient needed to ensure success, and that is to improve instruction. Teachers must equip themselves with techniques to reduce management time. The reduction of management time leaves more time for practice, which is the most important aspect in skill development. Teachers must give plenty of positive reinforcement and corrective feedback, since these have been shown to be very effective in helping students acquire behavioral and psychomotor skills. The use of rewards can also help to increase motivation, appropriate behaviour, and skill

performance. These techniques will not only improve instruction, but will also help students to enjoy P.E. and develop positive attitudes towards P.E. and sport.

6. P.E. and physical educators must become innovators not followers. Activities are usually not included in the school curriculum until they become popular for a period of time in the private sector, e.g. jogging or fitness, aerobic dance, racquet sports, etc.

The suggestions offered here cannot be implemented all at once, but a gradual implementation could begin to steer the programme in the right direction. P.E. programmes should no longer be judged by just the win/loss record of its athletics teams. Those of us involved in P.E. realize the contribution it can make to our students, if the programme is organised properly.

Strategies to promote girls' participation in school sports

When teaching the girls, here are some strategies to make them enjoy sports at schools, which later may lead them to the participation in life-time sports when they leave school.

- a) **Ensure successful performance.** Repeated failure on a task can lower self-confidence, especially if those failures occur early in the learning and do not reflect a lack of effort. Therefore, early successes are of primary importance. These successes should be based on relevant and realistic progressions: progress must be in small enough increments to assure intermediary successes which can lead to mastery of an outcome task. These successes will increase confidence and help maintain persistence on more difficult tasks.
- b) **Avoid sex-typing activities.** If a girl thinks that an activity is appropriate only for boys, then the chances that she will be confident in that activity are reduced. We must eliminate comments such as "he throws like a girl" or "she plays like a boy" to avoid sending girls mixed messages about their role in sport.
- c) **Communicate effectively.** Positive encouragement is an obvious confidence builder; however, it should be sincere as well as instructional. Each accomplished progression can be a source of praise. Any feedback given should be immediate and unambiguous. Teachers always show high expectation to girls and this enhances their perception of their own abilities.

- d) **Use modelling techniques.** Make the students aware of outstanding female athletes and give them opportunities to observe females compete in inter-house and inter-school competitions. Showing girls skillful female role models will help dispel the myth that sports are only for males.

- e) **Decrease competitive situations when learning.** An unsuccessful competition with another person before skill proficiency is gained can be discouraging for anyone. Acquiring basic skills early and building on them can increase one's perceived ability in related skills. Girls may be more confident initially when in non-competitive environments, but when the necessary skills and an appropriate level of confidence is achieved, competition can then be added so that experience in this area could be attained.

Conclusions

When I was a P.E. teacher in a secondary school, at the beginning of each term, I used to give an opening address to my girls in the first P.E. lesson. In the address I gave out a message that no woman could lose her womanly lines, even if she was participating in a so-called "typical" man's sport. Women always are an expression of themselves, and this has not come from outside instruction. Women are so different in their behaviors, just as sports are different in their nature, their techniques, their art of performance.

Women do not have to be a product of other people's thinking, they do not have to play a foreign role, to be guided by traditional images. They have to also develop in sports their personal role and by playing this role to develop further their character.

Women have to learn not to be a mirror of someone's imagination, to motivate themselves, to train themselves carefully and to choose their own sport, because they like it and they need it. The better men and women develop their self-understanding the better they work, play and exist together in a modern society.

To promote girls participate in school sports, physical educators play a very important role. They have to possess the right characteristics which are identified as the main factors which influence favourable attitudes of students towards P.E.

To be a good P.E. teacher, one has to enjoy what he or she is doing. A warm personality, an atmosphere of trust, warmth, freedom and enthusiasm between students and teachers are essential to promote female sport in schools.

The future of sport lies in the hand of the physical educators. I salute them.

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Addenda:

I believe in education today, more so than ever that there is a need for the humour of life. My experience is that good humour is helpful in learning about others as well as learning about oneself. A touch of humour, placed in an appropriate spot, can serve the day for both teachers and students.

15.50 - 16.10 Presentation

Dr. Atara Sivan, Lecturer, Education Studies.

(in association with Prof. R.W. Robertson, University of Technology, Sydney)

Male and female sport participation in Hong Kong

About the Speaker

Dr. Atara Sivan is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Education Studies at the Hong Kong Baptist University. She pursued her B.A. and M.A. in Education and Sociology in Israel and her Ph.D. in Education at Hong Kong University. Her research interests include leisure education and sport and recreation management where she has been active as a consultant and an academic adviser. She is a Director at Large of the Asia Pacific Region of the World Leisure and Recreation Association (WLRA) and serves as an executive member of WLRA's Education Commission. She has published widely in the fields of leisure and education and has been invited to present papers at both local and international conferences.

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Abstract

The paper examines the patterns of participation of males and females in Hong Kong. It presents results of a territory-wide survey which was undertaken recently to explore the sport and recreation participation of Hong Kong people. The survey which was conducted during two different seasons of the year to assess an annual variation in participation, elicits an existing pattern of participation with certain activities showing the same popularity throughout the year. Results highlight some differences between the sexes with regard to the content and context of the activities.

Male and Female Sport Participation in Hong Kong

Dr. Atara Sivan
Hong Kong Baptist University

Prof. Robert W. Roberston
University of Technology Sydney

ABSTRACT

This paper examines the patterns of sports participation of males and females in Hong Kong. It presents results of a territory-wide survey which was undertaken recently to explore the sport and recreation participation of Hong Kong people. The survey which was conducted during two different seasons of the year to assess an annual variation in participation, revealed an existing pattern of participation with certain activities showing the same popularity throughout the year. Results highlight some differences between the sexes with regard to the content and context of the activities.

INTRODUCTION

In order to determine the sports, leisure and recreation activities of Hong Kong people, a territory-wide research study was undertaken during two different periods of the year. The research consisted of two phases. The first phase was carried out during Spring 1993 and the second during Winter 1994. Both phases used the same measurement and included respondents from all the nineteen districts of the territory. The sample comprised of 6,238 Hong Kong residents, both females and males and covered the age cohorts from six years through to the elderly. Data were collected with the co-operation of educational institutions at primary, secondary and tertiary levels. The return rate was about 80% in both phases. The present paper describes the main findings concerning the most popular sports activities among male and female respondents.

RESULTS

PARTICIPATION RATE IN SPORTS ACTIVITIES

Table 1: Top five sports activities by sex (phase I)

Male		Female	
ACTIVITY	%	ACTIVITY	%
Badminton	43.1	Badminton	57.7
Basketball	43.1	Cycling	42.3
Table Tennis / Soccer	42.7	Basketball	32.3
Cycling	40.6	Swimming	30.4
Swimming	34.0	Jogging	28.1

Table 1 shows similarities in the top five sports activities between males and females during the Spring season. The most popular activities for both sexes were, badminton, cycling, basketball and swimming. Differences were found in the participation rate of table tennis, soccer and jogging; where table tennis and soccer were more popular among male respondents and jogging was more popular among female respondents. Further analysis of the results showed that the differences were especially substantial in the participation rate of soccer and table tennis. Only the minority of females participated in soccer and their participation rate in table tennis was half of the males' participation rate. Other popular sports activities for both sexes were playground games, volleyball and hiking (Sivan & Robertson, 1993).

Table 2- Top five sports activities by sex (phase II)

Male		Female	
ACTIVITY	%	ACTIVITY	%
Basketball	46.1	Badminton	54.1
Table Tennis	43.1	Cycling	41.0
Badminton	42.0	Basketball	30.6
Cycling	40.7	Jogging	30.2
Soccer	37.7	Playground games	29.2

Table 2 shows similarities between males and females in the top five sports activities during the Winter season. However, like in the Spring season there were some differences in the participation rate of some activities. Table tennis and soccer were more popular among males, whereas jogging and playground games were more popular among females. The differences were especially substantial in the participation rate of soccer and table tennis. Other popular sports activities for both sexes were swimming, hiking and volleyball, however, the participation rate in these activities was much lower (Sivan & Robertson, 1995).

Table 3 : Top five sports activities respondents wanted to do but had not done, by sex (phase I)

Male		Female	
ACTIVITY	%	ACTIVITY	%
Swimming	27.3	Swimming	31.8
Cycling	23.9	Cycling	25.8
Tennis	21.4	Tennis	26.0
Hiking	19.0	Hiking	21.2
Horse riding	18.0	Horse riding	20.9

Table 3 shows that the five most desired sports activities were the same for both males and females. Overall there was a higher percentage of females than males who wanted to participate in these activities but had not participated in them. Other desired activities were badminton, bowling, squash, boating/sailing/windsurfing and ice-skating.

Table 4. - Top five sports activities respondents wanted to do but had not done, by sex (phase II)

Male		Female	
ACTIVITY	%	ACTIVITY	%
Basketball	46.1	Badminton	54.1
Badminton	42.0	Cycling	41.0
Cycling	40.7	Basketball	30.6
Swimming	19.3	Swimming	19.2
Hiking	19.0	Hiking	16.6

Table 4 shows that the five most desired sports activities were the same for both males and females. More females than males wanted to participate in badminton, and more males than females wanted to participate in basketball.

The most common reasons for a lack of participation in sports activities in which the respondents wanted to participate were: lack of time, time not suitable, no companions and distance from home. More than half of both males and females stated the lack of time as their main reason, about half have stated that time was not suitable, and about one third mentioned the lack of companions and distance from home.

MALE AND FEMALE PARTICIPATION ACROSS DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS

A close examination of the participation rate in sports activities of both males and females across different age groups revealed some differences in the most popular activities. Whereas the majority of females across all age groups participated in badminton, the most popular sports activity among males varied across different age groups. Badminton was participated most by respondents in ages 6-11 and 19-34. In addition, more males than females in the age 55 and over had participated in the most popular sports activities.

COMPANIONS WITH WHOM MALES AND FEMALES PARTICIPATED IN SPORTS ACTIVITIES

The most popular companions participating with both male and female respondents in their sports activities were family members, school mates and friends. Results showed that the rate of participation of school mates was higher in certain sports activities such as basketball, table tennis and volleyball. The participation rate of family companions was higher in other sports activities such as badminton, cycling, playground games and swimming.

The results revealed some differences in the companions between the sexes, where there was a stronger tendency among females to participate in the activities with the family, where males tended to participate with friends, work colleagues or alone. Thus, for example, more females than males participated in cycling, basketball, table tennis and swimming together with family members, whereas, more males than females participated in basketball and table tennis together with friends and work colleagues. In addition, more males than females participated in swimming alone.

CONCLUSIONS

The above study provides baseline data on sports participation of males and females in Hong Kong. It reveals the participation rate of the most popular sports activities as well as the preferred activities of both sexes. Since the research was undertaken in two phases covering different seasons of the year, it portrays the current patterns of sports participation. Results indicated some similarities in both the content and the context of sports activities between males and females. The most popular sports activities for both sexes were badminton, cycling, basketball and swimming, and the activities both males and females wanted to do but had not done were swimming, cycling, tennis, hiking, horse-riding, badminton and basketball.

In spite of the overall similarity in the type of activities, and their rates of participation, the research indicated some differences especially with regards to the context in which the activities had been performed. Males participated more in soccer and table tennis, whilst females participated more in jogging and playground games. In addition, females tended to pursue their sports activities together with family members, whereas males tended to perform their sports activities with friends, colleagues or alone.

The differences in the participation rate of various sports activities between males and females seems to be similar to other surveys of the same nature which were undertaken in other nations. An increase in participation in sports activities in Hong Kong has been perceived as part of the overall trends in leisure time of the people. Such a trend is characterised among others with an increase in awareness of health and fitness among both males and females (Ng, 1986). When researching into the actual participation in sports activities, special attention should be given to the context of the activities. A better understanding of reasons for participating in activities with certain companions and the perceptions of the aim of these activities among males and females could shed more light on the issue of gender and sport. An examination of these aspects are highly important in Hong Kong especially in light of the rapid changes which its population is undergoing which affect the family structure and the roles of males and females. Furthermore, since sports activities are performed during leisure time, the context of these activities should be examined from a broader view while considering important trends in leisure within the territory. Such an examination is currently underway.

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16.10 - 16.30 Presentation
Ms Trisha Leahy, Sport Psychologist

Gender differences in the experience of anxiety in competitive sport among Hong Kong elite athletes

About the Speaker

Trisha Leahy is the Sport Psychologist at the Hong Kong Sports Institute where she works with Hong Kong's elite athletes and coaches. She is also actively involved with coach education in the Territory, acting as both Course Designer and Course Tutor for the Hong Kong Coaching Committee and for the ASF&OC.

Trisha has conducted numerous seminars, workshops and lectures throughout the Asian region, on the psychological aspects of performance enhancement for both elite athletes/coaches and for the business community. She has also presented her research in the International Conference arena.

Trisha has a M.A. in Comparative Asian Studies from Hong Kong University and a M.Phil. in Psychology from the Chinese University of Hong Kong. She speaks Cantonese fluently.

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between gender and anxiety experiences in training and competition within the context of elite sports. The model proposed in this study has identified clear predictors of effective and ineffective anxiety coping responses, and offered suggestions based on these results for coaches working with elite male and female athletes. Further it has revealed that male coaches when dealing with female athletes may not be giving as effective social support as they give to male athletes. This underscores the need for coaches to be able to assess their athletes' anxiety levels and to be able to respond in a way that meets the needs of the athletes, rather than those of the coach.

By employing an interactional, relational approach to the study of gender differences in anxiety experiences in elite sport, this study moves beyond simplistic categorisations of male-female differences which typify much of the research in sport psychology.

Gender Differences in the Experience of Anxiety in Competitive Sport, among Hong Kong Elite Athletes

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It is proposed in this study, to investigate gender differences in the experience of state anxiety in competitive sport, among Hong Kong elite athletes. An interactional model of affective experience in sport, derived from social cognitive theory and grounded in a feminist cultural studies approach, was tested. The objective of the study was two-fold: 1. to establish the need for a feminist analysis of gender issues in elite sport and 2. to test the ability of the proposed model provide an analysis of anxiety experience in competitive sport which accepts as a basic premise that gender differences are not just categorical issues to be explained in terms of biological factors or socialization (Hall, 1993). Thus this research endeavoured to look at gender differences in competitive sport anxiety from a relational point of view.

INTRODUCTION

Recently, there have been calls for more theoretically informed relational analyses of gender, race and ethnic issues in sport (Hall, 1993). Dewar (1991) describes this approach as one which begins with the assumption that sport is a highly visible area of popular culture in which gender representations are made manifest in powerful ways. Such a viewpoint perceives gender relations to be articulated and negotiated within historically developed, socially produced, and culturally defined limitations and possibilities. Sport is a cultural representation of such relations (Dewar, 1991).

Much of recent research in sport and sporting practices has involved limited levels of analysis. In sport psychology research this limitation has manifested itself in the tendency to produce categoric research. Categoric research, so called, because it focuses on the differences between categories,

defines gender as a categoric issue where the primary focus is on quantifying and empirically studying differences between males and females in, for example, athletic participation, performance and abilities. Differences are explained in terms of biological factors and socialization. The categoric approach is limited in that, by focusing on individual differences, it omits analyses of the ways in which gender relations are socially and historically produced (Dewar, 1991; Hall, 1993; Hargreaves, 1990). Therefore any sex differences found in relation to sport are viewed as individuals' problems which are solved by interventions at this level (Dewar, 1991). Thus it is the individual woman or women in general who must change their behaviour and socialization if they are to achieve sporting equality with men. Equality thus becomes defined as catching up with men. Dewar points out in her argument against categoric research that where differences are attributed to biology, "women are given little hope of catching up" (Dewar, 1991). Thus the idea of women's biological inferiority becomes entrenched.

As Gill (1992) eloquently states, it behoves us to move beyond simplistic models based on stereotypical dichotomies and to consider gender within the context of sociocultural history and the current social environment rather than merely as a characteristic of individuals.

Relational Research: Gender in Context

Gill (1992) and others (e.g. Krane, 1994) have criticised current sport psychology for being largely oblivious to the social context and process of gendered sport experience. Feminist research, in particular a feminist cultural studies perspective, may be able to provide new insight into sport psychological phenomena and fill the vacuum in the understanding of why males and females differ in sport and exercise experiences. From the feminist cultural studies perspective, the first assumption is that sport is not neutral, objective and ahistorical. It is a cultural representation of social relations, a set of selected and selective social practices that embody dominant meanings, values and practices (Dewar, 1991). It is against such a theoretical backdrop that the present study of gender differences in the experience of anxiety among Hong Kong's elite athletes proceeds.

This study attempts to show how structural imbalances in the elite sport system in Hong Kong affect athletes in a very practical way. The structural imbalance to be discussed concerns gender bias in elite coaching - 98% of head

coaches at the Hong Kong Sports Institute are male. This gender imbalance is itself related to the same lack of female representation in all decision making administrative bodies of elite sport in Hong Kong (Leahy 1995). The practical effect of this imbalance to be studied here is the anxiety experiences of elite athletes in Hong Kong. The word 'experience' is used in a holistic, relational way, referring, not just to the individual perception of anxiety by athletes but also to the behavioural manifestation of the anxiety and the subsequent social support received.

An interactional model of gender and anxiety experiences in competitive sport: Hong Kong Elite Athletes

Weiss and Glen (1992) have proposed an interactional model of female sport participation, which takes into account, biological, social and psychological aspects of an individual's reaction to the environment. The model used in this study (Figure 1) builds on Weiss and Glen's, and integrates aspects of social cognitive theories (Bandura (1986), Harter (1989), Nicholls (1989), Eccles (Parsons) et al. (1983)) to look at competitive sport anxiety experience using a multidimensional approach involving maturational, psychological and social factors. Thus, a more relational picture of athletes' anxiety experiences in elite level sports can be presented.

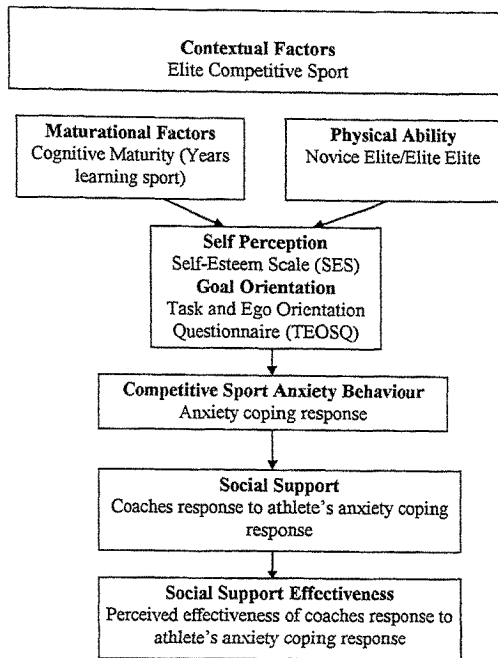


Figure 1. An interactional perspective on anxiety experiences in competitive elite sport.

Individual Components of the model.

In the present study the context is that of elite competitive sports in Hong Kong. Maturational factors to be considered comprise cognitive maturity. This is defined as the level of cognitive maturity relating to an individual's sport. This is measured by the number of years of participation in that sport.

Physical ability is defined according to level of eliteness at the time of the study. Athletes who have not achieved a higher than national ranking are considered novice-elite. Athletes who have achieved Asian or World rankings are considered Elite-elite.

Psychological factors include measures of self-esteem and goal orientation. Goal orientation refers to the type of goal adopted toward achievement and how ability is construed as a result of this goal orientation. Nicholls (1989) maintains

that people interpret their performances based on two goal perspectives - task or ego. In the task-oriented goal perspective, individuals rely primarily on self-referenced information such as effort and skill improvement to judge personal levels of competence. Ego-oriented individuals, on the other hand, use norm-referenced standards to judge personal ability. In particular, comparisons with others and outcome considerations are of primary importance.

Competitive sport anxiety behaviour relates to the athlete's coping response to anxiety.

Social support refers to the coach's response to the athletes anxiety coping response.

Effectiveness of social support refers to the perceived effectiveness of the coach's response.

Overall model

Using this model within the context of elite sports in Hong Kong, considering athletes with a physical ability range from Novice-elite (NE) to Elite-elite (EE), the context of elite sports in Hong Kong, considering athletes with a physical ability range from Novice-elite (NE) to Elite-elite (EE), and varying sport specific cognitive maturational levels, a number of questions are being asked. These relate to the relationships between psychological factors such as self-esteem and goal orientation, responses to anxiety and subsequent social support.

This model hypothesizes that psychological factors such as self perception and preferred goal orientational model of anxiety experiences in sport could account for differences in the anxiety experience of male and female athletes in Hong Kong.

On a descriptive level, pathways to effective coaching social support may be observed to be more strongly or easily predicted when the context is that of male elite athletes and male coaches rather than when the context is that of female athletes and male coaches.

Method

(i) Pilot Study

Procedure:

The purpose of the pilot study was to identify the situations which athletes considered most anxiety inducing under two conditions - training and competition. Based on information from athletes in ongoing counselling and on information from coaches, an initial list of anxiety provoking situations was drawn up. A sample of 10 athletes (not included in the main study), with five female and five male, was chosen to rate these situations on a seven-point Likert scale (0-6) from not at all anxiety provoking (0) to extremely anxiety provoking (6). The athletes were administered this rating form in an interview situation so that congruent constructions and references could be ensured, between the investigator and the subjects.

Athletes were asked to only refer to highly important competitions and training sessions. These were defined by the athletes themselves, i.e. training\competition importance was entirely subjective, reflecting actuality.

Athletes were then interviewed in depth to elicit information on responses to anxiety stimuli, subsequent coach responses and effectiveness of the latter. The interview was semi - structured and lasted 1.5-2 hours. The semi-structured format also allowed for the establishment of a rapport with the athletes so that as much as possible, frank responses were elicited.

From the pilot study five situations rated highest by athletes for each of the conditions, anxiety in training and anxiety in competition, were recorded. For the purposes of this paper the anxiety inducing situations in training are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Anxiety inducing situations in training.

Anxiety before Training	Mean Scale(0-6)
Coaches expectations	3.8
Fear (possibility) of not being able to attain training goals	3.5
Relationship with teammates	3.1
Fear (possibility) of being overtaken by another member of the squad	3.1
Fear (possibility) of injury	2.6

(ii) **Main Study**

Participants

Hong Kong Sports Institute scholarship athletes were selected to fulfill the criteria of ethnicity and elite status. Of the 125 (approximately) athletes that may be considered in the upper echelons of elite sports in Hong Kong, 101 or approximately 81% participated in the study. All athletes in the main study were either Hong Kong Chinese or Mainland Chinese by birth, (age range, 12-41; mean age 20.6; S.D. 6.5). The sex composition of the sample reflects that of the elite athlete population in Hong Kong, approximately 60% male (N = 61) and 40% female (N = 40). The following sports were represented: swimming (N = 22); soccer (N = 16); fencing (N = 12); badminton (N = 9); rowing (N = 9); windsurfing (N = 9); squash (N = 7); canoeing (N = 6); athletics (N = 7); table tennis (N = 2); Chinese martial arts (N = 2).

Instruments

Anxiety experiences in training and competition questionnaire.

This questionnaire was constructed from the results the initial pilot study. It was designed to be applicable across sports. Each sub-scale was generated specifically for each anxiety inducing situation in training. These were: coach’s expectations (TCE); fear(possibility) of not being able to achieve the training goals (TG); relationship with teammates (TRT); fear (possibility) of being overtaken by another member of the squad (TOS); fear (possibility) of injury/illness (including exacerbation of present or pending condition) (TI).

Sub-scales within the anxiety experiences questionnaire.

1. Athletes indicated the type and rated the frequency of their responses to specified anxiety inducing situations on a five-point Likert type scale (AR Scale). The factor structures of the AR scales were examined through the use of an exploratory factor analytic procedure using the principal components method of extraction. The theory driven conceptualisation of the present study suggested that a two-dimensional factor solution, applicable across all scales and accounting for an acceptable amount of variance could be found. A two-factor solution was demonstrated the applicability of the two-dimensional conceptualisation. This solution accounted for a range of variance from 37 to 44 percent across the AR scales.

The two factor solution for the AR scales indicated a reactive and proactive response type. Items considered to indicate a reactive response type, included, worrying, negative thinking, and negative emotional reactions. Items included under the label proactive responses include behaviours essaying to establish control over the situation, or over oneself, such as visualising, positive self-talk, talking to the coach about one's feelings.

Cronbach's (1951) alpha for 9 of the 10 reactive and proactive AR subscales ranged from .62 to .85 demonstrating the generally acceptable internal consistency of the AR scales for the present sample of elite Hong Kong athletes. For one of the subscales, Cronbach's (1951) alpha was .45 indicating a low reliability. However this scale had been reduced from its original number of items during the factor analysis. The factor analysis used did not constitute an alpha maximising procedure as the main objective of the study does not focus on the scales themselves. It is suggested that the eventual small number of items on this scale may have contributed to the low reliability coefficient. However this low reliability scale does conform clearly to the two-factor solution and therefore conforms to the general pattern of the other AR scales. It was thus decided to include this scale in the subsequent analysis with the caveat that interpretation would be carefully assessed.

2. Athletes indicated the type and rated the frequency of coach's responses to the athlete's response, on a five point Likert-type scale (BR Scale). The factor structures of the BR scales were examined through the use of an exploratory factor analytic procedure using the principal components method of extraction. The same conceptual approach as employed in the AR scales revealed the suitability of a two-factor solution.

The two factors emerging from the factor analysis of the BR scales were identified as indicating an engage and a disengage response type and accounted for a range of variance from 50 to 67 percent. Items considered to indicate an engage response type, included attempts to normalise the anxiety response, reminders to use psychological skills such as visualisation, and attempts to engage the athletes in attention to tasks. Thus coaching responses which engage with the athletes anxiety and attempt to give some coping input are labelled engaging behaviours. Items included under the label disengage response type include behaviours that either ignore the athlete's anxiety response or fail to notice it. Disengaging responses on the part of the coach therefore disengage from the athletes anxiety and fail to provide direct coping input.

Cronbach's (1951) alpha for 7 of the engage and disengage subscales ranged from .61 to .79 demonstrating in general, acceptable internal consistency of these BR sub-scales for the present sample of elite Hong Kong athletes. Three of the subscales had reliabilities ranging from .27 to .55. This indicates a low reliability. The same rationale as was used with the AR subscales was employed to accept these scales for inclusion in the subsequent analysis.

3. Athletes indicated the perceived effect of coach's responses (increased anxiety, decreased anxiety, no influence) (BRE Scale). The reliability coefficients for three of the BRE scales ranged from .64 to .74. Again two of the five scales had reliability coefficients of .52 indicating low internal consistency. In general however the scales exhibit acceptable consistency. Again as general patterns are being assessed in this study, it was decided to include all the BRE scales in subsequent analyses with the usual caveat regarding interpretation.
4. Data on age, years of competitive experience, years of international competitive experience, and years of learning the sport were also collected to establish cognitive and maturational factors. Previous highest achievement was recorded to control for ability.

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (SES) is a 10-item, straightforward estimate of positive or negative feelings about the self. The reliability coefficient for the ten-item SES was .74, indicating an acceptable reliability.

Task and Ego Orientation Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ) is a 13 item inventory which was developed to assess dispositional differences in goal perspective in sport contexts. The scale provides two sub-scales, task involvement and ego involvement. The present research entailed the use of a 13-item Chinese

translation version of the TEOSQ. Cronbach's (1951) alpha for the task (6 items) and ego (7 items) subscales was .74 and .71, respectively demonstrating acceptably high internal consistency for the present sample of elite Hong Kong athletes (101 cases).

Results

This study proposes that the model introduced in Figure 1 provides an example of a relational analysis which can more fully explain gender differences in the experience of competitive sport related anxiety. As the model being presented in the study is entirely new, the hypotheses generated were exploratory in nature. In general it was hypothesised that this model could account for differences in the anxiety experience of male and female elite athletes in Hong Kong. It should be noted that 'experience' is being used here in a holistic contextual manner. It does not simply refer to the response of the athletes to the anxiety stimulus. Specifically it was hypothesised that pathways to effective coaching social support are more strongly or easily predicted when the context is that of male elite athletes and coaches rather than when the context is that of female elite athletes and male coaches.

To begin testing the model, sub-components were tested using step-wise multiple regression analyses. The correlations suggested by the multiple regressions were quite consistent across situations and thus it was decided to proceed with a path analysis to test the model as a whole. For the sake of parsimony and because the general patterns were quite consistent across situations it was decided to test the model against all training situations considered together. In addition, cognitive maturity and achievement rank were collapsed to one variable, as the correlation coefficient (.42, $p = .01$) indicated they were highly correlated.

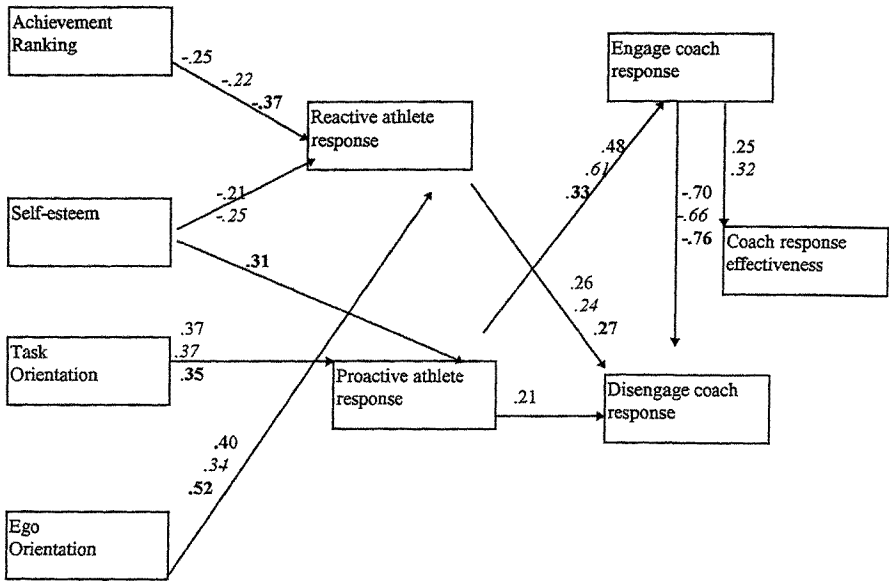


Figure 2. Path analyses of pre-training anxiety experience. Three models were tested for all athlete groups, male athletes and female athletes, respectively. (Beta weights for all athletes in normal type, for male athlete group in *italics*, for female athlete group in **bold**)

In general the path analyses confirms the general the general model suggested in Figure 1. From Table 2 it can be seen that the goodness of fit indices of the model are consistently strong. The chi-square value is significant, $\chi^2(18, N = 101) = 40.02, p = .001$, suggesting that the model is not plausible in the population. However, this value is not reliable as it is subject to distortion by sample size and is sensitive to violations of normality (Fassinger, 1987). With the other measures of fit showing generally high fit results, it can be concluded that the model fits the population well despite the chi-square result (Fassinger 1987). For the female athlete group however, the chi-square was non-significant, $\chi^2(18, N = 40) = 28.83$,

$p = .050$, indicating, together with the other fit measures an excellent fit to the population. However it should be noted that the female athlete group had a relatively small number of subjects and therefore would be more likely to have a non-significant chi-square for that reason.

The goodness-of-fit (GFI) index was .93 indicating an excellent fit of the overall model. The male and female athlete models also exhibited a high GFI (.89). However the adjusted goodness-of-fit (AGFI) was relatively low for the overall (.82), male (.73) and female (.72) models indicating that further adjustment of the model may provide a better fit. The root mean square residual (RMR) which is a measure of the overall residual variance in fitting each parameter to the sample data should be very low when the fit is good. In the present overall model this value was .072 which can be considered good. The male athlete and female athlete models RMR were also adequate (.090 and .11 respectively).

Differences in strength of association on a number of variables are apparent. With elite athletes in important training situations, variables predicting athletes' response types differ between males and females. For example, self-esteem is positively associated with proactive responses for females ($\beta = .31$, $R^2 = .27$), but is negatively associated with reactive responses for males ($\beta = -.25$, $R^2 = .15$). Ego orientation has a stronger association with reactive athletes responses to anxiety in the female group ($\beta = .52$, $R^2 = .40$), than in the male group ($\beta = .34$, $R^2 = .20$). Achievement ranking has a stronger negative association with reactive athlete responses to anxiety for females ($\beta = -.37$, $R^2 = .40$), than for males ($\beta = -.22$, $R^2 = .20$).

It was seen that pathways to effective coaching social support appeared to be more strongly or easily predicted when the context is that of male athletes and coaches rather than when the context is that of female athletes and coaches and male coaches. Perceived coaching social support for males does indeed show a different pattern than that for females. If male athletes respond proactively, the resulting perceived coaching social support is very highly associated with engaging responses ($\beta = .61$, $R^2 = .38$). For females, the strength of this association is not so strong, ($\beta = .33$, $R^2 = .11$) and much less variance is accounted for. In training situations proactive responses on the part of male athletes also predict perceived disengaging coaching social support ($\beta = .22$, $R^2 = .36$). Perceived effectiveness can be predicted from perceived coaching social support ($\beta = .32$, for engaging and $\beta = -.38$, for disengaging, $R^2 = .37$). For females even though there is a positive association between proactive responses and perceived engaging coaching social support ($\beta = .33$, $R^2 = .11$), there is no significant association between such

coaching social support and perceived effectiveness. The negative association seen between males' perceptions of disengaging social support and perceived effectiveness appears as an even stronger association for females ($\beta = -.43$, $R^2 = .33$).

Table 2

Goodness-of-fit (GFI) indices for pre-training anxiety experience path analysis model.

Index	All	Male	Female
χ^2 (Degrees of Freedom), p	40.22(18), p= .001	38.67(18), p = .003	28.83(18), p = .050
Goodness-of-fit (GFI)	.93	.89	.89
Adjusted goodness-of-fit (AGFI)	.82	.73	.72
Root mean square residual (RMR)	.072	.090	.11

Discussion

The interactional model proposed to investigate the experience of anxiety in elite sport in Hong Kong was confirmed in this study for training situations perceived by the athletes to be important or 'key' (to use athlete parlance) events. In addition the model demonstrated its applicability to consider gender differences in a relational contextual manner. To this end it was suggested that on a descriptive level, proposed that pathways to effective coaching social support would be more strongly associated when the context is that of male athletes and coaches rather than when the context is that of female athletes and male coaches. This was indeed observed in the model.

It was shown that with elite athletes in important training situations, variables predicting anxiety coping responses differ between males and females. As mentioned earlier self-esteem was a strong predictor of proactive responses for females. Task goal orientation was also positively associated with proactive coping responses for this group. Proactive coping responses involved behaviours endeavouring to establish control over the situation, or over oneself. Examples include using positive self-talk, visualization, readjusting focus to the task, talking to the coach about one's concerns. For males such responses were highly associated with a task goal orientation. It would thus appear from the results of the study that coaches wishing to promote proactive anxiety coping responses in their athletes should encourage the development of task goal orientation for male and female athletes but should also promote the development of self-esteem in female athletes.

The results of this study indicate that in important training situations, reactive coping responses are associated with an ego goal orientation for both males and female athletes. However the association is much stronger for female athletes. Reactive responses include worrying, negative thinking, and negative emotional reactions. Such responses were negatively associated with achievement ranking for both male and female athletes. This is not a surprising result given that novice-elite athletes at the Hong Kong Sports Institute, have restricted access to training in the type of psychological skills such as visualization etc., which constitute proactive coping responses to anxiety. Due to insufficient personnel, the top athletes have priority for this kind of service. Clearly, this needs to change if Hong Kong's novice-elite athletes, who by definition do not have a lot of experience in elite sport training systems, are to be more adequately prepared for the international sporting arena.

Reactive coping responses were positively associated with perceived disengaging social support from coaches. This association was of similar strength for male and female athlete groups. Disengaging social support involved behaviours that either ignore the athlete's anxiety or fail to notice it. These types of responses, therefore, disengage from the athletes anxiety and fail to directly address the athlete's needs. This perhaps is something that coaches need to consider. It might be suggested that if athletes are responding to anxiety stimuli in reactive way, they are in more need of engaging coaching social support than when they are responding proactively. This apparent discrepancy may relate to cultural prescriptions of male behaviour. In Hong Kong, as in many developed Western countries men are traditionally not taught or expected to be emotionally expressive or to openly handle emotional feelings. As coaching is male-dominated in elite sports in Hong Kong it

is therefore not surprising that when athletes display reactive, emotional behaviour, the male coach's response is to disengage.

The positive association between proactive coping responses and perceived engaging social support from coaches, was much stronger for males than for females. Given the argument above this is also not unusual. Male coaches may feel a cultural tie with male athletes because of certain commonalities of male expectations of behaviour. Therefore male coaches may more freely engage with male athletes. With female athletes however, there may be hesitations as to the type of engaging behaviour that is appropriate.

Not surprisingly, perceived effectiveness of coaching social support was positively associated with engaging behaviours for the male group. Engaging social support included attempts to normalise the anxiety response, reminders to use psychological skills such as visualization and attempts to engage the athletes in attention to tasks. No significant association between perceived engaging social support and effectiveness emerged for the female group. Again this may be something that male coaches need to address. Are the types of engaging behaviours used qualitatively different when dealing with male and female athletes? This information is not available from the questionnaires used in this study, but deserves follow up in a later study.

Interestingly, in training situations engaging and disengaging behaviours are negatively correlated implying that the more coaches use either one type of social support, the less they will use the other. This may be an artefact of the extensive analyses or it may indicate that in training coaches tend to be more rigid in their approach to handling athletes' anxiety responses. Conceptually, this makes sense as in training there may not be so much "at stake", unlike competition where the coach may be willing to draw on a number of different strategies to enable athletes to handle competitive stress more effectively.

Conclusion

The multi-dimensional approach to the investigation of sport related state anxiety employed in this study is a unique approach when compared with other research on this topic. Typically, sport-related anxiety is studied in relation to either performance or other psychological factors (Jones and Cale, 1989; Gould, Petlichkoff, Simmons and Vevera, 1987, Wittig et al., 1987). No other study has

to the authors' knowledge employed an interactional, relational approach to the study of gender differences in anxiety experiences in elite sport, thus moving beyond simple categorizations of male-female differences. By placing the experience of male and female athletes within a relational context, this study answers the call from feminist researchers to consider the social context (Deaux and Major, 1987).

Limitations of this study include the relatively small sample size. However the sample was quite exhaustive (approximately 81%) of the elite athlete population in Hong Kong. The female athlete sample was relatively small compared to the male sample so caution should be used in interpreting the results of the female model. Further limitations include the small number of items in some of the scales used which may have compromised reliability of individual scales.

A number of questions remain unanswered by this study and perhaps deserve investigation in the future. It would be interesting to know, for example, whether female coaches working with male and female athletes would have similar "cross-cultural" difficulties to those apparently experienced by male coaches in this study. The model also could be tested with other sport related affects, for example, frustration, aggression etc.

What is clear from this study is that for athletes in Hong Kong, the extreme gender bias in the social context of elite sport is one that appears to directly affect both male and female athletes "on the ground" in the experience of at least one aspect of elite sport - anxiety management. Other aspects of the elite sporting experience not studied here may be even more affected by the male bias of Hong Kong sport. These aspects, such as, as mentioned above, aggression, anger and frustration management, need to be assessed in a similar manner.

On a systemic level, changes need to be made in Hong Kong elite sport in the administrative, decision making bodies of the Sports Institute, the Sports Development Board and the Amateur Sports Federation and Olympic Committee. These bodies need to become "engendered" to ensure that the needs of all athletes, both male and female are being represented. Hong Kong is already a signatory to the 1994 Brighton Declaration of Women and Sport (BDWS, 1994). The stated overall aim of the Declaration is to "develop a sporting culture that enables and values the full involvement of women of every aspect of sport" (BDWS, 1994). It is time for that commitment to be acted upon for the overall development of sport in Hong Kong.

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Poster Presentation (1)

University entrants' opinions on gender and sport issues

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Students entering the University of Hong Kong (N = 2408) expressed the extent of their (dis)agreement with Likert Scale statements regarding gender issues in sport and exercise participation.

Significant differences between the sexes were found for six of the nine statements and for self-ratings of physical ability and fitness. Males had higher perceived ability (PA) and perceived fitness (PF), agreed more strongly than females on sport and exercise giving them the strength and energy they need, and on males being naturally more active. They disagreed more that individual sports are preferable to team sports. The females denied more strongly that boys had more opportunity for sport in the schools and that being good at sport made them less attractive to males.

Significant differences between PA groups or significant PA x Sex interactions were found for the variables Opp(primary), Indiv-team, Physiology, Interference, Strength, and Active. Differences between PF groups included the variables Opp(secondary), Indiv-team, Co-ed, Attractive, Strength, and Active.

These findings suggest that the opinions of males and females on gender and sport issues are generally in the same direction, but differ significantly in strength. The exception was Opp(primary) where the females on average agreed while the males disagreed. It is also clear that PA and PF play a role as factors determining opinions on gender and sport issues.

Poster Presentation (2)

Participation of females in physical activity and sports in Ancient China

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The poster details are extracted from research by the author into the sporting and recreational diversions of people in Ancient China.

Ancient China is considered to be that period of time stretching from the Neolithic period to the end of the Qing Dynasty in 1840. Examples are depicted in murals, tapestries, etchings and artwork on artefacts made of bone, bamboo, porcelain and a wide range of natural materials. References from ancient texts are also used.

Gernet (1982) has claimed that Chinese civilisation has been the guiding spirit for a large section of humanity, and that the west, which has borrowed from China right down to our day without realising it, is far from recognising its sizeable debt to her.

Examples are depicted or described of females playing golf, football, polo, archery and also taking part in more casual recreation, swimming, fishing, swinging, playing touhu and board games. Professional female athletes were involved in acrobatics and stunts, and various forms of dance permeated society.

Research undertaken so far suggests that forms of physical activity originating in the military for training or recreational purposes, were modified to form the basis for social recreational activity. Females were prominent in such activity, particularly at court, but further evidence is needed of participation by other social groups.

Poster Presentation (3)

Sports participation in Macau during transition period 1999

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Hong Kong Institute of Education

Macau which has been an official Portuguese colony since 1557 is famous for its gambling casinos, the Grand Prix and the International Marathon. On May 20, 1987, the Macau Sports Institute was established. It aims at subventing sports activities and promoting sports in the small territory (area: 18 sq.km.; population: 40 thousand). Recently, the participants of the 11th Asian Games, Beijing in 1990; the 1st East Asian Games, Shanghai in 1993; and the 12th Asian Games, Hiroshima in 1994 have already marked a new era in sports development in Macau, which has been reflected in increased figures in sports participation. The purposes of this paper were two-fold: to review the overall picture of sports participation in Macau since 1990; and to analyze the special characteristics of sports participation as related to gender.

The results revealed that the total number of sports participants has increased from 7,379 (1990) to 9,870 (1994); 33.8% increase rate. Besides, figures showed that men were the dominant participants in sports activities. Also, only male players were found in the sports: Squash and Soccer in 1994. Last year, the first top three Male and Female sports with regard to the total number of participation were: Soccer (2532), Basketball (468), judo (415); and Volleyball (348), Basketball (188), judo (136) respectively. Finally, the top three sports with most participants are recorded as: Soccer (2523), Swimming (1578) and judo (825).

Poster Presentation (4)

A case study of female students' participation and attitudes towards school Physical Education and Sport as compared with male students in one primary and one secondary School

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Hong Kong Technical College (Tsing Yi)*

Purpose of this study

Female participation and attitudes towards School PES as compared to males' in the new generation of two local schools.

Data collection instrument

Questionnaire to a sample of primary and secondary students; Test of statistical significance was carried out.

Review of Literature

Value of PES to females; male/female differences, Myth and reality for female participation in PES, Situation in H.K.

Results

They support most of the hypotheses.

Implications and recommendations

Treat both sexes equally in resources and sport activities; Schools to foster sport interests; Avoid sex-stereotyping.

Guidelines for further research

Image of femininity; Involving more schools.

Poster Presentation (5)

Reliability of a questionnaire to investigate differences in habitual physical activity of Hong Kong primary school children - a pilot study

DR. D.J. MACFARLANE

and

MS. M.K. CHAN

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The purpose of this study was to devise a reliable self-administered questionnaire to collect valid information on the habitual physical activity (HPA) of primary school children in Hong Kong. Although several studies have obtained information on the physical fitness of Hong Kong school children, none have investigated HPA, which is suggested to be more important than physical fitness in the prevention of degenerative diseases such as atherosclerosis, coronary heart disease and obesity.

A self-administered questionnaire was devised to assess HPA that could be completed within 10 minutes that listed 22 of the most common children's physical activities. Each child indicated the average frequency and duration of frequently performed activities and an overall Activity Metabolic Index (AMI) was created for each child by summing, for all activities, the products of frequency x duration x average intensity (units: METS.minutes/month).

Test-retest reliability was determined by administering the questionnaire to 4 classes from P3, P4, P5 and P6 (n=138) one week apart. A significant *Pearson Correlation Coefficient* of $r=0.86$ ($p<0.0001$) indicated the questionnaire was very reliable, although the extreme ranges of scores also contributed to this high correlation. T-tests revealed that there were no significant gender differences in overall AMI either within each grade or for the entire sample (AMI means \pm SE of $5,713 \pm 732$ and $6,850 \pm 870$ for all females and males, respectively), but a repeated-measure *ANOVA* suggested that girls and boys generally participate in different kinds of activity.

It is concluded that this questionnaire is reliable and pilot testing suggests some differences may exist in the HPA of male and female primary school children in Hong Kong.

This study was part of a larger project funded by the Health Services Research Committee.

Poster Presentation (6)

Participation in and attitudes towards sport and physical activity by male and female students entering The University of Hong Kong in 1993 - 94

MR. M.A. SPEAK

and

Dr. K.J. LINDNER

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As part of its annual survey of incoming students, the Centre for Physical Education and Sport and the Physical Education and Sports Science Unit of The University of Hong Kong seek responses via self-administered questionnaires to a number of questions relating to physical activity and sport.

In its 1993 - 94 survey, 2779 questionnaire responses revealed significant gender differences in attitude, participation levels and interests, barriers and motivations to participation.

The poster presentation describes these differences and the implications for policy makers, administrators and teachers within and outside the education system.

Findings' suggested the following :

- Females were significantly less likely to take part in regular physical activity than males.
- Participation for **health, fitness and relaxation** were the main motives for males and females equally.
- The participation motives **personal image, development of skills and excellence, and making friends** were significantly stronger for males than for females.
- Females rated PE teachers significantly higher than males.
- Only 12% of males and 7% of females had participated regularly outside school.
- 56% of females and 44% of males were unable to swim 50 metres.

Poster Presentation (7)

The effect of gender-role stereotyping on the choice of sport of secondary school girls in Hong Kong

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Centre for Physical Education and Sport
The University of Hong Kong

The purpose of this study was to examine, through a self-administered questionnaire, how girls in secondary schools are affected by gender role ideology in choosing their physical activities.

The survey was held in 10 co-educational secondary schools in Hong Kong in January 1995. Two hundred Form 4 (age 15 to 17; both boys and girls) students were randomly selected in helping to contribute their ideas.

The results indicated that the gender-role stereotype image among the girls is very strong. Most of the girls accept their gender definition as quiet, soft, physically inferior and non-athletic. They act as a true defender of the feminine values that probably were generated from their family. The feminine values of tenderness, nurture and compassion appear to be quite different from the masculine and military values inherent in sport. Family, peer group, the school teachers and the P.E. curriculum help to reinforce their ideology. They transmit their cultural standard for their leisure behavior, therefore school girls tend to choose those rather feminine-defined sports such as badminton, volleyball and table-tennis. Most of the sports involving aggression and body contact are not welcome by the girls.

Poster Presentation (8)

Portrayal of sportswoman in selected Hong Kong newspapers

MS. HON SZE SZE

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The purpose of this investigation was to find out if under-representation of sporting females exists in Hong Kong newspapers. The study also looked into the kind of treatment sportswoman receive in the press and the possible reasons for such orchestration. Daily sports sections of three local newspapers were collected for five months starting from October 1, 1994. A total of 145 days of sports coverage were analysed. The two papers published in English are the South China Morning Post and the Hong Kong Standard, and the one published in Chinese is the Sing Tao Daily. Six sports journalists, including editors and reporters, were interviewed to augment the statistics from the sports pages.

The results show that the two English-language newspapers, relying more heavily on wired-through news material, devoted less coverage in terms of both articles and photographs to sportswoman than the Chinese-language newspaper. The recent emergence of women as the prominent sporting force in Hong Kong apparently has a bearing on the amount of coverage in the Chinese-language newspaper. Across the three papers examined, over 70% of articles and over 78% of photographs were devoted exclusively to men's sports, while sportswomen's share only constituted 8% in terms of articles and 14% in terms of photographs in the least lopsided cases.

Owing to the financial and labour constraints faced by local sports journalism, sporting bodies, especially those of women's sports, are becoming increasingly liable to the publicity of their sports. In addition, problematic practices of the press and sporting bodies such as assigning reporters to men's sports organizations for continual coverage and releasing only men's game schedules are some of the stubborn obstacles to higher visibility for women's sports.

Poster Presentation (9)

Appearance and performance: creating a gender based sport ethic in rhythmic gymnastics

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The purpose of this poster paper is to examine the concept of positive deviance as a way of establishing a strong sport ethic, regardless of its morality or the contravention of the norms of society. The paper will focus on how eating behaviours are utilised to reduce body weight and how such behaviours manifest themselves as forms of positive deviance. The paper will show how judges, coaches and athletes consider the appearance of an idealised body shape and size to be equally, if not more, important than the performance of physical skills. The paper will also suggest that because the sport and its ethic aligns with the fashion industry, that young females who make up the sport are placing themselves at risk as possible victims of disordered eating

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