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**Pacific women's netball participation
in Aotearoa/New Zealand:
Factors influencing participation**

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In
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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to explore the netball experiences of Pacific women in Aotearoa/New Zealand. Specific objectives were to identify reasons for participation, socialisation agents and the link between ethnicity and sport. A mixed-method approach was utilised to gather data. 157 netballers (age range 17-56⁺) completed a modified version of the Participation Motivation Questionnaire (Gill, Gross & Huddleston, 1983). Treatment of the scores by principal components analysis yielded seven factors: Aspects of Netball/Health & Fitness, Challenge, Social Status, Affiliation, Energy Release, Skills Development, and Family Affiliation. Focus group data (3 groups) confirmed the family as the most significant socialisation agent during initial involvement, and the salience of self-motivation for current participation. In addition, netballers articulated the existence of a “Pacific” style of play, which the author hypothesised, reflects the affects of a unique cultural background and sporting environment. The key implication of this research is the need for sport managers to deliver sport opportunities that meet the diverse needs of its multi-ethnic and multi-cultural participants in order to ensure continued participation. Areas for future research are identified.

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*This thesis is dedicated
to the memory of my grandfather
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Chapter 1: Introduction

If rugby is the 'national sport' for men, then netball is the national women's sport. From its early introduction in New Zealand at the turn of the twentieth century, netball has been the dominant women's team sport in New Zealand. Today, netball is still the premier women's sport, with the Hillary Commission's (1999) latest participation figures showing an estimated 202,000 girls and women participating in the game.

Pacific women have been visible participants of netball since early migration to New Zealand. Much of this visibility is seen in the national representation honours that Pacific women have achieved. At present, virtually nothing is known about the role of sport and leisure in the lives of girls and women from established ethnic minorities in New Zealand. The aim of this study is to make a contribution towards filling this gap.

Sport in New Zealand

The institution of sport has often been referred to as a significant part of New Zealand society. Sport permeates all levels of New Zealand society, from active sports participation to sports consumerism. Sport is connected to other major social institutions such as family, education, religious, economic and political sectors. The pervasiveness of sport in New Zealand society has made some sport sociologists render its significance in society as a cliché statement, (Collins & Waddington, 2000), notwithstanding this, Laidlaw (1999) aptly stated, "because of its profound influence at almost every level of society, sport is beginning to be taken seriously by many of those who would never have done so before" (p. 18).

Where sport was once thought to be a frivolous activity, an amusing and distractive pastime, unworthy of academic study, in recent times, it has been acknowledged as a significant social custom in New Zealand, evidenced in the published research and writing in the sports-related area (Patterson, 1999). A large number of this sports-

related literature celebrate the utility of sport as a binding force in cultivating nationalism and provincialism, which Richards (1999) maintained “provides the glue which holds much of the passion for sport together” (p. 41). Much has been written about rugby union as the pinnacle of New Zealand national sport, which has helped forge and maintain a unique New Zealand national identity (MacDonald, 1996; Palenski, 1992; Phillips, 1987; Thompson, 1975). Glaringly absent from this general literature are published work detailing the experiences of New Zealand women in sports.

Women and sports in New Zealand

The lack of research interest into women’s experiences in sport has often produced a false perception of sport being less relevant for women than it is for men. A recent Hillary Commission study found that New Zealanders have an active interest in sports with around 2.2 million adults (83%) taking part in a sporting activity in the previous year. In terms of organised sport competitions, 18% of New Zealand women and 34% of men participated in the previous year (Hillary Commission, 1999).

The growing body of feminist literature on women and leisure has helped demystify the experience, and more potently, criticise the androcentric tendencies in sport research and in the sport experience itself (Hall, n.d.; Thompson, 1988; Willis, 1982). Sport in Western societies was originally developed as a male-only right, developed by men for men. Today, women’s sporting experiences indicate that sport is still a man’s game as Cameron (2000) highlighted,

The rules of sport, both on and off the field, reflect male ways of doing things, a masculine world-view. That it has remained unquestioned for so long as the right and proper way to play and organise sport is itself evidence of the hegemonic power of masculine culture (p. 171).

Data from Cameron’s (1996) study of women sport managers confirmed that New Zealand sport at the end of the twentieth century was still controlled by men, and at the start of the twenty-first, remains as such.

Pacific women and sport in New Zealand

Women are obviously not a homogeneous group but are divided by ethnicity, class and sexuality, and as such, research findings about women's sporting experiences need to be tested for robustness across the cultural divide. Birrell (1990) challenged the analysis of white feminists, who drew theories based on observations of dominant White middle-class notions of gender and sport, and stated that "what White feminists have chosen to theorize and the contents of those theories often make no sense in terms of the racial experiences of women of color" (p. 188). Griffin (1999) asserted that, "knowledge of diverse ethnic groups is essential to more fully understand sport, since participants approach sport in culturally distinct ways" (p. 17).

The research into ethnic minorities' participation in sports is relatively new and often deals with the sports participation of male ethnic minorities, as opposed to female ethnic sporting experiences (Birrell, 1990; Jarvie, 1991). There is only scant research on ethnic minority sports participation in New Zealand (e.g., Purcell, 1993; Wrathall, 1996). Shannon (1987) regards the absence and neglect by researchers to consider variables such as race, ethnicity and socio-economic background in sporting surveys "to be the taken-for-granted assumption that New Zealand is a classless society in which divisions along racial, ethnic, or economic lines are not expected to exist" (pp. 18-19). In reality, these societal dividing lines exist and sporting differences are observed between ethnic groupings that make up New Zealand society.

Thus in order to paint a more complete picture of the women involved in New Zealand sports, research that explores the diverse ethnic voices of women and map the cultural difference in sport is warranted. Aspects of gender, ethnicity and sport, therefore need to be more fully explored to ensure inclusion of diversity issues in the general consciousness of sport scholarship and sport policy.

The present study chronicled Pacific women's sporting experiences in New Zealand's major female sporting code – netball. It investigated the participation

motivation of Pacific women into netball, the socialisation processes during netball and explored the link between ethnicity and netball experiences.

Chapter Outline

First, chapter two will review research, which has focused on sports participation motivation and sports socialisation processes. The study is then framed within the body of the race/ethnicity and sports literature.

Chapter three will provide the cultural context for the study. A brief outline of the sporting environment – netball in New Zealand, and societal location of Pacific peoples in Aotearoa/New Zealand is presented.

Next the research focus is outlined in chapter four, whereupon, the major research questions underlying the study are presented.

The research methodologies and data analysis procedures employed in the study are presented next. Issues pertaining to validity/reliability, information dissemination and ethical issues will also be discussed in chapter five.

The remaining chapters will then present and discuss the findings of the study. Chapter six will describe the participants involved in the study. Three major themes emerged from the research data, which will then be discussed, in separate chapters. Chapter seven – Participation Motivation, will focus on the motives Pacific women gave for participation in netball. Chapter eight – Netball Socialisation, will discuss how the participants came to be netballers, and how they perceived their netball experiences. Chapter nine – Pacific Netball, will discuss the influence of a Pacific ethnicity and/or cultural background on netball participation.

Chapter ten – will conclude the thesis, with a summary of the major findings of the study. Recommendations will also be suggested for the findings and for future studies.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

One of the aims of this study is to investigate the reasons Pacific women give for their current netball participation. This chapter thus will begin with a review of the sports participation motivation literature. This study also focused on the socialisation process of becoming a netballer, therefore, a review of research in the sports socialisation area follows. Last, research that deals with the nexus between race/ethnicity and sports is presented.

Participation Motivation Literature

A definition

People's reasons for participating in sport has been extensively studied throughout the 1980s particularly overseas (Gill, Gross & Huddleston, 1983; Gould, Feltz & Weiss, 1985; Weiss & Petlichkoff, 1989). The need to gain a better understanding for the motives people give for pursuing sport opportunities was often initiated by sports scientists in the field of motivation in sport (Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992). Today, the onus for research into sports participation motivation is becoming the field of interest for sports administrators, coaches and educators, who want to identify sport participants' motives in order to deliver sports programmes that can effectively meet participants' needs.

Participation motivation refers to reasons individuals adopt for initiating, continuing and sustaining involvement in sports and physical activity, as well as reasons individuals choose to discontinue involvement (called discontinuation motivation) (Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992). Motivation is defined by Gill as (1986) the 'direction and intensity of effort', and participation motivation studies are interested in determining how this effort is directed towards initiating and persisting involvement in the sports arena.

Research interest in participation and discontinuation motives first emerged in the 1970s by researchers concerned with the level of attrition in youth sport programmes. Questions such as “why young athletes stop participating in youth sports” became important in psychological studies, as it both extended psychological theories and was of practical significance (Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992). It was later argued by investigators that studies about sport attrition were of little use without understanding motivation for participation (Gould & Petlichkoff, 1988; Klint & Weiss, 1986). Therefore the question of “why young athletes participate in youth sports” also became popular.

Descriptive studies of Participation Motivation for Youth Samples

Over the years, the descriptive research conducted mainly with North American youth samples, across both sport-general and sport-specific applications, have produced consistent findings. A persistent set of motivational factors were found suggesting that sports participants engage in sports predominantly to fulfil intrinsic motives, such as to learn new skills, to be physically active and especially to have fun and enjoy activity. Factors extrinsic to the sport experience such as gaining rewards and gaining recognition are cited as less important (Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992). A second common finding is that children and adolescents indicate that several, rather than one overriding motive, persist simultaneously. Third, variables such as age, gender, experience levels, sport type and cultural contexts are likely to impact on participation motives.

One of the earliest and most extensive examinations of the motives children hold for their sport participation was conducted by Gill, Gross and Huddleston in 1983. In their study, they examined the participation motives of 1,138 American children, aged 8-18 years, involved in a wide range of sports. They used a questionnaire instrument developed through two pilot projects and a review of the existing literature. This instrument called the Participation Motivation Questionnaire (PMQ) was widely used in future participation motivation studies, including the present study (Buonamano, Cei & Mussino, 1995; Brodtkin & Weiss, 1990; Gaskin, 2000;

Hodge & Zaharopoulos, 1991; Klint & Weiss, 1986; Longhurst & Spink, 1987). The general findings of Gill et al.'s (1983) study revealed that the motives with highest ratings included improving skills, fun, learning new skills, challenge and being physically fit.

To identify dimensions or general categories of participation motivation, the questionnaire items were factor analysed. This revealed the presence of eight separate dimensions labelled Achievement/Status motivation (e.g., "I like to win", "I like to feel important"); Team-orientation ("I like the teamwork", "I like being on a team"), Fitness ("I want to be physically fit", "I want to stay in shape"), Energy Release ("I want to get rid of energy", "I want to release tension"), Skill Development ("I want to improve my skills", "I want to learn new skills"), Affiliation ("I want to be with my friends", "I want to meet new friends"), Fun ("I like to have fun", "I like the excitement"), and a miscellaneous factor labelled Situational ("I like to use the equipment or facilities", "I like the coaches or instructors").

Gill et al. (1983) noted some gender differences in motives, with the boys tending to rate achievement/status items higher than girls. In general, the responses between girls and boys were more similar than different, although this is probably due to Gill et al.'s sample characteristic, whereby both boys and girls participated in a wide range of different sporting activities. In general, there is a lack of consistency in the current research, with some studies noting small gender differences (Buonamano et al. 1995, Gaskin, 2000; Longhurst & Spink, 1987;) to significant gender differences (Gould, Feltz & Weiss, 1985). These ambivalent findings have made it difficult to make predictions based on gender.

Gill et al.'s preliminary study did not make comparisons between different age levels and across different activities. Brodtkin & Weiss (1990) considered the mediating affect of age and cognitive-developmental level in their study of competitor swimmers and found significant age group differences in motives for participation. For example, older swimmers (aged 40-74) rated competitive swimming less important, while younger children (10-14) and high school/college-age (15-22) swimmers rated social status motives higher. Brodtkin & Weiss concluded, that the

structure of a person's motivational perspective would change as their cognitive abilities evolve through their lifespan. Examining motives from a longitudinal perspective rather than the cross-sectional stance adopted in Brodtkin & Weiss's (1990) study and previous studies will better advance this conclusion.

Motives across different sporting activities have also been noted. For example Klint & Weiss's (1986) study of youth *gymnasts* identified separate Team Atmosphere and Challenge factors while Brodtkin & Weiss's (1990) study of youth *swimmers* did not. Klint & Weiss's (1986) study advanced the mediating affect of different activities by investigating the affect of different levels of involvement within the one sport – gymnastics. They found that children were also motivated by different reasons at different levels of involvement, with competitive gymnasts rating competitive items higher than recreational gymnasts and gymnastic leavers.

The affect of differing cultural contexts has also been tested. Longhurst & Spink (1987) tested the PMQ for Australian youth, and found some motive disparities between Australian children and North American children as examined by Gill and colleagues (1983). Namely, that Australian children rated the item "I like to have fun" significantly lower than North American samples, and clustered Team Atmosphere items with Achievement whereas Gill et al. (1983) and Gould et al.'s (1985) studies, combined Achievement and Status items together. The disparities were tentatively explained as the effect of cultural differences between American cultural definitions of *achievement* as being synonymous with *status* while Australian definition of *achievement* was tied to *team elements*. Australian youth perceived achievement and team aspects together, which Longhurst and Spink assert, reflected the sporting club systems in Australia, which accentuates "mateship" (p. 29).

Recent studies have also been conducted to test the generalisability of participation motivation findings outside of Anglophone countries. Buonamano et al. (1995) explored the motivational factors of Italian youth across general sports and found that motivations were relatively consistent with Anglophone samples. Kirkby, Kolt and Liu (1999) tested the motives of youth across ethnicity, by using two different national samples of youth gymnasts from Australia and China. Differences were

found in motives between Australian youth gymnasts compared to Chinese gymnasts, with Australian gymnasts rating “fun” and “like rewards” as more important and Chinese gymnasts rating “being part of a club”, “having a good body”, “to win” and “being popular” higher. The authors suggested that these differences reflected cultural differences between Australian and Chinese societies.

Kolt, et al. (1999) undertook a more extensive cross-cultural participation motivation study across five countries – Australia, Canada, India, China and Israel. A large number of commonalities existed among the cultural groups in reasons for participating in youth gymnastics, but also many differences in motives appeared and were explained in terms of more general cultural influences between different countries. The use of dissimilar samples in Kolt, et al.’s study affects the accuracy of some of their conclusions. For example, certainly the participants from the different cultures were involved in the same sport, were of similar ages, and underwent the same assessment procedures. However, the samples, as the authors had pointed out, were recruited from different levels of programmes. That is, the Australian, Indian, Canadian and Israeli samples were recruited from gymnastic clubs, open to the general community, the Chinese sample was chosen from children at a special sport school for the gifted. The different programme emphasises across these samples was not controlled for.

The lack of information on participation motives on populations outside of North America made the cultural differences observed, difficult to interpret, explain and compare. The small sample sizes from some of the groups meant factor analyses could not be carried out to allow a more meaningful comparison between groups. Despite these shortcomings, the study’s descriptive findings found the reasons rated most highly by the overall sample for participating in gymnastics were; “I want to improve my skills”, “I want to be fit”, “I want to learn new things”, “I like the challenge”, and “I like to have fun”. The only motive consistently ranked high by all countries was “I want to improve my skills”. Several differences were noted across cultural samples, for example, although “I like to have fun” was ranked as the most important reason for participation in gymnastics by the Australian and Canadian gymnasts, it was rated 14th, 22nd, and 29th respectively, by the Israeli, Chinese and Indian gymnasts.

Kolt, et al., make a good attempt at addressing the void in the sport participation literature, through investigating more diverse cultural groups. As the authors had concluded, “clearly, this is only the beginning of research in this area and continuing work is necessary to assist our understanding of how cultural similarities and differences influence sport behaviors.” (Kolt, et al., 1999, p. 395). In summary, the small numbers of studies that have tested cross-cultural effects seem to suggest that sociocultural factors such as race, ethnicity and social class influence sports participation motivation.

In addition, individual difference factors such as level of ability, physical maturity and player status are hypothesised to be possible factors that could influence participation motives, as well as contextual factors such as reward structures, coaching styles and type of sport (Gould & Petlichkoff, 1988; Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992). Future research will be needed to investigate the various facets of the participation motivation construct in order to better understand it.

Descriptive studies of Participation Motivation for Adult Samples

It must be noted however, that many of the studies on participation motivation have generally focused on a youth sample. Very few studies have approached participation motivation beyond college age and in non-competitive sport and exercise programmes. Gill, Williams, Dowd, Beaudoin & Martin’s (1996) exploratory study of an adult sample in North America sought to close the sample gap, and test the existing empirical findings on older participants. Gill et al.’s (1996) study found that adults (age ranges 19-99 years, mean 49.6 years), like youth from previous studies, endorsed multiple motives for sports participation. In particular, ‘mastery’, ‘affiliation’, ‘fitness’, and ‘health’ motives were found. Gill et al.’s sample was predominantly white, well-educated, middle class and took part in a diverse range of activities, with participants selected from a running club, exercise classes at a private fitness club and from a senior games programme. Gender differences were noted with females rating “fitness”, “affiliation” and “appearance” higher than males, and males rating “competitiveness” and “win” orientation higher than females.

Kirkby, Kolt, and Habel's (1998) study investigated adult participation motivation across cultural groups by using an Australian-born and overseas-born Australian sample. Principal component analysis indicated that the responses could be categorised into four factors of Affiliation/Personal (e.g., "I like the company"), Recognition/Achievement ("I like the rewards"), Fitness ("I want to improve my fitness"), and Exercise Environment ("I like the exercise instructors") as salient motives for physical activity participation. Further analyses revealed motive differences between the two groups, with overseas-born Australians reporting higher scores for Affiliation/Personal, Recognition/Achievement and Exercise Environment factors than their Australian-born peers.

Both aforementioned studies assessed participation motivation in exercise activities, rather than on general sporting activities. Brodtkin & Weiss's (1990) study, which had utilised the PMQ as employed in youth studies, was able to investigate motives of adult groups in swimming. Significant differences were found among the different age groups, with adult groups rating 'health/fitness', "challenge", "being with friends" and "having fun" higher than the children/youth groups.

Descriptive studies of Participation Motivation in New Zealand

Despite the popularity of descriptive participation motivation studies overseas, there has not been an extensive study on New Zealanders' motives across general sports utilising the 30-item PMQ, for both youth and adult samples. However, some unpublished work has been done for specific sports.

Recently, Gaskin (2000) investigated participation motives for youth cricketers in the secondary school system, and found motive differences between gender, age and ethnic groupings. Male cricketers tended to rate Skill (e.g., "I want to learn new skills") and Competition ("I like to compete") items higher than females, and females rated Team ("I like the teamwork") motives as more important. Younger cricketers rated Team and Skill-related motives higher, whilst older cricketers rated Achievement motives more important. With regard to ethnic grouping, Pacific Island

cricketers rated Team and Fitness items more highly than New Zealand European (*Palagi*) and Maori groups.

Hodge and Zaharopoulos (1991) investigated participation motivation in the major high school sports in New Zealand – netball and rugby, which at the time, were predominantly a female sport and male sport respectively. Hodge & Zaharopoulos modified the PMQ by providing their sample with seven motive items and an open-ended option to identify reasons for participation in netball or rugby. On the whole, both netball and rugby samples endorsed multiple motives for playing their sport. The most highly rated motives for both groups from the seven motives provided were “to improve skills and learn new skills” and “to have fun”, followed by “for the thrills and excitement of the game”, “to achieve personal goals” and “to make friends and to be with friends”.

A number of differences in motives were found across the two sports, which may be alluding to gender differences or sport-specific differences between rugby and netball. For example, netballers, who are female, rated “to become fit” as the second most important motive, while rugby players (males) rated this item the sixth most important.

The open-ended question resulted in a range of responses that were categorised by the authors in no order of importance; therefore it is difficult to accept the validity of the previous motive rankings given for participation motivation, as this latter range of open-ended question-responses were not incorporated and ranked in order of importance, as the 7 provided motive items were. Table 1 shows the range of responses between netballers (female) and rugby players (males). Of note there are two striking differences. The first is that rugby players stated that they were motivated to play rugby for their parents, whilst netballers did not. Second, the incidence of aggression and violence in rugby as a motivating factor for participation was also not found in netball.

Table 1: Categories of the Open-ended Question Responses from Youth Netball and Rugby Players in Hodge & Zaharopoulos Participation Motivation Study 1991.

| Netballers Motives | Rugby Players Motives |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enjoyment • Relax/relieve stress • Represent the school • Travel • Team • Occupy time • Compete • Status • Friends • Self-esteem • Ability • Prove themselves • To be recognised • Communication skills • Tradition | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enjoyment • Parents • Relax/relieve stress • Team • School • Social aspects • Travel • Compete • Status • Friends • Violence • Self-esteem • Ability • Prove themselves • Pressure (by family & friends) • Recognition • Communication skills • Tradition |

Both Gaskin (2000) and Hodge & Zaharopoulos (1991) studies investigated motives from youth samples. No sport-general or sport-specific participation motivation study has been completed on an adult sample in New Zealand. Data from the Life in New Zealand (LINZ) study (Hillary Commission, 1990) does provide a list of factors New Zealand adults gave for physical activity participation. The three main reasons why people do physical activity are “to feel good”, “to have fun” and “for their health”. These motives were provided to participants from a list of 9 items in the questionnaire used.

Data from LINZ was further analysed to find differences between the two major ethnic groups, New Zealand European and Maori. Maori gave different motives for participating in physical activity compared with mainstream New Zealand. Namely, “to feel good”, “have fun”, “keep healthy” and “do things with family” (Hillary Commission, 1992). Another study was completed to describe the level of Maori

physical activity participation to counter the lower sampling and lower Maori response rate in the LINZ study. The main reasons for participation in decreasing order were: "‘Enjoyment’, ‘fitness’, ‘excitement’, ‘relaxation’, ‘to learn skills’, for ‘company’, ‘to be competitive’, ‘to use skills’, ‘to use available time’ and because of ‘handy facilities’" (Hillary Commission, 1992, p. 42). It must be noted however, that both the LINZ study (Hillary Commission, 1990) and Tainui study (Hillary Commission, 1992) focused on eliciting motives from a general physical activity view, which included exercise and leisure activities and not on a specific focus on sporting activities only.

Proposed theories on Participation Motivation

Gould and Petlichkoff (1988) asserted that despite the benefits descriptive studies have made, in terms of providing an empirical base to assist in the understanding of children’s participation motivation, the lack of a theoretical framework in the field, fails to advance the topic further. They stated that, “a theoretical framework must be developed that not only describes the reasons young athletes cite for sport participation and withdrawal, but also explains the cognitive processes underlying these decisions” (Gould & Petlichkoff, 1988, p. 162).

Research in the participation motivation and attrition areas has assumed testing theoretical models to move beyond describing motives and towards explaining the participation motivation behaviour. The most used models are Harter’s competence motivation theory (1978), achievement goal orientation theory as proposed by Nicholls (1980) and social exchange theory first introduced by Thibaut & Kelley (1959). As adult sport participation motivation research lacks the empirical breadth of youth research, theoretical models based on youth studies will be reviewed here.

The most influential theory for studying youth sport participation motives has been the competence motivation theory. According to Harter (1978) individuals are motivated to demonstrate competence and do so by engaging in mastery attempts. If successful, these mastery experiences result in feelings of efficacy and positive affect, which in turn, result in continued motivation to participate. Central to this theory, are concepts such as perceived competence and perceived performance

control. For example, individuals who perceive themselves to be highly competent at a particular skill will persist longer at that skill and maintain interest in mastering the skill. In contrast, individuals who perceive themselves as having low competence at a particular skill will withdraw from the activity.

Nicholls' (1980) achievement goal orientation theory posits that individuals are primarily motivated by one of three goal orientations. The first is *ability-orientation*, where one participates in an activity to demonstrate competence in relation to others, so social comparison is a primary source of feedback information. The second is *task-orientation*, where an individual is focused on performing a task as well as possible, regardless of any competitive outcome, and therefore rely on feedback information from their own past performances of the task. The third is *social approval-orientation*, whereby an individual participates in an effort to seek approval from significant others, usually by focusing on effort rather than outcome. Research examining the relationship between achievement goals and participation is sparse, and the theory has not been advanced due to lack of operational definitions for concepts such as ability, task difficulty and effort (Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992).

The social exchange theory's premise is that social behaviour is motivated by the desire to maximise positive experiences and minimise negative experiences. This model is also called the costs-benefits analysis (Gould & Petlichkoff, 1988). An individual will, initially, become involved in an activity through a process of anticipating costs and benefits. The decision to continue to participate is more involved, and does not function simply as a benefits-minus-costs outcome, but through processing two levels of satisfaction: satisfaction with the current activity and satisfaction with alternative activities. Thus, the decision to participate involves the weighing of costs, benefits and satisfaction of a current situation with those of alternative situations (Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992).

Gould and Petlichkoff (1988) proposed a motivational model for youth sport participation, showing an integration of the findings from the descriptive studies and theory-based studies (Figure 1). The model shows from the top, the major motives cited by young athletes for becoming involved in sport, as well as the theoretical constructs thought to underlie these motives (Component 1). An on-going costs-

benefits analysis occurs (Component 2) that may result in continued involvement (Component 3).

Weiss and Chaumeton (1992) also conducted a review of the participation motivation literature and proposed another theoretical model, which incorporated further research (Figure 2). It is beyond the scope of this thesis to detail the components of this model, however, it is useful to note the two intervening components in Weiss and Chaumeton's model: *Individual difference factors* and *Contextual factors*. When Weiss and Chaumeton (1992) proposed the model, the constructs in these components were in dire need of research. Today, the mediating effects of these components on the participation motivation model are being tested, particularly for sociocultural factors such as race, ethnicity and social class (Hasbrook, 1986; Kirkby, et al., 1999; Kolt, et al., 1999).

In conclusion, participation motivation in sport is a complex phenomenon, which can be approached from a variety of theoretical approaches. The aim of this study is to address a void in the present literature, by investigating the participation of adult women in the sport of netball. Furthermore, the study extends recent cross-cultural studies by exploring the motives of Pacific women.

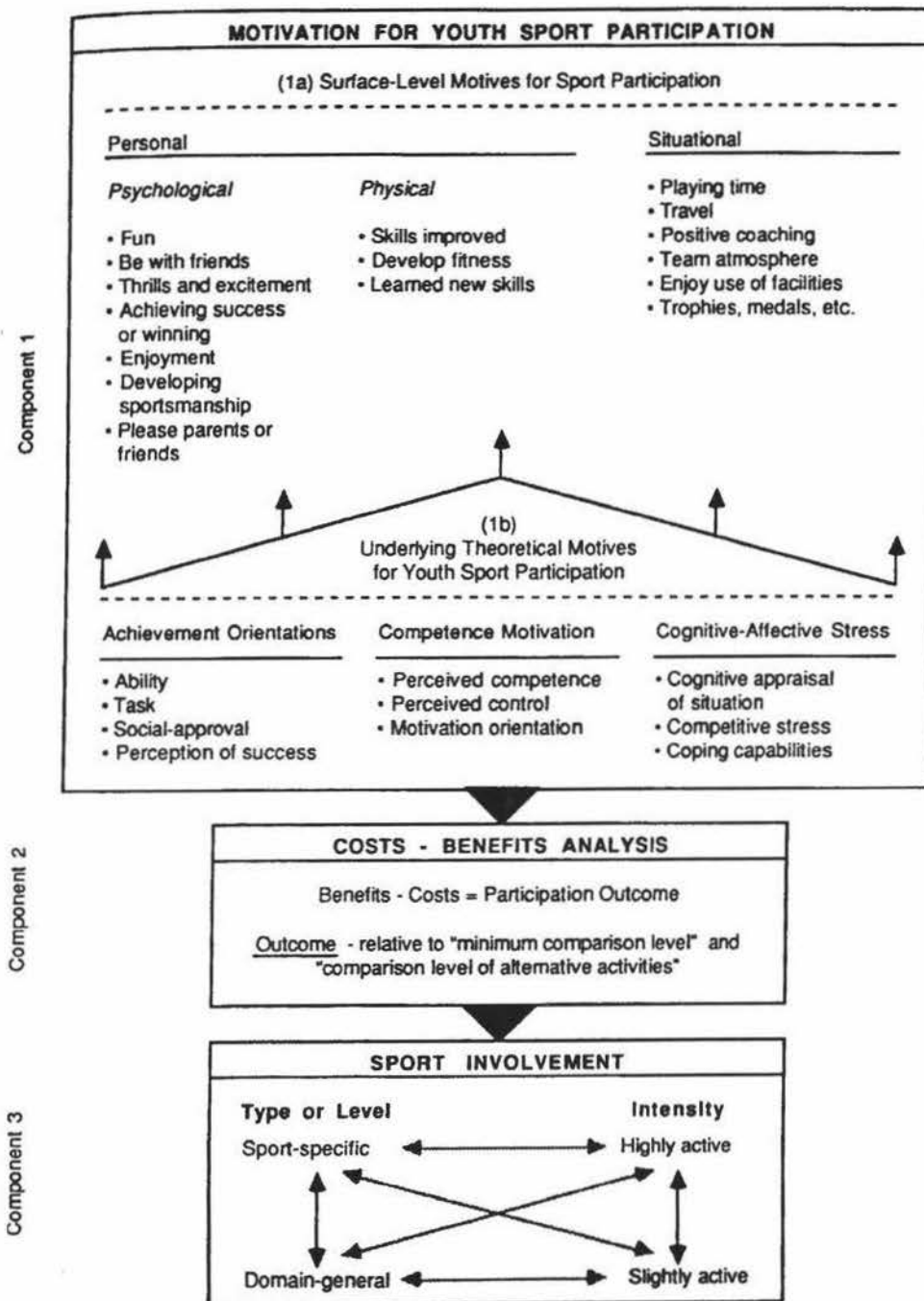


Figure 1: A Motivational Model of Youth Sport Participation
(Gould & Petlichkoff, 1988, p. 167).

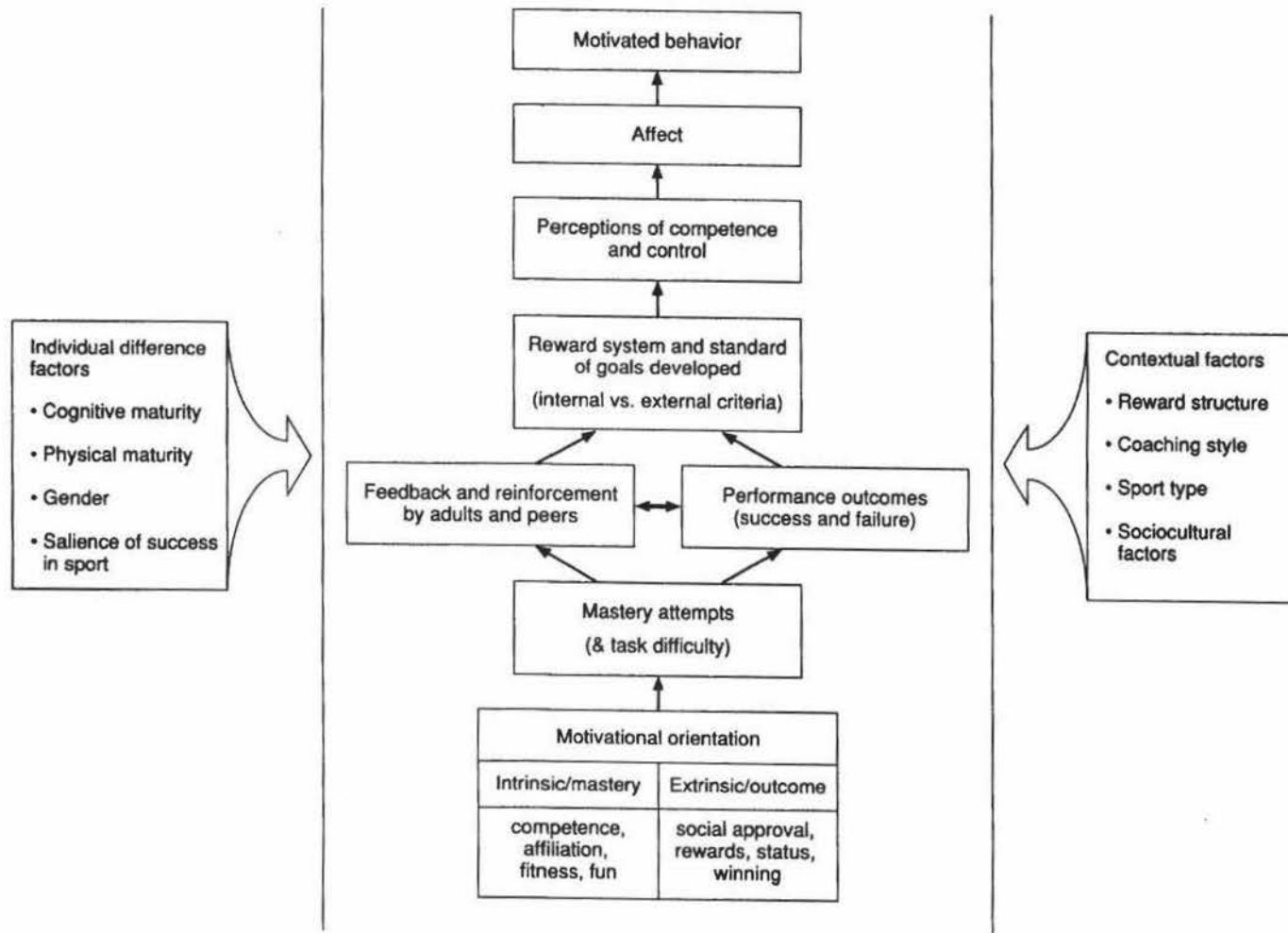


Figure 2: A Proposed Integrated Model of Sport Motivation (Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992, p. 90).

Sport socialisation literature

A definition

The definition of socialisation depends on the theoretical approach taken by the researcher(s) (Coakley, 1998). Greendorfer broadly defined socialisation as, “enculturation – the means by which beliefs, values, and the ways of society are communicated to individuals so that they can become culturally competent” (1992, p. 202). Hardman (1997) goes further than this and stated that, socialisation is something that is required of an individual and is a process whereby individuals become participating members of society, which in turn, induces its members to behave in socially acceptable ways, absorbing the values, standards and beliefs current in that society. Coakley criticises definitions referring to socialisation as a one-way process and instead offers a definition emphasising the interactive nature of the process,

Socialization is an active process of learning and social development that occurs as people interact with one another and become acquainted with the social world in which they live, and as they form ideas about who they are, and make decisions about their goals and behaviors (1998, p. 88).

Implicit in all definitions is a clear inference that social qualities are not innate, but are environmentally determined through social interaction, and also relevant, “is the potential for socialisation to be subject to ideological and political manipulation” (Hardman, 1997, p.26).

Sport socialisation has been a popular research phenomenon across primarily the sociological, psychological and anthropological disciplines. Each discipline seeks to understand how an individual comes to be involved in the sporting experience. Previous research literature can be categorised in three areas of interest:

- Becoming involved in physical activity or sport,
- Staying involved or maintaining involvement, and
- Leaving or disengaging from physical activity or sport (Greendorfer, 1992).

The remainder of this section will mainly review literature pertaining to socialisation *into* sport, as this is more pertinent to the focus of the present study, which investigated the influence of socialising agents on Pacific women's netball experiences. The socialisation *through* sport and *out* of sport literature will only be briefly introduced.

Socialisation *into* sport literature

Particular attention in the sport socialisation research area is focused on identifying antecedents of sporting involvement, that is, how individuals become involved in sports or socialisation *into* sport. Kenyon and McPherson (1974) developed a theoretical model now used widely in recent sport socialisation literature, which depicts three clusters viewed to be the determinants of active sport participation (Figure 3).

This model explains how individuals acquire the essential skills; knowledge, values and dispositions to enact various sport roles, assuming the socialisation process is continuous throughout the life cycle. The model suggests that an individual comes to learn their sporting role through their *Personal attributes*, (that is, their ascribed and achieved, physical, psychological, and sociological characteristics), which interacts with *Significant others*, (which most studies have identified to be family, peer group, teachers, coaches and role models), who are found within a variety of *Socialisation situations* (the context in which socialisation takes place, physical, social and cultural environments) (Greendorfer, 1992; McPherson, Curtis & Loy, 1989).

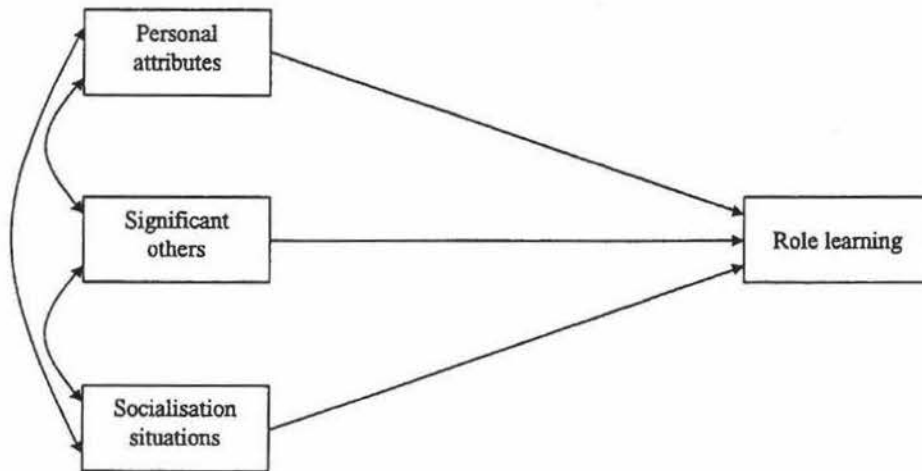


Figure 3: The Three Elements of the Socialisation Process.

From Kenyon and McPherson (1973).

Of the three clusters of determinants, most of the research attention has been focused on investigating the affects of significant others, the *agents of socialisation*. Greendorfer (1992) stated that this was primarily because significant others had a special “prestige, proximity, and power to distribute love, rewards, and punishment which consciously or unconsciously influence the sport socialisation process” (p. 205). Most studies identify family, peer group, teachers, coaches and role models as major agents of sport socialisation, and the father as the most influential significant other (Greendorfer & Ewing, 1981; Lewko & Greendorfer, 1988; Yang, Telama & Laakso, 1996).

The influence of different agents seems to vary depending on lifecycle, gender and cultural factors. For example, some studies on children’s sport socialisation suggest that the family and school are most significant during childhood, and peer groups becomes more important during adolescent and adult years (Higginson, 1985; McPherson, et al., 1989). Some researchers disagree as to who imparts the most persistent influence on children’s sport involvement – some maintain the family does (McPherson & Brown, 1988) and others assert both peers and family play a significant role (Greendorfer & Ewing, 1981; Lewko & Greendorfer, 1988). Nevertheless, as Greendorfer (1992) had stated, “the important point is that both

parents and peers hold the potential for influencing a child's sport involvement" (p. 206).

Sport socialisation of girls and women

Conflicting findings about the influence of agents has also been noted in studies considering the gender variable. Snyder and Spreitzer (1973) found that females received considerable support for athletic pursuits from parents, while Greendorfer (1977) did not. Higginson (1985) found that the socialising agent influences changed for females, from being mostly parental at the under-13 life-cycle stage to mostly coach/teacher oriented during high school years.

The major difference affecting the socialisation of girls and boys into sport is the consistency of the process (Cann, 1991). There is an abundance of research evidence indicating that boys and girls are socialised according to societal gender stereotypes, of which 'maleness' is equated with physical prowess and 'femaleness' is not (Cann, 1991; Lutter, 1994; Mackintosh, 1992; Willis, 1982). The social climate is gender-biased whereby boys' interests in sports are more likely to be supported with readily available sporting opportunities found through the school and other organised sports institutions (for example, Kiwi Rugby and rugby league clubs), while "girls will find very few models, peer or adult, outside of the family to emulate, and other institutions will do little to cultivate or support the female's interests" (Cann, 1991, p. 197).

Nixon (1981) maintained that the influence of significant others, "are likely to be shaped by the social structural conditions and cultural values and norms of the environment in which the socialization agents are operating" (p. 84). Thus even when females have received encouragement to participate in sports within the family, strong pressure can be felt from the wider society to conform to traditional notions of 'femininity'. Cann (1991) asserts that while the family plays a crucial role in determining the sports participation both for girls and boys, unlike boys, girls will find little encouragement outside of the family.

Shannon (1987) in her review of sociological literature on youth in sport and physical education in New Zealand highlighted the lack of support females received from physical education programmes in New Zealand schools. For example, the lack of resources for girls' sports in schools, the high status accorded to male, competitive team sports by school administrators and the tailoring of physical education and school sport programmes according to teacher expectations that girls will be "uninterested, uncooperative and not competitive" (p. 22). The lack of media coverage of female sport (McGregor, 1994), limited access to sport for females constrained by traditional roles of 'wifeness' and 'motherhood' (Dempsey, 1989; Thompson, 1995, 1999a, 1999b), and limiting attitudes towards females in community sport are also seen as structural barriers to young women's participation in sport (King, 1988; Selby & Lewko, 1976).

While the alarming attrition rate in children's sports has enthused researchers to investigate children's sport socialisation, no such motivation is present for adult sport socialisation. The bulk of the literature is focused on college-age athletes or elite male athletes, and older age groups have been completely ignored (Greendorfer, 1992). Greendorfer's (1977) study of female socialisation found that an active parent in the home was salient, with sporting participation considered a "normal or expected" family activity. Also, in support of Shannon's (1987) contentions, the school was not a major influencer but merely reinforced performance and taught skills previously learned elsewhere. Higginson's (1985) study of elite female athletes found that the family unit was a significant agent during childhood, and by senior high school, teachers/coaches became more important. On this occasion, the shift of influence to coaches is not surprising considering the sample were elite female athletes. The strength of Higginson's study results is questionable as his investigation focused on the influence of only four agents of socialisation (father, mother, coach/teacher and peers) and failed to account for other agents which may influence female socialisation, for example, sisters, brothers, extended family members, media role models or self motivation.

Thompson's (1985) study of a sample of New Zealand women orienteers, who represented a segment of the female population that was predominantly white, well educated and of a higher socio-economic status, provided some insights into female

adult socialisation in New Zealand. Thompson found that for younger women, the family unit was important in introducing them to the sport, particularly an active parent. For older women, participation in the sport was mediated from their immediate social circle of friends and work colleagues. The social groupings of friends, family and colleagues was particularly functional in introducing women to the activity, however, once the women are participating, the social group interaction appears to be simply an enhancement of the leisure activity. Women talked about self-motivation and showed a strong commitment to continue their involvement because they enjoyed the intrinsic values of the sport, namely challenge and success. Leberman and Chu (2000) in their exploration of elite female rugby players in New Zealand also found the same socialisation influences for female rugby participation.

Sport socialisation of minority groups

Little attention has been paid to exploring the sport socialisation of minority groups. Only a handful of researchers have attempted to address this gap, and once again, this literature more often than not, investigates the experiences of minority males rather than females (Coakley, 1998; Lovell, 1991). Greendorfer and Ewing (1981) studied 9-12 year olds, to determine the socialisation processes between African American and Anglo American children. Major differences were found, with white children being more influenced by fathers and teachers, whereas black children were more influenced by opportunity set than are whites, that is, the social structural elements such as access to sport facilities, equipment and programmes was a salient influence of black children's sports participation, rather than any *significant other*.

Gender differences were also found; white boys were more influenced by peers and fathers, whereas mothers and teachers were most influential for white girls; among black children, black males were most influenced by peers, whereas black females were more influenced by teachers and sisters. Harris's (1994) study of young male basketballers provided some support for Greendorfer's findings. Harris found that African American basketballers received significantly more social support for playing basketball than Anglo Americans, and this active encouragement came not from the family unit, but from nonparent significant others – peers, teachers, coaches. This result confirmed Nixon's (1981) earlier statement about how

significant others socialise according to the values and norms of their particular social environment, and with regard to Harris' (1994) findings, the socialisation agents seemed to be affected by popular racial stereotyping of white and black basketballers.

The little information available about minority women and socialisation are gleaned from the experiences of elite minority sportswomen. Smith's (1995) study of African American women sports leaders found that a number of agents were important in the socialisation of black women into the sports arena. Namely, extended family, teachers and churches were major institutions that formed unique African American communities, which insulated black youth against economic and racial oppression and encouraged sports participation as part of an overall education. Socialisation agents were often multiracial/ethnic and black women highlighted the importance of having support structures, both within and outside the family unit, in order to attain a higher status and achieve to their potential.

In New Zealand, Wrathall's (1996) study provided a glimpse of the sport socialisation process for elite Maori sportswomen. Maori sportswomen identified parents, sisters, brothers and other extended family members as principal socialisation agents. Many cited *whanau* (family/extended family) support to be crucial in both socialisation into sports and maintenance of involvement. Both Smith (1995) and Wrathall's (1996) study involved research methodologies employing small case study samples therefore the generalisability of the findings to other populations may be limited.

Socialisation *through* sport literature

The socialisation *through* sport literature mainly focuses on identifying how the sporting experience affects athletes. Underlying the entire topic of socialisation *via* sport is the assumption that sport is a unique medium or vehicle for social learning, and social outcomes are possible through participation in sport and physical activity. Therefore, most studies in this area focus on identifying the positive and negative outcomes of sport involvement (McPherson et al., 1989).

The majority of the studies in this area focused on identifying socialisation outcomes related to social roles and societal values (Greendorfer, 1992). For example, it has been argued that how a sport is played in a society reflects the dominant ideologies and values of the society (Webb, 1969), and furthermore, participation in sporting activities will socialise individuals towards an understanding of these societal principles. Global characteristics such as leadership, character and moral development, as well as those relating to diffuse roles, such as good citizenship and sportspersonship are posited to be outcomes of the sports experience (Coakley, 1998; McPherson et al., 1989).

In recent years, harsh criticism has been lodged against this line of research as new research evidence claims that outcomes related to sports participation are neither automatic nor always in a positive direction (Coakley, 1998; Greendorfer, 1992; Hodge, 1989). Coakley (1998) is particularly critical of the notion that sport participation builds character and pointed out that this particular *character logic* assumes that athletes passively internalise most of the “character-shaping-lessons” *inherently contained* in sport experiences. Coakley asserted that,

Socialization ultimately occurs through the social relationships that accompany sport participation, not through the mere fact of participation itself; that is, playing sports is less important than the relationships created in connection with sports (1998, p. 97).

Overall, there is a lack of empirical evidence to support the learning of specific character outcomes from the sporting experience, nor for the assumption that learning will be transferred from a specific sport setting to everyday life (Coakley, 1998; Greendorfer, 1992; McPherson et al., 1989).

Coakley (1998) and Greendorfer (1992) have both argued for new approaches to socialisation *through* sport research. Both agree that sport participation affects people, but sports do not cause patterned changes in the character traits of athletes, rather sport provides “social locations rich in their potential for providing memorable and influential personal, social and cultural experiences” (Coakley, 1998, p. 102). Greendorfer (1992) asserted that any learning within the sports experience will most likely be influenced by the type of experiences an individual is exposed to, for

example how the individual is socialised *into* sport and how the experience is structured by the environment and by significant others. Greendorfer (1992) thus called for a reconnection of socialisation *through* sport focus with topics traditionally found in the socialisation *into* sport area. In stating this, both noted the value of qualitative research approach in capturing the essence of what happens during sports involvement.

Socialisation *out* of sport literature

Voluntary or involuntary withdrawal from sport is part of the sporting experience, and can occur at any age and for a variety of reasons. Interest in the process of withdrawal from sport was stimulated by anecdotal accounts of former professional athletes, who experienced difficulties adjusting to life away from sport (Coakley, 1998). Thus, the majority of the literature in this area focuses on identifying the process of disengagement or on the outcomes of the process (Greendorfer, 1992).

Studies that have focused on the withdrawal process of children have found that dropping out of sport may be related to the effects of the sport experience, that is, socialisation *through* sport. For example, the emphasis on competition, the lack of fun, not receiving enough playing time and the overall structure of sports programme (Greendorfer, 1992; Hodge & Zaharopoulos, 1991; Lombardo, 1982). The behaviours of significant others particularly coaches and over-zealous parents also influences withdrawal decisions (Gaskin, 2000; Hellstedt, 1990; Martin & Dodder, 1991). For females, societal gender schemas also influenced sport abandonment (Brown, 1985; Cann, 1991; McElroy, 1983), and some recent studies also suggest a pertinent influence of racial schemas on sporting decisions (Coakley, 1998; Greendorfer & Ewing, 1981; Harris, 1994).

Overall, these findings suggest that the disengagement process can be best conceptualised by considering the interactive nature of the socialisation process; that is, entrance into sport, sport involvement and sport withdrawal processes as being continuous and transitional, rather than disruptive (Brown, 1985; Greendorfer & Blinde, 1985). Coakley (1983) suggested that sport retirement is not often a disruptive process, but a process more mild with athletes making decisions according

to the priorities in their lives. Most do not cease all physical activity, but withdraw temporarily as they negotiate other life activities.

In conclusion, the socialisation process is multidimensional, dynamic and complex. Lewko & Greendorfer (1988) claimed that despite the large number of studies, the processes of socialisation are still not well understood. In particular, there is little information on how socialisation processes operate in the lives of people from various ethnic groups and different social classes (Coakley, 1998). This study aims to address this gap in the literature and explore the socialisation processes in the lives of Pacific women netballers in New Zealand.

Race/Ethnicity and Sport Literature

One of the aims of this study is to explore the connection between ethnicity and sports participation. Therefore, a review of the literature in this area seems pertinent, and definitions for some of the terms such as *race*, *ethnicity* and *culture*, which will be used throughout this thesis, are presented here.

Studies that focus on sports and race/ethnicity are in the first instance interested in detailing the observable differences in the way people from different cultural groups play sports. These studies bridge across the sports sociology, history-politics, leisure sciences, anthropology, sports sciences and sports/exercise psychology disciplines (Duda & Allison, 1990; Jarvie, 1991).

This section will begin by establishing working definitions for concepts 'race' and 'ethnicity'. It will then review literature dealing with stylistic differences in game forms between people from different social groups. In particular, it will focus on literature pertaining to Pacific people and sport performance in New Zealand.

Working definitions of Race and Ethnicity

Any discussion using terms such as race and ethnicity can be confusing if no attempt is made to define the terms specifically. Bulmer and Solomos (1999) proposed that this is because such terms are socially defined and as such "*race* has no fixed and unchanging meaning" and whether in academic or political spheres, "race and racism

remain essentially contested concepts” (p. 7). Malik (1996) stated that legal and academic definitions of such terms are essentially based on public definitions of these terms, that is, the concept is borrowed from everyday perceptions and the variance in definitions reflects public viewpoint differences.

Sport sociologist Coakley (1998) provided a **definition of race**,

race refers to a category of people regarded as socially distinct because they share genetically transmitted traits believed to be important in a group or society. When people talk about “races,” they assume the existence of a classification system used to categorize all human beings into distinct groups on the basis of certain biological traits related to individuals’ genetic heritages (p. 249).

The historical underpinnings of the term ‘race’ came from scientists of the early nineteenth centuries who devoted research towards attempting to prove theories of human evolution and development (Bulmer & Solomos, 1999). Spoonley (1993) explained that these theories of race and human evolution concluded that there existed a hierarchy of races, which motivated theories of racial superiority and inferiority. This hierarchy of races was useful for justifying those at the top dispossessing and dominating the ones at the bottom (Coakley, 1998; Spoonley, 1993).

Despite substantial literature discounting the validity of ‘race’, it has not prevented its common usage as a way to explain the social world. Race and race theories remain powerful ideologies in many societies including New Zealand (Laidlaw, 1993; Spoonley, 1993). The term *racism* “describes the *ideological* belief that people can be classified into ‘races’ and that this explains other forms of social variation” (Spoonley, 1993, p. 3).

There is much confusion about the use of the terms ‘race’ and ‘ethnicity’ and there is a tendency by many to use the terms interchangeably. Thomas (1986) provided a **definition of ethnicity** within a New Zealand context,

The term *ethnicity* is generally taken to mean a categorization of group membership based on self-report or labelling by others. Such labelling is assumed to reflect perceived membership in, individual identification with, and sense of belonging to, the group to which the ethnic label refers (pp. 371-372).

The criteria for making judgements about ethnicity usually include one or more of the following attributes which Van den Berghe (1981) called “ethnic markers” (p. 28),

- Ethnic self-identity – the label a person prefers;
- Ascribed ethnic identity – the label others give to a person;
- Cultural identity – the degree to which a person is familiar with and prefers a particular lifestyle;
- Racial identity – based on physical appearance (e.g., skin colour);
- Nationality – based on country of birth or citizenship; and
- Descent – based on ethnicity of parents (Thomas, 1986, p. 372).

Therefore, the main difference between race and ethnicity, is that race emphasises the categorisation of people according to *biological* characteristics, whereas, ethnicity focuses on *culturally* based orientations and behaviours. “Ethnicity is determined by speech, demeanor, manners, esoteric lore or some other proof of competence in a behavioral repertoire characteristic of the group” (Van den Burghe, 1981, p. 29).

Definitions of culture usually have no reference to biological characteristics such as skin colour because *culture* refers to learned patterns of behaviours. Volkerling (2000) presents a **definition of culture**,

Culture is now commonly understood as that set of socially structured practices by which meanings are produced and exchanged within a group (p. 68).

A group who shares these practices and meanings can be referred to as *cultural groups*. However, Thomas (1986) assert that the term culture tends to be ambiguous because there is no generally agreed list of the behaviours or material products that can be taken to constitute the “culture” of a particular group, and these cultural signifiers tend to overlap between groups and fail to deal with biculturalism or cultural change effectively.

The range of race/ethnicity and sport literature

Duda and Allison (1990) proposed that studies concentrating on variability in sporting experience between people who occupy unique social groupings, generally evolve from the biological, sociological, anthropological and psychological fields.

The most long-standing topic of interest within this range has tended to be studies by researchers focused on providing physiologic explanations about the racial differences in performance between athletes. The biological sciences, for example, frequently used genes to explain performance differences between black and white athletes (Davis, 1990; Mathisen & Mathisen, 1991; Samson & Yerles, 1988). This has fuelled a debate about whether performance differences are a function of biology or the environment (Carlston, 1983).

Sport sociologists have argued that these performance differences are more related to environment and can be attributed to sociological processes such as differential socialisation by cultural groups (Allison, 1982a; Greendorfer & Ewing, 1981; Harris, 1994); discriminatory practices fuelled by the use of 'race logic' by sport actors motivated through power relations in unique capitalist societies (Coakley, 1998; Hallinan, 1991; Jarvie, 1991; Maguire, 1991; McConnell, 2000; McPherson, et al., 1989; Myers, 1998; Paraschak, 1991; Parry & Parry, 1991), and the corresponding response of the victimised group, such as the use of sports to assert and maintain a unique ethnic identity and 'safer' communal group (Abney, 1999; Allison, 1982a, 1982b; Blanchard, 1974; Burton, 1991; LaFlamme, 1977; Paraschak, 1997; Teevale, 2001). Some researchers try to explain differential sporting participation rates between racial or ethnic groups by posing socio-economic and/or ethnicity theories (Busser, Hyam & Carruthers, 1996; Floyd, Shiness, McGuire, Noe, 1994; Hutchison, 1987; Philipp, 1995). Some look at the impact of sports such as increasing a group's mobility in society (Maguire, 1988; Oliver, 1980, Purcell, 1993; Semyonov, 1984).

Anthropologists have focused on the dynamics of cultural diversity in play, game and sport activities among different ethnic groups, and furthermore, how sports and games may hinder and/or promote assimilation of ethnic minority groups into mainstream pluralistic cultures and societies (Allison, 1982b; Day, 1981; Walter, Brown & Grabb, 1991).

The impact of sport on the individual is more the territory of psychologists who have begun to study psychological factors such as motivation, achievement orientation or perceived ability that may be associated with the observed racial/ethnic differences in sport performance (Duda, 1985; Duda & Allison, 1990; Morgan, Griffin & Heyward, 1996). But as Duda and Allison (1990) have stated, there is a dearth of sport

psychology research that includes race/ethnicity as an important predictor for observable behaviours.

The bulk of the literature in this field has mainly equated race with black male athletes, and little scholarly energy is diverted to the analysis of ethnic minority women, and not just black women, but Chicano, Asian, Jews, Indian Muslim, indigenous groups and other social groups maintaining unique ethnic identities (Birrell, 1989, 1990; Jarvie, 1991). The handful of literature on race/ethnicity, women and sports generally focus on the structural barriers within the sporting experience of minority ethnic women, that is, identifying barriers to sports participation (Carroll, 1993; Carrington, Chivers and Williams, 1987; Dixey, 1982; Fleming, 1993, 1994; Lovell, 1991; Pasavento Raymond & Kelly, 1991; Taylor & Toohey, 1995, 1996; Stratta, 1998).

Examples of stylistic differences in game forms

Sport and race/ethnicity studies have found evidence of cultural variation in style and meaning of the sports experience, particularly for minority ethnic groups dominated by a ruling majority group. For example, Allison (1979; 1982a; 1982b) along with others (Allison & Luschen, 1979; Blanchard, 1974; Paraschak, 1991, 1997) have written profusely about the existence of a Navajo Indian form of basketball, which is stylistically different from Anglo American basketball systems. The Navajo pick-up basketball game, often called Navajo 21, differed in game rules, strategy and general content; for example, more risk-taking in shot selection, players involved range from three to twenty-five, no maximum number was set; aversion to physical aggressiveness – lack of body contact, less rule restrictions and rule enforcement, competitive orientation emphasising the team and an aversion to individual public recognition, status and reward. Allison (1979, 1982a) asserted that Navajo athletes transformed the basketball game form to fit their Navajo cultural schema and value orientations. However, Navajo styles varied depending on the context. In interscholastic games controlled by mainstream culture and coaches, Navajo athletes would execute Anglo styles, so that Navajo athletes would often play two different games adapting to the demand of the situation.

Carlston (1983) identified differences between African American and Anglo American basketball play, with black styles termed “city”, “playground” or “ghetto” ball and white styles termed “noncity”, “blue collar” or “midwest”. Carlston asserted that the playing styles were a result of differential environments, rather than biological, psychological or sociological factors. That is black basketballers are often better in one-on-one play and white basketballers better as pure shooters, due to the differential playing environments – inner city games versus non-city games (rural, small town suburban communities) where athletes learn their basketball skills.

Burton (1991) also provided compelling commentary on the way Caribbean cricketers play cricket in the West Indies, and stated,

West Indian cricket, in other words, has retained its English form while being injected with a new and specifically West Indian content and meaning. In the course of its transposition to the Caribbean, cricket, like so much else, has been comprehensively creolised (p. 8).

“‘Black’ cricketing methods” were described to be the unrelenting use of bowling of exceptional pace and aggression, showmanship - the scoring of runs with panache, style, flamboyance rather than “the mere scoring of runs” (Burton, 1991, p. 17) and the transformation of cricket games to ‘carnivals’, reflecting West Indian street culture. Burton also talked about the unique and indispensable involvement of crowds of spectators in West Indian cricket.

What gives West Indian cricket its unique Creole character is, in a very real sense, just as much participants as the players themselves, so that the frontier between players and spectators – the boundary-rope which, in England until a few years ago, represented a quasi-sacred limit that no spectator would dare transgress – is, in the West Indies and in matches in this county in which West Indians are involved, continually being breached by members of the crowd to field the ball, to congratulate successful batsmen and bowlers and, in not a few instances, to express their disgust at umpires’ decisions, the tactics of the opposition and so on (1991, p. 9).

In sum, stylistic game forms seem to vary between ethnic groups particularly in pluralistic countries. The existing theories posed to explain these sporting stylistic differences have been generally biological, psychological and sociological in nature.

Existing theories on stylistic differences in game forms – the ‘Polynesian’ style in a New Zealand context

Stylistic differences in playing styles have also been noted in a New Zealand context. There is a lack of ‘scientific’ research and literature about Pacific athletes in New Zealand, but there is a glut of popular media literature, reporting popular theories about ‘Polynesian’ athletes in New Zealand. The following section will present what has been written previously about Pacific athletes in New Zealand.

Hyde’s (1993) article, *White Men Can’t Jump: The growing Polynesian influence and presence in sport* provided the first published discussion on the success of “brown-skinned” sportsmen and sportswomen in New Zealand (p. 63). This article tried to explain the factors for the success of a Polynesian race of people in the New Zealand sports arena and especially in high profile sports such as rugby, rugby league and netball. Biological, psychological and sociological theories were presented from a range of high-profile sporting personalities, both ‘Polynesian’ and ‘non-Polynesian’, occupying player, sports management, sports coaching, sports media, and academic roles.

Physiologic explanations for sport performance differences

Within the New Zealand context, there is some literature, mainly commentary, that present a physiological explanation for the sporting prowess of Polynesians including Hyde’s article (Leilua, 1996a, 1996b; Macdonald, 1988). These biological theories, consistent with theories posed about black athletes’ sporting prowess in America and Great Britain, described Polynesians success and flair in terms of natural or instinctive qualities. Auckland rugby trainer Jim Blair, described the physical attributes of Polynesians derived from their genetic endowment.

The Polynesian is basically mesomorphic, tending to be big-boned, muscular, of average height, wide shoulders, thin waist. They have a higher proportion of fast twitch muscle fibre which is the source of their explosive style and the reason they are fast over short distances and the reason you don’t see Polynesian marathon runners (in Hyde, 1993, p. 69).

The interest in explaining Polynesian sporting success through bioscientific discourse is ignited in Houghton’s anthropological study that proposes a genetic factor in the success of Polynesian sportspeople in New Zealand (Leilua, 1996a, 1996b).

Houghton asserted that the navigational lifestyles of Polynesians through hundreds of years in the Pacific Ocean had necessitated the evolution process of increased muscularity, and that “today’s Polynesians have inherited their body types from these early navigators” (in Leilua, 1996b, p. 27). Houghton further argued that early Polynesian navigators had a predominance of fast-twitch fibres, natural hand-to-eye co-ordination and a sense of rhythm, which are assets suitable for such sports as sprinting, netball, rugby, weightlifting and boxing. Houghton concluded that, “the relatively recent phenomenon of Polynesian prowess in sports is attributed to the fact that previously, Polynesians weren’t reaching their genetic potential because of their (island) life-styles” (in Leilua, 1996b, p.27). Houghton attributes the prowess of Polynesian athletes to the availability of a balanced Western diet, and credits Jonah Lomu’s rugby success to the disciplined eating and exercise regimes he had learnt from his experience with the All Blacks.

Houghton’s theories of the evolution of Polynesian peoples and the extent to which genetic traits influence the sporting prowess of Polynesians is simplistic and unsound. Indigenous historical accounts of Polynesian navigational stories cite inter-tribal, inter and intra-island warfare, harsh environmental-island conditions, overpopulation, trade, societal power struggles and the navigational spirit of Polynesian peoples, as the key factors which drove Polynesian navigation around the Pacific ocean. Expeditions were not always formulated with the purpose of selecting the fittest and the most muscular Polynesians to take part in searches for new land masses. Most often sea journeys were forced upon people at times which were not of their choosing. Flight from victorious warring factions proved to be a constant reason for seafaring, and it was often the physically and numerically weaker group of people who were forced to escape to sea (Andersen, 1969; Walker, 1990). The Polynesian selection process was an insignificant practice in Polynesian navigational histories. Therefore a claim that it is a dominant genetic trait inherited by the Polynesians today is preposterous. Houghton omits to acknowledge the navigational lifestyles and achievements of white people who travelled half-way around the globe to colonise and settle the South Pacific. This navigational lifestyle of white people should also have resulted in increased muscularity in them which might as readily be invoked to explain their present-day sporting prowess. (Teevale, 2001).

The search for innate biological explanations for sporting success does not acknowledge the complexity of the social environment of the sports experience (Davis, 1990; Jarvie, 1991; Mathisen & Mathisen, 1991). Why then, is there a continuing insistence on probing for biological evidence? In the first instance, these researchers possess a belief in the concept of 'race' and seek to use it to provide simplistic answers to complex social issues and phenomena (Coakley, 1998; Myers, 1998). Criticisms of genetic explanations for sporting successes include the difficulties in determining what a race of people might be given the great range of genetic variation which has been shown to exist within the so-called 'racial' groups, as Samson and Yerles had stated,

That intra-race variation is such that there are probably more anthropometric and physiologic similarities between a Black champion and a White champion than between a Black champion and a Black non-athlete (1988, p. 114).

Carlston (1983) asserted that physiologic differences, if they exist, still do not clearly lead to an explanation of stylistic performance differences such as "black players' 'improvisation', 'electric self-expression', to shoot free throws more poorly or to pass less often than white players" (1983, p. 32). The validity of biological explanations to explain different game styles is generally discounted by most researchers (Coakley, 1998; Davis, 1990; Mathisen & Mathisen, 1991; Parry & Parry, 1991; Samson & Yerles, 1988).

Psychological explanations for sport performance differences

Connected closely to the biologic explanations of sporting performance between athletes from different racial/ethnic groups, are interpretations about the effect of psychological traits on sporting behaviours. For Pacific sportspeople in New Zealand, there has been a tendency in the popular media literature and televised programming to stereotype the Polynesian athlete, portraying elements of sporting behaviour related to physicality and psychological states.

As Hyde (1993) highlighted in his article, "a common refrain once heard about Polynesian athletes was that they lacked discipline." (1993, p. 67). This "common refrain", remarkably similar to assertions made about African American athletes (Brinson & Robinson, 1991; Myers, 1998), asserts that Polynesian athletes, while

possessing natural physical endowments for sporting success, lacked the psychological intelligence to control their sporting behaviours. This “common refrain” was apparently found in rugby and netball circles and the general attitude, according to Grant Fox, ex-All Black rugby player, was that Polynesian players lacked “the right kind of mental attitude” and tactical thinking (in Hyde, 1993, p.67).

The few studies that have delved into cross-cultural analysis in exercise and sport psychology have noted that the empirical data is thus far, conflicting (Duda & Allison, 1990). Morgan *et al.*, (1996) noted that the perception of success and failure in sporting contexts appear to be culturally and situationally determined. Duda (1985) concluded that any differential attitudes presented by members of specific ethnic groups appear to be mediated through cultural norms. Carlston (1983) declared that psychological findings about attitudes and personality differences still do not explain stylistic sporting performance behaviours. As Carlston stated, neither physiological nor personality differences have been shown to exist between black and white populations of the United States as a whole nor between carefully selected samples of black and white athletes. Furthermore, the tremendous heterogeneity in body and personality types within each racial group contrasts markedly with the homogeneity attributed to the athletic styles of each group. (1983, p. 32).

Sociological explanations for sport performance differences

Not convinced of biological and psychological theories to explain performance differences, sociologists posed their own. Differences in socialisation of athletes were tenuously related to athletic performance (Greendorfer & Ewing, 1981; Harris, 1994). For example, as Carlston (1983) expressed, an overemphasis on sports in black communities (Oliver, 1980), might well lead blacks to take up basketball at a younger age and to devote themselves more thoroughly to the sport and consequently, might explain the greater talent of black players. This could lead to their overrepresentation in the game (Coakley, 1998), but it is still unclear how this would lead to the various other stylistic and performance differences that have been observed. If this were true, an assumption is advanced to state that white professional basketball players, who have devoted innumerable hours to the game should also invariably exhibit more of the “black playground style” than black youngsters on the

playgrounds, who are relatively new at the game. "As this does not appear to be true, the assumption that greater experience with the game necessarily leads to more expressive play seems unjustified" (Carlston, 1983, p. 33).

Hyde's (1993) article offers a few sociological interpretations for the rise of Polynesian athletes in the upper levels of New Zealand sports. Although there are no statistics on the level of Pacific people's athletic participation, Hyde posited numerical overrepresentation as an explanation. "Partly it's a matter of numbers. There are more Polynesian athletes today because there are more Polynesian athletes" (Hyde, 1993, p. 64). Second, the communal nature of Polynesian society is posited to be suitable for team sports, of which "the two rugby codes and netball often have strong club traditions that have become the ideal structure for family groups as well as the development of players" (Hyde, 1993, p. 65). Third, economic forces have led Pacific athletes to choose team sports because it is less expensive than most individual sports. Fourth, the emergence of the Polynesian athlete is attributed to the current Pacific cultural renaissance whereby sports are used to increase ethnic pride.

Hyde's explanations make a contribution towards explaining the *rise in numbers* of *visible* Polynesian athletes in only *some* high profile sports, mainly rugby, rugby league and netball. Teevale (2001) criticised Hyde's statement that "an increasing number of our top New Zealand sportsmen and sportswomen are brown-skinned" (Hyde, 1993, p. 63) and asserted that the statement is only partially correct in reference to high profile sports, namely rugby, rugby league and netball, but that the "statement needs to be balanced with another acknowledging that despite these honours, Pacific people are under-represented in the many other sports in which mainstream New Zealand participates, for example, swimming, field hockey, sailing, golf, tennis, athletics, equestrian to name a few" (Teevale, 2001, p. 218). Even accepting the supposed increase of Pacific participation numbers in netball still does not account for differential sporting styles displayed by Pacific and *Palagi* (New Zealand European) netballers.

In conclusion, the biological, psychological and sociological theories presented to explain race differences in athletic performance might account for a few differences in physical talents, the expressiveness of playing styles, and the racial/ethnic

overrepresentation of athletes in certain sports, but there are still gaps in the understanding of race differences in playing styles. Researchers are becoming aware that “a variety of different theories might be unparsimoniously combined to obtain some explanatory power” (Carlston, 1983, p.33). Carlston advanced the existing theories by proposing an environmental explanation to differential sporting performances. Birrell (1990) advocated for a more critical approach for future race and sport studies, one that “conceives of race as a culturally produced marker of a particular relationship of power; to see racial identity as contested; and to ask how racial relations are produced and reproduced through sport” (1990, p.186). A cultural studies approach, which has a general framework for understanding relations of dominance and subordination, was recommended.

Summary

In summary, the three areas of research, participation motivation, sports socialisation and race/ethnicity and sport studies, all commonly lack breadth in surveying diverse samples. Previous research samples have generally been white Anglo, elite, male and youthful in characteristics, and for race/ethnicity studies, elite African-American male samples. As a consequence, the sporting experiences of ethnic minority, non-elite, female adult groups are almost non-existent. This study is motivated to address this gap in the literature, and to test the robustness of previous findings across cultural groups in a New Zealand context. The information from this study will be particularly beneficial to sports leaders and managers who need to meet the sporting needs of diverse communities that make up New Zealand society. Diversifying the research focus across all groups will ensure that equity in sport opportunities is maintained.

Chapter 3: The Social Context

This chapter will provide a brief outline of the cultural context of the study. First, it will present a picture of the sporting environment, detailing netball in New Zealand. Second, the demographics of Pacific peoples in Aotearoa/New Zealand will be described.

Netball in New Zealand

From its early introduction to New Zealand at the turn of the twentieth century as 'basketball' and then to its later name conversion to netball, the game has been referred to as the national game for women (Nauright & Broomhall, 1994). Since the 1930s, netball has been the dominant women's team sport in New Zealand. Today, netball is still the premier women's sport with more than 122,000 affiliated members involved in the Netball New Zealand (NNZ) sanctioned competitions (Netball New Zealand, 2000). An estimated 80,000 more women and girls are involved in non-registered competitions, for instance summer and twilight leagues and indoor netball competitions as organised by private organisations. According to the latest Hillary Commission participation figures, it is still the number one team sport for New Zealand women and girls (1999).

Nauright and Broomhall (1994) have argued that the popularity of the game stems from the ability of women to control the game outside of male influence, and it became an appropriate cultural activity for women and girls partly because its existence fitted into the male hegemonic system so well. The dominant images of female physical activity suggests that female sports should not involve physical contact nor take over spaces assigned for male sports, that is, grassed fields which men use for rugby, soccer and cricket games. As Nauright and Broomhall stated,

Almost as soon as netball became organized in New Zealand, the media and medical and health professional hailed it as a great game for women especially as it fit into the dominant conceptions of proper female behaviour and physical activity. ... As a sport, netball does not seriously challenge notions about the ways in which women should express themselves physically and therefore does not pose a threat to the gender order in the ways that many other sports do, such as women's rugby or soccer (1994, p. 404).

Despite the recent progress of the game to include men, the popular attitude persists that netball is a women's game, and rugby is a man's game.

Regardless of the patronising attitudes among many males and the media, women in netball have gained a wide acceptance in New Zealand society. This is reflected in the ability of the governing body to win major sponsorship and television coverage rights. Netball receives coverage as one of the nation's four major sports (along with rugby, rugby league and cricket), including the airing of test matches on prime time television and live coverage of national league games on Saturday and Sunday. It also receives radio, newspaper and magazine coverage and is reviewed regularly in sports magazines, but particularly in women's magazines, with profiles of the game's personalities and their lifestyles.

Australia and New Zealand have traditionally dominated world netball since the beginning of international tournaments in the 1960s. The national representative team are named the 'Silver Ferns', and are currently second best in the world rankings, after losing by one goal to archrivals Australia in the 1999 World Netball championships final held in Christchurch.

Nationally, netball was administered by the New Zealand Basketball Association since 1924, and by the New Zealand Netball Association after the first world tournament in 1963, where the English called the game netball. Netball was still called *basketball* right up until the 1970s, when it was dropped and netball became the name for the sport. Mainly this occurred because of an attack by maledom, as Hawes & Barker (1999) stated,

The female use of 'basketball' had been coming under increasing attack from maledom: 'Without wishing to cause offence to the tens of thousands of girls who pull on those hideous black stockings every Saturday, the game they are about to play is not basketball. New Zealand plays to netball rules, is affiliated to the World Netball body and won the netball championship in Perth. But still they call the game 'basketball',' stated an Auckland newspaper.

Lance Cross, chairman of the New Zealand Indoor Basketball Association, said this on the matter: 'The men were forced into it. "Basketball" had an image of girls in short skirts and black stockings which did not appeal to red-blooded men. We had to call the game "indoor basketball" to avoid confusion.'

In 1970 netballers left the word 'basketball' to men (pp. 69-70).

The Netball NZ sanctioned competition takes place on Saturdays right throughout the country. To play netball, a player must join a club team or if a player is also a compulsory-schools student, then a school team. Netball is the primary winter school sport for girls; typically over 70% of the netball teams derive from school teams (see Table 2). Generally, schoolgirls must play netball for their school and not club teams. Both club and school structures are volunteer-based, therefore team coaches, managers and club administrators are normally either teachers, parents or senior players/ ex-players themselves.

An analysis of participation rates over the last 5 years shows some interesting trends (Table 2). Despite the small increases in total participation numbers, the club senior women's competition numbers have decreased steadily, so that it is now 1000 teams (approximately 10,000 players) less than in 1994. The introduction of the Kiwi netball league for primary school players has helped bolster the numbers in the last few years, but it will take another 5 years before an assessment can be made about the flow-on effect of these numbers onto the senior level game.

Table 2: Netball NZ Participation Numbers 1994-2000 Seasons, in Numbers of Teams. (Netball New Zealand Annual Reports, 1995-2000).

| YEAR | COMPETITIONS | | | | TOTAL |
|----------|--------------|-----------|---------|-----------|---------|
| | Senior | Secondary | Primary | Kiwi | |
| 1994 | 3, 705 | 3, 287 | 3, 454 | No record | 10, 446 |
| % | 35.5 | 31.5 | 33.0 | - | 100 |
| 1995 | 3, 608 | 3, 249 | 3, 140 | 1, 879 | 11, 876 |
| % | 30.4 | 27.4 | 26.4 | 15.8 | 100 |
| Change # | -97 | -38 | -314 | +1, 879 | +1, 430 |
| % | -5.09% | -4.11% | -6.63% | +15.52% | |
| 1996 | 3, 404 | 3, 234 | 3, 062 | 2, 187 | 11, 887 |
| % | 28.6 | 27.2 | 25.8 | 18.4 | 100 |
| Change # | -204 | -15 | -78 | +308 | +11 |
| % | -1.74% | -0.15% | -0.68% | +2.88% | |
| 1997 | 3, 304 | 3, 226 | 3, 108 | 2, 271 | 11, 909 |
| % | 27.7 | 27.1 | 26.1 | 19.1 | 100 |
| Change # | -100 | -8 | +46 | +84 | +22 |
| % | -0.90% | -0.12% | +0.34% | +0.67% | |
| 1998 | 3, 232 | 3, 209 | 3, 370 | 2, 375 | 12, 186 |
| % | 26.5 | 26.3 | 27.7 | 19.5 | 100 |
| Change # | -72 | -17 | +262 | +104 | +277 |
| % | -1.22% | -0.76% | +1.55% | +0.42 | |
| 1999 | 2, 920 | 3, 245 | 3, 565 | 2, 314 | 12, 044 |
| % | 24.0 | 27.0 | 30.0 | 19.0 | 100 |
| Change # | -312 | -36 | +195 | -61 | +142 |
| % | -2.52% | -0.67% | +2.35% | -0.49% | |
| 2000 | 2, 700 | 3, 397 | 4, 945 | 1, 193 | 12, 235 |
| % | 22.1 | 27.8 | 40.4 | 9.7 | 100 |
| Change # | -220 | +152 | +1,380 | -1,121 | +191 |
| % | -1.93% | +0.76% | +10.42% | -10.75% | |

Reviewing the participation rates for the Senior competition across all 12 Regional entities between the 1999 and 2000 seasons, shows all Regional entities bar one had a drop off in numbers (Table 3). The one exception stabilised their members figure from the previous season.

Table 3: Participation Numbers in Senior competition across New Zealand Regions, shown in Total Team Numbers (Netball New Zealand Annual reports, 1999-2000).

| Regional Entity | 1999 Season | 2000 Season | Change |
|------------------|-------------|-------------|--------|
| Northern | 264 | 229 | -35 |
| Auckland | 232 | 232 | =0 |
| Counties/Manukau | 226 | 188 | -38 |
| Bay of Plenty | 137 | 135 | -2 |
| Waikato | 325 | 318 | -7 |
| Eastern | 186 | 168 | -18 |
| Western | 347 | 317 | -30 |
| Wellington | 283 | 261 | -22 |
| Tasman | 135 | 122 | -13 |
| Canterbury | 466 | 451 | -15 |
| Otago | 190 | 170 | -20 |
| Southland | 129 | 109 | -20 |
| Totals | 2,920 | 2,700 | |

The statistics are of a concern to NNZ – the national governing body, who has the responsibility for the growth of the game. The senior competition level is particularly important for breeding top-level women players for national representative teams. The strength and public success of the national team is important for generating greater participation numbers.

In summary, netball has traditionally been the premier women’s sport in New Zealand. The sport has evolved over the years as a result of societal and global changes. In these times, like most sports, netball is operating under immense societal pressure to maintain participation numbers (Hillary Commission, 2000a) as demographic and lifestyle trends affect the leisure resources of its present and potential market. The impacting lifestyle trends include, increasing work demands,

decreasing overall leisure-time, with a conflicting increase in leisure time activities, particularly tele-sport, transient communities, single parent families, metropolitan living and increasing wealth gaps.

In an attempt to meet these market demands, NNZ have planned strategically and have identified several *key drivers* for future success (Netball New Zealand, 1998). One of the factors for future success is the need for the organisational body to understand the key elements that drive both participation and spectator interest, as well as a current understanding of people's lifestyles. In light of this, the present study investigated the participation motivation of one potentially large netball target group, Pacific women, and explored their experiences as mediated by their everyday lifestyles.

Pacific people in Aotearoa/New Zealand

Over a period of some fifty-five years, a group of people from the South Pacific region arrived in New Zealand to settle. These people primarily came from the islands of Samoa, Cook-Islands, Tonga, Niue, Fiji and the Tokelaus – islands on the majority, with the exception of the Fiji Islands, encompassed in the Polynesian triangle of the South Pacific (Appendix A). The push factor for emigration included lack of economic growth, growing urban poverty, overpopulation, deficient health care and inadequate higher education opportunities. These factors led many people from the islands to start looking overseas for work, and by the late 1950s, a large flow of Polynesians began to move to New Zealand, the United States and Australia to find employment and future prosperity (Macpherson, Spoonley & Anae, 2001). Krishnan, Schoeffel and Warren (1994) liken this exodus and its push/pull factors to the earlier “emigration from the British Isles to Australia, New Zealand and North America in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries” (p. 8).

Perhaps it was through its closer physical location as well as its colonial-historical connections, that New Zealand was chosen by many Pacific people as the country to begin a new life. Many New Zealand writers state that it was also the economic boom in the post-war era that facilitated the immigration process (Krishnan et al., 1994; Lay, 1996; Macpherson, 1996; Macpherson, Spoonley & Anae, 2001). With

the post-war industrial expansion, New Zealand needed to fill labour demands and government policies reflected this need, with specific recruitment programmes into the Pacific and immigration policies that supported the process. By the 1950s, increasing numbers of Pacific workers were recruited to work in industrial productions in Wellington and Auckland, and in developing single industry towns such as Tokoroa.

Today, Pacific people make up 6 per cent of the total population in New Zealand, a total of 202,236 people and is the third largest ethnic group behind *New Zealand European* (80%) and *New Zealand Maori* (15%) groups. The *Pacific Island* population grouping are made up of six main ethnic groups, of which fifty percent are Samoan, followed by Cook Island Maori (22.5%), Tongan (16%), Niuean (8.5%), Fijian (2%) and Tokelauan (1%) (Statistics New Zealand, 1998, Figure 4).

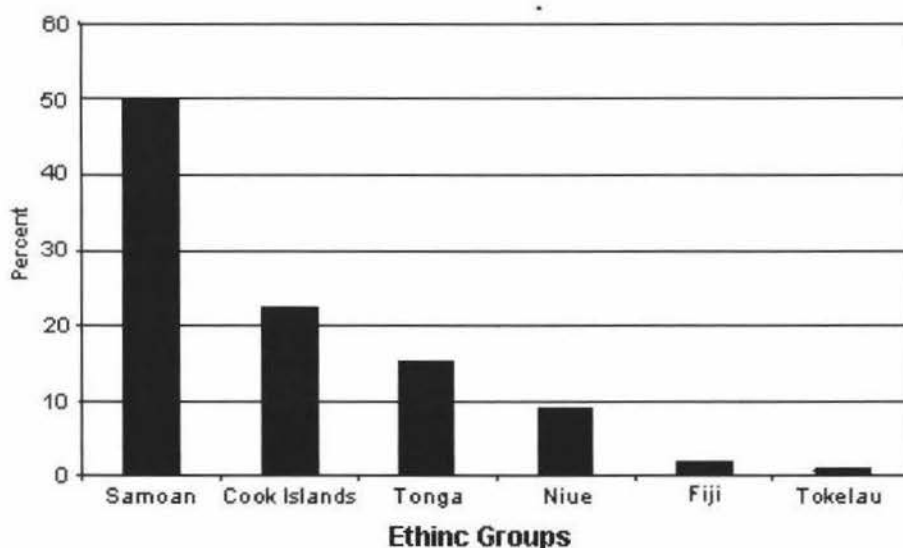


Figure 4: Pacific Peoples Ethnic Groups in New Zealand
(Statistics New Zealand, 1998).

In 1996, 94% of the Pacific population lived in the North Island – the two main centres of residence were Auckland (62.5%) and Wellington (14.5%) cities (Figure 5). Pacific people tend to live in urban centres - 97% in urban regions compared with 48% of New Zealand's total population living in urban areas (Cook, Didham and Khawaja, 2001).

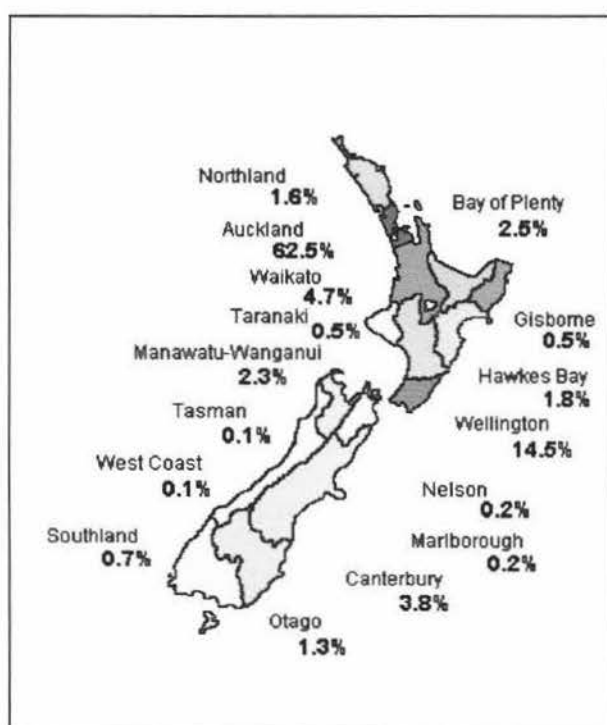


Figure 5: Pacific Peoples Population Distribution

(Statistics New Zealand, 1998)

Almost all members of the Pacific ethnic group were born either in New Zealand or the Pacific Islands. In 1996, more Pacific people stated that they were New Zealand-born (NZ-born, 58%), rather than Island-born (41%).

The 'Pacific Island' label

"Pacific Islanders exist only in New Zealand: I am called a Pacific Islander when I arrive at Auckland airport. Elsewhere I am Samoan." (Anae, 1997, p.128).

The quote aptly portrays what many people with a South Pacific heritage living in New Zealand experience in terms of personal identification. The term 'Polynesian' or 'Pacific Islander' is a pan-ethnic construct of outsiders – generally used by explorers, European colonisers, later anthropologists and archaeologists, and now Western bureaucrats and policy-makers, to define and classify a cultural group, and in this "practice of pan-ethnic labelling ... distorts the reality of people caught within these identities" (Anae, 1997, p. 128).

The use of pan-ethnic identities and labels is problematic because it embraces some ten or more ethnic groups that share only superficial similarities. As Meleisea and Schoeffel (1998) stated,

The Samoans are as different from the Tongans as the Dutch are from the Germans; and from the Cook Islanders as the British are from the French. Pacific Islanders may be differentiated by culture, language and ethnicity; by whether they were born in New Zealand or not; and by differences in their rights to automatic citizenship of New Zealand (possessed by Niueans, Tokelauns and Cook Islanders (p. 173).

The present day persistence in the term Pacific Islanders and the analytic lumping together of different South Pacific Island groups is most probably due to the fact that these groups now share a set of depressing social indicators. Economic reforms, which took place in New Zealand in the 1980s, had a disproportionately harsh impact on the welfare of Pacific migrant communities and Maori, because of their concentration in the vulnerable manufacturing-industrial sectors. This has brought on disparaging social statistics concerning health, criminal offending, educational achievement and unemployment, which point to Pacific Islanders as a disadvantaged group (McCarthy, 2001; Rhoda & Matai'a, 1998). Macpherson (1996) maintained that the treatment of Pacific immigrant population as a homogenous entity was particularly useful for government agencies hopeful to find a single solution to these social problems. This created a myth of Pacific Island 'unity' or *the* 'Pacific Island

community' where one does not, nor, some say, ever will exist (Anae, 1997; Macpherson, 1996).

This State-constructed identity of Pacific Islanders is reinforced by the recognition, in communities thus designated, that specific resources and opportunities are available to them through their acceptance of this collective identity. Nevertheless, the point is that the identity is externally imposed rather than a self-generated designation, and many Pacific people object to the label because it has negative connotations, particularly related to stereotypic images of Pacific Islanders as "overstayers" as portrayed by media in the 1970s (Anae, 1997; Fleras & Spoonley, 1999). Spoonley (2001) goes further to state that,

the traditional label 'Pacific Islander' is a racialised box ... which does not adequately acknowledge the diversity amongst those from the Pacific or those descended from migrants from the Pacific. Furthermore, the term 'Pacific Islander' has had, and continue to have, negative connotations (p. 96).

The preferred term, although it still has limitations, is "Pacific peoples" which was set by the Ministry of Pacific Island Affairs in 1999 as part of the Pacific Vision strategy. Anae (1997) reiterated that "pan-ethnic identities, whether constructed by westerners or Pacific Islanders, are inevitable and here to stay but this does not mean that people (or ethnic groups) caught within these pan-ethnic identities are homogeneous" (p. 132).

In reality, Pacific people have diverse identities that result from various experiences of being a Pacific person in the many places in which Pacific people are found throughout New Zealand. The current demographical characteristics of Pacific peoples, (i.e., high fertility, rapid intermarriage, a high population growth rate, and a youthful population) stress that there is a strong in-built momentum for future growth, hence an estimated 181% growth is predicted by 2051 whereby the New Zealand Pacific population is estimated to be at 599,000 (Cook et al., 2001). This growth will further test the validity of pan-ethnic labels.

As Pacific people in New Zealand mature into the twenty-first century, they are beginning to feel more confident in their environment, which they have come accustomed to call home. Pacific people are making significant contributions to New Zealand society in the political, cultural arena, academic and sports domain, modern music, fashion and economic scenes. This contribution is such that some say, New Zealanders no longer see themselves as part of Europe, but as a South Pacific nation and the Pacific identity, as part of New Zealand's heritage (Harawira, Speck, Vilisoni, Misa, 1995; Wane, 1994).

Chapter 4: The Research Focus

The study aims to chronicle the current netball experience of Pacific women in New Zealand. The primary research question addressed by the study is “What are the reasons for current participation in netball?”

The Research Questions

In seeking to address this broad research question, six specific research questions were developed to meet the specific research aim:

- To identify the primary influence(s) which prompted the onset of netball participation
- To identify the influence(s) which continue to motivate participation in netball
- To determine whether participation motivation is influenced by age, duration of netball experience, representative versus non-representative status, Island group(s) affiliations, Island born versus New Zealand-born (environment-cultural upbringing).
- To determine the positive and negative aspects of the netball experience
- To identify the link between netball and ethnic identity
- To determine whether certain netball promotional strategies are likely to influence participation.

Study Propositions

Theoretical propositions underlie the research design, providing guidance in the formulation of study questions and study propositions, assisting in defining the appropriate unit of analysis and the way in which data will be analysed (Yin, 1993, pp. 21-26).

The study seeks to understand the netball experience of Pacific women. In line with the literature reviewed, five study propositions have been developed to guide this study. They are:

- That Pacific women are motivated to play netball for unique reasons.
- That reasons for motivation are based on the influence of a unique Pacific cultural background.
- That motivations for participation change over time through the influence of the social environment.
- That sport socialisation processes are mediated through a Pacific cultural background.
- That the women's personal 'Pacific identity' is integrated in the netball experience.

The study propositions are intended to assess the current theory as presented in the literature review. The theoretical framework is the mechanism through which the findings of the study can be generalised (analytic generalisation) to other studies.

Chapter 5: Methodology & Analysis

Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the study's research process. The chapter begins with a discussion on the research paradigm, which has influenced the research approach and design of the study. It will then provide a description of the specific research methods utilised and the process of data analysis. The chapter will continue with a discussion of rigour as it applies to this study and to research reporting processes. Finally, the ethical issues relevant to this study will conclude the chapter.

Research Paradigm

“A paradigm is a worldview” (Patton, 1990, p. 37), or “a set of basic beliefs” that is accepted on the basis of faith (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 107). A paradigm frames the nature of reality and therefore provides a framework for interpreting the world and makes explicit how research should be conducted, what constitutes legitimate problems, solutions and criteria of proof (Cresswell, 1994). It is the paradigm that defines acceptable methodologies, research priorities, conceptualisation of problems, appropriate methods and the standards by which the quality of research is assessed. Therefore a discussion of the research paradigm is essential, as it forms the framework within which the study is conducted.

Qualitative versus Quantitative research inquiry – the choice of paradigm.

There is a range of inquiry paradigms each with their own traditions in social theory and diverse research techniques (see Neuman, 1997, p. 62, Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 109). Most research literature however, discuss two paradigms often placed at opposing ends of an abstract continuum, called *Qualitative* and *Quantitative* paradigms.

The *quantitative* approach asserts that the social world exists externally and that its properties can be measured through careful observation; an observation free from personal, political or religious values. Defenders of the quantitative approach state that social reality is not random, but patterned and ordered and that quantitative research allows humans to discover this order and laws of nature that stand the test of time. The basic nature of human beings is that people operate on the basis of external causes with the same cause having the same effect on everyone (Neuman, 1997, p. 64).

Guba and Lincoln (1994) believe that the *qualitative* inquiry paradigm is the only valid and meaningful way to study human beings. They state that all paradigms are human constructions and are therefore subject to human error. “No construction is or can be incontrovertibly right; advocates of any particular construction must rely on *persuasiveness* and *utility* rather than *proof* in arguing their position.” (p. 108, original emphasis). Therefore, a paradigm that seeks to understand the world through how humans construct meaning in natural settings, without manipulation of the natural setting is more appropriate for understanding human society.

Qualitative paradigm supporters criticise the quantitative approach for a number of reasons: for removing the context from the phenomenon being studied, and thereby reducing the generalisability of findings; for excluding the meaning and purpose people attach to activities; for imposing outsider theories or hypotheses which have little or no meaning for the group being studied; for assuming that ‘facts’ can be value-free, when in actuality ‘facts’ are often a reflection of value systems, of which the quantitative worldview is but another example of a value system. (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 106). The quantitative approach is limited in that it never explains why a thing is, it limits itself to the question, how it is.

Cresswell (1994) stated that the nature of the problem is an important factor for choosing the guiding paradigm. Quantitative studies usually present a problem that evolves from the literature, so a substantial body of literature exists on which the researcher can build. Variables are known, and theories may exist that need to be tested and verified. For qualitative studies the research problem needs to be explored because little information exists on the topic. The variables are largely unknown, and the researcher wants to focus on the context that may shape the understanding of the phenomenon being studied. "In many qualitative studies a theory base does not guide the study because those available are inadequate, incomplete, or simply missing." (Cresswell, 1994, p. 10).

The "paradigm wars" as Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 116) call it, often overemphasise a confrontation between the paradigms and results in a need for choosing one or the other. In actuality, both qualitative and quantitative research utilise a variety of research methods that are complementary and can be undertaken across a range of disciplines. Patton (1990, p. 39) advocated against alignment with one paradigm over another and strictly linking the paradigm and methods together. Patton takes a pragmatic stance and stated that the paradigm choice, recognizes that different methods are appropriate for different situations. Cresswell (1994) supports the pragmatist point of view and presented the "situationalists" school of thinking, that "certain methods are appropriate for specific situations" (p. 176).

In stating this, the nature of the problem of this study (exploratory) has necessitated a leaning towards a qualitative stance, but at the same time, employing a situationalist point of view, by integrating a quantitative method to better inform the overall study.

The strengths of *Qualitative* and *Quantitative* Research

Denzin and Lincoln (1994) provide a generic definition of qualitative research,

Qualitative research is multimethod in focus, involving an interpretive naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (p. 2).

Examples of qualitative research strategies and tools include: case study, personal experience, introspective, life story, interview, observations, historical, interactional, and visual texts.

The major strength of qualitative methods is that they enable the researcher to explore an issue at depth and in detail, and that the naturalistic approach means that findings are more readily applicable to the real-world situation (Patton, 1990, pp. 49-50). The qualitative researcher is not constrained by pre-determined categories. For example, open-ended in-depth interviews allow participants to express their views in depth and detail. Therefore, qualitative research leads to detailed information and enhanced understanding of a small number of cases but is limited in that its findings are not statistically generalisable (Patton, 1990, pp. 13-14).

The main strength of quantitative research is that a broader coverage of issues is possible for a substantial number of people, and therefore data can be statistically aggregated leading to statistically generalisable findings. The quantitative approach utilise standardised measures which require that responses fit within a limited number of pre-determined categories, and therefore within the etic view of the researcher. For example, a research participant's experiences or opinions must fit within a range of pre-determined categories (Patton, 1990, p. 14). However, it should be noted that while generalisations have statistical meaning, they may have little relevance for an individual case. For example, while a Hillary Commission study on Maori sports participation found that 80% of Maori are involved in team sports (Hillary Commission, 1992), you cannot assume that over half of those attending a Maori group's coaching workshop will be involved in team sports.

Why choose a qualitative approach?

This study aims to explore the nature of Pacific women's netball experiences in New Zealand. The study is exploratory given the lack of research on Pacific peoples sporting experiences at any level within the New Zealand context. The qualitative approach is favoured as it allows the topic to be explored in depth and will allow the context to be included in terms of understanding the phenomenon.

Furthermore, the researcher's lived-experiences have shaped a worldview, which acknowledges that people possess an internal sense of reality; that ordinary people construct their social reality by giving meaning and creating interpretations through their social interactions with others and their physical world. The aim of the study is to understand the meaning people give to their behaviours within their unique social context. In order to describe the experiences of others, a researcher must get to know the particular social setting of the participants and strive to see it from the point of view of those in it. The nature of the research problem is to study *meaningful social action*, not just the external or observable behaviour of people. "Social action is the action which people attach subjective meaning: it is activity with a purpose or intentThe researcher must take into account the social actor's reasons and the social context of action" (Neuman, 1997, p. 69).

In this sense, a qualitative inquiry approach is favoured as it allows theory to emerge that will describe and interpret how people conduct their daily lives. It contains concepts and limited generalisations, but it does not dramatically depart from the experience and inner reality of the people being studied. The study is exploratory and descriptive it does not aim for prediction of behaviour given that social reality is influenced by dynamics such as socio-cultural, socio-historical and socio-political factors.

While the study was guided by a qualitative inquiry paradigm, it nevertheless, took a 'pragmatist' research strategy approach, by utilising a quantitative method to provide more wide-ranging data on the research topic. In this sense,

the research design took on a mixed-methodology approach – using both quantitative and qualitative research methods.

Research Methodologies

Mixed-Methodology Approach

The mixing of methods is said to provide many advantages. Of particular note is that it affords *triangulation* of data. A combined method of study is one in which the researcher uses multiple methods of data collection and analysis in order to reduce bias that comes from using only one particular method, investigator or data source (see Cresswell, 1994, p. 174). Cresswell provided further reasons for combining methods in a single study:

- triangulation in the classic sense of seeking convergence of results
- complimentary, in that overlapping and difference facets of a phenomenon may emerge (e.g., peeling the layers of an onion)
- developmentally, wherein the first method is used sequentially to help inform the second method
- initiation, wherein contradictions and fresh perspectives emerge
- expansion, wherein the mixed methods add scope and breadth to a study (1994, p. 175).

The nature of the study was to explore a phenomenon that has a lack of empirical evidence. Therefore the *quantitative* research method – the survey questionnaire, was selected for the study for the:

- Developmental purpose – to gather empirical evidence quickly and provide breadth to the study, (the expansion purpose) that would further inform the second method
- Expansion purpose - for adding scope and breadth to the study
- Complimentary purpose - for finding different facets of the unexplored phenomenon that may emerge
- Triangulation purpose - to allow convergence of results with the second method

The *qualitative* research method – focus groups interviews, was selected for this study in order to:

- Allow the collection of in-depth and detailed information;
- Enable a holistic approach that is context sensitive; and
- Triangulation of data

Research strategy

The *case study* is not a research method or a feature of the research design, but a broader research strategy (other examples of research strategies are the experiment or survey) and has been chosen as the research strategy for this study (Yin, 1994).

The case study has been defined by Yin as,

an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used (1994, p. 13).

The case study is naturalistic and takes a holistic approach, and is therefore context sensitive. Further, a case study draws evidence from a variety of sources and that evidence can be qualitative and/or quantitative. Triangulation of the various data sources is a feature of the case study. Data collection and analysis is guided by theoretical propositions often derived from literature review and experience of the researcher. The case study strategy can incorporate a variety of methods, though the approach to data collection and analysis is specified (Yin, 1994, pp. 13-14).

Why has a case study strategy been chosen for this study?

The case study strategy has been selected for this study to enable a holistic and naturalistic approach consistent with the qualitative inquiry paradigm. A number of other features of the study make the case study the most appropriate research strategy:

- That the netball experiences of Pacific women is a contemporary phenomenon;
- That the researcher has no control over the real-life context of the study, that is the environment where the women experience netball
- That the study seeks to capture the unique experiences of participants
- That evidence will be collected from a variety of sources (personnel – participant and stakeholder interviews, archival – survey data).

Yin (1994) distinguishes between three types of case studies, descriptive, exploratory and explanatory. The decision as to which type of case study is relevant to a particular project depends upon the nature of the research question. A descriptive case study focuses on description. Exploratory case studies are characterised by ‘what’ questions and explanatory case studies are characterised by ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions (Yin, 1994, pp. 5-9). However in reality the boundaries between each type of study are less clearly defined. Though the primary research question for this study is a ‘what’ question (What factors influence the netball participation of Pacific women?), the question is both exploratory and explanatory in nature. Given that the background knowledge base regarding sports experience of Pacific people in New Zealand is non-existent, the study is exploratory in nature. However, the study also seeks to explain the nature of Pacific women’s netball experiences and therefore also adds an explanatory dimension.

Research Design & Tools

Two-phase design procedure

A multi-method approach to the study was chosen to ensure that the phenomenon is investigated extensively. Triangulation of methods involves the use of complementary methods to examine different dimensions of the same underlying concept therefore arriving at a better understanding than would be possible using either approach alone (Wolff, Knodel & Sittitrai, 1993). Taking this into consideration the study was designed in a two-phase mixed-methodology approach.

Phase one: Survey Questionnaire

Given that the topic of study is pioneering and lacks support from literature or archival information, it was important to explore the subject area from a broad perspective to gain some level of understanding about the phenomenon. The survey questionnaire method was selected as the best method for broad coverage of the phenomenon under study. Survey questionnaires provide quick, inexpensive, efficient and accurate means of assessing information about a population (Zikmund, 1997, p. 203).

Survey investigations often attempt to describe what is happening or to learn the reasons for a particular social activity. Most survey research is therefore descriptive research (Zikmund, 1997). Currently, no data exists that can describe the characteristics of the population under study – Pacific netballers. Netball New Zealand (NNZ) and its regional bodies currently have no data on their netball participants in terms of participant demographical information (e.g., age ranges, ethnicity, socio-economic status, gender, place of residence, urban/rural). This study therefore comes from a position of no background data and the methodological choices were affected by this position.

A survey questionnaire instrument was developed to explore the topic (Appendix B). The questionnaire used was based on Gill, Gross and Huddleston's (1983) Participation Motivation Questionnaire (PMQ), which has been an instrument used widely to survey reasons for participation in sport (Bounamano et al., 1995; Gaskin, 2000; Gould et al., 1985; Kirkby et al., 1999; Kolt, et al., 1999; Longhurst & Spink, 1987).

The PMQ was selected for two reasons. First, the instrument has been used in the New Zealand environment within the netball context (Hodge & Zaharopoulos, 1991). Hodge & Zaharopoulos' (1991) study was conducted for youth who participated in netball at the secondary school level with no analysis of ethnicity as a specific variable. Currently, this study assumes that New Zealanders of non-European heritage have the same motives for netball participation as *Palagi*/European New Zealanders. The aim of this study and the specific use of the PMQ survey are to review the accuracy of these findings.

Second, the use of the PMQ was motivated due to the ease of its use, in terms of time for administration and understanding of language. The 30-item PMQ was modified slightly through the addition of a single item 'I want to be with my family', which was judged to be relevant for this particular sample. In addition to the 31-item PMQ, open-ended questions and marketing questions relevant to the study's objectives were added (see Appendix B).

Phase two: Focus Group Interviews

The particular use of the focus group interviews was to extend the breadth of the inquiry from the information acquired through the survey questionnaires. The survey questionnaire lacked the flexibility for accommodating a wider range of explanatory categories that might have been relevant to the study. Surveys are also less adept at capturing the kind of in-depth contextual detail that focus groups can provide. In line with the qualitative paradigm, a methodology that allowed participants to put forward their experience of the activity in their own voice and capacity was important, therefore the use of participant interviews was an obvious choice.

Wolff, et al., (1993) endorsed the use of focus group and surveys as complementary research methods. They stated that “incorporating a qualitative approach, represented by the focus group method, into an integrated research design with a major sample survey component can enhance the quality of the resulting analysis and the confidence that can be placed in it.” (1993, p. 119). Both methods offer a distinct set of strengths and limitations that are markedly different yet potentially complementary when combined in a mixed-method research design.

The purpose of the focus group interviews was therefore:

- To probe further into the nature of the participants experiences
- To explore in greater depth the relationships suggested by the quantitative analysis – survey questionnaires data
- Aim to corroborate findings from the quantitative data – survey questionnaires.

Why Focus Group Interviews and not Individual Interviews?

Morgan (1997) defined the focus group as a “research technique that collects data through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher.” (p. 6). This definition points to the two strongest advantages that focus group interviews have over individual interviews: the advent of the group interaction and the role of the researcher in the interview process.

Both focus group interviews and individual in-depth interview are touted for their ability to get at individual’s perceptions of a topic of interest. Both use open-ended interview guides that allow respondents to address issues in their own terms. The major point of difference is the number of informants within the interview session. The results from an interview session involving six to ten people are going to be different compared to an individual discussion (Crabtree, Yanoshik, Miller and O’Connor, 1993). Focus group interview

sessions will generally provide time and opportunity to explore a topic *in breadth* as opposed to *in-depth* as in individual interviews. Individual interview sessions are more appropriate when the study's goal is to probe deeply into a topic and to get an individual to tell lengthy stories with opportunity to clarify meanings and intentions. Focus group interviews are more appropriate when a broad scope of the topic is needed.

Morgan (1997) maintained that focus groups are particularly useful for studies with an exploratory aim where by the researcher may not initially know what questions to ask and uses the group interaction to guide the discussion and generate data. A focus group approach generally uses a less structured interview guide compared to individual interviews. Given that the present study came from a weak position in terms of background data it was important to keep a broad exploratory focus during the interviews. The interview questions were guided by the theoretical propositions of the study as included in the questionnaire survey, but at the same time, the focus groups sessions were facilitated to allow the topic to be explored in a direction that the participants deemed appropriate for them. This was to encourage a full range of information to emerge from the participants, outside of the structured questions provided.

In particular, the group interaction in focus group sessions is of an "advantage for topics that are either habit-ridden or not thought out in detail" by the participants (Morgan, 1997, p.11). Focus group interviews are often used when the purpose of the study is to understand complex motivations of individuals. Often, people are not in touch with or able to articulate their motivations, feelings, attitudes and opinions. Our understandings about our behaviours are often not at the conscious level. The group interaction possible within a focus group interview session allows participants to hear others talk about their feelings or motivations on a topic, and can use the discussion by others to cue or trigger off their own views on the topic. As Morgan & Krueger (1993) stated,

As they hear others talk, however, they can easily identify the degree to which what they are hearing fits their situation. By comparing and contrasting, they can become more explicit about their own views. (p. 17).

This “cueing” ability is said to provide the potential for extracting more information than would otherwise be possible from other methods, such as survey questionnaires or individual interviews.

Other advantages of the focus group interview include: less costly than traditional face-to-face variety simply because more persons are interviewed in the same time frame; group interviews are efficient in terms of the relationship between interviewer and respondent, as the group dynamics often stimulate and control the discussion flow; the group interview is an excellent mechanism for bringing the researcher closer to the participants; it is flexible; permits considerable probing; can stimulate new ideas and more importantly, as a group activity it meets the “oral and collective communication styles” of Pacific people as proposed by Tupuola (1993, pp. 180-181) and Mara (1999).

Research Procedures

The primary data sources for this study are from the quantitative survey questionnaire data and focus groups.

Phase one: Survey Questionnaire Administration

The Participation Motivation Questionnaire (PMQ) instrument, developed for the initial exploration of the topic was developed to be a self-completion survey. It encompassed 5 out of the 6 specific research questions.

Specifically it surveyed:

- Reasons for current participation
- Specific personnel influences on netball participation over the years (that is, the identification and role of ‘significant others’ in their netball experiences)
- The influence of variables, age, level and years of experience, group affiliations and cultural environment (New Zealand or Island-born) on participation motivation

- To determine any difficulties in netball experience
- To determine the influence of certain promotional strategies on participation.

The procedure for Questionnaire Administration was three-fold

1. Little is known about the target population – Pacific women netballers, in terms level of participation or of place of residence, therefore to ensure that recruitment would not be biased with this lack of information, a promotional flyer was developed and sent to all netball centres nation-wide. (Appendix C).

Promotional flyers were sent via the National body's (NNZ) monthly newsletter in the month of July. Netball centres were asked to put up the flyers in accessible places for players to see at the competition venue. Netball centres in urban cities with high Pacific population numbers were also sent questionnaires to make available to netballers through the competition venue; Kapi Mana Netball Centre - Porirua, Tokoroa Netball Centre – Waikato, Wellington Netball Centre, Auckland Netball Centre. The promotional flyer was also sent to regional bodies and personnel in the NNZ Contact Directory list, either through fax or e-mail.

2. Participants of the study were also recruited through the use of key Pacific netball contacts. Key Pacific netball contacts, like Pacific club presidents and coaches of Pacific national, regional or club teams were found through liaison with NNZ staff, regional body personnel and through making contact with regional Pacific Island organisations (e.g., Wellington City Council, 1999).

Once key Pacific netball contacts were established and there was an agreement for participation, the questionnaires were sent for personnel to distribute to their respective teams and players. They were provided specific information about the administration of the questionnaires (Appendix D).

The questionnaires were distributed by coaches or team managers for players to complete, as a group, at a team training session. It was not compulsory for players to participate and their right to consent was made explicit. All completed questionnaires were then collected back together, for the team manager or coach to put in the stamped self-addressed envelope to post back to the researcher.

This procedure ensured an ease of administration and collection for team managers and coaches who only needed to use one training session to complete this process. This was also a cost saving process. Collecting questionnaires in team groups and sending them back together saved on the need to attach a stamped self-addressed envelope per questionnaire. Ideally, the process of questionnaire administration is best when the researcher is able to complete this process, by attending netball trainings and personally completing the distribution and collection phases. Unfortunately, lack of monetary resources did not allow this particular course of action.

3. Questionnaires were also administered through targeted Pacific netball tournaments throughout the season. These tournaments were regional, national and international in scope. The target population sample was easier to access in terms of time and cost through these tournaments. The personal distribution and collection of questionnaires by the researcher, was an advantage in that it did not require a 'middle-person' involvement. The administration of the questionnaires in person also effected greater compliance from the participants who had ample time to interact with the researcher and ask questions about the research aims and processes in person.

Through the initial contact for recruitment of questionnaire participants, netball personnel from different regions recommended three particular tournaments for further administration of the questionnaires. These were:

- The Cook-Island Regional tournament competition, Kapi Mana Netball Centre, Porirua Wellington, Saturday 23 September.
- The Pacific Challenge International tournament, Mangere / Otahuhu Netball Centre, South Auckland, Saturday 6 October.
- The Cook-Island National tournament, South Auckland, Mangere / Otahuhu Netball Centre, Saturday & Sunday 21-22 October.

Researcher participation at these tournaments was approved through the permission of the tournament organising committees. At the tournament venue, a stall / table was set-up at the competition venue throughout the duration of the tournament at an accessible and highly visible spot where questionnaires were made available for players to complete, during their game break times. A small incentive of a free lollipop was offered upon completion of the questionnaire. The organising committee provided attention to the research process by periodically announcing over the PA system, the study and the researcher's aim during the day, thereby encouraging women to participate. Research assistants were used to assist in the distribution of questionnaires and recruitment of teams and players during the day.

The Survey Questionnaire Sample Size

The sample size was estimated from the only NNZ participation figure available, the number of national affiliated teams per year. The sample size target was therefore estimated in the following way:

1999 netball membership figures in *Netball New Zealand Annual report, 1999*:
2, 920 senior teams X 7 players per team = 20 440 affiliated NNZ adult players

20 440 adult players X 0.06 (6% Pacific population) = 1, 226 Pacific Island
adult players

10% of Pacific adult netball population = ~ 122 players

15% of Pacific adult netball population = ~ 184 players

A target of approximately 10% of the population surveyed ($n=120$ target) was set for the questionnaire total collection as a guide for questionnaire distribution. In total, approximately 350 questionnaires were distributed by mail nationally and at the tournaments, from the beginning of July to the end of October.

Phase two: Focus Group Interview Procedures

Three focus group interviews were organised around the three tournaments used for further questionnaire administration.

Sampling strategy

The main form of sampling used in the case study focus group interviews was *purposeful sampling*. Purposeful sampling requires the selection of interviewees who are considered to be rich sources of information who will address the research questions and therefore the purpose of the study (Patton, 1990, p. 169). Therefore background information and judgement are required in the selection of participants.

Focus group participants were identified and recruited through the use of key Pacific netball contacts, such as Pacific club presidents and Pacific team coaches who were able to recommend players who fitted the population variation above. The players were then contacted through a telephone call to invite their participation in the focus group. This type of recruitment is called *snowball sampling* and is particularly useful when members of the populations are difficult to locate (Babbie, 1998, p. 195). The interview participants were encouraged to bring another netballer to the interview session, to over-recruit in compensation for interviewee drop-outs.

The focus group interviews were arranged around the Pacific netball tournaments in Wellington and Auckland. This was to take advantage of the time and opportunity for the researcher and participants to be available at these regions, however, interviewees were not necessarily participants of the tournaments. In addition, the three focus groups were selected from different regional areas to widen the sample regional variation.

- Focus group 1 = involved participants from the Wellington Region
- Focus group 2 = involved participants from outside the Auckland region (Manawatu / Waikato area, taking part in the Pacific Challenge tournament in Auckland)
- Focus group 3 = involved participants from the Auckland area

The adequacy of sample size has much to do with researcher judgement and peer review (Patton, 1990, p. 185). Three focus group interviews were considered adequate for confirming information and testing the range of information that would emerge. The purpose of the focus groups was to explore the relationships posited by the quantitative data and corroborate these findings and also to allow the topic of discussion to be explored openly and without restriction from the focus group guide. Therefore, all groups were introduced to the same focus group guide, however, the

interview process was kept flexible so as to allow any new information to emerge and be included in subsequent group interview sessions.

The interview guide (Appendix 5)

An interview guide was developed for the study using a list of questions that were derived from the literature review and study propositions. The specific questions were more or less the same as the questions framed in the survey questionnaire. The advantage of an interview guide is to limit the discussion to information relevant to the research questions, and also to allow, a degree of standardisation in discussion across the three focus groups. The interview guide also directed the timeframe for the discussions.

Pacific research process issues

When taking a Pacific research approach to participant recruiting and interviewing, certain cultural requirements need to be addressed. This approach requires that researchers are culturally competent, that is, they should have sound knowledge and understandings of a Pacific culture, as well, lived experience of being a Samoan, and/or Tongan, and/or Niuean, and/or Fijian and/or Tokelaun.

Cultural competence is particularly useful for effective communication styles, whereby the researcher should have competence to communicate in the language of the participants and in ways that are meaningful to them. Mara (1999) also affirmed the utility of cultural competence for providing a supportive environment for Pacific participants, and the use of first languages, the provision of food/meals for participants, the use of *lotu*/prayer for opening and closing group meetings, some flexibility in time and venue choices as key factors of concern. This study implemented some of these 'Pacific' cultural obligations when the situation demanded. It must be stated however, that no general 'Pacific' cultural practices exist, and the researcher practiced Samoan cultural conventions as judged suitable for the occasion.

For hard-to-reach minority groups unfamiliar with western formal research processes, trust issues are salient. Emphasising researcher and participant commonalities, Jarrett (1993) suggested is important for establishing a relationship of

trust, leading to research participation. Certainly being a sportswoman and a Samoan had a positive affect for gaining trust and participation from Pacific netballers, but more importantly, transparency in the process and study rationale as well as conveying a genuine interest in Pacific netballers lives was most valuable.

Tupuola (1993) talked about the use of research methodologies that reflect Samoan cultural principles, one that emphasises “dialogue, self-reflexivity, flexibility, collaboration and consensus” (p. 182). Such a process is more useful for research approaches specific to Samoan participants only, unlike the present study. However, in articulating the *fa’asamoan* (Samoan culture) principles applied in her research, Tupuola (1999) also showed the dynamic and contested nature of “culture”. Mulitalo-Lauta (2000) in his study of social work between New Zealand and Samoa found that *fa’asamoa* had different interpretations between the two environments and as such, application of *fa’asamoan* principles and customs in New Zealand should consider this. The point is that, Samoan cultural practices in Samoa and practices in New Zealand seem to differ and the issue of cultural competence is further complicated. Mara (1999) suggested the use of ‘cultural mentors’ as part of a research process utilising Pacific participants, which the researcher of this study undertook.

Data analysis

For surveys questionnaires

The main method of analysis of the quantitative data for describing single variables and describing associations between variables is *descriptive statistics* (Babbie, 1998, p. 406). Guided by the research questions, the analysis of the survey used descriptive statistical measures of mean, median, mode, summary percentages and measures of variance (standard deviations where useful) to describe those motivations chosen by the participants and to provide demographical information about the netballers.

Bivariate analysis was also completed to see whether two variables are related (associated). The main purpose for trying to detect a relationship between two variables is to help in the task of explanation (De Vaus, 1990, p. 144). Univariate

analysis, which is the summary or description of one variable, is limited in its use. For example, we can show through univariate analysis that the strongest motivation for netball participation is “having fun”; what is most useful is to explain why this is so. Was this motivation chosen because of the influence of age, Island groups or cultural environment? Two variables are said to be associated or related when the distribution of values on one variable differs for different values of the other. “If we know that two variables are associated this can help us predict on the basis of limited information” (De Vaus, 1990, p. 144). Using the survey data to arrive at tentative associations is useful to describe the complex nature of social phenomenon. These tentative associations were explored further at the focus group interviews.

In addition, principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation, of PMQ items was completed, to identify general categories of participation motives. Factor analysis is a mathematical method used to simplify complex sets of data, with a chief aim of identifying a small number of factors to explain most of the variance observed in a much larger number of manifest variables (Kass & Tinsley, 1979). When a group of variables has a great deal in common a factor may be said to exist. “These related variables are discovered using the technique of correlation.” (Child, 1990, p. 2).

Tabachnick and Fidell (1989) suggested a ratio of participant to variables, of at least 5:1 for factor analyses to be interpretable. The sample size of 157, met the 5:1 participant to variable ratio, and met the minimum sample size of 100 as suggested by Kline (1994). The selection of appropriate factors was based on Kaiser’s criterion, of selecting only those factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. Factors were interpreted by analysing the factor loadings, which represent the correlation between the variable and the factor, and as Kass & Tinsley (1979) stated, “high loadings portray what the factor is measuring...and loadings near zero indicate what the factor does not represent.” (p. 135). Kline (1994) suggested a factor loading of ± 0.3 as a cut-off criterion for items used to interpret the factors, while Comry (1973) suggested a ± 0.45 cut off criterion. Child (1990) maintained that, “a useful tactic is to consider the loadings in descending order of magnitude because those with the largest values are going to give us the ‘flavour’ of the factor.” (p. 41). The factor matrix was thus

analysed with a factor loading criterion of ± 0.50 , with items above ± 0.60 deemed most significant and were used in the assigning of factor labels (Child, 1990).

The descriptive statistical and factor analysis results are presented in tabular form, particularly for bivariate analyses, where crosstabulation displays enabled association between two variables to be easily detected.

For focus group interviews

The content of the interviews was analysed using content analysis. Content analysis is the process by which primary patterns in the data are identified, coded and categorised (Patton, 1990, p. 381).

The first step taken by the researcher in content analysis is the development of a classification system. The researcher initially gains a greater familiarity with the data by reading through the interview material, listening to interview audiotapes and then making preliminary notes on topics under which the data from each question should be organised. Data is then organised in a matrix display allowing comparisons between the three focus group data across all questions relevant to the study. This process of data display is what Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 11) call data reduction and in essence, is *part* of analysis.

The purpose of data analysis is to categorise or otherwise recombine the evidence collected in the study in order to address the study propositions (Yin, 1994, p. 102-104). The process of data reduction and data display (categorisation) is linked to the conclusion drawing and verification stage. Conclusion drawing and verification comes from pattern matching logic; this involves comparing the predicted pattern with an empirically based pattern. In this study, the theoretical propositions provide the predicted pattern that will be assessed against the outcomes of the empirically derived pattern emerging from the focus groups.

Validity / reliability

Concepts such as validity and reliability are used in social research to determine the quality of the research and its findings. Questions about quality, of trustworthiness or authenticity of findings need to be addressed if research is to be judged and its findings accepted by an audience (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 277). Four key tests are often applied to measure the rigour of both quantitative and qualitative research: internal validity, external validity, construct validity and reliability.

Construct validity is questioning whether the quality of the findings is compromised given the tools used to measure it. Yin (1993) proposed three specific tactics to increase construct validity; use multiple sources of evidence; establish a chain of evidence and allow research informants to review the case study reports (pp. 34-35). This study has employed all three of these tactics.

Internal validity is concerned with the accuracy of the information and whether it matches reality. The 'truth' value of qualitative research is measured in terms of credibility, that is whether, the study's interpretation or description of human experience are able to be immediately recognised by people who have had that same experience or by other people who have only heard or read about the experience (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Cresswell (1994, p. 158) proposed two tactics for ensuring internal validity: triangulation and informant review of findings.

Triangulation is a useful strategy that aims to corroborate research findings and thereby add to the credibility of a study. Patton, (1990, p. 187) distinguished between four types of triangulation:

- Data triangulation – the use of multiple sources of evidence
- Investigator triangulation – the use of more than one researcher
- Theory triangulation – the use of a range of perspectives to interpret the data
- Methodological triangulation – the use of a range of methods to collect the data

Data triangulation is considered to be a major strength of the case study strategy (Yin, 1994, pp. 91-93) that adds rigour to the study. This study has employed data triangulation, methodological triangulation and investigator triangulation. Data was drawn from survey data information and participant interviews. Methods employed in the study included questionnaire survey -archival data analysis and three focus group interview cases. Investigator triangulation involved the use of research assistants during the data collection phase at interviews to corroborate the data received (researcher and assistant present through all focus group interviews), and the use of research supervisors to provide checks and balances through the data analysis phase. The research assistant also double-checked the accuracy of the quantitative data collection, that is, going through database to check accurate data input, and analysis (the use of a professional statistician).

The applicability of a study's findings is measured in terms of external validity; that is the degree to which the findings of the study can be generalised to a wider population. One of the major criticisms of the case study strategy is that it lacks applicability to a general population. Cresswell (1994, pp. 158-159) indicated that the intent of qualitative research is not to generalise findings, but to form a unique interpretation of events. Guba and Lincoln (1981 in Patton, 1990, p. 488, original emphasis) are acutely critical of making generalisations from any study, particularly in quantitative research, as they ask "What can a generalization be except an assertion that is context free? [Yet] *it is virtually impossible to imagine human behavior that is not heavily mediated by the context in which it occurs*". A further criticism to making generalisations about social phenomenon is that "generalizations decay. At one time a conclusion describes the existing situation well, at a later time, it accounts for rather little variance, and ultimately is valid only as history" (Cronbach, 1975: 122, in Patton, 1990, p. 487).

This point aside, this case study relies on making *analytical* generalisation (to expand and generalise on theories) rather than make statistical generalisations. The findings of the study are more appropriately used to make what Patton (1990) calls *extrapolation*.

Extrapolations are modest speculations on the likely applicability of findings to other situations under similar, but not identical, conditions. Extrapolations are logical, thoughtful, and problem oriented rather than statistical and probabilistic (p. 489).

Reliability of a study is questioning whether the study is consistent, reasonably stable over time and across researchers and methods (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 278). Cresswell stated that the issue of reliability is not comparable with qualitative study, whereby the uniqueness of the study within a specific context mitigates against replication (1994, p. 159). Guba and Lincoln (1994) suggested auditability as a meaningful criteria for qualitative research. An auditable study is a clearly documented decision pathway that is able to be followed by a researcher who, when having access to the study's data, as well as the original researchers perspective and situation, is able to reach the same or comparable conclusions. The decision trail used in this study is contained in this research.

Information dissemination

The audience for this study was located in three key domains: Pacific communities (such as netball participants), applied settings (for example, NNZ, regional netball associations, Pacific netball clubs) and academics (Pacific studies and sports studies). With these domains in mind a wide range of dissemination techniques have been employed to ensure that the findings from the study are accessible to the various groups.

For Pacific communities, it is expected that the findings of the research and the research process will be presented to Pacific participants at targeted Pacific community meetings and conferences. Key Pacific netball personnel involved in the process and focus group participants were sent summary reports of the findings.

For applied settings, an oral meeting with NNZ was organised to discuss the findings of the study and a copy of the summary report given to NNZ to distribute to other netball regional bodies. Netball centres involved in the study were sent summary reports. It is expected that the findings will also be presented to national conferences that target coaches, sports administrators and netball clientele.

Publication of research findings will also be sought in academic and the general media.

Ethical issues

Qualitative research is described to be more intrusive and involve greater reactivity than surveys, tests and other quantitative approaches. The naturalistic nature of qualitative research, essentially deals with people within their real world and investigates “what is inside people” (Patton, 1990, p. 356). Thus, there is a need to address ethical and reactivity issues when designing and completing qualitative research.

Patton provides qualitative researchers with a list of ethical issues to address. These are:

- promises and reciprocity;
- risk assessment;
- confidentiality;
- informed consent;
- data access and ownership;
- interviewer mental health; and
- advice. (1990, pp. 356-357).

Promises and reciprocity deals with the question ‘What’s in it for the interviewee?’ Miles and Huberman (1994) stated that in general, study participants are preoccupied with *action* – how to work and live better, while the researcher is focused more on *understanding*. When study participants’ feel that there is inequity in the benefits (for the participant compared to the researcher) for completing the research, the access and quality of data can often be jeopardised. In this respect, a researcher needs to be cognisant of action implications of the research and make this explicit to the research participants. The information from this study is of a benefit to the participants – Pacific women netballers. Netball providers can use the information to enhance their delivery of the game and ensure that Pacific netballers’ needs are met. This will

ensure this groups' continued participation. These benefits were discussed with the research participants.

Harm and risk issues beg the questions 'In what ways, if any, will conducting the research put people at risk?' Harm to participants can come in many varieties: from blows to self-esteem or "looking bad" to others, to threats to one's position and interests, to physical harm. The use of focus groups as a methodology also brings the additional concern for privacy and participants revealing information in front of others. Morgan advised that "the simplest test of whether focus groups are appropriate for a research project is to ask how actively and easily the participants would discuss the topic of interest." (1997, p. 17). The primary questions of this study involved investigating personal experiences, therefore the nature of the topic was not contentious or controversial. The focus group sessions brought participants together to talk from a position of commonality (netball experiences), and this created an easy interaction among the participants. The focus group sessions were facilitated to ensure each individual's perspective was given equal attention and respect.

The strategies above also addressed some aspects of confidentiality for the focus groups. Focus group participants were ensured that their identities would not be linked to the findings of the study. Focus group participants were reminded about the need to respect the issues raised within the forum of the group and respect how others might want views to be acknowledged elsewhere (outside of the group). For the survey phase, the questionnaires ensured confidentiality for the respondent through the use of mail-out and mail-return of questionnaires and the protocol of not eliciting personal names to be placed on the questionnaires.

The privacy and rights of participants throughout the study were guaranteed through the use of a consent form (Appendix F), which provided the participants the following information:

- The name of the researcher
- Where the researcher (and principal supervisor) can be contacted
- What the survey is about
- The significance and benefits of the survey
- What the respondent will be asked to do (completion instructions)
- What the respondent can expect from the researcher

Consent forms were sent to focus group participants prior to the session, to give them time to fully digest the details discussed on the telephone. The completion of a questionnaire included consent, as was outlined in the cover letter attached (Appendix G).

All participants were given the right to access the research data and withdraw their personal information from the data at their discretion. This highlights the issue of ownership. The participant owns personal data; the complete study and its data are negotiated between the researcher and the research institution.

Patton also pointed to the need to think about how the researcher may be impacted by the process (1990, p. 356). This point concerns the need to evaluate the risk and harm of the research process for the researcher and not just participants. The point reflects on the need for researchers to have competency in the area and nature of the study. The researcher in this study is both competent in the area of study, through experience (netball) and through being a member of the sample population.

On the issue of advice, the researcher has implemented formal and informal systems of feedback regarding ethics; research supervisors, research assistants, peers and colleagues with research backgrounds, and key Pacific personnel (experts on Pacific cultural practices) to address the ethical considerations of this study.

Summary

The methodology employed for this study was developed to suit the nature of the study. As an exploratory study, it demanded the use of a particular research strategy, to allow the phenomena to be investigated extensively. A mixed-methodology approach utilising both quantitative and qualitative research tools was implemented. The survey questionnaire was used to explore the topic from a broad perspective, and focus groups were used to explore the topic in greater depth and to capture the netball experience through the voice of Pacific women. A major advantage of a mixed-methods approach is that it also allowed data triangulation, adding validity to the study's findings.

The chapters to follow will present and discuss these findings. Chapter 6 will describe the participants of the study - Pacific women netballers, followed by Chapters 7, 8, and 9, which will present and discuss the data collected.

Chapter 6: The Netballers

This chapter will present a demographical picture of the research participants – Pacific women netballers.

The Questionnaire Data

In the first phase of data collection, questionnaires were sent to key netball clubs, centres and key netball contacts nationally. Questionnaires were also collected from three netball tournaments; one Regional tournament in Porirua, one international tournament (the Pacific Challenge tournament) and a national Cook-Islands netball tournament both held in Auckland. Of the 157 questionnaires collected in total, two-thirds (106) of these were collected from the three tournaments combined, and one-third (51) was acquired from the postal mail.

The netballers came mainly from the North Island (151) and only 6 questionnaires were received from participants in the South Island. 51.3% of the netballers played netball within the greater Auckland area.

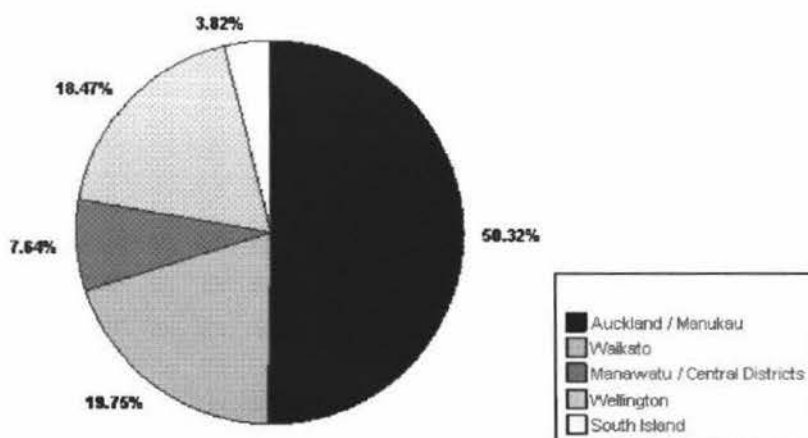


Figure 6: Regions where Participants played Netball.

The respondents were concentrated within the younger age range of 17-25 years (73.9%), and were experienced netballers, with over three-quarters (77.1%) having played netball for 6 or more seasons. The number of seasons ranged from 1 to 34 seasons. On average, participants had played netball within the 6-10 seasons range.

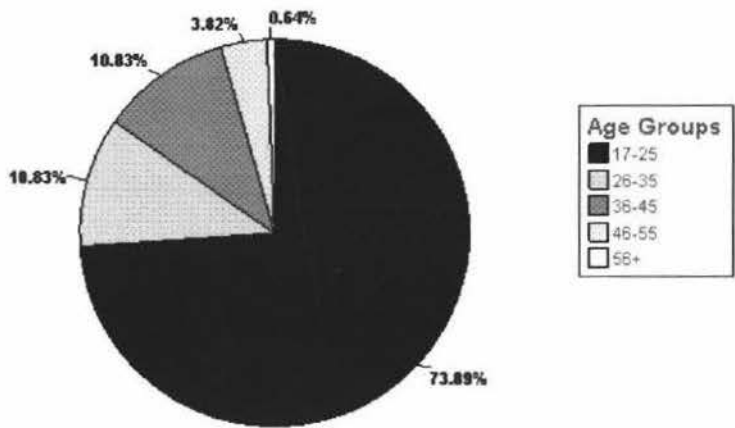


Figure 7: Age Ranges of Netballers.

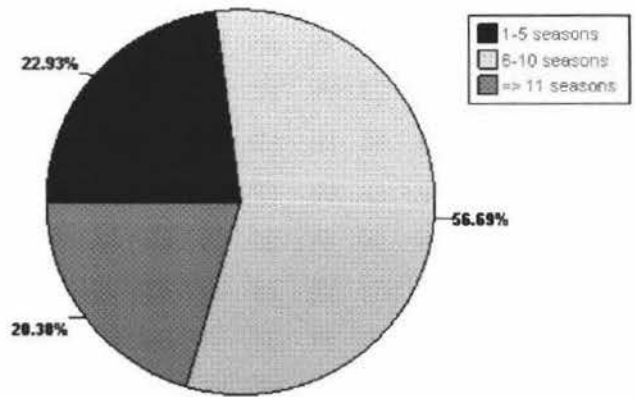


Figure 8: Netballers Level of Experience, measured through Total Seasons Played.

Netballers were asked whether they were a representative player for the current season. More participants indicated that they were a representative player (56.1%) compared with those who were not (43.9%). This high number of representative players can be attributed to the collection of questionnaires from the tournaments that were in fact representative tournaments for Pacific netballers. Netballers were representing their Island nations from different regions in New Zealand or in the case of the Cook-Islands tournaments, different island groups within the Cook-Islands nation who reside in different regions in New Zealand. For example, the *Pukapuka* Auckland team versus the *Pukapuka* Wellington team. Many players in these tournaments defined themselves to be of representative status. This is somewhat different to the traditional definition of 'representative player', which Netball New Zealand defines as a player selected to represent their regions in an age-group level despite ethnicity. The statistics and analysis from the representative status should be viewed with caution given the conflicting definitions that participants applied to representative status.

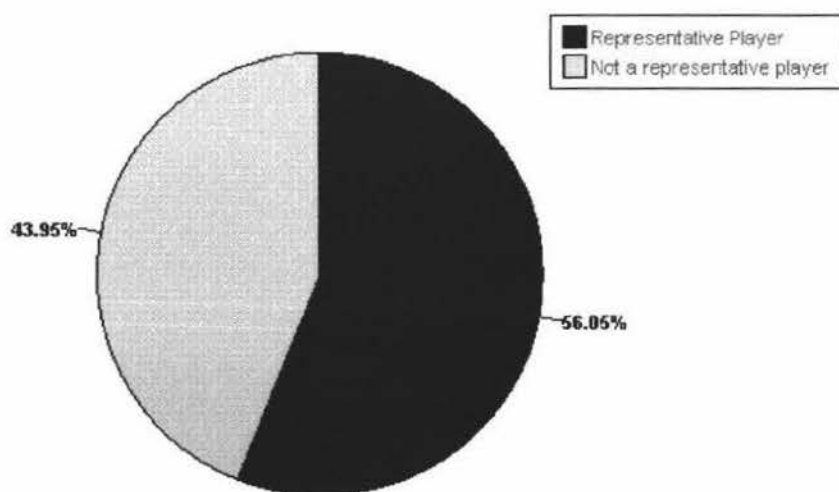


Figure 9: Representative Status of Netballers.

A question was included in the questionnaire that asked the netballers to identify the ethnic group or groups that they affiliated to. Three-quarters (70.7%) of the sample identified with one Island ethnic group, and a quarter of the sample (29.3%) identified with 2 or more Island ethnic groups. One participant identified with five ethnic groups. The netballers that identified with two or more ethnic groups were assigned to a *Multiple-ethnicity group*. This group and the Cook-Island group were the main ethnic groups identified (29.3% and 29.9% respectively), followed by the Samoan group (17.8%). Cook-Island and Samoan ethnicity were the main groups identified within the multiple-ethnicity grouping (Figure 10). The range of multiple ethnic groups identified is provided in Figure 11.

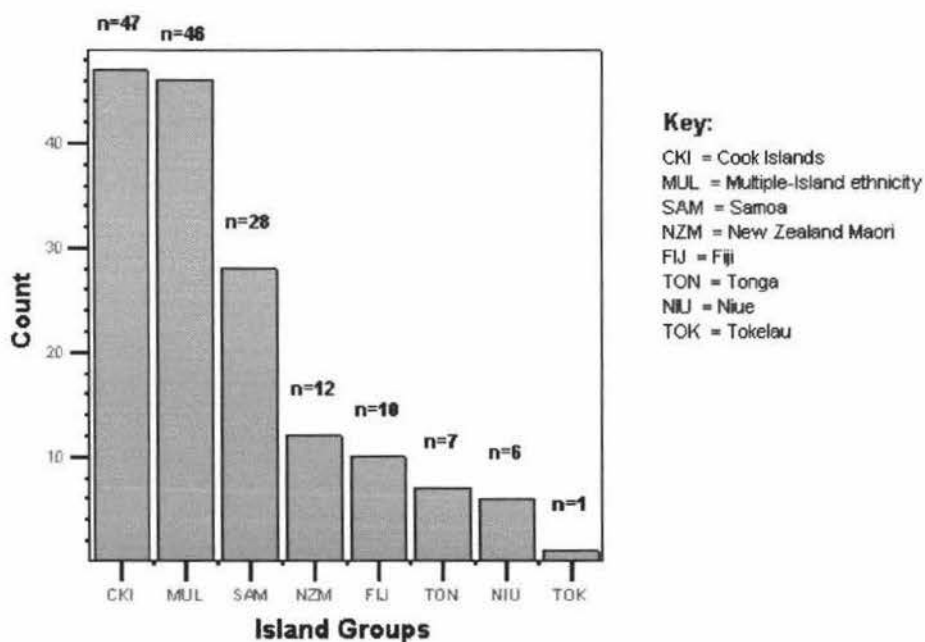


Figure 10: Island Ethnicity of Netballers.

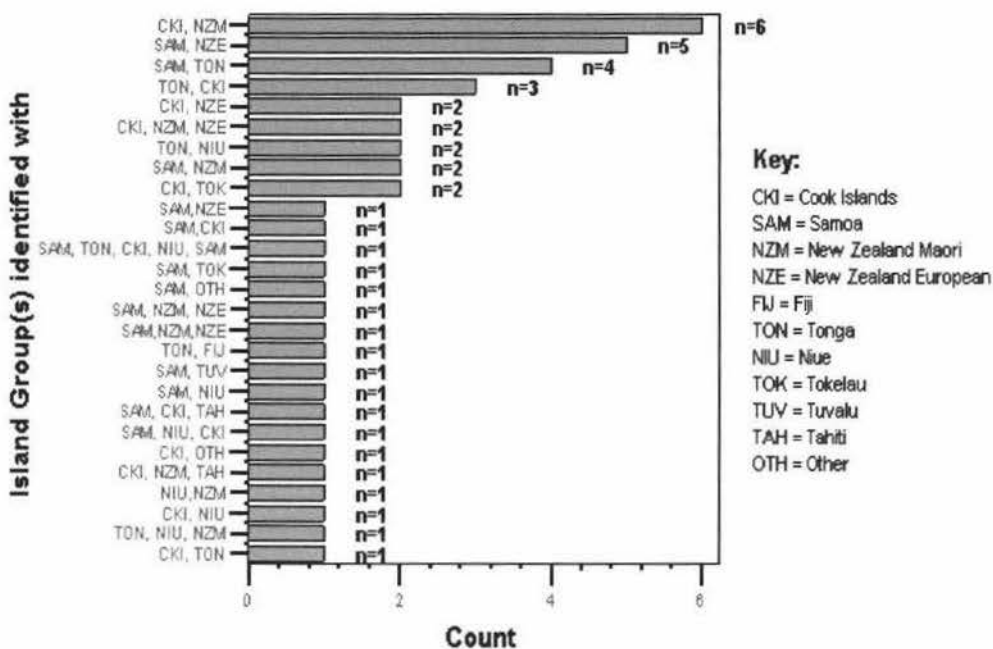


Figure 11: Multiple Ethnic Identities Identified by Netballers.

The high Cook-Island percentage in the sample can be accounted for by the collection of questionnaires from two Cook-Island netball tournaments, although not all netballers at these tournaments were of Cook-Island heritage only. The format of the tournaments allowed non-Cook-Islanders to participate, with a maximum of two non-Cook-Islanders allowed to play in each team. Although, the high percentage may in fact be representing a true demographic of Pacific netballers' ethnicity, as current Pacific participants have indicated that there is strong organisation of Cook-Island netball in Aotearoa (A. Phillips, personal communication, October 21, 2000). It is a very popular game for Cook-Island girls and women, spurred on by the role model and commitment to the game that Margharet Matenga, a Cook-Islander and ex-Silver Fern, has contributed.

The inclusion of the Maori netballers in the study emerged from the Pacific Challenge tournament definition of Pacific netballers. This particular tournament is organised annually to include all teams said to have a common Polynesian heritage within the South Pacific region. Aotearoa Maori teams are therefore included in the tournament and are classed by the tournament organisers and participants as part of Pacific netball.

A question about place of birth was also included in the questionnaire. There has always been debate within Island groups about the dispositions of New Zealand-born Islanders and Island-born Islanders. Researchers have delved into this subject area and recent literature on ethnicity and identity in New Zealand suggests that Pacific people born and raised in New Zealand are somewhat different to their parents and grandparents, born and raised in the Islands (Anae, 1997, 2001; Macpherson, 1996, 2001; Tupuola, 1999; Vaoiva, 1999). To test this finding further in the context of sports participation motivation, netballers were asked where they were born and if born outside of New Zealand, how old they were when they arrived to live in New Zealand. 72.0% (113) of the netballers indicated that they were born in New Zealand, and 28.0% (44) indicated that they were born in a South Pacific Island nation. 52.1% of the netballers born in the Islands were aged 5 or under, so many were relatively young when they migrated to New Zealand. The range of ages for migration was age 1 to age 21.

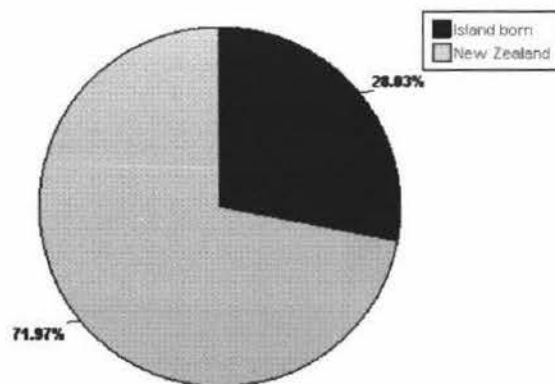


Figure 12: Netballers' Place of Birth.

The Focus Group Data

Three focus group interviews were completed to validate the questionnaire findings and to explore the research questions more fully. One was completed in Wellington city, and two in Auckland. The selection of focus group participants was guided by the exploratory focus of the study, which required that a range of identifiable netballer characteristics be represented in the focus groups. That is, a range of ages, regions, level of experience indicated by years and level of play and a range of Island groups. Table 4 summarises the ranges that were met by the focus group participants.

A total of sixteen participants were involved in the focus group interviews. The focus group participants mirrored the demographical description of questionnaire participants in many ways. The focus group participants were aged in the 17-25 age range; they came from the North Island regions; played on average 10 seasons; many identified with multiple ethnic identities and were born in New Zealand. An extra question was included which asked social economic status questions, namely employment status and level of income. Over half the participants (n=8) were full-time students and this was reflected in the level of income average range of less than \$10,000 per annum. 6 out of the 16 participants (38.5%) represented their regions in netball.

Table 4: Focus Group participant demographics

| DEMOGRAPHICS | FREQUENCY | MODE |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Age ranges - 17-25 26-35 36-45 | 11 3 2 | 17-25 age range |
| Regions - Auckland Central Districts Manawatu Waikato Wellington | 5 2 4 1 4 | Auckland |
| Level of experience - Number of seasons 5 7 8 9 10 12 14 15 20 | 1 1 2 2 3 4 1 1 1 | Average = 10.8 |
| Level of experience – Regional representative player? No Yes | 8 5 | Non-Representative |
| Ethnicity – Cook-Island Samoan Fijian Cook-Island / Maori Samoan / NZ European Samoan / Tongan Samoan / NZ Maori / NZ European | 3 3 1 3 3 2 1 | Multiple ethnic |
| Place of birth – New Zealand Island nation Did not state | 11 4 1 | New Zealand |
| Employment status – Full-time employment Full-time student Part-time employment Part-time student and employment | 4 8 2 2 | Full-time student |
| Annual Income – No income Less than 10,000 10,001 – 20,000 20,001 – 30,000 30,001 – 40,000 60,000+ | 2 6 3 2 2 1 | Less than \$10,000 |

Chapter 7: Participation Motivation

Introduction

Participation motivation is a popular research topic in the sport and exercise psychology and sociology fields. Over the years, research worldwide has consistently produced findings that suggest sports participants engage in sports predominantly to learn skills, to be physically active and especially to have fun and enjoy activity (Buonamano, 1995; Gill et al., 1983; Kirkby et al., 1999; Longhurst & Spink, 1987). Factors extrinsic to the sport experience such as gaining rewards and gaining recognition are cited as less important (Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992).

It must be noted however, that many of the studies on participation motivation completed, both worldwide and in New Zealand, have generally focused on a youth sample (Hodge & Zaharopolous, 1991; Wade & McKenzie, 1994; Gaskin, 2000). Very few studies have approached participation motivation using adult age groups. Gill, Williams, Dowd, Beaudoin & Martin's (1996) exploratory study for an adult sample in North America found that adults (age ranges 19-99 years, mean 49.6 years), like youth from previous studies, endorsed multiple motives for sports participation. In particular, mastery, affiliation, fitness, and health motives were found. Raugh & Wall's (1987) study of a university student sample supports the findings of Gill's et al. (1996) work. Kirkby, et al.'s (1998) Australian sample of older adults (mean age 67.8 years) revealed motives associated with Affiliation/Personal (e.g., "I like the company"), Recognition/Achievement ("I like the rewards"), Fitness ("I want to improve my fitness"), and Exercise Environment ("I like the exercise instructors").

The sample in this study differs from these previous adult studies in a number of ways. That is, the type of activity in the research (specific sport – netball), the gender (female), and the ethnic make up of the sample. Gill et al. (1995) and Kirkby et al.'s, (1998) studies applied their focus from a broad physical activity/exercise perspective. Previous research samples have also been mainly

on Anglo population groups, with the exception of Kirkby et al.'s (1998) Australian study, which also surveyed Australians born overseas to assess the effect of cultural factors on participation motivation. Cultural factors were found, with overseas born Australians rating Affiliation/Personal, Recognition/Achievement and Exercise Environment factors higher than their Australian born peers. The focus of this study is to present participation motivation data from a specific ethnic group in New Zealand – Pacific women, and compares the data with other ethnic groups in New Zealand.

This chapter will begin by presenting the results derived from the analysis of questionnaire data, which will be supported by focus group interview data. In particular, the motives for netball participation of this study will be compared with findings from other participation motivation studies. Further analysis of these motives was completed using principal components analysis techniques to investigate the pertinence of underlying factors to explain the motives present in this study. A further comparison will be made between the findings of this study with two previous netball studies in New Zealand. Finally, this chapter will present results derived from the crosstabulation of participation motives and independent variables, such as age, regions, level of experience, ethnic group, and place of birth to test the motivations across these specific variables.

Motives for netball participation

Analysis of the questionnaire data from a sample size of 157 participants revealed that participants rated similar motives for netball participation as the youth samples in Hodge & Zaharopoulos (1991) and Wade & McKenzie's (1994) New Zealand netball studies, as well as overseas participation motivation studies (Brodkin & Weiss 1990; Gill et al., 1983; Klint & Weiss, 1986). Netball participants rated "I like to have fun" as the number one reason for participation, followed closely by elements pertaining to playing within a team environment ("I like the team spirit" and "I like the teamwork"). Table 5 shows that the top ten motives also included motives associated with health and fitness ("I like to be physically fit"; "I like to stay in shape"; "I like to get exercise") and skill development ("I like to learn new skills").

Table 5 also presents the result of a question that asks participants to indicate the one most important reason for netball participation. Only 65% of the sample completed this question, and a total of 55 participants did not. Previous research studies have found that sports participants find it hard to rank different motives in order of importance and state that motives for participation often operate simultaneously without necessarily one overriding motive taking precedence over other motives (Gill et al., 1996; Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992). Out of the 31 possible motives included in the questionnaire, 22 of these were picked by participants to represent the most important motive for netball participation. Overall, the participants ranked the same motives as shown in the sample mean scores, with the exception of the third most ranked motive “I want to be with my family”, which is ranked 18th in the sample mean scores. This result has little meaning as participants rated over half the possible motives very highly (i.e., *very important*; *extremely important*) including the 18th motive in the sample mean scores. The item “I want to be with my family” was rated *very important* (i.e., 4.02) by the group as a whole. This high ranking of the family affiliation motive may also have arisen due to the collection of questionnaires at the tournaments. Two of the three netball tournaments were part of a bigger family-day sports tournament, and therefore the promotion of family coming together, may have elicited the high numbers of participants choosing this motive.

In addition to the 31 motives included in the PMQ, an open-ended question asked participants to provide other reasons for participating in netball. Only 13 participants (8.3%) offered other reasons, including “Being a role model for younger players”; “To play for my nation”; and “To meet other people” (see Appendix H for range and frequency).

Table 5: Means and Standard Deviations of Participation Motives

| Motive for Participation | Mean | SD | No. of Netballers citing as Most Important Reason |
|--------------------------------------------|------|------|---------------------------------------------------|
| I like to have fun | 4.71 | .59 | 20 (19.6%) |
| I like the team spirit | 4.64 | .61 | 4 (3.9%) |
| I like the teamwork | 4.47 | .70 | 3 (2.9%) |
| I want to be physically fit | 4.42 | .89 | 7 (6.9%) |
| I like to do something I'm good at | 4.39 | .81 | 1 (.98%) |
| I like being on a team | 4.39 | .88 | 4 (3.9%) |
| I want to learn new skills | 4.37 | .89 | 3 (2.9%) |
| I want to stay in shape | 4.36 | .86 | 5 (4.9%) |
| I like the excitement | 4.35 | .75 | 2 (1.9%) |
| I like to get exercise | 4.35 | .84 | 1 (.98%) |
| I want to improve my skills | 4.34 | .92 | 12 (11.8%) |
| I like the action | 4.29 | .83 | |
| I like the challenge | 4.28 | .77 | 9 (8.8%) |
| I want to go on to a higher level | 4.25 | 1.04 | 6 (5.9%) |
| I like to have something to do | 4.20 | .92 | |
| I like to compete | 4.06 | 1.07 | 3 (2.9%) |
| I like to try out a new sport / activity | 4.06 | 1.10 | 1 (.98%) |
| I want to be with my family | 4.02 | 1.24 | 9 (8.8%) |
| I want to be with my friends | 3.94 | 1.12 | |
| I like the rewards | 3.90 | 1.13 | |
| I like to travel | 3.88 | 1.15 | 2 (1.9%) |
| I like to use the equipment or facilities | 3.83 | 1.11 | |
| I like to win | 3.78 | 1.12 | 1 (.98%) |
| I like the coaches or instructors | 3.77 | 1.02 | |
| My family or close friends want me to play | 3.64 | 1.30 | 2 (1.9%) |
| I want to gain status or recognition | 3.59 | 1.26 | 1 (.98%) |
| I like to get out of the house | 3.58 | 1.29 | 4 (3.9%) |
| I like to feel important | 3.58 | 1.25 | |
| I want to release tension | 3.54 | 1.14 | 1 (.98%) |
| I want to get rid of energy | 2.99 | 1.32 | 1 (.98%) |
| I want to be popular | 2.83 | 1.35 | |
| | | | Total n = 102 |

Principal components factor analysis

The rating of participation motivation variables provided limited descriptive data only. Principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation was used to reduce the number of variables and to identify general categories of participation motivation. The factor analysis produced seven interpretable factors labelled Aspects of Netball/ Health & Fitness, Challenge, Social Status, Affiliation, Energy Release, Skill development and Family Affiliation (illustrated in Table 6).

Factors were selected according to Kaiser's criterion, with items showing factor loadings of ± 0.50 classified as a "good" measure of the factor (Comry, 1973). Table 6 presents the factor matrix showing all items including those that fall below the ± 0.50 criteria. Child (1990) stated it is often "helpful and preferable to have all the loadings included if only to give the reader some idea of the signs and 'near misses'." (p. 40). While the study's sample size has met the minimum 5:1 participant to variable ratio as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (1989), the validity of factors analyses is enhanced when the sample sizes are larger (Kline, 1994). Therefore, there may be limitations in the analysis given this study's small sample, and the following discussion must be considered with this in mind.

ASPECTS OF NETBALL / HEALTH & FITNESS

A literature review conducted by Passer (1988) concluded that six major categories of participation motivation are common to previous studies (see Table 7). These factors were Affiliation, Skill Development, Excitement, Success and Status, Fitness and Energy Release. This present study found similar factors barring one. A factor was produced that is similar to those found in participation motivation research focusing on one sport. Namely, Klint & Weiss' (1986) study of gymnasts and Brodtkin & Weiss' (1990) study of swimmers, both presented a factor they called Aspects of competition, that this study calls Aspects of Netball. 12 variables in all were included in this

factor that seemingly describes the nature of the game of netball. Variables showing high factor loadings such as “I like the action” , and “I like the teamspirit” , and others such as, “I like to do something I’m good at” and “I like the excitement” . Focus group interviews with netballers confirmed the multiplicity of salient motives. Focus groups were asked to finish the sentence “I like netball because,” and participants gave a barrage of answers, highlighting specifically the action and team elements of the game. For example,

“I like netball because it’s a team sport, it’s intense, its fast, it involves lots of skills”

All 3 variables correlating to Health and Fitness (“ I like to exercise”, “ I like to stay in shape” , “ I want to be physically fit”) were also included in the first factor split, thus the adjoining of titles for the first factor. Health and fitness factors are consistently found in most previous studies (see Table 7). Focus group interviews allowed participants to expand further on certain motives. All participants in the focus group supported health and fitness benefits of playing netball, and in particular, were concerned not only about the improvements in health and fitness through exercise, but in maintaining weight. A focus group participant stated,

“Doing sports is important to me, I don’t have any hobbies so I’ll probably get fat or something if I don’t do sports.”

Participants who completed questionnaires were also asked to state the person who influenced them to play netball in this current season and then further expand on how this significant person influenced them. Statements made alluded to the role of significant others providing participants feedback regarding weight and this further motivated participation for physical appearance. The questionnaire item asked “How did this person influence your decision to play netball this season?” Some participants stated,

“She said I was overweight”

“Just finished having kids, needed to get back in shape”

“He said I was getting a bit chubby so I decided to play netball”

“I thought I was gaining too much fat, and I thought I needed a run”

Table 6: Principal Components Analysis

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|--------------------------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Aspects of Netball / Health & Fitness | | | | | | | |
| 17. Like the action | .734 | | | | | | |
| 14. Like to exercise | .733 | | | | | | |
| 18. Like the team spirit | .667 | | | | | | |
| 6. To stay in shape | .632 | | | | | | |
| 24. To be physically fit | .622 | | | | | | |
| 12. To do something I'm good at | .569 | | | | | | |
| 9. Like the teamwork | .553 | | | | | | |
| 7. Like the excitement | .547 | | | | | | |
| 16. Like to have something to do | .542 | | | | | | |
| 26. Like the challenge | .526 | | | | | | |
| 29. Like to have fun | .503 | | | | | | |
| 15. Like the rewards | .472 | | | | | | |
| Challenge | | | | | | | |
| 23. To go on to a higher level | | .717 | | | | | |
| 31. Like to try out a new sport/activity | | .677 | | | | | |
| 30. Like to use the equipment or facilities | | .608 | | | | | |
| 22. Like being on a team | | .531 | | | | | |
| Social Status | | | | | | | |
| 3. Like to win | | | .698 | | | | |
| 5. Like to travel | | | .603 | | | | |
| 28. To gain status or recognition | | | .534 | | | | |
| 27. Like the coaches or instructors | | | .532 | | | | |
| 10. Family or close friends want me to play | | | .527 | | | | |
| 25. To be popular | | | .467 | | | | |
| Affiliation | | | | | | | |
| 19. Like to get out of the house | | | | .751 | | | |
| 21. Like to feel important | | | | .620 | | | |
| 20. Like to compete | | | | .531 | | | |
| 8. To be with my friends | | | | .473 | | | |
| Energy Release | | | | | | | |
| 13. To release tension | | | | | .780 | | |
| 4. To get rid of energy | | | | | .705 | | |
| Skills Development | | | | | | | |
| 1. To improve my skills | | | | | | .771 | |
| 11. To learn new skills | | | | | | .570 | |
| Family Affiliation | | | | | | | |
| 2. To be with my family | | | | | | | .719 |
| Eigenvalue | 9.93 | 2.53 | 2.03 | 1.65 | 1.29 | 1.13 | 1.03 |
| % Variance | 32.0 | 8.2 | 6.5 | 5.3 | 4.2 | 3.6 | 3.3 |

Table 7: Factors Identified in Participation Motivation Studies

| Gill et al. (1983) | Gould, et al. (1985) | Klint & Weiss (1986) | Longhurst & Spink (1987) | Brodkin & Weiss (1990) | Bounamano et al. (1995) | Kirkby et al. (1999) | Kolt et al. (1999) | Gaskin (2000) | Teevale (2001) |
|------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| General sports N = 1,138 Youth age group | Swimming N = 365 Mean age = 13.5 | Gymnastics N = 106 Mean age = 13.4 | General sports N = 404 Mean age = 12 | Swimming N = 100 Across lifespan | General sports N = 2,589 Age range 9-18 | Gymnastics N = 383 Mean age = 10.3 | Gymnastics N = 701 Mean age = 10.6 | Cricket N = 858 Age group = adolescents | Netball N = 157 Mean Age range = 17-25 |
| Achievement/Status | Achievement/Status | Aspects of Competition | Team/Achievement | Aspects of Competition | Success/ Status | • | Achievement | Achievement | Aspects of Netball / Health & Fitness |
| Team | Team Atmosphere | Team Atmosphere | • | - | Team | - | Team | Team / Enjoyment | - |
| Fitness | Fitness | Fitness | Fitness | Health / Fitness | Fitness / Skill | Somatic | - | Skill / Fitness | • |
| Energy Release | Energy Release | - | - | Energy Release | Energy Release | - | • | Leisure / Catharsis | Energy Release |
| Situational | - | Situational | Situational | Significant Others | Extrinsic Rewards | Miscellaneous | Miscellaneous | - | Family Affiliation |
| Skill | Skill Development | - | - | - | • | - | Skills | • | Skills Development |
| Friends / Affiliation | Friendship | - | - | Affiliation | Friendship / Fun | Social Cohesion | • | Affiliation | Affiliation |
| Fun | - | - | - | Fun | • | Excitement | Recognition/Excitement | - | - |
| - | Excitement/Challenge | Challenge | - | - | - | Affiliation | Challenge/Fun | - | Challenge |
| - | - | Action | - | - | - | Action | - | - | - |
| - | - | Social Recognition | Status | Social Status | - | Status | Popularity/Energy Release | - | Social Status |

Key:

'-' no factor present in the study;

'•' factor included in the study, adjoined in place with another factor

These statements support the findings of most participation studies that have noted a strong difference between male and female motives for participation, with females rating appearance motives consistently higher than males (Ashford, Biddle & Goudas, 1993; Gill et al., 1996.). The LINZ study also showed this trend amongst New Zealand teenagers, with females citing more often than males “to control weight” as a motive for physical participation (Wilson, Hopkins & Russell, 1993, p.20). This point illustrates how powerful current images are for women to conform to a “body beautiful” state, and this is a salient motive for physical activity participation and in particular, participation in netball for Pacific women.

CHALLENGE

The second factor loaded items such as “I want to go on to a higher level”, “I like to use the equipment or facilities”, “I like being on a team” which are grouped under the Challenge title. Focus group interviews confirmed that netballers sought opportunities to test and develop their skills by seeking challenging situations within their netball experiences. Focus group participants particularly highlighted being exposed to new concepts, and new learning opportunities.

“The other side to learning that I really enjoy is learning skills and stuff and being taught something, putting it into practice and getting praise for it and then you feel good about yourself. I like that side of it, of improving and stuff and of being able to do better, not only for your team but also for yourself, personal improvement, and if you feel good, then you play good, and then sometimes people feed off that”

“I like netball due to the fact that it’s quite a social sport, in the sense that you can play with your friends and they can be at the same level with you and you can take them to a different level with you if you want to, and also, the involvement with your managers and coaches and what you learn off them. I like the learning phase, where if I get good feedback from somebody I can always develop more”

These statements provide support for Harter's competence motivation theory which, posits

“that individuals are motivated to demonstrate competence in an achievement area and do so by engaging in mastery attempts (i.e., learn and demonstrate sport skills). If successful, these mastery experiences result in feelings of efficacy and positive affect, which, in turn, result in continued motivation to participate.” (Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992, p. 65).

Findings from participation motivation studies conclude that most individuals participate in sport and physical activity for intrinsic reasons such as sheer joy, pleasure, fun, curiosity and personal mastery involved in sports experiences. Netball participants in this study seek out challenging opportunities within their netball experience in order to realise these intrinsic motives.

SOCIAL STATUS

Social Status is the third factor of the study, and included items “I like to win”, “I like to gain status or recognition”. The items loaded on this factor were similar to the findings of Buonamano et al. (1995) and Longhurst & Spink (1987), but different to Gill et al. (1983) and Gould et al's (1985) studies. Longhurst and Spink (1987) stated these differences could be attributed to the cultural differences between Australian children and North American children, whereby American children may see a connection between achievement and status, whereas Australian children do not, discriminating between achievement and status resulting in separate factors for the Australian data.

Social Status items in this study, reflect netballers concern with doing well as an individual despite being part of a team sport and gaining recognition for successful performance by significant others (i.e., coaches, family and friends). Focus group participants supported the individuality possible in netball, as shown in the statement below.

“I play, usually goal keep, and I just love it, going out against the goal shoot knowing that I'm the last person to stop her, cos I know I have that psychological thing, that I can out-do her and just get the ball, and she's not going to get it in, cos I know what I can do to put her off her shot. And it's real individual with me, just me against her, that's how I think about it. For me, it's a team sport, but it's also a personal competition”

AFFILIATION

The Affiliation factor items for this study also replicated the findings from other studies (e.g., Brodtkin & Weiss, 1990; Buonamano et al. 1995; Gaskin, 2000; Gill et al., 1983). The importance of associating with a group and having another activity different to other aspects of life was seen to be valuable by focus group participants. The items “I like to get out of the house” and “I like to feel important” stood to describe netballers’ need to have a variety of activities in their life that can offer them opportunities for self-improvement, achievement and affiliation.

“I play netball also to balance my studies with something physical”

“netball is a great social sport, we have a club to go back to, to get player-of-the-day prizes, like petrol vouchers, you sort of play hard to win these. Some of the ladies in my team who haven’t been out much, and netball is like an outing for them...there’s one who you wouldn’t even hear from her say a word and by the end of the season, she’s talking to everyone.”

“netball is a real social event, it really is, on Saturday morning netball, you see people you haven’t seen in years roll up, you catch up, see your old school friends, and there’s so much to talk about, because you’re all involved in the same thing, it’s something in common, even outside your own club, outside your own team, there’s always people from the region that you recognise, that’s really cool.”

ENERGY RELEASE

Similar to other studies, items “I want to release tension” and “I want to get rid of energy” were loaded onto a separate factor called Energy Release (Brodtkin & Weiss, 1995; Gaskin, 2000; Gill et al., 1983; Kolt et al., 1999). A focus group participant made a statement that highlights the point that Pacific netballers also play netball for a cathartic function.

“I think its really important because it’s the one selfish thing I do, like everything else, you’ve got work, your partner, even my varsity work, cos my Mum helps me out in a big way, so if I fail its not just me, my family have put in this big effort just for me, and when I get on court, I mean, its just all about me letting loose ... it lets go of all this aggression too, you just have the worse day ever, you just get onto the netball court and have a good game and you know, you just have the best day after that.”

This study supports the findings of previous research, which concluded that sport does provide its' participants a relief from the stresses of other cares of life (Brodkin & Weiss, 1990; Spreitzer & Synder, 1983).

SKILLS DEVELOPMENT

Factor six is labelled Skills Development. The two items correlating to skills development, "I want to improve my skills" and "I want to learn new skills" loaded onto this factor. This factor imitated the findings from Gill et al., (1983), Bounamano et al., (1995) and Kolt et al., (1999), but not Brodkin & Weiss (1990) and Longhurst & Spink (1987) whose studies loaded these factors onto aspects intrinsic to the sport of swimming and sports in general. This study found skills development to be an important motive for netball participation. The focus group statements made earlier about the importance of continually being challenged in their netball experience through coming across new learning experiences has supported this factor from the questionnaire data. In particular, focus group participants were also able to explain how they sought challenging opportunities, to increase their learning from the netball experience.

"I've gone to tournaments where some have had to get up and do a speech afterwards, you know, that's really incredible just from a learning point of view, as a captain having to stand up and thank the other teams and think very very quickly on your feet about what you're going to say, that's got to make some sort of inspirational sense, so, I think that's learning too."

"I suppose there's also quite a lot of leadership roles within as well like being captain or like, we rotate who takes the warm up, so you've got to be quite on to it, so there's that side too"

"I think you learn a lot from doing other things, I mean, people always say you learn a lot when you referee, blah blah blah, but you really do! I mean you can never yell at a referee after you've ref'd yourself, and coaching, I've just learnt so much more about my game from coaching and so many more things became clear to me from what coaches have said to me, from my actual experience of coaching other people, you just don't see it, until you see other people doing it. It's just a huge learning experience, the whole thing."

Spreitzer and Snyder (1983) assert that people seek out challenging situations such as sport for self-determination and self-expression. They concluded that adult participants in sports are likely to have feelings of pride, competence and satisfaction from their

participation, and as one's estimation of sports ability increases, this increases the attraction toward physical activity involvement, reinforcing ongoing participation in the sporting experience. By taking on other roles in the game, Pacific netballers are challenging themselves in new experiences from which their learning phase is continually being met and therefore achieve personal goals.

FAMILY AFFILIATION

The final factor derived from the analysis is termed Family Affiliation and includes the one item related to it – “I want to be with my family”. This factor is similar to the one termed Situational by Gill et al., (1983) and Longhurst & Spink (1987), Significant others by Brodtkin & Weiss (1990) and Extrinsic rewards by Bounamano et al., (1995). The factors in previous studies generally included items involving all persons found in the sports experience of participants, for example, “Parents want me to participate”, “Best friends want me to participate” and “I like the coach”. This study differed from previous studies in that 1 item loaded on this factor and this item included only family and not friends or coaches. The relevance of this factor is perhaps supported by the high ranking it received from participants when asked to rank motives in order of importance. The item “I want to be with my family” was ranked the third most important reason for netball participation (Table 5).

The focus groups strongly supported a family influence on the current participation of Pacific women in netball. In particular, netball provided participants the opportunity to experience netball with other family members.

“For me, cos I was born and brought up out here and it really was the most popular sport for women back then, and for girls. There was hockey back then, but we just didn't get into that, and netball was just the most popular sport, there was no rugby or anything like that, there was soccer, but we certainly didn't get into that, so netball was the most popular sport, and we were so good at it, and very skilled and very natural, and I just remember all the beautiful flair that we had, that used to bring people to watch us, that's what made it attractive, and the team side of it, and all the support, and all the parents would come out to watch, and you could watch a whole lot of people at once, you know like with softball, you have one person out to bat and it's sort of a little bit more individual, but netball was a sport that the whole family could watch a whole lot of people play at once.”

“Yeah, especially if you’ve got all your sisters in the one game then your family only needs to come to one game.”

“Oh I remember, yeah, at one time my mum played, my sister and my niece, you know like it was three generations on the court at once. It was neat.”

“And the other good thing about it, is that there are other aspects like coaching. My sister and I have been coaching together now for two years, it’s the most regular thing we do together ever, we see each other heaps when we play netball or coach netball together, like, it’s one of the best things we do together to catch up with each other.”

The focus group interviews helped to expand on some of the findings from the questionnaire, particularly about socialisation into netball. There is a very strong family socialisation process in the Pacific women’s netball experiences, which will be discussed further in the following chapter.

Despite a consistent assertion by the literature on the significance of others, parents, peers, coaches and teachers on the participation of youth in sports, very little research has looked specifically at the influence of significant others and participation motivation (Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992). A recent study in New Zealand by Gaskin (2000) has looked at the relationship between participation / discontinuation and coaching / parental behaviours in youth cricket. The study found that the motivational climate provided by parents influences the motivations of adolescent cricketers, and that this influence was persistent through all age groups, and parental influence did not decrease as participants got older as other overseas studies had found (Greendorfer, 1977; Higginson, 1985).

Other New Zealand studies focusing particularly on Maori sports participation also found a strong family motive for sports participation. The Hillary Commission (1992) report on Maori physical activity and leisure reported “to feel good, have fun, keep healthy and do things with family are the main reasons Maori adults give for participation in physical activity.” (p. 17). In comparison with non-Maori, motives for participation in physical activity were generally similar except for three particular items: “To do things with family”, “To control weight”, and “Only if I have to”, items were found to be significantly different between Maori and non-Maori, and of which, the first two are similar to this study’s findings.

Wrathall's (1996) study on Maori sportswomen provides compelling support for the salience of family affiliation as a factor for Pacific netballers' participation motivation. Maori women in Wrathall's study were adamant about the importance of *whanau* at all levels of their sports experiences, as one of the study participants stated,

Family support is very important! If we don't have this, how will we get there? (cited in Thompson, Rewi & Wrathall, 2000, p. 249).

The findings from this research would suggest that Pacific women participate in netball for similar reasons to Maori sports/physical activity participants, in particular, motives related to family affiliation and weight control.

Comparisons with New Zealand netball studies

There are two previous studies completed in New Zealand that looked specifically at participation motivation of youth in netball. Table 8 compares the findings of these two previous studies with the present one. The first two studies differ from the present one in terms of sample age ranges and ethnic make-up. The Wade & McKenzie (1994) study also differs in sample region.

The first study was completed by Hodge & Zaharopoulos (1991), which involved youth netballers from a random selection of state schools nationwide. The ethnic make up of the sample was 74.6% *New Zealand European*, 13.3% *Maori*, and *multi-ethnic/other* category. 391 youth netballers completed a short questionnaire developed from Gill et al.'s, (1983) PMQ, but it was modified to include only 7 motives for participants to rate on a Likert 5-point scale, and included an open-ended question for participants to list other motives for netball participation. No factor analysis was completed and results show a ranking of motives in order of importance as summed through the sample mean for each motive.

Likewise for the Wade & McKenzie (1994) study, no factor analysis was completed from questionnaire data taken from a sample of netballers from primary schools in the Otago region ($n = 161$). The sample was younger in age, with a mean age of 11.8 years. The instrument used, the "Minor Sport Enjoyment Inventory" developed by

Wankel and Kreisel (1985a, 1985b; see Ostrow, 1990) was used to measure what netballers liked about their netball experience, with participants rating 10 motives using a 5-point Likert scale. The use of a different research tool makes it difficult to apply the research findings across to studies utilising the PMQ. The ranked items from the Hodge and Zaharopoulos (1991) and Wade and McKenzie (1994) studies' will be compared with the ranked items of the present study.

Comparing the top seven items across all three netball studies shows many similarities, with youth netballers and Pacific adult netballers participating in netball for similar reasons. That is, for "fun", for the "team elements", for "physical fitness", "achieving personal goals" and "learning new skills". In addition to the questionnaire survey, Hodge & Zaharopoulos (1991) also interviewed 89 netballers in the sample, from which more data was derived to allow formulation of key categories about the motives of high school netballers (see Table 8). The categories represent motives which are present in the current study, but the lack of further analysis of categories from the Hodge & Zaharopoulos sample, means that little can be made about the categories in terms of an importance rating, which would allow a comparison of findings with the current study. Comparing the previous researches ranked items with the top seven most important motives of the present study shows some differences. The items "Being with family" and "To stay in shape" was ranked highly by Pacific women netballers, and were not mentioned in the previous studies.

Table 8: Findings of Netball Participation Motivation Studies in New Zealand.

| Hodge & Zaharopoulos (1991) <i>National</i> <i>N = 391</i> <i>Mean age = 14.9 years</i> | Wade & McKenzie (1994) <i>Otago region</i> <i>N = 161</i> <i>Mean age = 11.8</i> | Teevale (2001) <i>National</i> <i>N = 157</i> <i>Mean Age range = 17-25</i> |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>No factor analysis</p> <p><u>7 ranked variables in order of importance</u></p> <p>Improve skills / learn skills Fitness Fun Achieve goals To be with friends / make new friends Thrills / excitement To win</p> <p><u>Categories found from open-ended question responses:</u></p> <p>Enjoyment Communication skills Relax/relieve stress Tradition Represent the school Travel Team Occupy time Compete Status Friends Self-esteem Ability Prove themselves To be recognised</p> | <p>No factor analysis</p> <p><u>10 ranked variables in order of importance</u></p> <p>Personal accomplishment Improve skills Excitement of game Doing the skills Testing abilities Being on a team Being with friends Pleasing others Winning the game Receiving rewards</p> | <p>Factor analysis</p> <p><u>Top 7 ranked variables in order of importance</u></p> <p>Like to have fun Like the teamspirit Like the teamwork To be physically fit Like to do something I'm good at Like being on a team Like to learn new skills</p> <p><u>Top 7 ranked items as "Most Important" motive for participation</u></p> <p>Like to have fun To improve my skills To be with my family Like the challenge To be physically fit To go on to a higher level To stay in shape</p> |

Another major difference with the two earlier netball studies is that the youth ranked “Improve skills / learn skills” very highly (number one for Hodge & Zaharopoulos (1991) study and number two for Wade & McKenzie (1994) study) as a motive for netball participation, while Pacific women netballers in this study rated “Skills development” as the 6th most important factor for participation motivation. Brodtkin & Weiss’ (1990) lifespan study provides similar findings in the sport of swimming, with older adults and high school/college swimmers rating the competitive factor of swimming, which included items of skill development, significantly lower than younger swimmers. These findings suggest that motivations change over time, as physical and cognitive maturity transpires in an individual. That is, it would seem that older participants, with more experience, might already be skilled and therefore focus on other aspects of the sport, with other motives taking precedence.

Focus group participants were asked specifically to discuss whether their motivations for participation changed throughout their playing experiences. All focus groups concurred that it had.

“When I was in school, I played cos of friends, but then when I left school, it was more for dad”

“I think motivations changes cos when I was in primary school it was family, and at college it was friends, cos your friends are all playing and they go on to trials, and when I was in college by myself in Auckland it was just familiarity, when you miss something you just crave knowing something and netball is something you know, and then back down here, it’s fitness and taking care of yourself, and social stuff, so I think motivations have gotta change cos you just can’t do it for other people.”

Furthermore, the comparison between the netball studies showed similarities for rankings at the lower end of the tables. The earlier studies ranked extrinsic or outcome-related motives such as “winning the game”, “receiving rewards” and “pleasing others” as the least important motives for netball participation. The current study also ranked these motives at the lower end of the table, indicating that all netball studies have consistent findings with participation motivation literature, that have concluded consistently, “that the overriding reasons cited by children and

adolescents for their participation are intrinsic in nature.” (Weiss & Chaumeton, 1992, p. 69). Extrinsic motives are rated as less important.

Participation motives and independent variables

Data from the questionnaires were crosstabulated with independent variables such as age groups, level of experience measured in years of participation, level of netball measured through regional-representative status, cultural differences measured through place of birth and Island group/s identity and regional differences. Appendix I shows the results of the crosstabulations. Only the top ten motives are shown as well as the last three motives ranked by each distinct group.

Overall, there were no differences between regions and between Island groupings. The three major regions from which participants were drawn, Auckland, Waikato and Wellington regions, showed no differences in participation motives. Participants from all three regions ranked motives that loaded on factors such as Aspects of Netball/ Health & Fitness, Challenge and Skills Development highly. Likewise for the three major Island groupings, Cook-island, Multiple-ethnic and Samoan groups, the same top ten motives were also found.

Only small differences were found between level of netball experience measured through number of seasons and regional representative status. The more experienced netball players, (i.e., those who had played more than 11 seasons) did not rank Challenge motive items as highly as participants classed in the 1-5 seasons and 6-10 seasons bracket. Challenge items were ranked moderately by the more experienced group, while the least experienced groups ranked some of the challenge items in the top ten motives. This finding mirrors the results of Brodtkin & Weiss’ (1990) lifespan study of swimmers, which found that younger swimmers rated items related to challenge such as “I want to go to a higher level” higher than older adult groups. All three groups played netball for the Aspects of netball/Health & Fitness reasons and Skill Development reasons, but only those participants who were relatively new to the game (in terms of seasons played) also played for challenge reasons, aiming to achieve further in their netball experience.

The exact pattern observed above emerges in the comparison between representative players and non-representative players. Representative players ranked highly items relating to Aspects of Netball/ Health & Fitness, Skills Development and Challenge. Non-representative players omitted items related to the Challenge factor in the top ten ranked motives. It would seem, that Representative players strive more to reach a higher level than non-representative players.

Interesting differences were found in the age groups comparisons and the crosstabulations between NZ-born participants and Island-born participants. The participant numbers in the age group split are small, so any conclusions derived from this comparison must be accepted cautiously. The participants were split into three age groups, with those in the age ranges 46-55 years and 56⁺ years merged within the 36-45 age group to create a greater number for comparison. The top ten items across all three age groups varied slightly. Participants aged in the 17-25 age range ranked highly items relating to Aspects of Netball/Health & Fitness, Skills Development and Challenge. Participants aged in the 26-35 age range ranked the same three factors with an added item relating to Energy Release. Participants in the 36⁺ age group ranked highly items relating to Aspects of Netball/Health & Fitness, Skills Development and Family Affiliation.

It would seem that across all age ranges, participants choose to play netball for the intrinsic joy, competition and self-determination aspects of the netball experience. Participating in netball is also aligned closely to being involved in an activity beneficial to health and physical appearance. It would also seem, that the younger adults (i.e., 17-25) were more concerned not only about the aspects above, but also that the netball experience should provide a challenge. Younger players were more attentive to getting better and moving to a higher level of netball.

The motives that younger adults (ie., 17-25) rated were similar to the motives that the middle adult group (i.e., 26-35) chose, except for the 10th most important ranked item by this group - "I want to get rid of energy". Interestingly, this item was ranked as the least most important motive for netball participation by the younger group (17-25 years) and of moderately low importance by the older age group (36⁺ years). It would seem that added to the reasons for participating in netball for the intrinsic joy,

competition, challenge and health benefits, this middle age group are also motivated to play netball for cathartic reasons. This is not surprising given that this lifespan stage is often a stressful period of most adult lives, as adults at this stage in their lives (26-35 years) are faced with major milestone moments such as sorting out career choices and personal-life/family choices (Brodkin & Weiss, 1990). A focus group participant was quoted earlier alluding to the need to juggle many diverse and sometimes antagonistic daily-life activities, such as university studies, employment, family life, a personal relationship, community activities and how she often used netball as an activity to “*let go of all the aggression*” from the compounding stress of daily-life activities (see page 83).

In comparison with the older age group (36⁺ years), Family Affiliation was a motive ranked very highly by this older group, but moderately low by the younger adult group (19th out of 31 motives) and low by the middle-aged group (24th out of 31 motives). Participants over the age of 36⁺ in the focus group interviews did make statements that suggested that their participation in netball was motivated by family affiliation. Netball provided participants the opportunity to play with other family members and be involved in the sports experience of other family members, particularly younger members. Pacific women participants at this age group rated this as an important reason for playing netball.

The differences found between the age groups are identical to the results derived from the analysis between NZ-Born netballers and Island-Born netballers. This probably reflects the connection between age group and place of birth, whereby 82% of the NZ-born netballers are represented in this younger age grouping (i.e., 17-25 years), as opposed to only 50% of the Island-born participants. Therefore the motives found for the younger age group mirror the motives found for the NZ-Born netballers. That is, Aspects of Netball/Health & Fitness, Skills Development and Challenge were salient motives for netball participation for NZ-Born netballers.

The motives found for the older age group (i.e., 36⁺ years) are identical for Island-Born netballers. That is, Aspects of Netball/Health & Fitness, Skills Development and Family Affiliation. “I want to be with my family” was ranked in the top ten items by Island-born netballers, and it was ranked the 20th from a list of 31 items by NZ-

Born netballers. This is an interesting finding, which may show a cultural difference within a Pacific group made up of people raised in two different cultural environments; an Island environment, encompassing a Cook-Island / Samoan / Tongan / Fijian cultural values versus a New Zealand environment dominated by European-Victorian values. Although, as stated earlier, it may also be a function of age group levels. However, the finding is important as it highlights what other Pacific researchers have been asserting for sometime, about the misplaced homogeneity of Pacific groups by mainstream New Zealand (Anae, 1997; Meleisea & Schoeffel, 1998; Mulitalo-Lauta, 2000; Spickard & Fong, 1995).

This study found that Island-born netballers, who were by and large, older than NZ-born netballers, showed some differences in motivation to play netball. Playing netball with family members was rated important for Island-born netballers, which can signify the importance placed on the value of affiliating within the greater family, which NZ-born netballers may not share. This is probably overstating the finding, considering that most of the NZ-born netballers in this study are in the 17-25 age group, reflecting the young nature of the general Pacific NZ-born population (Cook, Didham & Khawaja, 2001). What is most useful as a comparison is to complete what Meleisea & Schoeffel (1998) suggest, and this is to compare the groups when NZ-born netballers become an older age group to truly test whether the Family Affiliation motive and value is maintained or discarded by NZ-born netballers. "It will be interesting to see whether, as the New Zealand-born children become parents, they will perpetuate these [Island] customs, (Meleisea & Schoeffel, 1998, p. 170)." The finding at this stage tentatively poses a cultural difference in participation motivation of Pacific women netballers. Kirkby et al.'s (1998) Australian study also found cultural differences in physical activity motivations between Australian-born and non-Australian born adults, with non-Australian born participants rating the "Affiliation" factor higher than their Australian-born peers.

Last, comparison between all groups for all independent variables shows a consistent pattern at the bottom end of the motive rankings. Items such as "I want to be popular", "I like to feel important", "I want to gain status or recognition" and items loaded for the Energy Release factor ("I want to get rid of energy", "I want to release tension") were consistently ranked as the least important motives for netball

participation, despite age ranges, regional differences, level of netball experience, ethnic group or place of birth. This result is consistent with the findings of Hodge & Zaharopoulos (1991) and Wade & McKenzie (1994).

Summary

In summary, the ranking of participation motives for this study as well as the factors derived from the factor analysis output were generally in agreement with previous participation motivation studies both from overseas and in New Zealand. Pacific women netballers play netball for a multitude of reasons, including for the intrinsic aspects of the game of netball, health and fitness benefits, affiliation, for the challenge and the learning of skills, for cathartic release and social status. A finding that appears different from other studies though, including New Zealand youth netball studies, is that a family affiliation motive is particularly strong for Pacific women netballers. This finding is similar to research about Maori sport/physical activity participation, along with the motives to participate for controlling weight and body shape.

Results from the crosstabulation of motives across independent variables, found that motivations to play netball changes across the lifespan, with younger netballers (17-25 years) emphasising the importance of achieving at higher levels, netballers in the middle age group (26-35 years) played netball for the same reasons as the younger group, but also for a cathartic purpose and older netballers (36⁺ years) stated family affiliation as a salient motive for participation. This age group result was mirrored in the NZ-born versus Island-born comparison, with Island-born rating the item "I want to be with my family" higher than NZ-born. This probably reflects more an age-group difference, rather than a cultural difference as the older group sample included more Island-born netballers and the younger age group included significantly more NZ-born netballers.

Chapter 8: Pacific Netballers' Socialisation

Introduction

The purpose of sport socialisation research has generally been to explain various aspects of sport involvement. In particular, sport sociologists are interested in how individuals become involved in sport and physical activity and to learn about the consequences and or outcomes of physical activity involvement (Coakley, 1998; Greendorfer, 1992; McPherson *et al.*, 1989). Lewko & Greendorfer, (1988) proposed that socialisation be viewed along a continuum, with the initiation into sport at one end, maintenance and persistence or continuation of involvement in the middle and role withdrawal, retirement, dropping out of sport at the end.

Socialisation *into* sport research focuses mainly on the process of becoming an athlete and how an individual learns their sport role. Most of this research undertakes a social learning paradigm, which states that the process of sport socialisation is mediated within three clusters of independent variables; personal attributes, significant others and socialization situations (see model Figure 3 on page 21).

Socialisation *through* sport deals primarily with what is happening during the sports experience and often tests the assumptions regarding the learning outcomes of the sports experience. Specific behavioural outcomes from the sports experience, such as character building, moral reasoning and whether these lessons learnt in sport are applicable to other spheres of life are examples of research concentrating on socialisation *through* sport.

At the end of the socialisation continuum is a stage that involves athletes leaving or dropping out of the sport experience, sometimes called *desocialisation* by some researchers (Greendorfer, 1992; Lewko & Greendorfer, 1988; McPherson *et al.*, 1989). Research into this area of sports socialisation is interested in understanding the process athletes experience when withdrawing from the sports experience as well as the outcomes of this disengagement process.

Researchers who have reviewed the sports socialisation literature concluded, "[that] we have not yet arrived at a clear understanding of how individuals become involved in sport." (Lewko & Greendorfer, 1988, p. 294). The empirical evidence does not appear ordered or systematic. In light of these reviews, Lewko and Greendorfer, (1988) and Coakley (1998) propose a new approach to socialisation, one that takes into consideration the dynamic and interactive process of socialisation. In order to gain an understanding to the meanings people associate with sports as a cultural experience, to hear detailed descriptions of people's sports experiences as they occur in the larger context of their lives, research approaches that use qualitative rather than quantitative methods is recommended.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide both qualitative and quantitative data on Pacific women's socialisation *into, through* and *out* of netball. The data is primarily retrospective in nature, as adult netballers recall their experiences in the past, but also talk about their experiences in the present.

Pacific women's socialisation into netball

Agents of socialisation at the onset of netball participation

Out of the three clusters of variables in the social learning model, most socialisation into sports studies focus specifically on *agents of socialisation* (Greendorfer, 1977; Greendorfer & Ewing, 1981; Harris, 1994; Higginson, 1985). Agents of socialisation are those significant others deemed to have an influence on an individual's current sports participation, which most studies have identified to be family, peer group, teachers, coaches and role models. The present study specifically asked participants about the nature of their initiation experiences into netball. The study went further than most socialisation into sports studies, by not only eliciting the specific agent of influence into netball, but also asked about *how* significant others influenced and how participants rationalise the influence of these significant others.

Participants in this study were asked to identify the person who had influenced them the most to play netball in the *first instance*. Table 9 shows the results from the questionnaire data. Overall, almost two-thirds (64.3%) of the questionnaire sample

indicated that the most significant influence for initiation of their netball participation came from within the family environment. 34.4% of netballers indicated that “Family members” which included “sister(s)”, “cousin(s)”, “dad”, “parents” (i.e., mum *and* dad) and “auntie(s)” were agents of socialisation into netball. “Mum” was a family member who was identified in significant numbers by participants on its own as a major influence (29.9%). The next strongest group of influence was from the “Friends/Peer” group (14.0%).

Table 9: Agents of socialisation at the onset of netball participation

| Agents of socialisation | Frequency | Percent % |
|----------------------------------------------------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Family Member (sister(s); cousin(s); dad; parents; auntie(s).) | 54 | 34.4 |
| Mum | 47 | 29.9 |
| Friends/ Peers | 22 | 14.0 |
| Teacher at school | 12 | 7.6 |
| Self Motivation | 11 | 7.0 |
| Role Model | 5 | 3.2 |
| No answer given | 3 | 1.9 |
| Coach | 2 | 1.3 |
| Church | 1 | 0.6 |
| Total | 157 | 100.0 |

The findings of this study needed to be compared with other socialisation studies that included a female sample participating in a uniquely female sport. Unfortunately, there is a lack of specific studies, which focus on women’s sport. The studies that have looked specifically at the socialisation of females into sports show conflicting results. McPherson et al., (1989), Greendorfer (1977) and Higginson (1985) stated that family is the most persistent socialising agency for females for initiation of sports participation, while Yamaguchi (1984) reported that peers, not parents, was the important socialising agency for her North American female adolescent sample.

Greendorfer and Ewing (1981) further found that patterns of influence differed according to race. Acosta (1999) wrote about the experiences of Hispanic American women in sport and concluded that parents and other family members did not always agree that sport was a good career choice for Hispanic women and therefore

significant others for sport participation came from outside the family. Wong (1999) supported Acosta's findings in detailing her experience as an Asian American woman, whereby traditional Chinese family upbringing did not provide ample support for sports participation, and role models outside of the home became salient influencers. In Australia, Taylor and Toohey's (1996) study of non-English speaking women found that family support was also not forthcoming, "family attitudes to participation ranged from viewing it as unimportant to outright disapproval of females engaging in sport." (1996, p. 78). What these researchers have found is that the influence of agents in sport is mediated through cultural contexts, which Coakley (1998) and Allison (1982a) advocate, shows the interactive nature of the socialisation process. The *Socialisation situations* posited by the social learning model interacts with *Significant others* and therefore, it should not be surprising that socialisation agents differ across different regional samples, genders, race, age-groups, class-groups, and cultural-ethnic groups (Kirkby, et al., 1999; Kolt, et al., 1999).

A comparison within the same cultural context is therefore warranted and New Zealand based studies show some interesting patterns. Exploratory studies in New Zealand across different sports, age groups and for different cultural groups show that family is often cited as being an important agent for socialisation into sport (Gaskin, 2000; Hillary Commission, 1992; Hodge & Zaharopoulos, 1991; Thompson, 1985; Wrathall, 2000). Hodge and Zaharopoulos' (1991) study into youth netballers found that family plays a role in both the initiation and maintenance of youth netball participation. One of the reasons youth netballers gave in Hodge and Zaharopoulos' study for playing netball was family tradition. One participant interviewed stated she played "because I feel that I have to follow my mother's footsteps because she was a really good netballer though my mother wants me to be happy in whatever sports I play and doesn't mind." (1991, p. 10). Pacific women's netball experience is similar to the youth netballers in Hodge and Zaharopoulos' study.

Focus group participants in this study recalled their initiation into netball, and the majority talked about coming into netball through the encouragement of either “Mum” or another family member, “Dad”, “Parents” or “Sisters”. “Friends” and “Teachers” were also mentioned as agents of their netball socialisation. This is illustrated by the following comment,

“When I think back, the reason why I play netball, well, my Mum has never been sporting at all, but when she was young, I asked her what sport she played and she said basketball, but she said, but now you call it netball and that’s why I went and played cos that’s what my Mum had played, and my two older sisters play too.”

Other New Zealand studies on women and sports found that both family and an immediate circle of friends played an important part in both initiating and maintaining sports participation (Leberman & Chu, 2000; Thompson, 1985). Wrathall’s (1996) study with elite Maori sportswomen reports that “most athletes came to their sport by following parents or sisters, brothers and other *whanau* around the sports grounds.” (cited in Thompson, Rewi & Wrathall, 2000, p, 246). The initial netball socialisation of Pacific women seems to be consistent with the sports socialisation of other New Zealand women, whereby a multitude of agents play a role in influencing sports involvement, but that the family environment seems to be a particularly important influence during initial sports involvement.

Agents of socialisation for current netball involvement

Participants were also asked to indicate who had influenced their decision to play in the current season. Table 10 shows that the influence of significant others changes over the netballers’ experience. The influence of both Family and Mum decreases (combined from 64.3% at the onset of netball participation to 49.7%), and the Self Motivation element increases three-fold (from 7.0% to 21.7%). The influence of Friends/Peers remains unchanged (from 14.0% to 14.6%), and new agency of influencers the Club and the Manager are added on the list.

Table 10: Agents of socialisation for the first and current netball season

| Agents of Socialisation | First Season | | Current Season | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------|-----------|----------------|-----------|
| | Frequency | Percent % | Frequency | Percent % |
| Family Member (mum, sister(s); cousin(s); dad; parents; auntie(s).) | 101 | 64.3 | 78 | 49.7 |
| Friends | 22 | 14.0 | 23 | 14.6 |
| Teacher | 12 | 7.6 | 1 | 0.6 |
| Self Motivation | 11 | 7.0 | 34 | 21.7 |
| No answer given | 3 | 1.9 | 10 | 6.4 |
| Coach | 2 | 1.3 | 7 | 4.5 |
| Club | 0 | 0.0 | 3 | 1.9 |
| Manager | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 0.6 |
| Total | 157 | 100.0 | 157 | 100.0 |

The focus group participants made statements that supported the salience of self-motivation as an agency of socialisation into current sports participation. Previous sports socialisation research generally focuses too narrowly on the role of significant others, concluding that the influence of significant others changes over time, with the influence of family at the onset of sports involvement decreasing as the influence of peers and friends becomes more important (Greendorfer, 1992; McPherson et al., 1989). Previous research using quantitative methods with fixed-choice questionnaire tools fails to take into account the importance of self-motivation as a viable agent of socialisation (Higginson, 1985). Pacific netballers explained further, how different agencies play a role in their current netball socialisation, and in particular, articulated how their current involvement came to be through a decision making process that involved no influence from significant others, but on setting their own personal goals. These points are emphasised in participant responses as follows:

“For me, it was just a natural decision, I never consciously thought not to play, there was never no reason for me not to continue, I really wanted to do better cos I knew I could do better, and I really wanted to cos I had an awesome coach, and last year I was in Prem 5, this year I’m in Prem 3, so I jumped a few teams to get there, I really kinda worked hard to get there so really happy with that.”

“And I played this year purely on the encouragement of my club captain, who was basically desperate to find enough people for the team. I felt really pressured to play this year, it’s been quite awful cos my knee has played up again this season, now I’ve got to have all next season off, when I really wanted this season off to sort myself out.”

“See that’s what happens though, people don’t know how much pressure they put on you. They don’t realise consciously that they’re doing it, but you’re feeling it, and you just rush yourself.”

“Yeah, I’m really upset that I’ve injured myself twice in one year, I’ve never done that before, and so I’m definitely taking next season off, and hopefully get back into it the following season, cos I love the game, and really it came down to me loving the game.”

“My decision was made about two years ago after I injured myself, so I had taken off a whole year, just to play socially to get myself right and then just come back and work and then excel this year, the goals were made and I was quite pleased with the whole year. It was due to the fact that I didn’t get myself right, cos I kept rushing my injuries cos I always wanted to get out there, and then, when you get out there, you just stuff it up a little bit more, and so, I thought, get myself right, get everything else right in my life, then everything should play itself out, as it should be, and that’s what happened this year. I guess that it helps to make preparations and set yourself your own goals cos at the end of the day, it’s just you and nobody else and you’ve gotta make the choice.”

That the influence of significant others changes over the lifespan of Pacific women’s netball experience is in agreement with previous research, (Greendorfer, 1992; Greendorfer & Ewing, 1981; Lewko & Greendorfer, 1988; McPherson et al., 1989). However, the most striking difference in comparison with the past research is that while the influence of family members decreases, (as in previous research), for this study, it is not replaced with a powerful influence by another agent, but rather, Pacific women netballers continue to play netball for their own reasons, and see themselves as the motivating influence in their current netball participation.

Socialisation agents across the lifespan

To understand further the influence of significant others for netballers of different age ranges, level of experience, regions and cultural background, the question on identifying agents of socialisation was crosstabulated against the variables mentioned above. There were generally more similarities than there were differences for most

variables. For example, NZ-born netballers and Island-born netballers both identified the same agents of socialisation for both initial participation and current participation. Representative netballers also identified the same agents for participation as Non-representative netballers. Small differences were noted for level of experience measured through total number of netball seasons played and for different age group levels.

Notably, the more experienced netballers (those who had played 11⁺ seasons) stated that self-motivation was most important for current participation, compared with amateur netballers (those who played 1-5 seasons) who rated Family and Mum as most important. This result surfaced also at the age-group levels, whereby netballers 36 years and older rated self-motivation more important for current participation than younger netballers. Older netballers also ranked Friends to be the second most important influence at the onset of netball involvement, whereas younger netballers rated the family environment to be the most important (Appendix J).

These results mirror findings of previous research into sport socialisation across the lifespan (Brodkin & Weiss, 1990; Greendorfer, 1977; Higginson, 1985; Thompson, 1985) which concluded that as motivations change over the lifespan, so does the influence of significant others. Thompson's (1985) study of female adult orienteers in New Zealand found that the influence for current participation for orienteers came from their immediate social circle. Younger orienteers (age 10-19) were more influenced by their family members, while older women who did not live with their parents and siblings, but were the head of their own households, were influenced more by their friends to participate. This finding seems to manifest within the experience of older netballers as well, who come to play netball in the first instance, not from the influence of family as for younger netballers, but through the influence of friends.

How 'Significant Others' influence

Some researchers have stated that the previous research line of questioning regarding agents of sports socialisation is limited in explanatory power regarding the process of socialisation. Both Lewko & Greendorfer (1988) and Coakley (1998) claimed that too much attention has been paid to the who or what rather than to how and under what circumstances, conditions or constraints the process of socialisation occurs. In this study, participants were asked specifically to explain how the significant other had influenced them to play both in the past on the first occasion of their netball experience and how the significant other had influenced them in the current season. The qualitative responses from both the questionnaire and focus group data indicated that the environment which influenced participants to play netball and the actions of significant others, were important.

The socialisation environment

On their initial involvement, netballers indicated the importance of the school environment as the institution in which they first were able to participate in netball. When asked how the significant other had influenced their decision to play netball in their first season, the most typical response was,

"They encouraged me to join the school team".

Focus group participants supported this, as is exemplified below:

"Probably our school was so small we didn't even have a field, and the only team sport we had was netball, and we started that, when everyone went, lets play a sport, lets play a team sport. And we had one court, it wasn't even flat, they had to draw out a court for us and buy us poles and find us a coach, actually it was the coach who suggested we should play netball."

"I played earlier than you in a school in Auckland, but again, that was like the only school sport offered, so I just thought, oh well, everyone's doing it, this is what everyone's playing during school time, they take time off school to play, so it wasn't so much Mum, she kind of sparked the idea, but it was more like it was available for me to do."

"We initially played miniball, and so miniball was like our first game, that was during the week, and then the [netball] competition got introduced in our Intermediate, and then, we were the first school team, and so then, that's when we got started, it was just me and my friends, and we were like "let's play this game" and that's what we played. Usually I'd be up in the top field playing rugby or soccer with the boys, or stuff like that, I was a real tomboy when I was at school, so, like it was the only school sport, cos soccer wasn't a school sport, you had to go outside and play it with a regional soccer team, but yeah, it was mainly through intermediate school."

The link between netball and schools is not surprising, as New Zealand has a long history of providing netball as the primary winter school sport for girls since as early as 1926 (Nauright & Broomhall, 1994). Nauright and Broomhall (1994) found that netball was officially included in the girls' schools' physical education curriculum in New Zealand during the 1930s and 1940s and the school environment was where the majority of netballers were introduced to the game. Currently, compulsory-schools netball provides the highest participation group for NNZ Saturday competitions (77.9%).

The role of Significant Others in the netball experience

Analysis of participants' responses to the influence of significant others also revealed aspects about the specific role of significant others during participants netball experience. The responses were classed in two categories: namely, whether participants indicated that the influence they had received from significant others, was active, and therefore had more of a direct role during their netball experience, or whether significant others had more an inactive or indirect involvement in their netball experience. Responses were classed under 4 headings as shown in Table 11.

A "Direct" heading included those responses made by participants that indicated the significant other was more actively involved in the netball experience. Being active means that the significant other was also involved in netball in some other capacity, along with the netballer. The significant other either held a player, coach, umpire or club management role. The significant others' role was also active if they needed to participate in such a way as to allow netballers access to the game, for example, through driving them to games and trainings. Typical responses grouped under this heading include for example:

“She said she was going to join our cousins club and I thought I would too”

“By being there and driving me to trainings”

“My sisters helped me train over the summer, we also trialled together, it was something we could share and get excited about”

“Told me to play in school team which she coached”

“She was an umpire and took me to a game”

“She took me to one of her rep trainings”

“At the last minute my Mum asked me to play for her team because they didn't have enough players”

Responses grouped under the “Indirect” heading included those that show significant others to have an inactive or secondary role in the netballers involvement. Generally, significant others were on the sideline and supported by giving words of encouragement and verbal feedback and general enthusiastic support on the sidelines. For example:

“By making me aware that I had the ability to succeed. Always being at every game with the support of my Dad”

“Because I was tall for my age, my mother said I'd be a good netballer”

“They said, ‘you should do something for you to have fun’ so I chose netball”

“She wouldn't stop nagging me”

“After having a baby he knew I wanted to get back on court, but felt a bit uneasy about the transition, after much encouragement his words motivated me to go back”

“Continual encouragement. Have recently returned to rep level after 4 year break, and he had many words of encouragement and wisdom”

“Excellent listener, offers awesome advice”

Responses under the “Role Model” heading grouped statements made by netballers indicating that their participation was motivated by a significant other who they held in high esteem and who they wanted to model. This significant other would not necessarily hold an active netball role along with the netballer. For example:

“My sister was pretty good and I wanted to be as good as her”

“I always went to her games when I was young and wanted to play after that”

“Her book influenced me in playing netball”

“He gets into a lot of sport. He has been involved in a lot of NZ teams, so that pushed me to play a variety of sports”

The heading “Self” indicates that the influence came from self-motivation. For example:

“For the love of the sport, I took myself to training”

“I wanted to do it for myself and get fit again”

“Just wanting to push on to that higher level, knowing we had a stronger team this year”

“I really enjoy netball and I wanted (and still do) want to improve my game”

“I just love the game”

Table 11 show how the statements made by participants were categorised, indicating the role that significant others took during netballers’ initial and current participation.

Table 11: Role of Significant Others in the First and Current Netball Seasons

| Role of Significant Other | First Season | | Current Season | |
|---------------------------|--------------|-----------|----------------|-----------|
| | Frequency | Percent % | Frequency | Percent % |
| Direct role | 71 | 45.2 | 38 | 24.2 |
| Indirect role | 53 | 33.8 | 62 | 39.5 |
| Role Model | 15 | 9.6 | 5 | 3.2 |
| Self Motivation | 6 | 3.8 | 35 | 22.3 |
| No answer given | 12 | 7.6 | 17 | 10.8 |
| TOTAL | 157 | 100.0 | 157 | 100.0 |

The socialisation process at the onset of netball participation

Table 11 shows that at the beginning stages of the netball involvement, netballers received more direct support from their significant others. Netballers often came to play netball with family members or friends who were already playing the sport, or who were involved actively in some other netball role, that is, coaching, managing or administrating netball. This is consistent with the findings of Hodge & Zaharapolous (1991) who found that youth netballers also first came to participate in netball through following family tradition.

The focus group participants supported the notion of netballers following their mum and older sisters into the game. In addition to this, the participants made statements about continuing the familial socialisation process into netball, as highlighted by the statements below:

“When I was peaking in terms of my involvement, I was in the netball union, I was coaching, I was playing, you know, just absolutely valuable. But now, how I see the value of netball, I’ve tried to impress that on my niece, she’s only 13, and this one here [points to young daughter present at the interview session], cos everyone expects that I’ll be involved with netball, organising something to do with netball, and so now I’m making the way for Angie [young daughter - name changed], cos I think, one day she’ll play netball like her mother and grandmother before her. So netball will be a part of my life, I hold in very high value, these kids were brought up on the netball sidelines.”

“I played this season, cos it might be my last season, or next year might be my last season, cos my oldest will start school and then I’ll push her to start playing. Yeah, what comes around goes around. On Saturdays, kids will be my first priority, I’ve had my time.”

The statements made by the netballers highlighted an important inter-generational socialisation process into netball, supporting the previous studies that concluded, that access into sports increases when parents are themselves involved in the sports experience, either currently or in the past (McElroy, 1983; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1973; Yang, et al., 1996).

The socialisation process during the current season

As netballers progressed through their netball experience, the nature of the influence from significant others changes. Table 11 shows a decrease in the Direct role of significant others (from 45.2% to 24.2%), with a corresponding increase in the Self-motivation category (from 3.8% to 22.3%). There is also a slight increase under the Indirect role category (33.8% to 39.5%). This would seem to suggest, that as netballers continue to participate in netball, they become less reliant on the direct influence of significant others and rely instead on their own motivations and resources to access netball. The netballers received more indirect support from significant others', which involved general non-active support to continue to play netball. This indirect support often took the form of general verbal encouragement, as in the words of one participant,

“by being supportive in my decisions through encouragement and words of wisdom.”

The nature of the influence

Focus group interviews were valuable in allowing participants to further explain the nature of the influence received from significant others. Several authors have advocated for socialisation to be researched as an interactive process and in particular, Greendorfer (1992) who stated,

instead of measuring the importance of specific significant others (the who), research attention could shift to how and why significant others are important and how significant others influence, and are influenced by, the socializee (p. 214).

The social learning model posited by Kenyon and McPherson (1977) should be revised to include an arrow returning to the three elements involved in the socialisation process (see Figure 3, on page 21).

This study was able to gather data that furthered understanding regarding how significant others influenced Pacific women netballers into the game. To find out how significant others are influenced by the netballer, interviews with significant others would have been the best method to gain an understanding about this effect. While this study did not undertake this method, it did ask netballers about how they

perceived significant others' motivations for their influence, and therefore attempts to understand *why* significant others are important, from the 'socializee' perspective.

Rationalising 'Significant Others' motivations

At the focus group interviews, after netballers had identified the significant other(s) involved in their netball experience, participants were asked why they thought these significant people had encouraged them to participate in netball. A discussion from one group of netballers details their rationalisation of their significant others' motivations, for socialising them into the game:

"My parents [and] then my grandparents, cos they always tell me I don't have to play if I don't want to, but just to try your best."

"Mines my family, but like, my dad expects too much from me, and then when he does that, that's it, I say 'No', and then he'll back off and then I'll gradually start up again. But he knows when to calm himself down, or else, cos I'm quite stubborn, and if I don't want to do it, then I won't do it"

Does he play sport himself?

"No"

Why do you think he encourages you to play?

"I think it's because he never played sports and he wants us to do well because he never had the chance to"

"mines my parents too, especially my dad as well. He's a sportsman himself, he plays quite a few sports, he can expect heaps too, but it's quite hard cos he's my coach for my other sports as well"

"that's like my mum too, cos I'm like, I'm the only one who plays sports in my family, like, my older brother plays, but he's no longer with us, and my little brother only plays basketball and rugby, but I play quite a lot of sports, I suppose I get a lot of it from mum."

Why does she encourage you to play sports?

"I think sometimes it's pride, pride in their kids, they want to see their kids do good, do well, and yeah, just high expectations they have for their children"

"yeah, because they expect a lot from you"

"my parents as well, at the moment, it's because they're really involved in organising, like mum's organising netball and dad with organising rugby, so, it's like, you got to have one person in your family to be there [to play sports], like a role model kind of thing."

The discussion above exemplifies how netballers perceived the motivations of their significant others, in influencing their involvement in netball and sports in general. Some netballers talked about the influence being strong and not necessarily positive. The influence to participate from parents, extended families, club captains and others can be perceived by netballers to be negative and can lead them to choose not to participate, as one participant's comment made clear,

"I found the higher the level, the more pressure from parents and not just from parents but the whole extended family. I had the whole family on top of me, we're very close. I was actually quite afraid to play again, cos once you reach that higher level, there's high expectations, and considering I'm an only child, well that just makes it a lot harder."

Research into parental pressure for athletic participation has generally found that high pressure perceived by athletes can lead to negative athlete reaction, higher stress levels and athlete burnout (Coakley, 1998; Hellstedt, 1990; Martin & Dodder, 1991). Further research into the socialisation of significant others during the netball experience is warranted to test the inherent motivations for influence as perceived by the netballers.

Pacific women's socialisation through netball

Socialisation *via* sport concentrates on understanding what athletes learn, how they progress and are affected by their sports experiences. An underlying assumption exists, which states that the sport experience is a unique medium or vehicle for social learning and in particular, sport can teach participants ideal character and moral traits, including sportpersonship, honesty, courage, leadership and achievement orientation. Teachers, coaches and mass media even go so far as to propose that these characteristics can be transferred and applied to environments outside of sports (McPherson *et al.*, 1989). Despite the vast empirical evidence that counters the character building ability of the sports experience, socialisation through sports research has continued to try and map the specific outcomes of the sports experience (Coakley, 1998; Greendorfer, 1992; MacPherson *et al.*, 1989). Coakley (1998) in

particular sums up poignantly how most researchers in this area are beginning to see the process of socialisation through sport.

Researchers increasingly see sports as *sites for socialization experiences, not causes of socialization outcomes*. They know that sports provide memorable and influential personal, social and cultural experiences, but they also know that *sports in general do not cause patterned changes in the character traits of athletes or spectators* (1998, p. 114, original emphasis).

Lessons learnt and benefits gained from the netball experience

Most researchers do accept that sports participation affects people, and Coakley (1998) asserts that this socialisation experience, be it negative or positive is ultimately connected to the "social relationships that accompany sport participation, [and] not through the mere fact of participation itself" (p. 97). Netballers in this study were able to talk candidly about both the positive and negative experiences in their netball involvement. Many were able to articulate a number of benefits from their netball participation, both tangible and intangible, and consistent with Coakley's (1998) assertion, many of their statements was connected to the social relations that they had experienced during their netball lives. The following responses highlight these points:

"It makes me do some exercise, I do other stuff as well [exercise activities], but netball is something that I enjoy doing, so it doesn't feel like exercising, so I suppose it keeps me fit"

"I would agree with that, fitness ay, cos if you know you've got to contribute to a team, there's no choice you have to have fitness, so you got to go out and do it without it being a big struggle, as it usually would be. And co-ordination, in the off-season, I'm just a lot more clumsy, for some reason, it's really strange."

"I get a guy to massage my feet nearly every week-end. Travel is awesome, and also being so close with people that you usually would not associate yourself with, well, not associate yourself with, but that you don't have much contact with at all, and so, it expands your circle of friends in that sense. Also any team that you've been in, you'll have friends for life, and you get extra mothers on the side as well, I mean I've had Maria [team manager - name changed] for five years, and she's a second mother, she really is. Also you learn a lot in the sense of looking after yourself, food wise. You get to pick things from your coaches that you can take to, you know, teams that you coach yourself, yeah, just the learning side of it."

"You know, for me, it's interesting, I've been a manager and a coach and that, and I've just seen in terms of the young Pacific Island, just the whole growth in confidence, and where they would huddle and be quite shy but then to see them out and about and laughing together and feeling like they can talk to Yvonne Willering and all of them that would hang around the courts, they would feel confident to talk to them. I think of Palesa and the absolute benefits to her in terms of her exposure in Wellington, on the front page of the Dominion, and things like that, just fabulous for her confidence and you know, the pride and she's a great role model, so that's a benefit for others as well, that are watching, you know, it's just excellent for others that are up and coming."

"Just in a team, learning to work as a team, working with others, that helps in my job"

"Suppose the confidence that coaches give, in the team as well, and self-esteem as well, some people come in with low self-esteem, and once they've finished it gets higher"

"or it could go even lower, considering if the coach puts you or doesn't put you on the courts, depends how the season goes."

The statements demonstrate how the netball experience has affected Pacific women and what they had learnt from being a netballer. On the whole, the netballers perceived that they had received many positive benefits from their netball experience. As noted above, these included tangible benefits such as physical fitness, massage, travel opportunities, life-long friends, extra mother figures, and intangible assets such as increased confidence and self-esteem. On the other hand, the discussion showed the complex and dynamic nature of the sporting experience, as netballers also alluded to the fact that the netball experience can also be contrary. For example, when one does not receive court time, there can be an ensuing decrease in self-confidence and self-esteem. This provides some support for Coakley's (1998) assertion about the complex nature of the sporting experience. Furthermore, netballers stated a number of lessons that they had learnt during their netball experience, which they have found useful, that is, better nutritional knowledge, coaching techniques, being a role model and teamwork.

Socialisation out of netball

At the end of the socialisation continuum posed by Greendorfer and Lewko (1988) is the process involving the athlete ceasing their involvement in the sport, either through voluntary choice or involuntary, as in an unexpected injury or retirement. Greendorfer (1992) suggested that using a socialisation perspective to understand withdrawal or disengagement is important, as it would allow the connection of factors that influence current participation to be related to the process of withdrawal. For instance, most studies have found that dropping out of sports is strongly related to the effects of the sport experience (i.e., socialisation *through* sport). "For example, emphasis on competition, lack of fun, not enough playing time, and coaching behavior also contribute to children's dropping out of sport." (Greendorfer, 1992, p. 213). Also critical in the process of maintaining participation, is the degree of social support received from significant others during the sports experience and the normative expectations and sports environment provided by adults who structure the sports experience (Greendorfer, 1992; McPherson et al., 1989).

As there are a multitude of motivations for entering the sports experience, there also exist a multitude of reasons for leaving the sports experience. Studies on attrition from sports note that circumstances, such as athletic identity issues, access to resources, developmental and life course issues and the cultural contexts where athletes maintain identities, gain resources and make transitions all persist as factors influencing withdrawal from sports (Coakley, 1998, p. 96; McPherson, et al., 1989). In this study, the opportunity to seek the perspectives of ex-netballers was not forthcoming and therefore cannot be discussed in this context. The study, did however, seek to understand the negative effects of the netballers experience, and asked specifically, what current netballers perceived to be the most difficult aspect of their netball experience.

Most difficult aspect of the netball experience

Table 12 shows the results from the questionnaire data of responses to an open-ended question that asked netballers to identify the most difficult aspect of their netball participation. 110 participants responded to the question (~70%), and their replies indicated five broad areas from where their netball participation difficulties lay.

Table 12: Difficult Aspects in Netball Experience

| | Frequency | Percent % |
|-------------------------------|-----------|-----------|
| Time Management | 42 | 38.2 |
| Personal Motivational Issues | 28 | 25.4 |
| Netball Organisational Issues | 19 | 17.3 |
| Aspects of the game | 13 | 11.8 |
| Travel to netball | 8 | 7.3 |
| TOTAL | 110 | 100.0 |

Overall, netballers indicated that *Finding Time* to play and train and be involved in all aspects of netball was the most difficult factor in their netball involvement. Typical responses from the questionnaire data included:

"Finding the time to put in the work of training (not including practices) when school work, jobs, meetings are another hassle."

"Other commitments, i.e., school (studies) and church, youth group"

"Trying to juggle motherhood with netball commitments"

Focus group participants confirmed that time management is a constant factor to negotiate during their netball experience. The netballers were able to explain further about *why* netball required a certain amount of time commitment.

"I would say that time management is close to number one, well, when you're really in depth in it, if you're playing and coaching and organising, if that's a big thing as well, of course it's going to be huge."

"And even when you're not playing, or coaching or doing anything like that, you're watching it, or listening to it, and you're talking to your friends, 'hey, how did you do in the week-end?' you're involved in it every day."

"I think for me, it depended on my level of involvement, like when I was just a player, it was mainly just quite a social thing, but now it's more important, cos I also coached as well as play, and when you coach, you know, that's one night a week for them, then there's one night a week for your practice, then that's most of Saturday because their game might be in the morning and my game might be in the afternoon, so that's the whole thing, so that's about, what, four days a week, so that's quite time consuming. "

"I'm starting to get sick of it though [netball], it takes up a lot of time, cos there's some other sports where like, you can only play social, it won't take up a lot of time, like you don't have to practice and do this and do that, and fundraise. Like I can just go to basketball and play and that's it, you don't have to umpire after games, practice, and go to after-functions, when it's not your scene."

The focus group relayed clearly how the netball competition was organised differently compared with other sports. In general, a netball competition requires players to take on responsibilities such as umpiring other games, and raising funds for club or team requirements. Hodge & Zaharapoulos (1991) were able to survey ex-netballers in their study, and youth ex-netballers also ranked time management issues as a reason for dropping out of netball.

The second most difficult aspect for netballers were items categorised as *Personal Motivational Issues*. The most typical statement was simply,

"Fitness motivation"

Netballers in the focus group talked about harnessing the will power to do extra training outside of organised practices and games. This lack of enthusiasm for fitness training probably stems from the fact that most types of fitness training involves completing physical activities on your own, and without using specific netball skills. Most netballers stated that they found these types of activities, such as "going for a run", or "going to the gym" to complete a weight training session to be boring.

"I always find fitness training, motivating yourself to get out and do it difficult"

Netballers rated *Netball organisational issues* as the third most difficult aspect of their netball experience. Netball organisational items included statements such as,

"Bad organisation of the competition"

"Referees - their lack of knowledge and bias calls"

"Playing on Sundays, because of church"

"Money"

"My coach and manager"

Focus group participants supported the statements made in the questionnaire data, particularly about the issue of player-referees. Most netball competitions are organised to involve teams to take on umpiring duties throughout the season. Teams are rostered in their competition round to provide referees and scorers for other games, usually at the end of a team's rostered competition game, and usually to referee a game in a competition round at a level lower than the netballer's team competition level.

"Mine [most difficult aspect] would be when you're playing another team, it's a hard game, and you haven't got a top referee to ref you and it's really annoying."

"I don't think you can do much with injuries, that's just the nature of the sport, but the refereeing this season has been really shocking, with player referees, and the Wellington netball union have acknowledged that, but little has actually happened after the meeting they had. 80% of the referees are player-referees, and sometimes you might get someone who's a player at your level, someone you just played against last week"

The focus group participants also highlighted the lack of qualified and quality coaches as a netball organisational issue that they often encountered, as some netballers had commented:

"Bad coaching makes a difference, it's hard to motivate yourself if you've got a coach whose coaching for the first time ever, and doesn't have the skill and knowledge to be coaching at that level, that happens a lot in our club."

"I mean coaching is so important, it's what you base your whole game on, I mean, if your coach doesn't have a clue, or knows only a few things, but doesn't know everything. And they need to be experienced as well, you can't know stuff and not have played the game and know what happens, it's those coaches who are the best, well, I reckon anyway."

Aspects of the game statements included those that mentioned injuries, adjusting to different team members, learning specific netball skills and the spectator environment. For example:

"cos netball is a game that's going to give you injuries, you can't ignore it, almost everyone I know that plays has had an injury, which is really bad. They're mainly knees and ankles. For me it was primary school, nobody taught me how to land properly, and when I was growing, I've had 5 dislocations on my right knee and 3 on my left, I honestly think, it's through primary school, intermediate school and just not being taught how to land properly."

"I think the most hardest would probably be, if you know you haven't got a game and it keeps on coming up every week, I reckon that's pretty hard."

"I was just going to say pressure that comes from the sideline, all the negative language and that."

Lastly, a few netballers ($n=8$) made specific mention of the difficulty in accessing netball through travel arrangements. Almost 30% of the sample did not respond to the question on identifying difficulties in netball.

The factors that the netballers identified to be difficult in their netball experience, are potentially factors which can push current netballers to withdraw from the game. Of particular importance, is the current time element required to participate in netball, particularly for adult women who have other commitments, mainly family and career to negotiate around netball participation. The constraint which comes from family commitments is particularly accentuated for women, than it is for men, (Carrington, et al., 1987; Carroll, 1993; Carson, 1993; Taylor & Toohey, 1996; Thompson, 1995, 1999b), and particularly for Pacific women, who occupy the traditional "homemaker" role in Pacific families. Focus groups participants observed this finding.

“work, cos I think, a lot of Pacific women now are working, cos they’ve got families they’ve got to support, a lot of them have their own families now too, so many don’t have the time to play, it will be quite difficult to play when they’ve got other commitments, a lot of them work and play in social teams”

Two participants in the focus group did leave netball, and have since returned. Their reasons for leaving netball temporarily were,

“I had a 10 year break from netball. I couldn't play cos I was working week-ends and cos I had kids”

“I took a break cos I was just sick of it, couldn't take it any more. Personally, I don't really like netball, I only play because it's the only game available, plus a lot of pressure put on me by my parents to play, which is why I'd quit, but I've returned back to it, to play socially, but [pause] I'm still trying to handle it.”

The difficulties netballers found in their netball experience are factors which sports-attrition studies have identified to be salient motivations for withdrawing from sports participation (Brown, 1985; Greendorfer & Blinde, 1985; McPherson, et al., 1989). This study provides some support for those researchers who assert that the effects of the sports experience, that is, socialisation *through* sport, interact to influence socialisation *out* of sports.

Some focus group participants did withdraw from netball temporarily. Their reasons for disengagement revealed the fluid nature of the sports experience, with entering and withdrawing from the sports experience becoming more a transitional process, whereby sports participants constantly negotiate push and pull factors throughout their sports experience (Coakley, 1998; Greendorfer & Blinde, 1985).

Summary

In summary, the socialisation continuum of entering the sports experience, maintaining participation, and at the end, withdrawing from the experience, was discussed in relation to Pacific women’s netball experiences. This study found that Pacific women were strongly influenced by their family environment to play netball in the first instance, which mirrors the findings of other sports socialisation studies

both overseas and in New Zealand. Many Pacific women followed family members who were already actively involved in the game. However, this study further found that as Pacific women progressed through their netball experience, they were not influenced more by another different socialisation agent, as found in other studies, but were influenced to play in the current season more through their own self-motivation.

The focus group interviews also allowed netballers to express how they perceived the influence that they had received from Significant Others. The netballers talked about receiving strong influence particularly from parents, and some found this influence overwhelming and negative. Overall though, netballers could rationalise the motivations of their influencers and generally perceived their netball experience to be a positive and beneficial life experience. In addition, netballers discussed those elements in their netball experience that they found difficult and inadequate. Issues pertaining to time constraints, personal motivational issues and netball organisational issues were the main difficulties identified. It is important to note the effects of the sports experience, that is, socialisation *through* sport, as it can influence socialisation *out* of sport.

Chapter 9: Pacific Netball

Introduction

Literature on the topic of ethnicity/race and sports studies seek to understand the underlying nature of the observed variability in the sporting experience between people who occupy unique social groupings. Generally, these studies bridge across the sports sociology, history-politics, leisure sciences, anthropology, sports sciences and sports/exercise psychology disciplines (Jarvie, 1991; Duda & Allison, 1990). These performance differences are attributed to a number of factors, across the physical, affective, psychological and environmental states. Recent studies have consigned that no one particular factor may provide the explanation for performance differences, but that the cultural context through which the sporting experience takes place is important to consider (Allison, 1982a, 1982b; Birrell, 1989; Carlston, 1983; Coakley, 1998).

In New Zealand there is a lack of academic research dealing with New Zealand sports and the general experiences of all New Zealand sportsmen and sportswomen from all ethnic groups (O'Sullivan, 1999). In stating this, it follows that there is even less literature on New Zealand sports and women and the different ethnic groupings which make-up New Zealand society (Thomas & Dyall, 1999). To the researcher's knowledge no study has looked specifically at the effects of both gender and ethnicity within the sporting experience of Pacific people in New Zealand.

The aim of this study is to explore issues surrounding the netball experiences of Pacific women. This chapter will outline issues brought forth by the netballers throughout the focus group interviews. In particular it will discuss the dynamic relationship between ethnicity and sports participation. The chapter will begin by presenting the existence of differential sporting styles between Pacific and *Palagi* netballers. A critical discussion of some theories posited by research and popular media as explanations for these differences follows. Finally some of the author's own explanations for distinct styles of play will be presented.

The advent of 'Pacific' netball

Playing netball upon migration to New Zealand

Pacific women have participated in netball in New Zealand from as early as the 1950s during days of the first wave of migration (Lay, 1996). One of New Zealand's oldest and most successful netball clubs - the Pacific Islands Church Netball Club (PIC) in Newtown, Wellington was formed by Wellington's early Pacific immigrants in 1953. "Pacific women still administer, promote, coach, manage and participate as players within the club." (Teevale, 2001, p. 217). By the late 1970s onwards, Pacific women made representative honours for the New Zealand national netball team (Hawes & Barker, 1999; Nauright & Broomhall, 1994). Teevale asserted that "the most popular sports played today in Pacific communities in Aotearoa are games that were introduced in their South Pacific homelands - rugby, netball, volleyball and softball" (2001, p. 216), and upon migration to New Zealand, Pacific people continued to play these games. One particular focus group participant highlighted the historical connection between Pacific women and netball in Aotearoa,

"well for me, I think when Mum came to New Zealand from the Islands, the PI [Pacific Island]girls got together, they lived in a hostel together, and that was their sport, it was netball. So it really was just inbred, they didn't diverse out of that. So that just became a natural thing for me to pick up, and because it was reinforced, and then older sisters are playing, and then you create relationships with people, so, every season you play netball. Netball was just something natural, it was just the sport that they knew, and they came here to play, so we've just played it. That's how it was for me, speaking about me being older than the other girls."

Today, netball is still a popular game for many Pacific women and girls (Hyde, 1993; A.Phillips, personal communication, October 21, 2000). This elevated popularity is in part due to the long tradition Pacific women have in their involvement within the game, both in their Island homelands and in New Zealand. As it is in New Zealand, netball is the compulsory-schools game for girls in the Islands. As the netballer's quote above shows, there is a natural progression for new Pacific migrants to seek further involvement in netball upon settling in New Zealand. Secondly, this long tradition of involvement in netball continues to fuel continued participation of Pacific

women into the game. Teevale (2001) asserted, that consistent with the patterns of sports involvement of Maori people in New Zealand (Hillary Commission, 1992), Pacific people will continue to be motivated to play sports which other Pacific people are already involved in. "The high level and the visibility of Pacific success in rugby and netball will continue to fuel higher Pacific participation levels in those sports, as youngsters seek to emulate their rugby and netball role models." (Teevale, 2001, p. 221).

Pacific netball 'style'

Spreitzer and Snyder (1993) had stated that much of the research attention dealing with the nexus between sports and race/ethnicity has tended to be focused on the structural levels of race relations in sport, and "surprisingly, there has been little research concerning differences between races with respect to informal and vicarious involvement in sport, variability in the meaning of sports, attitudes toward the function of sports, and overall orientation to sports" (1993, p. 308). The orientation of this study, allowed its' participants to discuss those elements which were pertinent to their experiences. The netballers involved in this study made statements that highlighted the importance of their ethnicity to the way that they played netball. Specifically, netballers talked about the existence of and the playing of a "Pacific" style of netball in New Zealand.

Pacific-netball is a style of netball that is different to another a style of netball played by the mainstream *Palagi* New Zealand group. The netballers defined this style as follows:

"I think playing in this tournament tomorrow [Pacific Challenge tournament], we will be expecting a different game. It will be, fast, some rough play, big girls. It will be physical, and there'll be lots of parents and family on the sidelines"

"I think it's generally natural for Pacific players to be aggressive at the game, they just want to play at their best. Aggressive means hungry for the ball, going for it, going hard out"

"It's aerial, speaking from experience, it's the intercepts, you know, coming out of nowhere, and it doesn't matter how tall you are, it's skill. I mean I think of Frances Solia, who is just a beautiful aerial player, and she's being restricted to a speed game where she has to stay on the ground, and it kills us, cos, you know, she can jump! There's abilities out there that can be used, but it's a matter of actually bringing it out of the player and actually coaching it so that it comes out in the right way and so that we can use it to the best advantage."

"Also passing and moving skills. Yeah, ball skills, when you have a group together with that kind of thing, you can see it happening really well, it's hard to explain... Like Lydia Ropati, and the way she comes out of the circle, and she looks one way, she bounces the ball right past you, and you're left thinking, "damn, I should have seen that one coming", you know?"

Generally, this Pacific style of netball has been well understood to have existed and persisted in the netball experience of Pacific women. In Hyde's (1993) article on the rise of Polynesian athletic prowess in New Zealand, Hyde described a type of game said to be typical of a style exhibited by "Polynesian" athletes in New Zealand sports. Generally, Polynesians were said to play a game characterised as unpredictable, innovative, physical and confrontational. This often creative and innovative, and some would say unorthodox style in netball and other major New Zealand sports, such as rugby and rugby league, has become known as "Pacific flair". This Pacific flair is evident in the way that representative netballers Margharet Matenga and Rita Fatialofa have played netball (Muir & Romanos, 1985; Hyde, 1993). Netball coaches were said to have recognised this particular netball style. Prominent and respected ex-Silver Ferns coach Lois Muir describes Rita Fatialofa in her autobiography with Joseph Romanos, "Rita's got that bit of flair that lifts her out of the ordinary." (1985, p. 16).

Recently, in the netball season preceding this study, a special national Pacific team was organised to play an international game series against the Silver Ferns. This national Pacific team was organised to replace a three-match test series between the Silver Ferns and the national Fiji team. Political upheavals in Fiji necessitated the cancellation of the Fiji tour. The Pacific team, comprised of New Zealand-based Pacific players and was captained by New Zealander-Samoan Amanda Dunlop. It

was interesting to note the commentary leading and supporting the contests by both the television netball commentators and by Dunlop herself, constantly reiterating the netball style of the Pacific team to be unpredictable, unorthodox and utilising ‘natural Pacific flair’.

In addition, to the definition of Pacific netball, the netballers also articulated their perceptions of the *Palagi* style of netball.

“It’s generally by the book, or textbook netball”

“A commitment to fitness, going to gym all the time”

“It’s boring, [the ball] goes down the court one way. Dot-to-dot netball”

The mental state of ‘Pacific flair’

There has been a tendency in New Zealand popular media literature and televised reporting to stereotype Pacific sportspeople, relating elements of their sporting behaviour to physicality and psychological states.

As Hyde (1993) highlighted in his article, “a common refrain once heard about Polynesian athletes was that they lacked discipline.” (1993, p. 67). This “common refrain”, remarkably similar to assertions made about African American athletes (Brinson & Robinson, 1991; Myers, 1998), asserts that Polynesian athletes, while possessing natural physical endowments for sporting success, lacked the psychological intelligence to control their sporting behaviours. This “common refrain” is found in netball circles.

Ex-Silver Fern netballer Rita Fatialofa, stated that, “coaches were never so sure what to make of the Polynesian element - not too sure where the head was at.” (in Hyde, 1993, p. 67). Former national netball coach and selector Lois Muir concurred and stated that, “people had always looked at Polynesian players as ‘one-offs’. They had flair but no stickability, so people weren’t prepared to put their shirts on them” (in

Hyde, 1993, p. 67). The netballers in this study seem to support the sentiments above, as their statements show below highlight:

“we’re more solid, bigger built, we are more aggressive in our play, but, I find that for Palagis, they’re more aggressive mentally, we tend to use our bodies more, and not our heads, and Palagis use their heads and not their bodies. We don’t mind the contacts, and that I reckon, that happens in rugby as well. [Although] There are some out there [Pacific players] that use their brains, like Bernice Mene, she can read the play, scoops the players out, anticipates.”

“but it has to be a combination because I think that sometimes we have got all this flair and this class and style, but don’t think about it, and don’t have the control, and [often think] “wouldn’t it be neat if it worked”, but it didn’t work, you know, why is that? So it’s about precision, and this is where coaches need to say, [for example] “now this is where Leah is awesome, and this is what I’ve got and she can do this, but I’m actually going to enhance it by giving her this”. And this is where they’re [Palagi coaches] not doing it, they try to cut it down by saying “that’s not working, don’t do that anymore, do it this way”, when in actual fact, what she’s very good at, they should actually enhance that. And this is what you see, they’re actually trying to take that whole flair away. I think, PIC is probably the only club that lets it carry on, but as soon as they get into rep teams, they’re not letting them do it in rep teams, they’re trying to control it.”

Several points of contention come out of the statements made by netballers in this study and by past Silver Fern Rita Fatialofa and ex-national coach, Lois Muir. First, that there exists a certain mental attitude that Pacific players exhibit in their sports performance that is recognised by both *Palagi* coaches and Pacific netballers. This mental attitude is stereotyped to be a lack of thinking ability connected to the unique physical movements that Pacific athletes display. Second, this perception of the Pacific netball game was acknowledged by netball coaches as Lois Muir’s statements made clear, and more alarmingly as was implied, it was used to the selection detriment of Pacific netballers. Third, the Pacific netballers in this study impressed that the physical expression in their netball playing style is related to thinking styles, although, they pointed to variation in these psychological qualities between Pacific players, that is, the contradiction in Bernice Mene’s (current Silver Ferns captain of Samoan ethnic heritage) style of play. Last, the netballers alluded to the Pacific style of netball being denounced and vilified by coaches who do not share the same cultural background.

Describing 'Pacific flair'

The netballers in this study supported the statements made by sports media, sports coaches, as well as athletes from other sports about the presence of a Pacific style of sports performance called "Polynesian" or "Pacific flair". This style seems to be perceived by *Palagi* sports personnel one way and by Pacific athletes another. It seems that some *Palagi* coaches are generally disinterested and non-supportive of this style, and view it disapprovingly as highlighted by another comment made by a focus group participant,

"There is a huge misunderstanding about Pacific players, yes, they're natural, and they're talented and they go out there and do it, but I know of coaches who are saying, "don't bring that sort of flair to the game, we want you to play this sort of netball", and it's like, they're not allowed to or they're being confined to not play their beautiful natural skills. You know, "none of this showy-off style, just do this", you know, so even trying to condition them to play a whole different style of netball, when that netball (Pacific style), actually is the netball that wins games, really, and is a bit of a showpiece, cos people enjoy watching it."

Judging by the statements made by Pacific women netballers in this study, netballers generally view the Pacific style of netball to be exciting (as opposed to boring), it is unpredictable (as opposed to textbook-netball), it is fast-paced and physical, it is innovative, intuitive, crafty and spontaneous, it is aerial, and it is about using the best of your abilities. The statements made by netballers in this study are supported by statements made by Pacific netballers in Hyde's (1993) article, as the following passage illustrates:

Polynesian flair is arguably making sport more exciting to watch. "It's a product of our culture," says Rita Fatialofa. "We like to dance. We're dancing from year one. It's basic to growing up. There's also a free spirit associated with it. European kids don't develop that to the same extent.

"We changed netball by giving it an air of unpredictability. If you look at netball in England, Wales or Scotland, it's quite boring because it's static. It doesn't flow. Our game is different. We're more inclined to look one way and throw the ball another."

Former Silver Ferns captain Ana Noovao observes how Rita Fatialofa used to off-load the ball in a way the defence would be totally unprepared for. "Australians take the dot-to-dot-to-dot approach. We don't do that anymore. We link that approach with the flair of Polynesian players."

Te Aroha Keenan recalls how when Margharet Matenga and Margaret Forsyth - one a Cook Islander, the other a Maori - were in the Silver Ferns they developed a style of play in the attacking circle that had never been seen before. They did the unorthodox. Matenga was very quick and very light on her feet, while Forsyth was strong in the air, a power player.” (Hyde, 1993, pp. 62-63).

Explaining ‘Pacific flair’ - a socialisation explanation

Rita Fatialofa provides an insight towards understanding the advent of Pacific flair by offering a cultural explanation for the existence of this unique style of netball. In Hyde’s (1993) article she alludes to differential socialisation as a basis for the divergent sporting behaviours displayed by Pacific and *Palagi* athletes. Pacific young, Fatialofa contended, experience cultural dancing early in their upbringing and are therefore learning to experience their bodies and its capabilities in movement. Fatialofa talked about this dancing being associated with a free spirit, as Pacific youngsters are encouraged or are ‘free’ to experiment with body movements in dance.

A socialisation theory may be able to explain, in part, the existence of Pacific flair as Fatialofa had explained, as it seems consistent with how Sua’ali’i (2001) described Samoan childrearing techniques. Sua’ali’i explained that Samoan socialisation tended to be generally ad hoc and reactive in nature. “For example, Samoan children often learnt that they had done something wrong after the fact, when they would receive either physical or verbal admonition or both” (Sua’ali’i, 2001, p. 174). The rationale behind this type of child discipline is consistent with Samoan social classification of children and young people, as non-decision makers in society, whose role was to learn and obey without question and to provide physical and economic assistance to their families where possible (Sua’ali’i, 2001; Meleisea & Schoeffel, 1998). “To learn without question was advocated by Samoan parenting ideologies on the presumption that the answers to young people’s questions would become clear to them later in life” (Sua’ali’i, 2001, p. 180).

Altogether, Samoan socialisation valued experiential learning and wisdom of age is accorded privilege and respect in Samoan society. To learn through experience has allowed Pacific children a certain freedom to experiment with their cultural and

physical environments within certain parameters. To do without thinking, to action behaviours without fear or premeditated value are probably descriptors used for all children, too young to comprehend the complexities of their physical and social environments, but, for Pacific children socialised in ‘traditional’ Pacific parenting ideologies, this description is doubtless. This freedom to explore seems to spill over into all facets of young Pacific life, including the sporting experience. When netballers talked about tending “*to use our bodies more, and not our heads*”, about having flair, class and style “*but don’t think about it, and don’t have the control*”, they are talking about a style of sporting performance that reflects this Pacific learning process. The freedom for physical expression allows one to be adventurous in their execution and performance of physical movements. This unique style shows the relative ease that Pacific sportspeople have, to openly express their movements and create new ways of physical mechanics. Pacific athletes experiment with movement without fear for lack of success and without preconceived ideas about ‘correct’ structure and physical form until formal instruction and or direction is experienced.

This socialisation hypothesis goes in some way to explain a part of Pacific flair. It may explain Pacific athletes spirit to try out extraordinary movements consistent with Pacific cultural learning processes, but it does not explain fully why Pacific flair persists even after formal learning experiences. In the first instance, it is difficult to ‘coach’ Pacific flair, because no set of movements can be prescribed to represent it. Pacific flair is essentially a style or spirit of movement spontaneity. Of doing what has never been done before, intuitively or reflexively. Flair can be defined to mean instinctive discernment, which translates to the unconscious ability or talent to make judgement. The socialisation explanation posits that Pacific athletes make judgements about movement without knowledge about the aptness of the actions, and are comfortable with this uncertain, chancy environment, because it is consistent with Pacific learning situations.

Explaining 'Pacific flair' - The Pacific sporting cultural environment

The socialisation explanation is helpful to understand the process from where this Pacific flair may emanate from, but it does not fully justify the persistence of Pacific flair even when Pacific athletes are sanctioned against utilising the style. The persistence of Pacific flair has much to do with the sporting cultural environment from where Pacific athletes were nurtured.

Sport is often a community social event for Pacific people, both in island homelands and despite meeting different cultural structures upon migrating to New Zealand, continues to be a community bound event for Pacific communities in New Zealand (Lay, 1996; Pitt & Macpherson, 1974; Teevale, 2001). Sport, as a colonial concept was introduced to Pacific communities by British colonists (Lay, 1996) and missionaries eager to instil Victorian value systems on natives (McGregor & McMath, 1993; cf. Allison 1982a). The functional capabilities of sport during this early period was pushed by an aristocratic elite who saw sport as a means of physical training and keeping male members of this caste fit. More importantly sport allowed males to learn important Victorian cultural values, as Parry & Parry (1991) illustrated:

Sport gave opportunities for learning physical and emotional control. It was said to develop leadership qualities, individual prowess, team spirit and the capacity to obey and carry out orders. ... It has also been noted that the bonds of friendship formed upon the sports field carry over into the networks of business, politics and the professions - the 'old boy' network (1991, p. 155).

The most popular sports established in the Pacific homelands, were games that could be accommodated in an island physical environment and more importantly, could incorporate and reflect Pacific cultural values. The transformation of the English colonial sport of cricket to Samoan, Niuean and Tokelaun *kilikiti* is an example of how sports can be transformed to reflect a cultural group's values (Lay, 1996; Teevale, 2001; Thomas & Dyall, 1999). English cricket in its original Victorian form was not merely accepted by Pacific communities in the South Pacific, but was transformed by island groups to reflect the cultural values inherent in their society. The function of sport for Pacific communities in the islands was to build and

maintain social relationships, to enhance communal solidarity by emphasising the importance of knowing where you come from, that is, the *aiga* (family) that you represent, the village, the church, the district that you belong to, and to celebrate this sense of belonging and of being part of a greater group (Teevale, 2001).

In this present day, and in a New Zealand context, Pacific communities still utilise certain sports to reflect their cultural values, which is a phenomenon occurring within ethnic minority groups in other western pluralistic societies (Allison, 1982a, 1982b; Burton, 1991; Hutchison, 1987; Paraschak, 1997). The sporting cultural environment of Pacific athletes is unique from *Palagi* sporting contexts in that the sporting experience for Pacific athletes is one that generally involves the inimitable participation of extended family groups and communities. Consistent with the way that *kilikiti* is played, the sporting experience is looked upon by Pacific people as an activity to be shared between the athlete and the supporting family members on the sidelines (Lay 1996; Teevale, 2001). Sport is very much a social activity, and in line with Pacific cultural values, should enhance the value of being part of a greater group. As this study has shown, family involvement is significant in the lives of netballers. Netballers have talked about having three generations on court at the same time and having extended family, both adult and children, supporting on the sidelines. One of the netballers quoted previously showed how she anticipated the Pacific Challenge tournament to be a family oriented event, where “*there'll be lots of parents and family on the sidelines*” (on page 123).

Generally, when Pacific athletes play their sports an audience of family and community supporters surrounds them. This audience has an important effect on Pacific athletes, as they come to feel the importance of publicly representing their families and their community in the sporting arena. In addition to this, the Pacific athletes are aware that the boundaries between athletes and supporters is minimal, and supporters are just as involved in the activity as they are. The motivation to play well becomes strong, as it is for *Palagi* players as well, but while succeeding in the activity is important for both, how one retains this end is divergent between *Palagi* and Pacific athletes.

The presence of an influential audience needs to be acknowledged in some way during the game. When Pacific athletes entertain their audiences and receive instant visual and vocal reaction from them, they receive strong feedback about being part of that supporting group. While Pacific audiences, like all avid sports supporters are concerned about the winning outcomes, Pacific audiences are more particularly appreciative of players who are able to entertain and are able to connect with their audience. Pacific sport enthusiasts often state that 'it's not just about scoring goals and getting tries, but more about how you perform them'. This particular sporting environment serves to reinforce Pacific flair styles. Athletes are motivated to woo their supportive crowds, and emphasise *performance* of skills, while the crowd's cheers and comments provide substantial reinforcement for such activities. On the other hand, *Palagi* athletes sporting environments reflect *Palagi* cultural values, where sport is seen to be an activity capable of building character traits such as competitiveness and achievement seen to be vital for survival in a capitalist society (Allison, 1982a, 1982b; Coakley, 1998; Volkerling, 2000). The emphasis then becomes the sporting outcome and reward is given by the supportive crowd when this is achieved. A winning outcome is achieved through an athlete's focus on listening to instruction and applying these principles faithfully throughout the game.

The consequences of 'Pacific flair'

Consequence 1 - Dropping out of netball

These different performance emphases between Pacific and *Palagi* netballers have not been easy to reconcile on the netball courts. The consequence of this tension has a negative and frustrating affect on Pacific netballers and a counteractive impression on NNZ's goal to increase Pacific women's overall participation in the game. The netballers talked about how Pacific women reacted to the lack of support:

"Just speaking from our level at the moment, there's a lot of influential stuff that goes on behind the scenes in netball, that filters down to the netballers level, and it frustrates the players in your team, and it can be seen and it is knowledgable, but the way that it's dealt with, well, sometimes it never gets dealt with, and it just keeps festering and festering. It's mainly communication, especially between coaches and Pacific island players, cos people just don't understand, there's a lot of misconceptions, misreadings, of each other"

“Yes, and I’ve watched the self-esteem of some of the players just go so down, just cos of the communication gap, and because of the misunderstandings, and just, how you treat people differently. I’ve often found myself facilitating the thoughts of coaches and how they talked about different people, players in particular, was very very rude and it was wrong and it was false. And you know, we’ve lost some players that we know aren’t going to be coming back, and I just think, it’s because they don’t want to come back, they’re not happy, and they don’t have any way that they can be open and honest about that, cos they feel that that will be held against them, and it will be.”

The effects of the cultural clash of sporting styles are interesting. The netballers’ statements in this study highlighted the contested nature of their sporting experience in New Zealand. In the first instance, netballers were sanctioned against expressing Pacific flair playing styles, and pressured to play the *Palagi* style of netball. The netballers statements showed that when Pacific netball styles could not be accommodated and accepted in their netball experience, some netballers chose to leave the sport, instead of continuing by adopting *Palagi* netball styles. Of note, this seems supported by statements made by various netball administrators from regions around the country who had indicated a drop in netball participation numbers right across all regions (see Table 3, p.44), however, this trend is not found in Pacific netball tournaments.

Consequence 2 - The rise of Pacific competition tournaments

Going against the national trend, the annual Pacific Challenge tournament participation numbers have steadily increased throughout its 10 year life (personal communication, A. Phillips, Secretary Pacific Challenge tournament, 7 October, 2000). A member of the organising committee gave these reasons for the rise in popularity of this particular tournament,

“Because our Pacific players love to play in tournaments where they can represent their Pacific nation, because they don’t get recognised for anything else. Particularly for the younger generation, a lot of them leave to pursue their career and have families, but I’m seeing a lot of them, especially Prem players come back to netball, and in our competitions. Also, I think, this tournament has been growing steadily only because of the parents support we receive. The parents support their players wholeheartedly. If you look around you’ll see that this is a family tournament.”

This statement makes two important points. The first alludes to the motivation of Pacific women to represent their Island nations and gain recognition through reaching a higher level. This drive to represent Island nations and acknowledge one's ethnic heritage seems consistent with the thoughts of New Zealand sociologists and researchers who assert that Pacific ethnic pride is on the increase (Harawira, Speck, Vilisoni; Misa, 1995; Lay 1996; Macpherson, 2001; Tupuola, 1999; Vaoiva, 1999). Anae (2001) found in her study of New Zealand-born Samoans that Samoan identity systems have continued to prevail and be maintained "despite the assimilating tendencies of life in New Zealand, precisely because of the centrality and overriding importance of aiga, [families], on which the Samoan world-view and lifestyle continue to be based" (2001, p. 118). Pacific athletes raised in a Pacific cultural environment inside the home and a westernised environment outside of the home are able to bridge both (Tiatia, 1998) and commonly express the ability to represent both, as former Silver Fern Rita Fatialofa had stated,

You play for New Zealand, ... but you're not exactly a Kiwi because you're Samoan, and you're not entirely Samoan because you're born here. So I say I'm a New Zealander, but I am also very proud to be Samoan (in Hyde, 1993, p. 67).

Second, it was interesting to note the different ways that Pacific netball tournaments were organised in different regions, Wellington and Auckland. Pacific tournaments were organised to emphasise Pacific cultural norms and values. Of importance, was that tournaments were organised to acknowledge the importance of sport as a social community event. The tournaments therefore serviced families, provisions were made for old and young, for men and women, boys and girls. It had a festive feel, with Pacific drumming showing voluble support for teams, and stalls of food to provide for the greater number of spectators. It was flexible in its implementation and encouraged and supported the involvement of men's teams in the competition.

Consequence 3 - Negative stereotyping

Another particularly striking effect of 'Pacific flair' in Pacific women's netball experience was the tendency of the ruling majority to negatively stereotype Pacific netballers. As past-national coach Lois Muir stated previously about the tendency of coaches to perceive Pacific netballers "having flair but no stickability" (in Hyde,

1993, p. 67), and the consequence of this was their non-selection into representative teams. In the 1960s, the New Zealand Samoan Society team used to consistently win the Auckland netball club competition, but none of its players were selected for the Auckland team, “a situation that leads Faafua Le’avasa-Tautolo to believe that Pacific Island players ““still have to be absolutely brilliant to be selected...there’s a certain amount of racist attitudes in it, sure, but it’s changing.’ ” (in Hyde, 1993, p. 69). Netballers in this study confirmed the existence of negative attitudes towards Pacific flair within representative teams, as shown in the statement below,

“This is what you see, they’re actually trying to take that whole flair away, I think, PIC is probably the only club that lets it carry on, but as soon as they get into rep teams, they’re not letting them do it in rep teams, they’re trying to control it.”

Netballers also talked about the existence of a popular sentiment about Pacific netballers being lazy and being averse to fitness training.

“A lot of people also think Pacific Island players are lazy, stereotype them as lazy, because they don’t do any training, but it’s not because they are lazy but because they don’t know how to train. No one ever gives you fitness programmes, or nutritional knowledge. When you come from school level to club level, that’s a totally different step, we don’t get those things from school teams.”

These sentiments thrive not only in netball circles but in other major New Zealand sporting codes like rugby, as ex-All Black Grant Fox had stated,

Polynesian players were naturally superior to us in talent ... but a lot of them aren’t there now because they didn’t have the discipline for physical conditioning. They lacked the right kind of mental attitude. They’d just turn up and play.” (in Hyde, 1993, p. 67).

Comments such as this generally thrust racial beliefs about Pacific sporting prowess being connected to ‘natural’ genetic effects and discredit any effort and determination exerted by Pacific athletes to foster and advance their athleticism. As the netballer’s statement had made clear, the stereotype is a myth. One of the reasons why some Pacific netballers may not be training, is because they do not have access to resources that would allow them to train and work out effectively. The jump between school netball and club netball requires a certain transition where the

expectancies and norms of the club differ from the school. At the club level, there is more of a personal onus placed on netballers to be responsible for their own fitness development and maintenance. There is a lack of coaching knowledge about appropriate fitness programming, and this is not surprising, given that the current pool of club coaches comes from a dwindling volunteer-base already stretched to its limits (Grant Stevenson & Associates, 1995).

There have been instances in New Zealand media reporting of publications portraying elements of a stereotypical Polynesian athletic type (Logan, 1997; Macdonald, 1988; Raganivatu, 1996). In recent times, stories have surfaced about discrimination in sport due to race or negative stereotypes placed on 'Polynesian' athletes (Barlow, 1990; Cameron, 1996; Gillies, 1990; Hyde, 1993). In reviewing the same media literature, there are countless publications previewing Pacific athletes rejecting these stereotypical images (Butcher, 1997; Hyde, 1993; Raganivatu, 1997). For example, in Allison's (1989) piece on the Fatialofa family's achievements in sports she stated that double international athlete Rita Fatialofa has often been acclaimed by top national coaches Lois Muir, Lynn Parker and Waimarama Taumaunu as having natural ability, but more importantly, as an athlete who is very committed, very determined, and a very thinking player. Despite evidence which challenges the negative stereotypical images of Pacific athletes, it would seem that biased beliefs about Pacific athletes still persist. Jackson (1995) offered an explanation for the maintenance of stereotypical images,

Stereotypes "sanitize" our perceptions of the world by glossing over what is troublesome about reality and transforming it into something cozy and comfortable. Majority apprehension of racial minorities is partly alleviated through perpetuation of these reassuring images. Racial minorities are rendered less threatening by framing them in familiar and comforting terms; this, in turn, diminishes their impact as a threat to the social fabric (Fleras, quoted in Jackson, 1995, p. 23).

Coakley (1998) posited that stereotypes are often used in a hegemonic process, to foster the domination of minority groups in 'natural' beliefs and explanations. The stereotypes of Polynesian athletes serve to reassure the dominant *Palagi* class, the exact sentiments of ex-All Black Grant Fox, that despite the observed physical prowess of Polynesians and their successes in New Zealand sports, Polynesians do lack intelligence and "mental faculties and discipline required to succeed in other more serious areas of life" (Teevale. 2001, p. 222).

The utility of netball

The netball experiences of Pacific women has so far indicated the prominence of their 'Pacifinness' in how they play and organise netball, and is a part of them that cannot be separated from their activities, even sports. This is consistent with findings from sporting studies that have tested the capability of sport to assimilate ethnic minority groups into western majority cultures (Allison 1982a, 1982b; Day 1981; Walter *et al.* 1991). Pacific women in New Zealand enjoy netball for many reasons, and one of the more underlying attractions is the ability of the sport form to be transformed in a way that allows the accommodation of Pacific cultural values to be integrated into the sporting experience. Specifically, the advent of Pacific flair is a style of play reflecting Pacific cultural values and the effects of a specific sporting cultural environment.

When the sporting environment cannot support the expression of this particular style of netball, netballers will seek other opportunities to express it. The organisation of special Pacific netball teams, clubs and competitions were organised to meet these needs. It is important to note, that despite fifty-odd years of Pacific peoples migration and settlement in New Zealand, the development and organisation of these Pacific sports clubs, teams and competitions has not diminished over time. If anything, the clubs, teams and competitions are proliferating. Despite the New Zealand Pacific population comprising a majority of New Zealand-born naturals - 57% (Statistics New Zealand, 1998), Pacific cultural practices, ideologies, beliefs and values are still persisting (Anae, 1995, 2001; Macpherson, 2001), and these values and the persistence of this Pacific cultural environment, are reflected in the way Pacific people play and organise sport. How Pacific women play and organise netball is an example in support of Allison's (1979) suggestion, that minority ethnic groups tend to use sports, even those sport forms derived from the mainstream culture, as expressions of their own ethnic identity.

The implications on Race Relations

The tensions and antagonism taking place on the netball courts between some Pacific netballers and *Palagi* coaches does not bode well as an example of sport's ability to unite people from different social and ethnic backgrounds, as Hyde (1993) and Laidlaw (1999) contend. The popular theory about sports ability to improve race relations emanates from a belief in the inherent ability of sport to automatically improve relations and foster understanding when people from different groups interact. Coakley (1998) stated that social contacts in sport are mainly superficial, and *participation in sport per se* does not lead automatically to a betterment of race relations. The promotion of the popular theory fails to acknowledge the power relations that exist in the structuring of sports. As Thomas and Dyal (1999) have stated,

Consequently, sport is capable of enhancing or worsening intercultural relations - the effect depending on the ways that sport programs and events are designed, marketed and managed (1999, p. 117).

Thomas & Dyal (1999) point to the existence of several distinctive sporting subcultures in New Zealand sports, and make this recommendation for sport managers,

An implication for sport managers is that the incorporation of local cultural styles into sport participation should be seen as a positive feature of local involvement and not a failure to play "properly." While there will always be a need to meet the requirements of national and international rules governing a sporting code, the development of innovations which reflect local styles is likely to increase local participation. (Thomas & Dyal, 1999, p. 119).

The findings of this study support Thomas and Dyal's (1999) judgements. First, that differential sporting styles exist in netball, and second, that the apparent lack of management support for these styles may have resulted in a drop in the participation of Pacific women in mainstream netball competitions. The failure of netball management to effectively manage multiculturalism will result in the continuation of Pacific-based tournaments and competitions being established (DeSensi, 1994), and the sentiment about sports' worth to unite us 'together as one' will remain forever illusory.

Summary

In summary, Pacific women have a long association with netball. It was game introduced by colonists in the Pacific homelands and was quickly adapted by Pacific people because of the ability of the sport to accommodate Pacific cultural values. Upon migrating to New Zealand, Pacific women continued to play netball, however, their participation in the New Zealand sporting environment has met with some discord, particularly because Pacific women seem to play a style of netball unlike the one mainstream *Palagi* women are accustomed to.

This creative and innovative style of play, the unpredictable play and unorthodox styles, created and exhibited on the netball courts is known as 'Pacific flair'. New Zealand media reports have tried to account for the sporting performance differences between Pacific and *Palagi* athletes. Popular theories related to biological, psychological and sociological explanations were posited, but these explanations fail to provide compelling arguments for the existence and persistence of 'Pacific flair'.

The findings of this study provide support, for what other studies have found, for ethnic minority groups in pluralistic western societies. That minority ethnic groups tend to use sports, even those sport forms derived from the mainstream culture, as expressions of their own ethnic identity. Particular Pacific socialisation processes and the unique Pacific sporting environment have conceived and fostered Pacific flair styles in netball in New Zealand.

Despite the apparent lack of support for Pacific flair by the majority group, Pacific netballers insist that their "Pacificness" is an important part of their lives and expressed the desire to display it in all their life activities. The lack of accommodation in mainstream competitions has seen a rise in Pacific based teams, competitions and tournaments. This segregation of sporting competitions will do little to provide a positive platform for advancing healthy race relations in New Zealand.

Chapter 10: Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter will outline the main findings of the study and provide specific recommendations particularly for sport administrators and managers. In addition, recommendations for future studies are suggested

Summary of main findings

The trend of declining physical activity and sport participation is of a public concern considering the widespread acceptance that exercise can provide both physical and psychological benefits, prolonging life through a decrease in specific risk factors particularly in cardiovascular-respiratory diseases. This has been the driving force behind many participation motivation studies, particularly focused on youth, as researchers try to identify the motivations that impel current sport participation. Knowing why athletes participate in sports activities is also becoming important for sport administrators and managers who aim to deliver sport opportunities which meet participants' specific needs.

This study focused on the participation motivation of Pacific women netballers and found that Pacific women played netball for a variety of reasons, which is consistent with findings of previous participation motivation studies. The most important reasons for participation were related to intrinsic aspects of netball, for example, the action, excitement and fun. Also salient were the health and fitness benefits, affiliation, the challenge and learning of skills, energy release and social status, and family affiliation. In addition, the focus group data revealed that Pacific women related health and fitness motives derived from their netball experience, closely to "controlling weight" and were concerned about physical appearance. Many used netball as a fun exercise activity.

Family affiliation was also an important motivating factor for netball participation, particularly for older and Island-born netballers. Pacific netballers participated in the game because it provided them an opportunity to experience netball with other

family members. This experience seems similar to Maori women's physical activity and sports participation patterns (Hillary Commission, 1992; Wrathall, 1996).

A comparison between the findings of this study and New Zealand-based youth participation motivation studies found more similarities than differences. That is, youth netballers and Pacific women netballers both played netball for intrinsic reasons such as sheer joy, fun and personal mastery, rather than for extrinsic reasons such as winning and to be popular. The most visible difference was that youth netballers rated "skill development" as a salient motive while Pacific women did not. This may reflect the dynamic nature of motivations across the lifespan, with younger netballers more motivated to participate to learn new skills and improve skills, whereas adult netballers, having already learnt basic skills, would continue to participate for other salient reasons. The other difference was the significance of family affiliation for Pacific women netballers as a motive for participation. New Zealand based studies with *Palagi* youth netball samples did not mention this factor as a major motive for participation.

Socialisation research is mainly interested in learning how individuals become involved in sport and in particular, how *significant others* influence individuals to participate. This study found that there was a strong family influence for Pacific women's initial introduction into netball. 64.3% of the study sample indicated that they were mainly influenced by 'mum', 'sisters', 'cousins', 'dad', 'parents' (dad *and* mum) and 'aunties' to become involved in netball. In addition to this, these significant others were also *actively* involved in netball, either as players themselves, or as coaches, team managers, administrators or referees. And, as netball is the primary winter schools' sport for girls in New Zealand, along with other netballers, the school environment provided Pacific participants initial access to netball.

However, the influence of significant others does change throughout the netball experience. Pacific women netballers stated that their *current* participation was mediated more through setting personal goals, and self-motivation became the major influence. This is different from previous socialisation research with youth samples, which found family influence to decrease at the onset of participation, to be replaced by another powerful socialisation agent such as peers or teacher/coaches. Pacific

women netballers continued to play netball for their own reasons, and see themselves as the motivating influence in their current netball participation.

This self-motivation influence is particularly important for older (36⁺ years) and more experienced netballers (those who have played 11⁺ seasons), compared with younger and less experienced netballers (17-25 age range, played 1-5 seasons), who rated family members as being most influential during *current* participation.

Netballers in this study also identified those aspects they found most difficult during their netball experience. The difficulties were generally classified as Time management, Personal motivational, Netball organisational, Aspects of the game and Travel issues. The most salient difficulty was *time management*, with the particular organisation of netball requiring involvement in other duties, which involved a certain time commitment. These duties usually include refereeing, club fund-raising and team coaching roles over on top of training and playing commitments. The encroachment of family and career commitments was becoming particularly difficult for Pacific women to negotiate on a daily basis, and anecdotal evidence suggested that many netballers often withdraw because of the lack of reconciliation between family, career and netball roles.

Ethnic minority groups in pluralistic western societies often use sport, even those sport forms derived from mainstream culture, as expressions of their own ethnic identity and this reflects the persistence of a unique cultural background. The existence of Pacific sporting styles reflects the importance of a “Pacific” way of life for New Zealand participants.

Pacific women play a style of netball different to mainstream *Palagi* netball styles. This Pacific style is often described to be creative and innovative, unpredictable and unorthodox and is often referred to as ‘Pacific flair’. Particular Pacific socialisation processes that allow youngsters to express movements without fear have fostered this Pacific style, as well as a unique Pacific sporting environment. The occurrence of a combination of spectatorship affects and public acknowledgement of family and community membership encourages and supports this particular style.

Netball participants in this study expressed the desire to display Pacific flair styles but have found an apparent lack of support by the majority group. Several consequences develop from this lack of support. When the sporting environment does not support the expression of this particular style of netball, netballers will often seek other opportunities to express it. The organisation of special Pacific netball teams, clubs and tournaments are on the increase to meet this demand. Second, some netballers have come across negative stereotyping of Pacific athletes. Typically Pacific athletes are described as being natural with physical skills, but often lazy and lacking correct mental attitude. These sentiments are readily applied to Pacific athletes in other major New Zealand sports like rugby and rugby league. The statements made by netballers in this study suggest that the stereotype, like most stereotypes, is a myth.

Implications and recommendations:

- It is clear from this study that Pacific women of different age groups are motivated to play netball for different reasons. In particular, younger netballers were motivated by the challenge, improving skills and achieving social status. The competitive element in netball for younger women is particularly important. To meet this need, structures could be set up to motivate players to achieve higher status honours, such as regional representative rank. Age-group regional representative teams do exist in the current netball structure, an additional age-group 'B-level' development teams or squads level, could also provide extra incentives for players looking for opportunities to play at a higher level and to gain recognition for skills. The set up of Pacific age-group representative tournaments have been successful, primarily because players were keen to gain recognition and achieve higher honours.
- For older Pacific netballers, family affiliation was an important motive. A netballer did allude to the difficulty of synchronising her netball participation with the involvement of younger members' of her family, even to the point where she anticipated her priority to play coming last to her children's participation (see quote on page 108). Streamlining the structure of competitions so as to allow

both mother and child to participate in netball would counter this adult drop in participation.

- Physical appearance motives for physical activity participation have been shown to be salient for females from the teenage years onwards (Wilson et al., 1993). This reflects the current power of societal expectations for girls and women to conform to certain body shapes. The utility of netball as a regular exercise activity could make the sport more attractive, particularly if it was accessible throughout the weekdays.
- It is clear, that it is becoming more difficult for women to play netball because of the time commitment needed. Social forces driving New Zealand society exert particular constraints on the leisure time of women, and most find that they cannot commit any further volunteer time towards the organisation of the sport. Many women in this study demanded user-pays quality and this often transpires in a desire to just “pay and play”. This demand will have significant effects on the current club structure of netball. Without the volunteer resource to maintain club facilities, resources, organisation and management, access to netball through volunteer clubs will come under tremendous threat. In particular, the competing variety of physical leisure options available to girls and women today, will continue to undermine netball’s popularity.
- Singular netball clubs would survive best if resources, both human and physical are merged and amalgamated with other clubs, and not necessarily just with netball clubs. Multi-sport, multi-complex sporting facilities would be more viable because of the increase participant numbers to support a single facility to house and provide a number of sports throughout both winter and summer seasons. A single localised site providing a variety of sporting options makes it easier for community members to find information and therefore easy access to sports participation (Hillary Commission, 2000b).
- Refereeing duties is a real issue with current players. Currently, commercial enterprises provide paid referees. The Saturday netball competition needs to organise a referee development programme to meet the demands for quality refereeing. Payment of referee duties will provide real incentives for players to

take on these roles. Options such as discounted team membership rates for teams who would take on refereeing duties may be viable. A system could be run where netballers who wish only to “pay and play”, would not be subsidised.

- This study found that the school structure has been important for introducing netball to participants, although, the “right” of netball as the primary winter school sport for girls is under threat from other more traditionally male sports such as rugby and soccer, which are becoming more accepted and supported throughout New Zealand schools. There is a major decline in netball participation numbers after the school years (Table 2, p.43). Feedback from netballers in this study indicated that the club structure level is often un-coordinated and un-organised. There is a lack of information about joining a club, about club options, club membership requirements, with some clubs struggling with club resources, lack of quality facilities, equipment and coaches (See Appendix K). Accessing information about netball trials and trainings was difficult. This may have been a real barrier for some to participate after the school level. A suggestion is for club sporting structures to market directly to school leavers, and provide a one-stop shop for regional netball club information, such as established netball centres, to co-ordinate netball club information.
- The findings of this study also indicated that most participants entered into netball through the encouragement of those who are currently involved or had participated before. The best marketing strategy is the word-of-mouth approach. It therefore becomes pertinent to provide current participants a quality netball experience, for they will then be willing to pass on positive information about netball to potential participants. This will help maintain netball’s popularity.
- As Thomas and Dyll (1999) have suggested, the management of multiculturalism in sports should involve the incorporation of local cultural styles into sports participation. The development of cultural innovations, which all unique cultural groups contribute, will advance the sporting form and will more likely “increase local participation” (Thomas & Dyll, 1999, p. 119), which is, after all, the developmental goal of any sport. Unique cultural groups are not just

limited to ethnic cultural groups, but other unique cultural “communities”, for example as in urban versus rural, to West versus East, to North Island versus South Island communities. Therefore, developing local cultural styles should be viewed as a positive feature, reflecting the rich cultural heritage of a diverse and multicultural society like New Zealand.

- As New Zealand becomes more global and multicultural and people from unique cultural backgrounds participate in New Zealand social activities, their contributions to these pursuits will transform cultural activities. Pacific styles of sporting play make a positive and exciting contribution to New Zealand sport, especially at top-level netball. As the Pacific population increases in New Zealand, this group will become an important market both as participants and spectators. The fostering of Pacific styles and its expressions will be in the interest of those, who wish to attract this new and burgeoning consumer group.

The need for cross-cultural work

There are several reasons why cross-cultural analyses are important for the sport and exercise arena. In the first instance, researchers should be concerned with the study of cross-cultural variation because sport involvement and physical activity is not exclusive to the Anglo mainstream only. At all levels and within all types of sport and exercise activities, there are many participants who are members of diverse ethnic/racial groups. The fact that certain sport forms are popular for certain ethnic groups and not other sport forms makes cross-cultural investigation particularly relevant.

Second, there is evidence of cultural variation in style and meaning of the sporting activities, even when the ethnic group adopts a mainstream sport form, as found in this study. The point to note is that researchers must recognise that a particular activity can hold diverse meanings and values for different groups.

Third, restricting the investigation to the sporting experiences of one group (for example, mainly Anglo mainstream), is in conflict with the very nature of scientific inquiry. Comparative research is beneficial in that it tests current theoretical

frameworks applied to the understanding of universal human behaviour. As Allison and Duda (1990) have suggested, “research that is confined to a limited range of phenomena may result in theoretical perspectives that are misleading.” (p. 122).

And last but not least, cross-cultural investigation is of a major benefit in that it sheds a light on the nature of mainstream cultures. Culture is made more visible by culture shock. As Allison (1982a) has stated,

As we move into cultures distinct from our own we come to realize that our ways of seeing the world, thinking about the world, and behaving are not necessarily the only appropriate ways. Thus, as we come to understand the richness and diversity of other cultures, we come to better understand our own. By looking carefully, then, at other cultures and attempting to understand the world from their perspectives, we can move beyond ethnocentric tendencies in our personal lives and in our scholarship as well (p. 34).

Recommendations for future research:

The present study has investigated three fields of study: participation motivation, socialisation and race/ethnicity and sport. Therefore, suggestions for future study in all three areas are proffered.

- The integrated model of youth sport motivation as developed by Gould & Petlichkoff (1988) has been well tested over the years, and a fairly consistent set of motives for sport participation has been found amongst youth participants. However, there are some gaps in the literature and this relates particularly to the samples employed by previous research. The first is the focus on youth samples. It has been established in most developed western countries, that there is a general decline in physical activity and sports participation after the compulsory school years, yet little research has explored the participation motives of adult groups. Many researchers assert the importance of establishing participation motives for youth, because healthy participation patterns during the youth stage should lead to continual participation through to the later stages of life. However, the plausibility of these contentions has not been well established at this stage, and should be taken up as a viable research topic in the future.

- Previous research has found that motives for participation vary across life stages, therefore investigation into adult participation motivation seems just as important to establish, in order to identify adult specific needs within the sports experience. Generally, any existing adult samples, primarily come from elite-athlete, college based samples that participate in general exercise and physical leisure activities. Little research has been completed on non-elite adult samples, and female adult samples within a particular sport. A research focus utilising these samples is warranted.
- Furthermore, youth samples utilised thus far, have been mainly from populations of Anglo-Celtic-European heritages (Kolt et al., 1999). Future research needs to employ cross-cultural samples more, to identify how cultural background mediates sporting behaviours. Researchers also need to take care with selecting samples that should reflect the multicultural nature of their social environment, and also allow a sense of equity in the sporting experience by targeting those groups within our community that would benefit from increased activity (for example, elderly, disabled athletes, new migrants, gay communities, disadvantaged groups not currently involved in sport or physical activities). The information from these types of samples will be beneficial for the development of sports in diverse, class-based, pluralistic societies, including New Zealand.
- The current social learning paradigm, within the socialisation literature fails to deal appropriately with reciprocal influence and individualism. That is, how influential socialisation agents are influenced by the socialisation process, nor does it consider self-determinism as a factor of socialisation. The findings of this study, did find self-motivation as a major influence on netball participation. Future studies need to explore this area more closely.
- Also important, is the need to take into consideration the influence of the environment or the *socialisation situations* in the socialisation process. An athlete's personal attributes and the influence of significant others are all mediated through the social context from which they operate. Therefore, researchers should consider identifying macro factors such as historical and

cultural elements as part of the socialisation process. Qualitative research methodologies are best to approach these multiple-levels-of-analysis perspectives (Greendorfer, 1992).

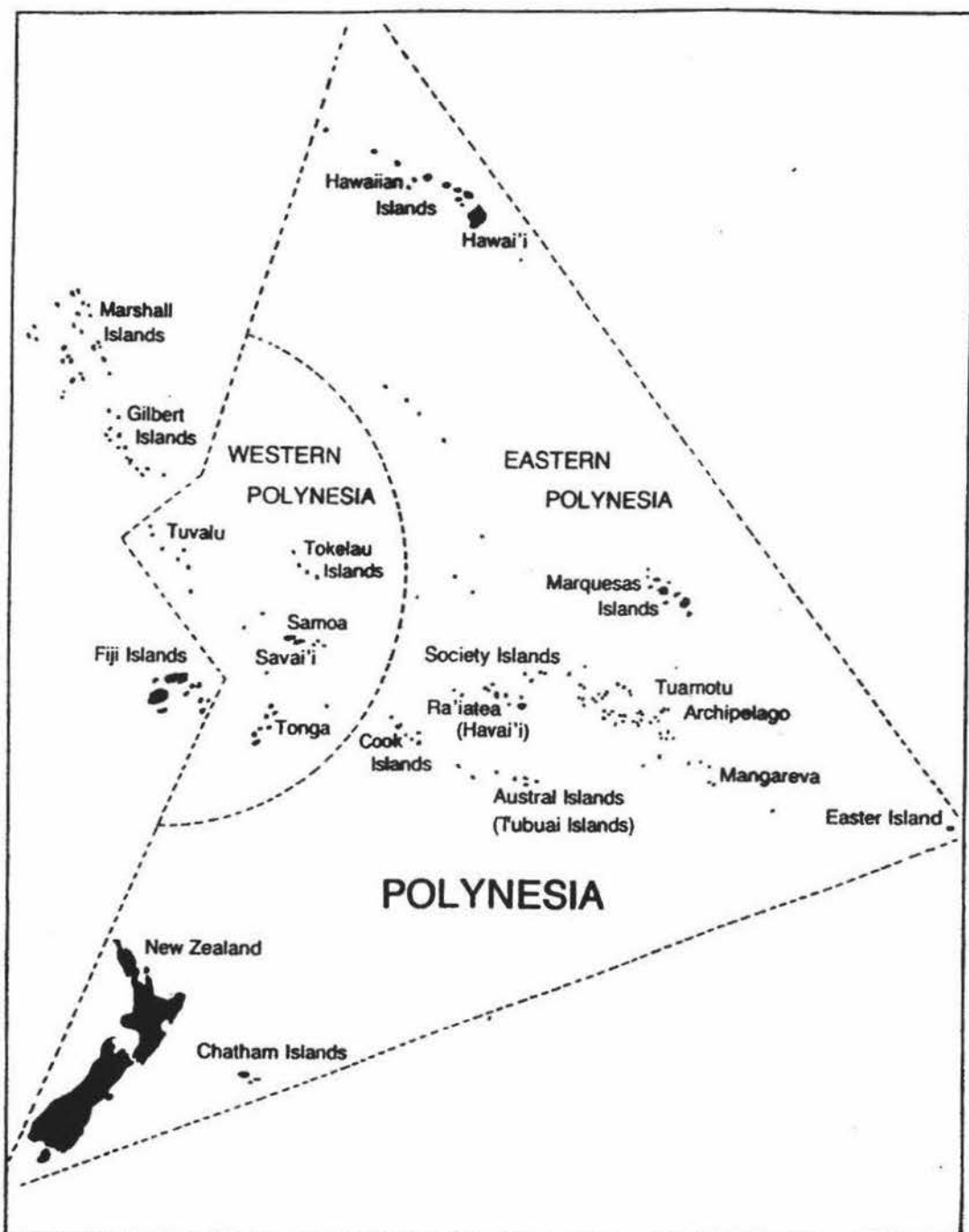
- A criticism on previous studies with a focus on the sporting experiences of unique cultural groups is the lack of operational definitions of concepts race, ethnicity and culture. Although, it must be said, that definitions are often dependent on unique social contexts, therefore, researchers will do well to frame future studies within their own socio-historical backgrounds.
- A dearth of research exists which investigates the sporting experience of women athletes, and this is doubly so for minority ethnic women participants. So much so as to render their sporting contributions and experiences as non-existent. This study goes some way in addressing this gap, however more work is required.
- In addition, critical analyses of sporting experiences encompassing a variety of community groups will advance the understanding about the power relations underlying the organisation of sport. By establishing the sporting experiences across a number of groups, the affect of current sports organisation on equity issues and intercultural relations comes into light. Future research will do well to focus on how the sporting experience mediates these relations.
- Furthermore, little is known about how ethnic groups' members are influenced by the interactions within the sport setting, as well as how these participants influence the very nature of sport itself (Allison, 1982b). Further research in this area will help further understandings about the nature of culture and ethnicity within the sport setting.

Concluding remark

Most sport researchers complete studies in the hope to find applicable information to help sports leaders apply principles to effectively meet the needs of their participants. Global forces are making many nations more multiethnic and multicultural, and not just through migration forces but through natural increases. As we move into the twenty-first century, it is clear that sport participants are becoming more diverse, therefore future research needs to mirror this diversity.

Appendix A:

The Polynesian triangle, showing South Pacific Island nations



Appendix B:

Survey Questionnaire

| | | | | | |
|-----------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| OFFICE USE ONLY | | | | | |
| | | | | | |

Pacific Island Netball Player's Questionnaire

This questionnaire asks questions about your netball experience.

Please attempt to answer ALL of the questions. It is important that you answer the questions as honestly as possible. What you write on this questionnaire will only be seen by the researchers.

You do not need to put your name on the questionnaire.

Researcher:

Research Supervisor:

Contact Information

XXX

XXX

XXX

XXX

Contact Information

XXX

XXX

XXX

XXX

Age: 17-25 ¹ (please tick box)
 26-35 ²
 36-45 ³
 46-55 ⁴
 56+ ⁵

The Region that I play netball in this season is: (please tick box)

- | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> ^A Auckland | <input type="checkbox"/> ^F Wellington |
| <input type="checkbox"/> ^B Counties / Manukau | <input type="checkbox"/> ^G Canterbury |
| <input type="checkbox"/> ^C Waikato | <input type="checkbox"/> ^H Otago |
| <input type="checkbox"/> ^D Central Districts | <input type="checkbox"/> ^I Southland |
| <input type="checkbox"/> ^E Manawatu | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> ^J Other, Please state; | |

The total number of netball seasons I have played is: _____
(including this season)

I identify with the following group(s):

- Samoa
- Tonga
- Cook Islands
- Niue
- Fiji
- French Polynesia
- Tokelau
- New Zealand Maori
- New Zealand European
- Other(s) _____

I was born in the country of: _____ (if
not in New Zealand, please answer the next question)

I migrated to New Zealand when I was _____ years old.

Below are some reasons that people give for participating in sports. Read each item carefully and decide if that item describes why **you** participate in netball. For each item circle the number that indicates how important each item is to **you**.

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------|
| | Not at all Important | Not very Important | Somewhat Important | Very Important | Extremely Important |
| 1. I want to improve my skills | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I want to be with my family | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. I like to win | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. I want to get rid of energy | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. I like to travel | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I want to stay in shape | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I like the excitement | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. I want to be with my friends | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. I like the teamwork | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. My family or close friends want me to play | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. I want to learn new skills | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. I like to do something I'm good at | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. I want to release tension | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. I like to get exercise | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. I like the rewards | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. I like to have something to do | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. I like the action | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. I like the team spirit | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|-----------------------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|------------------------|
| | Not at all Important | Not very Important | Somewhat Important | Very Important | Extremely Important |
| 19. I like to get out of the house | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. I like to compete | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. I like to feel important | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. I like being on a team | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. I want to go on to a higher level | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. I want to be physically fit | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. I want to be popular | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. I like the challenge | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. I like the coaches or instructors | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. I want to gain status or recognition | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. I like to have fun | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. I like to use the equipment or facilities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. I like to try out a new sport / activity | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

32. From the reasons listed above, go back and **circle the number** of the one that is the **most important** to you.

33. If there are other reasons for why you participate in netball (and that are not listed above) please list these here, using the 1 – 5 scale to indicate its importance to you.

We want to find out what influences other people in your life have on your netball participation.

34. Who influenced you the most in deciding to play in netball in the **first instance**? (for the first time or first ever season?)

35. How did this person influence your decision to play netball in this first instance? (for example, 'They took me to their club training', 'They encouraged me to join the school team' etc.)

36. Who influenced you the most in deciding to play netball **this season**?

37. How did this person influence your decision to play netball this season?

We want you to use the following scale from zero to ten to answer the questions that follow. Circle the number that indicates the chance of the item occurring next season. The numbers mean:

- 10 Certain, practically certain
- 9 Almost sure
- 8 Very probable
- 7 Probable
- 6 Good possibility
- 5 Fairly good possibility
- 4 Fair possibility
- 3 Some possibility
- 2 Slight possibility
- 1 Very slight possibility
- 0 No chance, almost no chance

38. What is the chance that you will play netball next season?
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

39. If you circled zero (no chance, almost no chance) of playing netball next season, please write your reason(s) below;

We want to see how likely it is that you will play netball next season if the game is changed in a number of different ways. Please look at each change separately. Use the same meanings of the numbers zero to ten as you did in the last question.

What is the chance that you will play netball next season if:

- 40. There were fewer players in each team 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 41. It was better organised 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 42. I could play in a competitive competition 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 43. I could play in a social competition 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 44. I could play in a mixed (females and males) team 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 45. The subscription costs were less 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 46. I had a better coach 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 47. I got to meet top players 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

- 10 Certain, practically certain
- 9 Almost sure
- 8 Very probable
- 7 Probable
- 6 Good possibility
- 5 Fairly good possibility
- 4 Fair possibility
- 3 Some possibility
- 2 Slight possibility
- 1 Very slight possibility
- 0 No chance, almost no chance

What is the chance that you will play netball next season if:

- | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| 48. I could use professional coaches (I would be prepared to pay) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 49. I had access to local coaching clinics (I would be prepared to pay) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 50. The courts that I played on were better | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 51. There were more games during the season | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 52. There were less games during the season | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 53. I could play games during weeknights (Monday to Friday nights – after 5pm) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 54. I could play games during weekdays (Monday to Friday days – before 5pm) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 55. I could play games on Sunday | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |

56. What is the most difficult aspect of your netball participation?

- 10** Certain, practically certain
- 9** Almost sure
- 8** Very probable
- 7** Probable
- 6** Good possibility
- 5** Fairly good possibility
- 4** Fair possibility
- 3** Some possibility
- 2** Slight possibility
- 1** Very slight possibility
- 0** No chance, almost no chance

What is the chance that you will play netball next season if:

- | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|-----------|
| 57. A club asked me to play netball | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 58. I knew how to contact a netball club | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 59. I knew when and where netball clubs practice | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 60. I knew what teams I could join | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 61. The club teams had coaches | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 62. The club teams had structured practices | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 63. The club teams had good practice facilities | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 64. It wasn't expensive to join a club | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 65. The clubs had good social facilities / organisation | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 66. The club had a visible number of Pacific people involved | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |

- 10 Certain, practically certain
- 9 Almost sure
- 8 Very probable
- 7 Probable
- 6 Good possibility
- 5 Fairly good possibility
- 4 Fair possibility
- 3 Some possibility
- 2 Slight possibility
- 1 Very slight possibility
- 0 No chance, almost no chance

Representative Players

Fill in the following section if you are a **representative player** this season. What is the chance that you will play **representative netball** next season if:

- 67. There were more representative games during the season. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 68. There were less representative games during the season. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 69. There were more tournaments 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- 70. There were more coaching clinics with qualified coaches 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

End of Questionnaire!

Thank you for completing this questionnaire!

Please fold your questionnaire in half and place it in the envelope attached

Please seal the envelope

And return the questionnaire to the person who gave it to you.

Appendix C:

Research Promotional Flyer

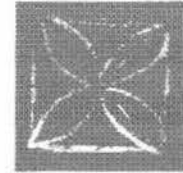
 **Massey University**
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS



*Tulofa lava
Kia Orana
Malo e lelei
Fakalofa lahi atu
Nisa bula ni vaka
Namaste
Taloha ni
Ia ora na
Kia ora*



NETBALL NEW ZEALAND INC



Pacific **Island Netballers**

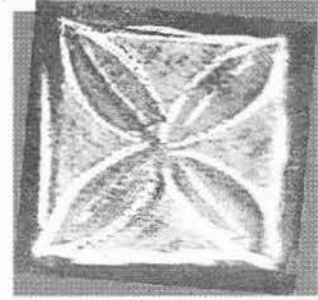
*Are YOU, a Pacific Island female, 17 years or older,
Play netball on the Saturday competition?
IF SO ... be part of a National Study on Pacific
Island netball!!.*

Complete a short Questionnaire...
AVAILABLE HERE AT...

Appendix D:

Information for Administrating Questionnaires

Talofa lava
Kia Orana
Malo e lelei
Fakalofa laki atu
Nisa bula ni vaka
Namaste
Taloha ni
la ora na
Kia ora
Greetings! DEAR: _____



INSTRUCTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING QUESTIONNAIRES
Pacific Island Netball Research Project
2000

Thank you for being part of this Research Project!

Please find enclosed, copies of the questionnaire to be given to the participants.

Please follow the instructions below **exactly**. This is important to ensure consistency in the research protocols and safety of the participants involved in the research project.

This questionnaire is to be completed by...

- **Pacific Island WOMEN only**
- **AGED 17 years and above only**
- who must play in the **SATURDAY OUTDOOR competition** (Netball NZ sanctioned competition)
- **And PLAYERS only** ('Players' defined as those who fulfil a netball team position as a player for this current season - 2000. Players who hold a players position as well as a coaching and/or manager's position **MAY** also complete the questionnaire).

Please make sure that the participants who receive the questionnaire to complete, meet all of the criteria above.

The questionnaire will take 10-15 minutes to complete. Please collect all completed questionnaires and place them in the '*Return Questionnaire Envelope*', and post back as soon as possible.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR ADMINISTERING QUESTIONNAIRES

It is recommended that the questionnaires be taken to a **TRAINING SESSION to be completed**, and be completed at the **beginning** of the training session (*PS. Take some biro-pens for the players!*)

The questionnaire will take approximately **10-15 minutes** to complete.

Please make the questionnaires available to the players and state the following:

- “Those players who **identify themselves** as a Pacific Island person, please complete the questionnaire at their own will and discretion”
- “The questionnaire is **not compulsory** / mandatory, players are free to choose to complete or not to complete the questionnaire”
- “The questionnaire asks some simple questions about Pacific Island women’s netball experiences in Aotearoa / New Zealand.”
- “It is part of a **National study** developed by Massey University research student and in conjunction with Netball New Zealand.”
- “After you have filled in the questionnaire at this training, fold it and place it into the envelope attached to the questionnaire, **seal the envelope** and **hand it back to me.**” (**You** will then collect all the completed questionnaires and place them in the ‘Return Questionnaire Envelope’ provided and post it immediately in the mail. Postage is provided.)
- “Complete the questionnaire **on your own**, without discussion with others.”
- “Your answers will **NOT** be seen by anybody except the researchers.”
- “If there are any questions about the research, contact the Researcher and/or Research Supervisor on the contacts provided in the questionnaire.”

It is hoped that the information gained from this study will provide greater understanding into the motivations for netball participation of Pacific Island participants. This information will assist netball administrators, coaches and other stakeholders to formulate more effective sports management policies and procedures and strategies of netball promotion to Pacific Island participants.

The results of the study and the project process can be made available to you by contacting the Researcher and/or Research Supervisor.

Thank you for your time and participation.

Researcher:

XXX



*Fāafetai lava
Malo
Meitaki
Mannia!*

| Researcher: | Research Supervisor: |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Ms. Tasileta Teevale | Primary Supervisor |
| Contact Information | Contact Information |
| | |
| | |
| | |

Appendix E:

Focus Group Interview Guide

Introductions

Self and research assistant

Thank everybody for coming

Informal group discussion about ...

Emphasis on your **own personal experience**

Ask me questions

At the end of the session...

Fill in demographics form

Food provided

The purpose of the session

Find out reasons why you play and to describe for us your netball experiences in general. No hard questions!

My personal motivation

The participants to introduce themselves

How long played netball, who do you play for, level of play

5 topics for discussion

- i). Things you like about netball
- ii). How you came to be a netballer
- iii). Things you don't like and therefore how can we change / promote netball
- iv). Describe the netball "culture"
- v). "Pacific" netball

Timekeeper

Things you like about Netball

1. easy one... How many people play other sports other than netball? (hands up). Why do you like netball as opposed to other sports? Finish the sentence... **I like netball because...**

- ◆ What **benefits** do you get from netball?

Are these benefits short-term or long-term?

Are these benefits applicable to other areas on life? E.g., if you are confident when playing netball, does this confidence rub off into other areas of your life?

- ◆ Some say that they **enjoy the particular skills** involved in netball, i.e., throwing, catching, jumping, running, why not kicking? Hitting?
- ◆ What is the **value of sport** in your life? Compared to other things in your life, e.g., family, friends, career, schooling, church, community, activities, relationship with your partner, sport. Is sport just a past-time, or is it a part of your life...always? How valuable is sport?
- ◆ Tell me the first picture you see in your head when I ask this question. Describe the **most enjoyable moment** in your netball experience. Why?

How you came to be a netballer

2. Think back to this season, and the decision making process that occurred in your head. It may have been at the end of last season, or beginning of this season, it doesn't matter when you decided to play this season but give us the **reason or reason(s) for why you decided to play netball this year.**

- ◆ Where did the motivation come from? **Who influenced you** to play this season?
- ◆ Talk about the past...take me back to **the first time you ever played netball.** Describe to me how you came to play netball in the first instance?
Describe how it happened.

Who influenced you?

- ◆ The person (people) that influenced you to play, **why do you think they encouraged you to play netball?**
- ◆ Reflect back over the years, has your reasons for playing netball **changed over the years?**

If so, how and why?

- ◆ Has the influence of significant others changed over the years?

Things you don't like about Netball, ways to change / promote Netball

3. Summary statement... we've talked about the things you liked about netball, let's talk about the things you might dislike.

- ◆ What do you **dislike** about netball?
- ◆ What is the **most difficult** aspect in your netball experience (you have to deal with it time and time again).
- ◆ OK...how can we **change netball** to keep you in the game? What changes would you like to see in netball? E.g., rule changes? Competition formats? Game development?
- ◆ What do you look for in a club? **What makes a club a good club?**
- ◆ How many here have **other roles in netball?** I.e., coaches, managers, administrators, umpires etc? for those that take on these other roles...**why?**

For those that do not take on these roles...**why not?** (also NNZ roles). **What are your perceptions about these roles?**

- ◆ How important are **role models?** Do you have one? Who is your netball role model? Who epitomises the type of netball played that you consider the best or would hope to emulate?
- ◆ What are the best ways to **promote netball** to other Pacific women? If you were given the job of marketing and promotions manager at NNZ, and your brief is to increase participation of Pacific women in NZ, what would your promotional strategies be? How would you promote netball?

Describe what goes on in Netball, what happens when one plays netball

4. Explain to me the **culture of netball** from your perspective. If culture is the way that you do things on an everyday basis. Describe to me what happens on a typical Saturday competition day. (e.g., my volleyball experience).

How many hours per week goes into netball?

- ◆ Tell me how one becomes a netballer, from your experiences and/or observations over the years? **How do most people join a club/team?**

- ◆ NNZ has no idea who their participants are...we know nothing about the 'typical netballer'. I.e., how old, how many years they have played for? Just women, or are there men? How many Palagi, Maori, Pacific, Asian women? Students or workers or unemployed or full-time mum? Marital status? Etc.

From your observations on a typical Saturday competition day, down at the courts, **describe to me the 'typical' Pacific player** in your competition. **Demographics?** How old? What Island group? Student or worker, both?

'Pacific' Netball

5. Describe what you see on a typical competition day... in your opinion, is there a high/ medium / low **participation rate of Pacific players? Why?**

What approximate percentages would you give to the 3 groups, Palagi, Maori, and Pacific?

- ◆ There is some debate about the **'Pacific' style of play?** From your experiences and observations, do you think that it exists?

And if so, explain what it is...

And where it comes from...

Therefore, describe the 'Palagi' way of playing netball...

- ◆ In your experience, have you heard or come across general statements made about the way Pacific players play the game? **How does this make you feel?** I.e., proud, happy, sad, anxious, etc.
- ◆ Has netball allowed players from **different cultural backgrounds to come together**, be united, share each others' cultures?

Reminders:

- **End session – thank the participants...valuable contribution.**
- **I will contact them again re: transcripts**
- **If would like to be sent results of the study, contact me, take business card or leave contact information.**
- **Fill in Demographics page**
- **Fill in a Questionnaire**
- **Have a feed / lotu.**

Fa'afetai lava.

Appendix F:

Focus Group Information Letter and Consent Form (example)

Talofa lava
Kia Orana
Malo e telei
Fakalofa laki atu
Nisa bula ni vaka
Namaste
Taloha ni
la ora na
Kia ora
Greetings!

 **Massey University**
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS



Dear Pacific Island Netball Player,

Thank you for taking part in this Research Project.

The purpose of the study is to find out about the nature of the netball experience of Pacific Island players in New Zealand.

It is hoped that the information gained from this study will provide greater understanding into the motivations for netball participation of Pacific Island participants. This information will assist netball administrators, coaches and other stakeholders to formulate more effective sports management policies, procedures and netball promotion to Pacific Island participants, with the aim to increase participation of Pacific women in netball in New Zealand.

In particular, the aim of the focus group interviews is for Pacific players to talk about their netball experiences and a secondary aim to contribute ideas on how Pacific netball participation can be increased.

Please read the Consent form carefully and sign this document. By giving your consent for participating in this project the information you give will be used in a confidential manner, your name will not be linked with your answers and will be seen only by the researchers. Please be aware that your contribution will be made within a group of other participants (approximately 8 participants in total as part of the Focus group interview). Your participation is voluntary and you may refuse to answer any questions or withdraw from the interview at your discretion. For the purpose of making the data collection process easier for the researcher to use in analysis, the interview will be audiotaped.

The information from the interviews will be used to make general statements about the nature of Pacific Island women's netball participation in Aotearoa. This information will be used for two purposes;

- ◆ For a report on Pacific Island women's netball experience in response to Netball New Zealand marketing and management needs.
- ◆ For the partial fulfilment of a Massey University Masters degree programme in Sports Management

Details for Focus Group Interview in Wellington Region:

When: Saturday 23 September 2000
What time: meet at 3 P.M.
Where: Kapi Mana Netball Centre
Mungavin Avenue, Porirua
How long: 1 - 1½ hour(s)
What to bring: Yourself and a friend if you want (another Pacific netball player over the age of 17).

Benefit for participants: A chance to share you netball experiences with others.
A chance to have a say about how netball should be organised to meet the needs of Pacific participants.
This is the first study on Pacific sports in Aotearoa, therefore your contribution will be greatly appreciated.

Thank you for your time and participation.

I will contact you closer to the time to confirm your participation.

I look forward to meeting you on the 23rd of September in Porirua, Wellington.

PS. My contact details are below, if you need to contact me for further information.

Fa'afetai lava

Malo

Maitaki

Mannia!

Researcher

Contact Information

XXX

XXX

XXX

XXX

Pacific Players Netball Research Project Focus Group Participant Consent Form

I the undersigned agree to participate in the research project – Pacific Players Netball Research Project.

As a participant in the project I have been informed of:

- ◆ The purpose, nature and procedures of the study
- ◆ Any research procedures that might have a harmful effect on me now or in the future
- ◆ My right to withdraw from the research at any stage
- ◆ The purpose for which the data collected may be used and the outcome of the study
- ◆ And I hereby give consent for the interview process to be audiotaped.

Name of participant:

Signature of participant:

Date:

Appendix G: Questionnaire Introductory Consent Letter



Department of
Management Systems
Private Bag 11 222
Palmerston North
New Zealand
Telephone: 64 6 350 5799 ext.
Facsimile: 64 6 350 5661

*Talofa lava
Kia Orana
Malo e lelei
Fakalofa lahi atu
Nisa bula ni yaka
Namaste
Taloha ni
la ora na
Kia ora
Greetings!*



Dear Pacific Island Netball Player,

Thank you for taking part in this Research Project.

This questionnaire has been developed to find out about the nature of the netball experience of Pacific Island players in New Zealand.

The research is in partial fulfilment of a Massey University Masters degree programme in Sports Management and is endorsed by Netball New Zealand.

Please note that in choosing to complete this questionnaire, you are giving your consent for participating in this project. **All information you give is confidential and your name will NOT be linked with your questionnaire answers.** Your participation is voluntary and you may refuse to answer any questions or withdraw from completing the questionnaire at your discretion.

It is hoped that the information gained from this study will provide greater understanding into the motivations for netball participation of Pacific Island participants. This information will assist netball administrators, coaches and other stakeholders to formulate more effective sports management policies, procedures and netball promotion to Pacific Island participants, with the aim to increase participation of Pacific women in netball in New Zealand.

The results of the study and the project process can be made available to you by contacting the Researcher and/or Research Supervisor.

The questionnaire will take 10-15 minutes to complete. Upon completion, return the questionnaire to the person who gave it to you.

Thank you for your time and participation.


Researcher:
Ms. Tasileta Te'evale (BPhEd., PgDip.SpMan., CAT)



*Fa'afetai lava
Malo
Maitaki
Mamua*

Te Kūnenga ki Pūrehuroa

Inception to Infinity: Massey University's commitment to learning as a life-long journey

Appendix H:
Other reasons given for participating in netball

| Other Motives for Participation | Frequency | Percentage |
|----------------------------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| “Meeting new people” | 3 | 1.9% |
| “I like to play for my nation” | 3 | 1.9% |
| “Being a role model for younger players” | 2 | 1.3% |
| “I feel pride when I put on my club uniform” | 1 | 0.6% |
| “Communication skills” | 1 | 0.6% |
| “Balance my studies with something physical” | 1 | 0.6% |
| “Good on CV [Curriculum Vitae]” | 1 | 0.6% |
| “To show off to the boys” | 1 | 0.6% |
| No other reason given | 144 | 91.7% |
| Total | 157 | 100% |

Appendix I:
Participation Motives and Independent variables - Crosstabulations

Table I1: Participation motives of Island groups.

(top 10 most important and 3 least important motives)

| Cook-Island | | | Multiple ethnic | | | Samoa | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------|-------------|-----------------------------|-------------|-------------|-----------------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------|
| Motive items | Mean | S.D. | Motive items | Mean | S.D. | Motive items | Mean | S.D. |
| To have fun | 4.74 | .57 | Like the team spirit | 4.67 | .60 | To be physically fit | 4.89 | .36 |
| Like the team spirit | 4.70 | .55 | To have fun | 4.61 | .74 | To have fun | 4.86 | .36 |
| To do something I'm good at | 4.60 | .71 | Like being on a team | 4.50 | .89 | Like the team spirit | 4.61 | .69 |
| Like the team work | 4.55 | .58 | Like the excitement | 4.37 | .77 | To go on higher level | 4.61 | .74 |
| Like to get exercise | 4.51 | .72 | Like the team work | 4.37 | .77 | To learn new skills | 4.54 | .74 |
| Like the action | 4.51 | .66 | To do something I'm good at | 4.30 | .79 | To improve my skills | 4.50 | .96 |
| To stay in shape | 4.49 | .80 | To be physically fit | 4.30 | 1.17 | Like the excitement | 4.50 | .58 |
| To be physically fit | 4.49 | .72 | To learn new skills | 4.26 | .91 | Like the challenge | 4.50 | .64 |
| Like the excitement | 4.43 | .80 | Like the action | 4.24 | .87 | Like the team work | 4.46 | .79 |
| To learn new skills | 4.43 | .97 | Like to get exercise | 4.22 | 1.01 | To do something I'm good at | 4.46 | .84 |
| To get out of the house | 3.51 | 1.40 | To release tension | 3.37 | 1.24 | Family or close friends want me to play | 3.39 | 1.29 |
| To get rid of energy | 3.45 | 1.41 | To be popular | 2.83 | 1.43 | To get rid of energy | 2.71 | 1.24 |
| To be popular | 3.13 | 1.35 | To get rid of energy | 2.78 | 1.33 | To be popular | 2.68 | 1.25 |
| <i>n = 47</i> | | | <i>n = 46</i> | | | <i>n = 28</i> | | |
| | | | | | | | <i>Total = 157</i> | |

Table 12: Participation motives across level of netball experience, measured through number of seasons played:

(top 10 most important and 3 least important motives)

| 1-5 seasons | | | 6-10 seasons | | | 11⁺ seasons | | |
|----------------------|-------------|-------------|-----------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| Motive items | Mean | S.D. | Motive items | Mean | S.D. | Motive items | Mean | S.D. |
| To have fun | 4.61 | .73 | To have fun | 4.72 | .56 | To have fun | 4.81 | .47 |
| Like the teamwork | 4.47 | .70 | Like the team spirit | 4.67 | .60 | To stay in shape | 4.69 | .59 |
| Like the team spirit | 4.37 | .56 | Like being on a team | 4.48 | .76 | Like the teamwork | 4.63 | .75 |
| To improve my skills | 4.31 | .98 | To do something I'm good at | 4.46 | .74 | Like the team spirit | 4.63 | .71 |
| Like the excitement | 4.28 | .74 | To be physically fit | 4.44 | .92 | To be physically fit | 4.63 | .61 |
| Like being on a team | 4.28 | 1.00 | Like the teamwork | 4.42 | .69 | Like the excitement | 4.59 | .67 |
| To learn new skills | 4.25 | .97 | To learn new skills | 4.40 | .84 | Like to get exercise | 4.59 | .67 |
| To stay in shape | 4.19 | 1.01 | To improve my skills | 4.35 | .88 | To do something I'm good at | 4.53 | .67 |
| Like to get exercise | 4.19 | .86 | Like the action | 4.35 | .80 | Like the challenge | 4.47 | .62 |
| To be physically fit | 4.19 | 1.01 | Like to get exercise | 4.33 | .88 | To learn new skills | 4.41 | .98 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| To release tension | 3.11 | 1.04 | To release tension | 3.61 | 1.13 | To gain status or recognition | 3.13 | 1.43 |
| To be popular | 2.69 | 1.28 | To get rid of energy | 2.97 | 1.30 | To get out of the house | 3.09 | 1.49 |
| To get rid of energy | 2.50 | 1.13 | To be popular | 2.93 | 1.36 | To be popular | 2.72 | 1.44 |
| <i>n = 36</i> | | | <i>n = 89</i> | | | <i>n = 32</i> | | |
| | | | | | | <i>Total n = 157</i> | | |

Table I3: Participation motives across Regions

(top 10 most important and 3 least important motives)

| Auckland/Counties | | | Waikato | | | Wellington | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------|-------------|----------------------------------|-------------|-------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------|
| Motive items | Mean | S.D. | Motive items | Mean | S.D. | Motive items | Mean | S.D. |
| To have fun | 4.76 | .54 | To have fun | 4.61 | .67 | Like the team spirit | 4.76 | .51 |
| Like the team spirit | 4.62 | .63 | Like the team spirit | 4.58 | .62 | To have fun | 4.69 | .71 |
| Like the teamwork | 4.44 | .78 | Like the teamwork | 4.48 | .57 | To be physically fit | 4.62 | .73 |
| Like to do something I'm good at | 4.42 | .74 | Like the action | 4.42 | .62 | To stay in shape | 4.59 | .82 |
| To learn new skills | 4.41 | .79 | Like the excitement | 4.39 | .67 | Like the teamwork | 4.55 | .63 |
| To improve my skills | 4.38 | .96 | Like being on a team | 4.39 | .88 | To get exercise | 4.48 | .74 |
| To be physically fit | 4.38 | .95 | Like to do something I'm good at | 4.32 | .79 | Like the excitement | 4.45 | .87 |
| Like being on a team | 4.37 | .82 | Like to have something to do | 4.32 | .79 | Like to do something I'm good at | 4.45 | .91 |
| Like the excitement | 4.30 | .76 | Like the challenge | 4.32 | .75 | Like being on a team | 4.45 | .95 |
| To stay in shape | 4.29 | .92 | To learn new skills | 4.29 | .94 | To improve my skills | 4.41 | .78 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| To release tension | 3.37 | 1.08 | Like to get out of the house | 3.61 | 1.36 | To feel important | 3.24 | 1.38 |
| To be popular | 2.66 | 1.27 | To gain status or recognition | 3.61 | 1.26 | To get rid of energy | 3.07 | 1.39 |
| To get rid of energy | 2.61 | 1.25 | To be popular | 3.35 | 1.50 | To be popular | 2.69 | 1.37 |
| <i>n</i> = 79 | | | <i>n</i> = 31 | | | <i>n</i> = 29 | | |
| | | | | | | | <i>Total n</i> = 139 | |

Table I4: Participation motives of netballers according to place of birth

(top 10 most important and 3 least important motives)

| Island Born | | | NZ Born | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------|-------------|----------------------------------|----------------------|-------------|
| Motive items | Mean | S.D. | Motive items | Mean | S.D. |
| To have fun | 4.82 | .45 | To have fun | 4.67 | .63 |
| Like the team spirit | 4.66 | .64 | Like the team spirit | 4.63 | .60 |
| Like the teamwork | 4.48 | .79 | Like being on a team | 4.50 | .75 |
| Like to stay in shape | 4.43 | .93 | To be physically fit | 4.50 | .85 |
| To improve my skills | 4.41 | .97 | Like the teamwork | 4.47 | .67 |
| Like the excitement | 4.41 | .69 | To learn new skills | 4.40 | .82 |
| Like to do something I'm good at | 4.41 | .90 | Like to do something I'm good at | 4.38 | .78 |
| To learn new skills | 4.30 | 1.07 | To get exercise | 4.37 | .84 |
| To get exercise | 4.30 | .85 | To go on a higher level | 4.37 | .94 |
| To be with my family | 4.27 | .97 | Like the challenge | 4.35 | .78 |
| | | | | | |
| To get rid of energy | 3.32 | 1.22 | To release tension | 3.55 | 1.11 |
| To gain status or recognition | 3.27 | 1.39 | To be popular | 2.93 | 1.36 |
| To be popular | 2.59 | 1.32 | To get rid of energy | 2.87 | 1.34 |
| <i>n = 44</i> | | | <i>n = 113</i> | <i>Total n = 157</i> | |

Table 15: Participation motives across Age ranges

(top 10 most important and 3 least important motives)

| 17-25 years | | | 26-35 years | | | 36⁺ years | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------|-------------|--------------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| Motive items | Mean | S.D. | Motive items | Mean | S.D. | Motive items | Mean | S.D. |
| To have fun | 4.77 | .53 | To have fun | 4.59 | .62 | Like the team spirit | 4.67 | .69 |
| Like the team spirit | 4.67 | .57 | To stay in shape | 4.41 | .71 | Like the teamwork | 4.63 | .86 |
| To be physically fit | 4.50 | .83 | Like the teamwork | 4.41 | .71 | To be with my family | 4.58 | .61 |
| To learn new skills | 4.47 | .77 | Like being on a team | 4.41 | .71 | Like the excitement | 4.54 | .61 |
| Like being on a team | 4.47 | .80 | Like the team spirit | 4.35 | .79 | To do something I'm good at | 4.54 | .61 |
| Like the teamwork | 4.45 | .73 | Like the challenge | 4.29 | .92 | Like to have something to do | 4.54 | .87 |
| To do something I'm good at | 4.41 | .79 | Like to get exercise | 4.24 | .75 | Like the action | 4.54 | .80 |
| To go on to a higher level | 4.39 | .96 | To be physically fit | 4.24 | .75 | Like to have fun | 4.54 | .80 |
| Like to get exercise | 4.38 | .82 | To improve my skills | 4.18 | .81 | Like to stay in shape | 4.46 | 1.06 |
| To improve skills | 4.35 | .88 | To get rid of energy | 4.18 | .81 | Like to improve my skills | 4.38 | .87 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| To release tension | 3.35 | 1.14 | My family or close friends want me to play | 3.41 | 1.33 | To gain status or recognition | 3.21 | 1.55 |
| To be popular | 2.78 | 1.31 | Like to feel important | 3.29 | 1.16 | To feel important | 3.13 | 1.71 |
| To get rid of energy | 2.68 | 1.26 | To be popular | 3.24 | 1.56 | To be popular | 2.83 | 1.37 |
| | | | | | | | | |
| <i>n = 116</i> | | | <i>n = 17</i> | | | <i>n = 24</i> | | |
| | | | | | | <i>Total n = 157</i> | | |

Table I6: Participation motives across level of netball experience, measured through Regional-Representative Status:

(top 10 most important and 3 least important motives)

| Representative Players | | | Non-Representative Players | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------|-------------|
| Motive items | Mean | S.D. | Motive items | Mean | S.D. |
| To have fun | 4.80 | .53 | To have fun | 4.61 | .65 |
| Like the team spirit | 4.74 | .51 | Like the team spirit | 4.51 | .70 |
| To be physically fit | 4.61 | .67 | Like the teamwork | 4.42 | .69 |
| To go on to a higher level | 4.60 | .65 | Like to do something I'm good at | 4.25 | .96 |
| Like being on a team | 4.59 | .64 | To improve my skills | 4.22 | 1.03 |
| To learn new skills | 4.56 | .62 | To stay in shape | 4.22 | .98 |
| Like the teamwork | 4.51 | .71 | Like the excitement | 4.22 | .80 |
| To do something I'm good at | 4.50 | .66 | Like the action | 4.19 | .94 |
| To get exercise | 4.49 | .66 | Like to get exercise | 4.17 | 1.00 |
| To stay in shape | 4.48 | .73 | To be physically fit | 4.17 | 1.07 |
| | | | | | |
| To release tension | 3.60 | 1.14 | To feel important | 3.14 | 1.32 |
| To be popular | 3.18 | 1.27 | To get rid of energy | 3.07 | 1.34 |
| To get rid of energy | 2.93 | 1.30 | To be popular | 2.39 | 1.33 |
| <i>n = 88</i> | | | <i>n = 69</i> | <i>Total n = 157</i> | |

Appendix J:
Role of ‘Significant Others’ and Independent variables – Crosstabulations

Table J1: Comparing role of ‘significant others’, between first netball season and current netball season, across different level of netball experience measured through number of seasons played.

| Role of ‘Significant Other’ | Number of seasons played | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------|------|-----|-------|----------------|------|-----|-------|
| | First Season | | | | Current Season | | | |
| | 1-5 | 6-10 | 11+ | Total | 1-5 | 6-10 | 11+ | Total |
| Direct role | 16 | 40 | 15 | 71 | 13 | 19 | 6 | 38 |
| Indirect role | 14 | 31 | 8 | 53 | 16 | 35 | 11 | 62 |
| Self Motivation | 1 | 5 | 0 | 6 | 4 | 22 | 9 | 35 |
| Role Model | 2 | 7 | 6 | 15 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 5 |
| No answer given | 3 | 6 | 3 | 12 | 2 | 9 | 6 | 17 |
| TOTAL | 36 | 89 | 32 | 157 | 36 | 89 | 32 | 157 |

Table J2: Comparing role of ‘significant others’ between first netball season and current netball season, across different Age groups.

| Role of ‘Significant Other’ | Age Groups | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------|-------|-----|-------|----------------|-------|-----|-------|
| | First Season | | | | Current Season | | | |
| | 17-25 | 26-35 | 36+ | Total | 17-25 | 26-35 | 36+ | Total |
| Direct role | 52 | 5 | 14 | 71 | 30 | 2 | 6 | 38 |
| Indirect role | 41 | 6 | 6 | 53 | 48 | 9 | 5 | 62 |
| Self Motivation | 6 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 21 | 5 | 9 | 35 |
| Role Model | 10 | 3 | 2 | 15 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 5 |
| No answer given | 7 | 3 | 2 | 12 | 13 | 0 | 4 | 17 |
| TOTAL | 116 | 17 | 24 | 127 | 116 | 17 | 24 | 157 |

Appendix K:

Ranked means of Management Questions included in the questionnaire.

Responses to the question “What is the chance that you will play netball next season if...”

Rated on a 5-point Likert scale with,

5 = “certain, practically certain”

4 = “very probable”

3 = “fair possibility”

2 = “slight possibility”

1 = “no chance, almost no chance”

| | |
|------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 4.39 | The club had good social facilities / organisation |
| 4.33 | It was better organised |
| 4.33 | The club teams had good practice facilities |
| 4.31 | A club asked me to play netball |
| 4.29 | I could play in a competitive competition |
| 4.27 | I knew what teams I could join |
| 4.26 | The teams had structured practices |
| 4.26 | The club had a visible number of Pacific people involved |
| 4.25 | The club teams had coaches |
| 4.22 | It wasn't expensive to join a club |
| 4.18 | I knew when and where netball clubs practice |
| 4.17 | I got to meet top players |
| 4.13 | There were more games during the season |
| 4.12 | The courts I played on were better |
| 4.11 | The subscription costs were less |
| 4.06 | I knew how to contact a netball club |
| 4.01 | I had a better coach |
| 3.89 | I could use professional coaches (I would be prepared to pay) |
| 3.81 | There were fewer players in each team |
| 3.80 | I had access to local coaching clinics (I would be prepared to pay) |
| 3.74 | I could play games during the weeknights (Monday to Friday nights – after 5pm) |
| 3.71 | I could play in a mixed (females and males) team |
| 3.68 | I could play in a social competition |
| 3.32 | I could play games during weekdays (Monday to Friday days – before 5pm) |
| 3.19 | There were less games during the season |
| 2.73 | I could play games on Sunday |
| | Responses of ‘Representative’ Players only |
| 4.34 | There were more tournaments |
| 4.33 | There were more representative games during the season |
| 4.26 | There were less representative games during the season |
| 3.50 | There were more coaching clinics with qualified coaches |

References:

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