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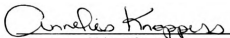
A Comparison of Attitudes Toward Women's
Participation in Sport Among Females and Males,
Mexican-Americans and Anglo-Americans, and
College Students and Members of the General Public

presented by

Judith Darlene Walton

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

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Education, Counseling Psychology and
Human Performance


Major professor

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A COMPARISON OF ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN'S
PARTICIPATION IN SPORT AMONG FEMALES AND MALES,
MEXICAN-AMERICANS AND ANGLO-AMERICANS, AND
COLLEGE STUDENTS AND MEMBERS OF THE GENERAL PUBLIC

By

Judith Darlene Walton

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APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following members of the Faculty of the Graduate School at Michigan State University.

Dissertation Advisor Annelies Knoppers

Committee Members Martha C. Ewing
Margaret Davis
Barbara Wilson Bullock

September 20, 1985
Date of Acceptance by Committee

ABSTRACT

A COMPARISON OF ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN SPORT AMONG FEMALES AND MALES, MEXICAN-AMERICANS AND ANGLO-AMERICANS AND COLLEGE STUDENTS AND MEMBERS OF THE GENERAL PUBLIC

by

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The purpose of this study was to assess and compare the attitudes of a selected population toward the participation of women in sport, as well as attitudes toward the salience of sport to society and women's role in society. These attitudes were compared across ethnicity, gender, and educational status. Six hundred, forty-one respondents stratified across the independent variables responded to a Likert-type scale developed for the study. The results of a 2 x 2 x 2 multivariate analysis of variance demonstrated that there were no significant interactions among the variables, but that there were significant main effects. A series of univariate analyses of variance indicated that Mexican-Americans and college students were significantly more positive in their expressed attitudes toward the salience of sport to society

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than were Anglo-Americans and members of the general public; however, there was no difference between the attitudes of females and males. Women, Anglo-Americans, and college students expressed significantly more liberal attitudes toward women's role in society than did men, Mexican-Americans, and members of the general public. Supportive attitudes were expressed toward women's participation in sport, although females and college students exhibited significantly more supportiveness toward this role for women than did males and members of the general public. No difference was detected between the attitudes of Mexican-Americans and Anglo-Americans toward women in sport. Further analyses of the data revealed some serious limitations to the apparently supportive attitudes toward women in sport and in society, however. Gender and educational status were salient determinants of attitudes toward women in sport and in society, but less important in explaining attitudes toward sport. Ethnicity appeared to be of little practical significance as a determinant of any of the three measured attitudes.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

According to McPherson (1979), "Sport has been an integral facet of life in most societies throughout history" (p. 2). That this is true of contemporary American society can hardly be disputed; one need only turn on a television set any weekend, glance at a newspaper, or peruse the local newsstand to realize the pervasiveness of sport in our society. Yet, it has only been in the past two decades that sociologists have "sensed in the institution of sport social parameters worthy of intellectual attention" (Ulrich, 1979, p. 11) and begun a concerted effort to discover and understand the relationships between sport and various aspects of American society (Coakley, 1982; Leonard, 1984; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1983).

In order for sport to occupy the pre-eminent position that it does in American society, it must have some relevancy to the value structure of that society. Although it is extremely difficult to delineate typical American values because of the enormous diversity of individuals and groups within this nation, there does appear to be a consensus concerning some of the dominant value systems operant in the country (Williams, 1970). Overall,

Americans seem to value achievement, success, hard work, and upward mobility most highly.

Sport as a Transmitter of Values

Most Americans believe that sport transmits and expresses some of the dominant values of society (Snyder & Spreitzer, 1983). The Miller Lite Report on American Attitudes Toward Sports (1983) stated that 92% of their respondents believed that sports competition was good for children because it taught them to strive to do their best. Various authors (Berlage, 1982; Grove & Dodder, 1979; Jensen, Leonard, & Liverman, 1980; Nixon, 1979; Spreitzer & Snyder, 1975) have reported that adults believe that sport participation is good preparation for later life, makes better citizens, prepares one for life in the business world, teaches fair play, and develops self-discipline. For example, Berlage (1982) found that fathers of youth sport participants believed that the emphasis in sports on teamwork, competitiveness, and tenacity was important for later careers in business. Berlage agreed that these attributes are necessary for success in the business world and thus concluded that "children's competitive team sports are socializing agents for corporate America. From testimonials to corporate studies, athletes are shown to have advantages in business careers" (pp. 323-24).

There is widespread support for the assertions that athletics are used to develop desirable attitudes toward

the importance of achievement and success in our society and that the leaders of the board room learned necessary business skills on the playing fields of their youth (Bell, 1980; Berlage, 1982; Harragan, 1977; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1983). However, sport has historically been engaged in primarily by white males, so that they have been the main beneficiaries of the transmission of these values. Although women are certainly a viable part of society, they have been denied equal access to participate in sport throughout most of history (Gerber, Felshin, Berlin, & Wyrick, 1974). In addition, relatively little research exists concerning their limited involvement in sport. Hall (1977) surveyed 13 texts and anthologies focusing on the sociology of sport and found that only three of them contained separate chapters or sections concerning women's involvement in sport. This has changed somewhat since 1976 because of the impact of the women's movement, but the change has been minimal. We still know very little about women (Rosaldo, 1980) and even less about their involvement in sport, particularly Mexican-American women's involvement in sport.

Not one reference to sport was found in this investigator's survey of four texts devoted to studying "Las Mujeres," Mexican-American women, published between 1977 and 1980. Reference to minority women's involvement in sport in sociology of sport texts invariably pertains to that of black women. However, the Mexican-American

population of the United States is the second largest minority population, and Mexican-American women's involvement in sport is a topic of legitimate concern for the researcher in sport sociology.

Sport as a Socializing Institution

As previously mentioned, sport participation in the United States has historically been primarily the prerogative of males. Many females have been shunted off to the sidelines and neither allowed the opportunity nor encouraged to engage in competitive sports. Males, on the contrary, are not only encouraged, but also expected to be active sports participants. According to Hall (1977), "We know that sports participation has an important positive function in the development of masculine identity but a negative function in the development of female identity" (p. 42).

The differential consequences for each sex for participation in the same activity have generally been attributed to the differing role prescriptions for males and females in our society (Hall, 1977; Promoli, McCabe, & Shaw, 1977; Snyder, Kivlin, & Spreitzer, 1975). Traditionally, sex-role identity has been interpreted in terms of masculinity and femininity, two concepts considered by some to be bipolar in nature. The characteristics ascribed to these terms have been thought to be biologically-based immutable differences determined

by one's sex (Rosaldo, 1980). The concept of femininity encompasses behavioral attributes such as daintiness, expressiveness, and gentleness. Conversely, the concept of masculinity encompasses the behavioral attributes of strength, aggressiveness, confidence, and competitiveness (Chafetz, 1978). Therefore, the socially acceptable masculine image is defined in terms of leadership, dominance, and competitive tendencies. As indicated previously, these attributes are assumed to be developed partially through sports participation.

Some members of society do not feel that these are desirable attributes for females. As a federal judge remarked, "Athletic competition builds character in our boys. We do not need that kind of character in our girls" (Gilbert & Williamson, 1973, p. 95). Such persons evidently subscribe to the traditional view of a woman's proper role as being confined to the home as a wife and mother; therefore, she does not need to develop the so-called "masculine" attributes necessary to compete and succeed in the business world. This view, however, denies reality. Over 50% of the adult labor force is comprised of women, many of whom are married. Many more are formerly married and now heads of households as well as sole supporters of households. Women work outside of the home for both psychological and economical reasons. They, therefore, need to develop the skills necessary to compete

successfully for higher paying and more prestigious jobs in the world of work outside the home.

Unfortunately, various factors have prevented women from developing the skills necessary for successful competition in the business world. The occupational system is highly differentiated by gender, with women concentrated in 10 positions found in the low-paying, low-prestige categories of clerical and service worker. Men, on the other hand, tend to be found in a wide variety of jobs in the high-paying, high-prestige managerial, craft, and laborer categories (Vanfossen, 1979). The concentration of women in such a narrow range of jobs effectively limits their opportunities for upward mobility while, at the same time, reducing competition with men so that the chances for mobility for men are not materially threatened. The mean salary for all male workers in 1980 was \$25,973; for female workers the mean was about half that, or \$14,914 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983). The average salary for Mexican-American women is even lower. Comprising 47.5% of the Mexican-American labor force, the Mexican-American woman earns a mean salary of only \$4,798 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980).

If participation in competitive sport does, indeed, help to prepare the males of our society for life in the business world, then it would appear that the exclusion of women from these competitive experiences would tend to mitigate against their success in entering and

effectiveness in staying in power positions in the same sphere. And, though evidence is less clear, the same may hold true for other facets of American society, such as politics.

Furthermore, women's lack of participation in competitive sport may have other consequences as well. Oglesby (1978) identified psychological damage which may accrue when one is forced into stereotyped gender roles with which one is not comfortable. Ultimately, such enforced role ascription may result in total alienation from oneself and denial of the worth of one's existence. At a less severe level, this alienation from oneself may be manifested in lack of social acceptance, achievement problems, and fear of success.

Thus far, most of what has been said about sport and females' involvement in sport has pertained to Anglo-American society. Most of the existing research concerning females in sport has been conducted with reference to white women. As stated earlier, almost no mention of women's participation in sport is found in literature pertaining to Mexican-American women. Therefore, it appears that little support for female involvement in sport in the Mexican-American community exists and that the female Mexican-American athlete is invisible. This may be due, in part, to what some authors term the triple oppression of the Mexican-American woman.

Mirande and Enriquez (1979) stated that the oppression of the Chicana is threefold, "as an ethnic minority, as a woman, and through internal oppression within her own culture" (p. 130). Although the authors made no reference to sport in an entire volume devoted to the study of the Mexican-American female, some information pertinent to participation in sport can be extrapolated from their analysis of the Mexican-American female in education. They state that:

All chicano (sic.) children are likely to view the Anglo teacher as an alien being with values and actions that deviate from cultural expectations, but the chicanita (sic.) also finds that the teacher does not conform to her expectations of feminine behavior Women are supposed to be warm and nurturing, but the teacher is aloof, cold, and assertive. Those very qualities which the school seeks to engender are typically in conflict with cultural expectations of feminine behavior. (p. 132)

Mirande and Enriquez go on to say that the values the school seeks to develop, such as independence, assertiveness, and competitiveness, are in direct opposition to cultural norms for Mexican-American females. If a positive attitude towards achievement and success are not deemed desirable for females in Mexican-American culture, it seems reasonable to hypothesize that participation in sport would not be deemed desirable for the Mexican-American female. It would neither be aspired to by a female nor encouraged by male or female members of the Mexican-American society. However, as stated earlier, *such* a hypothesis has little empirical verification.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to assess and compare the attitudes of two selected populations of South Texas Anglo-American and Mexican-American adults toward the participation of women in competitive sports. Additionally, the attitudes of the same two populations toward women's role in society and the role of sport in society were assessed. A sample was drawn from the population of students enrolled in Texas Southmost College, Brownsville, Texas, during the spring and summer semesters of the 1983-84 academic year. A comparative sample was selected from the population of adults listed in the telephone directory of Brownsville, Texas, during the same time frame. The attitudes toward the role of sport in society, the role of women in society, and women's participation in sport were compared across gender, ethnicity, and educational status.

It was assumed that the attitudes of the general population represented and were reflective of the status quo, whereas the students represented a new generation of leaders who will be instrumental in either maintaining the status quo or in changing existing conditions, values, attitudes, and opportunity structures. The attitudes of both of these groups were considered to be salient to an understanding of the current perception of women, competitive sport, and women's participation in competitive

sport in Anglo-American and Mexican-American society of South Texas.

Hypotheses

Specifically, the investigation was designed to test the following hypotheses.

1. There is no significant difference in the attitudes toward the role of sport in society across gender, ethnicity, and educational status.
2. The attitudes of males, Mexican-Americans, and the general public are significantly less positive than the attitudes of females, Anglo-Americans, and college students toward the role of women in society.
3. The attitudes of males, Mexican-Americans, and the general public are significantly less positive than the attitudes of females, Anglo-Americans, and college students toward women's participation in sport.

Significance of the Study

There appears to be a generally held perception in our society that participation in competitive sport is important training for developing characteristics deemed necessary for success, especially in the business world. Historically, access to this training has been almost exclusively a male prerogative in American society. When women were restricted to the traditional roles of wife and mother, this exclusion from competitive sport may not have had a great impact on their lives, for they rarely aspired to careers as business executives. However, since World War II, economic necessity has brought increasing numbers of women into the civilian labor force. In 1974, 28.1% of the civilian labor force consisted of women, but the

percentage has grown steadily until in 1982 women comprised 52.6% of the work force. At 47.5%, Hispanic women also comprise a high percentage of the Hispanic work force (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983).

The contemporary women's liberation movement has done much to remove the stigma of women working outside of the home and also to convince women that they can and should aspire to traditionally "male" careers, such as business executive. This seeming change in attitude has not translated into effective occupational upward mobility and economic success, however. Women still are clustered at the lower rungs of the success ladder. Females comprise 80% of the clerical and kindred worker categories, 59% of the service workers, and 45% of the sales force. The percentages of women in managerial positions is much lower (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1983). If participation in sport has helped prepare men for climbing the rungs of the ladder of success throughout history, it should do the same for women if they are provided with the opportunity.

Historically, however, women have not been provided with the opportunity to participate in competitive sport. This has been due, at least in part, to attitudes limiting women's proper role in society to be that of a submissive, nurturing, supportive homemaker. There is some evidence to indicate that these attitudes are changing, at least for Anglo-American females (DeBacy, Spaeth, & Busch, 1970; Fisher, Genovese, & Morris, 1978; Harres, 1968; Hoferek &

Hanick, 1980; Kingsley, Brown, & Seibert, 1977; McGee, 1956; Nixon, Maresca, & Silverman, 1979; Promoli, McCabe, & Shaw, 1977; Snyder, Kivlin, & Spreitzer, 1975; Wittig, 1975; Woodford & Scott, 1982), but thus far there has been no such comparable work with reference to Mexican-American females. Yet, by the turn of the century, the Mexican-American population is predicted to be the largest minority group in the United States, and Mexican-American women are already represented in the labor force in greater proportion than their Anglo-American counterparts. This investigation was an initial attempt to address some of the issues concerning the Mexican-American woman's participation in competitive sport.

Definition and Explanation of Terms

For the purpose of clarification, the following definitions and explanations of terms are used in this investigation.

Attitude

"An attitude is an idea charged with emotion which predisposes a class of actions to a particular case of social situations" (Triandis, 1971, p. 2). It is composed of three components: cognitive, affective, and behavioral. This study was concerned with measuring the cognitive component.

Educational Status

Educational status was a variable used to classify respondents into one of two categories: (a) students who were currently attending a two-year college in South Texas, and (b) the general public, which consisted of any persons, 17 years and older, who were not currently attending an institution of higher education.

Ethnicity

Ethnicity was a variable used to classify respondents into one of two categories. Any person identifying her/himself as Caucasian or white was classified as Anglo-American, while any person identifying her/himself to be of Mexican ancestry was classified as Mexican-American.

Mexican-American

A Mexican-American was any person who considers her/himself to be of Mexican ancestry and who is residing in the United States of America. Several other terms such as "Latino," "Latin-American," "Spanish-American," "Hispanic," and "Chicano" are also currently used to denote this population. However, the first four terms are considered to be too broad and inaccurate to describe the targeted population, as they also include members of diverse cultures such as Cuban and Salvadoran, who might confound the data in the current investigation. The fifth term, "Chicano," is considered to be pejorative by many Mexican-Americans of South Texas as it is associated with

the more radical elements of "La Raza." While the term is in vogue with many Midwestern and Farwestern Mexican-Americans, it is not considered to be the best term to refer to the targeted population of South Texas.

Sport

Sport is formally defined as the participation of highly skilled performers in athletic contests which are characterized by coaching, practice sessions, scheduled games or meets, the presence of spectators, and the determinance of a winner of a contest. Participation in sport is considered to be distinct from participation in physical education or recreational activities.

Limitations of the Study

The investigation was subject to the following limitations:

1. selection of the study subjects from the student population of Texas Southmost College, Brownsville, Texas, during the spring and summer semesters of the 1983-84 academic year;
2. selection of the general population sample from the telephone directory of Brownsville, Texas, during the spring and summer of 1984; and
3. selection of the instrument designed to measure the cognitive attitudinal variables.

Summary

Although participation in sport has traditionally been a male prerogative, recent changes in our society have brought increasing opportunities for females to participate

in the sport experience. This, however, has not been accompanied by a commensurate increase in studies concerned with women's participation in sport. Even more lacking are studies focusing on minority women's involvement in sport, specifically Mexican-American women.

There seems to be a strict edict in the Mexican-American culture against women being independent, aggressive, and dominant. Thus, it would seem logical to postulate that attitudes toward their participation in sport would be negative since these are some of the qualities expressed in sport and developed by means of participation in sport. If one of the functions of American sport is to prepare individuals for success in society, the exclusion of women in general, and of Mexican-American women in particular, from that experience would appear to mitigate against their success in achieving parity in American society. However, little empirical evidence exists to support this hypothesis. This study will assess and compare the attitudes of a selected population of Anglo-American and Mexican-American adults and students toward the participation of women in sport, the role of sport in society, and the role of women in society.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

As discussed in Chapter I, sport is a significant institution in contemporary American society. To many people, individual achievement and success, as defined by the dominant members of American society, are a corollary of participation in competitive sport. In order for sport to occupy the prominent position that it does, it must have some relevancy to the value structure of American society. Values are those guidelines which determine what is desirable or acceptable behavior in a society or culture (Williams, 1970).

American society is an enormous aggregate of people from many diverse races, nations, and cultures. As in most societies, however, one group tends to dominate and, therefore, define the national value structure, while the other groups remain subordinate. In the United States, the dominant value structure has been defined by a white, Anglo-American, male society, while the Mexican-American culture has remained one of the subordinate groups. One of the conflicts which may arise between dominant and subordinate cultures is that of a difference in values. This may serve to effectively impede members of the

minority culture from achieving "success" as defined by the dominant culture, which usually means that minorities will remain the poorest and most destitute members of the society.

Values of Anglo- and Mexican-American Cultures

In a sociological analysis of American (Anglo) society, sociologist Robin Williams (1970) astutely observed that, "Any attempt to delineate a national character or typical American values or a national basic personality type is extremely hazardous, not only because of serious gaps in the requisite data, but also because of the enormous value-diversity of the nation" (p. 450). He did, however, establish a set of criteria to which both dominant and subordinate values of a society must adhere and then delineated a number of values salient to contemporary Anglo-American culture. These highly prized values include belief in the importance of efficiency and hard work, individual achievement and material success, a pragmatic outlook on life, and a strong moral foundation with belief in democracy and freedom which extends to great national pride. Furthermore, Anglo-Americans tend to hold a universalistic outlook on the world with emphasis upon change and progress and a belief that the world can be mastered by individual effort. They have a strong faith in science and rationalism and generally emphasize equality in personal relationships. Despite the author's caution that

these are merely suggestive and certainly not immutable characteristics of dominant American culture, they have been interpreted as such (Guinn, 1977; Heller, 1971; Madsen, 1964).

The Mexican-American culture within American society also has a value structure to guide the behavior of the members of its community. Some authors have ascribed value orientations to the Mexican-American culture which are antithetical to Anglo-American values (Guinn, 1977; Heller, 1971; Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961; Madsen, 1964). Guinn (1977) summarized these attributed value differences as follows:

Mexican-American Values

Being rather than doing
Limited stress on material
gain
Present time orientation
Simple patterns of work
organization and
group cooperation
Central importance of the
family, personal
relations
Fatalism, accommodation
to problems
Tradition, reluctance
to change

Anglo-American Values

Doing rather than being
Material well-being
Future orientation
Individual action and
reaction
Impersonal relations
Man's (sic.) mastery
over the universe
Change directed

(p. 47)

Success in American society is defined in terms of the dominant Anglo-American value structure. Accordingly, Mexican-Americans' failure to exhibit the tangible signs of success such as upward mobility, status attainment, and economic well-being has been explained as emanating from

their supposedly differing value structure (Evans & Anderson, 1973; Heller, 1971; Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961; Madsen, 1964; Ramirez, Taylor, & Petersen, 1971). However, such a culturally deterministic explanation for the disparity between Mexican-American and Anglo-American society has been widely criticized in social science literature (Gecas, 1980; Grebler, Moore, & Guzman, 1970; Hernandez, 1977; Kuvlesky & Juarez, 1975; Montiel, 1973; Moore, 1976; Romano-V, 1973). Chandler (1979) succinctly summarized these criticisms in his observation that the studies which reported value differences between Mexican-Americans and Anglo-Americans were generally more than 10 years old, concentrated on small and/or isolated communities, were based on small sample sizes, focused on issues such as lack of achievement in schools rather than value orientations and did not make wide use of value-orientation measurement items.

Chandler (1979) did, however, conduct a research study which supported the conclusions of the earlier studies which reported value differences. On the basis of data collected from a sample of 712 Anglos and 323 Mexican-Americans residing in Lubbock, Texas, Chandler reported that Mexican-Americans scored significantly lower than the Anglos on all dimensions of a scale designed to measure values deemed necessary to function effectively in modern society. The scale included items designed to measure fatalism, integration with kin, trust in people, and

occupational values. Items from each of these four areas were selected to comprise a total modernity scale, on which the Anglos scored significantly higher, i.e., more modern, than did the Mexican-Americans, 92% as compared to 44%. There are, however, several methodological problems with this study.

First of all, the Mexican-American sample was drawn from only one census tract in the central city, the only one with a heavy concentration of Mexican-Americans remaining after a tornado destroyed another barrio. The Anglo-American sample used all of the census tracts of the city, thus introducing a possible class bias. Secondly, the Mexican-American sample was interviewed by only male interviewers, whereas the Anglo-American sample was interviewed by both male and female interviewers, thus introducing a possible response sex bias. Thirdly, and perhaps most important, was the failure of the investigators to validate the instrument. Since no validity coefficients were reported, the interpretation of the scale as reported may be suspect. For example, agreement with the statement "planning for the future only makes a person unhappy since one's plans almost never come out right" (p. 157) is interpreted as being fatalistic and lacking a future time perspective, whereas it may actually be a quite rational adjustment to a minority's oppressed condition of existence (Moore, 1976). Finally, Chandler himself suggested that the generalizability of the findings

to other Mexican-American communities may be limited because of the "backward" status of the Mexican-American population of this particular locale.

Other studies have refuted the traditional stereotype of the Mexican-American culture. Grebler, Moore, and Guzman (1970) reported that adult Mexican-Americans who were respondents to extensive interviews conducted in Los Angeles, California, and San Antonio, Texas, held predominantly modern views. That is, they believed they could actively master their environments, were future oriented, and, although familistic to some extent, believed in the worth of individual initiative. High educational achievement aspirations among Mexican-American teenagers and parents have been reported by Anderson and Johnson (1971), Espinosa, Fernandez, and Dornbusch (1977), Moerk (1979), and Schwartz (1971). Schwartz's data indicated that Mexican-American and Anglo-American high school pupils were similar in their goal aspirations, although the Mexican-Americans were more present oriented and more familistic than their Anglo counterparts. Montenegro (1976) reported that teenagers labeling themselves as Mexican-Americans held work and material success in high regard, were patriotic Americans planning to serve in the armed forces, had high educational achievement aspirations, and tended to subscribe to the traditional Anglo view of men and women having distinct roles based upon gender.

The preceding studies used samples of urban Mexican-Americans, so it is not surprising that the traditional stereotype of the fatalistic, particularistic, present-oriented Mexican-American was not substantiated. These traditionally ascribed values of Mexican-Americans tend to be values associated with isolated folk societies (Hebding & Glick, 1976), which Mexican-Americans once were. Now, however, Mexican-Americans tend to be concentrated in urban centers (Moore, 1976), so it is not surprising that their value structure appears to be in line with that of an urbanized society. At least one study (Gecas, 1980), however, reported high career occupational achievement aspirations of rural Mexican-American youth similar to their urban counterparts and consistent with the achievement ethic of the dominant white male Anglo society. Gecas suggested that the Mexican-Americans' lack of high educational and occupational attainment may not be due to attitudes of value differing from Anglo society but rather to structural and situational obstacles stemming basically from the depressed economic circumstances of most rural Mexican-American families. As mentioned earlier, Moore (1976) concurred with this assessment and extended it to urban Mexican-American families as well.

The picture that emerges from all of this information is one of a heterogeneous American society dominated by Anglo-American value orientations which are shared at least to some extent by the minority Mexican-American culture

(Bueter, 1972; Buzan & Phillips, 1980; Chandler, 1979; Eitzen & Sage, 1982; Garcia & Maldonado, 1982; Grebler et al., 1970; Montenegro, 1976; Moore, 1976; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1983; Romano-V, 1973; Williams, 1970). Furthermore, the values of society as a whole as well as those of various subcultures do not appear to be immutable but, rather, constantly in a flux, changing as conditions within a society change (Bueter, 1972; Moerk, 1972; Williams, 1970).

Although the full extent to which Anglo-Americans and Mexican-Americans share the same values has yet to be adequately demonstrated, limited evidence suggested that both cultures hold achievement in various spheres of endeavor in high regard. They both also seem to recognize the importance of hard work in striving to attain one's goals in life. These are two of the main values that participation in competitive sport is reputed to develop. Therefore, it would seem that competitive sport would be held in high esteem in both Anglo-American and Mexican-American societies. The following section will examine the attitudes of Anglos and Mexican-Americans toward the value of sport in American society.

Attitudes Toward the Value of Sport

There is a persistent belief among most Americans that participation in sport has positive benefits for those persons involved (Eitzen & Sage, 1982). A recent national

survey of American attitudes toward sport (Miller Lite Report on Sports, 1983) reported that only 3.7% of the United States' population was unaffected by sport as either a participant or spectator. Participation in sport is believed to aid in the development of poise under pressure, help one gain control of aggressive tendencies, use leisure time more efficiently, build character, enhance one's self-esteem, develop self-discipline, and promote physical fitness (Kniker, 1974). Despite criticism of its character-building capabilities (Coakley, 1982; Ogilvie & Tutko, 1971; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1983), competitive sport continues to be held in high esteem by the American public.

Sport is widely perceived as a tool to teach the skills and competencies deemed necessary to compete successfully and achieve status as defined by the dominant white male Anglo society. For example, one of the objectives of Little League baseball is to help youths develop the qualities of good citizenship. Similarly, Martens and Seefeldt (1979), using the results of a content analysis of over 400 articles concerning youth sports, identified 20 objectives of youth sports programs which included the following:

- to teach children how to cooperate
- to promote and convey the values of society
- to develop social competencies
- to develop leadership skills

- to develop self-reliance and emotional stability by learning to make decisions and accept responsibilities
- to teach children how to compete

Obviously, the organizers of youth sport programs believe that these programs promote and convey the dominant values of American society and thus prepare its youth to assume a responsible place in that society.

Parents of youth sports participants evidently agree with this belief. Griffith and Henschen (cited in Eitzen & Sage, 1982) and Phillips (1979) reported that parents of youth sports participants in New Mexico, Utah, and Virginia possessed favorable attitudes toward competition for children. The Miller Lite Report on American Attitudes Toward Sports (1983) reported that 92% of their respondents agreed that sports competition is good for children, mainly because it teaches them to strive to do their best. Additionally, Berlage (1982) found that 221 fathers of elite team participants on youth ice hockey and soccer teams in the Connecticut and New York metropolitan area held positive attitudes toward competitive youth sports. Ninety-three percent of the hockey players' fathers and 88% of the soccer players' fathers believed that involvement in competitive sports would be an asset to their sons in their adult business careers. Seventy-four percent of the fathers believed that a person has an advantage in applying for a job if he can attest to having played high school or college athletics. Furthermore, 57% stated that they would

be more inclined to hire an applicant who had played varsity sports over one who had no such competitive sport experience. These fathers believed that the importance of sport for later business careers lay in sports' emphasis on teamwork, competitiveness, and tenacity.

This positive attitude toward the benefits of sport extends from youth sports programs to high school and college athletics (Miller Lite Report on Sports, 1983). In a study of college students' attitudes toward intercollegiate athletics, Jensen, Leonard, and Liverman (1980) found that, overall, the respondents were positive about the benefits of this facet of higher education. The respondents were a purposive sample of 287 students enrolled at an Illinois university who responded to a 32 item Likert-type scale focusing on a variety of features of college athletics. The students perceived athletics as

"good" competition preparing one for competition in later life, stimulants to noble effort, promoting a concern for a healthy body, teaching a sense of fair play and good sportsmanship, contributing to the development of poise and self-assurance, providing an opportunity for wholesome, organized activity, and preparation for life in the business world. (p. 9)

There were no significant differences between males and females in these overall perceptions as determined by a two-way analysis of variance and subsequent Tukey test.

Another study of college students' attitudes toward sports (Nixon, 1979) found similarly that the majority of

525 undergraduate students, attending either a liberal arts college or a state university, believed participation in sport to be valuable. Specifically, 95% of the students believed that sport promoted self-discipline and over 80% indicated that participation in organized sport developed leadership qualities, built character, and made good citizens. However, only 23% of the respondents believed that sport participation was good preparation for later life, contrary to the findings of Jensen et al. (1980).

The attitudes of the general population toward sport have also been studied. Spreitzer and Snyder (1975) mailed a self-administered questionnaire to 945 respondents who were selected systematically from the city directory of a Midwestern city. Of the 945 selected, 510 returned the questionnaire, for a response rate of 54%. As has been the case with the studies cited thus far, at least 71% of the respondents believed that sport was important for the well-being of society, was valuable because it taught self-discipline as well as respect for authority and promoted good citizenship. Again, males and females did not differ significantly in these views. Grove and Dodder (1979) replicated this study with college students and faculty with essentially the same results. Both studies reported that persons with more education perceived sport to have greater psychosociological importance. However, Grove and Dodder (1979) found that older persons tended to perceive

greater social utility for sport than did younger persons, contrary to the original findings of Spreitzer and Snyder (1975).

There is also evidence that young persons reflect the favorable attitudes toward sport held by adults. Participation in athletics is an important part of the adolescent status system. Coleman's epic study of adolescent society in 1961 concluded that the single most important criterion for high status among high school males was athletic prowess. This ranked considerably above intellectual achievement. Coleman's study was replicated by Eitzen (1975) and by Kane (1983), who found the results unchanged over a 20 year period.

Evidently, Anglo-Americans of all ages, from teenagers to senior citizens hold primarily positive attitudes toward the role of sport in our society. They believe that sport participation has positive psychosociological functions for the individual as well as for society as a whole. One of the most prevalent beliefs, at least for adults, is that participation in sport teaches youngsters important skills necessary for success in the competitive adult work world. All of the research cited thus far have used white samples and have focused primarily upon participation of white males in sport. There have been few studies in which the investigators have attempted to ascertain if the same positive attitudes towards sports' role in society are found among a minority, particularly a Mexican-American

sample. Is sport highly valued in Mexican-American culture?

The current paucity of research in this area precludes any definitive answer to this question, though some indications of the value of sport in this culture are available. One such indicator, a survey of the portrayal of the athletic role in a dozen volumes concerning Mexican-Americans revealed not one textual reference to sport. This indicates that sport may not be very highly valued in Mexican-American culture. However, at least one study contradicts this assumption.

Hernandez (1977), on the basis of data collected from a sample of 100 Mexican-American and 112 Anglo-American high school boys, concluded that Mexican-American adolescent males were more interested in sport than were their Anglo counterparts, as measured by the Bohnke Athletic Attitude Inventory. Although sports participation and sports interest occupied a prominent place in life for both the Mexican-American and Anglo-American boys, this prominence was more pronounced for the Mexican-American adolescents. This was not true for the attitudes of the fathers of the boys toward sport, however, as perceived by the sons. The Mexican-American fathers tended to view their sons' participation in athletics less favorably than did the Anglo-American fathers. Hernandez found this to be a function of socioeconomic status, the poorer Mexican adults viewing sports less favorably than the more affluent

Anglos. However, the fact that sport was more salient to the Mexican-American youths, who were generally from a poorer background than their Anglo counterparts, was consistent with Eitzen's (1975) findings that white adolescent males who came from poorer communities tended to view sport more favorably than those from more affluent communities.

Another possible indicator of the value placed on sport in Mexican-American culture is whether or not youths aspire to a career in sport. Gecas (1980) studied career aspirations and expectations of rural Mexican-American youths in the state of Washington. He found that among the youths of 83 families, 25% of the 10-13 year old boys aspired to become entertainers or athletes when they grew up. This ranking was second only to the choice of a career in the professions among this age group. Only 9% of the 14-18 year old boys held such aspirations. However, when queried concerning occupational expectations, only 3% of each group actually expected to achieve their aspirations. Unfortunately, it is impossible to determine the actual percentage of aspiring professional athletes because athlete and entertainer were considered together. It does seem plausible, considering the Hernandez (1977) study, that a greater number of young adolescent males aspired to the athlete role than to the entertainer role, reflecting a high value placed on sport. The low expectation of actually achieving success probably reflects a realistic

acceptance of the problems of poverty, discrimination, and lack of opportunity structures for rural Mexican-American youths (Gecas, 1980).

Finally, leisure habits of sports participation may also give a clue as to the value of sport in a society. McMillen (1981), in a study of leisure among Mexican-Americans in Houston, Texas, found that these persons had identifiable patterns of leisure involvement which did not differ significantly from a comparative sample of the general population. McMillen concluded that there was no significant difference between leisure patterns of Mexican-Americans in Houston and Anglo-Americans. By extrapolation, one might infer that sports participation was just as salient to one culture as to the other, provided that similar opportunity structures prevailed.

Opportunities for participation were available in the community under study in the current investigation, although the opportunities for males were greater than for females at all levels. Sport programs for the youth of the community, conducted mainly by private organizations, included football, baseball, and soccer for boys, kickball for girls, and swimming for both. Although the baseball and soccer programs were ostensibly available for girls as well as boys, very few girls participated. The local Boys Club offered extensive programs for young boys and was open to girls two days per week.

The Brownsville Independent School District sponsored an extensive sport program for high school athletes, with nine sports for boys but only seven for girls. Before the implementation of Title IX of the Education Amendments Act in the mid-1970s, the only sport program offered for girls was track and field.

The city parks and recreation department sponsored competitive sport programs for adults. Women were able to participate in one softball league and a mixed volleyball league. Men had the availability of three softball leagues, one basketball league, and a mixed volleyball league. The woman's softball league had 10 teams, while the men's leagues attracted close to 50 teams. There were eight public tennis courts, three swimming pools, and one municipal golf course available for this city of over 90,000 inhabitants. In the private sector, there were two country clubs, one health club, and two bowling alleys available for the leisure needs of the wealthier segments of the community.

In summary, research evidence indicates that sport is highly valued, at least for males, in Anglo-American culture and may also be valued in Mexican-American culture, although the evidence in the latter case is less than substantial and is based upon indirect evidence. Similar opportunities for participation do appear to be available in both cultural settings. But what about sport participation for females of both cultures? Is sport

valued for the benefits it may contribute to females in society as well as males? The final section will address these questions, after an examination of women's role in both Anglo-American and Mexican-American society.

Attitudes Toward Women in Anglo-American and Mexican-American Cultures

According to Dyer (1982), "In modern Western societies (and probably most other societies in the world) women have different roles, different expectations, carry out different tasks, have a different range of recreational interests, have different abilities, and are rewarded differently to men" (p. 4). In the United States during the first part of the twentieth century, those differences were manifested in the Victorian ideal of womanhood. This ideal emerged in England in the latter half of the nineteenth century during the reign of Queen Victoria, then transcended geographic boundaries to become integrally imbedded in American culture. The image of women which was ascendant during that era was that of a pale, frail, fragile female who was passive, obedient to her husband, and, above all, looked attractive. The ultimate goals of a fulfilling Victorian womanhood were twofold: attracting a man and bearing a child. Motherhood was considered to be the most womanly of all behaviors (Gerber et al., 1974). It should be noted that this image was pertinent only to the middle and upper class woman. The lower class woman

was too busy working to have the luxury of being frail or fragile.

When American women gained the right to vote in 1920, the total restrictiveness of the Victorian ideal was temporarily cast aside in response to this new-found freedom. This was best exhibited by the "flapper girls" of the Roaring Twenties. During the depression of the thirties, however, women were again restricted to their wife and mother roles as job opportunities outside the home were drastically curtailed for both men and women. This situation changed once again with the advent of World War II. Women were called upon to perform many of the duties vacated by the soldiers, including that of heavy labor. "Rosie the Riveter" became a symbol of women's reawakened sense of capability. This emergent feeling of fulfillment outside the home was not to be stifled once the war ended. Women were reluctant to return to their former homemaker duties to the exclusion of other jobs and this time were in the economic sector of the nation to stay.

Unfortunately, the attitudes which were responsible for defining distinct male and female roles throughout history were also remarkably enduring. Traditionally, male and female roles, with their concomitant traits, were ascribed solely on the basis of gender. Males were expected to exhibit masculine traits such as strength, assertiveness, competitiveness, analytical thinking, self-confidence, independence, and logical thinking, while

females were to represent the polarity to these traits. They were to be passive, affectionate, cooperative, gentle, unintellectual, and have a strong need for security (Donelson & Gullahorn, 1977). The ascription of sex roles solely on the basis of gender has been increasingly challenged by feminists, and there are indications that a more egalitarian view of men and women's roles may be emerging in Anglo-American culture.

In a study of sex-role attitudes of women from 1962 to 1977, Thornton and Freedman (1979) found a shift toward egalitarianism among the 1161 white Detroit-area women interviewed in 1962, 1963, 1966, and 1977. An egalitarian or liberal view toward women was defined basically as a belief that women and men should have equal rights and responsibilities in the occupational sphere as well as in the division of labor at home. A traditional or conservative orientation, on the other hand, was defined as the belief that being a wife and mother and taking care of the home is a woman's responsibility while the man should work outside the home to provide for it. In 1962 egalitarian responses to various questions concerning appropriate sex roles ranged from 32% to 56%. By 1977 the range of variation was from 60% to 77%. Thus, the lowest percentage of egalitarian response in 1977 was higher than the highest response percentage in 1962. Since age was not positively related to this shift in either sample, the authors attributed the change to the changing conditions of

the world rather than to maturational effects. Also, although there was a shift toward egalitarianism among all groups, those women with large families and those who were members of fundamentalist Protestant religions tended to retain more traditional attitudes toward appropriate sex roles than did the rest of the sample.

Another longitudinal study of changes in sex role attitudes was undertaken by Parelus (1975). Two independent random samples of the students of a state-supported women's college in New Jersey were collected in 1969 and 1973. Three hundred, forty-seven women responded to a Likert-type questionnaire containing short descriptions of various women with either traditional or feminist sex role orientations. The respondents indicated the degree to which they were like the women described and whether or not men would want to marry women such as those described. The results indicated that women's attitudes shifted substantially toward feminism between 1969 and 1973. The results also suggested that these women perceived men's attitudes toward gender roles to be basically traditional and less accepting of egalitarianism.

The perception of men as less liberal than women in viewing gender roles has been substantiated by several studies utilizing the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS), an instrument devised to measure attitudes toward woman's role in society. Hare-Mustin and Broderick (1979), Lunneborg (1974), Spence and Helmreich (1972), and Yoder,

Rice, Adams, Priest, and Prince (1982) focused on the attitudes of college students from various institutions around the country. The results consistently substantiated the view that females were significantly more liberal in their attitudes toward woman's role in society than were the males. The results with respect to the relationship between age and attitudes were less consistent, however. Spence and Helmreich (1972) reported that their older respondents were more conservative than the younger ones, whereas Hare-Mustin and Broderick (1979) reported just the opposite.

In two cross-cultural studies of attitudes toward women, Loo and Logan (1977) and Braun and Chao (1978) also found that the male respondents scored more conservatively than their female counterparts on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale. Loo and Logan found that the Canadian males were more liberal than the southern United States' males (Spence & Helmreich, 1972) but more conservative than northern United States' male students (Lunneborg, 1974). The Canadian females were more liberal than the southern female sample but were not significantly different from females in the northern U.S. Braun and Chao compared 74 white Americans matched for age and education with 85 Chinese-Americans who had been born in Asia. In general, the white females and Chinese males tended to share liberal views toward women, while the white males and Chinese females tended toward conservative attitudes towards

woman's role in society. Evidently there are widely divergent views of appropriate behaviors and spheres of influence for men and women held by various segments of white American culture. This may also be true for Mexican-American culture.

As is the case with Mexican-American attitudes toward sport, little empirical evidence exists to delineate attitudes toward appropriate role behavior of Mexican-American women. Some data-based studies do exist, however, as well as a growing body of philosophical and theoretical literature by Mexican-American scholars concerning the place of women in society.

Flora (1971), in an attempt to assess the status of women in different cultures, studied the image of women as portrayed in the fiction found in women's magazines. On the basis of a content analysis of 202 short stories selected randomly from women's magazines published in the United States, Columbia, and Mexico, Flora reported that women were portrayed as significantly more passive and dependent in the Latin American stories than they were in the North American stories. Very few examples of women actively controlling their lives were presented, with only seven percent of the fictional women improving their socioeconomic status through their own efforts. Evidently fiction in both cultures promotes the attitudes that passivity and dependence on males are desirable traits in females of both cultures, but the emphasis is greater in

the Latin culture. This picture of the passive female and her lack of status was reflected in Mexican-American women in a study of representation in municipal governments by Karnig and Welch (1979).

These investigators reported that while women as a whole were underrepresented in participation in municipal government, Mexican-American women were considerably less evident than either Black or Anglo women. The authors computed an equity ratio by dividing the percentage of city council seats held by a particular group by the percentage of that group present in the city population. They reported that the equity ratios for Anglo women, Black women, and Mexican-American women were .33, .16, and .11, respectively. The investigators concluded that minority women, especially Mexican-Americans, suffered from what has been termed a "double jeopardy"--they must overcome prejudicial attitudes against both their gender and their ethnicity.

The traditional Anglo view of the female's role in society to be supportive of the male and to be limited to home and family is also prevalent in Mexican-American society. According to Mirande and Enriquez (1976), "It is clear that motherhood pervades the cultural heritage of the Chicana Chicanas who do deviate from the ideal wife-mother role are inevitably regarded as betrayers or 'vendidas,' cultural sell-outs" (p. 96). Most social science literature of the sixties and even the seventies

described the Mexican-American family as having a male-dominated, authoritarian structure. Supposedly, husbands totally dominated their wives, made all the decisions, demanded total obedience and respect, and did pretty much as they pleased with impunity (Heller, 1976; Madsen, 1964; Penalosa, 1970). Increasingly, however, this concept of total male domination has been reexamined.

Hawkes and Taylor (1975) studied decision-making in 76 Mexican-American farm labor families and concluded that decisions were made in an egalitarian mode. Eighty-three percent of the families interviewed said that they shared decisions pertaining to money matters, family size, home location, disciplining children, and whether the wife should work outside the home. Grebler, Moore, and Guzman (1970) also reported that the Mexican-American family differed greatly from the cliché of the dominant male and submissive female, with decision-making comparatively as egalitarian as Anglo families of similar SES. Mirande (1979) concluded in a review essay of male dominance in the Mexican-American family that sharp sex role distinctions appear to be rare in Chicano families and that the traditional male dominant view should be seriously questioned.

Although the results of these studies have suggested that the traditional male dominance patterns of Mexican-American families may be less universal than previously assumed, various feminist writers have challenged this

assumption (Baca Zinn, 1982a, 1982b; Gonzales, 1977, 1979; Longeaux y Vasquez, 1970; Mirande & Enriquez, 1979; Nieto, 1974; Sutherland, 1970). They have argued that while male dominance may not be the most prevalent mode of decision-making in Mexican-American families, such dominance certainly is present in families and other organizations within Mexican-American society. In fact, they have asserted that all women, Anglo and Mexican-American, are victims of sexism.

The Mexican-American woman, like her Anglo counterpart, has traditionally been relegated to the role of supportive homemaker, with various forces operating to keep her out of the business and political spheres of influence. Yet it is outside the domestic sphere where money is made, laws are made, and decisions which impact greatly on the life of this planet are made--spheres from which Mexican-American women are, for the most part, evidently excluded. Whereas attitudes are changing which allow for the Anglo-American woman to become increasingly active in areas outside the home, little evidence exists to determine if the same is true for the Mexican-American woman. This investigation was designed to provide data to help in determining the present status of the attitudes toward Mexican-American woman's role in society.

If women are to make gains in performing influential duties outside the domestic sphere, participation in sport may well provide an important training ground for their

future success. Many Americans view sports participation as important business preparation for males in our society, thus it ought to perform the same function for females. An important determinant of such participation by females is the current status of and attitudes toward women's participation in sport. The following section will examine this issue.

Attitudes Toward Women in Sport

Males and females have traditionally been ascribed differential roles in American society based solely upon gender. Those individuals who did not fulfill their role expectations have generally faced varying degrees of social sanctions. One of the greatest differences in role ascription has been in the realm of participation in sport (Sage & Loudermilk, 1979). For males in our society, sport participation has been used as an agent of socialization, to imbue boys with the masculine qualities deemed necessary to be a man. On the other hand, sport participation for females has been considered definitely unladylike, and girls have been discouraged from participation, especially once they entered adolescence. Sport participation is considered valuable for males of our society, but not for females. Conditions are changing, however, and there is evidence that attitudes toward females' participation in sport may also be changing.

In a discussion of the value of sports participation for women in affecting social change, Westkott and Coakley (1981) argue that there are essentially two divergent viewpoints concerning this matter. The critical viewpoint, which depends heavily on radical feminist scholarship, rejects patriarchal institutions altogether, particularly the values and attitudes which have traditionally been associated with masculine behavior. Proponents of this viewpoint contend that women should not seek access to institutions such as sport, which require masculine defined behavior for success. Instead, women should seek to change the prevailing institution by forming an alternative one without such behavioral limitations.

The opposite viewpoint is that of the assimilationist, who argues that " . . . feminist change is defined in terms of women gaining access to culturally valued spheres of action rather than changing those cultural values and actions" (p. 32). The proponents of this viewpoint maintain that if women are to be valued by society, they must gain access to the means to internalize cultural values from which they have so long been excluded, such as sport. Access to participation in sport is important for women because it has some important benefits to its participants. According to Westkott and Coakley, these benefits are the following.

1. It gives her the opportunity to develop a sense of herself as she acts for herself as opposed to meeting her needs through serving others (individuation).
2. It helps her to separate herself from the limitations and demands of family traditions and ascriptive roles.
3. It helps her reconnect with the power of her body.

The assimilationists contend that by developing the skills and attributes that accrue from sports participation, women are more capable of entering and being successful in spheres of influence outside the home. Increasingly, girls and women are gaining access to sports participation, due mainly to federal legislation.

There is evidence, however, that this increased access has not always been viewed favorably by all segments of society, especially those who possess decision-making powers. McGee (1956), in one of the earliest studies of attitudes toward intensive competition for girls, studied the attitudes of administrators, teachers, and parents of high school girls in Iowa and Illinois. Subjects were selected by stratified random sampling procedures from high schools in Iowa and Illinois which did not sponsor girls' sports. Subjects ($N = 1347$) were asked to respond to a self-administered Likert-type scale designed to measure attitudes toward intensive competition for high school girls. The data were then subjected to an analysis of variance with subsequent t-tests to test significances between any two means.

As expected, all respondents from schools which sponsored competitive sports for girls exhibited more favorable attitudes toward competition for girls than did those respondents from schools not sponsoring such programs. However, parents from all three groups showed significantly more favorable attitudes than did administrators and teachers other than coaches. This favorable response of parents toward competition for girls appears to have remained fairly constant over the years. In 1983, the Miller Lite Report on American Attitudes Toward Sports reported that 86% of the respondents believed it important for girls to participate in sports, and 95% felt it important for boys to participate in sports. A great majority also stated they would be happy if their daughters (88%) or sons (92%) became professional athletes when they grew up.

A number of studies have attempted to assess the attitudes of college students toward sport competition for women. Harres (1968) administered a Likert-type attitude inventory and demographic questionnaire to a stratified random sample of 300 undergraduate students at the University of California at Santa Barbara. Two hundred eighty-four (94%) correctly completed forms were subjected to analysis of variance with subsequent Newman-Keuls tests of differences between ordered means. The results indicated that the respondents were favorable, although not highly favorable, toward athletic competition for women,

with no significant differences between men and women's attitudes.

A pilot study to determine the attitudes of college men toward women's competition was undertaken by De Bacy, Spaeth, and Busch (1970). A modified Likert instrument was used to collect data from 90 male physical education majors and 90 male non-physical education majors at the State University of New York at Buffalo. The results indicated that both groups were only slightly positive in attitude toward women's competition in sports, with no significant difference between the physical education majors and non-majors' attitudes. The authors concluded that while competitive opportunities for girls and women are increasing rapidly, the male support necessary for continued success is not increasing commensurately.

Kingsley, Brown, and Seibert (1977) presented evidence to indicate that attitudes towards women's participation in sport were becoming more positive among women. The investigators asked 240 female athletes and non-athletes at a Southwestern university to respond to vignettes depicting a high or low aspiration female dancer or softball player by rating them on four points concerning social acceptability. Contrary to their expectations, the authors found no significant differences in the social acceptability ratings of the dancer and softball player by the non-athletes. The sample of athletes rated the softball player as significantly more acceptable than the

dancer, giving some indication that some sports once considered socially unacceptable for female participation are now enjoying increased acceptability at least among female college students.

A projective technique was used by Wittig (1975) to study the attitudes of 225 volunteer students at a Midwestern university. Male and female students responded to stories depicting a male or female in a sports situation by describing the individual's appearance and behavior. Results from the first data collection showed that both men and women responded positively to the successful male-in-sport cue, but the men responded significantly less favorably than the women to the successful female-in-sport cue. Wittig, however, was not certain whether this difference was due to men's overall disapproval of women's participation in sport or to the cue which depicted the female as invading a previously all-male team; so in a subsequent data collection six months later, he changed the cue to depict a female as achieving success on a female sports team. This time there was a significantly positive shift in the men's attitudes toward the approval of women succeeding in sport. Wittig again was unsure how to explain this change. The change in cue may have been responsible for the positive shift in attitude, or it may have been due to extraneous influence occurring within the intervening six months, such as publicity concerning Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments Act.

Another study of attitudes toward participation in sports was undertaken by Promoli, McCabe, and Shaw (1977). They compared the attitudes of 160 randomly selected male and female physical education majors and students enrolled in introductory psychology classes at a Canadian university. Subjects responded to vignettes depicting "Pat" variously as a female figure skater, male figure skater, female ice hockey player, or male ice hockey player by describing Pat's appearance and behavior. The only significant differences found among all comparisons of males, females, physical education majors, and psychology students was the attitude toward Pat when she was depicted as a female ice hockey player. In this instance, female students viewed Pat significantly more positively than did physical education majors. Overall, respondents' attitudes toward females competing in sports were generally positive except for male physical education majors who responded negatively to female involvement in a male dominated sport.

Fisher, Genovese, Morris, and Morris (1978) examined the perceptions of male/female and athlete/non-athlete students in a liberal arts college located in upstate New York. The subjects viewed 15 slides of female athletes participating in various sporting events and then rated each slide on a scale of 1-10 indicating how close the female depicted came to being an "ideal female." A rating of 1 denoted the subjects' perception of an "ideal female," while 10 was the farthest removed from that ideal. Males

in the study rated the slides as significantly less ideal than did females, and non-athletes rated the slides as significantly less ideal than did athletes. These findings were consistent with those already reported in which males viewed females' participation in sports less favorably than did females.

Finally, Nixon, Maresca, and Silverman (1979) surveyed student attitudes toward females in sport at two colleges in Vermont. A randomly selected sample of 760 students was mailed a self-administered questionnaire to which 65% (N = 494) of the students responded. On all 11 questionnaire items, women were significantly more positive toward women participating in sport than were men. For example, 53% of the women felt that females should be given more encouragement to participate in sports of all kinds, whereas only 29.7% of the men agreed with this statement. Although males (85.5%) and females (95.9%) both rejected the idea that sport should be restricted mostly or entirely to males, men had significantly more reservations about which opportunities were permissible, i.e., only 46.3% thought girls should be allowed to compete in Little League baseball, whereas 73.2% of the women felt they should be permitted to do so.

Overall, the results of the studies concerning attitudes of college students toward the involvement of females in sports indicated that women view sport involvement by females significantly more positively than

do males. Although a few studies reported no significant differences in the attitudes of males and females (Harres, 1968; Wittig, 1975), most did find differences, with the attitudes of males being less positive than those of females (Fisher et al., 1978; Nixon et al., 1979; Promoli et al., 1977; Wittig, 1975). This would seem to have important ramifications for future female involvement in sports, as men still control most decision-making positions in organized sport.

Several authors have investigated the attitudes of the general public towards females' participation in sport. Snyder, Kivlin, and Spreitzer (1975) asked subjects of a probability sample of the general population of Metropolitan Toledo, Ohio, if certain sports would enhance or detract from a girl/woman's feminine qualities. Over half the respondents answered that swimming, tennis, and gymnastics would enhance feminine qualities, while less than 15% believed softball, basketball, and track would do so. Conversely, 20 to 30% believed track, basketball, and softball detracted from feminine qualities, whereas only two to six percent believed tennis, gymnastics, and swimming to do so. Unfortunately, "feminine qualities" were not defined, nor were the respondents asked how important feminine qualities were believed to be. Although not stated in such terms, these results might be interpreted to mean that the general population would discourage girls/women from participating in team sports,

which again has possible negative consequences for the success of women outside the homemaking sphere.

Hoferek and Hanick (1980) replicated the Snyder, Kivlin, and Spreitzer study by utilizing a random sample of adults living in permanent structures in an Iowa town. The results, based on a 51% response rate, indicated that respondents viewed participation in sports as neither detracting from nor enhancing femininity. The authors speculated that traditional, rigid sex role stereotypes had been transcended by the subjects in their sample.

Using a sample of 353 respondents randomly selected from the directory of Oklahoma City and its suburbs, Woodford and Scott (1982) assessed the attitudes of the general public concerning women's participation in sports. Subjects responded on a four-point scale to statements regarding women's participation in sports. Overall, the results indicated that the respondents viewed the participation of women in competitive sports favorably. Fewer than 12% agreed that participation in organized sports takes time away from other important things a woman ought to be doing or that a woman cannot be both feminine and a good athlete. There were no significant differences between males' and females' responses. However, when compared by education levels, those with less education were significantly more negative toward women's participation in sport than those with some college education. In addition, the respondents over 50 years of

age were also more negative in their attitudes than their younger counterparts. Contrary to some other studies, however, there were no significant differences reported in attitudes toward team sports' participants as compared to those in individual sports.

The results of these studies of attitudes of the general population toward the participation of females in sport are somewhat contradictory. Whereas one study (Snyder et al., 1975) reported that respondents viewed participation in team sports significantly less favorably for women than participation in individual sports, others (Hoferek & Hanick, 1980; Woodford & Scott, 1982) reported no such difference. One explanation for the conflicting results may be that Snyder et al. reported their results from data which had been collected in 1973. Since that time, there has been a significant increase in opportunities for female participation in sport as well as increased media attention.

Conclusion

Sport appears to occupy a prominent position in American society, mainly because it is believed that sport helps to develop and transmit the dominant values of that society to its future citizens. Historically, the benefits derived from sport participation accrued mainly to the male citizens of American society, especially white males. Traditional attitudes defining women's role in society to

be confined mainly to the home have existed in both Anglo-American and Mexican-American cultures and have helped to effectively discourage active female involvement in sport.

There is growing evidence to suggest that such restrictive attitudes toward women's role in society and women's participation in sport are changing within the Anglo-American culture, but no such evidence exists for Mexican-American women. Additionally, the majority of studies indicating changes in attitudes have focused on college student populations. There have been differences reported between the attitudes of female and male college students, however, with males being generally less favorable toward women's expanded role in society and toward women's participation in sport. The few studies that have focused on attitudes of the general public have also generally reported an increase in favorable attitudes toward expanding women's role in society and participation of women in sport.

Unfortunately, only one study focused on the importance of sport participation in Mexican-American society, and that study focused on adolescent males. Also, none of the studies focusing on the participation of females in sport provided comparative data concerning the attitudes of the sample population toward the role of females in society, nor even the salience of sport to that particular population. A comparative analysis among different studies is difficult because a variety of

instruments for measuring attitudes toward sport have been used, with no report of reliability or validity coefficients for the measuring devices.

This investigation sought to remedy some of these problems by providing a three-pronged investigation of the attitudes of male and female Mexican-Americans and Anglo-Americans. Students as well as members of the general public responded to an instrument designed to measure attitudes toward sports, toward women's role in society, and toward women's participation in sport.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

The investigator assessed and compared the attitudes of a selected population of South Texans toward the role of sport in society, the role of women in society, and women's participation in sport. The attitudes, which were the dependent variables of the investigation, were measured by means of a summated rating scale developed for the study. Attitudes were compared across gender, ethnicity, and educational status, which were the independent variables of the investigation. The scale was administered to a sample of the target population of students during the spring and summer semesters of the 1983-84 academic year. The responses from a sample of the general public were collected during the same time period. Selected demographic information was also collected via the survey instrument.

Instrumentation

In general, two methods of data collection are most widely used in survey research such as the current investigation. These are the self-administered questionnaire and the interview. Both of these techniques have inherent advantages and disadvantages, but the self-

administered questionnaire appears to be more amenable to the surveying of large numbers of respondents, most cost efficient and time effective, and more appropriate for dealing with what may be sensitive issues for some respondents because of its greater assurance of anonymity than an interview (Babbie, 1983). Since all of these issues were considerations in the present investigation, the self-administered questionnaire was used to collect the data, with slight modifications of the technique.

Both the student and the general public samples responded to the same survey instrument. The students, however, responded to a written questionnaire while the general public responded to the same instrument over the telephone. The reasons for this difference in the collection of data will be delineated subsequently in the section of this chapter concerning sampling.

As early as 1967, Bonjean, Hill, and McLemore expressed concern about the lack of continuity in sociological research. They pointed out that in a survey of 2080 written instruments used for gathering data during a 12 year span, only 2.8% of the measures were used more than once, while only an abysmal 2.26% were used more than five times. According to Bonjean et al., this lack of continuity severely restricted the comparative interpretations of the research findings.

This same concern about the lack of continuity in measuring instruments is also applicable to the assessment

of attitudes toward the participation of females in competitive sport, which was the primary focus of this investigation. Although a search of the related literature indicated the existence of a small variety of measuring devices, none of them had been utilized with consistency over a number of different studies. The form of measurement device which was most widely reported in the literature, however, was the summated rating or Likert-type scale (DeBacy et al., 1970; Harres, 1968; McGee, 1956; Nixon et al., 1979; Selby & Lewko, 1976; Sherriff, 1971; Snyder et al., 1975; Woodford & Scott, 1982).

Development of the Instrument

This investigation employed survey research procedures utilizing the Likert-type scaling technique to measure the dependent variables. Such a scaling technique is an excellent means of measuring attitudes and orientations prevalent with a large population. The summated rating scale appears to be the most frequent type of scale employed in behavioral research (Babbie, 1983; Kerlinger, 1973) because it permits a straight forward method of index construction and allows for intensity of attitude expression. Such scales are considered to have high reliability because all subjects are presented with identical stimuli and the same scoring procedure. Unfortunately, these scales are also considered to be somewhat weaker in validity, due mainly to the

artificiality of the format. However, some researchers have contended that the concept of validity itself is rather ambiguous, for to say that some measure is valid or invalid assumes that there is a "real" definition (Babbie, 1983; Kerlinger, 1973).

Of the six available instruments utilized in reported studies to measure the attitudinal variables of concern in this investigation (Harres, 1968; McGee, 1956; Nixon et al., 1979; Snyder et al., 1975; Snyder & Kivlin, 1977; Woodford & Scott, 1982), only Harres and McGee cited reliability and validity information for their instruments. Both of those instruments were considered to be much too lengthy for use in this investigation, however. McGee, for example, used a 70 item scale and obtained a response rate of only 34% with a mailed questionnaire, somewhat low from which to make valid statistical observations or generalizations. Since the current investigator assumed that the response rate of the sample contacted by telephone would be similar to one obtained by a mailed questionnaire, brevity without sacrificing quality was deemed to be important in the selection of the instrument used in this investigation.

The current investigator intended to locate an instrument which demonstrated an acceptable level of validity and reliability and which had been used previously in a related study in an effort to contribute to the continuity of research efforts in the area of attitudes

toward women in sport. However, none of the existing instruments stood out as the unequivocal best, nor were they comprehensive enough for the scope of the current investigation. Therefore, the investigator developed an eclectic instrument for this investigation by selecting statements judged to be most pertinent to the current study from those used by six investigative teams (Jensen et al., 1980; Nixon et al., 1979; Snyder & Kivlin, 1977; Spence & Helmreich, 1972; Spreitzer & Snyder, 1975; Woodford & Scott, 1982).

Prior to conducting a pilot study of the instrument, the investigator experimented with different lengths of subscales and formats for the questionnaire. As a result of this experimentation, the instrument used in the pilot study consisted of the 30 items displayed in Table 3.1 and of questions pertaining to demographics.

Table 3.1
Composition of the Attitudinal Subscales and Their Sources

<u>Subscale/Items</u>	<u>Source*</u>
Attitude toward sport	
1 - Competitive sports are not particularly important for the well-being of society.	A
3 - If more people were involved in competitive sports, we would not have so much trouble with drugs in our society.	A
5 - Competitive sports are valuable because they help youngsters become good citizens.	A
7 - The emphasis that sports place on competition causes more harm than good.	A

Table 3.1, continued

<u>Subscale/Items</u>	<u>Source*</u>
10. Competitive sports are valuable because they teach youngsters respect for authority.	A
12. Competitive sports are valuable because they teach youngsters self-discipline.	A
15. Competitive sports are valuable because they contribute to the development of patriotism.	A.
18. Competitive sports are valuable because they provide an opportunity for individuals to get ahead in the world.	A
22. Competitive sports are valuable because they teach young people a sense of fair play and good sportsmanship.	A,B
30. Competitive sports teach young persons to compete and thus prepare them for later participation in the business world.	B
Attitudes toward women's role in society	
6. One of the most important things a mother can do for her daughters is prepare them for the duties of being a wife.	C
8. It goes against nature to place women in positions of authority over men.	C
13. A woman's personal ambitions should be subordinated to her family (husband and children).	C
16. Women should compete on an equal basis with men for all jobs.	C
17. The major responsibility of a wife is to keep her husband and children happy.	C
23. Both husband and wife should be allowed the same grounds for divorce.	D
24. The modern woman is entitled to the same freedom from regulation and control that is given the modern man.	D
26. Telling dirty jokes should be mostly a prerogative of men.	D

Table 3.1, continued

<u>Subscale/Items</u>	<u>Source*</u>
28. It is worse for a woman to be drunk than for a man to be drunk.	D
29. On the average, women should be considered as less capable of contributing to economic production than men.	D
Attitude toward women's participation in sport	
2. Opportunities for participation in organized sports should be restricted mostly or entirely to males.	E
4. Participation in organized sports only takes time away from other important things a woman ought to be doing.	F
9. Men seem naturally to know more about competitive sports than women.	F
11. Participation in competitive sports is more important for a male's physical and social development than for a female's development.	E
14. To excel in competitive sports, a woman has to be more like a man than a woman.	F
19. A woman can be both a good athlete and a truly feminine person.	F
20. Women ought to stick to cheerleading and leave participation in organized sports to men.	E,F
21. Women should be given more encouragement to participate in organized sports of all kinds.	E
25. Women must try extra hard to show their femininity if they participate in competitive sports.	E
27. Males and females should not be allowed to compete with each other in organized sports competition.	E

SOURCE KEY:

- A Spreitzer & Snyder, 1975
- B Jensen et al., 1980
- C Snyder & Kivlin, 1977
- D Spence & Helmreich, 1973
- E Nixon et al., 1979
- F Woodford & Scott, 1983

These statements comprised three subscales which were combined into one instrument with which to measure the three attitudinal variables under investigation. This instrument was entitled "The Women and Sport in Society Survey" (WASSS). Each of the three subscales which were embedded in the WASSS consisted of 10 statements which were randomly interspersed within the instrument (see Appendix A).

Respondents were asked to (1) disagree strongly, (2) disagree mildly, (3) agree mildly, or (4) agree strongly with each of the 30 statements of the WASSS. For example, after being presented with the statement "sports are not particularly important for the well-being of our society," respondents chose one of the aforementioned responses. A "neutral" or "no opinion" category was not included in the response choices because the investigator believed that forcing respondents to choose either a positive or negative response would result in the emergence of a more accurate reflection of true attitudes (Spence & Helmreich, 1972; Woodford & Scott, 1982). The forced choice of either agreement or disagreement with the statements of the WASSS, with only the intensity of the responses differing, seemed reasonable since a recent national survey of American attitudes toward sport (Miller Lite Report on Sports, 1983) revealed that less than four percent of the population of the United States remained unaffected by sport in some manner. Similarly, it is difficult to conceive of an

individual who does not possess an attitude toward women's role in society. Thus, forcing respondents to choose from four response categories without a "no opinion" option appeared to be reasonable.

Some questions were scored in reverse order to fit the pattern of scoring. For example, agreement with the statement "sports are not particularly important for the well-being of society" would indicate a negative attitude toward sport, whereas agreement with the statement "sports promote the development of fair play" would indicate a positive attitude toward sport. Therefore, the first statement was scored in reverse, with disagreement with the statement scoring higher than agreement. The interspersing of subscale statements and reverse ordering of some statements was done in order to minimize the possibility of response-set bias occurring to confound the results of the data (Kerlinger, 1973).

Respondents were also asked to supply information pertaining to certain demographic variables. Gender, ethnicity, and educational status variables were utilized as the independent variables in this investigation.

The Pilot Study

Although the statements incorporated in the WASSS were drawn from previously published studies and should, therefore, have possessed an acceptable level of validity and reliability, this presumption was not substantiated by

any available information. Therefore, a pilot study was undertaken to determine the extent of the validity and reliability of the WASSS with the target population. An available sample of 150 students from an introductory psychology class and two evening physical education classes were surveyed for the pilot study. Seventy-one of these students were available two weeks later for the second administration of the questionnaire.

Although there appears to be no general consensus concerning what constitutes an acceptable level of reliability for an instrument, some guidelines have been suggested. Carmines and Zeller (1979) suggested that most scales should have an alpha coefficient above .80, while Mehrens and Lehman (1973) suggested that for decisions involving groups rather than individuals, a reliability coefficient as low as .65 would be acceptable. Additionally, the length of an instrument has an effect on the extent of the reliability of the instrument, with short scales generally demonstrating lower reliability scores than longer scales, and must be taken into account when considering the extent of reliability demonstrated. Because the WASSS was designed to determine the attitudes of various groups of respondents and because each subscale consisted of only 10 items, a coefficient of .70 was selected as the minimum level of reliability acceptable for each subscale.

The extent of the reliability of the WASSS was examined from two perspectives. The extent of external consistency, or time-associated reliability, of the instrument was assessed by the test-retest method, while the extent of internal consistency was estimated by use of Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Although the test-retest procedure for estimating the extent of time related reliability is subject to the possible confounding effect of recall from one administration to the next, the investigator believed that this effect would be minimal with a two-week interval between administrations of the instrument, considering the nature of the variables under investigation.

The test-retest procedure produced an overall Pearson coefficient of correlation of .79 ($N=71$). The test-retest coefficients of correlation for the Attitude Toward Sport (AS), Attitude Toward Women's Role in Society (AW), and Attitude Toward Women's Participation in Sport (AWSP) subscales, were .76, .79, and .65, respectively. These results are depicted in Table 3.2.

Cronbach's coefficient alpha, which was used to assess the extent of the internal consistency of the WASSS, has been recommended for use with multiple-item scales or for scales which are not scored dichotomously (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Mehrens & Lehman, 1973), such as in the present investigation. Coefficient alpha is a very general reliability coefficient encompassing both the Kuder-

Table 3.2
Reliability Analyses of the Women in Sport and Society
Survey

Scale	Internal ^a (N=150)	External ^b (N=71)
Women in sport and society survey (WASSS)	.82	.79
Attitude toward sport (AS)	.75	.76
Attitude toward women's role in society (AW)	.70	.79
Attitude toward women's participation in sport (AWSP)	.79	.65

^aestimated by Cronbach's coefficient alpha

^bestimated by Pearson's correlation coefficient

Richardson 20 and Spearman-Brown Prophecy formulas for estimating internal consistency. Alpha is considered to be a conservative estimate of internal consistency where the actual scale reliability never falls below the alpha coefficient.

The results of the internal reliability analysis shown in Table 3.2 indicated that the alpha coefficients achieved for the 30 item WASSS and the AS, AW, and AWSP subscales were .82, .75, .70, and .79, respectively (N=150). These coefficients were all above the minimum level of alpha established for the WASSS, as were the test-retest correlation coefficients (N=71) in all except one instance. Although one time related reliability coefficient did fall below .70, this was not considered crucial since the research design involved only one administration of the instrument and was not used to measure change. Therefore,

the instrument was judged to possess an acceptable level of reliability for further use in this investigation.

Although the WASSS appeared to possess content validity, an exploratory factor analysis was undertaken in order to identify the basic structure underlying the items, since the statements comprising the WASSS had been drawn from a variety of sources. A principal components factor analysis with orthogonal rotation was conducted, following the guidelines of Kim and Mueller (1978). These authors suggested that the orthogonal solution be used in an exploratory factor analysis even if the factors are somewhat correlated, since the primary purpose of such an analysis is to simplify the data into theoretically meaningful constructs. The varimax criterion for rotation was chosen because it simplifies the columns of the factor matrix, thus presenting a clearer indication of the subscale groupings in the present investigation. A minimum loading of .40 was adopted as the criterion for a statement to be considered as contributing to a particular factor (Korth, 1975).

The factor solution produced for the WASSS by the above procedure yielded seven factors which could be clearly interpreted as facets of the three subscales. These factors accounted for 82.8% of the scale variance and are depicted in Table 3.3. Three other factors which contained an even mixture of items from the subscales and were, therefore, uninterpretable accounted for the

Table 3.3 Factor Analysis (Orthogonal Solution) of the Women and Sport in Society Survey (WASSS)

Factor Name/Items	Factor Loading ^a				
	1	7 ^b	10	4	5
Attitude toward sport (AS)					
1. Not important to society	.44				
5. Teaches good citizenship	.56				
10. Teaches respect for authority	.54				
12. Teaches self-discipline	.43				
21. Women encouraged to engage in sports (AWSP)	.52				
22. Teaches fair play and sportsmanship	.74				
15. Teaches patriotism		.69			
18. Helps get ahead in the world		.49			
7. Competition does more harm than good			.52		
12. Teaches self-discipline			.42		
Attitude toward women's role in society (AW)					
6. Mothers prepare daughters for wifehood				.46	
13. Women subordinate ambitions to family				.59	
17. Major responsibility of wife to keep family happy				.57	
20. Women cheerlead; men play sports (AWSP)				.41	
26. Only men should tell dirty jokes				.62	
28. Worse for women to be drunk than men				.74	
Attitude toward women's participation in sport (AWSP)					
12. Teaches self-discipline (AS)				.53	
19. Women can be athletic and feminine				.56	
20. Women cheerlead; men play sports				.60	
25. Women in sport must show femininity				.50	
9. Men naturally know more about sports					.66
11. Sports are more important for males' physical and social development					.69
Eigenvalue	5.06	.73	.50	.97	.77
Percent of variance	34.5	4.9	3.4	6.6	5.2
				21.8	6.4

^aFactor loadings below .40 are not presented for the sake of clarity.^bFactors are presented in subscale groupings rather than in numerical order.

remainder of the variance. As shown in Table 3.3, factors 1, 7, and 10 together contained eight of the ten items comprising the AS subscale. Considered as a unit, these three factors accounted for 42.8% of the total variance of the WASSS. Factors 4 and 6 together contained half of the items for the AW subscale and accounted for 11.8% of the variance. Factors 2 and 5 combined to account for 28.2% of the total variance and together contained five of the ten items comprising the AWSP subscale.

The fact that each subscale consisted of more than one factor indicated that each of the measured attitudes was multidimensional, a construct consistent with attitude theory (Dawes, 1972; Triandis, 1971). However, the combinations of factors did produce a clear factor structure which conformed to the composition of the three attitudinal subscales, with very little overlap between factors. Some factors were retained even though they failed to demonstrate an eigenvalue of 1.0 (Kim & Mueller, 1978) because they corresponded to one of the respective subscale constructs and also because the increase in size of the actual study sample could result in an increase in the amount of variance explained by these factors. Therefore, the WASSS was determined to possess an acceptable level of construct validity for further use in this investigation.

A correlational analysis of the three subscales indicated relatively little relationships between the

subscales. The AS subscale demonstrated almost no correlation with the AW ($r=.00$) subscale or with the AWSP ($r=.23$) subscale. The AW subscale, however, demonstrated a moderate correlation with the AWSP subscale ($r=.64$). This indicated that the measured attitudes were related, but judgment was reserved and the two subscales were not combined in the study since the factor structure was clearly delineated.

Translation of the WASSS

Many of the residents of the geographical area from which the data were collected did not speak English at all or had a very limited proficiency in the language, Spanish being their only or primary language. Therefore, in order to enhance the response rate of the sample, the WASSS was translated into Spanish, and the respondents were given the option of responding to the instrument in the language with which they were most comfortable.

A member of the modern language department at Texas Southmost College translated the WASSS into the Spanish language. This individual was a native of Brownsville who had been an instructor at the college since 1973. She had had previous translating experience, having translated numerous business documents for local business persons dealing with with Mexican national businesses.

The Spanish translation of the instrument was given to three local native speakers, an elementary school teacher,

a secretary, and a college student not included in any of the samples, all of whom translated the Spanish version back into English. The back translations were compared, and any differences which the back translators noted were considered. The instrument was then modified where necessary, although such modifications were minimal. Thus, the final Spanish version of the instrument was assumed to be parallel to the final English version (see Appendix B).

Selection of the Sample

Research in the area of attitudes toward women in sport has been criticized because it has generally focused on college student populations rather than on the general public (Nixon et al., 1979; Selby & Lewko, 1976; Woodford & Scott, 1982). Therefore, in an effort to address this concern, the investigator surveyed both a student sample and a sample of the general public for comparative purposes. This independent variable was named "educational status."

The sample of students and members of the general public was randomly selected from students attending Texas Southmost College and from the population of Brownsville, Texas. Brownsville is a city of approximately 90,000 residents situated in South Texas on the border with Mexico. The nature of this investigation dictated the availability of a large population of Mexican Americans, which is the case in Brownsville where they are the

majority population. The study also necessitated that both the Mexican-American and the comparative Anglo-American populations have access to their cultural roots, again an occurrence in Brownsville. The farther away from the Mexican border the Mexican-American population lives, the greater would be the possibility of acculturation and assimilation into the dominant Anglo society, thus minimizing attitudinal differences.

Appropriate sample size in survey research is generally determined by the size of the research budget and the method of data collection (Babbie, 1983). Since each of the three independent variables in this investigation (gender, ethnicity, educational status) consisted of two categories, a total of eight ($2 \times 2 \times 2$) types of respondents or subsamples were needed. A subsample size of 100 was considered to be appropriate for this investigation, making the necessary total sample size approximately 800.

The Student Sample

A sample was drawn from the student population of Texas Southmost College, Brownsville, Texas, during the 1983-84 academic year. Texas Southmost College is a two-year community college located at the southernmost tip of Texas on the Mexican border. The college contains both academic and vocational-technical divisions and had a combined enrollment of 5591 students during the 1983-84

academic year. The ethnic composition of the college at the time of the collection of data for this investigation was 77% Mexican-American and 18% Anglo-American. Over 53% of the students were enrolled in academic transfer programs, while 42% were enrolled in two-year terminal degree programs (Registrar, Texas Southmost College, 1984).

Since Texas Southmost College did not publish a student directory, students could not be sampled individually as was subsequently done with the general public. Instead, randomized cluster sampling was employed to draw a sample of physical education activity classes from a numbered list. As two semesters of physical education activity were required of all students enrolled in both transfer and terminal degree programs, students enrolled in those classes were assumed to be representative of the entire student population. Therefore, a random sample of physical education activity classes should have generated a representative sample of individual students comparable to an individual sampling of the general public.

Consequently, a table of random numbers was used to obtain a starting sample of 18 physical education activity classes. Since the investigator needed a total of 400 students divided equally across the four subsamples and the average size of activity classes was 25 students, the investigator estimated that 18 classes were needed to generate the necessary number of respondents. When these 18 classes failed to yield sufficient numbers of students

to fill all subsamples, sampling continued in a similar manner until each of the groups was sufficient in size or until the entire subsample population was sampled.

The General Public Sample

The sample of the general public was drawn from the telephone directory of the city of Brownsville, Texas, during the spring of 1984. The ethnic composition of the city at the time of the collection of data for this investigation was approximately 84% Hispanic (including persons of Hispanic heritage other than Mexican-Americans) and 15% Anglo-American (Brownsville City Planning Office, 1984.)

In order to obtain a general public sample comparable to the size of the student sample, 400 respondents stratified by gender and ethnicity were needed. Therefore, a random sample of 804 names stratified by ethnicity according to surname was generated by drawing 12 names from each page of the 67-page telephone directory. The names were selected by randomly drawing six Spanish surnames from the page and then alternately choosing the first Anglo surname above and below the Spanish surname. In some cases, where no Anglo names were available on a page, succeeding pages were over-sampled until the necessary number of names was achieved. This procedure resulted in some error of classification, for surname is not always an

indication of ethnicity, but this error was calculable by the self-report of respondents' ethnicity.

Collection of the Data

All data were collected during the four-month period of April to July, 1984, by the investigator and four trained assistants.

The Student Data

The 18 sections of physical education activity classes selected with the use of a table of random numbers contained a wide variety of classes and at least one class of every instructor in the department. The investigator obtained permission from the instructor of each class selected to use part of one class period to administer the WASSS. Permission was granted for all classes except one. The investigator conducted the initial administration in all classes, whereas at subsequent class meetings the instructors of the classes administered the survey instrument to class members who were absent during the initial administration. Students who had already completed the survey were instructed not to complete another questionnaire. This procedure ensured that no duplication of respondents would occur to confound the results of the data. The instructions read to every class prior to the administration of the WASSS explained the purpose of the study, informed the students that they could refuse to participate in the study, and assured complete anonymity

and confidentially to those who did choose to participate (see Appendix C).

Respondents from 12 of the first 13 classes listed yielded the necessary numbers of Mexican-American female (N=118) and male (N=108) respondents, but not of Anglo-American female (N=12) and male (N=7) respondents. The instructor of the class selected ninth would not allow the survey to be given as she was behind schedule in that class and could not afford the time needed for the administration of the survey. The response rate for these 12 classes was 90%, with 246 respondents out of a possible 271. However, because only 19 of these respondents were Anglo-American, whereas 200 were needed, the investigator discontinued sampling Mexican-Americans but continued sampling the remaining physical education classes until the required number of Anglo respondents was reached.

Unfortunately, a sampling of all 38 sections of physical education activity classes yielded only 23 Anglo females and 22 Anglo males, far short of the number of Anglo respondents needed. Since the end of the spring semester had arrived, the sampling process was continued during the first summer session in college classes in departments other than physical education. Classes in the departments of business administration, biology, chemistry, English, mathematics, modern languages, and social sciences were sampled by having the instructors of classes ask only Anglo students to complete the questionnaire. This

procedure produced a sufficient quantity of female respondents (N=102) but not of male respondents.

In a final attempt to procure a sufficient number of Anglo male respondents, an assistant who was doing telephone calling of the general public was assigned to go to the college student center and ask all Anglo males she could find who had not already done so, to complete the survey instrument. A two-week period of this sampling still failed to produce the target number of 100, but all available respondents were probably contacted (N=72).

Five of the Anglo-American students failed to meet the age criterion of 17 and older because they were high school students who were enrolled in summer college classes through a concurrent enrollment plan between the college and the local school district, so their data were not included in the final sample. Thus, the final student sample (N=395) was comprised of 118 Mexican-American females, 108 Mexican-American males, 98 Anglo-American females, and 71 Anglo-American males.

The General Public Data

Responses from the general public were collected via the telephone by four bilingual callers. Originally, the callers consisted of two females and one male who had been trained to elicit responses over the phone. However, during the data gathering process, one female caller quit after amassing a substantial pool of data. This data pool

was retained, and another female who had been a part of the original training process was hired to collect more data, which brought the total number of callers and subsequent caller groups to four.

Although a mailed questionnaire may have been more amenable to gathering data from the large number of respondents needed, the possibility existed that many of the recipients of a written questionnaire would be unable to read it in either English or Spanish. The illiteracy rate of South Texas is reported to be very high; for example, in 1970 the average adult had attained less than seven years of formal education (Moore, 1976). A 1984 survey by the curriculum commission of the Brownsville Independent School District found that the dropout rate for high school students was 55% (Brownsville Herald, 1984). Therefore, contacting respondents by telephone seemed to be more efficient in this situation than a mailed questionnaire. Since the students and the general public responded to the same questionnaire and both samples had the opportunity to ask for clarifications of the items, it was assumed that the responses of the two samples were comparable, even though the techniques for collecting the data differed.

The original telephone assistants, three bilingual college students, were trained in a three-step process by the investigator. First, they were given copies of the instrument in both English and Spanish to review and

clarify any questions about the instrument itself. General techniques for interviewing and telephone courtesy were discussed, and the callers were instructed to administer the questionnaire to each other over the phone. Next, the telephone assistants called the investigator's secretary and administered the survey to her with the investigator listening on an extension. Problems were noted and suggestions for improving the process were given. Finally, the assistants called five friends or relatives not included in the sample and administered the questionnaire to them with either the investigator or her secretary listening on an extension to make helpful suggestions. The participation of the investigator's secretary in the training process proved to be very fortuitous. Since one of the female callers quit during the course of the data collection, the secretary, also bilingual, was able to replace her. The procedures followed for training the telephone assistants not only standardized the data collection, but also enabled the assistants to achieve familiarity with the instrument and gain confidence in the survey administration process.

All callers used the same introductory statement, in either English or Spanish, depending upon which language the respondents used to answer the phone (see Appendix D). As individuals were called, the assistants kept track of the gender of the respondent and attempted to equalize the number of females and males who responded to the survey. A

running total of respondents stratified by gender and ethnicity was kept in order to ensure that all categories were filled with the necessary numbers.

As each respondent was called, the assistants kept a record of whether or not each respondent agreed to participate, needed to be called back, or was never reached. Telephone numbers which were discontinued or where no one answered after three attempts to reach them were replaced by resampling; those numbered 317. The calling was done at various times of the day from 8:00 am to 10:00 pm so as to maximize the variability of the respondents by including persons working outside the home as well as inside it, the retired, and the unemployed.

The final sample size achieved for the general public was 411 respondents. The response rate of this sample was 43%, as 237 persons refused to participate. Of the 411 respondents, 397 met the age criterion, including 104 Mexican-American females, 102 Mexican-American males, 93 Anglo-American females, and 98 Anglo-American males. The sample size was considered to be adequate since it was comparable in size to the student sample and assumed to be representative of the general public in Brownsville.

Summary

A search of the literature failed to produce a suitable instrument with which to measure the attitudinal variables under investigation in this study, so the

investigator developed an eclectic one by drawing statements from instruments reported in related literature. The statements drawn from those instruments were combined into one instrument comprised of three subscales with which to measure the dependent variables of attitudes toward sport, toward women's role in society, and toward women's participation in sport. The instrument was named the Women and Sport in Society Survey (WASSS). A pilot study conducted with an available sample of college students (N=150) demonstrated that the WASSS possessed an acceptable level of reliability and validity for use in this investigation.

The survey instrument was used to collect data from 400 college students and 411 members of the general public in a South Texas city during the spring and summer of 1984. The students responded to a written questionnaire, while the general public responded to a reading of the same questionnaire over the telephone by trained callers. The results of this data collection are presented in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data which were collected by means of the procedures described in Chapter III were subjected to various statistical analyses. This chapter will encompass a presentation of the results of these analyses as well as a discussion of those results. For a summary table of the demographic information collected from respondents, see Appendix E.

Preliminary Analyses

Comparison of Caller Groups

The initial analysis leading to the eventual interpretation of the data focused on an assessment of the responses to the four telephone callers employed to collect the data from the sample of the general public. Although the interviewing technique had been standardized and the subjects were randomly assigned to the telephone callers so as to minimize the caller effect, it was necessary to test for the presence of the effect because significant differences among the caller groups to the WASSS would make any subsequent differences detected across independent variables uninterpretable, since the source of such differences would be unknown.

In order to test the assumption of no difference in the responses of the four caller groups, labeled A, B, C, and D, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) across callers was conducted for the WASSS. The results of the ANOVA across the four caller groups indicated a significant difference among the mean responses of the groups to the WASSS ($F(3,393)=21.50$, $p .001$). Thus, the null hypothesis of no difference among the group means was rejected. Since the results indicated a significant difference among the groups, but not which of the groups differed significantly from one another, a post hoc multiple comparison procedure employing Scheffe's test was conducted. The results of this analysis are presented in Figure 4.1.

				<u>Group</u>		
<u>Mean</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>Group</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
85.41	71	D				
86.63	175	A				
90.26	97	B	*			
99.33	54	C	*	*	*	

* $p < .05$

Figure 4.1. Scheffe test of differences among caller groups for the Women in Sport and Society Survey (WASSS)

The investigator experimented with various combinations of caller groups to eliminate the caller effect. The results of this experimentation indicated that

the best way to eliminate the caller effect while minimizing data loss was to discard the data from groups B and C. The retention of the data from groups A and D resulted in the largest and most balanced sample across gender and ethnicity.

A subsequent one-way ANOVA across caller groups A and D supported the assumption of no difference between the mean responses of the two groups to the WASSS ($F(1,244) = .52, p > .47$). Therefore, the final size of the sample of the general public which was utilized in this investigation was 246 respondents. Of these respondents, 66 were female Mexican-American, 61 were male Mexican-American, 52 were female Anglo-American and 67 were male Anglo-American.

Comparison of the Randomly Selected and Available Anglo Student Subsamples

All of the members of the subgroups in this investigation were obtained by random sampling procedures with the exception of the Anglo-American students. Although some of these subjects had been selected randomly ($N=45$), the majority of the sample ($N=124$) were part of an available sample for reasons delineated in Chapter III. This caused the investigator to be concerned about possible differences in response to the WASSS due to sampling error. However, the available sample of male Anglo-American students represented the entire population enrolled in the institution, so sampling error was not an issue. For the

female Anglo-American students, though, this issue was germane. Therefore, a t-test of the difference between the means of the Anglo-American female subsamples was conducted for the WASSS. The results of this analysis indicated that the responses of the two subsamples were homogeneous ($t(96) = -.82, p > .41$).

Reliability and Validity of the WASSS

Although the results of the pilot study described in chapter III demonstrated that the WASSS possessed an acceptable level of reliability and validity for use in measuring the dependent variables under investigation, the data collected from the target population were subjected to the same analyses. This was done in order to ensure that the two methods used to collect the data were indeed comparable, since the pilot study had not included responses obtained by the telephoning process. In addition, the pilot study sample consisted only of students, not of members of the general public. Thus, the extent of the reliability and validity of the instrument with the actual sample population of the study had to be examined.

The extent of the reliability of the WASSS was again examined by the use of Cronbach's alpha as the estimate of internal consistency. The test-retest measure of time-associated reliability was not conducted this time because

of the difficulty, and in most cases the impossibility, of surveying the respondents a second time.

The reliability for the 30 statement instrument, presented in Table 4.1, produced alpha coefficients of .84 for the total instrument, and .73, .73, and .78 for the AS, AW and AWSP subscales, respectively. Since these coefficients met the minimum criterion of .70, the instrument was judged to possess an acceptable level of reliability for use in this investigation. In addition, since the alpha coefficients obtained with this sample were quite similar to those demonstrated in the pilot study, the WASSS was considered to be a stable instrument.

Table 4.1
Reliability Coefficients^a by Total Sample and Independent Variable Groups

<u>Group</u>	<u>WASSS</u>	<u>AS</u>	<u>AW</u>	<u>AWSP</u>
Pilot Sample (N=150)	.82	.76	.70	.79
Study Sample (N=641)	.84	.73	.73	.78
Females (N=334)	.84	.76	.71	.76
Males (N=307)	.81	.70	.71	.75
Anglo-Americans (N=288)	.83	.75	.72	.77
Mexican-American (N=353)	.84	.71	.73	.79
Students (N=395)	.81	.77	.72	.74
General Public (N=246)	.82	.65	.69	.78

^aCronbach's coefficient alpha

Key: WASSS Women and Sport in Society Survey
AS Attitude Toward Sport
AW Attitude Toward Women's Role in Society
AWSP Attitude Toward Women's Participation in Sport

A further assessment of the extent of the reliability of the instrument for each level of the independent variables was performed, with the results summarized in Table 4.1. Since only two of the 24 alphas fell below .70, and in those instances the divergences were small, the data collected via the WASSS were considered to be reliable for all subgroups of the investigation.

The extent of the validity of the WASSS was again examined by means of a principal components factor analysis. Although the results of the pilot study had indicated that the WASSS possessed an unambiguous factor structure, another exploratory rather than confirmatory factor analysis was conducted since a sample of the general public had not been included in the pilot study. Since the goal of this analysis was the same as that of the pilot study, the orthogonal solution with varimax rotation to a final solution was again employed. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 4.2.

The orthogonal solution yielded five interpretable factors accounting for 96.4% of the scale variance. Factor 2 contained seven statements which loaded above the .40 cut-off point, all of which were part of the AS subscale. This factor alone accounted for 28% of the scale variance. Factors 3, 4 and 5 contained eight of the ten statements from the AW subscale and combined accounted for 18.8% of the total variance. Factor 1 contained six of the statements which comprised the AWSP subscale and accounted

Table 4.2 Factor Analysis (Orthogonal Solution) of the Women in Sport and Society Survey (WASSS)

Factor Names/Statements	Factor Loadings ^a				
	2b	3	4	5	1
Attitude toward sport (AS)					
5. Teach good citizenship	.59				
10. Teach respect for authority	.64				
12. Teach self-discipline	.52				
15. Teach patriotism	.47				
18. Help get ahead in world	.41				
22. Teach fair play and sportsmanship	.49				
30. Teach to compete and prepare for business world					
Attitude toward women's role in society (AW)					
16. Women compete equally with men for jobs		.40			
19. Women can be athletic and feminine (AMSP)		.44			
21. Women encouraged to participate in all sports (AMSP)		.40			
22. Teach fair play and sportsmanship (AS)		.42			
23. Equal grounds for divorce		.48			
24. Freedom from control for both		.55			
6. Mothers prepare daughters for wifehood			.61		
13. Women subordinate ambitions to family			.55		
17. Major responsibility wife to keep family happy			.59		
26. Only men should tell dirty jokes				.45	
28. Worse for women to be drunk than men				.68	
Attitude toward women's participation in sport (AMSP)					
2. Opportunity in sport restricted to males					.59
4. Sport takes time away from important things for women					.50
8. Not natural that women boss men (AW)					.51
9. Men naturally know more about sports					.41
11. Sport more important for males' physical and social development					.56
14. To excel, woman must be like man					.44
20. Women cheerlead, men play sports					.43
29. Women contribute less economically (AW)					.43
Eigenvalue	2.97	.76	.66	.58	5.27
Percent of Variance	28.0	7.2	6.2	5.4	49.7

^aFactor loadings below .40 are not presented for the sake of clarity

^bFactors are presented in an order to demonstrate subscale groupings, rather than in numerical order.

for 53.3% of the scale variance. Although it was theoretically desirable for each of the subscale constructs to account for 33.3% of the scale variance if the factors were totally independent, the fact that the AWSP subscale construct accounted for a greater amount of the variance than the other two subscales was not considered to be critical since the major focus of this investigation was on the participation of women in sport. The statements which were not accounted for in their respective factor constructs either loaded on another subscale construct (See Tables 4.2 and 4.3) or did not load on any of the factors identified. Although the WASSS factored into five interpretable factors which could not only be combined into the three subscale constructs but also accounted for 94.6% of the scale variance, the fact that some subscale statements loaded on inappropriate subscale factors led to further analysis of the structure of the WASSS.

An analysis of the correlation between the three subscales indicated that there was negligible correlation between the AS subscale and either the AW ($r=.06$) or the AWSP ($r=.26$) subscales. However, the AW and AWSP subscales demonstrated a fairly substantial ($r=.70$) correlation with each other. Therefore, the investigator conducted a further analysis of the factor structure of the WASSS by employing an oblique solution with direct oblimin rotation to a final solution. Several authors (Kendall, 1975; Kim & Mueller, 1978) have recommended that the oblique solution

be used when factors are known to be correlated. The direct oblimin rotation was chosen since it does not require the introduction of reference axes and allows the factors to be correlated if such a correlation exists in the data.

The oblique solution, presented in Table 4.3, also yielded five interpretable factors accounting for 96.4% of the variance. The amount of variance accounted for by each of the factors and the identity of each factor as being comprised of the statements from a certain subscale were identical to the results yielded by the orthogonal solution. However, the structure of each factor became clearer as items inappropriate to the respective subscales were eliminated. Although the AW subscale factors did not account for a large amount of the variance of the WASSS, the subscale was retained since the constructs were clear and similar to those demonstrated by the instrument from which they were drawn (Spence & Helmreich, 1972). Thus, the investigator concluded that the WASSS possessed an acceptable level of construct validity for use in this investigation.

Thus far in this chapter the presentation of results has consisted of analyses assessing the extent of the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument and the comparability of the data collected with different sampling procedures. Attention is now turned to an

Table 4.3 Factor Analysis (Oblique Solution) of the Women in Sport and Society Survey (WASSS)

Factor Names/Statements	2b	3	Factor Loadings ^a		
			4	5	1
Attitude toward sport (AS)					
5. Teach good citizenship	.50				
10. Teach respect for authority	.58				
12. Teach self-discipline	.55				
15. Teach patriotism	.42				
22. Teach fair play and sportsmanship	.41				
30. Teach to compete and prepare for business world	.54				
Attitude toward women's role in society (AW)					
16. Women compete equally with men for jobs		-.40			
23. Equal grounds for divorce		-.43			
24. Freedom from control for both		-.47			
6. Mothers prepare daughters for wifehood			.66		
13. Women subordinate ambitions to family			.58		
17. Major responsibility wife to keep family happy			.60		
26. Only men should tell dirty jokes				.51	
28. Worse for women to be drunk than men				.73	
Attitude toward women's participation in sport (AWSP)					
2. Opportunity in sport restricted to males					.59
4. Sport takes time away from important things for women					.43
8. Not natural that women boss men (AW)					.40
11. Sport more important for males' physical and social development					.43
21. Women encouraged to participate in all sports					
Eigenvalue	2.97	.76	.66	.58	5.27
Percent of Variance	28.0	7.2	6.2	5.4	49.7

^aFactor loadings below .40 are not presented for the sake of clarity

^bFactors are presented in an order to demonstrate subscale groupings, rather than in numerical order.

analysis of the data in terms of the hypotheses presented in Chapter I.

Analysis in Terms of the Hypotheses

Data were collected from 811 respondents, of whom 641 met all criteria established for this investigation and whose data were therefore included in the statistical analyses. The investigator quantified the three attitudinal variables under investigation by summing the responses of the subjects to each of the attitudinal subscales and calculating the mean responses for each of the subscales. Scores could range from 10 to 40, and a score above the midpoint (25) of each subscale was assumed to indicate a favorable attitude toward the variable being measured, while a score below the scale midpoint was assumed to indicate an unfavorable attitude toward the variable being measured.

The design of this study included three dependent variables (attitude toward sport, attitude toward women's role in society and attitude toward women's participation in sport) and three independent variables (gender, ethnicity and educational status) each with two levels. Since the three dependent variable measures were obtained from the same subjects and therefore were presumed to be correlated, it was necessary to test for the combination of effects on these dependent variables (Hair et al., 1979).

This type of approach, which allows simultaneous testing of all variables and considers the various interrelationships among them, was necessary in order to control the inflation of Type I error which would be inherent in performing a series of univariate analyses in this instance (Barker & Barker, 1984; Cooley & Lohnes, 1971; Hair et al., 1979; Huck et al., 1974). Therefore, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was selected as the appropriate statistical technique.

Since various test statistics are available to determine the significance of a MANOVA, and since the choice of the appropriate statistic depends upon the dispersion of the data, the investigator first determined whether the assumption of homogeneity of dispersion matrices associated with this procedure was met by the data (Hair et al., 1979). This assumption, tested by Box's M test, yielded a highly significant value ($F(42,430242)=2.13, p < .001$), thereby indicating heterogeneity of dispersion matrices. The seriousness of violating this assumption is questionable, however, since many contemporary statisticians have indicated that the MANOVA procedure is extremely robust, that is, unaffected by violations of this assumption (Cooley & Lohnes, 1971; Dowdy & Weardon, 1983; Hair et al., 1979; Harris, 1975; Kerlinger, 1973; Winer, 1971). In view of these recommendations, the investigator concluded that it was appropriate to proceed with the multivariate analysis of

variance of the data collected in this investigation. However, the heterogeneity of dispersion matrices was taken into account in the choice of the appropriate test statistic for assessing the probability of attaining equal mean vectors.

Due to the presence of heterogeneity of dispersion matrices, the Pillai-Bartlett trace criterion, V , was chosen to evaluate the equality of mean vectors rather than the more conventionally used Wilks' lambda statistic. Pillai's V is considered to be more sensitive than its counterparts in the presence of extreme heterogeneity of dispersion matrices and has been suggested for data such as those found in this investigation (Barcikowski, 1983; Olson 1976, 1979; Stevens, 1979). Since Pillai's V represents the amount of explained variance, a higher calculated value of V yields a lower p value, indicating increased significance.

In the event that the results of the current investigation had been affected by the heterogeneity of dispersion matrices, the Pillai trace, V , could have been slightly inflated. However, since the V was overwhelmingly significant ($p < .001$), there appeared to be little chance of making a Type I error. Therefore, the results of the MANOVA were examined with the understanding that the significance level of the Pillai trace criterion might be somewhat higher than the value yielded, although not high

enough so as to fail to reject the null hypothesis of no difference.

The results of the MANOVA, summarized in Table 4.4, shows that all interaction effects were non-significant ($p < .05$) as evaluated by Pillai's V. Each main effect, however, achieved a high level of significance ($p < .001$).

The rejection of the null hypothesis of equality of mean vectors for the three main effects based upon the Pillai trace criterion indicated that each independent variable differed with respect to the dependent variables. It did not, however, indicate which of the three dependent variables were contributing to the significant differences detected. Therefore, a follow-up test was necessary to determine whether the AS, AW or AWSP subscales were contributing to the significant Pillai's V. In the absence of significant interaction among the variables, the univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) was deemed the appropriate procedure to further study the results (Barker & Barker, 1984; Hummel & Sligo, 1971; Morrison, 1976).

The results of the ANOVA are presented in Table 4.5, followed by Table 4.6 which shows the means and standard deviations of the independent variable groups on the attitude subscales. Figure 4.2 illustrates the results of the ANOVA in conjunction with the hypotheses stated in Chapter I.

Table 4.4 Summary of MANOVA for Subscales across Gender, Ethnicity and Educational Status

Source of Variance	Pillai's Trace V	Approximate F _a	Significance of F
Gender	.144	35.225	.000
Ethnicity	.028	5.984	.001
Educational Status	.121	29.043	.000
Gender X Ethnicity	.000	.049	.986
Gender X Educational Status	.001	.282	.839
Ethnicity X Educational Status	.004	.814	.486
Gender X Ethnicity X Educational Status	.006	1.164	.323

adf=3,631

Table 4.5
 Oneway ANOVA Summary Table for Gender, Ethnicity and
 Educational Status for Dependent Variables

<u>Source</u>	<u>F^a</u>	<u>Significance of F</u>
Attitude toward sport (AS)		
Gender	.092	.762
Ethnicity	6.043	.014
Educational Status	17.394	.001
Attitude toward women's role in society (AW)		
Gender	48.003	.001
Ethnicity	9.618	.002
Educational Status	60.953	.001
Attitude toward women's participation in sport (AWSP)		
Gender	87.541	.001
Ethnicity	2.253	.134
Educational Status	68.810	.001

^adf=1,

Table 4.6 Means and Standard Deviations According to Gender, Ethnicity and Educational Status

Subscale	Gender		Ethnicity				Educational Status	
	Female (N=334) M SD	Male (N=307) M SD	Anglo- American (N=228) M SD	Mexican- American (N=353) M SD	Student (N=395) M SD	General Public (N=246) M SD		
Attitude toward sport (AS)	30.81 5.05	30.98 4.84	30.39 4.80 *	31.35 5.03	31.56 5.02 **	29.90 4.65		
Attitude toward women's role in society (AW)	30.49 5.42 **	27.50 5.52	29.82 5.24 *	28.43 5.93	30.38 5.35 **	26.94 5.53		
Attitude toward women's parti- cipation in sport (AWSP)	33.42 4.95 **	29.62 5.33	31.96 5.01	31.30 5.82	32.94 4.84 **	29.44 5.74		

*p ≤ .01

**p ≤ .001

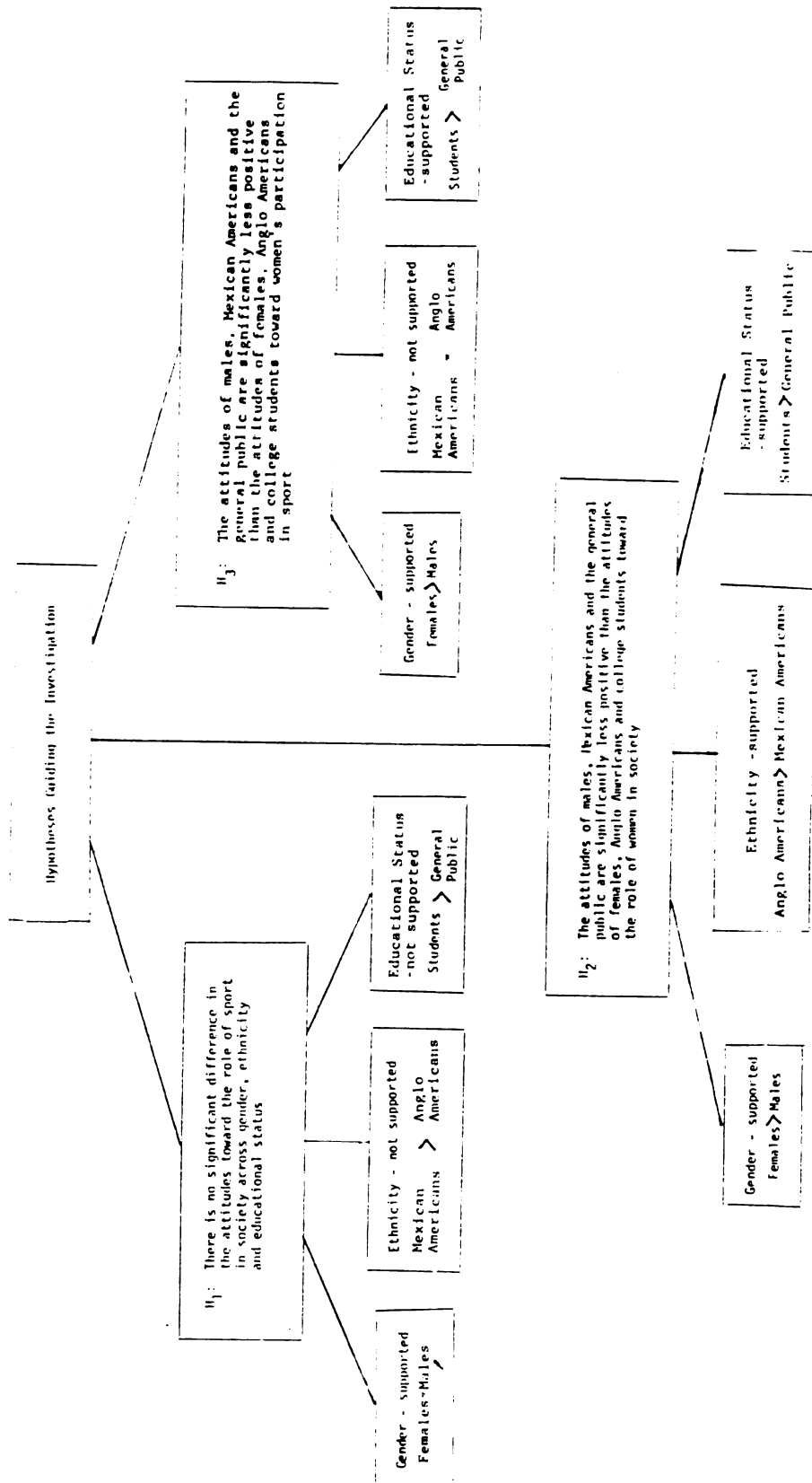


Figure 4.2 Pictorial Presentation of the Results of the ANOVA in Relation to the Hypotheses Guiding the Investigation

Summary of Results

Responses to a survey instrument designed to measure the respondents' attitudes toward the role of sport in society, toward the role of women in society and toward women's participation in sport were collected from a total sample of 811 respondents consisting of college students and members of the general public of Brownsville, Texas. Of these 811 responses, 641 met all criteria established for the study and were therefore utilized in the ensuing statistical analyses.

Various analyses were conducted in order to determine the comparability of the data which were collected by different methods, as well as to determine the extent of the reliability and validity of the survey instrument with the sample population. The results of these analyses indicated that the data collected via the WASSS were comparable and that the instrument demonstrated an acceptable level of reliability and validity for measuring the dependent variables under investigation.

A MANOVA, in which the dependent variables consisted of the attitudes toward sport, toward women's role in society and toward women's participation in sport and the independent variables were the categorical variables of gender, ethnicity and educational status, was used to test the three hypotheses guiding this investigation. The results of the MANOVA demonstrated significant main effect differences but no significant interaction effects. Since

there were no significant interactions, the investigator performed several univariate analyses of variance as a follow-up procedure to determine which of the dependent variables were contributing to the significant main effects.

On the AS subscale, Mexican-Americans and college students exhibited significantly more positive attitudes toward the role of sport in society than did the Anglo Americans and members of the general public. This was contrary to the hypothesis of no difference in attitudes. There were no significant differences in attitudes toward sport demonstrated between females and males, as hypothesized.

Significant differences on the AW subscale were observed across all three independent variables. Males, Mexican-Americans and members of the general public had a significantly less liberal orientation toward the role of women in society than did females, Anglo-Americans and college students. This finding supported the second hypothesis of this investigation.

On the AWSP subscale, males and members of the general public demonstrated a significantly less supportive attitude toward the participation of women in sport than did females and college students, as hypothesized. The attitudes of Anglo-Americans and Mexican-Americans did not differ significantly, however, contrary to the hypothesized difference.

Further Analyses and Discussion

The purpose of this investigation was to explore the effects of gender, ethnicity and educational status on attitudes toward sport, toward women's role in society and toward women's participation in sport. Although these attitudes were found to differ across the three independent variables, the means of the three scaled attitudes were on the positive side (i.e., greater than 25) of their respective subscales. This indicated that the respondents held overall favorable attitudes toward sport, as well as toward women in society and in sport. For example, although women were significantly more supportive of women's participation in sport than were men, men also expressed positive attitudes toward the participation of women in sport.

These results were not unexpected since they were congruent with those found by other investigators who also reported positive attitudes of adults toward sport (Berlage, 1982; Griffith & Henschen, 1982; Grove & Dodder, 1979; Jensen et al., 1980; Miller Lite Report on Sports, 1983; Phillips, 1979; Spreitzer & Snyder, 1975); toward women's role in society (Braun & Chao, 1978; Cherlin & Walters, 1981; Loo & Logan, 1977; Lunneborg, 1974; Martin et al., 1980; Spence & Helmreich, 1972; Yoder, et al., 1982); and toward women's participation in sport (DeBacy et al., 1970; Kingsley et al., 1977; Harres, 1968; McCabe & Shaw, 1977; Miller Lite Report on Sports, 1983; Nixon et

al., 1979; Wittig, 1975; Woodford & Scott, 1982). Since an integrated discussion of these three attitudinal dimensions could be rather confusing, the discussion of the results of the current investigation will be divided into three sections, each one corresponding to one of the attitudinal subscales. Each section of the discussion will include the results of further analyses which were performed on the data to allow the investigator to explore dimensions of the significant differences detected in the primary analyses of the data. These analyses included discriminant function analyses, discriminant classification analyses, factor analyses of the individual subscales and various analyses of additional demographic data.

Attitude Toward Sport (AS)

The results of the current investigation showed that these Americans believed that sport is an important component of contemporary society. This conclusion was based on the fact that ALL means of both the total subscale and of the individual subscale statements were on the positive side for all subgroups¹ (see Tables 4.6, 4.7, 4.8, 4.9). Furthermore, only 25% of the respondents agreed with the statement that "competitive sports are NOT particularly important for the well-being of society" (#1). The

¹A statement mean score above 2.5 was considered to reflect a positive, or supportive attitude toward sport in society, since 2.5 was the midpoint for the individual subscale statements.

Table 4.7 Discriminant Analyses of Subscales by Gender

Subscale/Statement	M		SD		Wilks' Lambda	Significance	Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficient
	Female	Male	Female	Male			
Attitude toward sport (AS)							
^a 1. Not important to society	3.06	3.08	1.00	1.06	.999	.762	.049
3. Lessens societal drug problems	2.79	2.58	1.02	1.16	.991	.018	-.631
^a 5. Teaches good citizenship	3.10	3.16	.95	.91	.999	.412	.162
^a 7. Competition does more harm than good	3.14	3.17	.81	.91	.999	.707	.055
10. Teaches respect for authority	3.12	3.19	.91	.90	.999	.336	.301
12. Teaches self-discipline	3.47	3.47	.73	.83	1.000	.971	-.036
15. Teaches patriotism	2.78	2.86	.92	.98	.998	.297	.203
18. Helps get ahead in world	2.90	3.05	.93	.89	.993	.040	.546
22. Teaches fair play and sportsmanship	3.46	3.32	.75	.82	.993	.032	-.760
30. Teaches to compete and prepare for business world	3.06	3.11	.92	.86	.999	.499	.141
Attitude toward women (AW)							
^a 6. Mothers prepare daughters for wifehood	2.70	2.31	1.06	1.00	.965	.000	.215
^a 8. Not natural that women boss men	3.35	2.88	.95	1.11	.951	.000	.375
^a 13. Women subordinate ambitions to family	2.92	2.44	1.06	1.03	.950	.000	.347
16. Women compete equally with men for jobs	3.14	3.08	1.00	.95	.999	.440	-.087
^a 17. Major responsibility of wife to keep family happy	2.52	2.19	1.09	1.07	.977	.000	-.032
23. Equal grounds for divorce	3.40	3.30	.91	.93	.999	.849	-.294
^a 24. Freedom from control for both	3.37	3.08	.89	.97	.976	.000	.316
^a 26. Only men should tell dirty jokes	2.93	2.80	1.09	1.06	.997	.135	-.160
^a 28. Worse for women to be drunk than men	2.73	2.38	1.23	1.27	.981	.000	.083
^a 29. Women contribute less economically	3.44	2.96	.92	1.04	.943	.000	.492
Attitude toward women in sport (AWSP)							
^a 2. Opportunity in sport restricted to males	3.67	3.40	.72	.87	.974	.000	.012
^a 4. Sport takes time away from important things for women	3.51	3.20	.80	.91	.969	.000	.114
^a 9. Men naturally know more about sports	2.99	2.32	1.04	1.03	.906	.000	.585
^a 11. Sports more important for males' physical and social development	3.37	2.89	.93	1.02	.943	.000	.207
^a 14. To excel, woman must be like man	3.37	2.98	.91	1.00	.959	.000	.126
19. Women can be athletic and feminine	3.68	3.40	.69	.87	.968	.000	.070
^a 20. Women cheerlead, men play sports	3.67	3.28	.69	.89	.944	.000	.231
21. Women encouraged to engage in sports	3.43	3.07	.82	.93	.957	.000	.142
^a 25. Women in sport must show femininity	2.92	2.54	1.01	1.03	.967	.000	.132
^a 27. Males and females NOT compete against each other	2.81	2.54	1.06	1.11	.985	.002	.004

^aStatements which were reverse scored

Table 4.8 Discriminant Analysis of Subscales by Ethnicity

Subscale/Statement	M		SD		Wilks Lambda	Significance	Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficient
	Mexican American	Anglo American	Mexican American	Anglo American			
Attitude toward sport (AS)							
^a 1. Not important to society	3.11	3.02	1.00	.96	.998	.287	.132
3. Lessens societal drug problems	2.80	2.56	1.14	1.01	.988	.006	.134
^a 5. Teaches good citizenship	3.10	3.16	1.02	.81	.999	.392	-.159
^a 7. Competition does more harm than good	3.24	3.05	.85	.85	.989	.007	.101
10. Teaches respect for authority	3.19	3.10	.94	.85	.997	.104	.123
12. Teaches self-discipline	3.47	3.40	.83	.72	.999	.814	-.265
15. Teaches patriotism	2.80	2.74	.90	.90	.995	.065	.196
18. Helps get ahead in world	3.13	2.78	.93	.86	.963	.000	.753
22. Teaches fair play and sportsman-ship	3.43	3.35	.79	.77	.997	.195	.109
30. Teaches to compete and prepares for business world	3.03	3.16	.95	.82	.994	.059	-.526
Attitude toward women (AW)							
^a 6. Mothers prepare daughters for wifehood	2.50	2.53	1.11	.98	.999	.671	-.211
^a 8. Not natural that women boss men	3.07	3.19	1.12	.96	.997	.174	.101
^a 13. Women subordinate ambitions to family	2.66	2.73	1.13	1.01	.999	.422	-.126
16. Women compete equally with men for jobs	3.14	3.07	.90	.90	.999	.392	-.247
^a 17. Major responsibility of wife to keep family happy	2.28	2.45	1.14	1.02	.994	.052	.074
21. Equal grounds for divorce	3.30	3.40	.96	.87	.999	.781	-.036
^a 24. Freedom from control for both	3.20	3.28	.99	.88	.998	.251	.054
^a 26. Only men should tell dirty jokes	2.75	3.00	1.15	.97	.906	.003	.233
^a 28. Worse for women to be drunk than men	2.33	2.85	1.27	1.10	.957	.000	.828
^a 29. Women contribute less economi-cally	3.13	3.12	1.05	.94	.992	.020	.164
Attitude toward women in sport (AWSP)							
^a 2. Opportunity in sport restricted to males	3.47	3.63	.90	.67	.991	.015	.567
^a 4. Sport takes time away from important things for women	3.32	3.41	.90	.82	.997	.193	.155
^a 9. Men naturally know more about sports	2.67	2.66	1.14	1.02	.999	.925	-.218
^a 11. Sports more important for males' physical and social development	3.13	3.15	1.04	.95	.999	.873	-.212
^a 14. To excel, women must be like men	3.13	3.26	1.05	.86	.995	.079	.319
19. Women can be athletic and feminine	3.58	3.51	.79	.79	.998	.259	-.541
^a 20. Women cheerlead, men play sports	3.46	3.51	.83	.80	.999	.373	.101
21. Women encouraged to engage in sports	3.27	3.25	.96	.80	.999	.780	-.203
^a 25. Women in sport must show femininity	2.65	2.85	1.07	.98	.991	.014	.507
^a 27. Males and females NOT compete against each other	2.64	2.73	1.14	1.03	.998	.258	.176

^aStatements which were reverse scored

Table 4.9 Discriminant Analyses of Subscales by Educational Status

Subscale/Statement	M		SD		Wilks' Lambda	Significance	Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficient
	Student	General Public	Student	General Public			
Attitude toward sport (AS)							
1. Not important to society	3.35	2.62	.38	1.09	.882	.000	.648
3. Lessens societal drug problems	2.69	2.68	1.07	1.11	.999	.904	-.031
5. Teaches good citizenship	3.16	3.07	.91	.97	.998	.133	.060
7. Competition does more harm than good	3.24	3.02	.35	.85	.985	.002	.132
10. Teaches respect for authority	3.14	3.16	.86	.98	.999	.847	-.047
12. Teaches self-discipline	3.44	3.52	.81	.73	.998	.248	-.055
15. Teaches patriotism	3.79	2.87	.92	1.00	.998	.190	-.153
18. Helps get ahead in world	2.96	3.00	.90	.91	.999	.599	-.040
22. Teaches fair play and sportsmanship	3.57	3.11	.74	.77	.919	.000	.748
30. Teaches to compete and prepares for business world	3.23	2.86	.84	.93	.961	.000	.062
Attitude toward women (AW)							
6. Mothers prepare daughters for wifehood	2.69	2.22	1.02	1.03	.953	.000	.356
8. Not natural that women boss men	3.23	2.96	.97	1.15	.984	.001	.015
13. Women subordinate ambitions to family	2.86	2.41	.97	1.17	.958	.000	.185
16. Women compete equally with men for jobs	3.13	3.07	1.03	.89	.999	.402	-.045
17. Major responsibility of wife to keep family happy	2.54	2.07	1.08	1.04	.955	.000	.159
23. Equal grounds for divorce	3.49	3.24	.88	.97	.964	.001	.153
24. Freedom from control for both	3.39	2.99	.84	1.04	.957	.000	.194
26. Only men should tell dirty jokes	2.93	2.76	1.07	1.08	.994	.253	-.130
28. Worse for women to be drunk than men	2.80	2.19	1.02	1.24	.946	.000	.487
29. Women contribute less economically	3.22	3.04	.96	1.06	.981	.000	.032
Attitude toward women in sports (AWSP)							
2. Opportunity in sport restricted to males	3.64	3.38	.76	.85	.976	.000	.065
4. Sport takes time away from important things for women	3.50	3.14	.79	.93	.959	.000	.207
9. Men naturally know more about sports	2.82	2.42	1.02	1.16	.968	.000	.270
11. Sports more important for males' physical and social development	3.23	2.99	.96	1.05	.986	.003	-.100
14. To excel, woman must be like man	3.32	2.97	.91	1.03	.970	.000	.073
19. Women can be athletic and feminine	3.70	3.29	.68	.89	.936	.000	.267
20. Women cheerlead, men play sports	3.60	3.30	.75	.89	.968	.000	-.023
21. Women encouraged to engage in sports	3.50	2.87	.78	.92	.880	.000	.671
25. Women in sport must show femininity	2.82	2.61	1.01	1.07	.991	.015	-.074
27. Males and females NOT compete against each other	2.81	2.46	1.09	1.06	.976	.000	.162

^aStatements which were reverse scored

importance accorded sport in this investigation was approximately the same as that reported in a study of adults conducted a decade ago in the midwest (Spreitzer & Snyder, 1975). The similarity of results in these two investigations indicated that favorable attitudes toward sport have remained fairly constant over the past decade and are not bounded by geography.

Although the respondents in this investigation appeared to believe that sport is important to society, significant differences were detected in the degree of support across the two independent variables of ethnicity and educational status. Therefore, the investigator conducted further analyses to explore these differences.

The results of the initial factor analysis of the WASSS had indicated that the attitude measured by the AS subscale was unidimensional, since only one factor construct had emerged in this analysis. Therefore, the AS subscale was assumed to consist of only one dimension and, consequently, was not subjected to a separate factor analysis. Since no significant difference was detected between the attitudes of females and males toward sport, and since this result was consistent with the reports of other investigators (Grove & Dodder, 1979; Jensen et al., 1980; Spreitzer & Snyder, 1975), the variable of gender with respect to the AS subscale was not further explored. However, since the results of the initial 2 x 2 x 2 (gender, ethnicity, educational status) ANOVA had

demonstrated significant differences in attitudes toward sport across ethnicity and educational status, the investigator used the results of a discriminant function analysis of the 10 statements which comprised this subscale to determine where those differences existed.

The results of that initial ANOVA had revealed that educational status accounted for 2.5% of the AS subscale variability, which, although this was relatively little of the subscale variability, was more of the explained variability than that accounted for by either gender or ethnicity. Educational status appeared to be of greater salience in explaining the attitudes of the students than of the members of the general public, because the results of a discriminant classification analysis showed that 64% of the students but only 56% of the general public were correctly classified by their scores on the AS subscale. The students held significantly more positive views toward sport than did the members of the general public on all four of the subscale statements which were found to discriminate between the two status groups (#1, #7, #22, #30). However, as stated previously, all mean item scores for both groups were on the positive side of the cut-off point (see Table 4.9). The positive attitudes toward sport expressed across educational status in this investigation were expected, since they were consonant with the findings of other investigations among samples of both college students and members of the general public (Berlage, 1982;

Grove & Dodder, 1979; Jensen et al., 1980; Nixon et al., 1979; Spreitzer & Snyder, 1975).

Since the independent variables of this investigation had explained so little of the variability in the AS subscale, the investigator examined other demographic information which had been collected from the respondents. A correlational analysis was conducted between the demographic information and the three attitudinal subscales (see Table 4.10) in order to determine if any other variable correlated more highly with the respective subscale than did gender, ethnicity or educational status. An examination of the results of this analysis indicated that no other variable correlated with the AS subscale more highly than did educational status, and only current participation approximated the same level of correlation as educational status. It thus appeared that educational status was the most salient variable for explaining attitudes toward sport, although current participation also appeared to be involved.

Since current participation appeared to be related to attitudes toward sport, the investigator performed a one-way ANOVA on this variable across educational status. The results indicated that students currently participated in sport significantly more than did members of the general public ($F(1,639)=32.82, p < .001$). This difference in degree of current participation in sport may have been partially responsible for the more positive attitudes toward sport

Table 4.10 Correlation of Selected Demographic Information with the Attitudinal Subscale^a

Subscale	Gender ^b	Ethnicity ^b	Educational Status	Years of Education ^c	Political Status	Income ^c	Sport Participation In High School	Sport Participation In College	Sport Participation In Team Sports	Sport Participation In Individual Sports	Never Participated In Sports	Participate Now
Attitude toward sport (AS)	-.01	.10	.21	.09	.11	.05	.03	.01	-.16	-.05	.09	.20
Attitude toward women's role in society (AS)	.26	.12	.27	.25	-.06	.16	.03	.01	-.16	-.20	.19	.15
Attitude toward women's participation in sport (AS _{SP})	.36	-.03	.31	.32	.01	.15	.08	-.00	-.16	-.16	.19	.19

^a Spearman Correlation Coefficients except as noted^b Independent variables of this investigation^c Pearson Correlation Coefficients

held by the students. Intuitively, it would seem that the more people are involved in sport the more likely they are to hold a positive orientation toward sport. These results echoed those of Jensen et al. (1980), who reported that college students who were more active physically than their peers held more favorable attitudes toward intercollegiate athletics. Grove and Dodder (1979) have suggested that since sport activities are generally highly esteemed and a part of everyday life at most institutions of higher learning, the positive orientations of students toward sport would be an expected function of their greater involvement with sport. The evidence suggested that this may have been the case in the current investigation.

The results of the discriminant function analysis performed across ethnicity revealed that there were no significant differences in the attitudes toward sport between the two ethnic groups on the majority (7) of the subscale statements. The significant difference between the Anglo and Mexican-Americans was attributable mainly to only three subscale statements (#3, #7, #18; see Table 4.8). Of these three discriminating statements, statement #18, which stated that sports provided opportunities for advancement in society, accounted for four times as much of the subscale variance (4%) as did either of the other two items (1%) and also loaded more than twice as high (.75) on the discriminant function. Thus, this statement clearly stood out as the most discriminating item between the two

ethnic groups, with the Mexican-Americans significantly more positive than the Anglo-Americans toward the function of sport to provide opportunities for upward mobility in society.

The more positive attitude of the Mexican-Americans on this statement may be explained by an extrapolation from the literature concerning another minority, Black Americans. Sport sociologists (Coakley, 1982; Curry & Jiobu, 1984; Nixon, 1984; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1983) have reported that a widespread belief exists among Black Americans, especially poor ones, that sport offers one of the surest avenues of escape from poverty and discrimination in American society. For Blacks, the high visibility of a relatively few successful black athletes may make a career in sport seem like a more viable option than a successful career in other facets of society which have historically been closed to them, such as medicine. Perhaps this view is also shared by Mexican-Americans, who have also suffered from the effects of poverty and discrimination in American society and who also have had highly visible athletic role models, especially in baseball, boxing and soccer. In addition, athletic scholarships may be seen as a way to gain access to a college education which many Mexican-Americans could not otherwise afford. Thus, the upward mobility and opportunity function of sport may have contributed to the

more positive view of Mexican-Americans in this investigation.

The results of the initial 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA demonstrated that gender, ethnicity and educational status together accounted for only 3.5% of the explained variance in the AS subscale, with ethnicity alone accounting for less than one percent of the unique variance. Furthermore, the results of a discriminant classification analysis indicated that only 54% of the respondents were correctly classified by ethnic group on the basis of their scores on the AS subscale, a percentage not much different from that expected by chance alone (50%). Therefore, although there was a significant difference between the attitudes of Mexican-Americans and Anglo-Americans, this difference seemed to be more a product of statistical rather than of practical significance and was due mainly to a difference on one subscale statement! Consequently, the investigator concluded that Mexican-Americans and Anglo-Americans held markedly similar attitudes toward the importance of sport to society.

The results of this investigation which showed that no one variable stood out unequivocally from all others as a major contributor factor in explaining attitudes toward sport, was not surprising. Jensen et al. (1980) suggested that attitudes toward athletics may be explained by various mixtures and combinations of socio-demographic variables, rather than one or two such variables. In the current

study, educational status appeared to be the most salient variable for explaining the attitudes of the respondents toward sport, but it accounted for relatively little of the unique variability of the AS subscale.

Since 96.5% of the variance in the AS subscale was explained by factors other than the independent variables under investigation and since no other demographic variable correlated more highly with the AS subscale than did educational status, which in itself explained relatively little of the subscale variance, other explanatory factors need to be explored. One fertile area of exploration might be the influence of the family and peers on attitudes toward sport. Various investigators (Lewko & Greendorfer, 1978; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1973, 1976) have reported that both of these agents of socialization are important explanatory variables for determining involvement in sport. Since involvement in sport appears to be a factor in influencing attitudes toward sport, explorations of these influences might provide researchers with a better understanding of variables impacting attitudes toward sport. Another possibility is that attitude toward sport is such a personal attitude, impacted differentially by an individuals' exposure to sport, that it cannot be adequately quantified. Rather, qualitative research methods such as case studies and intensive interviews may be more amenable to gaining an understanding of factors influencing this attitude.

The results of this investigation indicated that sport was salient to all segments of society involved in this investigation, a result congruent with the reported salience of sport to American society as a whole. Attention is now focused on a discussion of the attitudes expressed toward women's role in society.

Attitude Toward Women (AW)

All of the AW subscale mean scores for the expressed attitudes across the independent variables of this investigation were above the scale midpoint and therefore considered to be positive. However, they were without exception the lowest mean scores on all of the dependent variables (See Table 4.6). The statements comprising the AW subscale were scored such that a high score indicated a liberal² view toward women, which was defined as a belief that women and men should have equal rights and responsibilities in the occupational sphere of society outside the home as well as in the division of labor within the home. Conversely, a low score on the AW subscale indicated a traditional attitude or orientation toward women's role in society, which meant a belief that taking care of the home and children is a woman's responsibility

²The term 'positive' will not be used as a modifier of attitude in the discussion of attitudes toward women because of its potential ambiguity. Instead, the term 'liberal' will be used to reflect a high score on the AW subscale while the terms 'traditional' or 'conservative' will be used to reflect a low score on the subscale.

while the man should be gainfully employed outside of the home in order to support the family. Consequently, the attitudes reflected by these low mean scores were not unexpected, but rather appeared to be congruent with the expressions of attitudes toward women prevalent in the literature reviewed in chapter II with respect to both Anglo and Mexican-American cultural values.

Another plausible explanation for the rather low mean scores on the AW subscale may have been a function of the geographical location from which the data were collected. Several investigators (Hare-Mustin & Broderick, 1979; Loo & Logan, 1977; Lunneborg, 1974; Spence et al., 1973) have reported regional and national differences in attitudes toward women's role in society. Respondents from the eastern and northern regions of the United States as well as from Canada were reported to have more liberal attitudes toward women than did respondents from the southern (Texas) region of the United States. Since the current investigation was also conducted in Texas, the conservative attitudes appeared to be congruent.

Additionally, religious affiliation may have exerted a dampening influence on the expressed attitudes toward women in the current investigation. Results of investigations have shown that members of the Catholic faith (Hare-Mustin & Broderick, 1979; Martin et al., 1985) and members of fundamentalist Protestant religions (Martin et al., 1985; Thornton & Freedman, 1979) expressed conservative attitudes

toward women. Moreover, Martin et al. reported that religious affiliation was second in importance only to gender in the proportion of variation explained in sex role attitudes of a sample of college students. According to the Catholic Diocese of Brownsville (personal call, 1985), 80% of the local population professed the Roman Catholic faith; in addition, the investigator judged that 12 of the 22 churches which served the religious needs of the remaining 20% of the population were fundamentalist in their teachings. Since the teachings of both the Roman Catholic and fundamentalist Protestant faiths tend to limit women's role in society to the narrow confines of the family structure (Eitzen, 1982), the population under study may have possessed a conservative background. Thus religious affiliation may have confounded attitudes toward women. This was only speculation, however, since no data concerning religious affiliation were collected in the present investigation. Further analyses of the collected data, however, were conducted to explore the differences detected in attitudes toward women across the independent variables.

Since the factor analysis of the WASSS had indicated that the attitude measured by the AW subscale was composed of several dimensions, the investigator conducted a principal components factor analysis of the subscale in order to determine if any interpretable factor constructs could be identified. The oblique solution with direct

oblimin rotation was chosen as the appropriate solution since the factors were expected to be correlated to some extent (Kendall, 1975; Kim & Mueller, 1978). A cut-off point of .40 was chosen for a statement to be considered as loading on a factor. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 4.11. As can be seen from an examination of Table 4.11, three interpretable factors emerged which accounted for 100% of the subscale variance.

Table 4.11
Factor Analysis of the Attitude Toward Women Subscale

<u>Factor/Statements</u>	<u>Factor Loadings^a</u>		
	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>
Family Factor			
b6. Mothers prepare daughters for wifehood	.58		
b13. Women subordinate ambitions to family	.73		
b17. Major responsibility wife to keep family happy	.69		
Equality Factor			
16. Women compete equally with man for jobs		.50	
23. Equal grounds for divorce		.58	
24. Freedom from control for both		.52	
Vice Factor			
b26. Only men should tell dirty jokes			-.59
b28. Worse for women to be than men			-.59
Eigenvalue	2.38	.86	.40
Percent of variance	65.4	23.6	11.0

^aFactor loadings below .40 are not presented for the sake of clarity

^bStatements which were reverse scored

The first factor, labeled Family Factor, contained three statements relating to women's responsibilities in the family and accounted for 65.4% of the explained subscale variance. A person who had a high score on this factor was likely to believe in a gender neutral division of labor in the home, while a person with a low score would tend to believe that women should have the total responsibility for homemaking duties. The second factor, called the Equality Factor, contained three statements which dealt with the different aspects of equality between men and women and accounted for 23.6% of the explained subscale variance. This tended to be a global factor on which a high score indicated a general belief in the equality of men and women in various aspects of society. The third factor, labeled the Vice Factor, contained two statements concerning the degree of appropriateness of certain habits for a woman and explained only 11% of the subscale variance. A high score on this factor reflected the attitude that women have as much right as men to engage in socially disapproved behavior. Two of the subscale statements (#8, #29) did not load highly on any of the three factors which emerged in this analysis.

The emergence of two distinct factors relating to women's role in the private (Family Factor) and public (Equality Factor) spheres of society which accounted for the majority of the variability (89%) in the AW subscale was not surprising. The factors reflected the reality of

women's dual roles in contemporary society: the traditional domestic, or private, role as well as the nontraditional public role. Several investigators (Thornton & Freedman, 1979; Quarm, 1983) have reported that attitudes toward the equalization of gender roles in the public sphere were much more liberal than were attitudes toward the equalization of gender roles in the domestic, or private, sphere. The results of the current study supported the findings of those previous investigations. An examination of the statistics in Tables 4.7, 4.8, and 4.9 revealed that the mean scores of the statements comprising the Equality Factor were consistently the highest for this subscale, while the mean scores for the Family Factor statements were consistently the lowest on the subscale. This indicated that the respondents supported the equality of gender roles only in the paid workforce, not in the home.

The disparity in the support given to the private and public roles for women may be due to two reasons. First, over half of the women in American society are now gainfully employed outside of the home (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1984). Economic necessity rather than female career aspirations would be the most likely reason for seeking employment outside of the home in a population with a conservative background such as appeared to be the case with the respondents in this investigation. Thus, the degree of support demonstrated for gender equality in the

public sphere may have reflected a belief that if women must work to help support the family, they ought to have access to the same economic opportunities as men. In other words, if women have to be gainfully employed outside of the home, that employment ought to be as gainful as possible!

Second, the Family Factor was comprised of statements which concerned specific actions of women, while the Equality Factor tended to be a global factor concerning abstract notions of what ought to be. It is much easier to express a belief in equality between men and women in an abstract sense than to express a belief in equality concerning specific actions, especially actions which have traditionally been considered to be gender specific (Thornton & Freedman, 1979). This may have been the case in the expressed attitudes toward women in the present investigation.

Educational status was the most salient of the three independent variables for explaining the variance in the AW subscale, accounting for 8.4% of the unique variance. The significant difference in attitudes detected across educational status was in the predicted direction, with students exhibiting a significantly more liberal view of women than members of the general public. Sixty-three percent of both status groups were correctly classified by their scores on this subscale.

Since the AW subscale exhibited a distinct factor pattern which accounted for eight of the ten subscale items, the investigator conducted a discriminant function analysis on the factor scores across the independent variables of the investigation. The results of this analysis are depicted in Table 4.12.

The significant differences between these two groups on the total subscale were upheld for all three of the factors comprising the AW subscale as well (See Table 4.12). The students were significantly more supportive of women's equality with men in the public sphere and significantly less supportive of the traditional gender roles in the home than were the members of the general public. The Family Factor correctly classified 61% of the educational status groups, while the Equality Factor was more salient for the student group, since 63% of the students but only 54% of the general public were accurately classified. The students were also significantly more supportive of the rights of both genders to indulge in vices than were the members of the general public. This factor correctly classified 63% of the student group and 62% of the general public.

The correlational analysis (see Table 4.10) indicated that years of education were rather substantially correlated with attitudes toward women in a positive direction, so the more positive attitudes of the students may have partially been a function of their higher level of

Table 4.12
Discriminant Function Analysis on Attitude Toward Women and
Attitude Toward Women in Sport Subscales Across Gender,
Ethnicity, and Educational Status

<u>Subscale/Factors</u>	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Ethnicity</u>		<u>Educ. Status</u>	
	<u>χ^2</u>	<u>Sig</u>	<u>χ^2</u>	<u>Sig</u>	<u>χ^2</u>	<u>Sig</u>
Attitude toward women (AW)						
Family factor	46.76	.00	4.84	.03	53.94	.00
Equality factor	16.09	.00	.82	.36	21.19	.00
Vice factor	32.34	.00	22.22	.00	44.70	.00
Attitude toward women in sport (AWSP)						
Androcentric factor	83.44	.00	3.09	.08	52.48	.00
Female in sport factor	57.71	.00	.19	.66	81.05	.00

educational attainment than members of the general public. Although the students in this investigation had not yet completed their college education, the results of a one-way ANOVA demonstrated that their mean level of educational attainment was significantly higher than that of the general public ($F(1,639)=10.34, p < .001$). The more liberal orientation of students toward women's role in society than the general population in this investigation echoed the results of previous studies. Mason et al. (1976) and Hesselbart (1976) reported that educational attainment was the most important predictor of sex role attitudes, with higher levels of education associated with more liberal attitudes toward sex roles. Spence and Helmreich (1972)

reported that students at the University of Texas were more liberal toward women's role in society than were their parents. Other investigators (Hare-Mustin & Broderick, 1979; Quarm, 1985; Thornton & Freedman, 1979) have reported that subjects with a college education tended to have more liberal attitudes toward women's role in society than those without a college education. Educational status thus appears to be an important variable for explaining attitudes toward women's role in society, a conclusion based upon the results of the current as well as previous investigations.

Several authors (Clark, 1962; Federico & Swartz, 1983; Selznick & Steinberg, 1969) have argued that education has a significant impact on people's attitudes. Persons who have achieved a higher level of education tend to be more tolerant of political and social nonconformity than those persons with less education. Why this occurs is not clear, however. One possibility is that higher education provides persons with exposure to many diverse ideas and opportunities which they would otherwise not encounter in their life experiences (Federico & Swartz, 1983). Indeed, one of the prime ways to induce attitude change, according to some theorists (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Zimbardo, Ebbesson & Maslach, 1977), is to expose persons to new information concerning the referent object. A college education may thus expose persons to many nontraditional

beliefs about women, especially with the advent of women's studies curricula on many campuses.

It is also possible, however, that persons who already possess somewhat liberal attitudes are the persons who are more likely to attend college, since college attendance in this country is generally determined by socioeconomic status. That is, the higher one's socioeconomic status the greater is the likelihood that one will attend college, and also the greater is the likelihood that one will hold more liberal attitudes in general than persons of lower socioeconomic status (Eitzen, 1982; Martin et al., 1980; Scimecca, 1980).

An examination of the income level of the two status groups in this study showed that the students came from families with mean annual incomes which were significantly higher than those of the general public respondents ($F(1,639)=3.96$, $p < .05$). Therefore, the more liberal attitudes toward women exhibited by the students may have been a function of selection, rather than of exposure to new ideas. Of course it is possible that both of these factors operated to impact the attitudes of the students.

Gender accounted for the second highest level of explained variance in the AW subscale, at 6.3%, with 64% of the females and 58% of the males classified correctly by their scores on this subscale. All three factors (Family, Equality, Vice) which had emerged from the principal components factor analysis of the AW subscale contributed

to the significant difference detected in attitudes toward women across gender (see Table 4.12). An examination of the means of the individual subscale statements (see Table 4.7) indicated that females held significantly more liberal attitudes than males on all of the subscale statements. That is, women were more likely to reject the idea that preparation for being a wife and having the responsibility for the happiness of the family were more important for a woman than the pursuit of her personal ambitions, and were more likely to believe that women and men should have equality in various spheres of society, including the liberty to drink excessively and tell dirty jokes. Men were especially supportive (i.e., $M \leq 2.5$) of the traditional role of women in the family. They believed that "one of the most important things a mother can do for her daughters is to prepare them for the duties of being a wife" (#6) and that "the major responsibility of a wife is to keep her husband and family happy" (#17). Men also appeared to take a very dim view of the right of women to engage in the excessive use of alcohol.

The results of this investigation which demonstrated that men held significantly more traditional attitudes toward women's role in society than women held were congruent with the results of other investigations which focused on attitudes toward women (Braun & Chao, 1978; Spence & Helmreich, 1972; Yoder et al., 1982). The apparent continued resistance of men to a redefinition of

traditional gender roles within the home while supportive of women's equality in the public sphere of society may contribute to considerable role strain experienced by many women (Dowling, 1981; Rohrbaugh, 1979; Rubin, 1976) as they attempt to fulfill their responsibilities as both homemaker and salary earner. Such a dual role may mitigate against women achieving economic parity with men in the public sphere even in the presence of a supportive atmosphere, since women will have neither the time nor the energy which are necessary to devote to the pursuit of the more lucrative and powerful careers as business executives.

The significant difference in attitudes toward women found across ethnicity was also in the predicted direction, with Anglo-Americans exhibiting significantly more liberal attitudes toward women than Mexican-Americans. However, similar to the case of attitudes toward sport, the difference in attitudes toward women across ethnicity appeared to have been a case of statistical rather than substantive significance, since ethnicity accounted for slightly less than two percent of the explained variance on the AW subscale. Furthermore, only 54% of the Anglo-Americans were correctly classified by their scores on this subscale, not much better than chance alone, while the percent of correct classification for Mexican-Americans was only slightly better at 58%. In addition, only two of the factors (Family, Vice) discriminated significantly between

the two ethnic groups, with no significant difference detected on the Equality Factor.

The Vice Factor explained the greatest amount of variance on the AW subscale across ethnicity (5%). However, the ability of this factor to classify the ethnic groups was rather weak, with only 57% of the Mexican-Americans and 59% of the Anglo-Americans classified correctly by their scores on this factor. The statement concerning drunkenness (#28) appeared to contribute the most to the significant difference in attitudes toward women detected between the two ethnic groups. This statement explained four times as much of the subscale variability (4%) as any other statement, and loaded almost four times as high on the discriminant function (.83) as any of the other subscale statements.

In the Mexican-American culture of Brownsville, cerveza (beer) drinking plays an important role in the social activities of males, but is frowned upon for females. Women are rarely observed in the cantinas, which are important social gathering places in the barrios (Mexican-American neighborhoods). A recent study of college students' drinking behavior conducted at a neighboring university (Trotter, 1982) provided empirical support for this observation. Trotter reported that 37% of the female Mexican-American students had never drunk alcohol, compared to 20% of the Anglo-American females and 11% and 7% of the Anglo- and Mexican-American males,

respectively. Furthermore, of those Mexican-American females who reported drinking alcohol, 60% said they drank less than once a month, compared to 35%, 21% and 18% for the Anglo females, males and Mexican-American males, respectively. Thus, the Mexican-American female and males used alcohol the least and most respectively of any of the groups surveyed. Trotter, citing ongoing ethnographic research, attributed this finding to the strong cultural sanctions against Mexican-American women drinking, which revolved around twin concepts of virtue and respect. Although strong negative sanctions against women drinking have also existed in Anglo cultures (McConville, 1985), the significant differences detected across ethnicity in this investigation suggested that the negative sanctions for the abuse of alcohol by women in the Mexican-American culture are stronger than the sanctions of the Anglo-American culture in this community.

The picture which emerged from the data in this study indicated that although there was support among all groups for women to gain equality with men in the public sphere of society, the women were still expected to retain their traditional responsibility for the family, including the preparation of daughters for the duties of being a wife. The relatively low mean scores on the statements comprising the Family Factor for all groups, as well as the fact that this factor accounted for the greatest amount of variance in the AW subscale, indicated that any redefinition of

traditional gender roles within the family may be difficult to effect within this population. This means that women will continue to fulfill dual roles in society which both require a substantial commitment of time and energy, and this may detract from women's success in fulfilling either role.

One role in the public sphere which women may pursue is participation in sport. Attention is now focused on an examination of the attitudes expressed toward women in sport.

Attitude Toward Women's Participation in Sport (AWSP)

The mean scores on the AWSP subscale across all three independent variables were on the positive side of the subscale, and for females, Anglo-Americans and college students they were the highest mean scores for any of the three subscales (see Table 4.6). Since the statements comprising the AWSP subscale were scored such that a high score reflected support for the right of women to participate in sport while a low score reflected the traditional view that sport involvement should be the domain of men, the respondents in general appeared to be very supportive of women's participation in sport. This finding echoed the results of previous investigations (DeBacy et al., 1970; Kingsley et al., 1977; Harres, 1968; Promoli et al., 1977; Wittig, 1975; Woodford & Scott, 1980) which also found support for women's participation in

sport. The results of the initial 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA for the AWSP subscale demonstrated that gender, ethnicity and educational status accounted for 21.2% of the variance in the subscale, which was the greatest amount of variance explained by these variables on any of the three subscales. Furthermore, gender alone explained 10.9% of the unique variance, again the highest contributory factor on any of the subscales. This supported the finding of Nixon et al. (1979), who reported that of 18 predictor variables investigated, gender explained the greatest amount of variance (10%) in attitudes toward women in sport and that the amount of variance explained by gender was about the same amount as that explained by the sum of all 17 of the other predictors. In the current investigation, educational status explained 8.4% of the remaining subscale variance with ethnicity coming in a poor third at 1.9% of the explained variation. An examination of the correlational analysis (see Table 4.10) between the other demographic variables and the AWSP subscale indicated that gender and educational status exhibited the highest correlation with the subscale. Thus, gender and educational status appeared to be the most salient variables in contributing to an understanding of attitudes toward women's participation in sport.

The significantly more positive attitudes of females than of males toward women in sport were consonant with the results of previous investigations (Fisher et al., 1978;

Kingsley et al., 1977; Nixon et al., 1979; Promoli et al., 1977; Wittig, 1975). In the current study, the results of a discriminant classification analysis indicated that the subscale performed well in its ability to classify the two gender groups on the basis of their scores on the subscale. Sixty-eight percent of the females and 63% of the males were correctly classified by their scores of the AWSP subscale, which was the best of classifications achieved by any of the three subscales.

Since the results of the factor analysis of the total WASSS had demonstrated that the AWSP subscale, like the AW subscale, factored into more than one underlying construct, a principal components factor analysis was also conducted on this subscale following the same procedure that had been used for the AW subscale. The results of this analysis, presented in Table 4.13, showed that two factors emerged which were similar in structure to those identified in the factor analysis of the WASSS.

Table 4.13
Factor Analysis of the Attitude Toward Women in Sport
Subscale (AWSP)

Factor/Statements	Factor Loadings ^a	
	1	2
Androcentric Factor		
b2. Opportunity in sport restricted to males	.41	
b9. Men naturally know more about sports	.54	
b11. Sports more important for males' physical and social development	.54	
b14 To excel, woman must be like man	.44	
b25. Women in sport must show femininity	.50	
b27. Males and females NOT compete against each other	.40	
Female in Sport Factor		
19. Woman can be athletic and feminine		-.70
b20. Women cheerlead, men play sports		-.40
21. Women encouraged to engage in sports		-.64
Eigenvalue	2.84	.33
Percent of variance	89.6	10.4

^aFactor loadings below .40 are not presented for the sake of clarity

^bStatements which were reverse scored

The first factor, which was labeled the Androcentric Factor since the six statements comprising the factor were concerned with traditional beliefs which defined sport as a male domain, accounted for the majority of the subscale variance, at 89.6%. Since the statements comprising this factor were all reverse scored, a high score on the factor was interpreted to reflect the rejection of the belief that sport participation was a male domain only and support for the importance of sport to females as well as males. Conversely, a low score on this factor reflected the acceptance of the traditional belief in sport as more important for males than for females. The second factor, which accounted for only 10.4% of the the subscale variance, was labeled the Female in Sport Factor as it tended to be a global factor which contained three statements concerning the nature of female involvement in sport. A high score on this factor was interpreted to reflect unrestricted support for female involvement in sport while a low score was considered to reflect a lack of support for female sport involvement.

Since these two factors left only one subscale statement unaccounted for (#4), the factor scores were subsequently used in a discriminant function analysis across the independent variables (see Table 4.12). An examination of Table 4.12 across gender shows that both of the factors significantly discriminated between females and males. The percentage of gender groups correctly classified

by their factor scores ranged from 55% to 72%. The Androcentric Factor correctly classified 68% of the females and 63% of the males, while the Female in Sport Factor correctly classified 72% of the females but only 55% of the males. These results reinforced the saliency of gender as a cogent variable for explaining attitudes toward women's participation in sport.

Not only did both of the factors which comprised the AWSP subscale discriminate significantly between females and males, all ten of the subscale statements did so as well (see Table 4.7). Females were significantly more supportive of women in sport than were males on all ten of the statements, although males also demonstrated supportive attitudes on the majority of the statements. The lowest mean score for the males ($\bar{M}=2.32$), and the only statement mean to fall below the item midpoint (2.5) was #9, which stated that "men seem naturally to know more about competitive sports than women." The greater support given this statement by the males than by the females ($\bar{M}=2.99$) may be explained by the fact that from infancy, males in our society have been socialized into and by sport (Eitzen & Sage, 1982; Lever, 1978) so that their knowledge of sport appears to be "natural," i.e., something they were born with, when in actuality the knowledge was acquired through a long process of exposure to sports. Females may have been more perceptive in realizing that knowledge of sport is learned, not "natural," since in many instances they may

have been prohibited and/or discouraged from the opportunities for such learning.

The high mean scores for both males and females on the three statements comprising the Female in Sport Factor, as well as for the two statements in the Androcentric Factor which stated that opportunities in sport were important for females as well as males (#2, #11) indicated that both gender groups supported women's participation in sport. The lower mean scores on the item which stated that women in sport must try extra hard to show their femininity (#25) and on the item which stated that men and women should not compete with or against each other (#27), indicated that the respondents had reservations about the appropriateness of some kinds of sport experience for women.

The low mean responses to statement #25 indicated that the respondents, especially male respondents, believed that women who participated in sport must try extra hard to exhibit their femininity. Evidently it was alright for women to engage in sport as long as they showed that they were still women, at least as women have been defined in terms of feminine characteristics.

Spence et al. (1975) have suggested that persons perceive competent women much more favorable if the competency is accompanied by normative feminine behaviors and interests. Certainly, many competent sportswomen have used various strategies for accentuating their femininity since they perceived that society viewed the roles of woman

and athlete and incompatible (Boslooper & Hayes, 1973; Gerber et al., 1974; Oglesby, 1978; Rohrbaugh, 1979). Furthermore, one of the major arguments for keeping women out of sport has centered around the theme that sport participation would "masculinize" women, which some consider to be undesirable (Birrell, 1983; Eitzen & Sage, 1982; Harris, 1980). It thus appeared to be important to this population that females retain their femininity when entering the traditional male arena of sport. This consideration appeared to be more important from the males' than from the females' point of view, however.

The low mean responses to statement #27 indicated that the respondents believed that it was inappropriate for men and women to compete with or against each other in sport. Although the males appeared to have stronger attitudes against mixed gender sport participation, females also appeared to be somewhat supportive of gender separation in sport. Some of the reservation evidenced may have been due to a concern about women participating in contact sports, since several of the questionnaires contained comments which indicated that playing football was inappropriate for women.

This expressed attitude may have reflected a more encompassing concern about the nature of the sport experience for males and the encroachment of females on this male domain. This explanation would especially account for the significantly lower mean score of the males

than of the females. Boutilier and San Giovanni (1983) have argued that sport is one of the few institutions remaining in society which confirms the physical identity of males and their resultant supremacy over females, so men are very resistant to women entering certain sports. Contact sports, especially, require the demonstration of strength, aggression and physical mastery over others expected of men in our society but condemned in women, so they therefore are definitely not appropriate for women. While women do have their place in sport, it is in activities such as tennis and gymnastics which do not express such raw physical power, NOT in the more manly contact sports.

Sport also offers men a socially approved context in which to express physical and emotional intimacy with other men, which is forbidden in most other aspects of American society. The presence of women in sport would diminish this one avenue of expressivity available to men, which may also have accounted for the male respondents' greater resistance to men and women competing together in sport than the female respondents' in the current investigation.

Thus, both gender groups in this study appeared to be supportive of women's participation in sport, with the proviso that men and women should not compete together and women in sport must be sure to exhibit their femininity. Females were more supportive of women's right to participate in sport than were men, and less likely than

men to support restrictions on women's participation in sport.

The pattern of response across educational status was similar to that of gender. Support was given to the importance of and to the encouragement of women to participate in sport, with the same reservations expressed by the gender groups. The students were significantly more supportive of women in sport than were the members of the general public. Educational status accounted for 8.4% of the variability in the AWSP subscale, which was not quite as much as was explained by gender. Sixty-five percent of both students and members of the general public were accurately classified by their scores on this subscale. The discriminant function and classification analyses performed on the two factors which emerged from the factor analysis of the subscale showed that both factors discriminated significantly between the students and the members of the general public (See Table 4.12). The Androcentric Factor correctly classified 65% of the students and 60% of the general public, while the Female in Sport Factor correctly classified 73% of the students but only 58% of the general public. Although the Female in Sport Factor was most salient for explaining the attitudes of college students, it did account for much less of the subscale variance than the Androcentric Factor.

The more positive attitudes of the students toward women's participation in sport appeared to be a logical

extension of their more positive attitudes toward sport and toward a more liberal role for women in society than the members of the general public. An examination of the correlational analysis (See Table 4.10), indicated that current participation and never having participated in sport were the only two demographic variables that demonstrated a somewhat substantial correlation with the AWSP subscale, although they did not correlate nearly as much as did gender and educational status. Since the students currently participated in sport significantly more than the members of the general public ($F(1,039)=32.82$, $p < .001$) and significantly more members of the general public had never participated in sport ($F(1,639)=7.84$, $p < .005$), these two factors may have contributed to the more positive attitudes exhibited by the students. Again, as with attitudes toward sport, intuitively it would seem reasonable that persons who had participated in an activity would be supportive of others who participated in that activity.

Since it appeared that males and members of the general public had more reservations about women participating in sport, and these two groups are those who hold the power in American society, their less supportive attitudes may have serious implications for the future of women in sport. Attention is now focused on an overall discussion of the findings of this investigation and of the implications for the future of women in sport.

Overall Discussion and Implications

Although previous investigators have explored the attitudes of gender groups, ethnic groups and educational status groups toward sport, toward women and toward women in sport, none have explored them concurrently as was done in the present investigation. Therefore, the results of this investigation provided a basis for comparing the attitudes of the same population toward these three referents. The overall finding of rather supportive attitudes toward the three referents, with the weakest support demonstrated for the redefinition of gender roles within the family, appeared to be consistent with the results of previous studies in which the attitudes among various populations had been explored separately.

The extent of the correlation between the three subscales indicated that attitudes toward sport were relatively unrelated to either attitudes toward women ($r=.06$) or to attitudes toward women in sport ($r=.26$). Therefore, it appears that changes in attitudes toward sport would not affect attitudes toward either women or women in sport. This finding should be considered by those who seek to improve attitudes toward women in sport and to provide increased opportunities for women to participate in sport. An effort focused upon sport itself would appear to be non productive in effecting attitudinal change toward women in sport.

The AW and AWSP subscales did demonstrate a rather substantial correlation ($r=.70$), however, a finding which also appears to have implications for women in sport. If attitudes toward women's role in society continue their trend toward becoming more liberal and consequently less traditional, it would seem that attitudes toward women's participation in sport would also become more supportive. However, the dimensionality of the attitudes toward these two referents, which were indicated by the subscale factors, and the differential support accorded these factors indicated that substantial change in either of these attitudes may be difficult to achieve.

The Family Factor and the Androcentric Factor explained the majority of the variability on the AW and AWSP subscales, respectively. Since the low scores of the respondents on both of these factors indicated that the respondents held rather traditional attitudes which limited women's roles to family responsibilities and to participation in gender appropriate sports, resistance to any redefinition of these roles appeared to be quite strong, albeit stronger among males and members of the general public than among females and college students. Although support for the idea that women ought to have equality with men in the public sphere of society and in general sport participation was evident from the quite high mean scores of the respondents on the Equality (AW) and Female in Sport (AWSP) factors, the fact that these two

factors explained substantially less of the variability in the respective subscales indicated that they were of much less salience in explaining attitudes toward women in society and in sport. It thus appeared that although the respondents supported the idea that women ought to have equal rights to participate with men in the public sphere of society, including sports, this participation was still limited by gender.

Thus it appears that an effort to increase opportunities for women in society must focus on a redefinition of gender roles in the family rather than equality in the public sphere, and such a redefinition will continue to meet with strong opposition, especially from men. Similarly, a redefinition of the sport experience as something other than an instrumental activity for the socialization of boys into men also appears to be necessary for women to be increasingly included in this realm of activity. If more males become visible as accepting homemaking responsibilities and more females become visible in gender inappropriate sports, attitudes may change.

The greater support accorded women's participation in sport than that accorded sport itself among three of the groups (females, Anglo-Americans, college students) was interesting. Considering the apparent American preoccupation with sport, the investigator expected the AS subscale to elicit the highest support among the

respondents. Perhaps the design of the subscale which measured attitudes toward sport confounded the results.

Several investigators (Grove & Dodder, 1979; Spreitzer & Snyder, 1975) have shown that sport is perceived to have an institutional function for society as well as a separate personal function for the individual. However, the AS subscale developed for this investigation measured only the institutional function (socialization, provide opportunities for advancement) but not the personal function of sport for individuals (enjoyment, social interaction, physical fitness). Since women appear to experience sport more from the personal aspect than from the institutional aspect (Nicholson, 1983), their assumed orientation to the personal function of sport may have manifested itself in their high mean score on the AWSP subscale, which was the highest across all dependent and independent variables. Since the institutional function of sport has traditionally been to socialize boys into appropriate gender roles, this function of sport may not have had great salience for the female respondents in this investigation. While this explanation appears to have merit for explaining the high mean scores for females on the AWSP subscale, it has less merit for explaining the same phenomena for students and Anglo-Americans.

The saliency of gender and educational status for explaining attitudes toward women and toward women in sport paralleled the results of previous investigations.

Certainly, much of the agitation to redefine women's roles in society and to provide women with increased opportunities to participate in sport competition has come from women activists and campus activists across the country. The lack of saliency of ethnicity in explaining attitudes toward women in sport and its weakness in explaining attitudes toward women in society were quite unexpected, however.

The review of the literature had led the investigator to believe that the apparent high emphasis on family life and supposed female passivity in the Mexican-American culture, as well as the apparent lack of interest in female participation in sport would have a major impact on attitudes toward women and toward women in sport among the respondents in this investigation. This was not the case, however, since the difference found between attitudes toward women across ethnicity appeared to be of little practical significance and no difference in attitudes toward women in sport was detected between Anglo-Americans and Mexican-Americans.

Two explanations for this finding may be operant. The first possibility is that sexist attitudes are universally found across all cultures, including Anglo and Mexican-American cultures (Baca Zinn, 1982a; Nieto, 1974). Second, although Mexican-American respondents in this investigation had close physical proximity to the Mexican border, they lived in a society dominated by Anglo institutions,

including the school system, and therefore were probably more enculturated to Anglo values than to Mexican values. The reverse may have occurred as well in that Anglo-Americans may have been influenced by Mexican cultural values, which may have mediated their attitudes as well.

The results of this investigation showed that approximately 90% of the females and 80% of the males believed that participation in sport was important. This approval for participation by females in sport is encouraging since it may be indicative of an increasing number of opportunities for women to participate in sport. The supportive attitudes of the males demonstrated in this investigation are particularly important, for males still control most of the decision-making positions in schools and recreational programs where most of the organized sports programs in this country exist. Of equal importance was the finding of similar support among Mexican-Americans, for power in the locale of this investigation is possessed by Mexican-American males. It appears that these individuals at least have a positive predisposition to act to increase the opportunities for women's participation in sport, and it is positive behavior which will result in an increasing number of opportunities for sport participation by women.

Unfortunately, however, positive attitudes toward a referent object are not always indicative of positive behavior toward that object (Zimbardo, et al., 1977).

Although attitudes may be considered to be facilitative causes of behavior, they act in concert with social norms, habits and expected consequences of behavior in order to actually determine the behavior (Triandis, 1971). Furthermore, behavior often tends to be situation specific, which further complicates the relationship between attitudes and behavior. That is, although an individual's attitude toward a referent object may be consistent, the situations in which that individual finds her/himself confronting that object may differ radically, resulting in different behaviors (Kiesler et al., 1969). Still, since attitudes are related and frequently predictive of behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977), the positive attitudes detected in this investigation may offer some hope for future improvement of sport opportunities for women in the community in which the investigation was conducted. This is especially hopeful since students exhibited more supportive attitudes than members of the general public. Students will eventually move into leadership positions in the community and hopefully not only continue to hold their supportive attitudes but translate them into behavior that will provide increased opportunities for women in sport.

On the other hand, since sport is still viewed as a masculine endeavor and since power is an integral part of masculine identity (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983; Kahn, 1984), sport may remain a specific situation in which the male powerbrokers are most reluctant to permit the

intrusion of women, with its subsequent loss or dilution of male power. Or, as appears to be the case from the results of this investigation, the opportunities which are accorded women to participate in sport will be restricted to activities which are considered to be gender appropriate.

One way to induce a change in a person's behavior is through legislation (Fine-Davis, 1983). The greatest strides in opening sport experiences for females in the past decade were the direct result of legislation; specifically, Title IX of the Education Amendments Act of 1972. This act specified that educational institutions which received federal funds could not discriminate against women in the expenditure of these funds. Whether this law will continue to have an impact on providing women with increasing opportunities in sport is unclear, however, since the current national administration has not only failed to enforce the statute but has also chosen to narrow the interpretation of the application of the law to specific programs rather than to total institutional receipt of federal funds. Thus, if an athletic program does not directly receive federal funds, it is not considered to be subject to the dictates of Title IX.

Another possible avenue of personal behavior change is through exposure to new information which will change one's beliefs (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The educational system is one of the main institutions in which exposure to new information occurs, and should be one of the primary

institutions for implementing changes in attitudes and behaviors toward women in sport and society. However, schools are also one of the main institutions for socializing individuals into the existing norms of society. Therefore, for new behaviors to occur, a concerted effort to develop new curricula must be undertaken by concerned feminists and even more concerted efforts must be made to adopt the new curricula in schools. This new curricula must debunk many of the old myths concerning women and their participation in sport. It must also be introduced at the elementary level of the school system and be an integral facet of the course of study at all levels, not just in women's studies courses in colleges and universities (Nielsen, 1983).

Possibly the effects of the already increased opportunities for women in sport will also have a positive effect on changing attitudes and behavior in the future, for the number of visible female role models in sport will have increased and be available for emulation by aspiring female athletes. The encouragement of women by women, as well as by men, to participate in sport is important for opportunities to continue to grow. If enough women clamor for access to sport experiences, it will be difficult for them to be kept out of this important and enjoyable and rewarding arena of human endeavor.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CRITIQUE, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Chapter V opens with a summary of this investigation, which explored attitudes toward sport, toward women and toward women in sport across gender, ethnicity and educational status. A critique of the investigation and recommendations for future research concludes the chapter.

Summary

Sport is considered to be an integral facet of contemporary American society by the majority of its citizenry (Coakley, 1982; Eitzen & Sage, 1982; Leonard, 1984; Miller Lite Report on Sports, 1983; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1983). Among the many reasons that sport occupies such an important position in society is the belief that sport participation develops within individuals many of the skills deemed necessary for achieving success in society, particularly in the competitive world of business. Unfortunately, access to this apparently important training ground in our society has historically been reserved almost totally for males. Both majority and minority, specifically Mexican-American, females have been excluded from participation in sport.

The current investigation was designed to contribute to the literature concerning the participation of women in sport, as well as to explore a comparative base concerning the salience of sport to society and women's role in society among both the Anglo-American majority and Mexican-American minority populations of a South Texas city. The study was designed to survey and compare the attitudes of this population toward sport, toward women and toward women in sport (dependent variables) across gender, ethnicity and educational status (independent variables).

A survey instrument consisting of demographic questions and of 30 attitudinal statements drawn from the instruments of other investigators was developed to measure the dependent variables of this investigation. This instrument was called the Women in Sport and Society Survey (WASSS). The 30 statements were divided equally into three subscales designed to measure the attitudes toward sport (AS), toward women (AW) and toward women's participation in sport (AWSP), respectively. The responses to each statement were scored on a four point scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Each subscale was scored separately by summing the scores of the responses to the ten statements comprising the respective subscales. A higher score indicated a more favorable, or positive, attitude toward the respective attitudinal variables. Summated scores above each subscale midpoint (25) were interpreted as favorable or more liberal attitudes, while

summated scores below the subscale midpoints were interpreted as unfavorable or more traditional attitudes toward the variable being measured.

A pilot study to determine the extent of the reliability and validity of the WASSS was conducted with an available sample of 150 college students from an introductory psychology class and two evening physical education classes. The results of this analysis indicated that the instrument processed an acceptable extent of reliability and validity for use in this investigation.

A correlational analysis of the relationships between the three subscales demonstrated that the AS subscale correlated minimally with the AW ($r=.00$) and the AWSP ($r=.23$) subscales. The AW subscale, however, did demonstrate a moderate correlation with the AWSP subscale ($r=.64$). Although this indicated that the measured attitudes were somewhat related, the two subscales were not combined in the study since the factor structure was clear.

Since the WASSS had demonstrated a sufficient extent of reliability and validity, it was used to collect data from a randomly selected sample of college students ($N=400$) and the general population ($N=411$) of a South Texas city. Since Spanish was the primary language of many inhabitants of the locale, the instrument was translated into Spanish and the respondents were given the choice of responding in either English or Spanish. The student sample responded to a written questionnaire administered by the investigator

whereas the general public sample responded via a telephone reading of the same instrument by a trained assistant. Of the data collected from the 811 respondents, 641 respondents met all criteria established for the study and were used to test the hypotheses of the investigation.

Although the results of the pilot study had indicated that the WASSS possessed an acceptable level of reliability and validity for measuring the dependent variables under investigation, the data collected from the actual sample population were subjected to the same analyses since members of the general public had not been included in the pilot study. This analysis again demonstrated that the WASSS possessed an acceptable level of reliability and validity for use in the investigation.

Since the design of the study included three dependent variables (attitudes toward sport, toward women and toward women in sport), and three independent variables (gender, ethnicity and educational status), each with two levels, a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was employed for the comparative analysis of the data. The results of this analysis indicated significant ($p < .05$) main effect differences across all three independent variables while all interaction effects failed to achieve the acceptable level of significance. In the absence of significant interaction among the variables, the investigator used univariate analyses of variance (ANOVA) to further study the relationships among the variables.

The results of the ANOVA for the AS subscale indicated that there were no significant differences in attitudes toward sport between females and males, as hypothesized. Mexican-Americans and college students, however, exhibited significantly more positive attitudes toward sport than did Anglo-Americans and members of the general public, although the ethnic difference seemed to be of little practical significance. These results were contrary to the hypothesis of no difference in attitudes between the ethnic and educational status groups.

Significant differences in responses to the AW subscale were detected across all three independent variables. Males, Mexican-Americans and members of the general public exhibited significantly more conservative attitudes toward women than did females, Anglo-Americans and college students. This finding supported the second hypothesis guiding this investigation.

On the AWSP subscale, males and members of the general public demonstrated significantly less positive attitudes toward the participation of women in sport than did females and college students, as hypothesized. The attitudes of Mexican-Americans and Anglo-Americans did not differ significantly, however, contrary to the more positive attitudes hypothesized for the Anglo-Americans.

Although significant differences in attitudes were detected across gender, ethnicity and educational status, the means of all the scaled attitudinal variables were on

the positive side of their respective subscales. This meant that all groups held positive attitudes toward sport, toward women and toward the participation of women in sport. These results were congruent with those reported by other investigators who have examined attitudes in these three areas.

Although a statistical difference in attitudes toward sport was detected across ethnicity and educational status, this difference appeared to be of little practical significance in explaining attitudes toward sport. Gender, ethnicity and educational status together accounted for only 3.5% of the explained variance in the AS subscale with ethnicity accounting for not quite one percent of the variance. However, on the majority of the subscale statements, there was no difference in the expressed attitudes of the Mexican-Americans and the Anglo-Americans, which indicated that sport was highly valued by members of both ethnic groups.

Educational status was the most salient determinant of attitudes toward sport, with students more supportive than members of the general public. However, both groups expressed positive attitudes toward sport. Thus, sport appeared to be salient to all segments of society involved in this investigation.

Although the mean scores for the attitudes measured by the AW subscale were also above the subscale midpoint, they were consistently the lowest of the mean scores across all

three independent variables. Since this was reflective of a more traditional attitude toward women's role in society, these results appeared to be congruent with the expressed attitudes toward women prevalent in the literature. The traditional attitudes found in this investigation may have been a function of both geography and religious affiliations.

The results of a 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA demonstrated that educational status was the most salient of the independent variables in explaining attitudes toward women, accounting for 8.4% of the subscale variance. Students expressed more liberal attitudes toward the role of women in society than did members of the general public, a finding consonant with the reported findings of other investigations. Gender accounted for six percent of the AW subscale variance, with males exhibiting significantly more traditional attitudes than females, a result also consonant with the reported results of other investigations. Ethnicity accounted for less than two percent of the unique variance, so the difference in attitudes between Mexican-Americans and Anglo-Americans appeared once again to be of little practical significance.

The high mean scores on the AWSP subscale indicated support for women's participation in sport, which was in accord with the results of previous investigations. However, this support appeared to be accompanied by the proviso that only certain sport activities were appropriate

for women. The independent variables of this investigation were the most salient in explaining attitudes toward women in sport, accounting for 20.2% of the explained variance on the AWSP subscale.

Women and college students were significantly more supportive of women's unrestricted participation in sport than were men and the general public, respectively. Gender appeared to be the most salient variable for explaining attitudes toward women in sport, accounting for 10.9% of the explained subscale variance. Educational status explained 8.4% of the subscale variance.

In general, the respondents were supportive of women's participation in sport with expressed reservations concerning the gender appropriateness of some involvement. This indicated that the climate was favorable for increased opportunities for women in some sport activities, but not in all sports. However, positive attitudes are not necessarily indicative of concomitant positive behavior, and the results of this investigation did indicate that the respondents had reservations about the kinds of activities in which women should participate. Nevertheless, the results of this study offer hope that increasing support for the participation of women in sport will lead to increasing opportunities for participation.

Critique and Recommendations for Future Research

Although the differences in attitudes toward sport, toward women and toward women in sport which were hypothesized for this investigation were substantiated for the most part, the study was not without problems. First, although the measuring instrument developed for the investigation demonstrated an acceptable extent of reliability and validity for use in the study, the instrument could be improved with a research effort focused solely on this objective.

Since each 10 item attitudinal subscale achieved an alpha coefficient (.73) less than that achieved by the 30 item scale (.84), perhaps the deletion of some statements with the addition of others would result in raising the alpha level above the .80 for each subscale, as recommended by some investigators (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). Subscale statements should also be examined, since the factor analysis of the WASSS as well as those of the three subscales indicated that not all statements were included within the factor constructs, and that there was some overlap among the composition of the subscale constructs.

The exclusion of a "neutral" response category may have resulted in ambiguity in two statements concerning the appropriateness of women indulging in drinking and telling dirty jokes. It is quite possible that the disagreement expressed to these statements reflected a general feeling

that these activities were inappropriate for both men and women. Many of the student questionnaires contained notations on these two statements for precisely this reason. Many members of the general public expressed similar sentiments. In this instance, perhaps the inclusion of a "neutral" category would have defined the attitude more clearly. Or, perhaps the inclusion of a comparative statement concerning the appropriateness of such behaviors by men could be included in the AW subscale. Overall, the investigator believes that the exclusion of a "neutral" response category was effective in eliciting the true attitudes of the respondents because they were forced to make a choice when unsure of their attitude.

The method used to collect the data from the sample of the general population was problematic. Although the assistants who were employed to conduct the telephone portion of the survey underwent an extensive training process in order to prevent the occurrence of a caller response effect, this type of effect did occur. Consequently, a portion of the data had to be discarded in order to eliminate this effect. Although this type of effect is difficult to control, perhaps daily or randomly interspersed checks of the responses to each of the callers could have prevented this occurrence. Future investigators utilizing a sample of the general public are encouraged to use a city directory for sample selection followed by face-to-face interviews to collect the data.

The results of the factor analysis indicated that the amount of the scale variability accounted for by the AS and AWSP subscales had reversed between the pilot study and the actual sample data (see Table 5.1). This was probably due to two factors: (1) the differences in the composition of the two samples; the pilot study was comprised of only students while the actual sample included both students and members of the general public; and (2) the difference in the manner in which the samples were selected, since the pilot study sample was an available one while the actual sample was randomly selected. This result was not considered to be problematic, however, since the AWSP subscale accounted for the greatest amount of explained variance in the actual sample data and the major focus of this investigation was on attitudes toward women in sport.

Since gender, ethnicity and educational status explained only 3.5 percent of the variance on the AS subscale, research considering other explanatory variables needs to be conducted. Although a correlational analysis of selected demographic information indicated that no other variable correlated more highly with the AS subscale than the three independent variables, there are many other variables which could explain the 96.5% of unexplained variance. Or, perhaps this attitude cannot be quantified; perhaps it varies from individual to individual as a result of each one's unique experiences and can only be assessed

Table 5.1
Amount of Variance Accounted for by Each Attitudinal Subscale

Source of Variance	<u>Percent of Variance</u>			<u>Total</u>	<u>Population</u>
	Attitude Toward Sport (AS)	Attitude Toward Women in Sport (AWSP)	Attitude Toward Women (AW)		
Theoretical	33.3	33.3	33.3	100	"Normal"
Pilot Study	42.8	28.2	11.8	100	Available Student (N=150)
Investigation	28.0	53.3	18.8	100	Randomly Selected Student (N=395) General Public (N=246)

through qualitative methodologies such as intensive interviews.

In fact, investigation of all three attitudinal variables by means of various qualitative methodologies would be a fruitful endeavor for future researchers. Although quantitative methods of investigation, such as the survey technique employed in this study, certainly have their place in the quest to understand attitudes toward the three referents, these research strategies should not be used to the exclusion of qualitative strategies (Boutilier & SanGiovanni, 1983). Techniques such as participant observation and intensive interviews may be quite useful

for providing new insights in the area of attitudes toward women in society and sport, as well as in sport itself.

Although gender, ethnicity and educational status accounted for more of the variance on the AW and AWSP subscales than on the AS subscale, again additional research is needed to determine what other factors are contributing to the unexplained variance in these subscales. Some investigators (Hare-Mustin & Broderick, 1979; Martin et al., 1985; Thornton & Freedman, 1979) have indicated that religious affiliation is a contributing factor which needs to be further explored.

It is difficult to generalize the results of this investigation to other populations of Anglo and Mexican Americans because the data were collected from only one city. Although Brownsville is considered to be a typical border city, which allows the results to be generalized to other border cities, such cities themselves are atypical. Many residents are first generation citizens of the United States and maintain a very intimate contact with the Mexican national culture, which may exert an influence on the formation of attitudes which is in opposition to the influences of American culture. The interconnectedness of the two cultures may exert a mediating influence on the attitudes of both Anglo and Mexican-Americans.

Finally, the link between participation in sport and success in the business world needs to be more fully explored. Although a general belief in the importance of

sport as a training ground for future success clearly exists in our society, further definitive information concerning the nature of that link is needed. Perhaps the attributes for success which supposedly accrue from sports participation do not depend on participation, but may be learned from other kinds of involvement with sport. Perhaps the consequences of a sports participatory experience are different for males and females in our society. These are issues which need to be more fully explored by researchers in the sociology of sport.

While the preceding suggestions for further research in the topics of concern to the present investigation are by no means a comprehensive list of possible avenues for further exploration, they should provide fertile territory for research in the area of women in sport. It is hoped that the current investigation has made a significant contribution to the knowledge in this area and will serve as a catalyst for further investigation into the topics dealt with in this study.

APPENDIX A

Women and Sport in Society Survey

Directions: The statements listed below describe commonly held attitudes in our society. Please circle the response which comes closest to expressing your OPINIONS concerning the following statements.

Use the following code:

1. Disagree Strongly
2. Disagree Mildly
3. Agree Mildly
4. Agree Strongly

Part I

1. Competitive sports are NOT particularly important for the wellbeing of our society.. 1 2 3 4 (5)
2. Opportunities for participation in organized sports should be restricted mostly or entirely to males.. 1 2 3 4 (6)
3. If more people were involved in competitive sports we would not have so much trouble with drugs in our society. 1 2 3 4 (7)
4. Participation in organized sports only takes time away from other important things a woman ought to be doing.. 1 2 3 4 (8)
5. Competitive sports are valuable because they help youngsters to become good citizens. 1 2 3 4 (9)
6. One of the most important things a mother can do for her daughters is prepare them for the duties of being a wife.. 1 2 3 4 (10)
7. The emphasis that sports place on competition causes more harm than good.. 1 2 3 4 (11)
8. It goes against nature to place women in positions of authority over men.. 1 2 3 4 (12)
9. Men seem naturally to know more about competitive sports than women.. 1 2 3 4 (13)

10. Competitive sports are valuable because they teach youngsters respect for authority. 1 2 3 4 (14)
11. Participation in competitive sports is more important for a male's physical and social development than for a female's development.. 1 2 3 4 (15)
12. Competitive sports are valuable because they teach youngsters self-discipline. 1 2 3 4 (16)
13. A woman's personal ambitions should be subordinated to her family (husband and children).. 1 2 3 4 (17)
14. To excel in competitive sports, a woman has to be more like a man than a woman.. 1 2 3 4 (18)
15. Competitive sports are valuable because they contribute to the development of patriotism. 1 2 3 4 (19)
16. Women should compete on an equal basis with men for all jobs. 1 2 3 4 (20)
17. The major responsibility of a wife is to keep her husband and children happy.. 1 2 3 4 (21)
18. Competitive sports are valuable because they provide an opportunity for individuals to get ahead in the world. 1 2 3 4 (22)
19. A woman can be both a good athlete and a truly feminine person. 1 2 3 4 (23)
20. Women ought to stick to cheerleading and leave participation in organized sports to men.. 1 2 3 4 (24)
21. Women should be given more encouragement to participate in organized sports of all kinds. 1 2 3 4 (25)
22. Competitive sports are valuable because they teach young people a sense of fair play and good sportsmanship. 1 2 3 4 (26)
23. Both husband and wife should be allowed the same grounds for divorce. 1 2 3 4 (27)

24. The modern woman is entitled to the same freedom from regulation and control that is given the modern man. 1 2 3 4 (28)
25. Women must try extra hard to show their femininity if they participate in competitive sports.. 1 2 3 4 (29)
26. Telling dirty jokes should be mostly a prerogative of men.. 1 2 3 4 (30)
27. Males and females should NOT be allowed to compete with or against each other in organized sports competition.. 1 2 3 4 (31)
28. It is worse for a woman to be drunk than for a man to be drunk.. 1 2 3 4 (32)
29. On the average, women should be considered as less capable of contributing to economic production than men.. 1 2 3 4 (33)
30. Competitive sports teach young persons to compete and thus prepares them for later participation in the business world. 1 2 3 4 (34)
31. Rate the following sports in the order to which participation would demonstrate a woman's feminine qualities.

	Unfeminine 1	Somewhat feminine 2	Very feminine 3	
Basketball	1	2	3	(35)
Gymnastics	1	2	3	(36)
Softball	1	2	3	(37)
Swimming	1	2	3	(38)
Tennis	1	2	3	(39)
Track	1	2	3	(40)

Part II Demographic Information: Please answer or check the one box that best describes you.

1. How old are you? _____ (41-42)
2. What is your gender? _____ Male (1) _____ Female (2) (43)

3. How would you describe your ethnic origin? (44)

- ☐ 1. Mexican-American
- ☐ 2. Anglo-American
- ☐ 3. Cuban-American
- ☐ 4. Central/South-American
- ☐ 5. Oriental-American
- ☐ 6. Black-American
- ☐ 7. Other

4. What level of education have you reached? (45)

- ☐ 1. Less than 8th grade
- ☐ 2. Some high school
- ☐ 3. High school graduate
- ☐ 4. Some college
- ☐ 5. Junior college graduate
- ☐ 6. Four year college graduate
- ☐ 7. Post graduate study

5. What is your marital status? (46)

- ☐ 1. Single, never married
- ☐ 2. Married, living with spouse
- ☐ 3. Married, separated from spouse
- ☐ 4. Divorced
- ☐ 5. Widowed

6. Family Income per year (parent's income if you are not self-supporting) (47)

- ☐ 1. Less than 10,000
- ☐ 2. 10,000 - 14,999
- ☐ 3. 15,000 - 19,999
- ☐ 4. 20,000 - 24,999
- ☐ 5. 24,999 - 29,999
- ☐ 6. over 30,000

7. Participation in sports (circle ALL that apply)

- | | (1) | (2) | |
|--|-----|-----|------|
| Played on high school team(s) | Yes | No | (48) |
| Played on college team(s) | Yes | No | (49) |
| Played on recreational team(s) | Yes | No | (50) |
| Played recreational individual sports; for example, golf or tennis | Yes | No | (51) |
| Never played any sports | Yes | No | (52) |

8. How involved in sports are you now? (53)

____ 1. Not involved at all

____ 2. Somewhat involved

____ 3. Very involved (54)

APPENDIX B

Las Mujeres y los Deportes en la Sociedad

Instrucciones: Los comentarios registrados abajo describen comunmente actitudes fijas en nuestra sociedad. Favor de marcar la respuesta que mejor exprese su OPINION acerca de los siguientes comentarios. Use las siguientes marcas:

1	2	3	4
Completamente Opuesto	Opuesto	De acuerdo	Completamente de acuerdo

Parte I

- | | |
|--|--------------|
| 1. Los deportes no son particularmente importantes para el bienestar de nuestra sociedad. | 1 2 3 4 (5) |
| 2. La participation en deportes organizados se debe limitar exclusivamente al hombre. | 1 2 3 4 (6) |
| 3. Si mas gente participara en los deportes, no tendríamos tanto problema con las drogas en nuestra sociedad. | 1 2 3 4 (7) |
| 4. La participation en deportes organizados solo sirve para quitarle el tiempo a los otros deberes importantes de las mujer. | 1 2 3 4 (8) |
| 5. Los deportes son valiosos porque ayudan a los jovenes a llegar a ser buenos ciudadanos. | 1 2 3 4 (9) |
| 6. Una de las cosas mas importantes que una mujer puede hacer por sus hijas es prepararlas para los deberes de esposa. | 1 2 3 4 (10) |
| 7. El enfasis que los deportes hacen con respecto a la competencia causa mas dano que bienestar. | 1 2 3 4 (11) |
| 8. El colocar a la mujer en un puesto de autoridad mayor al del hombre va contra lo normal. | 1 2 3 4 (12) |
| 9. El hombre naturalmente parece saber mas acerca de los deportes que la mujer. | 1 2 3 4 (13) |

1	2	3	4	
Completamente Opuesto	Opuesto	De acuerdo	Completamente de acuerdo	
10. Los deportes son valiosos porque les enseñan a los jóvenes el respeto hacia la autoridad.			1 2 3 4	(14)
11. La participación en los deportes es más importante para el desarrollo físico y social del hombre que para el desarrollo de la mujer.			1 2 3 4	(15)
12. Los deportes son valiosos porque les enseñan a los jóvenes la disciplina de sí mismos.			1 2 3 4	(16)
13. Las ambiciones personales de la mujer deben ser subordinadas a las de su familia.			1 2 3 4	(17)
14. Para sobresalir en los deportes organizados, la mujer debe ser más como hombre que mujer.			1 2 3 4	(18)
15. Los deportes son valiosos porque contribuyen al desarrollo del patriotismo.			1 2 3 4	(19)
16. La mujer debe competir en igualdad de circunstancias con el hombre para todo empleo.			1 2 3 4	(20)
17. La mayor responsabilidad de una esposa es la felicidad de su esposo y su hijos.			1 2 3 4	(21)
18. Los deportes son valiosos porque le proporcionan al individuo una oportunidad de sobresalir en el mundo.			1 2 3 4	(22)
19. Una mujer puede ser buena atleta y al mismo tiempo una persona verdaderamente femenina.			1 2 3 4	(23)
20. La mujer debe de apegarse a ser porrista (cheerleader) y dejarle los deportes organizados al hombre.			1 2 3 4	(24)
21. Se le debe dar más incentivo a la mujer a participar en toda clase de deportes organizados.			1 2 3 4	(25)

1	2	3	4	
Completamente Opuesto	Opuesto	De acuerdo	Completamente de acuerdo	
22. Los deportes son valiosos porque enseñan a la juventud el sentido del juego limpio y la afición al los deportes.			1 2 3 4	(26)
23. Se le debe permitir los mismos derechos a ambos, el hombre y las mujer en un divorcio.			1 2 3 4	(27)
24. La jujer moderna le es autorizada la misma libertad de control y reglamentsos que se le adado al hombre moderno.			1 2 3 4	(28)
25. Las mujeres deben tratar mas duro para mostrar su feminidad si ellas participan en los deportes..			1 2 3 4	(29)
26. El decir bromas pesadas debe ser por la mayor parte prerrogativa del hombre..			1 2 3 4	(30)
27. A los hombres y las mujeres no se les debe permitir competir; con o encontra en los deportes organizados.			1 2 3 4	(31)
28. Es peor para la mujer el estar borracha, que para el hombre el estar borracho..			1 2 3 4	(32)
29. Por lo normal, la mujer se debe considerar como menos capaz de contribuir a produccion economica que el hombre..			1 2 3 4	(33)
30. Los deportes ensenan a la juventud el competir y asi los prepara para mas tarde participacion en el mundo de negosio.			1 2 3 4	(34)

31. De razon de los siguientes deportes en la orden de cual la participacion deba demostrar qualidades femeninas de la mujer.

	No femenina 1	Algo por lo cual femenina 2	Muy femenina 3	
Basquetbol	1	2	3	(35)
Gimnasia	1	2	3	(36)
Sofbol	1	2	3	(37)
Natacion	1	2	3	(38)
Tenis	1	2	3	(39)
Juegos de pista; el atletismo ("track")	1	2	3	(40)

Parte II Informacion demografica: favor de marcar la frase que mejor describa a usted.

1. Ques es su edad? _____ (41-42)

2. Que es su sexo?
_____ Hombre (1) _____ Mujer (2) (43)

3. Como describeria usted su origen etnico? (44)

- _____ 1. Mexicoamericano(a)
- _____ 2. Angloamericano(a)
- _____ 3. Cubanoamericano(a)
- _____ 4. Centroamericano(a)
- _____ 5. Americano(a) oriental
- _____ 6. Americano(a) negro(a)
- _____ 7. Otro(a)

4. Que nivel de educacion a alcanzado usted? (45)

- _____ 1. Menos de 8 ano
- _____ 2. Secundaria
- _____ 3. Graduado(a) de secundaria
- _____ 4. Estudio universitario
- _____ 5. 2 anos de universidad
- _____ 6. 4 anos de universidad
- _____ 7. Graduado(a) de universidad

5. Que es su estado matrimonial? (46)

- ☐ 1. Soltero(a); nunca casado(a)
☐ 2. Casado(a); viviendo con esposo(a)
☐ 3. Casado(a); no viviendo con esposo(a)
☐ 4. Divorciado(a)
☐ 5. Viudo(a)

6. Sueldo anual de la familia (sueldo de sus padres si Ud. no se mantiene solo(a)). (47)

- ☐ 1. Menos de 10,000
☐ 2. 10,000 - 14,999
☐ 3. 15,000 - 19,999
☐ 4. 20,000 - 24,999
☐ 5. 24,999 - 29,999
☐ 6. Over - 30,000

7. Participacion en los deportes (marque todos los que apliquen)

- | | 1 | 2 | |
|--------------------------------------|----|----|------|
| Juque en equipo(s) de secundaria | Si | No | (48) |
| Juque en equipo(s) universitario(s) | Si | No | (49) |
| Juque en equipo(s) recreacional(es) | Si | No | (50) |
| Juque deportes(s) recreacional(es) | Si | No | (51) |
| individual(es) (por ejemplo el golf) | | | |
| Jamas he jugado algun deporte | Si | No | (52) |

8. Que tan envuelto en deportes esta usted al presente? (53)

- ☐ 1. Muy envuelto
☐ 2. Algo por lo menos envuelto
☐ 3. No envuelto

APPENDIX C

STUDENT SURVEY INTRODUCTION

Good morning. As _____ said, I am a teacher here at Texas Southmost College, and I am also working on my doctoral degree at Michigan State University. The survey I am asking you to participate in today is part of my doctoral dissertation research. Every person who completes a doctoral degree has to complete some type of research project, and mine is to find out what people think about women's participation in sport. The questionnaire you are about to fill out contains statements concerning your attitudes toward sport, toward women's role in society and toward women's participation in sport. When I get all of the information collected, I am going to compare the attitudes of men and women, Mexican Americans and Anglo Americans and students and members of the general public. This is not a test, there are no right or wrong answers, only opinions, so PLEASE answer as honestly as you can. Your replies will be totally anonymous. If you have already filled out a survey, do NOT do another one. If you do not want to participate you are free to leave, but it is very important for the statistical analysis of the results that all members of this class participate. So, please answer ALL of the statements and if you have any questions raise your hand and I'll be glad to try to clarify anything you might not understand. I'll thank you in advance for your help- -I really appreciate it.

APPENDIX D

GENERAL PUBLIC SURVEY INTRODUCTION

Hello, my name is_____ and I'm calling for professor Judy Walton at Texas Southmost College. Your name has been randomly selected from the Brownsville telephone directory to participate in a survey we are conducting concerning attitudes toward sports and the participation of women in them. There are no right or wrong answers, only opinions, and your replies will be totally anonymous and confidential. In order to ensure accurate results it is very important that the persons selected take part in the survey. So will you willing to take a few minutes of your time to help us out?

_____ Survey

Thank you very much, we appreciate this time that you've donated.

Buenas tardes, mi nombre es_____y estoy haciendo una encuesta para la profesora Judy Walton del Colegio T.S.C. Su nombre fue seleccionado del directorio telefonico de la ciudad de Brownsville, para que nos de su opinion sobre las aptitudes hacia los deportes y la participacion de la mujer en ellos. No hay requestas incorrectas, solo son opiniones, seran totalmente anonimas y confidenciales. Es muy importante para nosotros que la persona escogida tome parte en esta encuesta para asegurar un resultado exacto. Estaria Ud. de acuerdo en darnos unos minutos de su tiempo para hacerle unas preguntas?

_____ survey

Muchissimas gracias, su ayuda es muy apreciativo.

APPENDIX E

Descriptive Statistics of the Respondents Across
Gender, Ethnicity, and Educational Status

	GENDER				ETHNICITY				EDUCATIONAL STATUS			
	FEMALE		MALE		MEXICAN-AMERICAN		ANGLO-AMERICAN		STUDENT		PUBLIC	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Years of Education	4.17	1.20	4.17	1.18	3.94	1.15	4.60	1.22	4.29	.69	3.98	1.70
Marital Status	1.62	1.01	1.44	.96	1.48	.82	1.86	1.10	1.22	.72	2.05	1.13
Sport Participation in High School	1.42	.56	1.19	.53	1.44	.50	1.35	.48	1.32	.58	1.29	.53
Sport Participation in College	1.78	.50	1.69	.59	1.86	.35	1.82	.39	1.74	.56	1.73	.52
Participation in Recreational Team Sports	1.40	.51	1.46	.60	1.60	.49	1.49	.50	1.27	.56	1.71	.53
Participation in Recreational Individual Sports	1.35	.56	1.33	.61	1.48	.50	1.33	.47	1.23	.56	1.53	.57
Never Participated in Sports	1.74	.51	1.79	.53	1.80	.40	1.89	.31	1.81	.52	1.69	.54
Current Participation	1.78	.74	1.95	.84	1.96	.71	1.91	.72	2.01	.78	1.65	.77

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