The historical and contemporary role of physical activity and sport for women: a study of netball in Scotland

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Thesis submitted for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

University of Stirling

January 2020

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis has been composed by myself, and that it embodies the results of my own research. I acknowledge that to the best of my knowledge this thesis contains no material written or published by another person, except where due reference to such is made.

Signature:

Date:

ABSTRACT

This thesis examines the area of female physical activity and competitive team sport, in particular, netball as a means to support lifelong female physical activity and participation in sport. This study is the first to investigate the historical and contemporary place of netball and therefore provides a new perspective on Scottish female physical activity and sports participation through netball.

The research underpinning this thesis used a mixed methods approach: self-completion survey questionnaires and face-to-face interviews. These methods are supplemented by a review of literature pertaining to the substantive themes that underpin this study (e.g.: sociological and historical aspects of women's sport; critical social and historical analysis of sport in Scotland; the development of netball in Scotland). This thesis also utilises important data collected via survey questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The survey questionnaires were completed by 143 women over 16 years of age who have played and/or coached netball. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 32 women to explore in greater depth individuals' personal accounts of netball alongside a range of topics outlined in the survey questionnaire. In doing so, this study gives a voice to these women and uniquely provides a record of their experiences and insights.

The findings from this study offer insight into the role of primary school, family and friends and other social factors that influence these women's desire to play netball. It is of significance that this study reveals that the traditionally accepted barriers to female participation do not appear significant to this group. Therefore, it may be inferred that the reasons for participation are more complex than traditionally assumed.

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ABBREVIATIONS

AAWBBA	All Australia Women's Basketball and Netball Association
AENA	All England Netball Association
AEWAN	All England Women's Association for Netball and other hand ball games
AfPE	Association for Physical Education
BAALPE	British Advisors and Lecturers in Physical Education
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
BGE	Broad General Education
BUCS	British Universities and Colleges Sport
CfE	Curriculum for Excellence
HNC	Higher National Certificate
HND	Higher National Diploma
IFNA	The International Federation of Netball Associations
INF	International Netball Federation
NUWSS	National Union of Women's Suffrage Societies
NVivo 12	QSR International NVivo 12 analysis software
PE	Physical Education
PEAUK	Physical Education Association of the United Kingdom
PEPAS	Physical Education, Physical Activity and Sport
PT	Physical Training
RCGI	Royal Central Gymnastic Institute
SAWNA	South African Women's Netball Association
SPSS 19	Statistical Package for Social Sciences 19
SNA	Scottish Netball Association

UEFA	Union of European Football Associations
UKCC	United Kingdom Coaching Certificate
WFL	Women's Freedom League
WSPU	Women's Social and Political Union
YMCA	Young Men's Christian Association

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Writing this thesis has been a long and, at times, difficult and trying process, especially for those close to me. It has been a challenging process working full-time within education at both regional and national levels and being a part-time student with the demands on my time that both have entailed. I would like to thank the following people for their support, help and advice in undertaking this research.

- My family and friends, especially my parents, Jim and June, who have unconditionally supported me. My partner, Terry Differ, whose love, humour and perspective have been invaluable. My good friends, Sarah Trevorrow, Chris MacLennan, Joe Cowley, Will Kay and Tracey Reilly, who have listened, supported and provided me with coffee on a regular basis throughout the entire process. My acknowledgements also go to Aunt Liz, Uncle Bill, Aunt Yvonne, Uncle Godfrey and Mags, who are no longer here but always believed in me, too. I thank all of you for your help, support and love.

- The many members of the netball community who helped, in particular Moira Ord and staff from Netball Scotland.

- Lecturers and the staff within the University of Stirling, especially, my supervisors, Dr Joseph Bradley, Senior Lecturer and Dr Irene A Reid, formerly Lecturer within Health Sciences and Sport.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This thesis investigates the area of female physical activity and competitive team sport, in particular, the sport of netball as a means to support lifelong female participation. In examining the history of netball, this study provides a unique contribution to the history of sport in Britain.

In order to understand the themes generated in this thesis, several concepts are examined, in particular, those relating to women's sports participation. These include barriers and reasons for non-participation as well as wider societal influences on female sports activities. Much of the research for this thesis has been conducted using a pragmatic paradigm employing both survey questionnaires and interviews to gather data which, together, provided information for discussion in relation to the broad framework of the thesis. These are:

- Feminism and education;
- Female sports participation in Western society;
- The historical development of netball;
- The contemporary place and context of netball in the lives of women in Scotland.

1.1 Research Topic

At an anecdotal level, it might appear that netball is an activity that is not particularly demanding or challenging for the women who play this sport. However, it is a fast-paced, tactical game and closer examination reveals that many inter-related factors influence lifelong participation in netball. Many factors, such as family and school support, teamwork and competitive enjoyment, appear to influence continued participation in sports for females (Donnelly & Young 1999, Crocker, Eklund & Kowalski 2000, Mulvihill, Rivers & Aggleton 2000). From the outset, I acknowledge that my personal biography was likely to influence not only the research processes that I undertook but also how I analysed and interpreted

the findings of this study. The issue of the personal biography of the researcher is addressed by Denscombe (2010). He explains that acknowledging what a researcher brings to a study has the potential to enable them to 'explore the ways in which ... she feels personal experiences and values might influence matters' (p. 301). Some of the people who have participated in this study have similar backgrounds and life histories to me, as author, while those of others are very different. This has required an awareness of personal perspectives when discussing or analysing issues. These different perspectives enhance our understanding of the ways in which women in Scotland weave sport and physical activity into their lives. For instance, some women in this study are wives, mothers, or career-minded, which can shape and influence their perspectives on issues such as childcare and match times. Socio-economic factors may offer some insights into the barriers to, and sacrifices for, netball participation by the women in this study. In my own biography, for example, I do not hold to the common or dominant expectations of 'traditional' female roles in either my private or professional life. Therefore, I have been required to be aware of potential bias and to recognise this when examining the responses of those who have chosen roles that may be perceived as more traditional. As a researcher, I acknowledge my personal thoughts and feelings on an issue and am able to see the wider perspective in order to fully appreciate what information has been shared with me for the purposes of the study. Nonetheless, as Bryman (2008) indicates, the personal experience of the researcher can also bring advantages and insights. Indeed, I must be cognisant that, as a netball player myself, I am likely to bring my own social perceptions and interpretations to the mixed methods of research used in this study. For example, in conducting this research, I need to be aware of, and to identify, the complex range of factors which affect continued female participation in sporting activities, such as educational and wider societal issues that may influence sporting choices among women and girls.

The origins of this study topic are rooted in my experiences as a netball player, coach and Physical Education (P.E.) teacher. Using my background as a P.E. teacher and other research I previously conducted into barriers into participation in P.E. (Steel 2003), I was aware it is argued that females generally prefer individual rather than team-based activities (Bradley, McMurray, Harrell and

Deng 2000, Greenwood and Stillwell 2001, Hill and Cleven 2005, Křen et al. 2012). However, I was interested in examining this further, as I did not feel that the labelling of individual or team activities was helpful in understanding reasons for female sports participation. Several scholars have discussed the issues surrounding female sports participation into adulthood (Deem 1986, Talbot 1990, Hargreaves 1994, Deem & Gilroy 1998). More precisely, Hall (2002 p. 11) argues that 'it is the minority of women who continue to play games after leaving school'. Observations in my professional role in schools as a P.E. teacher would support these authors' research, as girls appear to enjoy dance, gymnastics and trampolining, more than team games such as hockey, volleyball or handball. However, as a recreational netball player,[1] my experience indicates that there are also many women who do enjoy team games, such as netball, which further piqued my desire to explore this dichotomy between literature and real-life. This personal view is reinforced by recent academic research and participation statistics. For instance, evidence from the Union of European Football Associations (UEFA 2016) indicates that football is one of the fastest-growing team sports among women in Europe. It is reported that the number of women playing has continued to increase rapidly and there were over 1.2 million registered female players in 2015/16 (ibid.). In Scotland, there has also been a rise in the number of females playing football. Indeed, since 2009, the number of registered female footballers in Scotland has increased by 115 percent; from 2,300 to 4,955 in 2014/15 (ibid.). Therefore, the reduction of female physical activity to a choice between individual or team sports seems to be an over-simplification and worthy of further investigation.

Most research conducted into female participation appears to correspond with the passion, enthusiasm and commitment I have personally witnessed from netball players of all ages and abilities. Although these questions could be asked about any group who participates in sports, my experience and witnessing has

[1] A recreational netball player is defined in this study as someone who attends training on a semi- regular basis but does not play in league matches and is not a registered player with Netball Scotland.

led me to ask the following questions in this thesis, focusing in particular on women's physical activity and netball participation;

- In what ways does netball support lifelong female physical activity/participation in Scotland?
- What influences/factors have supported women who have continued to play netball through their life course?

Although this study examines female participation in netball, it has wider implications for general sports participation and for overcoming perceived barriers to female involvement with sport. Therefore, this thesis is set within a body of research in which Macbeth (2004) and George (2009) have examined female participation in football and golf in Scotland. The topic for this thesis, *'The historical and contemporary role of physical activity and sport for women: a study of netball in Scotland',* takes account of how personal interests and professional expertise intersect with wider bodies of academic scholarship that examine the meanings of sport in the lives of women in Scotland. This is a hugely complex process, as indicated by Oliver (2008), and it is important to understand these inter-connections and relationships.

Initially, the academic discipline of sports history tended to focus on male sports participation, and it was not until the 1970s that women's sports history emerged as an area of academic study. However, although the body of work examining women's sport has developed, limited attention has been paid to female-only activities. This has been particularly apparent in Scotland, where scholars such as Jarvie (1991a, 1991b) and Bradley (2004) have looked at sport through a critical socio-historical lens which focuses on male practices. Within the scope of existing research that examines the place of sports in the lives of Scottish women from socio-historical perspectives, the works of Jane George on golf (2003) and Jessica Macbeth on football (2004) stand out. These two studies examine an individual and team sport which provide additional context and perspectives for this thesis examining female netball participation.

There is a small body of literature that outlines the development of netball from its origins as a derivation of basketball for women. This outlines its initial

development in the USA in 1893, its export to the UK, and its subsequent dissemination to other nations, such as Australia, many of which were once part of the British Empire (Treagus 2005, Taylor 2001, Nauright & Broomhall 1994). In Scotland, as in many other nations, netball is recognised as a popular activity for females, and is one of few predominantly women's sports. However, relatively little attention has been paid to the social and cultural significance of this activity in the lives of Scottish women. This thesis reflects upon sports participation in the wider population, and in the context of female sports participation, particularly netball. It examines an activity primarily for women, run by women and how this has flourished since 1893 (Moseley, Cashman, O'Hara & Weatherman 1997).

1.2 Research Method

The research study was conducted with netball players at training sessions, events and venues across Scotland. All of those invited to take part were over the age of sixteen, and the age range of the players included those still involved who were in their seventies and eighties, and who had, for example, previously been players, coaches or umpires. The respondents were invited to complete survey questionnaires about their background and their sports biography as well a s their experiences, influences and perspectives on netball participation. Following on from this, thirty-two people from the sample population were then asked to participate in a semi-structured interview, which further explored these issues and enabled participants to share their own netball 'story'. This ensured a wide range and depth of information to be gathered that could not have been obtained from other literature sources. This approach enabled me to explore the ideas and concepts highlighted by the interviewees (Fink & Kosecoff 1998, Gratton & Jones 2004).

Each set of questionnaires and interviews was conducted in sports centres or schools during national, regional and local netball events or training sessions. In carrying out research in this environment, I acknowledge that the women may have felt more comfortable in this setting. Therefore, they were, possibly, more willing to talk to me, but, furthermore, this may have also influenced the responses, as the women were already in a motivated state, demonstrated by their attendance at the event or training session. Nevertheless, conducting

research in this manner enabled me to meet a broad range of women across Scotland who gathered to participate in, or watch, these events. This also allowed me to obtain the views, thoughts and opinions of women from other countries, such as New Zealand, South Africa, and England, as well as Scotland, for this study. In doing so, this gave a broader context for comparing the life histories of netball players in their home country, in contrast to their experiences in Scotland and with respect to women who grew up there. For example, many women who play netball in Scotland were introduced to the game through primary school. However, this did not appear to be the main factor in the backgrounds of women from other countries.

1.3 Research Aims and Objectives

The key aims of this research study are threefold. The first is to track the key stages of the historical development of netball from its inception in the USA in 1893 to its place as a popular contemporary international sport. This overview of netball highlights the arrival of the game in England (1895) and Scotland (1905) and its subsequent dissemination through former colonies of the British Empire; Australia and New Zealand. Secondly, this thesis provides the first substantive profile regarding female netball players in Scotland, including number of players, and their demographic data, such as age, ethnicity and education. As this data have not been previously available, the collation of information regarding female netballers contributes towards knowledge of women's sport in Scotland. Finally, this thesis provides a unique exploration of the experiences of women playing netball in Scotland across different generations. It examines the pathways, factors and institutional structures, such as education, that have supported women's involvement in physical activity and in netball.

The principal objectives of the literature review in the first three chapters are:

- to explore British[2] and Western societies' attitudes and female physical activity and sports participation;
- to examine literature that allows for an exploration of the origins and development of netball since 1893;
- to synthesise research that has examined enabling factors and barriers to sports participation – in particular, female sports participation.

1.4 Structure of Thesis

These objectives are investigated in the following eight chapters of this thesis. Chapter 2 explores a wide range of issues which continue to influence female physical activity and sports participation. Specifically, feminism and women's movements in conjunction with education and sports participation are investigated to provide a socio-historical context for this research. In Chapter 3, issues such as the place of women in British and Western society, sports history and women's sports history are considered. The next chapter deals with the history and development of netball, its origins in the USA, England, Scotland and internationally, as well as recent developments such as Fast5 and the Netball Superleague. Chapter 5 sets out the methods and methodology used in the research process, focusing on philosophical views along with a discussion of the research process. In Chapters 6 and 7, the research findings from the qualitative and quantitative data are set out and, from these, three themes were generated. The following chapter examines the key themes from the data in relation to the previous chapters to provide an understanding of female netballers in Scotland. In Chapter 9, the strengths and weaknesses of this study are presented and possible future research in this topic area is discussed.

[2] In this context, 'British' refers to the population of the United Kingdom (Scotland, England, Northern Ireland and Wales).

CHAPTER 2: FEMINISM, EDUCATION AND SPORTS PARTICIPATION

In considering the historical and contemporary role of netball in the lives of women in Scotland, it is important to understand a variety of different factors which influence women's sporting lives and engagement with physical activity. This chapter considers the inter-connectivity of the following with sports participation; feminism, and formal education in the UK. This provides a synopsis of the issues which continue to affect female sporting lives in British and Western societies and establishes the contextual basis for further exploration in this thesis. Turning now to the development of feminism, the next section explores the three waves of feminism in Western society.

2.1 Feminism and Women's Movements

Over the last 120 years, women's movements have focused on women's right to vote as well as challenging socio-cultural stereotypes and expectations. The theoretical disciplines of feminism can be divided into several fields, for instance: liberal feminism, which accepts existing society and looks to secure equality for women with men; radical feminism, which examines how women are socialised via gender inequalities and the family within patriarchal societies; and socialist feminism, which studies class-based society and the inequality this generates (Henderson et al. 1996, Alvesson & DeBilling 1997, Swingewood 2000). The study of women in sport has developed from an initial focus on gender and sport and has progressed into an area of sociology through which Deem (1986, 1988), Scraton (1987, 1997) Talbot (1988, 1990), Hargreaves (1993, 2000), and Flintoff (1993), among others, have produced insights and frameworks from feminist perspectives to analyse sports participation. These points are explored within the context of women in Western society and sports participation presented in Chapter 3 and in the development of netball discussed in Chapter 4. Examining these themes enables the underlying issues regarding female sports participation to be explored within the contemporary context of netball in Scotland. Firstly, we should note that since the late 18th century there have been three distinct periods or 'waves' of feminism.

2.1.1 First wave of feminism

In Britain, the Women's Social and Political Union (WSPU) was established in 1903, with Emmeline and Christabel Pankhurst as leaders, followed by the breakaway movement of the Women's Freedom League (WFL) in 1907 (Twells 2007). In 1905, the suffrage movement split into two factions over methods to be used in obtaining the vote for women. The National Union of Women's Suffrage Societies (NUWSS) was organised by Millicent Fawcett and was dedicated to gaining the vote for women through legal, peaceful, political means. In contrast, the Women's Social and Political Union (WSPU) had a social feminist perspective and had the sole aim of gaining the parliamentary vote for women by using all legal and illegal means deemed necessary, such as demonstrations, protests and direct action (Branson 1975, Harrison 1990, Harris 1993, Johnston 1994, Clarke 2004). Initially, the WSPU was organised by Emmeline and Christabel Pankhurst and Emmeline and Frederick Pethick-Lawrence. In 1912 the Pethick-Lawrences departed due to differences as to how the organisation should be managed. Twells (2007 p. 249) explains that those who campaigned were involved in various 'militant' activities:

Street lamps were broken, Votes for Women was painted on the seats at Hampstead Heath, keyholes were stopped up with lead pellets, house numbers were painted out, chairs flung in the Serpentine, cushions of railway carriages were slashed ... a bowling green [was] cut in Glasgow ... old ladies applied for gun licenses to terrify the authorities.

Although the campaign for women's suffrage is predominantly thought of as a movement to obtain votes for women, many of those involved had already been campaigning for 'improvements' in women's lives, such as greater access to birth control, improved sexual health provision, ending child prostitution, and anti-war campaigning (Kingsley Kent 1990, Cowman 2000, Stanley Holton 2003). Many of the women involved in these movements were middle-class 'leisured' women who, as the wives, daughters and sisters of men working in professions, trade and industry, were not expected to be in employment, unlike the working-class women of the time (Harrison 1990). In Britain, from 1905, the Liberal party had been in government under Prime Minister Henry Campbell-Bannerman (1905-

1908) and then Prime Minister Herbert Asquith (1908–1915) (Purvis & Stanley Holton 2000). Many Liberal politicians were unsympathetic to the issue of women's suffrage, which therefore ensured that Liberal cabinet ministers became legitimate targets for the 'Votes for Women' campaigners (Hay 1983, Lawrence 2006).

In Britain, the period of the First World War (1914–1918) is generally credited with changing some of the values and beliefs that characterised Victorian and Edwardian society. The Victorian era can be considered a time of rapid industrialisation, rising population in Britain, colonial expansion and the establishment of the British Empire. In addition, there was progress in areas such as science, technology, engineering, health and medicine, railways and natural history. In contrast, the Edwardian period (1901–1910), referred to as the 'Golden Age' of Britain, appears more subdued in comparison (O'Day 1979, Lawrence 2006). Although cars were emerging and the Wright brothers pioneered aviation, there was no swift progress across a range of innovations as there had been in the preceding years. However, there was a growing political awareness amongst the working classes, which was reflected in the establishment of the Labour Party as well as an increase in trade union organisations. In addition, middle-class women were also becoming more prominent in society through missionary work, paid employment in offices, as well as leading political and social campaigns aiming to acquire women's suffrage and access to contraception.

The shifts in awareness that occurred for women can be associated with the first wave of feminism that prevailed from the late Victorian[3] period until the 1920s (Alvesson & De Billing 1997). In particular, the First World War brought about radical changes for women in terms of their social status and professional opportunities, giving them the chance to undertake a wide variety of jobs left vacant by men in the services (Clarke 2004). For example, Childs (1995) and Clarke (2004) note that, throughout the war, women played a significant role in

[3] The Victorian era in Britain is considered to be the reign of Queen Victoria from 1837 when she came to the throne until 1901 when she died.

munitions factories while others undertook less dangerous occupations such as driving trams and farm work. Women in such employment changed their attire from full-length, heavy dresses with bustles to clothing made from lighter-weight fabrics. During the First World War, women's clothing, and hair styles, became more utilitarian and suitable for purpose for those involved in more physical and potentially hazardous occupations to reduce the risk of injuries (Branson 1975). Indeed, Chapter 3 will explore how during the war many employers offered sporting opportunities to both men and women through 'work clubs', such as soccer, cricket and other team sports, to enhance a sense of corporate spirit and unity (Vamplew 1988, Burnett 1995, Tranter 1998). Indeed, it could be argued that such opportunities enabled women to envisage different roles for themselves, both at home and in the workplace, and therefore also increased their expectations.

After the First World War it was only women over 30 years of age who were legally recognised as house owners, as well as men over the age of 21, who were eventually given the right to vote in the 1918 Representation of the People Act. This legislation brought about some of the changes that women's movements had been campaigning for and, once the Act was passed, not only were there over 8 million women eligible to vote, they could also stand for election to Parliament. It would be almost another decade, however, before women over 21 finally received the same voting rights as men when the Representation of the People (Equal Franchise) Act 1928 was passed and universal suffrage was conceded by Conservative Prime Minister Stanley Baldwin (Branson 1975, Thorpe 1992, Clarke 2004).

During the interwar years, many women returned to their previous occupations and lifestyles. This was despite political and legislative changes that had been introduced, such as the Sex Disqualification (Removal) Act (1919), which enabled women to become jurors and to enter the legal profession, the Matrimonial Causes Act (1925), which allowed divorce on the grounds of adultery without the wife having to prove her husband's infidelity, and the Widows', Orphans' and Old Age Contributory Pension Act (1925), into which both the employer and employee could pay to provide a state pension. Throughout the 1920s and 1930s, forty-five percent of young women aged between 14 years and 24 years of age were

employed. However, many resigned their posts when they married around the age of 25, as numerous employers, such as the civil service, operated a marriage bar. The social custom of the marriage bar prevented many women from continuing their employment after marriage. Although this practice was relaxed during war times, when economic needs were greater, it continued in Britain until the 1960s. Indeed, as Bowden and Offer (1994) and Thorpe (1992) suggest, 1930s Britain saw a 'growing cult of domesticity' which regarded women's role as one of creating a home, supporting their husbands and family (Thorpe 1992 p. 95). This may have stalled some of the societal changes that had followed the first wave of feminism as the idea of 'a woman's place' staying at home was strongly reinforced through the mass media of the day (ibid.). Nevertheless, by the 1930s, people had more leisure time and women in particular were targeted by adverts for new domestic products, such as electric irons, cookers and vacuum cleaners to 'save time'. Ironically, the marketing of these products did not give women more time for other pursuits; rather, it only reinforced the ideological position of many men and women that housework could be done more efficiently by women (Roberts 1988, Thorpe 1992).

During the Second World War (1939–45), women in Britain once again took over roles in society previously held by men. Over 1.5 million women were employed in 'essential industries' such as chemicals and engineering (Summerfield 1998 p. 29, Smith 1986). However, while women 'did their bit' for the duration of the war, evidence suggests that most seemed keen to return to their previous roles once the war ended, rather than embracing a new wave of feminism (Lawrence 1994, Childs 1995). However, this may have been due to apathy following a second world war within a generation and a desire to have a degree of stability and security before addressing any further societal change for women. By 1945, just as the war was ending, 2.68 million women in the UK were working and, as Hamnett, McDowell and Sarre (1989)[4] note, the number of women in paid

[4] By 2015, the number of women in paid employment (both full and part time) stood at 14.55 million (Office for National Statistics 2015a).

employment rose ‘steadily from just under 7.6 million in 1951’ to ‘9.4 million (in 1986), accounting for 45% of all waged workers’ (Hamnett et al. 1989 p. 163).

2.1.2 Second wave of feminism

Nevertheless, from the end of the Second World War in 1945 to the late 1960s, the women’s movement was less evident (Bock & Thane 1994, Swingewood 2000). It was not until the end of the 1960s and early 1970s that women’s issues became a visible topic within Western society (Lewis 1984, Purvis 2008). Known as the second wave of feminism, it focused on the perceptions and constructions of women’s liberation and personal freedom and was based on the view that equality for women could not be achieved without challenging numerous relevant traditional social stereotypes (Lewis 1984,1992, Byrne 1997, Clarke 2004, Harris-Martin 2006). However, this was in the context of wider social movements during these decades that challenged established convention in relation to civil rights, equality and war (Swingewood 2000).

Lewis (1984) suggests that what was more important during the 1960s were ideas about women’s personal ‘freedom’ and ‘liberation’ to make choices regarding their own lives. This period saw a raft of new legislation which reflected a wider liberalisation of British society when laws regarding the death penalty, homosexuality and abortion were altered by Acts of Parliament. As previously noted, this sexual revolution and social changes coincided with more women formally gaining employment and an increase in the divorce rate as well as a rapid increase in the rates of ‘illegitimacy’, all of which continued in the decades that followed (Lewis 1992, Childs 1995). As Bock and Thane (1994 p. 408) suggest, ‘the feminist movement may have played a role in increasing both mother’s aspirations for their daughters and the daughter’s own aspirations’. Harrison (1990 p. 179) also points out that:

> Radical social change is ultimately dependent on the redrawing of the boundaries ... this takes time ... new ways of thinking about women had to be familiarized before women’s position in society could be altered fundamentally.

Therefore, it is unsurprising that the social changes being campaigned for during the 1960s did not occur overnight but created the foundation for shifts in attitudes

and expectations that would come in the years that followed. By the 1970s, women accounted for over thirty-five percent of the workforce, a figure that would continue to rise towards the end of the century (Clarke 2004, Carnevali & Strange 2007).[5] Interestingly, the types of work undertaken by women appears to show bias towards gender-stereotyped occupations, such as healthcare, clerical services and teaching, with only 34.8 percent of women in professional/managerial roles (Office for National Statistics 2013). This is important, as these figures demonstrate that women gained employment in occupations that could be regarded as reflecting traditional views of women being deemed to be caring and nurturing. However, as Moore (1998) indicates, the following decades have seen a gradual revolution in relation to women's occupations and employment. Many years after legislation such as the Equal Pay Act (1970, 1983) and the Sex Discrimination Act (1975), women are still 'less likely to be in full-time employment and are more likely to have lower-paid, less secure positions' compared to men, which suggests that there is still a long way to go in obtaining gender equality in the workplace (Brooke 2007 p. 51).

2.1.3 Third wave of feminism

It has been suggested that, prior to the 1970s, sociology had been 'gender-blind' and that women were 'largely invisible, other than as wives and mothers' (Pilcher 1999 p. 1). This is a perception supported by others who have suggested that women have been encouraged to believe that the past struggles of women's liberation had brought them to a point where they can balance work, marriage and family (Hamnett, McDowell & Sarre 1989, Smith & Porter 2000). Indeed, although a much greater number of women work today than ever before in British society it could be argued that very little has changed as women are still regarded as the main carers within a family home (Hamnett, McDowell & Sarre 1989, Lewis 1992). In 2017, the Office for National Statistics showed that men still tended to be employed in professional occupations with higher levels of pay, although the number of women in managerial roles in the UK has steadily increased since the 1970s. In addition, they also indicate that, since the early 1980s, the number of

[5] By 2015, women accounted for 46.83% of the workforce (Office of National Statistics 2015a).

women in part-time work has been around 42–45 percent and they tend to undertake more caring roles, look after others and run a home, whereas men tend to hold full-time positions at work (Office for National Statistics 2017). Although this number may be significant, it is important to remember that choice is limited, both culturally and socially, for both men and women, as gender roles are socially constructed (Deem & Gilroy 1998, De Souza & Junior 2010).

In exploring the three waves of feminism, the literature provides the background to conscious and unconscious bias towards female physical activity. These themes are examined further in Chapter 3, where the topic of women in sport history is discussed. For example, unconscious bias can be seen in the perception that females are weaker and gentler than males and therefore are better suited to graceful, elegant, aesthetic activities, whereas males are regarded as being better at strength-based, team sports, because they are viewed as being emotionally and physically tougher. Therefore, in relation to the research questions in this study, feminism may be an additional influence for those women who have had opportunities to play netball. The next section examines the impact of these views in the prevailing attitudes towards female physical activity and participation in sport.

2.2 Physical Activity and Participation Issues

This section develops the ideas referred to earlier with regard to the socio-cultural perceptions about physical activity and the reasons for sports participation. These issues are relevant to this research, epecially with respect to the pathways through which women become involved in netball as well as their experiences of netball in Scotland over the last fifty years. The majority of prior research into participation and physical activity covers a number of factors which affect opportunities for, and motivation towards, sports participation from childhood into later adult life for all. Indeed, many of the factors which relate to team sports participation, for example travel, child care and cost, may or may not be significant in a female-only team sport such as netball.

Addressing Scotland's health problems, such as the high levels of heart disease and obesity, requires that concerned bodies must encourage lifelong participation

in physical activity; supporting participation from the youngest citizens through each stage of life (James, Rigby & Leach 2004, Scottish Government 2010, Scottish Government 2012, Scottish Government 2015 British Heart Foundation 2015, Scottish Government 2016a, Allison, Bird and McLean 2017, Scottish Government 2018a, Scottish Government 2018b, ScotPHO 2018, NHS 2019a, NHS 2019b). Evidence suggests that many young people in the United Kingdom are relatively inactive and are leading increasingly sedentary lifestyles (Almond 1997, Mulvihill, Rivers & Aggleton 2000, Weiss 2000, WHO 2018, NHS Digital 2019). This is confirmed by Hardman, Stensel and Morris (2009), who indicate that 'high levels of sedentary behaviours' (p. 6) may be linked to changes in lifestyles, as more children in the UK are now driven the short distance to school instead of walking or cycling (European Observatoire of Sport and Employment 2004). The health benefits of physical activity are important to individuals, and also to society, in terms of better health, quality of life and personal development (Scheerder et al. 2006, Coalter 2013, Donnachie, Wykes, Mutrie and Hunt 2017, Strain, Milto, Dall, Standage & Mutrie 2019). Most children are physically active throughout primary school, but there is a noticeable reduction in activity levels from secondary school into adulthood (Craig, McNeill, Macdiarmid, Masson & Holmes 2010, Scottish Government 2012, British Heart Foundation 2015, Scottish Government 2017, Scottish Government 2018, NHS Digital 2019). Theories proposed about inactivity range from a focus on increased technology in our lives to lack of opportunties and barriers to participation. For many people, education about the importance of physical activity and a healthy lifestyle begins and ends at school (Kirk 2005). Holt and Mason state that 'at the end of the twentieth century only one in ten women took part in sport on a competitive basis against one in three men' (2000 p. 11). However, research which explicitly examines reasons for female non-participation in team sports is understudied.

Information is widely available regarding the health benefits of participating in active, healthier lifestyles via national policies and organisations such as Let's Make Scotland More Active (Scottish Executive 2003), Obesity Route Map Action Plan (Scottish Government 2011), A More Active Scotland (2018) the Physical Activity Health Alliance and the World Health Organization (WHO). However, the media, health officials, policy-makers and academic sources continually inform

us of the poor health of Scotland's population. In 2010, the Scottish Government stated that level of obesity were amongst the highest in OECD countries with 'over one millon adults and over 150,000 children obese' and that these figures would continue to rise. Indeed, by 2016, 'over 64% of the adult population in Scotland is overweight or obese' (Scottish Government 2016b p. 11). There are also regular campaigns, news items and government guidance in relation to concerns about the increase of health problems in children, such as diabetes and obesity, that were previously only seen in adults (Health Education Board Scotland 1999, Woods & Carter 2003, Scottish Government 2008, Reilly, Johnstone, McNeill & Hughes 2016, OECD 2017, Scottish Government 2018, NHS 2019). Wheeler (2012 p. 235) states that there has been rising concern about 'the health of Western populations, particularly regarding the extent that obesity has reached "epidemic" proportions among young people and adults' since the 1990s, and that the main cause of this problem is poor diet and inactive lifestyles (Foresight Report 2007, 2012, OECD 2017, WHO 2018, Williamson, Baker, Mutrie, Niven, Kelly 2020). Smith, Green and Roberts concur:

Growing levels of obesity, overweight and fatness among young people have come to be viewed as constituting one of the most serious and biggest public health challenges of a new century (Smith, Green & Roberts 2004 p. 457).

In the last twenty years there has been growing evidence indicating concerns regarding physical inactivity and the rise or non-communicable diseases (Allison 2003, Rees et al. 2006 and Allender, Foster, Scarborough and Rayner 2007, Belanger et al. 2015, Klepac Pogrmilovic et al. 2018, Scottish Government 2018, ScotPHO 2018, Strain, Kelly, Mutrie & Fitzsimons 2018, Williamson et al. 2020. Donnachie et al. (2017 p. 2) state that being physically inactive is 'one of the leading causes of mortality' and globally 'around 30% of adults are insufficiently active'. The issue of lifelong physical activity has been further complicated, as many people do not leave school with the lifelong physical movement skills or physical literacy required for continuing physical activity (Laker 2002, Whitehead 2010, Hardman 2011). McKay, Messner and Sabo (2000) indicate that being proficient or performing to high standards in sport for a female is further compounded, as such performances are often regarded as masculine practices (Schneider 2000, Russell 2004, Schmalz & Kerstetter 2006). As Birrell (1983 p.

49) states, ‘sport remains highly associated with the so-called “masculine” element of our culture’ and female sporting participation is still viewed by many as an encroachment into ‘a man’s territory’. It is also implied that:

The phrase ‘women athlete’ is almost an oxymoron – to the extent that one is a woman, one cannot excel at sports, to the extent that one excels at sports, one cannot be a real woman (McKay et al. 2000 p. xiii).

The Physical Activity Task Force (Scottish Executive 2003) indicated that, from pre-school age, girls are generally less active than boys. This report also suggested that this difference is further exacerbated during adolesence, when there is ‘an accelerated decline (in physical activity) in teenage years which continues into adulthood’ (Scottish Executive 2003 p. 35). Recent studies have also shown that adolecence is a key time when physical activity and participation levels decrease for young people (Coleman, Cox and Roker 2008, Allison, Bird and McLean 2017, Laird, Fawkner and Niven 2018, WHO 2018). Therefore, physical activities, such as netball, maybe one route through which the particular issues facing lifelong female participation is sports could be addressed.

This section has detailed issues relating to the wider population and physical activity and, for this thesis, has helped to set the context for female physical activity and netball in particular as it explores some of the percevied barriers to female participation.

2.3 Education, School and Curriculum in the UK

This section examines the influence of school on girls’ perceptions of physical activity and sport, as the formal school education system in the UK both negatively and positively affects female sports participation. In this light, this section considers the historical development of the education system in Britain and the legislation put in place to ensure the education of young people. This is of relevance to this thesis as the importance of schooling has been different for boys and girls in developing physical competences, and in creating opportunities and pathways into sports such as netball and football.

The end of the 1800s in Britain saw a rapid rise in the child population and more children requiring an education following the 1870 Education Act (known as the Forster Act) as schooling became compulsory for 5–13-year olds. This piece of legislation introduced the first coherent strategy for State Education and established a national provision for schooling rather than the parish-based provision that had been available (MacLean 1976, Halsey 1981, Walton & Walvin 1983). The Act established boards to run and manage schools with the focus placed on the state control of education rather than on the parish or church education systems that had previously been in place.

With its distinctive education system, separate legislation was introduced for Scotland under the Education (Scotland) Act of 1872 (University of Edinburgh 2015a). This legislation established a national system of education for children between the ages of five and thirteen though the formation of school boards across Scotland which took over the schools that the church had been running until then (Cage 1987, Morrison 1991). In Scotland, the increase in the school leaving age to 13 years by the 1872 Act further increased the numbers of children attending school on a regular basis, particularly after the existing burgh schools became state-managed and were run by locally elected school boards (University of Edinburgh 2015a). Harrison (1990 p. 114) suggests the desire for greater education appears to have been based on the Victorian desire for 'self-improvement', much of which was based around religious institutions and associated organisations, such as 'Sunday schools, bible classes, adult schools and mutual improvement societies'. In Scotland, these schools were Protestant in ethos, practice and outlook, and did not fulfil the needs for the small, but growing, primarily Irish Catholic immigrant population. The system of Church education was considered inadequate and variable across the country due to the rise in pupil numbers, so a more systematic approach to educational provision was required. The lack of a cohesive education system meant that there was at best patchy education provision across the country, which could not cope with the demands of an increasingly urban population.

From the late 1870s, along with an increased awareness of the importance of education amongst Scotland's children, there was a gradual shift in attitudes around the role of education in developing the health of the population. The

reasons for this are complex, but, most significantly, there had been a gradual transition from Physical Training (P.T.) towards Physical Education (P.E.). There was an increase in the amount of equipment provided and a greater number of male students in teacher training courses for Physical Training, which was predominantly taught by ex-Army Physical Training Instructors. The first female training college did not open in the UK until 1885, fourteen years after the 1871 Revised Code of Regulations which was part of the 1870 Education Act, and which brought Drill[6] and P.T. into schools, mainly to occupy older pupils and to try to improve attendance levels (Walton & Walvin 1983). The 1870 Education Act included regulations stating that 'attendance for drill under a competent instructor should be for not more than two hours per week, twenty weeks of the year' (McNair & Parry 1981 p. 6).[7]

Scotland and England have distinctive ideologies and practices in their legal and education systems. English law is based on a common law system, whereas Scots law is mixed, influenced by both civil and common law. Civil law in Scotland is more aligned with European law and its roots can be traced back to before the 1707 Act of Union, when Scotland and England were separate countries, though under the same monarchy since 1608 (MacQueen 1995).

The English education system developed from Church of England parish schools and has historically had a selective schooling system based on a depth of knowledge of a smaller number of subject areas (Banks 1955). In England, schooling is currently available to children from 5–17 years through Comprehensive[8] schools or Academy[9] schools and delivered via the National Curriculum. The National Curriculum was introduced in England in 1988 following the *National Curriculum Task Group Report*[10] (Department of Education

[6] Drill (as PE was known during the Victorian era), was a series of regimented, formal exercises, performed by pupils on the one spot in rows.

[7] In 2012, two hours or two periods of Physical Education became government policy in Scotland.

[8] The Comprehensive education system enables learners to attend a school without the need for selection or examination to gain access education.

[9] Academy schools are self-governing, non-profit making charitable trusts that are independent of local authority controls.

[10] This became known as The Black Report after the Chairman, Professor P.J. Black.

and Science and the Welsh Office 1987). This curriculum comprises four Key Stages defined by a child's age (5–7-year olds, 7–11-year olds, 11–14-year olds, 14–16-year olds). The core subjects being English, Mathematics and Science, with foundation subjects; Computing, Physical Education, Geography, History, Music, Art and Design, Design and Technology, Languages, and Citizenship.

In contrast, the Scottish education system has a tradition built on Calvinist Church of Scotland parish schools based on a comprehensive educational approach. This history is still reflected in a breadth of learning across a larger number of subject areas in the curriculum. In Scotland, school education is currently available to children from the age of 3 years to 18 years and is delivered via a Curriculum for Excellence. 'A Curriculum for Excellence' (CfE) was fully implemented in Scotland during the 2010/11 academic session and is seen by its supporters as enabling learners to follow a Broad General Education (BGE) between the ages of 3–15 years over eight curricular areas: Expressive Arts, Health and wellbeing, Languages, Religious and Moral Education, Sciences, Social Studies and Technologies. In addition, there is a Senior Phase of certificated course work for 15–18-year-olds (Education Scotland 2016). CfE is relevant to this thesis as it provides the background and context for P.E., including its departments and practitioners, in Scotland, which may have an impact on views and attitudes towards netball. These in turn may help to provide the context within which to address issues around the research questions relating to routes into and barriers to continued involvement in netball.

2.3.1 School playgrounds

The provision of school playgrounds is of particular interest to this study as netball was widely played outdoors across schools in Britain. In 1912, a *Report of the Departmental Committee Appointed to Inquire into Certain Questions in Connexion with the Playgrounds of Public Elementary Schools* (UK Board of Education), recommended that legislation should be passed to allow every school to have adequate playground facilities. 'Good playgrounds attached to schools have a perceptible influence on the inclination of children (boys) to go to school' (Walton & Walvin 1983 p. 229). Although it was deemed appropriate for boys to play games in order to develop their character and courage, these activities were

thought of as highly unsuitable for girls. It was considered that girls should be occupied with activities that they would be required to do in the home rather than to participate in games which would affect their delicate nature (Walton & Walvin 1983, Clarke & Critcher 1985). This reflects the belief in Victorian society that females, especially upper-class women, were not only weaker than males, but also that they should not be allowed to perform strenuous physical activities, as these were deemed unladylike and detrimental to female reproductive systems. The beliefs surrounding female sporting participation are considered in more detail in Chapter 3.

2.3.2 The 1918 Education (Scotland) Act

In Scotland, the 1918 Education (Scotland) Act had a significant impact on educational provision in the country and, it could be argued, the place of netball within Catholic school provision in particular (Paterson 2018, Knox 2000). This Act replaced nine hundred and eighty-seven school boards with thirty-eight education authorities, increased the leaving age to fifteen years and brought Catholic schools within the state system. This 1918 Education (Scotland) Act also made changes to the Higher Leaving Certificate that ensured a more unified secondary curriculum (Fitzpatrick 1986). It may be worth noting that the generally disadvantaged Catholic (denominational) schools at this time did not have the financial resources or physical space with which to build games fields among other matters: they had the more pressing issue of providing additional classrooms for the increase in pupil numbers.

In 1918, there was a shortfall of just over five thousand places in the denominational sector in Glasgow alone, and, in Lanarkshire, '14 out of 39 schools' had more pupils registered than they could accommodate (Fitzpatrick 1986 p. 57). The accommodation that this sector did have was not of the same standard as non-denominational schools due to lack of physical space and financial support (McKinney & McCluskey 2019). Yet Fitzpatrick (1986 p. xi) suggests that the 1918 Education (Scotland) Act 'provided the stimulus' to which the Catholic community had to respond to meet both the increasing number of pupils and the number of appropriately qualified staff required. For example, by 1922 Glasgow had 35,490 primary pupils and 2,059 secondary age pupils in the

denominational sector. In the Motherwell diocese, Lanarkshire at this time had 19,124 primary pupils and 658 secondary pupils (Fitzpatrick 1986).[11] It is suggested that netball and football appealed to school boards as appropriate 'physical training' activities for girls and boys as both activities require limited space and very little equipment; both of which were in short supply following the introduction of the 1918 Education (Scotland) Act (Nauright & Broomhall 1994, Birley 1995a, Cashman 1995). This is a factor which could explain why, historically, netball has been played in many denominational schools in the West of Scotland. It could be argued that association football, which had 'become the people's game ... especially in Scotland', was included in the P.E. curriculum of the denominational school system for the same reasons as netball; there was little equipment required and little space required to participate, which equated to reduced cost implications (Clarke 2004 p. 51).

In contrast, predominantly Protestant (non-denominational) schools were state-funded, had better outdoor facilities and so could offer activities such as rugby and hockey on appropriate sports playing surfaces. Interestingly though, long after the 1918 Education (Scotland) Act, denominational schools continued to play netball and football – even though they gradually gained access to better funding and, eventually, better facilities. By the time the 1944 Education Act (1945 Education (Scotland) Act) was passed, exercise was regarded as a vital part of a child's education and team games were widely seen as a vehicle for this. This section has reviewed the historical background of the formal education system in Scotland, the legacy of which may have an impact on routes into netball for women participating in this study.

2.4 Comprehensive Education and School Facilities

During the 1940s, the Beveridge Report (1942) addressed what its author, William Beveridge, called the five giant evils of squalor, ignorance, want, idleness and disease. After the Second World War, and the 1945 general election, the Labour Prime Minister, Clement Attlee, implemented many aspects of this report as the basis for the founding of a Welfare State to tackle issues around health,

[11] The Glasgow and Lanarkshire areas are of particular interest to this study as these are areas of Scotland that have strong netball connections.

poverty and housing provision in Britain. This change of outlook was reflected by legislation implementing comprehensive education rather than selective, 11-plus-based, schooling. This stance ensured that the state would provide equal provision for all children in an educational setting. The Education (Scotland) Act 1945 followed the 1944 Education Act and had the desire of providing secondary education for all children up to 15 years of age. The 1944 Education Act brought about an increase in the school leaving age to 15 years of age, stated that milk and meals were to be provided in all schools and, importantly, that secondary and further education was to be free at the point of access (Fitzpatrick 1986). However, the ability of the state system to cope with the increased rise in the school population, the need for greater teacher numbers and more classrooms, was compounded by the general rebuilding following the end of the Second World War in 1945. It was not until the 1950s that parity of access to adequate facilities in schools began to be achieved with a greater shift towards a comprehensive education system and a move away from selective admission to schooling in the United Kingdom. In some areas, during the 1950s, new schools began to be built which had facilities such as hockey and football pitches, swimming pools, tennis courts and games halls (Littlefield et al. 2003).

Interestingly, in Scotland, it would appear that, due to the lack of suitable indoor facilities, netball continued to be an outdoor sport that was played mainly on school playgrounds. The introduction and expansion of sports centres throughout the country meant that the opportunity to play and to continue playing netball was greatly increased in Scotland. Within school curricula, the breadth and depth of pupil experience is often dependent on the expertise of staff and the availability of facilities. However, since 1988, there has been ‘a welcome improvement in access to indoor facilities ... improved access to Sports Halls and fitness rooms’ (Littlefield et al. 2003 p. 16), which encourages greater participation amongst pupils. Ironically, this development has also taken place during what might be described as a growing physical activity crisis throughout the UK. However, the move to comprehensive education led to better sports facilities, which may be a positive factor in encouraging girls to play netball, although specific research into this has not been undertaken.

2.5 Introduction of Physical Training in Britain

The historical development of P.E. in the UK needs to be examined in this thesis as the legacy of this journey has an impact on attitudes towards this curricular subject. Initially, P.E. was based on drill and physical training in order to address the poor health of the nation, in particular with boys, to ensure they would be healthy and able to fight for the nation and Empire if required (McNair and Parry 1981). This idea behind the health of the nation gained more importance at the time of recruitment for the South African War (the second Boer War 1899–1902) that had revealed 'the poor physical condition of working men in the towns' (Harrison 1990 p. 132), which, in some areas, had as many as '9 out of 10 recruits being rejected because they were so unfit' (Wood & Wood 2002 p. 23, Skillen 2013). Indeed, Major-General Maurice, who was in charge of recruiting men for the army, was so concerned about the 'difficulties of finding sturdy men to defeat the Boer farmers' [12] that an Interdepartmental Committee on Physical Deterioration was founded in 1903 which established compulsory medical inspections, free school meals for the poor and mothering skills for working-class young women within state-managed schools (Carnevali & Strange 2007 p. 185, Wood & Wood 2002). The health of young people and school children came to be widely discussed around this time, something which had been given greater significance in other countries, and was alarming to British military officials who did not feel that they would have enough fit and healthy young men to defend the Empire if necessary. This historical background may help to address the research questions of this thesis as it provides the context to the legacy of P.E. in the UK which continue to have an impact on factors which affect female physical activity and netball participation.

2.6 Muscular Christianity and Sports Participation

The moral character of being a 'Christian gentleman' in Victorian Britain was expressed by the way in which men acted and conducted themselves in all areas of their lives, including sports (Norman 2014 p. 191). The term 'muscular

[12] Boer is the Dutch and Afrikaans word for farmer.

Christianity' was first used by T.C. Sanders in his review of 'Two Years Ago' (1857), written by Charles Kingsley (Hall 1994). Hall suggested that the defining characteristics of muscular Christianity were 'an association between physical strength, religious certainty, and the ability to shape and control the world around oneself'. The works written by those calling themselves 'muscular Christians' used the male body as 'a metaphor for social, national and religious bodies ... to enforce a particular construction on those bodies' (Hall 1994 pp. 7–8). This section considers the legacy that muscular Christianity has left in public consciousness as to the perceived benefit of sport and in particular team sports for men. This provides an interesting insight into the juxtaposition of prevailing attitudes concerning female sports participation.

During the Victorian period (1837–1901), the British Empire covered almost one-fifth of the earth's surface and almost a quarter of the world's population owed allegiance to the British imperial monarch. It was also a period of immense change brought about through the Industrial Revolution as more people became urban dwellers and civic identity and civil engagement became powerful themes within society. Traditionally, the dominant mode of thinking regarding Victorians has been in terms of 'strong' family values, 'strong' work ethic and 'strong' religious faith. However, these generally contained views that men and women had different roles in society and this view was reflected and perpetuated in sporting activities (Bock & Thane 1994, Nauright & Broomhall 1994).

For many upper-class Victorians, the belief in progress and development, whether through the expansion of the British Empire, the effects of industrialisation or the codification and unification of sporting events, were to be promoted and shared. Indeed, great pride was taken in the sporting prowess of the British nation during the Victorian period as a physical representation of its inherent and dominant values across the globe. Team games for boys and young men were encouraged for physical benefits and superiority, as well as 'for the future well-being of the nation' (Walton & Walvin 1983 p. 228). The idea that team games played a vital role in a boy's education between the ages of 5–13 were integral to the public-school ethos and sporting traditions became an unchallenged assumption (Walton & Walvin 1983, Brailsford 1992). Critically, as Parker (1987 p. 41) suggests, the public-school system was regarded as 'an

instrument for the training of character' and that team sports were a way to achieve this goal. The legacy of these views regarding team sports as male, it could be argued, has continued to influence attitudes towards female team sports participation.

2.7 Physical Activity, Physical Education and School

The previous sections detail Victorian views related to sport participation which left a legacy in the UK. However, the following section examines factors which affect our understanding of the impact of lifelong physical activity, especially for girls. Sleap and Wormold (2001) indicate that physical activity participation in childhood has been strongly linked to continued participation in later life. As attitudes towards physical actvity gain a foothold early in personal development, netball might be viewed as a vehicle through which to engage girls from a young age on a pathway to lifelong physical activity. In their examination of secondary school P.E. in Scotland, Littlefield et al. (2003 p. 21), suggest that 'schools are key to success in the role they can play in showing children the benefits of, and the opportunities to participate in physical activity, regular exercise and sport'. This indicates a central role for those in the school system to educate children about healthly lifestyles and physical activity. This study also indicates that:

Almost all young people in Scotland will be introduced to the world of movement, body management and sport during their P.E. lessons in primary and secondary school (Littlefield et al. 2003 p. 10).

More recently, Fisette (2013) goes further and suggests that girls, within a physical activity or P.E. context, feel the competitive nature of any relevant participation is detrimental to their enjoyment of activities in co-education settings. This is due to the fact that girls are more likely to identify feelings of embarrassment and often have to prove themselves to boys in these situations. These findings may link with those of Littlefield et al., as girls are more likely to only have their physical competences developed through the school curriuclum and may be less likely to have additional skills coaching outwith the school environment (Littlefield et al. 2003, Fisette 2013). However, studies examining enjoyment of competive activities could provide further insight into why some

females choose such activities rather than addressing female participation as one generic topic.

As young people move from childhood into adolesence there are a number of influences which affect attitudes and beliefs about physical activity and sports participation; peers, family and education. For example, Wood indicates that many people have negative attitudes towards female sports participation and feel that ‘sports are not ladylike’ and that females who do participate ‘lose their femininity and stress manliness’ (Wood 1995 p. 47). A number of studies suggest that both parental and peer support is significant in influencing physical activity participation during adolesence. For example, research has been conducted examining how variables such as gender (Ornelas, Perreira and Ayala 2007), parental modelling (Davison and Jago 2009) and percieved barriers (Verliogne, et al. 2014, Silva, Lott, Mota and Welk 2014), impact on engagement in physical activity. Others have focused on the impact of parents’ and peers’ continued support over time. Kirby, Levin and Inchley (2011), and Haidr, Ranjut, Archer and Hoelscher (2019) conducted longitudinal studies in Scotland, and Texas, USA, respectively, and work by Alderman, Benham-Deal and Jenkins (2010) explored the impact of supportive parents and friends in influencing adolescents’ attitudes towards physical activity participation. Therefore, if a young girl is in an environment where either friends, family or school are reinforcing negative messages around sporting participation that do not align with personal feelings, this can cause internal conflict, which may in turn lead to choosing not to participate further. These feelings may be compounded by the media, who, Fisette suggests, encourage females to ‘make meaning of their bodies’ and ‘objectify the body’ (Fisette 2013 p. 193).

2.7.1 The effect of physical education and sports participation

A prominent issue to emerge in many academic studies concerning females and sport is the influence that their experiences of P.E. may have on long-term participation and this makes netball of particular interest in this context. A number of studies have looked at how teachers and teaching styles can have a strong effect on pupil engagement within P.E. lessons (Macfadyen 1999, Morgan, Kingston & Sproule 2005, Silicia-Camacho & Brown 2008). Flintoff and Scraton

(2001) argue that, if P.E. teachers had a better understanding of pupils' needs during adolescence, this could help improve the quality of lessons and enable staff to produce curriculum programmes that promote physical activity. This theme has been further explored by Mitchell, Gray and Inchley (2015), Lamb, Oliver and Kirk (2018), and Bracco, Lodewyk and Morrison (2019), who studied the impact of consultation, co-construction of content and alternative approaches to increase participation of adolescent girls in physical education. This is particularly relevant to this thesis, as school is where most young women begin playing netball and so greater consideration of their requirements may prove beneficial in supporting participation in this sport.

An interesting aspect of the research relating to this issue is evident in the study by Crocker et al. (2000), who considered the effect of teacher attitudes on pupils' levels of participation. Interestingly, Menzies (1998) and Macfadyen (1999) also noted that, although teacher attitude was influential, it was not so much being active that pupils disliked, rather, it was the P.E. curriculum, structure and activities on offer. Pupils who took part said they felt that the teacher gave them confidence – while the non-participants had a more negative opinion of P.E. staff. This would suggest that there is more to be done with teaching staff to ensure that the pupil voice, where young people have regular opportunities to address issues affecting them in school, is heard and that improved discussions are needed to support the greater engagement and participation of all pupils. In the majority of P.E. departments, teachers decide what type of curriculum they will offer – usually without consulting students. Williams et al. (2000 p. 9) noted that, although the types of activities offered within a school's P.E. curriculum, particularly in England, are often restricted by staff preferences and resources, listening to pupil needs can be 'an effective way of reducing levels of alienation' and increasing participation (Clark and Millard 1998).

Carlson (1995) investigated the feelings and actions of students who felt themselves alienated from P.E. classes. One of the main findings was that these pupils felt unable to change what was being offered in P.E. classes; they had no means by which to control what was happening and they became isolated from the P.E. curriculum. This may be felt more acutely by pupils in England, where the National Curriculum is more prescriptive than that in Scotland, where a CfE

encourages more flexibility from teachers in the learning environment. Williams et al. (2000) suggest that changes in the structure of the P.E. curriculum would be a constructive way to bring about positive changes for many pupils. This would possibly be more engaging for secondary schoolgirls, especially if such changes addressed what girls perceive as 'the stereotypical image of sport as a mainly masculine activity', which may in turn lead to increased enjoyment and participation in the activities offered (Williams et al. 2000 p. 4). These issues appear to be significant to adolescent girls, and research by Enright and O'Sullivan (2010), Mitchell, Gray and Inchley (2015) Lamb, Oliver and Kirk (2018), and Bracco, Lodewyk and Morrison (2019) has provided practitioners with approaches to utilise when working with learners to co-create programmes of work and increase both engagement and participation levels.

Darling and Glendinning (1996) suggest that, in P.E., the influence of staff is of much greater importance for boys than girls when choosing subjects for further study at school as girls are more likely to be influenced by their peers or family. They also found that an overwhelming majority of girls did not like P.E. or its teachers and did not value the subject as Kirk (2012 p. 2) suggests that this may be due to 'the predominance of masculine values' in this curricular area. Talbot (1993) suggests that teachers are also more willing to put the needs and demands of boys before girls in a mixed class in order to avoid conflict. She also indicates that this may be due to many teachers sympathising with boys in co-educational settings. Fisette (2013) suggests that girls also feel they should participate in 'girly things' when in P.E., rather than activities which may be regarded by others as stereotypically male (p. 193). These feelings are further compounded for girls by teachers being more willing to 'accommodate boys' needs and demands in mixed classes', as well as comparing girls to male performance standards rather than female norms (Talbot 1990 p. 83, Flintoff and Scraton 1993, Howe 1997). However, these studies address situations for those involved rather than exploring or challenging stereotypes within female sports participation in a school setting.

Darling and Glendinning (1996) found that teachers give more time to boys and, in mixed classes, will use a male volunteer for practical demonstrations more frequently than a female one. Indeed, they state that male P.E. teachers show

less attention towards girls in co-educational classes and give boys more praise in such situations. Prior to this Measor and Sikes (1992) also suggested that boys receive more attention than girls from teachers. Interestingly, MacIntosh (1990) found that although 'the overall difference in attention given by teachers to girls (44%) and boys (56%) is not great, girls were aware of this imbalance' and this may reinforce girls' feelings that boys' activities were more valuable because of this (MacIntosh 1990 p. 78). Larsson, Fagrell and Redelius (2009) also indicate that boys receive more teacher time because staff held the view that 'boys were (considered) more capable than girls' (Larsson et al. 2009 p. 9). Two more recent studies demonstrate that these behaviours are still visible in the classroom setting (Stevens 2015, Bassi, Diaz, Blumberg and Reynoso 2018). Such findings appear to concur with Dodds' assertion that these attitudes and influences of staff occur as the prevailing culture in P.E. is that of a 'white, male, heterosexual, middle-class, high-skilled ideology of elite performance' (Dodds 1993 p. 30). Although these studies are interesting, they do not challenge these views or provide alternatives from a female perspective.

Flintoff (1993) suggests the way in which P.E. teachers are trained is also part of the problem. She states that because, until recently, male and female teacher training occurred separately, two different and distinct types of teacher have been produced with differing educational philosophies and beliefs. Barker (2017) has examined this further and explores the impact of physical education teachers' backgrounds, traditionally white and middle-class, has on developing their understanding of students in their classes which leads to disparity between cultural experiences and expectations. This is also discussed by Williams, Bedward and Woodhouse (2000), who suggest the way in which teachers have been trained in the UK has led to 'masculine and feminine subcultures' which have contributed to a 'gender specific relationship between physical activity, Physical Education or sport', which has, in turn, influenced young peoples' self-image (Williams et al. 2000 p. 5). White and Hobson (2017 p. 905) state that physical education and sport have been contexts through which 'culturally esteemed ideals of masculinity – being stoic, strong, competitive, sexist and homophobic' are perpetuated. This may be further exacerbated in Scotland, where over half of P.E. staff currently teaching in schools are female, and yet

most Principal Teachers of the subject are male (Littlefield et al. 2003). This point is of interest to this study as it may be that issues to do with staffing and the curriculum within P.E. may be perpetuating gender stereotypes in relation to female activities. As Capel (2004 p. 15) suggests, 'your past experiences of P.E. have influenced your decision [to become a P.E. teacher] and have moulded your values, attitudes and beliefs' about this subject, which may further promote these stereotypes within the education system. This suggests that both conscious and unconscious bias may play a role in the perpetuation of stereotypes such as gendered activities within P.E. This section has explored P.E. in the UK and this will inform the discussion of the findings in Chapter 8, as this information will help address the research questions of this study with regard to the significance of school as a route into netball and barriers to female participation in team sports.

2.7.2 Gender, physical education and sports participation

A key aspect in relation to participation in sports is the issue of gender. According to McKay et al. (2000 p. 4), 'there is a need to develop critical *relational* studies of gender and sport', as this would 'take into account the reciprocal relationships between men's and women's lives', and also reflect an awareness that 'constructions of masculinity are interwoven with constructions of femininity'. In this thesis, netball, as a gender-specific sport, provides an interesting context from which to examine the factors influencing female participation. In sociological analysis, and in the context of this thesis, sex refers to 'the biological aspects of an individual as determined by their anatomy … assigned at birth', whereas gender is a 'social construction relating to beliefs and attributes based on label of masculinity and femininity … may not match sex assigned at birth' (ONS 2019 p. 2). It is from dominant definitions of gender that society gives meaning to both femininity and masculinity. As Reay states, femininity is 'the process through which girls are engendered and become specific sorts of female': one who does participate in physical activity and sports, or one who does not (Reay 2001 p. 153). A number of authors have suggested that, in order for girls to be successful in P.E. or sport, including netball, they must develop a more masculine, more aggressive attitude towards physical activity (Deem 1986, Chappell 1989, Menzies 1997, Barker 2017). Hargreaves (1994) and Talbot (1990) both indicate

the implication of being strong and aggressive is to be fit for battle, something that is at odds with traditional ideas of femininity.

Scraton (1992) suggests that girls' and boys' achievements in P.E. are judged against male standards and, as a consequence, many girls drop out as they feel at odds with this representation. Girls, traditionally and stereotypically, are thought of as being gentle and less assertive than boys (Deem 1986, Chappell 1989, Scraton 1992, Menzies 1997). A generalisation of this view would be that boys' activities are rough and have an element of danger within them, whereas girls' activities are gentler in nature and focus on the aesthetics of movement rather than aggression (Birrell 1983, Henderson et al. 1996, Graydon 1997, Schneider 2000, White 2003, Schmalz & Kerstetter 2006, Wellard 2007, Barker 2017). Chappell (1989) further indicates that teenage girls appear to be more concerned with the importance of dominant images of sexual identity as young women rather than participating in sporting activities. Schmalz and Kerstetter (2006 p. 536) argue that, although in modern times there has been a 'levelling of the playing field' for female athletes, there is still a 'widely held perception of boys' sports and girls' sports' within society. It is these perceptions of female sports participation that netball, it could be argued, both supports and challenges.

It has long been suggested that continued participation in sports begins, for many people, during school years and, therefore, the issues around P.E. and gender must be examined if we are to address the key points highlighted by McKay et al. (2000). Bailey (2001 p. 71) also suggests that, if teachers get this aspect of education wrong, they 'run the risk of blocking girls' learning and 'damaging their enthusiasm for P.E.'.[13]

Generally, during primary school, girls take part as much as boys in physical activities and P.E. However, physical activity levels 'falls dramatically in early adolescent, particularly in girls' (S251 Reilly, Johnstone, McNeill and Hughes 2016). In 2017, Youth Sport Trust found that only 8% of young girls (5-18 years old) met recommended physical activity guidelines compared with 16% of boys

[13] There is growing research into the impact of physical motor skills and movement on neuroplasticity and learning. If girls do not have opportunities in school this may have an impact on their ability to have the skills to participate and enjoy physical activity.

of the same age and Scottish data indicated that 11% of children 'achieve recommended levels of MVPA' on a daily basis (2017 p. 4). In 2017, McCrorie and Ellaway found that boys in Scotland were more likely to meet physical activity guidelines than girls and that the reduction in activity levels were 'most pronounced' for girls where levels dropped from 73% (11-12 year olds) to 53% for 13-15 year olds. These studies reflect global statistics which suggest that overall adolescents, in general, do not meet recommended physical activity levels (Okely, Lubans, Morgan, Cotton, Peralta, Miller, Batterham and Janssen 2017, Allison, Bird and McLean 2017, Laird, Fawkner and Niven 2018, WHO 2018). However, Scraton (1992) proposes that, by the time pupils have reached the middle years of secondary school, most girls do not wish to take part in mixed-sex P.E. lessons. It could be argued that this decline in participation may be because many girls feel embarrassed at having to take part in P.E. during puberty due to a lack of self-confidence and self-esteem brought about by the physical changes taking place in their bodies (Scraton 1992, Henderson et al. 1996, Coleman, Cox and Roker 2008). Stidder (2000) contends that both boys and girls already have a difficult enough time dealing with puberty, and their changing appearance, in single-sex classes, not to mention in a mixed situation.

Schmalz and Kersetter (2006) indicate that society still views some sporting activities as being suitable for males and others for females. Williams (1993) goes further in proposing that many stereotypical attitudes about sport and physical activity are reinforced during primary education and that these attitudes subsequently limit the success that both boys and girls have when they move onto the secondary period of education. Schmalz and Kerstetter found that there was a general acceptance that 'boys' sports are aggressive, potentially dangerous activities' in contrast to 'girls' activities that are 'associated with aesthetic activity ... or coordinated movement' (Schmalz & Kerstetter 2006 p. 532). Casey, Hall and Goodyear (2014 p. 11) suggest that, although female-appropriate curricula have been seen as a route through which girls can be encouraged to embrace physical activity and enjoy participating in P.E., for many girls, the subject often still lacks meaning as 'students struggle to see the point of what they are doing (Enright and O'Sullivan 2010, Mitchell, Gray and Inchley 2015, Lamb, Oliver and Kirk 2018, Bracco, Lodewyk and Morrison 2019).

Previous studies, such as one conducted by Stidder (2000), indicate that boys prefer team games to all other types of activity, whereas girls enjoy individual activities, such as gymnastics, dance and swimming. These findings reflect Church and Summerfield 's study (1994), which also found that boys preferred team games such as football and rugby and girls preferred swimming, dance and aerobics. Unless P.E. teachers become more aware of the importance of friendship groups in supporting participation, as well as understanding girls' self-perceptions, then the key barriers of appearance, working groups and real choice of activity may be known about but not acted upon (Dyson 2006, Hills 2007, Coleman, Cox and Roker 2008, Whitehead and Biddle 2008, Casey et al. 2014,).

Prusak and Darst (2002) indicate that girls are more likely to enjoy social activities with a small degree of competition. Although, as indicated by Carlson (1995), while many young girls hold negative views about P.E., at the same time, they also recognise the important health implications of participation. For many girls, taking part and becoming hot and sweaty is seen as undesirable, and therefore something to avoid, particularly during the school day (De Bourdeaudhij 1998, Sleap & Wormold 2001, Oliver, Hamzeh and McCaughtry 2009). These researchers concluded that, 'the physical activity behaviour of many young women seems to be determined by a complex interplay of gender issues and environmental constraints' (Sleap & Wormold 2001 p. 26). Other studies have shown that boys and men dominate the mixed classroom situation in both a verbal and physical manner by asking questions and moving freely around a space (Riddell 2000, Bailey 2001, Larsson et al. 2009, Fisette 2013). As a result, it has been suggested that girls require space to develop confidence and self-awareness, whether in a classroom or a games hall (Talbot 1990, Scraton 1992). Stidder (2000) also suggests that girls' apprehension of mixed P.E. may be linked to a fear of derision and ridicule from boys in such settings (Fisette 2011a, Barker 2017). Menzies (1997) highlights the fact that boys make fun of girls verbally due to their perceived lack of ability or for their body shape or size. Therefore, if this is correct, as Talbot (1990) suggests, it is hardly surprising that co-educational classes are not productive for girls and that not only do girls feel intimidated by boys in these situations, but such settings also strengthen, and possibly compound, typical gender stereotypes. Indeed, many girls in co-educational

classes attempt to hide themselves under baggy clothing or simply opt out of the activity altogether (Boyd 1998, Stidder 2000, Coleman, Cox and Rocker 2008, Mitchell, Gray and Inchley 2015, Lamb, Oliver and Kirk 2018). Stidder (2000) also found that it was only boys currently taught in single-sex classes who wanted mixed classes, while pupils in co-educational classes said they would prefer single-sex classes if they had the choice. It could be argued that these feelings and preferences are factors that influence netball participation, as this is an activity in which girls find meaning and support that leads to positive self-perception which is vital in motivating behaviour in relation to physical activity (Biddle, Mutrie & Gorley 2001, Casey et al. 2014). This section has examined the many factors which support or hinder sports participation and especially female team sports participation. This is of interest to this study in exploring the views of women who play netball and provides a background to the perceived barriers to continued female participation in sports.

2.8 Physical Education and Netball in the UK

Britain has a long history of single-sex education and single-sex P.E. which has fallen in and out of favour; this issue is discussed in Chapter 4. In the 1980s there was a greater emphasis on school-sport, competition and opportunities for all during the political climate of the time. This is discussed by Kirk (1992), who indicates that the gendered nature of P.E. has been an inherent aspect of this subject with teacher training being conducted in single-sex institutions, children taught in single-sex school and being offered different curricula based on their sex. This has been a feature of P.E. departments either delivering single-sex activities such as netball for girls and rugby for boys, or unisex activities such as basketball and handball (Kirk 1992, White 2003). Therefore, the content of the P.E. curriculum is extremely significant for lifelong sporting behaviour, as research suggests that the predominance of team games is not the best way of encouraging continued sporting activity through school and into adulthood, especially for women (Scraton 1992, Fairclough, Stratton & Baldwin 2002).

As discussed, girls tend to develop their physical competences through P.E. activities, and it is also suggested that females prefer individual or partner aesthetic activities. This implies that team activities do not fulfil female needs to

support lifelong participation (Schmalz & Kersetter 2006, Fisette 2013). However, these studies do not appear to have explored the reasons for female participation in competitive team sports. In 2008, **sport**scotland reported that the most popular sports activity for 12–18-year-old boys was football (75.5%), and for girls, swimming (43.7%) (**sport**scotland 2008a). With this in mind, the next section examines the factors that influence and affect physical activity and sports participation. This is of importance to this thesis as it provides understanding of the significance of P.E. in supporting physical activity participation for girls.

2.9 Factors which Influence Physical Activity Behaviour and Sports Participation

In studying participation in sport and physical activity generally, it is important to remember:

> When examining the forces that bind individuals together, a logical starting point is the cohesive nature of the physical activity groups … groups become bound together based on the task and social components of this environment (Brawley, Carron & Widmeyer 1993 p. 213).

Telama, Yang, Vikari, Valimaki, Wanne and Raitakari (2005) suggest that social dynamics, such as gender, social class and ethnicity, may be significant when examining why women participate in netball (Department for Culture, Media & Sport 2008, **sports**cotland 2008a, 2008b, Sport England 2009). The models that currently examine behaviour in physical activity try to provide reasons for participation. However, these generally examine physical activity behaviour from an adult standpoint rather than a youth or child-centred perspective. Authors, such as Kenyon and McPherson (1973), Bandura (1977) and Donnelly and Young (1999), have attempted to provide some framework to help understand children's participation in physical activity, both in and out of school. Weiss (2000) puts forward a simple model to show the links between parents, teachers, friends and enjoyment, which may encourage or discourage positive self-perceptions amongst children and affect their participation in physical activity. Harter (2000) presents a similar model but adds the element of perceived competence and believes that children who hold positive views about their ability are more likely

to sustain their participation than those with more negative opinions about themselves.

Carlson (1995), on the other hand, focuses on the feelings of alienation and non-alienation that pupils have in P.E. and which affect a child's perception of this subject area and the meaning it has for them. Scanlon, Carpenter, Schmidt, Simons and Keeler (1993) suggest that all these factors will have an impact on an individual's commitment to sports participation. Welk (1999) has brought together these factors to provide a model of behaviour that encompasses a number of different elements. Welk has divided his model into four categories: physical activity, enabling, predisposing, and reinforcing factors. These are further sub-divided into aspects such as fitness, enjoyment, perceived competency, peer influence and personal demographics. As well as recognising the importance of enjoyment, competence and inter-personal influences, he also identifies age, gender, environmental factors and access to programmes of physical activity as important elements. This model provides a simple framework and will be used here as the main analytical tool from which to explore and further understand the relationships between the factors affecting sports participation behaviour in young people.

Diagram 1: The Youth Physical Activity Promotion Model. (Welk 1999 p. 12)

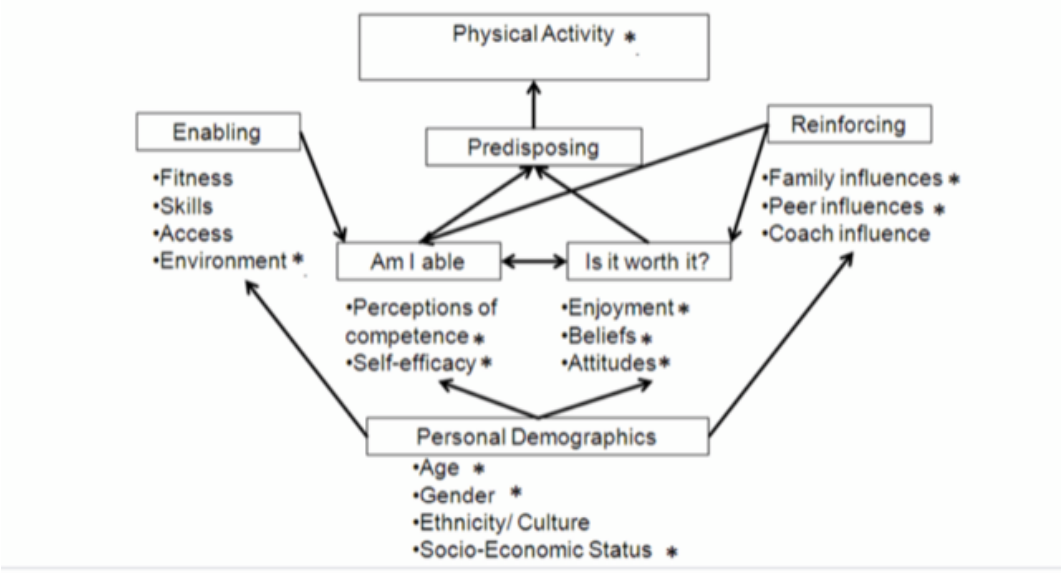


Diagram 1 visually outlines the four aspects this study will examine in relation to netball participation: enabling factors, predisposing factors, reinforcing factors,

and personal demographics. These can directly or indirectly influence behaviour that may be relevant to physical activity participation in general and netball participation in particular. It may be that, in choosing to participate in netball, women at some level feel that 'in the absence of men, women in sport are under constant surveillance so that their conformity to social expectations may be monitored ... unless women choose to resist actively' (Brackenridge 2002 p. 86). This points to a key question concerning girls' and women's engagement: does netball offer an opportunity to participate that is acceptable, because it is regarded as a female activity, or are other dynamics encouraging females to play this game?

2.9.1 Group dynamics and sports participation

The reasons why group dynamics are significant within sports participation can be examined in many ways. Carron, Hausenblas and Estabooks (2003) reflect on completing a task together and having a clear joint focus or aim or, winning a match or game appear to help people bond. Another aspect is the importance of social factors that influence participation, such as developing new friendships or strengthening current friendships via joint sporting activities (Wienberg et al. 2000, Ethrer, Sidman & Hancockill 2004, Kao & Cheng 2005). This aspect is further supported by the work conducted by Biddle et al. (2001), which indicates that the 'social support from friends, peers and family was particularly important' for people to continue with physical activities (Biddle et al. 2001 p. 37). This suggests that the social support aspects of team sports such as netball are important for women. For example, these activities provide a sense of 'belonging, bonding, and binding ... and processes that are social, behavioural, and effective in nature' (Carron et al. 2003 p. 109), and which Griffiths (1995), Deem & Gilroy (1998) and Wellard (2007) suggest women are not experiencing in other aspects of their lives.

Further to this, Biddle et al. (2001) have expanded on global self-esteem theory (how we view ourselves in different areas of our lives) in relation to perceived physical competence, self-esteem and self-worth in the sports setting. They state that when people, especially women, have positive self-perceptions and self-esteem, they are more likely to be involved in physical activity. Fox (2000a)

proposes that it is the physical aspects of self-esteem that are more dominant in Western cultures because this is regarded as the 'public interface of the self with the social world' and through this aspect we 'project characteristics such as status, sexuality, youthfulness, and prowess' to those around us (Fox 2000a p. 94).

2.9.2 Self-perception, physical competence and sports participation

Education is the main institution through which young people become familiar with sport and physical activity and this can influence participation into adulthood (Littlefield et al. 2003, Fisette 2013). Therefore, P.E. teachers need to be aware of aspects over which they have limited influence, such as personal demographic factors of age, gender, ethnicity, culture and socio-economic status. The significant elements that P.E. teachers frequently discuss as being important in tackling barriers to participation, particularly for female students, are gender and the effects of puberty on the levels of participation. During adolescence there are a number of physical and emotional changes that occur. Brierly (1993) and Boyd and Bee (2010) outline these physical changes as increase in height, weight, fat stores, and the size of the heart and lungs, as well as general changes in body shape. These changes can make children feel clumsier and less able than before puberty, and children may become more aware of their changing body shape and may be teased by their friends because of these (Talbot 1990). It is important therefore that P.E. teachers recognise both the physiological and psychological implications of puberty on pupils' self-image and desire to participate in physical activity.

If children do not regard themselves as having the necessary skills to participate in P.E., this may be a significant reason as to their non-participation. Seefeldt, Haubenstricker and Reuschlein (1979) note the significance of motor skill competence, because:

> Children who possess inadequate motor skills are often relegated to a life of exclusion from organised and free play experiences of their peers, and subsequently, to a lifetime of inactivity because of their frustrations in early movement behaviour (Seefeldt et al. 1979, p. 21).

Many authors suggest that a child's sense of enjoyment is a motivating factor in the continuation of an activity or sport. Indeed, Mulvihill et al. (2000) indicate that children were more likely to say they enjoyed sports where they felt they had some level of ability or competence and that continued participation encouraged children to develop their skills and have fun. Welk (1999) further outlines the fact that, while biological determinants are important, it is an individual's perceived competence that is most likely to directly influence activity behaviour and levels of enjoyment. In addition, Weiss (2000) notes that 'enjoyment has consistently emerged as the strongest predictor of children's and adolescents resolve to continue sport and physical activity involvement' (p. 4).

Weiss (2000) describes perceived competence as 'an individual's judgements about their ability in a particular area such as physical activity' (Weiss 2000 p. 2) and Crocker et al. (2000) also identified that those with increased positive self-perceptions were more physically active than those with a more negative self-image. Significantly, Creager (1999) found that children with lower levels of perceived competence were more likely to drop out of activity than those who felt they were quite able. Biddle, Sallis and Cavill (1998) indicate that boys are usually more active than girls from a young age and that girls tend to have lower levels of perceived competence and enjoyment levels in physical activity than boys (Armstrong 1990, Mulvihill et al. 2000). This has been supported by others, such as Fox (2000b), who suggest that those who participate in physical activity will improve their levels of ability and therefore improve their perceived competence, and with it, the likelihood that they will continue to participate. Talbot (1990) maintains that P.E. staff must be aware of the fact that, for the majority of girls in the United Kingdom, P.E. lessons are where they learn physical skills and so they need to take part in a range of different activities. This is not true of boys, who have more access to coaching sessions outwith the school environment. Therefore, most girls have a lower level of skill and a lower level of perceived competence than boys (Talbot 1990, Henderson et al. 1996, Graydon 1997, Welk 1999, Weiss 2000, Bailey 2001).

Welk states that 'children's perceptions may be more important than actual ability' (1999 p. 15), and that, for adolescents, perceived competence is strongly affected by the influences of those closest to them, such as family and friends. Stroot

suggests that 'if children are confident in their abilities, they are more likely to pursue future involvement in sport' (Stroot 2002 p. 143). This was also found by Crocker et al. (2000), who conducted research into the relationship between perception of physical ability and physical activity levels in Canadian 10–14-year olds. This study confirms previous findings that not only were boys more physically active than girls but that they also had higher perceptions of their sporting competence than girls. Indeed, Hardman et al. (2009) found in England that only 41 percent of 15-year-old girls met recommended guidelines for physical activity, a decade later data indicated that 20% of boys and 14% of girls were likely to be active on a daily basis (NHS Digital 2020). McCrorie and Ellaway (2017) found that 60% of children 10-11 years old in Scotland achieved 'average' daily physical activity with 11% achieving recommended levels of MVPA[14] every day. In 2018, A More Active Scotland (2018) indicated that 76% of children were meeting the guidance on average daily physical activity. Most recently data from WHO (2018) shows that 81% of 11-17 year olds do not meet global recommendations for physical activity for health and in Scotland 28% of children are estimated to be 'at risk' of being overweight (NHS Health Scotland 2019, Scottish Government 2020). The data from these studies provides further context for the research questions in this thesis as these reveal clear differences between male and female participation from adolescence. This information also supports section 2.7, and, specifically 2.7.2, where barriers to participation, the significance of gender, societal expectations, and stereotypes are discussed to reveal how these factors may negatively affect the long-term attitudes of female students.

This section has explored factors which enable physical activity and sports for all and specifically when understanding female participation in netball.

2.10 Factors which Reinforce Sports Participation Behaviours

The influence of parents, friends and teachers are all elements that Welk (1999) describes as reinforcing factors in relation to sports participation behaviours. How

[14] MVPA = Moderate to Vigorous Physical Activity. WHO guidelines state that adults aged 18-64 should do at least 150 minutes of moderate-intensity (or 75 mins of vigorous-intensity) aerobic physical activity per week. www.who.int

positive or negative these influences are will have a strong effect on a young person's attitude and level of participation in P.E. and physical activity. Daley (2002) found a significant link between those who took part in physical activity as a child and their later adult attitude and behaviour. In their 1999 study, Babkes and Weiss examined the influence of parental attitudes on children's feelings towards physical activity. Babkes and Weiss (1999) discovered that children whose parents were positive in their attitude towards physical activity were also more motivated and had higher levels of perceived competence. Gervais also found that the values held by children about sport were strongly influenced by parental attitudes, suggesting that:

> Parents act as a powerful model which will be reflected in the importance that is placed on the involvement in sport. This will obviously have an influence on how children perceive their own participation in sport (Gervais 1991 p. 152).

This has been supported by researchers in Canada and Europe, who have found that children who have supportive, encouraging parents are far more likely to persist with a sporting lifestyle than children who have less support (Armstrong 1990, Talbot 1990, Lenskyj 1991, Measor & Sikes 1992, Wold & Hendry 1998, Mulvihill et al. 2000). Interestingly, many authors have also found that parental attitudes towards sports participation and physical activity are significantly more important for girls as they enable girls participation by, for example, supporting attendance at clubs. This is because positive attitudes towards activity are far more influential for girls than boys (Armstrong 1990, Scraton 1992, Creager 1999, Raudsepp & Viira 2000, Welshman & Armstrong 2000).

In addition to the influence of parents, Conger (1991) highlights the significant role of peers, whose influence begins before adolescence but becomes increasingly important as ties with parents are relaxed. Many also regard friends' attitudes and opinions as important factors in continuing to reinforce stereotypical attitudes on young people when they are trying to find their own identity (Deem 1986, Furnham & Stacey 1991, Coleman 1992, Measor & Sikes 1992, Marcus & Forsyth 2003). These stereotypes are reinforced by the fact that friendships are more likely to occur between children of the same age, sex and family

background (Conger 1991, Mulvihill et al. 2000). Measor and Sikes (1992) suggest that, during adolescence, as the parental links are weakened, friends 'occupy the space that is left and fulfil a vitally important emotional and social role ... these friendships are intense because they carry a heavy developmental load' (p. 92). Peer groups influence individuals by making them conform to the rules, values and customs of the group. During adolescence, children are much more likely to conform to the values held by their peer culture rather than following any individual desires (Conger 1991, Creager 1999, Weiss 2000).

Smith (1999) found a strong association between friendships and acceptance as important elements in the motivation of young people to continue participation in physical activities. For boys, participation in sports is a means by which they are able to reinforce their masculinity amongst their peers. For example, boys may tolerate a good player in their team even if they do not like him. However, the opposite is true for girls, as they will be accepted or rejected by their peers regardless of their physical abilities in sports (Boyd 1998, Creager 1999). Welk (1999 p. 15) implies that this may be because 'boys have a more intrinsic drive towards physical activity, whereas girls may depend on extrinsic incentives (to participate)'. It would appear that girls may prefer activities which develop or support friendships and are co-operative in nature rather than the 'highly competitive and aggressive ethos' of boys' activities (Lenskyj 1991 p. 41).

Rus, Radu and Vanyu (2016) propose that aspects such as enjoyment and fitness are important for girls who prefer sports with a social element such as team games. Kirk (2005) and Flintoff and Scraton (2001) indicate the development of physical skills in early years is important for many young girls as exercise is viewed as a means by which to 'achieve the ideal 'femininity' and body shape' rather than an internal desire for the pleasure of physical movement (Flintoff & Scraton 2001 p. 9). The significance of early childhood behaviour and support for females has been highlighted in this section. This is of interest to this thesis as these reinforcing factors may have had an impact on netball players and may have supported their participation in this sport.

2.11 Societal Influences on Female Sports Participation and Femininity

Hargreaves (1994) proposes that gender images are reinforced through schooling and the home, and that sport is responsible for further reinforcing traditional roles of males and females. Chappell (1989) offers the idea that girls are encouraged to have a non-active lifestyle through magazines and television, as neither often portray a sporting, active lifestyle as something desirable for girls. Cockerhill and Hardy (1987) found that secondary-school-age girls felt pressure to conform to traditional constructed notions of femininity, such as not being sweaty or having overly developed muscles, and many felt that sport, and especially vigorous activity, was unfeminine and something to be avoided (Clarke 1992).

Cockerhill and Hardy (1987) opine that sporting activities were less important for the majority of girls questioned and that activities which enhanced their perceptions about femininity were preferred. Indeed, Hargreaves suggests that for many girls, 'there is no place for sports' in their lives (Hargreaves 1994 p. 156). Deem (1986) points out the significance of being feminine to young adolescent women. This dominant female culture in the West appears to be at odds with sport and physical activity, as for all but a minority, sport has little significance in their daily lives. For most young girls, activities such as sharing music or social media are carried out either in their own home or a friends' home on phones or computers. For example, Hill and Azzarito (2016) commented that one participant spoke 'animatedly [about] dancing with her friends at home' rather than any activity offered within the P.E. curriculum (Hill & Azzarito 2016 p. 270, Biddle et al. 2001).

The view of female athletes as being different or unusual may reflect wider underlying attitudes within society, discussed in detail in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4, which assume that men and women have different roles to play in varying aspects of life. As Boutilier and SanGiovanni (1983 p. 100) indicate, 'women are to assume roles in the private sphere of wife, mother and homemaker; men are expected to assume roles in the public sphere as worker, citizen, and active creator of social and cultural life'. Although being a good parent is an undervalued, but critical role in society, it is an activity that appears to be tied with

long-held ideas related to the appropriateness of certain activities for certain people.

It has been argued that team sports help to prepare young people for their future lives and roles in society, although, equally, it could be claimed, they offer opportunities to provide alternative empowering contexts for participants (Skillen 2013). Indeed, in the context of this thesis, Treagus (2005 p. 90) suggests that netball was regarded as a suitable team game for girls because it helped 'prepare girls for their roles as wives and mothers'. These ideas will be further explored in Chapters 6 and 7, which identify the views, attitudes and beliefs that have influenced women in this study, and which may provide insight into ways in which these perceived barriers to participation may be challenged.

2.11.1 Ethnicity and sports participation

Ethnicity and socio-economic background do not appear to have been widely researched as reasons for non-participation in P.E., although these have been considered in relation to sports participation (Jarvie 1991a, MacClancy 1996, Cronin & Mayall 1998). In fact, research into sports has predominantly examined issues related to white, male, middle-class, Western participants (Clarke & Humberstone 1997). MacClancy (1996 p. 4) suggests that 'sport is not a "reflection" of some postulated essence of society, but an integral part of society … which may be used as a means of **reflecting** on society' (emphasis mine). The way in which a society generally views women's sports participation in relation to their ethnicity can be seen as a reflection of that society's view of women.

When people move to new places or countries, they can try to use sports participation and events to 'create and sustain their own identity' and as a 'vehicle for assimilation' and integration into new cultures (Cronin & Mayall 1998 p. 6). Zaman (1997) points out that many attempts by Western (non-Muslim) researchers to study Muslim women's attitudes towards sports participation fail to fully appreciate the wide range of issues which have an impact on such women. She suggests that this lack of awareness of religious and cultural issues may be why equal opportunity policies in the West have been 'largely ineffectual' in changing the patterns of behaviour of such women (Zaman 1997 p. 51, Khan

1995). Lovell indicates that 'sport is a more accessible leisure activity for Afro-Caribbean women than Southern Asian women' (Lovell 1991 p. 59). Lovell proposes that there are cultural differences between Afro-Caribbean women, who are often portrayed as 'aggressive and dominating', and Southern Asian women, who are viewed as 'weak and passive': and are therefore misrepresented in a sporting context (Lovell 1991 p. 58).

In the field of sports participation, the examination of women from minority backgrounds has not been rigorously studied or investigated. This may be because in many cultures 'women usually take responsibility for [the] home and family and … do not have time which is totally uncommitted' (Lovell 1991 p. 59) and so they are unable to participate in sport or physical activity (Lovell 1991, Lyons 1995). The involvement of ethnic groups, such as Afro-Caribbean women, is of interest; however, this is not a key focus of this current study.

2.12 The Relevance of Influences on Sports Participation

There are many factors which influence a young person to maintain their participation in sport into adulthood. For example, the World Health Organization's (2019) findings shows that when at least three significant people in a young person's life participate in physical activity a child is much more likely to be involved in physical activity as well. Wold and Hendry (1998) report that the World Health Organization (1998) study showed that, when this was the case, 84 percent of boys and 71 percent of girls took part in sport at least once a week. Where significant others were non-participants, these numbers dropped sharply to 52 percent of boys and 30 percent of girls (Wold & Hendry 1998). **sport**scotland's study '*Participation in Sport and Physical Recreation in Scotland'* (2008) showed that four percent of all children took part in netball (1% of 613 boys and 7% of 522 girls). However, the figure for adult participation is less clear when looking at adult (aged 16+) figures, as hall sports and team sports both include a number of activities along with netball. Data from this study indicate that 18 percent of adults took part in hall sports and yet only three percent of women took part in team sports. By using Welk's Youth Physical Activity Model to examine literature in this area, it becomes clear that there is a complex interaction

of factors that we must be aware of when examining adolescents' continued participation in P.E. and physical activity.

2.13 Summary

This chapter has discussed factors such as the three waves of feminism, factors which influence physical activity and sports participation, as well as historical issues in the British formal education system which may affect women's participation in netball. The information in this chapter will be used to provide a context within which to explore the research questions and examine links between routes into netball, such as school, and overcoming perceived barriers, as well as the importance of friends and family in encouraging female physical activity.

As an important factor in female sports participation in general, and to netball in particular, the following chapter further explores popular representations of sporting females in British and Western societies and the ways in which they have influenced physical activity and sport for women.

CHAPTER 3: THE PLACE OF SPORTING FEMALES IN BRITISH AND WESTERN SOCIETY

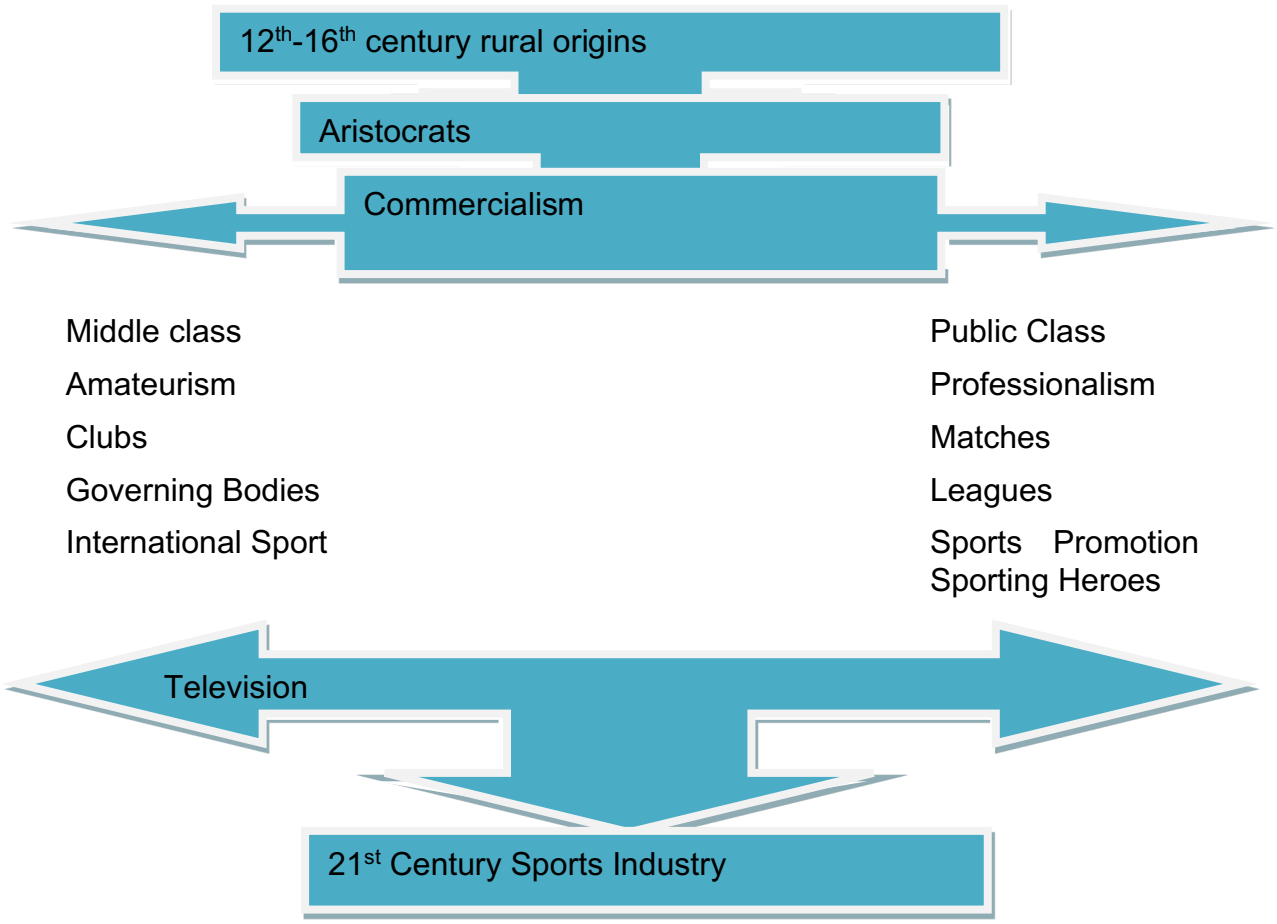
The previous chapter explored issues related to femininity, education and sports participation. This chapter explores the increase in academic research in sports history from a predominantly British perspective and reflects upon the late Victorian era, the significance of the British Empire and the rise of muscular Christianity. This exploration was conducted by examining the field of sports history and focusing on the development of women's sports history. It is important to be able to understand the place of physical activity, and in particular netball, in the lives of women in Scotland today. These aspects are of importance to this thesis in understanding where netball sits as a female team sport played in Scotland in the context of Western society's expectations of women and sports participation.

3.1 Sports History in the UK

Tracing the social origins of sport is a fascinating but notoriously difficult task. Sport is a cultural product and 'what passes for sport in one place and at one time' may not be viewed as such elsewhere (Sugden 1996 p. 9).

Until recently, sports history was not a prominent or academic area of sports studies. However, this has changed over the last forty years, as scholars from a variety of disciplines, for example, Critcher (1985), Vamplew (1988), Mason (1989), Tosh (1991), Clarke and Costa and Guthrie (1994), Tranter (1998) and Coakley (2001) have each examined the social and cultural history of sport. From these studies, more detailed and wide-reaching work has also developed. Bradley's (2007) research on the history of the Gaelic Athletic Association in Scotland, Wigglesworth's (2007) Sport in England, Walvin's work on football in Britain (1994), Holt and Mason's (2000) *Sport in Britain 1945–2000*, Jarvie and Burnett's (2000) work on Scottish sports development, Cashmore (2000) and Brailsford's (1992) work on the development of British sport, are only some examples which show the scope and depth of research now undertaken in this field. Wigglesworth (2007 p. 7) offers a diagrammatic model (Diagram 2) showing how sports have developed in England:

Diagram 2: Sports Development in England.



This simple model shows how sports changed, developed and adapted from their origins into those we recognise today and provides a basis from which other models can be viewed. Mason (1989 p. 344) suggests sport is 'closely bound up with [the] hierarchy, ritual and symbols of the wider social life', and this is reflected within the two strands outlined by Wigglesworth (2007).

Jarvie's (1991b) work outlining the development of Highland Games in Scotland and across the world builds on the previous work by Webster (1973) detailing the history of these events. The historical development of another Scottish activity, shinty, has been explored by MacLennan (1993). His book *Celebrating Scotland's Game Shinty!* details the history of the game as predominating mainly in the Highlands and Gaelic speaking areas of Scotland. Parker's (2003) thesis

on swimming development from 1840–1914 examines similar issues in relation to women participating in sport, such as female health, dress and characters.

In terms of sport, not everyone had the same experiences across the country during the rapid industrialisation of Britain. Jarvie and Burnett (2000) and King (1979) indicate that, throughout Scotland and England at the end of the nineteenth century, a range of sporting social changes occurred. An example is the demise in participation in curling as a pastime and the increase in the popularity of both golf and football. However, unlike golf or football, curling was an activity in which 'whole communities took part without regard to rank or social position' (Smith & Porter 2000 p. 70). Yet, golf was very much a popular pastime for 'the wealthier classes, professional and military man, and the landed gentry' (Campbell & Satterley 1999 p. 33). With the development of leisure time, people, mostly men, could be both spectators and participants in sporting pastimes (Thorpe 1992, Clarke 2004). For example, changes to the working week gave most workers a Saturday afternoon off and, in combination with the increase in the rail network, encouraged the use of leisure time in a sports setting (Vamplew 1988, Huggins 2004). A reflection of this was the widespread popularity of association football which witnessed spectator numbers rise from an average of 4,600 at English League One matches in 1888/89 to over five times that number twenty-five years later (Vamplew 1988). In Scotland, football became 'massively popular, dominating all other sports' within two decades of the first club being founded' (Jarvie & Burnett 2000 p. 17). The first club established in Scotland, Queen's Park F.C. (1867), was followed by many others, of which ten are currently still playing in Scottish leagues; Dumbarton (1872), Dundee (1872), Rangers (1872), Heart of Midlothian (1874), Morton (1874), Motherwell (1886), Partick Thistle (1876), Clyde (1877), St Mirren (1877) and Celtic (1888) (Brailsford 1992, Jarvie & Burnett 2000).

Sugden (1996) indicates that, from 1890 onwards, workers had better pay and increased leisure time following the eight-hour day being approved by Parliament in 1883. This meant they had more disposable income through which they could develop 'leisure' time (Birley 1995b, Brailsford 1992). Employers, such as Pilkington's (cricket) and Mellor's Ltd. (Birmingham soccer), provided work clubs

to help combat ill health and to instil ‘loyalty to the firm and [the] team spirit’ (Burnett 1995 p. 60, Vamplew 1988, Tranter 1998).

The works of McCrone (1991, 2001), Burnett (1995), Cashman (1995) and Coakley (2001) explore the place of sport, and women’s sport in society. Women had participated in cricket and golf during the late 1800s before gender divisions were enforced following the codification of sports (Cashman 1995). The implication of this for netball is studied in Chapter 4. Simpson (2003) explores female involvement in cycling, from the early 1890s, when women took up the activity to engage in recreational events or carry out domestic tasks rather than involvement in competitive cycling meets. However, as Macrae (2016) indicates, this means of transport and physical activity enabled women to have greater autonomy and personal freedom than previously.

During the interwar years, ideas regarding female physical capabilities in both working and sporting contexts were challenged. Indeed, the First World War had shown that ‘women had more than a domestic role to play in society’ (Burnett 1995 p. 64), and what followed was the development of women’s sections within many male sporting clubs and organisations (Burnett 1995, Fossey 2001). Indeed, as Davies (2008) notes, women’s cricket (in England) grew in terms of organisation and numbers participation, yet the first women’s international match in England did not take place until 1932. Cricket participation was not regarded as a form of feminist protest or ‘of liberating themselves’; as one player stated, ‘women play cricket because we like it’ (Davies 2008 p. 280).

In Scotland, women’s participation in football and golf has been studied by Macbeth (2004) and George (2003). Macbeth’s study examined women’s football from a historical perspective to show the development of the game along with contemporary issues surrounding participation. George used an ethnological approach to explore female participation in golf from women’s perspectives rather than previous male-centred viewpoints.

However, although work-based sport teams were encouraged, especially for men, the only notable reference to work netball clubs is mentioned by McCrone (1991), who discusses Cadbury’s and Bournville’s teams in England during the

early years of the 20th century. Yet, there does not appear to have been any such opportunities within a working environment in Scotland.

In exploring the development of sports history, we need to detail the legacy of Victorian values and sports participation and how this has subsequently had an impact on female physical activity. In outlining the development of sports history in the UK, this provides a background within which to set the context of the research questions of this study and the historical influences that may be factors when examining routes into netball for women in Scotland.

3.2 Victorian Values

During the Victorian period there were rapid, radical changes in Britain's sporting culture as more games became codified and professional, as well as more commercially viable (Tranter 1998, Mangan 2000). Indeed, Best proposes that soccer satisfied 'a deep need' in the 'industrial masses, and the height of their devotion to it proved irresistible' (Best 1990 p. 230). As mentioned earlier, this may have been due to increased urbanisation in Britain throughout the Victorian period, when the working class had little time away from employment and even less time for leisure activities. However, from the 1870s onwards, legislation gave many employees shorter working hours, as well as time off on a Saturday afternoon, and football teams and leagues took advantage of the railway network to bring people to watch games (Walvin 1994, Tranter 1998). Best (1990 p. 234) indicates that, in England, football, as well as cricket, came to dominate 'sporting culture' as these were 'relatively humane and civilised' activities that fitted in with the notion of rational recreation and self-improvement that was prevalent during this period.

During the Victorian period 'sport could be equated with virtue' (Brailsford 1992 p. 83), and it was regarded as a way to develop the qualities of 'manliness, strength, loyalty and discipline', which were admired by the middle-class educators of the time (Brailsford 1992 p. 97). Tranter opines that during this period sport was thought to instil virtues of 'stoicism, pluck, self-reliance, and an unshakable commitment to fair dealing' (Tranter 1998 p. 58). The proponents of muscular Christianity united sport and religion as an embodiment of a person's

moral character, which could be seen on the playing fields through team sports (Magdalinski & Chandler 2002). It was argued that Christian gentlemen were developed by team sports and these pursuits guided young men away from vices such as idleness and lack of self-control, helping them to develop a stronger moral character which enabled them to become 'champions of righteousness … to combat the ever watchful forces of evil' (Mangan & McKenzie 2000 p. 64). Clarke and Critcher (1995), Tranter (1998) and Holt and Mason (2000) indicate that at this time there existed a dominant perception that *how* you played and conducted yourself rather than winning was important, and pastimes and pursuits were required to develop personal character, strong moral values and righteous virtues. This is in contrast to female sports participation, which is examined in the context of netball in Chapter 4.

Twells (2007 p. 203) opines that Victorian public school education intended to prepare men for their future lives as 'the Empire took British men and women overseas as colonial administrators, slave traders, missionaries, etc.', and this background would ensure that work was conducted efficiently. This is reflected in the findings of the Clarendon Commission (1864), which indicated that public schools 'fostered high standards of manliness and gentlemanly conduct', which would also be of use in administering the British Empire (Vance 1985 p. 118). The rapid expansion of the British Empire meant that British sports and pastimes were simultaneously exported to these countries. In Australia, for example, 'the arrival of British settlers ... marked the beginning of Anglo-Celtic ideas, aspirations and cultural practices half-way across the world' (Adair & Vamplew 1997 p. 2). Many of these ex-pats were former public-school pupils who ran the administration of countries such as India, Australia and Canada (Brailsford 1992, Harris 1993, Tranter 1998, Mangan 2000). King (1979) suggests that these men of the Empire were successful, partly or wholly, *because* of the games they had played whilst at school and that these games had contributed to the development of their personal morals and character which in time enabled them to effectively conduct business in the countries of the Empire. Parker (1987 p. 43) states, 'a public-school education prepared a boy for a future in the world of business' wherever that may be, with the implicit suggestion that this business would be male-dominated. Of course, others argue that it was the ideologies,

indoctrinations, practices and institutions of Britain that these men took with them to the colonies that were ‘useful instruments of social control’ as opposed to skill learned on the playing fields (Parsons 1999 p. 139).

Whannel (2002 p. 28) further indicates that, since the mid-19th century, sport has ‘had a close association with the inculcation of the values of dominant masculinity’, and some of the preferred reading at public schools which promoted Christian manliness or ‘muscular Christianity’ gave ‘full and enthusiastic recognition to the physical man’. Headmasters such as Edmund Warre of Eton claimed that team games were ‘morally beneficial in that they provided a healthy antidote to vice and extravagant luxury and kept idlers away from sloth and temptation’ (Vance 1975 p. 122). Whannel (2002 p. 29) states that public schools ‘promoted muscular Christianity on the sporting field, and this became a central mechanism for the production of manliness’.

Team games were not regarded as suitable for women unless there was little or no physical contact as ‘the purity of men’s sport’ (McCrone 1991 p. 165) may be demeaned in some way if this lack of contact was not maintained (Boutilier & SanGiovanni 1983, Mangan & Park 1987, Costa & Guthrie 1994, Henderson et al. 1996, Coakley 2001, Barnard Flory, Tischler & Sanders 2014). However, not everyone accepted these views and, ‘at first a few and then an increasing number of women began to question their lot’, in relation to sports participation (Harrison 1990 p. 166). By the 1920s, Fossey (2001) suggests that competitive sport for women increased and Davies (2008) discusses how in the 1930s growing numbers of women began to play cricket as a form of recreation. The lasting legacy of Victorian values has been one where female team sports participation has been regarded as acceptable but only within certain limitations.

This provides a context, in conjunction with the discussion in Chapter 2, from which to examine the research question regarding the factors and perceived barriers to continued participation in netball. The impact of these views and perceptions is important when trying to understand and explain routes into female team sports participation.

3.3 Women in Western Society

The last section has reflected upon Victorian values towards sport and how this period has formed a significant focus in terms of sports history as a discipline.

Over the last one hundred years western society has made rapid advances in the areas of science, medicine and technology that would make today's world unrecognisable for previous generations. Likewise, the social, cultural and political environment has also changed dramatically. Related to the idea of social and cultural meanings, Dorothy Smith (2002) is concerned with the ways in which sociological knowledge is produced. Smith highlights a key flaw in 'objective knowledge' as this has 'been based on a male social universe' and that there is 'a disjunction between how women experience the world and the concepts and theoretical schemes by which society's self-consciousness is inscribed' (Smith 1990 p. 13).

As discussed in Chapter 2, many of these sentiments remain regarding the types of jobs deemed appropriate for women and the roles that society regards as 'unwomanly'. For some it can be argued that women should justify their positions within a patriarchal society which deems them to be second-class citizens (Johnston 1994, McCrone 2006). Of course, today many things have altered radically for women in Britain in comparison to their Victorian counterparts; in access to education, working conditions and better maternal medical care (Lewis 1992, Johnston 1994). The changing roles and status of women in society have resonance for this study. For example, in late Victorian Britain, there were clear class distinctions between working-class and middle-class women. By way of illustration, in relation to education, working-class women were fortunate if they received basic, elementary schooling, whereas middle-class women did receive such an education as well as training in 'social graces' (McDermid 2012).

Today, it could be argued, many aspects of women's roles focus on similar issues as those of over 100 years ago; household management, maternity and childrearing, domestic work, and roles within the extended family. Lewis (1984) indicates that greater standing was given to the main breadwinner and head of household, usually a man, whose paid employment took him away from the home

(Digby 1992). Interestingly, Branson (1975) and Clarke (2004) suggest that unpaid housework held no status, as a women's role as housewife was not acknowledged as work, not valued, in the way that men's work was. Although, as Humphries (2008 p. 85) points out, 'women have always worked ... what has changed historically has been the form that [their] work has taken'.

Lewis (1992) suggests there have been three social trends of particular importance that have changed the role and place of women since the end of the Second World War. Firstly, there has been an increase in the number of women in employment.[15] Secondly, there has been a steep increase in the divorce rate.[16] Finally, there has also been an increase in the number of births to unmarried mothers.[17] The general continuation of these three social trends means that, for some, the reality of women's lives is demanding (Lewis 1984, Devine 1999). In this context, many believed that a woman's most important task 'was that of bearing children, and [being] a loving and attentive mother' (Branca 1975 p. 6).

The key issue over the last century regarding gender issues has been concerned with how 'men and women are "supposed" to behave' and how these views influence strongly held attitudes which not only affect the behaviour of individuals but also of society in general (Shaw & Slack 2002 p. 88). The traditional roles of wife and mother, and husband and father, have changed and altered to reflect changing value systems within Western society. The traditional 'family unit' has altered since the 1980s, with the roles of wife, mother, husband and father, it could be argued, becoming undervalued and undermined. Gender roles and expectations have also begun to change and, in the twenty-first century, there is greater fluidity in society as to the life choices that people make, although individual choice and freedom may still be contestable concepts.

[15] In 1945, women made up 39% of the workforce, by 2016 women aged 16–64 made up 67.9% of the workforce (Office for National Statistics 2013).

[16] The divorce rate has risen from 4% of marriages ending in divorce in 1945 to 41% in 2011 (Office for National Statistics 2014).

[17] In 1945, 9.18% of births were to unmarried mothers (Thane 2011); by 2015 this had risen to 47.7% (Office for National Statistics 2015b).

Smith (2002 p. 315) states:

> The worlds of men have, and still have, an authority over the worlds that are traditionally women's – the worlds of household, children and neighbourhoods. And though women do not inhabit only these worlds, for the vast majority of women they are the primary grounds of our lives.

These multiple spheres of women's lives are noted by those who have reflected upon the socio-cultural aspects of women in society over the last 140 years. For instance, Leonard and Speakman (1986 p. 10) state that 'women became associated with the private sphere, with the home, and with the values attached to it': women were 'supposedly warm, caring, calm and stable, supporting other family members unquestioningly'. Griffiths (1995), Scraton (1997), Humberstone (2002) and Garrett (2004) indicate that, in Western societies, such as Britain and North America, men and women constantly receive information about what they should do, how they should look, think and feel to fit in, be acceptable and desirable to the opposite sex: this pertains also to sport. These messages are projected and reinforced via several social institutions such as the media, education and the family, issues which are discussed in Chapter 2 and Chapter 4. These further reinforce the dominant views of how men and women should behave and the choices they should make in order to be accepted by wider society. Roth and Basow (2004) and Marsh and Keating (2006) suggest, however, that, as this cycle continues, dominant attitudes are perpetuated, and men and women who challenge this ideology can experience criticism, lack of empathy and ridicule from others. Thus, during at least the last century, tensions and contestations have evolved and developed, socially, culturally, politically and economically, regarding women's roles in society. This section provides further context to the social setting of this study; in particular, that relating to traditional expectations of the roles of women in society and in sports.

3.4 Women and Sports History

Reflecting on how women have been represented in sports history in Western society can assist this thesis in examining female netball participation in Scotland. Historians, such as Brailsford (1992), Morford and MacIntosh (1993), Walvin

(1994), Holt and Mason (2000), generally discuss sports history in relation to male sports and rarely, if ever, acknowledge a gendered perspective when examining this area of study in relation to participation, attitudes and values**.** Others acknowledge that women have generally been omitted from the histories of organised sports. Indeed, it was female scholars who began to challenge and critique the failing of academia to acknowledge that they were writing of 'men's sport' when writing 'a history of sport' (Birrell & Cole 1994, Alberti 2002, Osborne & Skillen 2010). However, since the 1980s, a greater number of female scholars have examined the social, cultural and historical contexts of women's sport. Osborne and Skillen's (2010) collection of essays about women in British sporting history, George's (2003) thesis examining the history of women and golf in Scotland, and many works by Hargreaves examining the socio-historical aspects of women and sport are evidence of this change.

In comparison to the history of men's sport, the study of women's sports is a topic which has only relatively recently been given the same academic focus and attention as men's sporting histories by writers such as Birrell (1978), Chappell (1989), McCrone (1991), Scraton (1992), Clarke and Humberstone (1997), Hargreaves (1999), Taylor (2001), Kay (2008), George (2009), Fisette (2013), Skillen (2013).

Morford and MacIntosh (1993 p. 52) note that:

> In their sport, the Victorians displayed before the world ... manly [imagined] Christian virtues. To this legacy ... can be traced much of our contemporary confusion about amateurism, sexism and racism in sport.

Initially, this quotation appears to merely state facts in relation to Victorian sport. However, a closer reading shows the blindness within the sporting world of the Victorians towards female sports participation as well as the writing of female sporting history which has since prevailed. Dewar (1993 p. 147) suggests that sporting women or sportswomen 'mean different things to different people. For some, sporting women is a contradiction in terms' and Whannel opines that we should consider 'whom are the sporting heroes for? (as it) appears that sport characteristically provides a space for the eradication, marginalisation and

symbolic annihilation of the feminine*'* (Whannel 2002 p. 45). Kahma (2012 p. 114) proposes that women's sports participation is 'usually seen ... on the margins of cultural consumption and rarely taken into account in studies of lifestyles or taste'. She indicates that the work of Bourdieu (1984) shows that :

> Physical strength was something pursued by working class males ... working class women spent much less time, effort and money into cultivating their bodies (Kahma 2012 p. 144).

This attitude reflects continued fears in relation to women's suitability to play sports due to concerns about their health and perceived frailty which can at least be traced back to Victorian beliefs regarding women's physiological capabilities, an issue that is examined further in Chapter 4. As Guttman (1991) states, aesthetic activities such as Calisthenics were regarded as being acceptable for women to participate in as they would 'enhance a girl's attractiveness and improve her prospects of capturing a husband': whereas, sports activities would be a disadvantage as these would 'spoil a girl's looks' (Guttman 1991 p. 94 & p. 96). Although such views about women's participation have since been challenged and contested, people believed that 'anatomical, physiological and psychological differences' between men and women were so great that these 'demand entirely different kinds of sports for women' (King 1979 p. 73). Female participation in sport was not generally encouraged in British society, although upper-class women were the first to be educated in sports while at school: through activities such as Ling's Swedish Gymnastics or callisthenics and associations such as the Women's League of Health and Beauty (King 1979, Brailsford 1992). Activities such as golf and tennis were deemed acceptable for ladies (upper-class women with leisure time) within which to participate, yet it was still almost thirty years before the first female athletic events were introduced (Jarvie & Maguire 1994). Adams (2010 p. 219) states that:

> Women athletes present an obvious and cumbersome contradiction in the ideological formation through which sport is linked to masculinity ... women who participated seriously in sport were greeted with incredulity and alarm.

The belief that women are not physiologically capable of taking part in the same types of sporting activities as men is still held today for activities such as rugby, football and boxing, despite many highly successful female sports stars in these events. For example, the Scottish Women's Football team reached its first UEFA Women's Euros in 2017 (while the corresponding male team failed to qualify) and Nicola Adams won her second Olympic Gold medal to retain the flyweight boxing title at Rio 2016. In athletics, women have only relatively recently been able to compete in events such as the marathon (World Championships 1983), pole vault (World Championships 1999) and steeplechase (Olympic Games 2008).

These attitudes and assumptions regarding women's sporting participation are still pervasive in society and yet it appears that netball has been able to develop unchallenged as a female team sport. Indeed, Mangan and Park (1987), Harris (1993), Hargreaves (1994) and Roth and Basow (2004) indicate that women are perceived as not being as physically capable as men and that a woman's role should be one of passive acceptance of society's expectations of their abilities. In addition, Kay (2008) identified three significant beliefs that have regularly been cited as reasons as to why women should not participate in sporting activities and should be dependent upon the men in their lives and in society. Firstly, it is thought that vigorous sports could be damaging to a female's health and reproductive systems. Secondly, that women who take part in sports which are not aesthetics are unfeminine and, therefore, unattractive (to men). Finally, to be female and successful in sports is not accepted by society (King 1979, Clarke & Critcher 1985, Holt & Mason 2000, Fossey 2001, Kay 2008, Fisette 2013).

Bryson (1987) indicates that activities predominately regarded as female such as ice skating and gymnastics are treated as different from those perceived as male sports. Indeed, activities such as gymnastics, tennis, swimming, golf, lacrosse, netball, croquet and hockey gradually became viewed as acceptable activities for women (Guttmann 1991, Jarvie & Maguire 1994, Cashman 1995, Tranter 1998, Cashmore 2000). Coakley (2001 p. 223) states that competent sports performance can be empowering for women:

> Being an athlete, especially a skilled [female] athlete, can change the way women see themselves. It can make them

> feel physically stronger, more competent, and more in control of their lives as independent individuals.

It could be suggested that it is men, rather than women, who feel strongly that female participants should maintain their femininity whilst taking part in activities which was reflected in the initial rules and dress code for netball (Kay 2008). Indeed, Harrison suggests that the bicycle was one way in which unfounded beliefs regarding women's physical capabilities was challenged in the late nineteenth century. This mode of transport 'opened up a new dimension of freedom' as clothing became less restrictive and the freedom to travel encouraged women to be free from constraint in other aspects of their lives (Harrison 1990 p. 168).

A traditional factor of major significance in women's access to sports was social class, as those 'further down' the socio-economic ladder are less likely to be regular sports participants (Hargreaves 1994). Indeed, research suggests that working-class women, and a majority of middle-class women, did not have the opportunities to access sports in the same way as men. George (2009) suggests that only a minority of middle-class women actively took part in sporting activities and these activities emphasised the femininity of those participating. Interestingly, Hargreaves (1994) indicates that it is generally middle-class women who have organised and campaigned for changes in access and they are also more likely to be policy-makers and officials within clubs. This may have been because middle-class women were regarded as 'ladies' for whom paid work was demeaning and they therefore had more leisure time to pursue a range of activities (McDermid 2012). Indeed, although middle-class women had access to sports, they did not yet encourage or support working-class women's involvement (Holt 1990, Brailsford 1992, Tranter 1998). Tranter (1998 p. 87) states:

> For all but a handful of upper- and middle-class women the public world of organised sport, particularly that of a vigorous, predominately competitive team-based kind remained firmly closed.

Although, while at school or college, upper- and middle-class women participated in activities such as lacrosse, rounders, netball or gymnastics, there was little or

no opportunity to continue with physical activities into adulthood and 'sport remained a symbol and prerogative of masculinity, a reminder and reinforcer of gender differences' (Tranter 1998 p. 91, Kane & Snyder 1989, Hargreaves 2000, George 2009).

How women dressed for sports participation had been regularly discussed in the Victorian period. For example, in 1898 the Kendal Women's Hockey Club stated that 'skirts must be no more than six inches above the ground all round', and a beret, collar and tie had to be worn while playing (Wigglesworth 2007 p. 69). However, by 1910, greater changes in dress occurred that reflected the types of activities in which women participated, such as basketball, dance, tennis, golf and gymnastics. In 1914, golfer Cecelia Leith was regarded as 'daring' by playing in a golf skirt that was twelve inches off the ground (Birley 1995a). However, a gradual process of acceptance began, as golfer May Hezelet indicated in 1912:

> Even twenty years ago a woman walking in a London street attired in a short tweed coat and skirt ... attracted much undesirable attention but nowadays a whole team could walk down Bond or Regent Street, and no notice would be taken' (Birley 1995 p. 36).

By the 1920s, when the 'flapper' fashion was at its height, Suzanne Lenglen wore a knee-length skirt and t-shirt blouse to play tennis which 'shocked traditionalists' (Cashmore 2000, Hall 2000). Yet, women still wore long skirts and blouses to participate in netball matches.

In 1920s Australia, for example, although it was acceptable for women to take part in exercise, there was also a warning if a woman did 'too much'. It was suggested that physically active women would 'become[s] too muscular and ungainly to ever attain the grace, ease and smoothness requisite for the ideal of feminine loveliness' and that exercise should be undertaken only to 'keep fit and young' (Jobling & Barham 1991 p. 34). This reflects a cartoon in *Punch* in 1901, which comments on women with '"hockey elbows" or ungainly "cycling feet" ... their backs are bent and their faces red from, "cricket stoop" or "football head"' (Constanzo 2002 p. 31).

By the 1970s, women's sporting experiences began to be analysed with sociological rigour (Costa & Guthrie 1994). Clarke and Critcher (1985), Polley (1998), Tranter (1998), Cashmore (2000), Fossey (2001) and Kay (2008) have each identified the marginalisation of women as 'other', reinforcing the incompatibility of women and sport. This marginalisation continues to support the view that women who choose to participate are either not *real* women or what they are doing is not *real* sport (Whannel 2002). This issue is explored in Chapter 2 when examining gender, femininity and P.E. in the UK.

This marginalisation is also confirmed by Boyle and McKay (20111995 p. 557), who point towards a belief that 'women are "naturally" suited to performing expressive and compassionate duties in both the private and public spheres'. As Pfister and Hartmann-Tews (2003) suggest, sports and physical activities have 'always mirrored ... society's gender order and gender hierarchy' (p. 1), a position confirmed by others (Munnrow 1972, Hall 1996). Further to these analyses, Clarke and Critcher (1985), Costa and Guthrie (1994) and Tranter (1998) note that these varied roles mean that women usually have less spare time, or leisure time, and are less likely to set aside time for sporting activities compared to men. Indeed, as indicated, women are more likely to facilitate men's participation rather than their own by, for example, making sure the sports kit is clean and ready for use and by undertaking childminding activities to give men time to participate in sport (Thompson 1999).

King (1979) indicates that women were not included in the rapid sporting changes at the start of the twentieth century and, as a result, the role of woman as mother and homemaker was reinforced within society. In addition, women who choose today to participate in traditionally competitive male activities may be viewed with suspicion (King 1979, McCrone 1991, Fossey 2001), as society reinforces that women should play 'games ... for the love of the sport and not just to win' (King 1979 p. 73). However, it may be that netball is regarded as a conformist activity in that women appear to be feminine whilst playing and so it is not an activity viewed with any degree of suspicion. This means that women who feel competitive have to overcome social stigma in order to participate at a high level and display 'non-feminine' attributes.

Although attitudes to women's sporting participation have progressed since the beginning of the twentieth century, for many, issues of appropriateness and the suitability of sports for women remain. Fossey (2001 p. 86) suggests that 'women were pushed into certain sports deemed appropriately feminine ... these typically involved less direct physical contact'. Also, women's sporting participation was restricted in that attempts by women to establish football and rugby teams were 'resisted by the male authorities in these sports' (Fossey 2001 p. 86, McCrone 1991, Tranter 1998). As noted, such attitudes have their roots in Victorian beliefs of feminine frailty (King 1979, Clarke & Critcher 1985, Fossey 2001) and the role of women as 'the angel of the house' (Harrison 1990 p. 157). However, netball may have been regarded as an acceptable sporting activity for women as there was no physical contact, limited movement around the court and it was not an activity played by men.

Dyer (1982 p. 6) states that sport maintains strong sex stereotypes within society with men seen as 'active, aggressive, competitive ... strong' and women regarded as 'passive, non-aggressive and largely non-competitive'. Jobling and Barham (1991) suggest that netball has been regarded as a suitable activity for women to play as there was no contact involved and the emphasis was on the aesthetics of movement. However, an alternative way of viewing involvement in netball is that of a liberating sport for women to participate in. As Taylor (2001 p. 57) indicates, this game 'was allowed to grow with relative freedom from pressures about female suitability', as it was not a sport adapted from a male form of the game: it was a game for women in its own right and this supported participation free from perceived expectations of other activities. This section has explored female compliance and challenge to societal expectations regarding female physical activity and team sport participation. This is relevant to the research questions of this thesis as it provides context to both enabling factors and perceived barriers to female sport participation.

3.4.1 Women, sport and the media

This section examines the impact of media representation and gender stereotyping of female sporting participants. Kinkema and Harris (1992) indicate that gender stereotypes are perpetuated by media images of women and men

participating in sporting activities and events. This occurs when media 'devote a disproportionately smaller amount of time to their performance' and draw more attention to a women's 'physical attractiveness or their domestic roles' (p. 137). Therefore, the media emphasises women 'in terms of the extent to which their physical characteristics or domestic roles correspond to dominant notions of femininity' (ibid.). These views help reinforce stereotypical opinions and prejudices of society about sporting women. Discussions around what women wear to take part in sports and how they look when taking part remain in media reporting of female athletes in the twenty-first century. For example, in tennis, commentators discuss the Williams' sisters' business lives, fashions and pregnancy along with the impact these factors have on their game in a different way than when they are discussing the match of the Bryan brothers in the same sport (Schultz 2005, Bilger 2009, Henry 2017).

Kane and Lenskyj (1998 p. 186) suggest the media presents the dominant view that 'female athletes are, by definition, a less authentic version of their male counterparts', that men are equated with 'strength, courage and competence', and women with 'sexual appeal, femininity and so-called limited physical (biological) capacity'. These findings reflect those of Kane, Greendorfer and Creedon (1994), who also found that sporting females were 'consistently trivialised and marginalised' by media representations of their sports. Although there were many changes occurring in the early part of the twentieth century regarding attitudes towards women, little had changed regarding the dress women were expected to wear whilst participating in sports, and magazines and reporters regularly make comments about women's dress, femininity and sexuality in their reports (Jones, Murrell & Jackson 1999, Xu, Billings, Scott, Lewis & Sharpe 2017). This topic is discussed in relation to netball in Chapter 4.

3.5 Summary

This chapter has considered the development of sports history within Western and British contexts, along with societal expectations in relation to sporting participation, from the late Victorian period until the late twentieth century. This discussion is relevant to the overall objectives of this thesis as it provides the historical background and context within which to explore enabling factors and

barriers to female physical activity. This will enable the findings of this study to be compared and contrasted within a Scottish context.

Chapter 4 provides specific context about the development of netball as a unique female-centric team sport and how it has evolved since its inception in the late 1890s. The next chapter also explores pathways for participation and the history and development of netball internationally and particularly in Scotland.

CHAPTER 4: THE DEVELOPMENT OF NETBALL AS A FEMALE SPORT

This chapter explores the themes discussed in the first three chapters and details the development of netball from the late 1890s to the twenty-first century in relation to female sports participation within the context of women's netball in Scotland. Wigglesworth (2007) indicates how it is not unusual for modern sports to have evolved from much older, traditional pastimes, and it appears that netball is no different in this respect. This chapter examines the growth of netball from its inception in the USA as a derivative of basketball, to its spread to the UK, specifically Scotland, and to other countries around the world. Consideration is also given to the development of international matches between nations and global events such as netball world championships, and the Commonwealth and Olympic Games.

4.1 The Historical Development of Netball

Research into netball has been limited to small pieces of work, particularly with respect to Australia and New Zealand. In addition, there has been a limited level of research that has examined the development of the sport. These studies include Nauright (1994), Taylor (2001) and Tagg (2008). Thompson (1999) and Coakley (2001) note that any media focus on the game has generally been limited to giving results or gender-driven stereotypical comments relating to female players' physical appearance and dress. For example, Markula (2009) suggests that female athletes are generally referred to by their first names or as girls or ladies' teams which 'infantilise' their participation (Markula 2009 p. 6). However, the launch of channels such as Sky Sports Mix in 2016 has begun to give females a platform as both players and commentators to challenge these stereotypes (Sky Sports 2016).

Despite the sport being so widely known and played in a variety of countries, there is a lack of netball-specific literature and research. Since the 1980s, netball Master's and Seniors' events have been played regularly across the United Kingdom, which has supported lifelong participation in the sport.

Smith and Humberstone (1978) point to an interesting characteristic of netball as it could be called a cradle-to-the-grave sport as many women still play well into their seventies. They write how:

> Netball is a game that can be played by women of all shapes, sizes and aptitudes ... netball is the game of a lifetime you can start at eight and still be playing in your fifties (Smith & Humberstone 1978 p. 14).

In larger studies of participation and activity levels in the UK, figures given for netball are usually included with that of other minority sports by organisations such as **sport**scotland and the Office of National Statistics. Recent statistics indicate that 39% of adults in the United Kingdom do not meet government guidance regarding physical activity levels (BHF 2017). Nevertheless, in England research suggests that a third of adults do regularly participate in sport and physical activity (Sport England 2016). Indeed, figures show that 65% of men and 61% of women in England do meet national guidelines on physical activity with 1.3% indicating they participate in netball (Sport England 2016, Sport England 2020). In Scotland, a study of sports participation concluded that between 2007-2016 levels of adult participation remained consistent (53%) with male participation higher than female participation over this time (Rowe 2019). This reflects trends in both the Scottish Health Survey (2018) and Scotland's People Annual Report (2018) which indicate a majority of adults had met national guidelines but that men had higher rates of participation than women. It is interesting to note that Netball Scotland has also witnessed a dramatic rise in membership as shown in their Annual Report (2018) where membership targets for 2019[18] had already been achieved. However, these figures for netball are still below a 2010 Australian Government survey which recorded netball as one of the top ten activities in which 4.8 percent of females over 16 years of age participated (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2010). Nevertheless, netball is perceived as a female-only sport and much less research has been conducted in

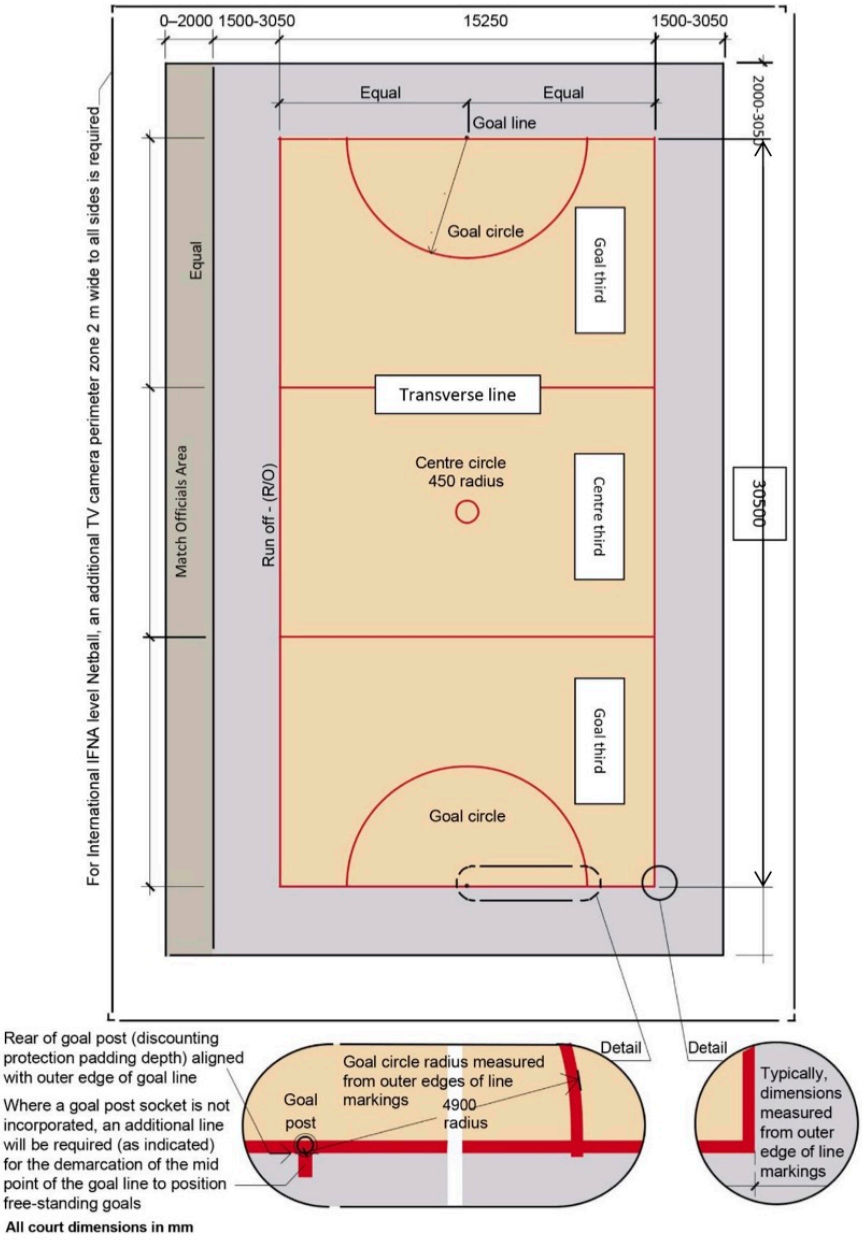
[18] Netball Scotland Annual Report 2018 indicated a target of 8000 members by March 2019, a growth of 22.86% in one season. The figure of 8098 was achieved in March 2018.

this area. Therefore, this thesis examines female physical activity in relation to sports participation generally, as well as the significance of netball in particular.

4.1.1 What is netball?

Netball is a non-contact sport that can be described as a passing and shooting game played by seven players in each team who play within specific areas of a court and who must catch and throw a ball within three seconds. Diagram 3 indicates the dimensions of a netball court on which players will play four, fifteen-minute quarters. At the end of each match the team with the most goals wins.

Diagram 3: Netball Court Layout and dimensions. (Netball England 2010)



The International Federation of Netball Associations (IFNA) indicates that currently there are twenty million netball players in over seventy countries around the world (IFNA 2008). Australia and New Zealand are the most dominant national teams in this sport, with Australia holding ten world championship titles and New Zealand, five. Also, both countries share a world championship title with Trinidad and Tobago, who all jointly won the championships in 1979. By July 2019, Australia, New Zealand and England were the top three countries in the world rankings, with the other home countries as follows: Scotland 8th, Northern Ireland 9th, and Wales 10th (IFNA 2019). On the basis of these rankings, it is clear that Scotland is skilled at playing netball.

4.1.2 The codification of netball

At Hampstead College, the original goals for the game were waste paper baskets place on the walls, the walls were also the boundaries for the court so the ball was always in play. At both Hampstead College and then later at Dartford College, it was traditional for a group of older students to teach netball to another 'set', or year group, and pass on the rules in this manner. However, as Grieve[19] (1911 p. 4) points out, 'in a few years the first set hardly recognised the game as it had been taught to them, and it became imperative to form a committee to issue rules to govern the laws of the game'. Therefore, due to uncertainty and confusion regarding the 'many changes from the American rules' the first set of Net Ball rules in the UK were written by the Ling Association[20] and published in 1901 (Jobling & Barham 1991, Nauright & Broomhall 1994). Mary Hankinson, who, as a student, had played netball at Dartford College in 1897, was a member of a committee that drew up rules for the game in 1901. In 1909 she delivered a paper on 'The Game of Net Ball' at the Roan School for Girls in London (Bergman Österberg Union 2015). Other rules were also adapted in 1901: the shooting circle was added to prevent shooting from a long distance, each goal was worth one point rather than two, the width of the rings reduced to 15 inches, and the

[19] I have been unable to discover B.H. Grieve's full name. However, she appears to have been a lecturer in Physical Training in Aberdeen at the beginning of the twentieth century (British Library search).

[20] The Ling Association was formed in 1899. This then became the Physical Education Association of the UK (PEAUK) and merged with BAALPE (British Association of Advisers and Lecturers in PE) to become AfPE (Association for PE) in 2006 (AfPE 2006).

height of the net post increased to 10 feet (All England Netball Association (AENA) 1926). It has been suggested that the regulations were further modified when others, such as the American, Miss Porter,[21] introduced instructions that had been used for women's basketball in America in 1897, resulting in many local variations of rules being used (AENA 1926, Jobling & Barham 1991, Treagus 2005).

The Ling Association published 250 copies in the UK of this first rule book, specifying the size of the ball, size of the rings, the height of the nets and the layout of the court, which was to include a shooting circle (The Ling Association 1901, Jobling & Barham 1991). Other rules set out by The Ling Association (1901) also included the names of the positions of players, which are different from those of the current game: Goal Shooter (same), Attack (now Goal Attack), Attacking Centre (now Wing Attack), Centre (same), Defensive Centre (now Wing Defence), Defence (now Goal Defence) and Goal Keeper (same). However, the first edition of the rules indicated that the game could be played with nine or five players by adding or omitting positions.[22] In order for a game to begin, a ball was bounced in the centre circle and then touched or handled by one of the two centre players. Under current rules, a coin toss prior to the match decides who will have possession when play begins.

A decade after the publication of the Ling Association rules, B.H. Grieve (1911) wrote '*The Game of Netball and How to Play it'*. Her book demonstrated that netball was still being played with teams of five, seven or nine players, all with varying sizes of court (AENA 1926, Jobling & Barham 1991). Gradually, by having a standardised set of rules for the game, this enabled greater competition and an increase in inter-area matches and leagues.

4.1.3 The development of basketball in the USA

Netball developed from basketball, which had been introduced to the USA in 1891 by the thirty-year-old Canadian, James Naismith. Naismith had been asked

[21] I have been unable to discover any further details in relation to Miss Porter.

[22] A team of nine players would add Right Attack and Left Defence positions and teams of five players would omit the Attacking Centre and Defensive Centre positions.

to develop a game to keep the members of Springfield, Massachusetts, YMCA occupied during the winter months. He came up with a game that only had seven rules involving running and bouncing a football and shooting into peach baskets hung at the end of the hall as goals (Jobling & Barham 1991, Radu 2010). However, Mechikoff and Estes (1993 p. 260) indicate that the idea for the game of basketball may have been based on Naismith's awareness 'of the early forms of the game played by native and Central Americans between AD100 and 150'. Mechikoff and Estes (1993) further suggest that it is possible that a similar passing and shooting game had been played by First Nations women[23] using reeds plaited together to make a ball which they passed between two teams with the aim of getting the ball into a hoop suspended between two trees, and that Naismith may have used this as the inspiration for his game of basketball.

By January 1892, Naismith's rules of basketball were published in *The Triangle*,[24] (Treagus 2005) and on 11th March that year, over 200 spectators watched students of the YMCA play their teachers in a match. At this time there were three different sets of rules for basketball – the Official Rules for men, the Intercollegiate Rules mainly used by men, and Spalding's Rules for women, which were adapted in 1899 (AENA 1926). The first women's match took place in 1893 at Smith's College, Northampton, Massachusetts, and twenty miles from Springfield where basketball was invented, but no men were allowed to spectate (Taylor 2001, Radu 2010, Treagus 2005). Official records suggest that the first women's intercollegiate game was played between the University of California and Stanford on the 4th April 1896: again, there were no male spectators allowed in the Armory Hall at Berkeley. The exclusion of men from these events reflects social attitudes that men should not observe women taking part in physical activities (Henderson et al. 1996). Yet, by May 1896, the *New York Journal*

[23] See the following for more information regarding First Nations women.

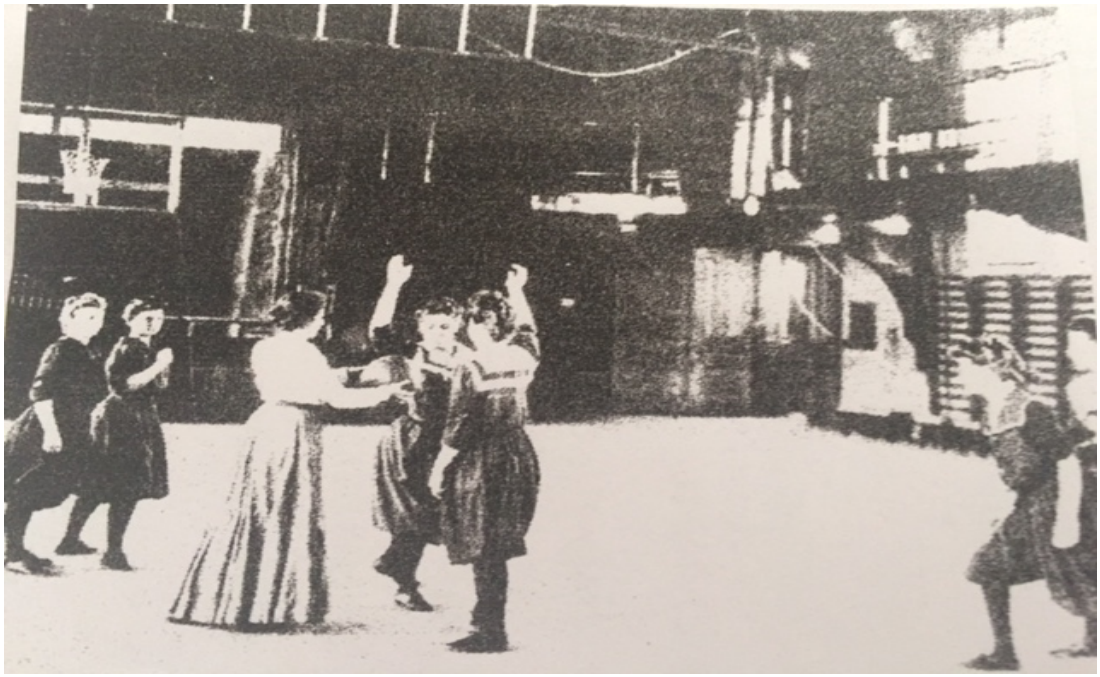
Yellow Bird, M. (1999) What we want to be called: Indigenous peoples' perspectives on racial and ethnic identity labels. *American Indian Quarterly*, *23* (2), pp. 1-21.

Miller, C., & Chuchryk, P. (Eds.) (1996) *Women of the First Nations: power, wisdom, and strength.* Winnipeg: University of Manitoba Press.

[24] *The Triangle* magazine was first published in February 1891 by students of the YMCA Training School (Physical Department) with James Naismith as the editor (Digital Commonwealth Massachusetts Collections Online 2016).

published a report with the headline, ‘Basket Ball – the new craze for athletic young women’, suggesting that the game was being widely played (Guttman 1991 p. 116, Skillen 2013).

Illustration 1: 1904 Game of basket ball (sic) at Smith College (Mechikoff & Estes 1993 p. 261)



In 1895, Miss Clara Gregory Baer, a gym teacher in New Orleans, wrote to Naismith asking him for a copy of the rules for his game which he subsequently sent her. It has generally been accepted that she misinterpreted the lines that Naismith had pencilled on the court and thought that players could not leave those areas. However, it is more likely this is a myth that has been perpetuated as a convenient way through which the divisions on the court can be explained. Baer called her game Basquette, her version of *line basketball* with three zones, stopped players from ‘dribbling, guarding or interfering with an opponent’s pass or shot’ and was first played at the Southern Athletic club in New Orleans in 1895, ‘watched by 560 of the most fashionable women of the city’ (Treagus 2005 p. 94).

Another important woman in the development of netball is Senda Berenson. She emigrated to America from Russia in 1875. After two years as an ‘innovative graduate of the Boston Normal School of Gymnastics’, she arrived at Smith College in 1890 where she taught fencing and gymnastics, both of which she had studied at the Royal Central Institute of Gymnastics in Stockholm (Guttman 1991

p. 115). She had memories of 'long and tedious hours at dull gymnastic work' and was looking for something that would 'develop healthy women while allowing them the fun of moderate competition'. She turned to netball as a means to offer her students something different.

As a teacher of physical training at Smith College for women in Northampton, Massachusetts, Berenson used different rules to Baer's Basquette, stating that her 'gravest objection to the game is the rough element it contains'. She felt that it was important that the court was divided into playing areas so that 'snatching or batting the ball from the hands of another player' was not allowed in her version of the game (Reiss 1997 p. 253). Berenson's game, known as adapted basketball, was regarded as being advantageous as it meant that no one player could dominate the court or the play within the team (Reiss 1997). In 1901, Berenson published her version of the rules known as 'The Spalding[25] Rules'.

Berenson's rules were less restrictive than those of Clara Baer, as more players were introduced as a 'practical way to deal with the mobility issues of women playing in long skirts and restrictive attire' (Taylor 2001 p. 59, Treagus 2005). As Henderson et al. (1996) indicate, the majority of women who had leisure time at the end of the nineteenth century, and who had the opportunity to belong to sports clubs, were white, upper- and middle-class females. Therefore, it is suggested that the activities that these women participated in such as lacrosse, golf and tennis, came to be regarded as 'socially acceptable pastimes consistent with the refinement of proper ladies' (Henderson et al. 1996 p. 53). Both netball and hockey were regarded as 'ideal for girls', as the rules of these games prohibited physical contact and also gave clearly defined areas of play for those taking part (Skillen 2013 p. 35).

As the rest of this chapter demonstrates, a number of women from these social backgrounds went on to train and teach at P.E. training colleges for women in

[25] Albert Goodwill Spalding had been a talented American baseball player involved in the establishment of rules for baseball. He then went on to be a pioneer in the development of sporting equipment, such as footballs, tennis balls and kit bags. He was commissioned by James Naismith to create the first basketball and his design still bears his name to this day (Cobbs & McKelvey 2009).

both the USA and Europe (Glassford & Redmond 1979, Mechikoff & Estes 1993, Reiss 1997). This was to become important for the game's overall development.

4.1.4 The development of netball in England

Madame Martina Bergman-Österberg (or Martina Ostenburg as she is also referred to) came to London in 1881. She had trained at the Ling Institute in Stockholm and became concerned, not with what girls were being taught, but with providing courses to train teachers in how to instruct physical exercise. Österberg opened the first women's College of Education in Hampstead, England in 1885, following her appointment by the Board of Education. Her college was based on Ling's Swedish System of Gymnastics that she had studied in her home country before moving to the United Kingdom. The Royal Central Gymnastics Institute (RCGI) was established in Stockholm by Per Henrik Ling in 1814. A number of those who attended RCGI, including Madame Bergman-Österberg, became influential in the development of teacher training in other countries (Glassford & Redmond 1979).

Teacher training, and in particular P.E. teaching, was regarded as an acceptable occupation for middle-class women from the late nineteenth century (Kirk 2000). Madame Österberg established three Colleges of Physical Training in England at Hampstead (1895), Bedford (1903) and Bournemouth (1903), to instruct women on how to deliver the training systems developed by Mathias Roth and Per Ling (AENA 1926, Treagus 2005, Bergman Österberg Union 2010). These training systems were based on Swedish Gymnastics (for Elementary School pupils) and were a core part of Madame Österberg's teacher training programmes in England. This system was extremely formalised and utilised systematic free-standing movements of flexion and extension performed to strict commands. This approach also involved vaulting and other apparatus work and could easily be conducted with large numbers of children in small spaces (Phillips and Roper 2006).

Some women who trained at these colleges in England eventually went on to deliver teacher training in other parts of the UK. In Scotland, specialist teacher training programmes suited to the distinctive Scottish education system had been established in Dunfermline in 1905 (MacLean 1976). Team games such as

netball and hockey were used by educationalists in the early twentieth century to 'teach young girls about their expected future roles in society' (Skillen 2013 p. 40). Treagus (2005) suggests that netball taught girls to 'subjugate their own needs for the good of the team' and this, therefore, 'prepared girls for their roles as wives and mothers' (Treagus 2005 p. 90). Although the activities taught at training colleges were important, the 'culture of femininity that pervaded the way physical education was taught and the values of the female profession' were equally important to those in charge of these establishments (White 2003 p. 37). In this light, netball was regarded as an 'acceptable female activity as it did not 'carry the stigma of overt masculinity' (Scraton 1992 p. 28).

The inclusion of netball at training colleges for women in the early twentieth century should not come as a surprise, as women, such as Madame Österberg, who had trained at the Ling Institute in Sweden, and then established their own training colleges, regarded team games as 'the ideal method of character training' for young women (Skillen 2013 p. 40, Phillips & Roper 2006). Indeed, the Ling Association stated that:

> Netball is essentially character building, the selfish player has little or no chance … good temper, pluck, determination, extreme agility of mind and body, are universally found in netball players and best of all perhaps, that inexpressibly happy attribute, esprit de corps (Ling Association 1901 p. 29)

This statement reflected the views of Senda Berenson, who had stipulated that basketball helped to develop women's sense of 'fair play, impersonal interest, earnestness of purpose, the ability to give one's best not for one's own glorification but for the good of the team – the cause' (Berenson 1901, quoted in Reiss 1997 p. 253).

Despite many undoubted merits and progress, Madame Österberg was an 'uncompromising disciplinarian' and her training colleges promoted 'physically restrained versions of [the] male orientated' team games (Skillen 2013 p. 60). However, the views she held are unsurprising if examined in light of the contemporary attitudes discussed in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3. Madame

Österberg did little to challenge the perceptions of women's sporting abilities or place within society at that time (Hargreaves 2002).

Ten years after the opening of Madame Österberg's first college in Hampstead in 1895, it transferred to a site in Dartford where the subjects studied included Medical Gymnastics, Educational Gymnastics, Physiology, Chemistry, Hygiene, Dancing and Games.[26] It was at this time that Dr Toles (or Toll), a visiting lecturer from the USA, introduced the game of netball to the students at Dartford College. Netball appealed to Madame Österberg as she felt that girls' education should prepare them for later adult responsibilities as wives and mothers. This game suited these beliefs, as 'it could be played in a manner that retained femininity and decorum … and was not perceived as a threat to a women's reproductive function' (Taylor 2001 p. 3). When the game was introduced at her training college in Dartford, a number of adjustments were made, for example, 'metal rings were used instead of baskets, there was a larger ball and the area was divided into three sections' (Jobling & Barham 1991 p. 30, AENA 1926). These adjustments would make the game more recognisable today as netball rather than basketball. Dr Toles taught students the game and they, in turn, subsequently taught the game to women in other years at the college using a cascade method (Jobling & Barham 1991). Using this method to share netball with others may have also contributed to the misconception that netball, like many other modern sports, was invented in England. However, as discussed in Chapter 2, the spreading of such games by these Empire builders almost certainly perpetuated the views of female sports participation and femininity.

4.1.5 The All England Women's Netball Association (AENA)

By 1926 the All England Women's Netball Association was formed and, as Birley (1995a p. 207) states, 'its inaugural meeting was chaired by Miss Edith Thompson ... at The Tottenham Court Road YMCA', when over 230 delegates attended from schools, colleges and workplaces. By 1932, the first Inter County Tournament in England was held, with Essex becoming the first county champions. The first edition of Net Ball magazine, price 3d, was published the

[26] Recorded on a pamphlet for Dartford College (1903).

following year. In 1935, this association changed its name to the ‘All England Women’s Association for Netball and other hand ball games’ (AEWAN), before finally becoming the All England Netball Association (AENA) in 1944. At the Wembley Festival of Youth in 1937, netball was among the activities on display for those who attended, including King George VI. The development of the game was celebrated during the silver jubilee in a publication which stated that ‘netball is an ideal game for girls and women in every walk of life’ (AENA 1951 p. 7). In 1951, to celebrate twenty-five years of AENA, netball was on display as part of the Festival of Britain Exhibition in London. The first tour of South Africa and Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe) by a national English team took place in 1956, and then, three years later, in 1959, the South African national team toured England, winning 18 out of 25 matches. In 1961, England visited the West Indies for the first time and won all its matches (Watson 2015).

Illustration 2: 1956 England team tour South Africa

4.1.6 The development of netball in Scotland

In Scotland, teacher training at Dunfermline College of Hygiene and Physical Training was established with funding from Andrew Carnegie[27] at the start of the Edwardian period in Britain (1901–1910).

In October 1905, the Dunfermline College of Hygiene and Physical Training was opened in Dunfermline, Fife. This specialist College was established to train women in 'anatomy, remedial gymnastics, games, dance and swimming' (Massengale & Swanson 1997 p. 9). These activities were considered important for training women who were to become teachers. By 1908, men were also undertaking training there, but in 1931, male trainee teachers were transferred to the Scottish School of Physical Education and Hygiene, which had been established in Jordanhill, Glasgow (Small 1996, Peters 2012). In 1931, this training college was formally opened, and topics such as anatomy, physiology and medical gymnastics were on the syllabus for male students. Mr Hugh C. Brown, later a Director of the college, reflected: 'we were taught gymnastics with total dedication by two important Danes. They taught it efficiently but without humour and they taught it painfully' (Small 1996 p. 148). This may indicate what led to the development of two quite different styles of teacher training, and ultimately, of P.E. in Scottish schools. What became known as the Jordanhill Style appeared to be quite authoritarian in its approach to teaching and in the philosophy it instilled in its male students, which focused on skill acquisition and high levels of performance.

However, changes later occurred, and by the 1960s new swimming pools and games halls had been built at Jordanhill College and Mr Hugh C. Brown (who became Director) made games compulsory for all students. Brown felt that team games were 'a necessary part of the training of physical education specialists' and this thinking had a significant impact. In the following decades, many of the national teams, as well as national coaches of basketball, volleyball, cricket and

[27] Carnegie grew up in Dunfermline, Fife and in 1848 aged 12, emigrated with his family to the United States of America where he would go on to become one of the wealthiest men in the world. In 1901, he sold his Homestead Steel Works to J.P. Morgan for $480,000,000 and then used much of this wealth to establish libraries, colleges and schools around the world to improve the educational opportunities for the less fortunate (Small 1986, Carnegie Corporation 2015).

tennis, comprised former students of the Scottish School of P.E. (Small 1996 p. 150).

In Scotland, many women trained by Madame Österberg were central to the establishment of teacher training and proceeded to carry her ideas north of the border to Colleges of Education such as Dunfermline College of Hygiene and Physical Training. In 1906, Ethel Adair Impey became the first 'Lady Principal of Dunfermline College of Hygiene and Physical Training', a former colleague of Madame Österberg, and introduced netball as she wished to 'retain a flavour of Edwardian gentility and decorum' (MacLean 1976 p. 51). These are views which seem to reinforce opinions discussed in Chapter 2 in relation to female sports participation, femininity and gender expectations. In 1913, the College changed its name to Dunfermline College of Hygiene and Physical Education, embraced a different philosophy and trained teachers with the intention of developing freedom of physical expression and creativity in pupils (Harrison & Marker 1996). From 1939–1959, the College was situated at Woolmanhill in Aberdeen due to overcrowding at the original site in Dunfermline. However, importantly, netball continued to be one of the core sports taught to student teachers. During the Second World War, the college buildings were commandeered, and students moved to the Teacher Training Centre in Aberdeen. The location of the College in Aberdeen ensured that this area became a stronghold for the sport in the north east of Scotland as many students continued to play and develop clubs in local schools.

4.1.7 The Irish-Scots Catholic population and netball

It could be argued that netball particularly developed in areas of Lanarkshire and West-central Scotland where there had been a substantial increase in Irish-Catholic immigration since the mid-19th century. Branson (1975) indicates that immigrants lived in many large towns and cities across the country and were obviously distinctive due to, amongst other things, their accents. For subsequent generations, there were two main things that pointed to their ethnic origins: 'their names and often their Roman Catholic religion' (Branson 1975 p. 50). The incorporation of Catholic education within the state system, following the 1918 Education (Scotland) Act, meant the focus was on providing classrooms rather

than playing fields, as discussed in Chapter 2. In terms of sporting activities, netball, like soccer, was an activity that could be played at very little cost in these schools. The legacy of this surge in educational provision may explain why netball has a significant historical place within Catholic schools in these areas of Scotland.

4.1.8 The Scottish Netball Association

The Scottish Netball Association (SNA) was founded in 1946 by the initial pioneers of the game in Scotland – a dedicated group of players, teachers and lecturers who were supported by the sports council – the Central Council of Physical Recreation (1935) (Netball Scotland 2008). This organisation, which had both royal patronage from King George V and Queen Mary, and was supported by the Board of Education, was established on 18th June 1935 by physical educationalist Phyllis Colson (Leeworthy 2012). The core objective of this Council was, and still is, to bring together organisations who deliver sport and recreation. In 1935, the council had 80 members and, although it changed its name in 1987 to the Sport and Recreation Alliance, it had progressed to contain four times as many members by 2015 (Houlihan 2008, Sport and Recreation Alliance 2017).

When the Scottish Netball Association was established (renamed Netball Scotland 12th February 2007), the strongholds of the game in Scotland were Glasgow, Lanarkshire and Aberdeen. It might be the case that the strength of netball in Glasgow and Lanarkshire is due to the significantly large presence, compared to the rest of Scotland, of denominational schools in these areas following the implementation of the 1918 Education (Scotland) Act, as discussed in Chapter 2. Similarly, it is very likely that the support for the game in Aberdeen was due to the fact that Dunfermline College of Hygiene and Physical Education was located in the city for twenty years. Although the sport was firmly established in the West of Scotland, the locations of Dunfermline College of Education in Dunfermline, Aberdeen, Cramond and Edinburgh city centre, probably widened game exposure across the country (MacLean 1976, University of Edinburgh 2015b).

sportscotland (2001) suggests that, although socialisation and friendship are significant reasons for attending a sports club, it is the competitive element that is important to a club's identity. Participation figures show that the highest proportions of female-only clubs in Scotland are in netball (95%), hockey (37%) and gymnastics (29%) (**sport**scotland 2008b). In national surveys, the figures for netball are not usually given in isolation but are instead combined with other sports, such as volleyball or basketball.[28] For example, from 2006–8, one percent of the adult female population (aged 16 years and above) played basketball, netball or volleyball. In Scotland, **sport**scotland participation rates[29] estimate that 0.5 percent of the adult female population and 5.9 percent of girls aged 8–15 participate in netball (**sport**scotland 2008a). The most detailed membership records currently available show the number of netball members in schools, junior and senior clubs in Scotland (Netball Scotland 2017). Netball Scotland records the total number of affiliated members as of 2017 as 6,591 (5,927 individual members, and 664 school members), with 500,000 participant sessions being held in the last season (Netball Scotland 2017). There are 157 clubs in total divided into 35 senior clubs, 18 junior clubs, 33 clubs that have both junior and senior sections, 15 Further Education/Higher Education clubs, and 56 Bounce Back to Netball clubs. There are 469 primary schools and 139 secondary schools affiliated to Netball Scotland spread across the country, although almost a third of schools are located in the West and West Central belt of Scotland.[30] Within this area, both Greater Glasgow and Lanarkshire have, historically, been key areas for netball (Carstairs & Morris 1991).

This section has examined the growth, development and spread of netball around the world and in Scotland. This provides an understanding of the sport and the place it has within Scottish society.

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[28] sportscotland includes the data for netball (as an indoor, team, hall sport) along with basketball and volleyball and presents a combined participant figure of 1% for the three activities; to present each individually may be statistically unreliable.

[29] sportscotland gather the participation rates of adults (over 16 years of age). Participation is defined as having taken part in an activity at least once within the previous 4 weeks (sportscotland 2008a p. 34).

[30] For the purposes of this study, this region includes the areas previously known as Strathclyde, Ayrshire, Greater Glasgow, Lanarkshire and Dumfries and Galloway.

4.2 Clothing and Netball Participation

The previous section outlined the development of netball from its origins in the USA to its spread to the UK and Scotland. This section explores further themes identified in Chapter 2 regarding women's clothing and female physical activity.

In 1926, AENA Vice President Amy M. Ward stated that, as a pupil in a middle-class school, 'we had a sensible school uniform, but mothers would undermine it with petticoats and boned-stays', with some school teams wearing 'straw hats when they played out of doors' (AENA 1926 p. 9). In 1984 (AENA 1984 p. 17), *Netball Magazine* reported on a match played in 1903 which showed differences that had occurred since the beginning of the twentieth century:

> Women dressed in long white skirts, long sleeved blouses, ties and straw boaters ... nine players in a team ... with different coloured ties ... played at a slow and sedate pace as it was considered unfeminine ... to be seen perspiring (hence all the white clothing).

Each player also had a pennant that indicated her position in the team. *Netball Magazine* (AENA 1984 p. 17) indicates that the positional names for the 1903 game were different from those in the 1901 Ling Association rules, which may indicate that the new rules and name changes had not been fully integrated: Chucker (Shooter), Right Attacker (not allowed in the shooting circle only the attacking third of the court), Left Attacker (not allowed in the shooting circle only the attacking third of the court), Right Centre (only in the centre third of the court), Left Centre (only in the centre third of the court), Right Defence (not allowed in the shooting circle but only the defensive third of the court), Left Defence (not allowed in the shooting circle but only the defensive third of the court). The restricted mobility throughout the court (limited playing area, no running or dribbling the ball) slowed the game down and 'placed an emphasis on team work' (Treagus 2005 p. 92) that intended to teach 'women how to make rapid decisions and to cooperate' (Treagus 2005 p. 95). Early in the twentieth century, netball was a game predominantly played outdoors on grass or on an available tennis court. Evidence of this can be seen in films from the Scottish National Archive, such as *The Children's Story* (Shaw 1938) and *Fitness for Girls* (Campbell Harper

Films 1953), which show girls playing netball outdoors on grass pitches with a leather ball, in belted gym dresses, with a coloured band to indicate teams. This section provides the historical context and background of netball in relation to perceptions of femininity and female physical activity.

4.3 The Development of Scottish International Matches

This section outlines the development of netball in Scotland and, in particular, international matches. Illustration 3 is an early photograph of netball players, attributed to either The High School of Glasgow or Notre Dame Secondary School in 1932. It is interesting that in 1897 the Sisters of Notre Dame de Namur opened the High School for Girls in Dowanhill, Glasgow: now known as the Notre Dame Secondary School for Girls, where home international matches were later played. However, The High School of Glasgow, Elmbank Street, which was founded much earlier and transferred to the Glasgow School Board following the 1872 Education (Scotland) Act (The High School of Glasgow 2016), does not appear to have any links with netball.

The role of Notre Dame Secondary is important as it indicates netball had become an activity undertaken in Glasgow schools within 25 years of the opening of the first female teacher training college in Scotland and was already part of school life in the 1930s (Fitzpatrick 1986).

Illustration 3: 1932 Glasgow schoolgirls[31]

In 1938, the Middlesex team, who were country champions, represented England against Scotland at the Glasgow Exhibition. An International Triangular Tournament held in 1949 involving Scotland, Wales and hosts England saw the first Scottish national representative team selected (Appendix 1).[32]

Selection for the national team took place at an outdoor event held at Bellahouston Secondary School in Glasgow with trialists coming from across Scotland; 10 from Aberdeen, 12 from the East, 12 from the West, and 6 from the South of Scotland. This suggests that the game was being played across much of Scotland by this time. Following this try-out, the final squad selected, comprising seven players and two reserves, travelled to the General Electric Company, Preston Road, Wembley, to play England and Wales.[33] Illustration 4 shows the Scottish team wearing white aertex shirts, a cloth badge of a thistle sewn on, and white shorts.

[31] Back row (l-r) Elma McGrath, unknown, Janey Goodier, unknown. Front row (l-r) Muriel Glass, Cissie Coughlan, unknown. (Picture courtesy of Kathleen McGinley).

[32] The team was selected during the 1947/48 season although the event took place in 1949.

[33] Players and reserves are detailed in Appendix 4.

Illustration 4: 1949 First Scotland international team[34]

Interestingly, since this time, the Scottish international team have had purple in their uniform. Netball Scotland indicates this is due to the initial team borrowing a purple strip from Essex Netball. As this colour reflected the thistle, the national emblem of Scotland, it was decided to register this as the national colour along with blue from the Saltire, as the second team colour. The result of the Triangular Tournament in May 1949 saw England overall winners with Scotland third, losing both matches, 25–3 against England and 14–13 against Wales. Illustration 5 shows the players and officials who took part in this event at a dinner on 7th May 1949.

34 Back row (l-r) S. McGuire, B. Smith, D. Fitpatrick, H. Fleming, E. McLean, R. Johnston, C. Sweeney. Front row (l-r) H. Glen, N. Brebner, R. Renfrew (C), L. Hunter. (Picture courtesy of Kathleen McGinley).

Illustration 5: 1949 Triangular Tournament dinner[35]

In this tournament, England won both games 25–3 against Scotland as well as against Wales. Wales defeated Scotland 14–13, and Scotland returned without a win from either game. It was not until 1953 that Scotland played its first international game on home soil against Wales in the grounds of Notre Dame Secondary School in Glasgow, which Scotland won 14–11. In the same year, a team also travelled to play in Northern Ireland (Illustration 6) and it is likely that the difference in team uniforms is due to a lack of funding at that time, which meant that players would fundraise to attend events and subsidise kit in a less corporate manner than today. In 1954, a Scottish team travelled to play its first match in Wales (Illustration 7).

[35] Picture courtesy of Kathleen McGinley.

Illustration 6: 1953 Northern Ireland V Scotland [36]

Illustration 7: 1954 Scotland team first home international against Wales [37]

In 1955, the All England Netball Association (AENA) held a home nations international tournament at the Harringay Arena in London. The Scotland team, who played in purple and green colours, are shown in Illustration 8. Importantly, in relation to the history of the development of netball in Scotland, the information

[36] Scottish team on the right of the picture (l-r) Theresa McCartney (C), Margaret Devine, Kathleen Farrell, Susan McLennon, Elizabeth McGavigan, Sheila Ferguson, Lena Calder.

[37] Back row (l-r) Sheila Ferguson, Lena Calder, Betty Gavigan, Susan McLennon. Front row (l-r) Kathleen Farrell, Theresa McCartney, Margaret Devine. (Picture courtesy of Kathleen McGinley).

about players indicates that five were teachers (four of P.E.), one a student and one an office clerk.[38]

Illustration 8: 1955 Scotland team, London. (AENA 1955, Official Programme p. 6)

SHOOTER
M. Gunning

DEFENDING CENTRE
C. Breslin

ATTACK
S. Ferguson

CENTRE
L. Curley

DEFENCE
M. Duncan

ATTACKING CENTRE
C. O'Donnell

GOALKEEPER
L. Calder (*Captain*)

The Welsh Netball Association held the home nations' international tournament at Sophia Gardens Pavilion, Cardiff, on 13th April 1957. The only scores recorded for this tournament are those by Welsh Netball from their matches, who lost to both England (5–34) and Scotland (9–16) (Welsh Netball 2017).

In 1957, England took part in a match against 'the Rest of the Empire' in London at the Empire Pool, Wembley. Also, that year, following an Australian tour of England, discussions took place between England, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and the West Indies to agree the international rules and governance

[38] There is no information to indicate the geographic location of either the clubs or the players in this team.

of the sport. In 1958, Scotland hosted the home nations' international event at Montrose Canteen, Hillington, Glasgow. The team that won was that which won two of their three matches, but, unfortunately, scores or final results from these events have not been recorded.

On 10th March 1962, a home nation event was held at Scotland's National Recreation Centre, Inverclyde, Largs. Eight of the nine players in the Scotland team were teachers, and three of these were teachers of P.E. At this tournament, Scotland placed second, defeating Northern Ireland 39–7, Wales 29–20 and losing 8–48 against overall winners, England. Later in that same year, on 20th October 1962, the same Scotland team took part in another home nation international event held at the Empire Pool, Wembley. However, the results of this event have not been recorded.[39]

The following year, 2nd March 1963 at St Andrews, the Scotland international team defeated a Scottish Universities team, 57–30. The Scotland team consisted of a number of players who had represented the country at Wembley in 1962.

In 1965, at the home nations' international, which took place at the National Recreation Centre, Crystal Palace, England, Scotland again came second to England. The team defeated Northern Ireland 25–12, Wales 31–16 before losing to England 31–8.

Scotland was one of eleven teams that took part in the first World Netball Tournament in 1963 (Illustration 9). The Scotland team won two of its ten games at this event, defeating Northern Ireland 16–51 on 3rd August and Ceylon 34–39 on 14th August 1963, the final day of the tournament. In its other matches, Scotland lost their opening game on 2nd August 1963 to South Africa (21–59), followed by defeats to Wales (47–76), Jamaica (20–42), Trinidad and Tobago (28–36), England (63–17), Australia (52–12), New Zealand (55–7) and West Indies (33–34) over the remaining twelve days of play (Mills 2015).

[39] I have been given access to the results recorded during these events by Scotland delegates in attendance at the time, but I have not been able to find similar information for other nations.

Illustration 9: 1963 Scotland team, First World Championships [40]

The second World Netball Championships were held at the Matthews Basket Ball Centre in Perth, Australia, from 13th–27 August 1967. This time, the Scotland team (Illustration 10) came seventh out of the eight teams who competed.

[40] (l-r) Mary Bocker, Jean Browning, Margaret Fay, Isabel Johnston, Celia Kerrigan, Margaret McCarthy, Margaret McKenna, Agnes O'Brien, Moira Ord, May Rooney (C). (Courtesy of Moira Ord).

Illustration 10: 1967 Scotland team, Second World Championships, Perth, Australia [41]

The players and officials who travelled to Australia for this event were; Margaret Urquhart (Team Manager), Katie Pye (Coach), Maeve Wilson (Umpire and Delegate), Muriel Getty (Delegate and President S.N.A.), Moira Ord (Wing Attack and Captain), Elizabeth Gavin (Goal Attack and Vice-Captain), Agnes O'Brien (Goal Keeper), Ann Davidson (Goal Shooter), Mairie Fairie (Centre), Fiona Campbell (Goal Keeper), Jill Galbraith (Goal Defence), Alice McAuley (Goal Defence), Priscilla Kerr (Wing Defence), Joan Church (Wing Attack) and Nan Cameron (Goal Attack).

4.3.1 International Federation of Netball Associations (IFNA)

As mentioned earlier, there was an initial meeting in England in 1958 and, two years later, representatives from Australia, England, New Zealand, South Africa and the West Indies met in Ceylon (now Sri Lanka) and established the International Federation of Women's Basketball and Netball (IFNA [42]). This meeting also introduced an international code of rules for netball along with a change to the positional names and an increase of match lengths to sixty minutes.

[41] Picture courtesy of Kathleen McGinley.

[42] From 2012, the IFNA was renamed the International Netball Federation (INF).

Two years later, in 1962, Scotland became a member of the IFNA. The first World Tournament was held in the following year in 1963 at Chelsea College of Physical Education, Eastbourne, England with fifteen teams (Illustration 11). The teams arrived in London on 31st July 1963 before transferring to Eastbourne the following day for an informal dinner. The event was opened with a parade of teams on 2nd August followed by the first match between Australia and Ceylon (82–12). Throughout the event there were excursions to local sites of interest, Council Meetings, Conferences on Coaching, Rules and Umpiring, as well as entertainment, including netball films and a celebration of the first anniversary of Jamaican Independence. At the end of the inaugural tournament, Scotland placed eighth out of the eleven teams participating in Eastbourne. The team won three of its ten matches, scoring 275 goals and conceding 451 (Appendix 2). The tournament, renamed the Netball World Cup in 2015, is held every four years and Scotland has played in every championship since 1963.

Illustration 11: Advert for the First World Netball Tournament (Magnay 1991 p. 11)

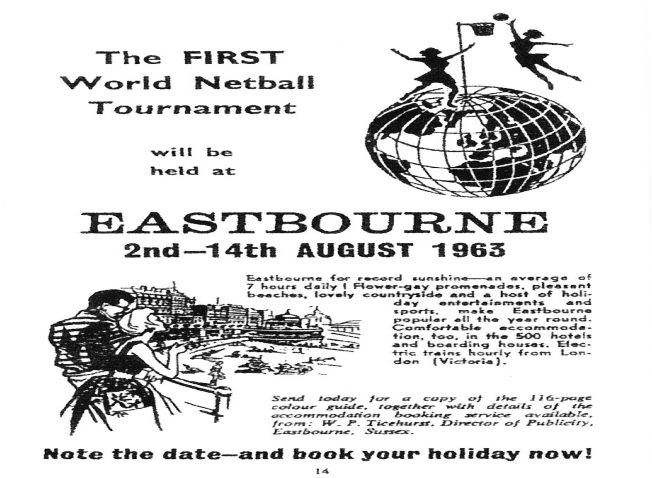


Table 1: Netball World Championship Hosts

Year	World Championship Host	Winners	Teams
1963	Eastbourne, England	Australia	11
1967	Perth, Australia	New Zealand	8
1971	Kingston, Jamaica	Australia	9
1975	Auckland, New Zealand	Australia	11
1979	Port of Spain, Trinidad & Tobago	Australia, New Zealand & Trinidad & Tobago	19
1983	Singapore	Australia	14
1987	Glasgow, Scotland	New Zealand	17
1991	Sydney, Australia	Australia	20
1995	Birmingham, England	Australia	27
1999	Christchurch, New Zealand	Australia	26
2003	Kingston, Jamaica	New Zealand	24
2007	Auckland, New Zealand	Australia	16
2011	Singapore City, Singapore	Australia	16
2015	Sydney	Australia	16
2019	Liverpool, England	New Zealand	16

This section provides a timeline which shows the development of international matches from a Scottish perspective. This demonstrates the pathways for players to progress, initially from school level, onto international performance as, by the mid-1960s, the development pathways began to evolve. Initially, players only had local and then national occasions to play netball, but these progressed to international opportunities through invitational events and then the World Championships. The next section shows how women in netball have challenged the stereotypes discussed in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 to provide pathways which have extended prospects, for example, how the Youth Games and Commonwealth Games have provided additional opportunities for players at an elite level.

4.4 Netball World Youth Games and the Commonwealth Games

Further development of the game has occurred internationally at youth and at Commonwealth Games levels. These opportunities provide further pathways into elite performance of the sport for young women. In 1988, the first Netball World Youth Games for Under 21 Players were hosted in Canberra as part of Australia's Bicentennial Celebrations. The World Youth Games have subsequently taken place in Fiji (1992), Canada (1996), Wales (2000), the USA (2005), and the Cook Islands (2009).

During the 1990 Commonwealth Games in New Zealand, netball was a demonstration event and it was not until 1998 that the sport became fully incorporated into the Commonwealth Games programme in Kuala Lumpur.

Table 2: Commonwealth Games Host Cities and Netball Gold Medallists

Year	**Host**	**Winner**
1998	Kuala Lumpur	Australia
2002	England	Australia
2006	Melbourne	New Zealand
2010	Delhi	New Zealand
2014	Scotland	Australia
2018	Australia	England

It is not clear why netball has not been included earlier in the Commonwealth Games. It may be that the numbers of players that would need to be added to the event would be too great to allow it to be included, as other events would need to be removed. However, when a host nation has had a strong netball tradition, the game has been included. As a result, it was part of the programme in the 2014 Commonwealth Games held in Glasgow and the 2018 Commonwealth Games in Australia.

4.5 Women, Netball and the Olympics Games

This section discusses why, although it has a global presence for elite performers, netball is not yet an Olympic sport. Women's participation in the Olympic Games has been an issue since the games began in 1896. Reflecting the attitudes of the time, as outlined in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3, Pierre de Coubertin, founder of the modern Olympic Games, did not wish women to participate at all, whereas the Communist regimes did not mind who won medals, as long as these countries were high up in the medal table (Toohey & Veal 2007). Hargreaves (1994 p. 198) points out that women were only able to compete in events that 'met the criteria of acceptability' discussed earlier. Although women began competing at the Olympic Games events from 1900, even athletic events were seen as 'a side-show, lacking the intensity and vigour of men's competitions' (Cashmore 2000 p. 169). As Table 3 shows, although no women took part in any events in 1896, there has been a steady improvement in the levels of female participants: at the 2016 Olympic Games, 45 percent of participants were women (Childs 1995, Toohey & Veal 2007, IOC 2016).

Table 3: Female Olympic Participation

Year	Sports	Women's Events	Total Events	% of women's events	Women participants	% of women participants
1900	2	2	95	2.1	22	2.2
1920	2	8	154	5.2	63	2.4
1936	4	15	129	11.6	331	8.3
1948	5	19	136	14.0	390	9.5
1956	5	26	151	17.2	376	13.3
1968	7	39	172	22.7	781	14.2
1976	11	49	198	24.7	1,260	20.7
1988	17	72	237	30.4	2,194	26.1
1996	21	97	271	35.8	3,512	34.0
2004	26	125	301	41.5	4,329	40.7
2016	28	145	306	47.4	4,700	45.0

4.5.1 Netball and the Olympic Games

Although netball became a recognised Olympic Games sport in 1995, it still remains to be played as a full medal sport at the Olympic Games. When examining the International Olympic Committee's Olympic Charter, it can be noted that a sport dominated by women has the potential from being banned from participation as it has not yet gained full gender equity. Therefore, male opportunities to play in leagues, competitions and to officiate have been increasing. In recent years, the BBC obtained support from 600,000 people on its website to back the campaign for the game to be included in the 2016 Olympics. However, other team games that have been included for women at the Olympics are volleyball (1964), basketball and handball (1976), and football and softball (1996) (Toohey & Veal 2007).

4.5.2 Male participation in netball

Although netball is a minority sport for males, recently it has been developing quickly in countries such as New Zealand, Australia, South Africa, England and Canada (Tagg 2008). Yet, it was only in 1991, after a 'twelve-year fight', that the IFNA agreed to men 'playing the game under the same organisational umbrella as women' (Magnay 1991 p. 8). It was also agreed in 1991 to 'grant the right' to men to be involved as 'umpires, scorers and time-keepers in international matches' (ibid.). In New Zealand, men had been involved in the early development of netball, but women fairly quickly dominated the game. By 1935, there were only three men out of thirty-one delegates at a national meeting (Nauright & Broomhall 1994).

Tagg (2008 p. 412) points out that men who participate in the game 'are often assumed to be sissies and faggots' and, although many boys play in primary school in Scotland, very few are able to continue this sport once they reach secondary school, as there no pathways available for them at present. In the United Kingdom, netball is not a curricular option for most boys in secondary schools. However, there are male players and leagues currently developing in England but, to date, none have been established in Scotland.

4.5.3 Netball and television

In 2005 AENA established a franchise with Sky Sports to organise an eight-team Superleague. All teams taking part were made up of international players and matches were televised every Thursday during the season. Initially, the majority of teams and players came from English clubs, but, in 2008, after applying twice before and being rejected, 'Glasgow Wildcats' were included along with a team from Wales. Unfortunately, after two or three seasons, it became clear that the Scottish or Welsh teams would be ninth or tenth at the end of the event and it was mutually agreed that both teams should withdraw from the Superleague. This changed in 2016, when Netball Scotland was awarded one of the ten franchises (as the Sirens) to participate in the Vitality Netball Superleague. In its inaugural season (2016/17), the Sirens competed against one Welsh and eight English teams over a four-month season, finishing in sixth place overall.

4.6 Recent Developments in Netball

The previous sections have examined the development of netball from the late 1890s onwards. However, netball has not remained the same over the years, as it has continued to adapt, evolve and progress. For most of its history, netball has not developed into the all-encompassing game that football has become in Scottish sporting culture (Clarke 2004). This may be due to a lack of media coverage, lack of Olympic status, the view that netball is seen as a female-only sport or a general lack of understanding of female sports in Scottish society. However, this has begun to change with increased coverage of the game, both in Scotland and the UK, with greater use of social media by clubs and events as well as Sky Sports coverage of the Superleague matches.

In 2008, IFNA introduced Fast Net, now called Fast5, as a form of netball designed to make the game more television- and spectator-friendly, to test players' fitness levels, ability and tactical awareness. This game adapts the existing rules of netball and is played on a full court with six-minute quarters where there are rolling substitutions. The centre pass to restart is taken by the team who conceded the last goal and shots for three points being taken from outside the shooting circle by the Goal Attack and Goal Shooter. Also, coaches can nominate one quarter of the match as their 'Power Play', where goals scored count for double points (Netball Scotland 2012a). A large Fast Net event was held in Manchester with teams from Australia, New Zealand, Jamaica and England taking part to promote this new form of the game. In 2010, New Zealand won this competition in Liverpool with England claiming victory in 2011. In 2012, the FAST5 Netball World Series took place in Auckland, New Zealand. In addition, Bounce Back 2 Netball, was launched in Scotland following the Commonwealth Games in Glasgow in 2014. This initiative was very successful, and a 58 percent increase in netball club membership in Scotland has been dubbed 'the Commonwealth Games effect'. The most recent development by Netball Scotland is Walking Netball, launched in 2017. This is a slower alternative to netball and is generally targeted at the older population to provide a safe and enjoyable physical activity session.

4.7 Summary

This chapter has recorded developments of the playing of netball in the USA and shown its growth around the world, with particular focus on the history of the game in Scotland. How the game of netball has progressed to national and international matches as well as international games and events has also been surveyed, along with recent developments in the game.

The previous three chapters serve to situate this thesis within the historical literature and existing research to provide a contemporary context for this study. Below is a summary that highlights the published knowledge and reveals gaps in the evidence presented in Chapters 2, 3 and 4 in relation to the research questions presented in Chapter 1. These chapters provide a historical and societal background regarding lifelong physical activity and netball participation, as it is not possible to understand the current situation in Scottish netball without being able to set it within a wider historical perspective.

The key learning that can be drawn from these chapters includes the following points:

- Historically, netball has been considered an ‘acceptable’ physical activity in which females can participate. Chapters 2 and 3 consider the historical development of feminism and societal expectations surrounding female sports participation. The impact of physical activity and physical education choices during adolescence and the implications of disengagement on wider long-term health issues are significant factors.
- Exploring the historical context helps us to understand how views regarding female sporting choices have developed and become ‘accepted’ over time. For example, playgrounds and P.T. was introduced to encourage boys to attend school by being physically active, whereas girls of the same period were given lessons on housekeeping and motherhood. Yet, this has slowly changed though campaigns to increase equality and thus provide access to opportunities to engage in physical activity for all learners.

- Unusually, netball is a sport not derived from a ‘male’ game and has not traditionally utilised ‘male’ spaces to play. This has afforded women opportunities to participate in an all-female environment when playing netball, and Chapter 4 explores the clear progression pathways from local clubs, to regional, national, and international competition. This means that netball is uniquely placed to give women leadership roles, opportunities, and empowerment in a sporting context.

By reflecting on the evidence explored in these chapters, there are clear gaps in the knowledge base, which have been revealed in relation to the research questions; examining the significance of netball in the lives of a group of women in Scotland and how this sport supports their lifelong participation. More general gaps in the literature reveal that little empirical work has been conducted regarding the socio-demographic characteristics of netball, and few attempts have been made to explore women’s experiences of team sports in Scotland. The following gaps have been identified:

- There is limited historical or contemporary evidence relating to netball participation in Scotland and how this team game can support continued physical activity and sports participation.
- There is limited specific research which explores the factors which support life-long participation in team sports within a Scottish context, such as the significance of the school experience.

The next four chapters explore these gaps from my unique perspective, as the researcher, to provide insight into the contemporary context of netball participation in Scotland. These chapters also attempt to address these areas and illustrate the significance of enabling and reinforcing factors which have helped to support the women in this study to continue to be netball participants.

Chapter 5 reflects on the methods and methodology used to answer the following research questions:

- In what ways does netball support lifelong female physical activity/participation in Scotland? For example, school opportunities, local clubs and visibility of female players at international level.

- What influences/factors have supported women who have continued to play netball through their life course? For example, opportunities and clear pathways to support engagement and participation in this sport.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

Previous chapters have discussed issues that have traditionally influenced female sports participation. In Chapter 1, my own background as a P.E. teacher and netball player was explained, as this personal history means that I bring experience of the social world to this study about female netball participation in Scotland. Walliman (2011 p. 15) suggests that research is about 'acquiring knowledge and developing understanding, collecting facts and interpreting them to build up a picture of the world around us' so that the researcher can understand theoretical traditions or paradigms. Therefore, it is important to consider which research approaches, methods and tools are appropriate in relation to my own social perspective and the type of research to be carried out. This chapter discusses research paradigms, methodologies and tools, and explains the approach taken in this study.

5.1 Methodological Approaches

There are three key paradigms from which a researcher can operate: positivist, interpretive, and critical (Curtner-Smith 2002). Each paradigm must be considered so that it is possible to 'understand the world of human activity' from differing perspectives (Curtner-Smith (2002 p. 36). Sparkes (1992) defines a paradigm as a world view or perspective that ensures research is not carried out in social isolation, as researchers share ideas, concepts and methods as discrete groups. Sparkes (1992) also suggests that these distinct paradigms mean that differing ontological, epistemological and methodological approaches will influence the way in which the researcher carries out their work. The researcher must be aware of their own ontological and epistemological position and how these influence research questions, methodological choices, and ultimately, how the research findings will be shown (Sparkes 1992, Clarke & Humberstone 1997). To conduct meaningful research, it is important to explore the range of possible paradigms that might be used to situate the research and thereby determine the most appropriate approach. Further explanations of positivist, interpretive and critical paradigms as philosophical or epistemological theories are explored by Sparkes (1992), Walliman (2001), Curtner-Smith (2002), Gratton and Jones

(2004), Bryman (2008) and Matthews and Ross (2010). Table 4 summarises these theoretical traditions within which a social researcher can situate their work.

Table 4: Research Paradigms (Sparkes 1992 p. 21, Figure 1.1)

Assumptions	**Paradigm**		
	Positivist	**Interpretive**	**Critical**
Ontology	External-Realist	Internal-Idealist, Relativist	External-Realist *OR* Internal-Idealist
Epistemology	Objectivist, Dualist	Subjectivist, Interactive	Subjectivist, Interactive
Methodology	Nomothetic, Experimental, Manipulative	Ideographic, Hermeneutical, Dialectical	Ideographic, Participative, Transformative
Interests	Predication and Control (Technical)	Understanding and Interpretation (Practical)	Emancipation (Criticism and Liberation)

This table sets out the different approaches covered by each paradigm and shows the ontological and epistemological methods utilised. Ontology refers to 'the theory of being', which reflects our own belief system and interpretation of reality, while epistemology signifies how the researcher comes to understand or 'know' that reality. Therefore, each person's reality and epistemology or 'theory of knowledge', will be different, depending on our individual principles (David & Sutton 2001 p. 39).

Once a researcher has established their ontological and epistemological perspectives, the methodology and methods by which to conduct research can then be carried out in line with these principles. Curtner-Smith (2002) explores the basis for each paradigm and the methods, designs, data collection and analysis that could be used for each. For example, someone conducting research with a positivist ontology and epistemology would use methodology that would be different from a researcher using an interpretive or critical approach. This

chapter explores each of the approaches shown in Table 4 in order to understand the differences between each before explaining the approach taken in this thesis.

5.1.1 Positivist approach

Positivism has at its core the need to make sense of the world in a scientific manner. The foundations of positivism, or positivist philosophy, established by French philosopher Auguste Comte (1798–1857) and the English philosopher John Stuart Mill (1806–1873), is the 'idea of the unity of scientific method', that the pure sciences can provide general rules of human behaviour that cover both the individual and wider society (von Wright 1993). Comte is generally regarded as the founder of sociology and he believed that society could be examined objectively and in a scientific manner by looking for causal explanation of human behaviours to find meanings in social phenomena (Swingewood 2000).

John Stuart Mill was an English philosopher who lived during the Enlightenment and who corresponded frequently with Comte. He attempted to provide scientific laws to explain the human mind in the same way that scientists attempted to explain the natural world around them (Skorupski 1989, Stafford 1998). As Table 4 indicates, a positivist approach uses surveys and experiments, those that can be controlled, measured and observed, to explain societal behaviours (Kvale & Brinkmann 2009, Gratton & Jones 2004).

Giddens (1974) suggests that, in positivist research, there are three key aspects, methodological procedures, generalisations or rules that can be established. In developing these ideas, a group of academics, including philosophers, social scientists and mathematicians, Rudolph Carnap, Herbert Feigel, Hans Hahn, Victor Kraft, Otto Neurath, met at the University of Vienna in the 1920s to discuss how the laws of science could be applied to human activity (Halfpenny 1982, Bryant 1985). This group, collectively known as the Vienna Circle (of Logical Positivists), met weekly under the leadership of Moritz Schlick to discuss the philosophy of science. They jointly published *The Scientific World Conception: The Vienna Circle* in 1929.

The ideas from the Vienna Circle appear in positivist research as empirical laws about human behaviour and interactions which are 'based on acceptance as fact

that the world around us is real and that we can find out about these realities' (Walliman 2011 p. 21). These generalisations can be achieved by utilising a scientific approach in their methodology in order to fully understand the complexities of human relations at both interpersonal and societal levels.

Generally, then, it can be assumed that positive researchers look to examine the social world by being objective, gathering value-free empirical data to provide information about causal relationships within the topic or research question they are studying (Giddens 1976, Bryant & Jary 2001, Curtner-Smith 2002, Gratton & Jones 2004, Matthews & Ross 2010, Walliman 2011).

5.1.2 Interpretive approach

German philosophers and sociologists Georg Simmel (1858–1918) and Max Weber (1864–1920) rejected the scientific standpoint of positivism and thought that, in order to understand the social world, sociology had to examine human interactions and the meanings of our actions (von Wright 1993, Gane 2004). Weber suggested that research can never be value-free, because research is driven by values. However, the researcher is required to be value-neutral to ensure that their values do not influence the outcome of their work. The interpretive approach (also known as relativism, idealism, constructivism or constructionism) is able to examine feelings, thoughts and external factors and can suggest reasons for behaviour, whereas a positivist approach seeks to determine the causality between events (Gratton & Jones 2004, Walliman 2011). For example, in their study on sporting subcultures, Donnelly and Young (1988) wanted to investigate the meaning that individuals placed on the process of socialisation into groups rather than trying to produce rules or generalisations about the process.

Researchers who use an interpretive approach believe that it is not possible to produce rules or laws about human behaviour as there are many possible ways of understanding the social world, especially when people are interacting with each other in the social environment (Taylor et al. 1996, Curtner-Smith 2002).

Interpretive social scientists would suggest that positivism is unable to represent social phenomena accurately as the researcher, as a social actor, cannot

observe from ‘outside the system’ as they (the researcher) are ‘inextricably bound to the human situation which he/she is studying’ (Walliman 2001 p. 17). Interpretivism suggests that the world around us cannot be fully understood if only examined in terms of scientific rules or general rules (Burrell & Morgan 1979, Bryman 2008). For the researcher, this means trying to understand human actions by studying them in their lived social setting so that the ‘diversity of social roles’ can be understood ‘through ... interactions’ (Bilton et al. 1997 p. 623).

The main strengths of the interpretive approach is that it produces qualitative findings that give the researcher data to interpret, which implies that this type of data is subjective. This means that a researcher utilising this approach needs to acknowledge this subjectivity when exploring the social world (Sparkes 1992, Hammersley 2000, Corbin and Strauss 2008).

5.1.3 Critical approach

Critical theory attempts to move beyond both positivist and interpretive approaches to understanding society (David & Sutton 2001). German sociologists and philosophers Max Horkheimer (1895–1973) and Karl Marx (1818–1883) are the key theorists of this paradigm. This approach examines human behaviour at a societal level rather than as individuals. However, Gibson (1986) suggests that there is not a single, distinct theory within this paradigm; rather, it should be regarded as multiple theories.

This theoretical model is concerned with what is happening on a wider societal (macro) level rather than at an individual (micro) level. Critical theorists would argue that the processes that shape society must be examined so that the findings can be seen in relation to those contexts. The term, critical theory, was first used in 1937 after several scholars of the Frankfurt Institute for Social Research moved to the USA. Avato and Gebhardt (1978) suggest that critical theory is an overarching label for several ideas brought together in the Frankfurt Institute for Social Research. This group, known as the Frankfurt School, developed at the University of Frankfurt during the 1920s before moving to America prior to the Second World War, and included Horkheimer, Adorno, Benjamin, Marcuse and Habermas (Cuff, Sharrock & Francis 1998). They returned to Germany in the 1950s and, although this group developed critical

theory, it has its basis in positivism and their focus was on understanding how humans are affected by external factors (David & Sutton 2001).

Critical realists, such as British philosophers Roy Bhaskar and Rom Harré, believe, as do positivists, that the social world can be observed and analysed free from human consciousness. However, critical realists look beyond analysing processes and use quantitative methods to study the connections that underpin how societies function (David & Sutton 2001, Denzin & Lincoln 2013).

A critical approach examines the hidden structures, dominant ideologies and power relations within the social world. In using this approach, an accurate understanding of the social world is achieved by gathering both qualitative and quantitative data (Matthews & Ross 2010).

5.1.4 Pragmatic paradigm

The pragmatic paradigm is the philosophical basis that underpins mixed methods research (Revez & Borges 2019). This is a more flexible worldview than the other paradigms discussed above, which are fixed in terms of the tools and methods that can be used within them. It is a view that focuses on what works and is useful for guiding research design when combining different approaches. This paradigm focuses on the methods that can be used to answer the research question rather than being rigidly bound by one philosophical basis. When conducting research from this perspective, the focus moves from the method to the research problem itself to generate both the ontology and epistemology to be used.

Although this paradigm developed from the work in America in the early twentieth century, it gained more traction as an alternative approach in the quantitative versus qualitative dichotomy, which formed the basis of the paradigm wars.[43] Since the 1960s, this paradigm has moved beyond concerns about combining methods to rather focus on the purpose of a study and the range of methods best

[43] The paradigm wars or paradigm debate was particularly lively during the 1980s when there was debate around how paradigms and methods could, or could not, be used in research. This led to the growth of mixed methods research in fields such as sociology. More can be found in publications such as Hammersley (1992), Cameron and Miller (2007).

suited to investigate the topic. However, more recently the pragmatic paradigm has been used in social science research where it offers a flexible approach to solving research questions as methods are used together rather than being mutually exclusive. Therefore, a pragmatist researcher will combine tools in order to address their research questions and study the phenomenon under investigation.

The pragmatic paradigm can be viewed as a practical solution which provides a methodological framework with which to investigate a topic from different perspectives. This can help mitigate some of the disadvantages of only using one research method, for example, by using survey questionnaires and interviews together, this may provide a complete picture of the research topic and may negate issues such a personal bias or a lack of generalised findings. Indeed, rather than having to choose between methods, this approach enables the researcher to 'balance out' the strengths and weaknesses of each to present findings that give a holistic view of the research topic. This approach encourages researchers to focus on the variety of materials that can be obtained by employing two or more methods to develop an understanding of a topic or behaviours. This is achieved by 'working backwards and forwards between results' to generate implications which may enable the researcher to be more effective as they may become involved with their research data and gain a deeper understanding (Brierley 2017 p. 19).

5.1.5 Theorising netball in Scotland

By examining differing research paradigms for this work, a pragmatic approach has been utilised for this research, although this is informed by interpretivism. Cassell and Syman (1994) explain how different ontological and epistemological approaches affect the perspective taken in relation to the analysis of human behaviour. For example, positivist approaches test the hypothesis to conclude results, whereas interpretive approaches have their conclusion generated and grounded in the data gathered. Ultimately the purpose of conducting research, regardless of the paradigm or methods being used, is to increase knowledge of the topic being explored (Black 1993).

Using a pragmatic approach provides a rich amount of both quantitative and qualitative data to look for meanings in a social situation, in this instance, the netball club. In addition, it is anticipated that, as an 'insider' myself, conducting this research will create a vantage point from which I might construct a deeper, more meaningful and emotional understanding of netball in Scotland (Corbin & Strauss 2008, Matthews & Ross 2010). As discussed in Chapter 1, this study endeavours to better understand women's reasons for participation in netball at a range of performance levels. In this sense, the resultant data gathered from *their* perspective, allowed me to view the social world from the participants' perspective (Corbin & Strauss 2008).

In this study, as both the author and interpreter, I utilised both quantitative and qualitative data to analyse netball players' perceptions and attitudes towards netball. The use of mixed methods research tools is a pragmatic way to gather data on players' perceptions and attitudes towards netball in order to answer the research questions of this study. However, adopting interpretive considerations and principles in the research methods and tools also ensured their credibility, confirmability, applicability and transferability (Golafshani 2003).

5.2 Research, Methodologies and Research Methods

This section outlines the general methodologies, methods and evidence that can be utilised to conduct a research study.

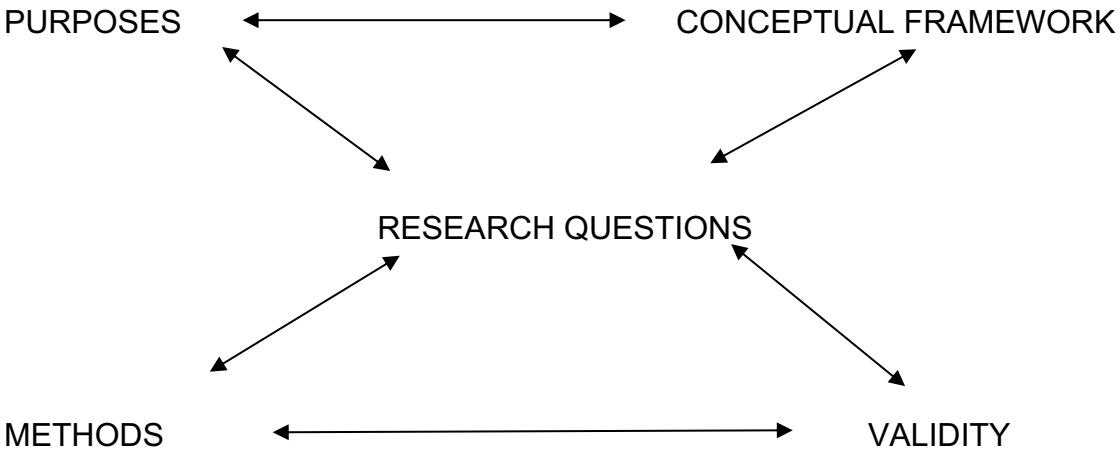
5.2.1 Mixed methods research

Gratton and Jones (2004) indicate that a choice between qualitative or quantitative approaches does not need to be made when it comes to gathering data for research, as the approach will be determined by the research questions. Tashakkori and Teddlie (p. 11 2003) define a mixed methods strategy for collecting data as having:

> multiple methods … in which more than one method or more than one world view is used ... mixed methods design [is a] cover term for mixed method and mixed model research.

This approach is useful as it enables the researcher to answer a much wider range of research questions; stronger inferences can be made from the information gathered, and it allows the researcher to discuss a range of differing viewpoints around the same topic or question (Harding 1987, Thomas, Nelson and Silverman 2011). O'Leary (2004) states that research methods are the techniques to gather data, and research tools are the devices used to do so. Denscombe (2002, 2010), Robson (2002), Gratton and Jones (2004), DePoy and Gitlin (2005) and Bryman (2008), all opine that using a variety of research methods enables the researcher to understand the phenomena being studied from a wider perspective to ensure the data are 'rounded and complete' (Denscombe 2010 p. 84). This process of triangulation allows different types of evidence to be checked against each other to develop understanding (DePoy & Gitlin 2005). Diagram 4 shows Maxwell and Loomis' (2003) model of the inter-relationships that exist between each component in the research design process.

Diagram 4: An Interactive Model of Research Design



Gratton and Jones (2004) provide a useful summary of the characteristics of both quantitative (positivist) and qualitative (non-positivist) research (Table 5). Their categorisations further augment the view that by utilising both types of research a greater depth of understanding and clarity can be realised.

Table 5: Research Characteristics (Gratton & Jones 2004, p. 24 Table 2.1 Characteristics of quantitative and qualitative research)

Quantitative research	**Qualitative research**
Use numerical analysis to measure social phenomena to provide 'facts'	Relies on non-numerical analysis to provide understanding
Assumes a single, objective social reality	Assumes social reality is a subjective experience
Assumes social reality of constant across different times and settings	Assumes social reality is continuously constructed and related to the immediate social context
Uses statistical analysis to determine causal relationships	Objectives are description, understanding and meaning
Studies samples with the intention of generalising to populations	Uses smaller samples, or 'cases'
Researcher is objective, and 'detached' from the subjects under investigation	Data is rich and subjective
The setting is often contrived	The location of the research is often natural
Data is collected using inanimate objects, for example pen and paper	Flexible approach to data collection
Associated with the positivist approach	Often non-traditional approaches, e.g. content analysis
Generally deductive	The researcher is the data collection instrument
	Associated with the interpretative approach
	Generally inductive

For the quantitative tools, the researcher must be aware of the questions of reliability and validity in data collection, the strengths and weaknesses of the approach taken, and the likelihood of bias in the study methods (Thomas et al.

2011). DePoy and Gitlin (2005) state that researcher bias is an 'unintended or unavoidable effect' (p. 80) and may, unintentionally lead to the misunderstanding of data gathered (O'Leary 2004, DePoy & Gitlin 2005). Therefore, the researcher must acknowledge these issues in their research for the reader to be aware of how these may affect the analysis and interpretation of the findings (Holloway & Jefferson 2000).

As Miles and Huberman (1994 p. 2) state, the 'standards for the "goodness" of qualitative findings may well differ from traditional ones'. Therefore, what is described as the trustworthiness of qualitative data is based on the truth value, applicability, consistency and neutrality of data (Lincoln & Guba 1985Miles & Huberman 1995,). In this context, the *truth value* of data refers to how confident one is in the credibility of one's findings in relation to the setting and those who participated. The *applicability* of the findings of a qualitative study indicates how the research could be applied or transferred to another setting or other people. When a study is repeated, either with the same or different respondents, or in the same or different setting, this enables the researcher to examine the *consistency* of the research. Finally, the *neutrality* of qualitative research refers to the confidence that the researcher has in the findings that their [the researcher's] personal views or perspectives did not influence those who took part in the study (Lincoln & Guba 1985, Golafshani 2003, Denzin & Lincoln 2013).

The researcher must be aware of the points raised above in relation to the 'truth value' of the study being undertaken to ensure the credibility of the qualitative data used (Lincoln & Guba 1985, Golafshani 2003, Denzin & Lincoln 2013). Yet, as Coffrey and Atkinson (1996 p. 6) point out, the analysis of data should not be regarded as a separate stage of the research process, rather, it should inform all aspects of the work being undertaken. Therefore, unlike a positivist approach, where quantitative analysis produces facts or truths, the interpretive researcher must fully engage with interpreting their findings so that they question how they have arrived at these interpretations (Clifford & Marcus 1986, Van Maanen 2004). The key focus for the interpretive researcher is to gather 'rich, detailed, and first-person accounts' of the phenomena being studied (Pietkiewicz & Smith 2012 p. 365).

5.2.2 Primary and secondary evidence

In undertaking a work such as this, it is important to utilise as wide a range of different sources of evidence as possible so that the subject matter can be examined in full. For example, focus groups, participant observations or a case study could have been used to examine the research topic. However, each of these were rejected for various reasons. Focus groups could have been used to gather qualitative data in a group interview setting, but it was felt that this may have been difficult to lead and facilitate effectively in order to obtain useful data. Participant observations were also considered, but it would have been difficult to define the operational parameters of such a study and many of the participants in the study provided historical information that spanned many decades. Finally, a case study was also rejected, as although this would have provided in-depth data around one situation or aspect, to provide a detailed understanding of that case or phenomenon, the findings would only relate to a very small number of participants (Thomas et al. 2011). Therefore, as this study wished to examine a larger number of women who participated in netball, it was decided that survey questionnaires and semi-structured interviews would best provide the data required for this thesis.

In order to gather a comprehensive picture of netball in Scotland, primary and secondary resources were used in the research strategy. Primary source examples include; instructional books on the game, handbooks and guides from previous World Championships, photographs from players, questionnaires, interviews, and newspaper reports of matches. Secondary source evidence includes archive materials from local authorities, historical journals, Scottish National Archive materials, including rule books and films depicting the game, such as *The Children's Story* (1938) and *Fitness for Girls* (1953).

However, there are potential limitations in the use of both primary and secondary sources together. Documentary evidence such as archive materials and historical publications also need to be viewed with a degree of caution. As Denscombe (2010) indicates, there are four key points in relation to documents: authenticity, representativeness, meaning, and credibility. The authenticity of a document is important, as the researcher needs to be sure that it is genuine, complete and is

typical of its type. It is also important to examine the credibility of any document and decide how accurate it is, when it was produced, its purpose and who it has been written for (Denscombe 2010, Blaxter, Hughes & Tight 2001, Bryman 1988).

5.2.3 Archive data

In order to gather primary sources, archive data were retrieved from both the National Library of Scotland[44] (George IV Bridge Building, Edinburgh) and the British Library[45] (Euston Road, London). Once a library card or reader pass had been obtained, the relevant items were requested prior to visiting the reading rooms. At both these establishments, unique documents, which provide historically significant evidence for this thesis, such as *The Ling Association Net-ball Rules* (1901), *AENA Netball 1901 – 1951 The Silver Jubilee Book* (1951) and the film, *Children's Story* (1938), were accessed. These types of archive data provided detailed evidence from people who were participating in netball during the initial introduction of the game to the UK.

5.2.4 Survey questionnaires

Using a survey questionnaire is a flexible way to collect data as it can be easily distributed and large numbers of interviews may not be required (Walliman 2001, Thomas et al. 2011). However, although survey questionnaires can generate a large amount of data, researchers need to be aware that those participating may give answers which 'reflect their desire to be seen in a good light' instead of stating how they actually feel about an issue (Robson 2002 p. 231). Indeed, self-selecting bias may be an issue when conducting a postal survey, as not everyone who receives a questionnaire may complete and return it, and questions cannot be clarified if there is a lack of understanding.

The survey questionnaire tool reflects the need for researcher detachment to provide credibility to this method (Robson 2002). Dunne, Pryor and Yates (2005) indicate that a common reason for using a survey questionnaire is that it is efficient, both in terms of time and cost to the researcher. It is worth remembering that, when using survey questionnaires, researchers often only have one chance

[44] National Library of Scotland materials can be accessed via www.nls.uk

[45]The British Library materials can be accessed via www.bl.uk

to get it ‘right’. Due to the nature of a questionnaire, it is not possible to discuss any issues or problems that may arise and which may confuse those completing the forms.

5.2.5 Interviews

Conducting interviews to gather information about the real-world situation being examined allows respondents to share previous and current experiences (Lincoln & Guba 1985). Kvale and Brinkmann (2009 p. 1) suggest that interviewing allows the researcher to explore sociological explanations and ‘understand the world from the subject’s point of view’ which can expand, or enhance information found in documents (Seldon 1988). In terms of interviews, the process is partly dependent on the skills of the interviewer, which may affect the quality of the responses, while it can also be a time-consuming method to collect, transcribe and analyse each interview (Blaxter et al. 2001, Walliman 2001,Thomas et al. 2011, Kumar 2011).

Walliman (2001) and Denscombe (2010) indicate that there are different types of interview techniques that can be used by a researcher. The use of structured interviews allows the researcher to have firm control over the interview as a predetermined sequence and wording of questions is followed. Conversely, unstructured interviews, directed by the interviewee, enable themes to be explored without direction from the interviewer. Another technique is the one-to-one interview, which is straightforward to use as it is relatively easy to arrange a convenient time to meet. The final technique is a group interview, which can be used to study the experiences of people who have a shared experience of a situation and these situations can lead to more illuminating discussions. However, a group interview may be dominated by one respondent or others feel unable to give detailed information in such a setting which may lead to less rich data being obtained (Walliman 2001, Denscombe 2010).

Walliman (2001), Robson (2002) and O’Leary (2004) argue that a semi-structured interview schedule allows greater flexibility for research as the interviewer usually has some plan or guide to follow. Yet, the interviewer can also progress the interview in response to the information obtained from the interviewee, which means the experience can be more conversational in tone

rather than interrogative. As Robson (2002) indicates, using a semi-structured interview means that the interviewer can adapt and explore topics depending on the responses given. However, the researcher is still in control of the interview and the data that are being gathered in this setting (Holloway & Jefferson 2000).

Great care must be taken when transcribing information so that it is an accurate representation of what occurred during the interview (Coffrey & Atkinson 1996, Samuel 1998). The researcher must be aware of how they utilise this data to produce categories that reflect the intended meaning of the respondents (Lincoln & Guba 1985). It is this neutrality of the findings that ensures that the research has both 'trust value' and trustworthiness, as discussed earlier (Lincoln & Guba 1985, Golafshani 2003, Denzin & Lincoln 2013). Holloway and Jefferson (2000 p. 3) also indicate that, as a researcher:

> One good reason for believing what people tell us ... is a democratic one: who are we to know any better than the participants when it is, after all, their lives?'

This enables the researcher to provide an accurate representation and presentation of participants' perceptions to understand and connect with study participants at a human level (Corbin & Strauss 2008). The process of transcribing recorded data is lengthy, as it is important to not only listen to what is being said but also to how it is said and to be aware of the importance of pauses and the tone of voice of the respondent (Richards 2005, Kvale & Brinkman 2009).

A further problem to be acknowledged is that the researcher may not understand the perspective or lived experience of the person being interviewed (Tosh 1991). Therefore, it is important not to make assumptions about what someone is able to remember and recall when using interviews to gather information. Tosh (1991) suggests that these 'oral reminiscences' are what people remember, however accurately, and it is these memories that were gathered using the flexibility of the semi-structured interview schedule in this study. However, the interviewer must be aware of the power relations at play between the interviewer and the interviewee. The interviewee may only say what they think the interviewer wants to hear rather than their own opinion and the interviewer in turn may only note, or pursue, answers that support the study in question (Denscombe 2007). These

issues notwithstanding, an interview provides important qualitative data about the thoughts, beliefs, attitudes and values that people hold for the researcher to analyse. Indeed, the researcher's personal biography needs to be acknowledged as this unconscious bias may also affect how they interpret or respond to interviewee comments or statements (Holloway and Jefferson 2000, Denscombe 2007).

5.3 Methods

This section presents the quantitative and qualitative methods undertaken to conduct this study.

During the 2011/12 season, there were 88 netball clubs (junior and senior) with 2533 registered members across Scotland (Netball Scotland 2012b). The statistical analysis presented in this chapter is taken from data gathered in the pilot study and the final study of 143 female netball players, aged between 16 and 69 years, in Scotland from April to June 2012. These surveys (Appendix 3) were carried out during 16 visits to ten of the 52 senior netball clubs during this time frame. Data management and analysis of the survey questionnaire responses was performed using *Statistical Package for Social Sciences 19* (SPSS 19) (IBM Corp. 2010) to provide results, discussed in this chapter.

5.3.1 Pilot Study

The pilot survey questionnaire was conducted with 13 players already known to the researcher, to identify any queries or difficulties such as incorrect wording or inappropriate questions.

The data collected from the pilot study survey questionnaires were analysed using SPSS 19 (IBM Corp. 2010) in order to examine the responses generated and to decide if additional questions needed to be added or whether others had to be removed for the final study. In light of the pilot study, and following the discussion with my supervisor, final modifications to the wording and order of questions were made to the survey questionnaires. For example, key words in questions such as 'usually' or 'generally' were made bold to indicate holistic nature of the question (e.g. Section 4 Q1, Section 5 Q1). In addition, a question specifically formulated for P.E. teachers (Section 6 Q5) was added so that

information from those who teach P.E. could clearly be identified. Also, directional comments were inserted to guide respondents clearly from one question to another and indicating any they could omit if they had no comment to add, e.g. Section 2 Q5.

5.3.2 Data collection process

Before commencing this study, ethical approval was gained from the University of Stirling, School of Sport Ethics Committee in 2012. In order to answer the research questions, a survey questionnaire was designed (Appendix 3) and administered to a sample of 143 people, and one-to-one semi-structured interviews were carried out with 32 people (Appendix 4). Initially, a pilot study was conducted with a small number of players to assess if the language, format and structure of the questionnaire would generate detailed data so that any flaws identified could be corrected before the full study was undertaken (Birley & Moreland 1998, Fink & Kosecoff 1998, Gillham 2003, O'Leary 2004, Denscombe 2010, Kumar 2011).

This study used two different strategies to gather information from the respondents: quantitative data (including both closed and open-ended questions) from a sample of people via the survey questionnaire, and qualitative data from interviews. In using two different approaches, the researcher triangulated the information to get a 'fix on it [information] from two or more places' (Robson 2002 p. 317). However, although triangulation is important, Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest, it can only help to provide support and does not prove the findings of a study (David & Sutton 2001, DePoy & Gitlin 2005).

In 2012, with 2,533 registered members of Netball Scotland, it was decided to only invite members of the Seniors' Clubs to participate in the study as this meant they were over the age of sixteen and did not need Parental Consent or Disclosure.[46] For the purposes of this study, the relevant population is defined as registered and unregistered players, elite players (national and international), those in administration, coaches, teachers and officials. In consultation with

[46] Since 2011, the Disclosure scheme in Scotland is known as Protecting Vulnerable Groups (PVG).

Netball Scotland, the secretaries of fifty-two Senior Clubs were contacted via email and by phone regarding this research with information and consent forms (Appendix 5) related to this study. In total, ten Senior Clubs responded and invited me to gather information during training sessions. The number of clubs was slightly less than anticipated and this may have been due to it being towards the end of the competitive netball season.

5.3.3 Recruitment and sampling for research

One of the most important steps in the research process is the selection of the sample population. Sampling simply refers to the process undergone to select those individuals who will be included in the study (The Open University 1979a, 1979b, Schofield 1996, Fraenkel & Wallen 2000). Black (1999 p. 111) defines a population as 'any group that shares a set of common traits'. However, in using a pragmatic approach, the researcher must consider the social setting of the usually small sample of people being studied. Miles and Huberman (1994) propose the setting of boundaries to define a study along with a structure within which to underpin the research.

In the main study, a convenience sample of netball players was used to gather data from members of this population who were available. This approach was chosen as it was the most feasible way to gather information from netball players in this country as it was not be possible to gather information from the whole population of netball players in Scotland. However, as Etikan, Musa and Alkassim (2016) indicate, although this type of sampling allows the researcher to reach available participants to collect information, it is important to remember that such a sample means that the findings cannot necessarily be applied to wider populations. However, although a convenience sample was used, the responses provided data from age to performance level which does give an enlightening range of information about this population. While the survey questionnaire was not fully representative of the netball population in Scotland, the data provided information about key areas and identified themes that could be used during the interview stage.

Throughout June 2012, the process of attending training and conducting survey questionnaires was repeated at senior netball clubs across a large geographical

area of the West of Scotland. This ensured that information was gathered from a range of players, officials, coaches and others involved at all levels of the game. In addition, Netball Scotland invited me to attend the British Universities and Colleges Sport (BUCS) Netball Tournament Final, held at Bellahouston Sports Centre, Glasgow in May 2012. This event is the culmination of a league competition throughout the season, and four teams, the Glasgow Wildcats (Scotland), Northern Panthers (Northern Ireland), Great Britain Universities, and the English Superleague Select, were competing. Over this weekend, the players agreed to complete survey questionnaires (Appendix 3) and participated in one-to-one semi-structured interviews (Appendix 4), despite the busy competition schedule. In addition, during this event, contact was made with officials and club members from across the country who were spectating and who were interested in helping with the study.

5.3.4 Survey questionnaire

Liaising with Netball Scotland to conduct the survey questionnaires ensured access to all levels of Scottish netball, which included players from a recreational level to current and former international netball players covering the last sixty years (Appendix 3). This enabled the researcher to conduct the study with a mix of players, although it may not provide a representative sample of the netball population in Scotland. Although 'no sample will be exactly representative of a population', by ensuring that identical methods are used throughout, the occurrence of sampling error can be reduced (Walliman 2011 p. 95). The use of survey questionnaires also gave respondents the opportunity to be reflective before they answered, thus enabling them to give detailed personal views in open-ended questions.

At each club, I spoke with all players over 16 years of age who were present for training and, once I had explained the background to the study, I asked anyone who was interested in participating to complete the survey questionnaire during

the period of their training session that evening, however, most people completed the survey in around 20–30 minutes.[47]

The topics covered by the survey questionnaire explored seven areas to provide a sociodemographic profile and background of the women who participated in this study. Section 1 looked at the education and occupational status of the women who responded to the survey questionnaire. The next section of questions examined sporting biography to gather information to understand their sporting history and participation in physical activity since they attended school. Sections 3 and 4 then asked respondents to reflect on their introduction to the sports and how being a member of a netball club had affected their participation. In section 5, players were given the opportunity to comment on how others perceived netball as a sport both in school and in the community. The next section explored players' wider involvement in the game through club commitment or match attendance. The final section gathered personal and family details that enable this study to present a demographic context of the women who participated (Dunne, Pryor & Yates 2005). Blaikie (2003) suggests that some questions used in survey questionnaires will generate both quantitative and qualitative data for the researcher to analyse. Indeed, some of the questions used in this study generated closed responses, such as 'what is your occupational status' and at 'what age did you first play netball?' while other questions were open-ended and provided more detailed, individualised responses, such as 'describe how you were first introduced to playing netball' and 'describe your first netball ambition'.

5.3.5 Quantitative data analysis process

In this study, the data from the questionnaires were analysed using *Statistical Package for Social Sciences 19* and, primarily, this provided quantitative data relating to demographic information, such as age, place of birth, education,

[47] Once the survey questionnaire was completed, I was able to identify anyone who wished to take part in a follow-up interview.

nationality and ethnicity. However, some open-ended questions provided qualitative responses that related to netball experiences.

The information from the closed questions, which required boxes to be ticked or a scale to be used, provided quantitative data that could be regarded as being positivist in nature. However, these data were taken forward to form the basis of the questions in the qualitative semi-structured interview sessions (Appendix 4). Some of these open-ended questions, highlighted in the previous section, allowed respondents the opportunity to reflect and expand on situations that were important to them. This in turn, provided a basis for probing questions included in the interview process, for example, 'what are your earliest memories of netball?' and 'what are the main reasons you play?' to provide more than just descriptive comments (Thomas, Nelson and Silverman 2011). Most of the data gathered from the survey questionnaires were quantitative and the responses were coded for each type of answer, as most were nominal (distinct categories) or ordinal (rank order) in nature (Appendix 3). This process took a significant amount of time as, even with conducting a pilot study, there were some errors in coding that only came to light when the data were being entered into the computer programme. The data coding was the first step in the data analysis process that enabled responses to be interpreted. These codes were given to variables at the outset so that responses could be easily classified, and confusion avoided. Where a classification for pre-determined variables already existed, such as occupation and ethnicity, these were used for coding and recorded in the codebook along with the name and label that had been assigned. The quantitative information from the survey questionnaires was coded to provide numeric data that were inserted into an EXCEL spreadsheet so that they could be read by the statistical analysis programme SPSS 19 (IBM Corp. 2010).

5.3.6 Interviews

It was considered that interviews provided a means to gather each respondent's own story or history in relation to netball. This gave the researcher rich, detailed information which was subsequently examined to provide a sociological perspective regarding the behaviour of female netball players in Scotland. For this study, this way of gathering and recording the semi-structured interview was

valuable, as the interviewee reflected on their experiences and remembered events from their point of view (Barber & Peniston-Bird 2009).

This research used a short guide for the questions in the semi-structured interviews to allow development and elaboration on ideas from the questionnaires and to clarify potential misunderstandings by the interviewees (Appendix 4). Due to the wide range of backgrounds of the possible interviewees, it was important to have a general guide or plan for interviews based on the responses to the open-ended questions from the survey questionnaire. The use of an interview guide aims to help the interviewer explore perspectives on past events and provided a breadth and depth of information about the thoughts, feelings, attitudes and behaviour of the sample group which covered a wide range of netball events (Seldon 1988). The interviews were digitally recorded in a range of settings, both indoors and outdoors, transcribed verbatim and analysed using QSR International's (2018) *NVivo 12* qualitative software analysis programme to identify key themes.

The questions outlined in the semi-structured interviews explored similar themes to the survey questionnaire, such as sporting biography and experiences of netball, but allowed for probing questions to gather more detailed information. In addition, the respondents were also able to share their own personal stories and biographies related to netball.

Prior to each interview, contact was made to let interviewees know the kind of questions being asked, which enabled them to reflect on their netballing histories before having to commit to a digital format. It became evident, as Holloway and Jefferson (2000) point out, that not only was it my responsibility as an interviewer to be a good listener, but that the respondents needed to be able to give high-quality, detailed personal responses in order to obtain the depth of data required for this study. However, Sangster (p. 89 1998) suggests that women's accounts are more liable to be characterised by 'understatements, avoidance of the first-person point of view, rare mention of personal accomplishments'. Therefore, in conducting interviews relating to netball participation, these are key factors to keep in mind when analysing the data collected. During the interviews, people generally gave information about their background, such as where they lived and

their occupation and then explained their own involvement in netball. Each interview lasted between 45 and 60 minutes, however, not all the content was relevant, which means that there was disparity in the amount of useable data collected from interviewees. In analysing these responses, each participant was identified by a specific letter or number, assigned by the researcher so that each person remained anonymous (Birley & Moreland 1998). In qualitative data analysis, the process of coding is more commonly referred to as data reduction, which provides the researcher with themes to discuss (Pietkiewicz & Smith 2012, Richards 2005).

Once completed, the transcriptions were returned to the club secretaries so that the women involved could check they were comfortable with the information and changes, omissions or additions could be made to the initial information given. The respondents were again assured that the confidentiality of responses, and their anonymity, had not been breached during the coding of information and that they would not be identifiable in the study.

The semi-structured interviews provided detailed, in-depth information from the respondents to then compare with documentary and secondary evidence to give an understanding of netball in Scotland (Seldon 1988, Tosh 1991, Tonkin 1992).

5.3.7 Qualitative data analysis process

Nowell, Norris, White and Moules (2017) indicate that qualitative research is 'intended to generate knowledge grounded in human experience' (2017 p. 1). Therefore, thematic analysis is a method to focus on identifying patterns or themes of meaning across different qualitative data sets which are relevant to the research questions under investigation. Maguire and Delahunt (2017) suggest that in utilising such a method, latent themes can be uncovered and analysed rather than superficial meanings. In conducting a thematic analysis, the researcher has to make judgements about the coding and themes as well as the context of the data being analysed. However, Braun and Clarke (2006), Maguire and Delahunt (2017), and Nowell et al. (2017) suggest the following framework to guide the researcher (Table 6). Table 6 also outlines the ways in which the thematic analysis was applied in this research study.

Table 6: Framework for Thematic Analysis

Step	Process	Application
Familiarisation with the data	Keep records of transcripts, document thoughts about codes and themes, become immersed in the content.	Interviews with 43 women were recorded on a digital Dictaphone and then transcribed. Initial thoughts were noted during this step.
Generate initial codes	Use coding framework to organise data into smaller aspects of meaning that may be relevant to the research question.	Each transcript was examined closely, and initial codes were produced for each area.
Search for themes	Notes related to concepts, examining codes and interesting connections to identify broad patterns related to the research question.	Here codes were examined, and clusters of information brought together in relation to the research questions.
Review themes	Triangulation, checking of themes and sub-themes to bring together all the data relevant to each theme.	In generating and refining themes, understanding the patterns within the data links, connections could be made between themes so that these were meaningful in relation to the research questions.
Define themes	Develop a consensus and focus for each theme.	Three themes were clearly identified and defined from across all the data gathered.
Report write up	Describing the process of coding and analysis of data within existing literature.	Here, the final analysis of the data, research questions and literature are brought together, and conclusions presented.

The qualitative data gathered did not always follow a set pattern but was dependent upon the response given by the interviewee. This meant that, as Oliver (2008) indicates, the responses had to be categorised and coded into broad themes so that data could be gathered from the transcriptions at the start

of the analysis process. As indicated earlier, the transcribing of the interview data was a time-consuming process, as each question and response was transcribed for each respondent, which meant every statement had to be rewound and replayed on many occasions before the information had been accurately recorded. Each recording was transcribed verbatim as soon as possible following the interview and, for the most part, pauses and repetitions in sentences were included, although digressions from the questions were omitted (Bazeley 2013, Silverman 2017).

QSR International's (2018) *NVivo 12* software was used to organise and code the qualitative data from all transcripts. In order to fully explore and understand the data, the recordings were listened to and transcripts were read and re-read to ensure that I became familiar with the information contained within these. Once this data had been gathered, I examined the information and wrote notes and comments that gradually became the themes of the study. In developing these themes, I re-examined the data from both the interview transcripts and the open-ended survey responses in an iterative process to bring together concepts which appeared similar before writing a narrative account of the phenomena being studied (Pietkiewicz & Smith 2012).

Preliminary themes were identified by reducing the information (without changing the meaning) so that different aspects or themes of the data became clear. Different categories, or domains of the data, had already been set out in the planning stages of both the survey questionnaire and semi-structured interview schedule and these were used as sub-headings for each section of data presented in Chapter 7. Several patterns began to emerge in the qualitative data which was then coded in light of these themes. The general themes were identified in the responses generated from the face-to-face interviews and those which emerged from open questions in the survey questionnaire. It is important to draw generalisations from the data gathered as well as looking for patterns and contradictions within the findings relating to the social phenomena being examined (Coffey and Atkinson 1996).

5.4 Summary

This chapter has examined the positivist, interpretive and critical paradigms and the differing ontological, epistemological and methodological approaches of each. Subsequently, the research methodology, data collection and data analysis for this study were discussed. However, despite careful planning to ensure a pragmatic approach was undertaken, some challenges did arise in data collection in both the pilot study and the main study, and in how the data were analysed. Chapter 6 presents the findings from the quantitative data, and Chapter 7, those from the qualitative data.

CHAPTER 6: QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter is focused on the pertinent aspects of quantitative data related to the research questions (full data are presented in Appendix 6[48]). In addition, it examines the routes into netball for the 143 women who participated in this study, their school access and opportunities, as well as enabling factors, such as the support of teachers, family and friends.

6.1 Main Study

The main study was then conducted with the target population of women over 16 years of age who were involved in some capacity in netball, e.g., player, coach, umpire or administrators. These women were members of ten senior netball clubs in Scotland and data were collected between April and June 2012.

6.2 Data Analysis

6.2.1 Characteristics of the clubs surveyed

Out of the ten clubs that took part in the survey questionnaires, all had both senior and junior sections. Most were in the area defined by Netball Scotland as 'West' and had memberships of between 20–70 players. The players at these clubs were involved in some form of either recreational or competitive matches for their clubs. When examining the surveys in relation to geographical representation across Scotland, it initially appeared that only clubs in the West of Scotland were able to respond. However, when each region was examined further, the area identified by Netball Scotland as 'West' covers a wide geographic area, including Argyll & Bute, Dumfries & Galloway, East Dunbartonshire, East Renfrewshire, Glasgow, Inverclyde, North Ayrshire, North Lanarkshire, Renfrewshire, South Lanarkshire and West Dunbartonshire (ibid. 2012, see also Appendix 7).

[48] Additional data not presented within this chapter are accessible in Appendix 6.

Table 7: Scotland Netball Regions (2012)

Netball Scotland region	Highlands & Islands	West	Central	Grampian	Tayside & Fife	East
No. of clubs	5	42	1	19	7	14
No. of members	150	1212	9	485	207	470
No. of respondents	0	134	0	0	0	0
Percentage	0	11.05	0	0	0	0

6.2.2 Characteristics of respondents

The majority of this sample were white, Scottish, the mean age was 27, and age ranged from 16–69 years. Most respondents were married or living with their partner and educated to degree level.

6.3 Survey Questionnaire

6.3.1 Section 1: Education and occupation

The initial section of the survey questionnaire examined the education levels and occupations of women currently playing netball in Scotland. Asking which secondary school women attended was used to understand any regional differences in netball participation and experience. Indeed, 18 of Scotland's 32 local authorities were represented by respondents with the majority attending schools in South Lanarkshire or Glasgow City Council areas (19.5% and 14.7%, respectively). Argyll & Bute (7%), East Ayrshire (7%), North Lanarkshire (5.6%) and Dumfries & Galloway (5%) were the local authorities with the next highest representation. However, other local authorities accounted for only 7.6% of respondents, which indicates that the majority were from the more highly populated areas of Scotland. This information allows for a comparison to be made between female netball players and the wider general population. It is important to consider the age composition of respondents here, as over half were aged between 16–29 years, which may affect the interpretation of the figures shown in

Table 9 in relation to the general population. Although it is acknowledged that some of the sample were not old enough to have gained a qualification at college or university, it could be suggested that the general pattern is similar to that of the national population.

Table 8: Highest Level of Qualification Gained (Scottish Government 2013, *Scotland's People Annual Report: Results of the 2012 Scottish Household Survey*)

Qualification	**National %**	**Survey %**	**National %**	**Survey %**	**National %**	**Survey %**	**National %**	**Survey %**	**National %**	**Survey %**
	16–24 years	16-24 years	25–34 years	25-34 years	35–44 years	35-44 years	45–59 years	45-59 years	60–74 years	60-74 years
O Grade / Std Grade or equivalent	35	4.7	18	2.4	21	0	21	3.9	11	0.8
Higher, A Level or equivalent	35	10.3	18	3.9	17	5.5	15	1.6	12	0
HNC/HND or equivalent	9	4.7	15	4.7	15	1.6	11	4.7	6	0
Degree, Professional qualification	13	9.5	40	31.7	33	10.3	30	2.4	2 3	0

This section also examined information relating to the occupations of those who completed the survey, whether full-time, part-time or job-share. When compared with the national population, there was a greater proportion of women in this study in full-time (65%) and part-time employment[49] (33%) compared to the national averages of 36% and 21%, respectively (Scottish Government 2013). Almost 33% of the respondents were in managerial or senior official roles, and 12.6% were employed in professional administration and secretarial roles. Of the other respondents, only 1% were in job-share positions and almost a quarter (24%) were students. Of those players who indicated they were students, 34% were in full-time secondary education, with the majority (43%) full-time undergraduate students at university. In this sample, only 1% of players were undertaking any level of study on a part-time basis. This indicates that the women in this study are

[49] Students who indicated they were also in part-time employment were included in these figures.

generally representative of the national population at this time. However, it appears that there are a number of participants who are educated to degree level.

6.3.2 Section 2: Sporting biography

Here netball players' sporting biographies both in school and out of school were examined as well as sports played competitively and non-competitively, which gave insight into involvement in a range of sporting contexts. The information showed that most women who responded to this question participated in a wide range of activities in school. For example, 76.2% of the respondents took part in athletics, 76.2% in netball, 66.4% in hockey, and 62.2% in badminton. Also, more than half of those who responded to this question participated in basketball (55.9%), with 54.4% participating in gymnastics and 50.3% in cross-country running. This would suggest that the women in this study had been active participants in sports throughout their school years.

However, when determining which activities were played outwith a school setting, netball had the highest levels of participation from the women in this study at 58.7%. This figure is, predictably, much higher than the other activities, which respondents indicated they played outwith the school environment. However, the responses to this section indicate that the women in this study generally appear to have enjoyed a range of other sports participation, as 24.5% stated they took part in athletics, 15.4% played hockey, 18.2% played badminton, 7.7% played basketball, 9.8% gymnastics and 16.8% cross-country running. This may reflect the sporting nature of the women in this study who have had access and the opportunity to participant in activities outwith the school setting.

The women in this study were asked which sports they played since leaving school. Again, predictably, the number of women who continued to play netball after leaving school (51%) is almost double that of other activities that they participated in during post-school education, for example, fitness (26.7%), badminton (20.6%), swimming (18.1%), and hockey (10.3%). As women in this study were netball players, it is unsurprising that 77% played netball competitively and 63% recreationally (non-competitively). This section provided insight into the routes into netball for the women in this study as their opportunities to be physically active both in and out of school are presented. These findings suggest

that the women in this study have had, and have taken, a wide range of sporting opportunities that may not be reflective of the wider population.

6.3.3 Section 3: Introduction and experience of netball

In the third part of the survey, the respondents indicated how they began playing netball, their general experiences in relation to how they became involved in different ways and any influences on their initial participation. In this section, the significance of enabling and socialising factors as well as routes into netball are explored for this group. For 55% of the women, a schoolteacher introduced them to the game, followed by a friend (17%) or their mother (13%). The role of school in introducing girls to the game is significant, as most respondents began playing netball before they were 14 years old and this is confirmed by data that reveal they began playing whilst at school (79%) and most played regularly during this period (88%).

A total of 40% of women in this study reported that they were introduced to netball as a recreational sport through friends (23%) and family (17%). Over a third of 37% of respondents were between 6–10 years old (37%) and 19% were between 11–14 years old, therefore over half or respondents were quite young when they first began playing at this level. The first clubs where respondents played recreationally were; a school club (23%), Helensburgh (12%), East Kilbride (11%), Dumfries Blues (8%) or Duncanrigg (6%). Thirty-seven percent of respondents indicated they played recreationally because they enjoyed the game, played to keep fit (24%), for fun (22%) or to be with friends (16%).

There was a wide range of responses in relation to local clubs which players joined to play competitively: the majority became members of clubs in Glasgow (27%), Lanarkshire (21%), Ayr (9%), and Dumfries & Galloway (11%), with 22% joining clubs in smaller areas. Fifty-two percent of women were between 11 and14 years old when they first began to play netball competitively. Thirty percent indicated that it was their schoolteacher who encouraged them to play netball competitively, with 24% indicating their mother and 23% a friend. These findings and those above provide some understanding of the significance of the school setting as a context within which supportive, enabling and socialising factors were

provided to offer the opportunity of access to netball that these players have enjoyed.

6.3.4 Section 4: Being a member of a netball club

Section 4 reflected on those who had been or were part of a netball club and how often they trained, played matches or socialised with other club members. Forty-nine percent of those surveyed usually trained between 1–2 hours a week, 30% trained for 3–5 hours and 12% trained for 6–10 hours per week. Fifty-three percent of respondents stipulated that they travelled alone to training sessions by car, which is interesting as this may be one way in which these women overcome barriers, such as lack of public transport or personal safety discussed in Chapter 3.

Yet, 37% of respondents socialised with others from the club 'often', 26% 'sometimes' and 32% 'occasionally'. However, 5% stated they never socialised with fellow club members. In exploring this further, 35% indicated they socialised with club members between 1 and 2 hours per week, 20% indicated 3–5 hours, and 8% said they socialised 6–7 hours. Following matches, 86% went home and 11% socialised with other club members. Twenty-seven percent of respondents revealed they 'value playing and socialising equally' but 3% were 'only interested in playing netball' which may indicate that the competitive aspect of sport is a strong motivating factor for some women. Thirty-eight percent said they 'have a good relationship with most club members', 25% indicated having 'friends in the club is an important aspect' of being in a club. For 19% of respondents, this was 'a very important aspect' of club membership which was reflected in the data, as players agreed (46%) or strongly agreed (53%) with the statement that 'club members get on well'. Indeed, 53% of women agreed with the statement 'club members are really good friends' and 42% strongly agreed. Friendship with players of other clubs is also important; 48% agreed and 19% strongly agreed with this statement. Thirty-nine percent of respondents indicated that they have friends or know players from other clubs. This demonstrates that all respondents had very positive feelings towards being involved in netball. Only 15% of women in the study asserted that they only knew players from their own club and 33% strongly disagreed with this statement. When asked whether there was a good

atmosphere in their club, 85% agreed with this statement. In relation to the research questions, these findings represent the enabling factors of family, friends and accessibility to netball clubs that encouraged these women to continue their involvement with this sport. This would suggest that the social influence of attending sessions with other females is noteworthy, as friendship bonds and relationships with people who enjoy similar activities are strengthened.

6.3.5 Section 5: Perspectives on netball

This section considered respondents' influences on playing netball. The two most common positive influences were, female friends (17%) and mothers (16%), followed by P.E. teacher (15%), father (13%) and husband (10%). However, just under 3% of respondents felt there had been a negative influence on their participation. When reflecting on their netball experience at school, 42% stated secondary school P.E. departments had been supportive, but 18% felt they were not. Ninety-three percent revealed they had not been discouraged from playing, netball. However, of those who said they had been discouraged from playing 28% stated that it was their P.E. teacher who had done so. In total, 78% of respondents indicated they felt that netball is not taken seriously by people outwith the sport. Yet, 82% did not agree with the statement 'no-one is interested in reading about or watching netball'. In relation to the research questions for this study, this section presents information about routes into netball participation as well as the socialising and enabling factors that have supported their involvement. For the women in this study, the general lack of interest around netball from those outwith the sport does not appear to have deterred their participation or enthusiasm for this sport.

6.3.6 Section 6: Wider involvement in netball

This part of the survey examined players' wider involvement in netball, their ambitions, qualifications and other support they provided to this sport. For 36%, 'being in the school team' was their first netball ambition, followed by 'winning' (30%) and 'being a member of another team or playing at another level' (25%). When asked to reflect on their netball ambition, 31% stated they wanted to play at National or League level, 21% wanted 'to win' and 14% wanted to play 'for fitness/fun'. Eighty-four percent were currently involved in playing matches, with

13% not featured in a team. Ninety-one percent of women who completed a survey questionnaire indicated that they hold a netball qualification, with 52% holding a coaching award and 39% qualified umpires.

Those who were P.E. teachers considered their experience of netball in the school curriculum. Twenty-three percent of P.E. teachers thought netball in the curriculum was 'very good' but the same percentage stated it was 'not taught much'.

The most common positions held within clubs were found to be: club committee (58%), coach or manager (16%), captain (9%), and umpire (5%). However, outwith club level, 29% held positions at national or international levels, 27% at league level, 15% at district level and 29% held some other position. Of the 46% involved as coaches, 22% were involved at school level, 11% at a district level, 4% at national level and 4% as umpires.

Forty-five percent indicated they had watched netball matches 1–5 times per season, while 27% stated they had watched matches more than ten times. The most popular matches watched were the Wildcats (43%), and National (Scotland) 40% and league games (35%). The respondents also indicated that they usually attended matches with another club member (35%), friends (28%) or a family member (24%).

In this section, the significance of participating in competitive events, as players, coaches and spectators for women in this study has been illustrated. These elements may be indicators of the importance of netball in the lives of these respondents.

6.3.7 Section 7: Personal and family details

The final section of the survey questionnaire gathered details in relation to respondents' personal and family background. The majority of the women in this survey resided in the West of Scotland (84%), 6% in another part of Scotland and 10% stayed elsewhere in the UK. Most respondents grew up in the West of Scotland (70%) and 8% in another part of Scotland. However, 17% were raised in another part of the UK and 5% overseas, although 78% were born in Scotland and 18% in England. Finally, the ethnic background of the respondents showed

that 76% described themselves as Scottish, 13% English, 5% British and 3% Caribbean.

The mean age of the respondents was 27 years and the median 32 years of age (Table 9). The next question revealed that 41.3% of the respondents were single, 52.8% were married or living with a partner. The women in this survey were younger and more likely to be single compared with the wider Scottish population.

Table 9: Ages of the participants compared to the national population

	16–17yrs	**18–23yrs**	**24–29yrs**	**30–34yrs**	**35–39yrs**	**40–44yrs**	**45–49yrs**	**50–54yrs**	**55–59yrs**	**60–69yrs**
% of respondents	8.4	21	20.2	15.3	9.7	8.4	5.6	2.8	3.5	0.6
2012 HHS	16-24yrs	25-34yrs	35-44yrs	45-59yrs	60-74yrs					
National %	12	13	13	21	16					

Table 10: Marital Status of the participants compared to the national population

	Single	**Married / Living with partner**	**Divorced**	**Widowed**	**Other**
% of respondents	41.3	51.8	0.7	0.7	0.7
National % 2012	35	48	7	7	2

In relation to their family background, 13.3% were only children and 86.7% had siblings. Also, 76% stated they did not have children: 10% had one child, and 14% had two or more children, which, in relation to the research questions, may indicate that women with no children had time to be involved in this sport.

6.4 Summary

In this chapter, the significant aspects of the quantitative data contained in the seven sections of the survey questionnaire have been presented. These findings are related to the research questions outlined in Chapter 3. This information will be discussed in Chapter 8, along with the qualitative data presented in the following chapter. The key findings presented in this chapter relate to the research questions, as follows:

- In what ways does netball support lifelong female physical activity/participation in Scotland?
    - Many in this study were introduced to netball through the school environment by teachers, either during curricular time or at after-school clubs at a young age.
    - Women in this study received significant external support from others such as family, friends and teachers, and these enabling factors facilitated their continued socialisation in this environment.
- What influences/factors have supported women who have continued to play netball through their life course?
    - It appears that many women in this study have been influenced by having opportunities to play netball with family and friends both during and outwith school.
    - In being signposted to local clubs by school or friends, participants appear to have made the transition to continued involvement into adulthood.
    - Many women have indicated that they very much enjoy participating in netball whether this is as a means to keep fit or as a way of pursuing a competitive sport.
    - In addition, many women also acquire great social benefit from participating.

The enabling factors which appear to have been significant for the women in this study are their friends, family and school teachers who have provided opportunities and encouragement to participate in netball. This was done by running school clubs, attending netball clubs in the community and by socialising with other players. Also, the enjoyment of competition was important to the women in this study, and I will explore this further in the next chapter using a thematic analysis of the qualitative data gathered in this study.

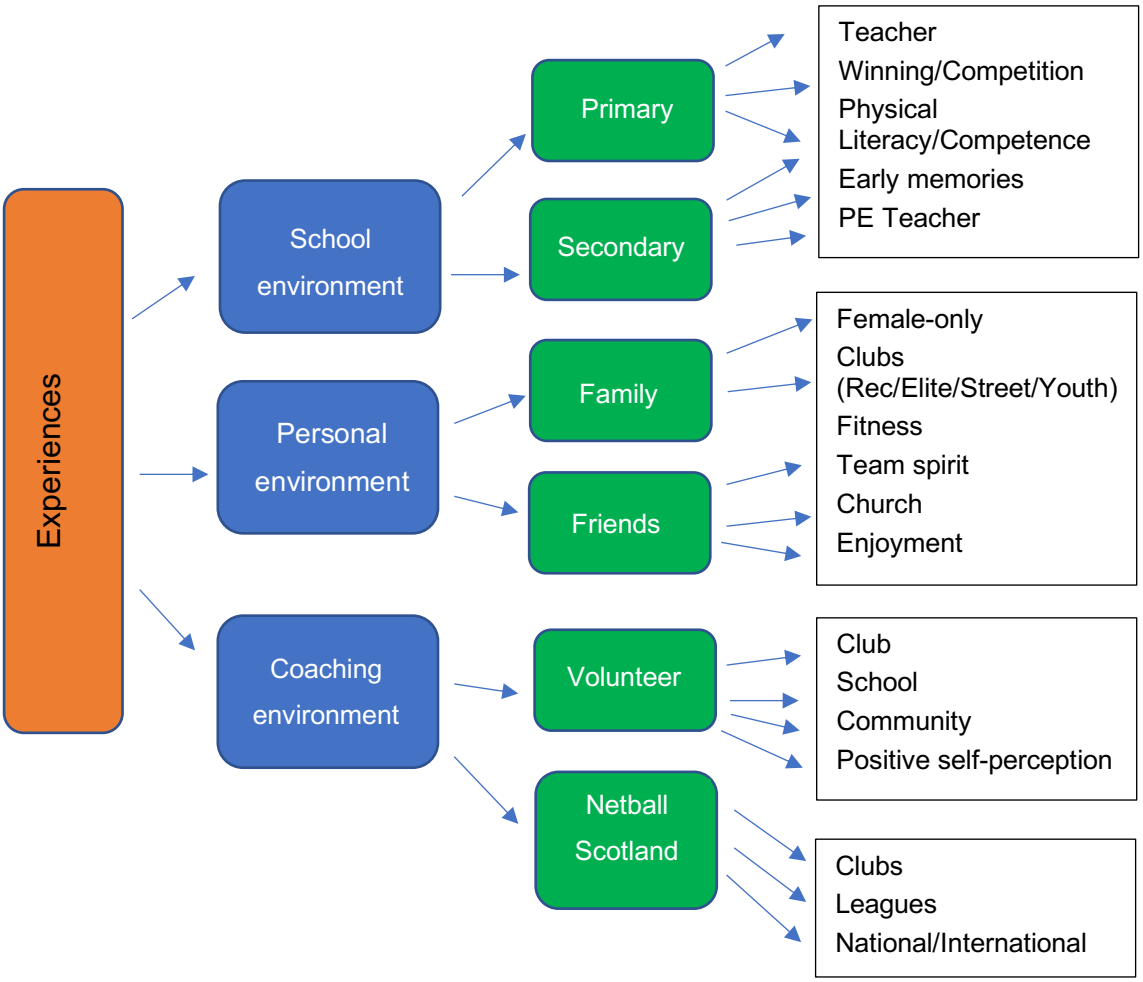
CHAPTER 7: QUALITATIVE RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter discusses the analytical approach undertaken to enable me to understand the qualitative data from the interviews conducted for this study. The information gathered from the quantitative data presented in Chapter 6 suggested enabling factors of friends, family and school that supported respondents' participation in netball. Although other research has indicated barriers to female sports participation, the interesting aim of this thesis is understanding the interplay of variables to support the women involved in this study to participate in this game throughout their lives (Deem & Gilroy 1998, Welk 1999, Weiss 2000, Fisette 2011b, 2013). Therefore, the aim of the qualitative section of this thesis was to explore in more detail the impact of these enabling factors in relation to the key research questions of this study: *In what ways does netball support lifelong female physical activity/participation in Scotland? What influences/factors have supported women who have continued to play netball through their life course?* In identifying and exploring these factors, it may be possible to demonstrate deeper issues relating to sports participation and behaviour that could be used to inform other sports about female involvement; this will be discussed in Chapter 8.

7.1 Data Analysis Process

The framework for thematic analysis shown in Chapter 5 (Table 6) was used to analyse the qualitative data gathered from the interviews conducted for this study. The interviews were transcribed verbatim as soon as possible, and, as indicated in Section 5.3.6, repetitions and departures from the subject were omitted. However, the real value in transcribing interviews in this manner is in 'building intimate knowledge of [your] data' prior to undertaking the next steps in the data analysis process (Bazeley 2013 p. 74). Initially, QSR International's (2018) *NVivo 12* was used to code and analyse the overall themes from the interviews for this study. Once the data were coded, distinct themes began to emerge, and it was helpful to go further and analyse the sub-themes by utilising the *NVivo 12* software once more. These themes are presented in the initial coding map (Diagram 5).

Diagram 5: Initial coding map



Each theme which emerged gave a clearer focus for the researcher to look for deeper connections and other important inter-related links to answer the research questions. Three themes were generated[50] following the process outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006, 2012), which were mapped around the three main factors presented by Welk (1999) of enabling, predisposing and reinforcing:

Enabling (school environment)

- Primary and secondary school context
- Competitive team sport

[50] This terminology may be used in place of emergent themes as part of an ongoing debate around thematic analysis as discussed by Braun and Clarke (2012).

- Personal fitness

Predisposing (personal environment)

- Family support
- Friendships
- Club participation

Reinforcing (coaching environment)

- Community engagement
- Volunteering

The information presented under these three key themes provided a description of the significance that each had in the lives of the women who were interviewed for this study. This afforded an insight into the interplay between many different factors that have encouraged these women to participate in female team sports. The interviews with these women provided a rich narrative through which their stories and how they have overcome these perceived barriers were explored.

7.2 Key Theme 1: Netball Environments

The statistical data collected from sections one and two of the survey provided a general background of the respondents and enabled the analysis of their thoughts and views in relation to Physical Education and Physical Activity and Sport (PEPAS) throughout childhood, adulthood and their ongoing experiences. This area was examined in more detail during the semi-structured interviews and it appears that, for many participants, being introduced to netball during their school years was more important than being introduced in early adulthood.

7.2.1 Primary school experience

Many participants spoke fondly about their memories of being introduced to netball at school and beginning to play the game as well as the significance of an enthusiastic teacher who encouraged them. Most examples reveal that the upper years of primary school were when they began to play netball.

> I started off in primary school in primary five our school started, and that was after school clubs and we had primary six and primary seven. (Interviewee 39)

> I started to play in primary 7 it was our primary 6 teacher who got us into it. (Interviewee 40)

Yet, this experience does not appear to have been unique to Scotland, as one respondent who immigrated here stated,

> I lived in New Zealand and we started playing netball at primary school, at secondary school and at club level. (Interviewee 10)

This would suggest that early involvement during primary school is an important aspect for the women in this study in supporting their participation, although it may not be important for all women. Continuing this theme, another woman reflected on the need to engage girls in the sport from a young age. She passionately discussed the importance of netball as a female sport and uses words such as 'enthusiastic', 'really good', 'hooked' and 'up for the challenge' to explain how this supported participation, friendships and self-esteem as they progress in the game.

> I think it's the girls as you get them and they are enthusiastic and then when they come in from primary school they think "Oh wow, all these girls are so good," and we say, "No, actually they're not that good, they were just the same as you when they first started," and from P7 they work so hard and you see them come on and then they get selected for Lanarkshire and then Scotland and its really good. […] I think if you get them hooked on netball it's just for girls and the boys are not there and they can really try, I think they get put off by boys but boys are good at it but I think 'why waste your time coaching them when there are no clubs for them (boys)?' I think because it's for the girls and they feel it's for them and they build up friendships I think it is social. I think really at the start it's the social thing and when they get good, they enjoy playing and being pushed. When I asked one of the P7s who's only started coming what she liked she said, "It's a lot more challenging than primary

> school netball," so they know it's a different level and they're quite up for the challenge. (Interviewee 6)

7.2.2 Secondary school experience

For others, involvement in the game began at, or continued into, secondary school. However, the P.E. department, teachers and curriculum were important elements in continued participation. Here, women spoke about how secondary school, and in particular a specific teacher, developed their netball opportunities. The following examples illustrate how they played in school clubs and school competitions before progressing to local clubs.

> I never started till third year [at secondary school] we had a school club. My chemistry teacher took the netball club and she told me about [local club], so I came here [to play]. (Interviewee 8)

> I was first introduced to it in my first year at high school when I was 12. I started playing in P.E. and then was selected for the school team and played with them for about 3 years. (Interviewee 14)

> I sort of played a wee bit in secondary and then got more into it in fifth and sixth year at school when we did some competitions. It was all in the school club at lunch time and after school. (Interviewee 37)

Many respondents felt that their school P.E. department was important in encouraging their participation in netball although stereotypes were still evident in some schools. An interesting point in these remarks is the desire, or 'bug', to play was fuelled by the P.E. curriculum as adolescence has traditionally been marred by a sharp decline in female sports participation (Casey et al. 2014, Sleap & Wormold 2001, Cockburn and Clarke 2002).

> I got the bug because of the teacher I had in secondary school. (Interviewee 17)

> It [netball] was what the P.E. teachers were interested. (Interviewee 34)

However, one interviewee felt that her time in secondary school reflected gender stereotypes in relation to female sports participation because of the attitudes of male teachers.

> Some see it [netball] as a girl's sport, the male P.E. staff are negative. (Interviewee 4)

These quotes are important as they demonstrate that school appears to be both an important socialising factor and enabling factor for some female sports participants.

7.2.3 Physical education department experience

Traditionally, competitive team sport has been perceived as a barrier to female sports participation (Gray, Sproule & Wang 2008). However, many women in this study used words such as 'really enjoyed', 'it's great', 'I love it' and it is 'such a buzz' to describe the competitive element of participating in netball because 'you get really wrapped up in it and the adrenaline goes'. The following examples illustrate players' enjoyment of this aspect of the game.

> I really enjoyed it; I liked playing on a team. I liked being involved in the excitement of a match and I was very competitive. (Interviewee 11)

> It's the competitive side I love – that feeling of winning is great! Probably playing the under 17s and getting my first cap for Scotland – nothing else has got up as high as that. (Interviewee 18)

> I like the team sport; I love the competition of it; you get really wrapped up in it and the adrenaline goes – even in the friendlies! It's good to have a bit of competition and team spirit. (Interviewee 27)

> I loved that – it was really, really competitive and I got such a buzz out of it. (Interviewee 32)

Interestingly, it was noted that some found their enjoyment came from working with and developing the next generation of netball players; this will be discussed further in the next chapter.

> Bringing on some of the girls and watching and nurturing them, those with the skill you think, “If we could work on that a wee bit more,” and you see them develop – that’s the bit I enjoy most. (Interviewee 9)

> It was really rewarding to see someone move through the levels of the game and being successful. Netball's not really a good spectator sport – it's so fast now! (Interviewee 23)

> We want to keep the club going so it’s the youngsters who play in the Scottish Cup – we’re hopeless but everybody still gets an amazing buzz out of it, we get completely slaughtered but we don’t really care but we know that the ultimate end is going to be the kids, that’s who we’re doing it for. (Interviewee 32)

However, for others, the enjoyment of competitive sport was countered with having fun playing the game. In their responses, women used terms which may be regarded as negative to describe their feelings towards higher level competition, such as ‘it’s quite aggressive’, ‘I didn’t enjoy it as much’ and it was more about ‘balance’ between being competitive and being sociable.

> I played as high as Division 2, the competition there is very different to here [lower league], it’s quite aggressive and competitive. (Interviewee 28)

> I just played regional [level] I liked it but it was very competitive, but I think I was quite, not as competitive as other people and I didn’t enjoy it as much but I’m quite a competitive person but not as much as this squad. I just love running about and I do like seeing the other girls as well. For me it’s social as well as competitive; it’s a balance between them and I wouldn’t say one was over-riding the other. (Interviewee 40)

7.2.4 Netball Scotland: leagues, district, national and international

The women in this study demonstrated that playing in local leagues, national or even international matches and events was something they enjoyed and aspired to. This was exemplified in comments which explored their ambitions and aspirations when playing netball. For example, some listed the different stages at

which they had played and others spoke about playing in a club ‘as soon as I had a chance’, of ‘moving up’ leagues and of having the ‘opportunity to play’ in district squads.

> I play club and district, I’ve played District for three seasons I think, I play Wing Defence. I’d like to keep playing for [local league club] and stay in the same division as we’ve moved up this year. (Interviewee 8)

> When I found there were a club going I just started to see where it went. We now play in the league and I play for the second team and it’s my second season playing in the league. (Interviewee 15)

> I’ve always played at club level, as soon as I got a chance to be in a club I was. From club I played District for many years it was running and then I got the opportunity to play for the U17 Squad. (Interviewee 18)

Other participants played elite netball and they considered experiences of this level of participation in the game. The striking aspect of these comments was how passionately they spoke about elite level competition and events they participated in. This was revealed in the use of phrases such as ‘pretty successful’, ‘nothing else has got up that high’ and ‘I bring my wee cap [national cap] out for a wee look’. These examples offer an insight into the meaning of this level of participation for these players.

> I’ve had a pretty good career in with netball – not a career as in getting paid but I’ve had a pretty successful career from district all the way through, in all the competitions going, Scottish, played national under 18, under 21 and got selected for the open national squad but I didn’t really make the cut unfortunately. (Interviewee 3)

> Probably playing the under 17s and getting my first cap for Scotland – nothing else has got up as high as that. Everything else I’ve achieved differently in netball. You know, moving on, getting the UKCC Level 2 they are the things I’m proud of but every so often I bring out my wee cap for a wee look! (Interviewee 8)

> We went with the club to Orkney and I've been to the European Championships in Northern Ireland, Dublin and Wales. The World Youth Championships are in Glasgow next year. I'd like to go to the World Youth Championships next year, definitely, and then hopefully into the Open Squad if I get picked. I'd love to just keep playing when I'm older. (Interviewee 26)

Yet, one woman considered the lack of funding for the national side and the impact that limited investment in the sport has on the development of the game at an international level. She commented,

> There is funding here for the Commonwealth Games in 2014 – resources we have don't match expectations. Smaller countries, such as Scotland, can't break into the top two due to budget limitations as well as the mental strength of players and elite teaching environment. (Interviewee 41)

7.2.5 Personal fitness

Participants in this study also suggested netball was an accessible way to develop and maintain their fitness in a setting they enjoyed rather than attending classes or other individual activities. They implied this is because netball is 'exciting and challenging' and they 'prefer a team sport to keep fit'. These examples illustrate how women used netball for fitness.

> I don't enjoy running but netball is more exciting and challenging – thinking about strategies to play. (Interviewee 1)

One thing I excelled at, a little bit, one thing I liked was the fitness side; I enjoy doing that outwith the game and bringing that to the court. (Interviewee 3)

> It's a good way to keep fit. I much prefer a team sport to keep fit rather than an individual sport. (Interviewee 8)

Another interviewee stated that she was still fit enough to play a match, although she was retired, which suggests that netball does enable lifelong fitness and sports participation.

> I just played in the Glasgow League from when I was forty and I'll be seventy this year. I still play – if someone asked me to play in their team I'd go, I could still play the hour ... no bother. (Interviewee 33)

7.3 Key Theme 2: Personal Environment

7.3.1 Introduction to and experience of netball – family and friends

Although school was a significant environment for many women in this study to be introduced to netball, other important, and inter-related, factors appear to be the support of family and friends along with the enjoyment of the game. This socialising factor highlights the relationships between family members and friends in developing and continuing involvement in netball.

7.3.2 Family, friends, club and socialising

The importance of family and friends in the club environment was highlighted by the women involved in this study. Many have other family members who are involved in their club and the friendships made through the game are shown to be significant. For some, a close family member has been involved and this may have been an inspiration for them.

> Three of my cousins play and I've met so many people through this club. Most of my friends are here now, but I just love here as it's one big family. Even if I had to retire through something I couldn't be apart from here. I love it. I could never go elsewhere; we're great friends and we socialise together. (Interviewee 2)

A number of respondents reflected on netball as a means to meet others and to develop a bond which sustained friendships over many years. Comments such as 'I threw myself into netball and made many new friends', 'netball has brought us together', 'through netball I made new friends' and 'it's a fantastic way to meet folk' suggest that this aspect of netball is significant for many players. Overall, many players shared experiences that detailed going to a new setting and using netball as a way to meet people and make new friends.

> Another fond memory […] was my first ever visit to Inverclyde in Largs for a whole week of netball in sweltering

> heat. I was the only girl from Ayrshire to attend and was a little apprehensive when I first arrived later than everyone else straight from my holiday on Millport across the water. My fears were very quickly forgotten as I threw myself into the netball and made many new friends – who I have met on many occasions since then when netball has brought us together over the years. (Interviewee 7)

> I love netball and have made so many friends through it. I lived in England for 10 years. The first thing I did was find a netball club and found that through my netball I made new friends, I am still in touch with one of them. They also have the same family feel to their clubs. (Interviewee 17)

This theme is further explored by women who revealed that the social element of netball clubs is important to them. For example, interviewees used phrases such as, 'it's the camaraderie […] and socialising together', 'a tight-knit group' and 'we're very sociable' to support this view.

> It's ... well I think in this team there's a core of us since the start and we've built really strong friendships as well, there's a good positive vibe about the club. And I find that when you're playing with a group of other people you don't want to let them down. It's the camaraderie – it's the team, playing together, training together, losing together and socialising together. (Interviewee 14)

> A lot of it is the social side. Playing wise you get a tight-knit group and that unit. It's great knowing that people have your back on the court, and you feel that strength and link. You get to know everybody and it's just fab. (Interviewee 18)

> It was friends [that got me playing]. I've got two brothers so no-one in the family played. I've always enjoyed the sport and it's a good way of keeping fit and it's quite good socialising as well. We'll have a Christmas Night Out, End of Season Night Out, if it's someone's birthday we'll go out! (Interviewee 34)

However, one woman felt that the over-riding factor for her was the social aspect and she did not enjoy it if the focus was only on competition.

> I was an important influence on my sister rather than school as I took her to the netball club. I brought her to the club and gradually she was brought into the team. Therefore, my sister feels part of the team as an equal team-mate – women don't give that easily. Sometimes I feel this dispute for myself – is it a club or a team? If it's team only then this can be alienating. I'm very social and like that aspect of seeing and chatting with friends although others are more competitive. (Interviewee 4)

7.4 Key Theme 3: Coaching Environment

For many respondents, remaining involved in netball after their playing careers ended appeared to be important to them. In this section, aspects pertaining to volunteering within clubs are discussed.

7.4.1 Volunteering in netball clubs

When considering their ongoing commitment to working within their clubs, there were a variety of responses relating to coaching, umpiring and helping out with the club committee. Many women spoke of their desire to continue to be involved in clubs, 'helping out', coaching and umpiring and had done so for a number of years. This would suggest that these women became role models to others within their clubs if they chose to volunteer once they stopped playing netball. These examples illustrate their desire to continue their involvement in the game.

> I think I'll always be involved; I like helping out with the game. I managed to get into coaching from there so when I was 18 I started coaching just for South Lanarkshire. I took Thistles – that's the wee ones, Mini's, Academy, u15, and u17s, so I've had a wide range of coaching. (Interviewee 8)

> My position at the moment is Junior Club Coach. I went on an umpiring course and got my C Umpire and I started some League matches. In the middle of that they brought out the UKCC award, so I think I had a grade 2 award from the old system, so I went straight in and did my UKCC Level 2. I did my 'B' umpiring years ago, and I umpired League but now my knees are too sore! (Interviewee 18)

> I was about 21 I started coaching for the council at [a local] school, but they didn't have the facilities. We joined the League from there and I coached for some years and then that got too expensive. The teacher at [another] High School approached me and asked if I'd coach their after-school team. I was working for [the] council doing primary school during the day and taking primary school clubs after school and then I did high school after school. (Interviewee 33)

However, what is significant about the following accounts is that when there was no local club, some participants established their own. They then developed the game in that area to provide opportunities for those who wanted to play netball. This is interesting, as women felt empowered to start their own club and took pride in doing so. This is reflected in the comments made in relation to establishing clubs and quickly becoming involved in competitive leagues.

> When I moved to Dumfries […] there was no netball club here, so I phoned the council and they put me in touch with the development officer who actually said that netball was a sport they were trying to get up and running. So, they asked if I wanted to become involved, so I said 'yes' and we started putting out some publicity to see if anyone else wanted to be involved in netball. In 2005 was when we had our first constitution and our first match. We started playing in the District League the first year. (Interviewee 14)

> We started our own club with the rule book. So now we've got 2 senior ladies' teams, we've got Under 13s, Under 17s and we've got a school team and it's growing. (Interviewee 30)

> There was one day when my friend started the club and she texted me at work and said, "What are you doing tonight? Do you want to come and play netball?" We literally started playing recreational and then we all decided we wanted to play competitive and that was five years ago. At this club we're very sociable and some of my best friends are here and it's great fun. It's really social if you're playing a match you can be lucky and just have a wee chat with them on court if the ball's up the other end. (Interviewee 37)

Some of the women gave examples of why they continue to support their local clubs and young people. These women suggest that the challenge and competitive aspect of being involved in a female team sport is what has been engaging for them.

> I think really at the start it's the social thing and when they get good they enjoy playing and being pushed. When I asked one of the P7s who's only started coming what she liked she said, "It's a lot more challenging than primary school netball," so they know it's a different level and they're quite up for the challenge. (Interviewee 6)

> For some of them it's just being part of a team and travelling to other schools and they've never been involved in a team with that team ethos and travelling. So, for a lot of them that's a big thing so it's a chance for them to be involved in that. (Interviewee 43)

An interesting aspect of conducting these interviews was the passion, enthusiasm and enjoyment of being involved in netball that came from all the women. It appeared they were delighted to have an opportunity to share their netball stories and spoke fondly of previous successes and achievements related to their participation in the sport.

7.5 Summary

This chapter has presented the findings of the qualitative data for the women in this study, in particular the enabling and socialising factors related to the significance of the school setting, family, friends and teachers ensured their continued participation in this sport. Aspects such as the enjoyment of competition that had been raised in the previous chapter were further explored.

In the following chapter, the findings from Chapters 6 and 7 are considered in relation to the research questions and the extant literature. In Chapter 6, the significant data gathered from the survey questionnaires were presented and examined in detail. The school environment, in providing opportunities and signposting to play netball, as well as the support of other women, has been crucial to the women who participated in this study. Another key finding is the

significance of their enjoyment of playing netball, either to be competitive or to keep fit. The findings of the quantitative data analysis were further explored in the themes generated by the semi-structured interviews in Chapter 7. These themes: school environment, personal environment, and coaching environment, suggest that the women involved in this study both conformed to and challenged traditional female stereotypes. Therefore, in the next chapter, the research questions: *In what ways does netball support lifelong female physical activity/participation in Scotland? What influences/factors have supported women who have continued to play netball through their life course?* are reviewed in relation to the quantitative and qualitative data presented and the available literature.

CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

This study examines two research questions; *In what ways does netball support lifelong female physical activity/participation in Scotland?* and *What influences/factors have supported women who have continued to play netball through their life course?* This section explores these questions in relation to literature presented in Chapters 2, 3 and 4, alongside the results presented in Chapters 6 and 7. In examining the relevant qualitative and quantitative data, we can begin to understand these players and how their experiences of netball have shaped the place of physical activity in their lives.

Figures from **sport**scotland in 2008 estimated that fifteen percent of Scotland's females regularly play team sports, with only one percent of those regularly playing netball (**sport**scotland 2008a). Although this thesis goes further than simply relaying figures for activity, inactivity and framing the responses from almost two hundred netball players within a pragmatic paradigm, it is not a depiction of the whole population of netball players. It is acknowledged here that this sample does not include the views of women who have not continued to play netball and is therefore biased towards elite level players rather than recreational level players.

8.1 Main Findings

This research advances the depth and meaning of statistics that were collected by referring to interviews and survey questionnaires with female netball players, past and present, as shown in Chapter 6 and Chapter 7. This chapter is structured around the three key themes of participation in netball which were generated through the analysis of both the quantitative and qualitative data;

- The school environment;
- The personal environment;
- The coaching environment.

There is a degree of overlap between these three inter-related areas and the findings are drawn together to discuss the implications for female sports participation in relation to the research questions. The first section of this chapter explores the factors which support female participation from primary and secondary school, such as opportunities to take part, physical literacy and teacher attitudes. The next section examines the significance of family and friends in relation to the enjoyment of the sport, while the third section looks at opportunities to participate in clubs and play netball at different levels. Finally, a section demonstrating the strengths and weaknesses of this study is presented.

8.2 The Role of School

With regard to both of the research questions explored in this study, the school experience has proven to be significant, both in introducing young girls to the game and in providing wider supporting opportunities. While exploring the sporting biographies of those who took part in this research, it was evident these women had the opportunity to participate in a wide variety of activities, though netball was their sport of choice (76.2%). The most apparent theme to emerge from the respondents was in relation to the influence of school netball and how this experience laid the foundations for their continued participation in the sport into adulthood. This was shown in Chapter 6, as 79% of respondents began playing netball before 14 years of age. Chapter 2 considered the significance of a number of factors regarding the participation of females in sporting activities and, in particular, the relevance of schooling and education in providing opportunities and support for female physical literacy and activity pathways[51] (Littlefield et al. 2003, Fisette 2013). The discussion details links to Welk's (1999) Model of Participation, presented in Chapter 2, to explore the themes of traditional barriers to participation and how women in this study appear to have overcome these.

[51] Many boys have opportunities to develop their physical literacy with others outwith school settings, e.g., football clubs, rugby clubs, Boys Brigade, etc.

8.2.1 Childhood experiences of netball

Welk's (1999) model was instrumental in providing a lens through which to examine research question 2 regarding the factors that have supported continuing participation in netball. Indeed, he indicates that school acts as an enabling agent which, in this instance, has sign-posted young women into netball at both competitive and recreational levels. Indeed, many participants in this study stated the importance of primary school as the place they were first introduced to netball. This study indicates the significance of playing or experiencing netball at primary school during early childhood (88%). The significance of primary school was discussed by interviewees 10, 39 and 40, as presented in Chapter 7. Wellard (2007) suggests that P.E. curricula in school may support traditional heterosexual, gendered activities and it may ironically be this all-female, girl-friendly aspect of netball which had encouraged positive female participation. However, it could be argued that, as most young girls have the opportunity to play netball at primary school, at this age they are not yet conscious of any gender differences between activities. This awareness of gender-bias and sports may become more apparent as they move into secondary school. As discussed, women often feel that they do not have the skills to participate in physical activities, especially when in a mixed-sex P.E. or sporting environment (Dodds 1993, Flintoff & Scraton 2002). It may be that a strength of netball is the fact that it is predominantly a single-sex activity where women can develop their skills levels and competitive experiences in comparison to other women, rather than to men. As intimated by Talbot (1993), P.E. teachers have historically assessed girls' performances against male standards rather than female ones (Howe 1997, McKay et al. 2000). Indeed, being compared to male sporting standards appears to have a negative influence on young women's desire to continue with sporting participation throughout their lives as these judgments appear to reinforce stereotypical ideas about societal expectations (Kew 1997). Therefore, being introduced to netball at primary school is important for girls, as it takes place before consciousness of gender bias and expectations. This means that young girls become hooked on the sport and continue to play in a female environment into the secondary school setting.

8.2.2 Physical education and female physical literacy

Further context for understanding how physical education and female physical literacy factors may support ongoing netball participation has previously been examined by a number of authors. The work of Fisette (2013) and Littlefield et al. (2003) also suggests that school is an important site where young people, especially girls, are given physical skills and experiences that can influence their continued participation in sports and physical activity throughout their lives (Scraton 1992, 1993, Larsson et al. 2009). Indeed, 23% of women in this study began playing regularly at school clubs. For many young girls, the opportunities to participate in traditional street games or general physical activity outwith school, such as skipping, hopscotch, elastics or balls,[52] are not as accessible or as prevalent as they were prior to the late 1980s. Therefore, the decline in the outdoor activities of young girls has also accelerated the lack of physical literacy that they bring to the school setting (Castelli et al. 2014). Indeed, as indicated by Chandler, Cronin and Vamplew (2002) and Laker (2002), diminishing participation may have been influenced by such factors. Within this study, interviewee 6 suggested that young women enjoy the challenge of the game and developing their abilities.

The women in this study had opportunities throughout their lives, in particular the early part of their lives, to develop their physical literacy, which has in turn enabled them to feel physically skilled and competent at this game. This is an important aspect of lifelong physical activity, as it addresses the cultural implications of P.E., netball and female sports participation and is worthy of further investigation. During school P.E., single-sex lessons appear to be more helpful in encouraging girls' participation, as skill levels are more equal, and values appear to be on social tasks and activities rather than on highly skilled techniques that boys seem to value more. Yet, this indicates a possible contradiction, as this approach may hinder the development of the necessary

[52] Traditional games using one or two tennis balls against a building wall and tying elastic bands together to form bands to jump over were common in Scotland until the 1990s.

skills required to be physically literate and competent as adult sporting participants.

However, others do not agree that talent identification, or sport specialisation, is a key role of P.E. (Bailey & Collins 2013, Bailey 2015). The underpinning philosophy of a Broad General Education (BGE) in Scotland, detailed in Chapter 2, indicates that the role of schools and P.E. teachers is to sign-post children into pathways of lifelong physical activity by providing a wide range of physical activity experiences and contexts rather than being focused on identification of a few elite performers. If schools encourage mass participation and engagement across a variety of physical activity opportunities, then it is more likely that young people will have the skills and confidence to continue with activities throughout their lives. In addition, by highlighting local clubs and pathways, schools are able to support high level performers obtain the sport-specific information required that P.E. teachers are not able to provide during lessons.

8.2.3 Physical education and lifelong physical activity

Teachers ought to have greater appreciation of different needs to provide learners with the opportunities to support lifelong physically activity (Williams et al. 2000, Littlefield et al. 2003). For example, the use of mixed sex or single-sex classes may have varying levels of success, depending not only on the needs of the learners, but also on the understanding of teachers and teacher attitudes towards physical activity and P.E. (Crocker et al. 2000, Talbot 1993). The discussion in this section helps answers the research questions explored in this study by offering insight into how netball participation in school, along with wider opportunities to play, can lead to lifelong engagement with this sport.

Flintoff (1993) examines teacher training institutes which may have reinforced the traditional views of gendered activities through their courses and curricula. However, since the mid-1980s, P.E. teachers in Scotland have been trained in a greater number of co-educational Initial Teacher Education (ITE) establishments. This range of providers may now encourage more diverse views within the teaching profession than previously. Thus, the issues outlined by Flintoff (1993) around different teaching training curricula for male and female staff and societal

expectations have not negatively influenced this group of women in their pursuit of netball across a range of levels (McKay et al. 2000).

The findings in Chapter 6 and Chapter 7 indicate that, for many women, netball was introduced during primary or early secondary education and their continued participation would suggest an overall positive experience of the sport. This is interesting, as both boys and girls are active at similar levels during primary school education and this is a time when a significant number of those involved in this research stated that they had been introduced to the game of netball. The majority of participants began playing netball before they were 14 years old (Chapter 6). This factor was discussed in a number of interviews, for example, interviewees 8 and 37, who became involved in the game around this age. It would seem that this early introduction has been a positive factor in why these women have continued to play throughout their lives. So, it would appear that, for the participants in this study, the expected decline in sporting participation during adolescence has not occurred: contrary to typical patterns of behaviour, they have in fact continued to play into adulthood (Creager 1999, Bailey 2001).

8.2.4 Factors which influence female participation in team sports at school

This section focuses on research question 2 and identifies the key factors that support lifelong participation in netball and team sports. The role of netball in encouraging physical activity amongst females in Scotland is extremely significant, particularly within the school setting, as this is where many females are first introduced to this game. Participation in this team sport at school enables girls and young women to become physically literate adults, experiencing higher levels of self-esteem and self-confidence.

In this study it could be further suggested that this is one of a number of positive and reinforcing factors which have supported these women in netball participation throughout their lives (Biddle & Mutrie 2008, Casey et al. 2014). In addition, perceived competence or skill factor appears to be high in women who took part in this study and these have been indicated as important factors in continued participation (Armstrong 1990, Fox 2000a, Mulvihill et al. 2000, Weiss 2000). Therefore, policy makers are required to take cognisance of the needs of young girls and women throughout their lives. Policies should support young girls into

physical activity and team sports, as well as providing opportunities, such as Bounce Back netball, for women to return to team sports.

In this research, most women played netball competitively, which demonstrates high levels of both physical skill and physical fitness and a desire for competition (Chapter 6). For these participants, continued opportunity and engagement in a school context were supporting factors. These findings reflect those of Creager (1999), Crocker et al. (2000) that high levels of perceived competence and enjoyment lead to greater engagement. Yet, this appears to contradict Darling and Glendinning (1996) and Prusak and Darst (2002), who suggest that individual, partner or aesthetic activities are most appealing to young women rather than a team sport. However, a number of women in this study, such as interviewees 8, 11, 27, and 32 (Chapter 7), reported their enjoyment and preference of team sports.

As considered in Chapter 2, team sports in a school or education setting were regarded as a means to develop the moral character of young men (Brailsford 1992) and to maintain the gender order of society in the late nineteenth century (Pfister & Hartmann-Tews 2003). Yet, for women, the same activities had to be altered to have little or no physical contact, in order for them to be suitable pursuits (McCrone 1991, Coakley 2001, Kay & Jeanes 2007). This reflects the differing sporting expectations of men and women within society at that time. These views were perpetuated within colleges of teacher training and education in the early twentieth century: the dominance of men was reinforced, sport was viewed as a male pastime, and women were too frail to be engaged in it (Tranter 1998, Hargreaves 2000, Fisette 2013). In some places, it could be argued, the legacy around such views regarding gender still remain and still have an impact on the perceptions of what activities girls and young women can undertake.

It has often been proposed that females should only participate in aesthetic, feminine activities that do not impact on male sporting activities and venues in a school setting. These wider societal attitudes may explain why there is resistance to female sporting ventures in particular but not specifically in relation to netball which is seen as a ‘sport for girls’, with no male history preceding. The perceived gendered nature of this sport may be one reason why it has been side-lined within

school timetables and facility usage. Indeed, the acceptance of netball as a female-dominated activity may perpetuate limiting views that women are only able to undertake gentle activities which reflect society's expectations of them as wives, mothers and carers. This view may reinforce the idea that women facilitate male lives rather than pursuing their own needs and wants (Tranter 1998, Thompson 1999).

8.3 The Significance of Social Factors

8.3.1 Sport and femininity

It is only relatively recently that women have gained a greater degree of parity in sporting activities, such as athletics, boxing, football and cricket, where they have been able to compete in similar, but not equal, events to male participants. Yet, as discussed in Chapter 2, netball is still viewed by the wider population in a stereotypical way as a female, gendered activity that is gentle and suitable for young women to participate in. However, not only did respondents in this study enjoy competitive games, none of them questioned their femininity in relation to playing netball. Although femininity was not an issue explicitly raised by participants in this study, these women are apparently empowered by playing netball and did not indicate that sporting competition or training has a negative impact on their lives (Birrell 1983, Talbot 1990, Scraton 1992, Hargreaves 1994, Menzies 1997).

It could further be argued that netball has inspired women since they began to play the game as it encouraged them to challenge the way that they dressed: moving from the boned, corseted, long-skirted dresses with large hats and accessories of the early twentieth century to a range of kit that now encourages freedom of movement and has increased the speed of the game. Kew (1997 p. 141) suggests that women-only sports provide a 'more supportive and enjoyable' context for female participation. Yet, Kay (2008) also notes that such environment 'undermines their [women] position in a society in which sport is highly valued' due to the 'association of sport with masculinity'. Nevertheless, it might be argued that, in the twenty-first century, netball is challenging these stereotypes by increasing the numbers of men regularly playing and umpiring at events in

Scotland and beyond, as could be seen at the Netball World Cup (2019) where men umpired the final.

However, Deem and Gilroy (1998 p. 97) state that such situations lead to 'a growth in confidence in one's ability', which may translate to an increased personal awareness and assertiveness in other aspects of life. This may be one reason why the women in this research felt so invested in netball that they established their own clubs when necessary. It is in this light that the next section examines other factors which have been important in ensuring continuing participation in this team sport.

8.3.2 The importance of family and friends

This section responds to both research questions as well as providing an understanding of the ways in which netball, and other influences, have supported the women in this study to continue to participate in this team sport. For many participants, the reinforcing factor of family has been significant as they were often introduced to netball through a close relative such as a mother, sister or cousin; 40% before the age of 14. For example, interviewees 2 and 4 spoke of going to a club with a close family member. As explained by Carron et al. (2003) and Biddle et al. (2001), the creating and strengthening of friendships through sports is significant for female participation, as these settings reinforce positive self-perceptions and self-esteem, which supports continuing participation (Dyson 2006).

As outlined by Carron et al. (2003), peer influence is significant as part of the discussion regarding group dynamics and sports participation. This study reinforces the findings of Conger (1991), Measor and Sikes (1992), Mulvihill et al. (2000), Weiss (2000) and Biddle et al. (2001) that friends are a strong influence on women playing at all levels of competitive sport. As Conger (1991) notes, peer values and culture are much more potent during adolescence when children are more influenced by their friendship groups than parental attitudes. Therefore, for women in this research, the strong parental and peer influence during childhood appears to have supported their continued participation in the sport as adults. This observation is reiterated in the actions of some women in relation to how they have integrated netball in their own family lives, which means

these supportive cycles continue. As considered in Chapter 2, the importance of family and parental influence is particularly significant in encouraging lifelong physical activity and sports participation (Gervais 1991, Wold & Hendry 1998, Babkes & Weiss 1999, Mulvihill et al. 2000). Indeed, in Chapter 7, interviewees 2, 7 and 17 indicated that they were motivated by family and friends to play and attend clubs.

8.3.3 Social support and netball

As reported and argued by Weinberg et al. (2000) and Biddle, Mutrie and Gorley (2001), the social aspects of netball are noteworthy, as a number of women expressed the strong impact that the perceived social support netball clubs had on their lives. This is particularly important in relation to the second research question explored in this study, as different influences have enabled the women to continue to play, and be supported, throughout their lives. This was reflected in the comments from interviewees 7, 17, 18 and 32, in Chapter 7, who all referenced the close relationship they felt with others at their netball clubs.

This suggests that the negative factors discussed earlier, which appear to strongly influence many other young women such as mixed-sex P.E. classes and negative influences from parents and friends, have not had a dramatic impact on this group. This may be due to the strong reinforcing factors they have felt in their lives and which have supported their participation in netball, such as the influence of family and friends, and the enjoyment and belief in their own sporting abilities. Indeed, this was exemplified by interviewee 4, who felt that there was a negative attitude from male P.E. staff towards netball, but this did not prevent her from playing or encouraging her sibling to play.

This reflects Coakley's (2001) view that, by participating in netball, these women perceive themselves as being stronger and more independent. Carlson (1995), Welk (1999) and Harter (2000), suggest that people with more positive opinions and self-perceptions in a physical context are more likely to continue with physical activity. Indeed, the women in this study indicated that they play a range of sports during their school lives and into adulthood.

8.3.4 Group dynamics and netball

This section provides a discussion relating to both research questions as it offers insight into the ways in which netball players in Scotland feel supported to continue to play this team sport. Weiss (2000) stated that enjoyment in sport is the single most, strongest predictor of continued participation. Enjoyment is also linked to positive self-perceptions, especially during adolescence, when it appears that many young women stop participating in physical activity and sport. Continued participation is closely bound up with feelings of enjoyment, friendship and social support, unlike those who had the opposite experience and dropped out of sports participation before adulthood (Creager 1999, Weiss 2000). The women in this study expressed strong enjoyment in the club setting, as this is connected with group dynamics, friendships and the social aspects of netball participation. This is in contrast to male participation, which Smith (1999) indicates is mainly expressed through player proficiency and high skill level. Nevertheless, the perception of others does not appear to be a strong indicator of continued female participation, as physical competence is not as significant to friendships or social bonding for women as it appears to be for men. For example, a talented male soccer player may be more readily accepted by others because of his ability rather than his personality or how he affects the social dynamics of the team (Boyd 1998, Creager 1999).

The significance of group dynamics and friendships are strong factors that have been mentioned by many women in this thesis. The reinforcing factors of friends, family and teachers are an important way of introducing many of the women to competitive netball. Telama et al. (2005), Dyson (2006), Hills (2007) and Casey et al. (2014) all indicate that P.E. teachers should fully understand the significance of friendship groups and social dynamics when planning or constructing female-friendly or gender-specific curricula: this helps promote physical activity and lifelong sports participation. This is important, as these situations help to increase the links and connections of those involved. Therefore, when playing a team sport such as netball, there is an increase in both social bonding and a sense of belonging (Weinberg et al. 2000, Biddle et al. 2001, Carron et al. 2003, Ethrer et al. 2004, Kao & Cheng 2005). This notion is supported by the responses in Chapter 6, where women indicated they had

friends at their club (25%), friends at other clubs (67%) and enjoyed the good atmosphere in their club (85%).

8.3.5 Netball – challenging societal expectations

Measor and Sikes (1992), MacClancy (1996) and Wellard (2007) indicate that the attitudes to and perceptions of female sporting participation by wider society are factors that hinder women's self-perceptions. This assumption envisages an alternative opinion that contradicts traditional messages in Western societies about how women should behave in relation to life choices, as well as with regard to their sporting choices (Griffiths 1995, Garrett 2004, Roth & Bascow 2004). Indeed, at a Sirens[53] home game in 2017 at the Emirates Arena in Glasgow, one umpire was male as were approximately 10 percent of the 500-strong audience. Interestingly, this appeared to be a normal situation rather than regarded as an unusual occurrence, which suggests a cultural shift. Alternatively, it could be perceived as men taking over a traditionally female space and activity. Therefore, it may be that the women in this survey were part of environments during their school years which helped enhance the social reliance and social support they experienced when participating in netball. Again, this appears to contradict previous research which suggests that girls prefer activities which only have limited competition and are individual in nature (Stidder 2000, Prusak & Darst 2002).

As examined in Chapter 2, female-only activities may encourage women to have a greater feeling of ownership in other areas of their lives (Deem & Gilroy 1998, Wellard 2007). However, netball may have been considered an acceptable form of physical activity for women as it was not developed from a male sport and women appeared to remain feminine when playing. As Birrell (1983) suggests, sport often remains deemed a male pursuit and this may mean that women who choose to participate in sports and excel in them are regarded as a threat to this dominance. Therefore, netball may be viewed as a liberating activity for women

[53] The Sirens are a Glasgow-based elite netball team who have played in the Netball Superleague since 2016/17.

to participate in as it is free from male stereotypes and prejudices and allows women to establish their own expectations based on their own physicality.

8.4 The Importance of Netball Coaching and Community

8.4.1 Coaching and community support

Griffiths (1995 p. 6) indicates that 'women-only spaces … are one manifestation of the mutual support that women can provide'. In this light it could be suggested that netball provides such an environment which may help to understand how this sport is able to support physical activity participation in Scotland. In being a female-dominated activity, players, coaches, officials and administrators of this sport continue to produce positive role models for women of all ages. This is reinforced by the comments made in Chapter 7 regarding how some women in this study had to develop the game in their own communities (Interviewees 30 and 37).

Deem (1986) and Hargreaves (1994) propose that being aggressive and overtly competitive have not traditionally been valued characteristics for young women in either mixed school or sports settings. The findings of this thesis demonstrate that netball has provided these women with an outlet for their sporting competitiveness that is free from the negative influence and connotations of male sports. This is because a predominantly female sporting environment enables women to have strong female role models as players, coaches and officials, something not immediately recognisable in other sports. There is an interesting juxtaposition here as, in enjoying competitive sport, these women are challenging traditional female stereotypes and yet, by developing the next generation of players, they may be conforming to these values.

Therefore, women who have played and then become coaches provide strong, positive role models for younger players. With over 91 percent of respondents holding coaching or umpiring awards and the enthusiastic comments presented in Chapter 7, it is clear that this positive cycle is continuing. This portrayal sends a powerful message to those involved in the game as they see other women in control of every aspect of the game, at club, national, and international levels, umpiring, officiating, and participating in committees and as C.E.O (Wienberg et

al. 2000, Carron et al. 2003). These women are not conforming to stereotypical opinions that women should not play sports throughout their lives or that they should be the main enablers of male participation in sport and other social activities. The strong female representation in leading roles in netball may also reinforce positive messages for young women that in turn encourage participation and engagement with all aspects of this sport. It could be argued that these positive role models encouraged life-long participation and engagement of the women in this study (Crocker et al. 2000, Fox 2000a).

Although it is not unusual for players to coach any sport after ending their playing careers, many women do not continue to play sports into adulthood and therefore their pathways into coaching may not be as straightforward as they are for men. A number of those interviewed seemed to represent a natural progression from team player to coach or other volunteering role within the club setting (Interviewees 8, 18, and 33).

Biddle et al. (2001) suggest that the positive self-perceptions and self-esteem that people have from participating in physical activity may be factors that influence players to become coaches when they are no longer able to play or compete at a level they wish, but who still have a desire to be involved in the group dynamics of the sport. Positive role models for younger generations of players, such as P.E. teachers, family and friends, may also play a part in encouraging women to become coaches once they stop playing the game.

8.4.2 Coaches as role models

From the research conducted as part of this thesis, it is evident that the P.E. profession has been an integral aspect of the development of netball considered in Chapter 4. Historically it appears that being a P.E. teacher has been an acceptable occupation for many middle-class women. Indeed, in examining the history and development of netball, it is clear there are many connections between the game and P.E. institutions for women around the world. It has its roots with, and perhaps owes its continuing development to, the women who pioneered the game through colleges of education such as Dartford, Dunfermline and Eastbourne over the last one hundred years. Initially, it would appear that the training of middle-class women in the late nineteenth and early twentieth

centuries as P.E. teachers reflects the expectations of women's educational and professional aspirations. The women who trained at this time, and subsequently taught other females, were in many ways challenging some of the prevailing beliefs around female sporting participation. Yet, it could be argued that they were perpetuating stereotypical views by encouraging female physical activity and being role models within patriarchal boundaries, as activities such as netball had to be adapted as women were seen as being too fragile to perform in the same ways as men.

However, world events, national and international movements, suggest these views gradually changed, and, by the 1960s and the second wave of feminism, women's own expectations were changing. Not only was this reflected in the jobs and occupations of women, but also in their sporting activities. The women playing netball at this time were pioneers who felt passionately about developing the sport nationally and internationally.

8.4.3 Recent developments

Recent developments in the game reflect a number of issues that also affect other team sports, such as recruiting and retaining players, rule changes, and the introduction of smaller sided faster games. In addition, different pathways have been developed to engage players throughout their lives, with game variations such as mini-ballers, INSTA Netball and walking netball. These may be some of the ways in which netball supports lifelong participation and engagement for the women in this study.

Since the 2000s, men have been playing netball in male leagues, which initially began in the southern hemisphere and are now developing in Canada and England. It will be fascinating to observe how this trend influences the game going forward. Also, male influence in netball, as players and officials, has made significant in-roads in a number of countries. However, this has taken a long time despite men being involved initially in countries such as in New Zealand. It is curious that the number of men involved in the New Zealand Association gradually declined during the 1930s until there were only three male delegates out of a total of thirty-four (Nauright & Broomhall 1994). It is interesting to speculate how netball will develop in the future if men continue to play and begin

to take on more prominent roles within the structure and organisation of the game. Indeed, it took until the early 1990s before men were able to support international matches as officials (Magnay 1991).

For the women in this thesis, their passion and enthusiasm for this sport is genuine, with 30 percent declaring they wanted to win at some level, but it may be that the wider discussion around gender equality, equity and empowerment are not explicit in their desire to play or reasons for participating in this sport as opposed to another team game.

8.5 Summary of main points of this study

This thesis has examined female sports participation through both the historical and contemporary role of netball in Scotland to offer insight into the research questions of this study;

- *What ways does netball support lifelong female physical activity/participation in Scotland?*
- *What influences/factors have supported women who have continued to play netball through their life course?*

In this light, this research examined the following topics;

- women in Western society:
- women in sports history;
- the development of netball;
- the place and context of netball in the lives of Scottish women.

These were addressed through the seven chapters which make up this research study following the introduction. The second chapter examined a number of issues pertaining to physical activity and sports participation. In particular, matters relating to the three waves of feminism, educational issues such as physical training and muscular Christianity, along with factors which have an impact on physical activity behaviours were investigated. The next chapter

focused on the place of women in British and Western society, where issues surrounding women in society, sports history, women's sports history were explored. Chapter 4 considered the history and development of netball, its origins and the growth of the game in the USA, England, Scotland and internationally through the Youth Games, Commonwealth Games and Olympic Games and recent developments in the sport. The following chapter was concerned with the methods and methodology used in the research process. This focused on philosophical views, positivist, interpretivist, critical and pragmatic approaches, followed by discussion of the research process using mixed methods, the recruitment, sampling and data collection for this research. The quantitative data was put forward in Chapter 6, where findings including the characteristics of the participants as well as the data from each section of the survey questionnaires were presented. The next chapter provided a summary of the analysis of the qualitative data that were generated from the semi-structured interviews. The use of thematic analysis to analyse the findings identified three key themes of school, personal and coaching environments that combine to influence netball participation with the women in this study. Finally, Chapter 8 has evaluated the links between the quantitative, qualitative data and the literature explored in previous chapters. The significance of physical literacy, physical activity, female sport and socialising factors were discussed in relation to the information gained from this study.

8.6 Study Strengths and Weaknesses

An important strength of this study is that it is the first time that research has been undertaken to examine female sports participation through netball in a Scottish context. It offers a unique picture of netball participation and provides a counterpoint to established views relating to female physical activity. By conducting detailed interviews the reliability of the findings were enhanced as I was aware of potential issues when analysing interview data. I also allowed the participant to drive the pace of the interview and allowing their stories to unfold organically. However, the use of a convenience sample means that the data gathered does not provide information representing women who did not continue to play netball throughout their lives.

8.6.1 Limitations of this study

Recently, as a part-time PhD student, I have been fortunate to witness the rapid development of netball, both in Scotland and internationally. The development of different aspects of the game by Netball Scotland, such as walking netball and Bounce Back netball, has, for many women, given them opportunities to return to a game they enjoyed during their school years. Indeed, the coverage of netball on television, mainstream sports websites and an explosion on social media has been so quick that, as a full-time student, I may not have seen the impact that has occurred in both participants and interest in this sport. Nonetheless, the extended period of this research means that these topics are potential areas of future research that I would not have been aware of before now.

Due to the sampling strategy I utilised, the findings cannot be generalised, as this thesis represents the views and experiences of a small number of the total number of registered netball players in Scotland. Indeed, it may have been interesting to compare the views of the women in this study with others who no longer play sports to examine their reasons for becoming disengaged.

8.6.2 The research process

At the start of the research process it was initially felt that the secondary evidence gathered through films, rules books from the Scottish National Archive and local authorities would be valuable evidence as part of this thesis. Unfortunately, the secondary evidence gathered was not helpful, except for providing more background information, and it was not used in detail for this study. Therefore, survey questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were used for the reasons explained in Chapter 5.

Survey questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were employed to gather quantitative and qualitative data for this study. It is acknowledged that other methods could have been utilised; however, observational studies would have only provided evidence of what the researcher could see and note at a given point in time and would not reveal what people were thinking (Thomas, Silverman & Nelson 2015). Also, diaries could have been used to reinforce information from interviews, but these were rejected as the detail or background gathered would

not match that which could be obtained from a questionnaire (Thomas et al. 2015).

Therefore, as discussed in Chapter 5, it was decided that a survey questionnaire would be employed to collect quantitative data for this research. This method can be quickly shared with participants and, in this case, the researcher was present to answer any questions. However, the design of the survey questionnaire is important, and a number of steps needed to be undertaken to ensure the reliability and validity of this approach.

8.6.3 Conducting a pilot study

A trial run or pilot of the intended survey questionnaire is suggested by Thomas and Nelson (1996). This enables the researcher to 'simply ask a few colleagues to read over the questionnaire' and, once they have given their feedback on the format or relevance of questions, changes can be made if necessary (Thomas & Nelson 1996 p. 318). This is a vital part of the overall research process as it helps diminish potential problems before the rest of the study is carried out. This also ensures the time and effort used in collecting data is worthwhile. However, it is worth noting that carrying out this process is no guarantee of success, but it can help to reduce and resolve any possible problematic issues (O'Leary 2004, Gillham 2008). Carrying out a pilot study, as I did for this thesis, can help assure greater credibility and trustworthiness of the study (Lincoln & Guba 1985, Golafshani 2003).

8.6.4 Semi-structured interviews

Before conducting the semi-structured interviews, these were also trialled prior to interviewing all participants. This was because, as a novice interviewer, it was important to have had a trial to develop the skills required to successfully implement this method of data collection. However, the information from the semi-structured interviews was more difficult to analyse than the survey questionnaires, as people gave a wide variety of responses in relation to their own personal story of netball involvement. Despite conducting a pilot with three respondents, this meant that, not only had the time estimated for carrying this out been significantly underestimated, it also meant that one or two technical issues,

such as background noise or wind, had not been detected during interviews at the time. Unfortunately, as King (1994) suggests, some of the respondents although willing to help, did find it difficult to provide rich, detailed responses to the questions asked during the semi-structured interview (Appendix 4).

Notwithstanding these limitations, this research has utilised a clear and logical approach to gather quantitative and qualitative data to explore the ways the women in this study negated perceived barriers to participation. The interplay between the data generated for this study using a mixed methods approach has provided rich data from which evidence relating to, and conclusions regarding, netball participation have been drawn.

8.7 Future directions for research

This thesis builds on previous research to provide insight into the factors that support women's participation in netball in Scotland. It has achieved this by exploring the experiences of women involved in the sport while considering the unique history of netball in Scotland and beyond. The key themes revealed in the research are presented in Chapters 6 and 7. These findings and their discussion narrate the story of netball participation and the practices that influenced and supported the participants' continued engagement in this sport. This thesis has presented the findings in relation to the research questions and thus makes a unique contribution to the knowledge by addressing the gaps in knowledge identified in Chapter 4.

Despite the limitations of the study discussed above, this research has provided valuable knowledge that will help to inform policy and practice when considering issues relating to providing support to involve in girls to develop lifelong interest in continued physical activity. This study provides evidence that may help PE teachers to understand that pupil choice, and pupil voice, is important when co-designing curricular pathways for adolescent girls and that competitive teams sports will be a preferred option for some. The views of the women who participated in this study provide a compelling perspective from which teachers can reflect on their own views and expectations regarding the abilities and needs of adolescent girls to build supportive environments for lifelong engagement in

physical activity. This research has provided a detailed analysis of netball participation in Scotland and, alongside the recent rise in visibility of netball, this may provide an opportunity for P.E. teachers to highlight female sporting role models within their schools to inspire and encourage adolescent girls to participate in team sports.

Moreover, further topics could be explored as this is an under-researched area in Scotland. There is a need for a more critical analysis in relation to encouraging girls to participate in team sports, such as:

- The wider context could be investigated to delve further into this area. For example, what factors support adolescent girls' participation in team sports both in and outwith the school setting? Or, how is netball developing in Scotland in the twenty-first century?
- A deeper exploration of key themes may provide further illumination of issues. For instance, how schools can offer support and development opportunities relevant to young and adolescent girls, as this appears to be a critical time which supports lifelong participation.
- Similar research into other female team sports in Scotland could help deepen this understanding. To what extend do we understand the factors which support lifelong female participation in team sports in general?

Examining the differences and similarities relating to a range of team sports, such as hockey, rugby, cricket and volleyball, may offer deeper insight into ways that organisations can encourage and motivate young women to participate throughout their lives.

This chapter has discussed the key findings presented in Chapters 6 and 7 and connects these with the literature explored in earlier chapters. It also sets out the strengths and weakness of this study and offers suggestions for future directions that this research could take. The next, and final, chapter summarises the key findings of this study and explores why they are significant in informing and improving female physical activity and sport in Scotland.

CHAPTER 9: CONCLUSION

This thesis provides a new perspective on female team sporting cultures and physical activities in a Scottish context by considering the research questions; *What ways does netball support lifelong female physical activity/participation in Scotland? What influences/factors have supported women who have continued to play netball through their life course?* The findings from this study have implications for those involved in the investigation of the phenomena of female sports participation, as well as providers of female sporting opportunities, such as **sport**scotland and Netball Scotland. Each of these bodies should find the results of this research useful in their provision for this demographic. Physical Educationalists, particularly those concerned with how to engage female students in lifelong physical activity, may wish to examine the factors which influence sports participation when planning their curricula. Others will be interested in this study as it provides a unique perspective on female team sports participation in Scotland throughout the life cycle of this section of the population.

The key findings to emerge from this thesis are:

- Many women enjoy competitive team sport. This is a challenge to the traditional view of female physical activity which suggests a preference for aesthetics, individual activities and a dislike of competitive team sports.

- The importance of exposure to the game at primary school and the support of family and friends as key factors influencing continued participation in this sport.

- Popularly constructed barriers to female physical activity participation do not appear significant to the group in this study.

- Social factors of netball participation are important to the women in this study.

9.1 Why This Matters

This study is the first time that the historical and contemporary place of netball in Scotland has been investigated. The findings of this research are also unique in that they provide a counterpoint to the received wisdom regarding the wider study of female physical activity, especially team sports participation. Providers of female sporting opportunities, such as **sport**scotland and other national governing bodies, have written their policies based on research which highlights a number of general barriers and preferences related to participation:

- perceived personal safety issues
- travelling issues
- prohibitive costs
- child-care issues
- convenience
- focus on health, fitness and body image
- preference for aesthetic activities rather than competitive team activities.

In supporting such views, providers and policy makers may be addressing a universal, generic group in the population. However, this means that women who enjoy competitive team sports may be further marginalised as the mainstream focus is on the majority. This highlights the need to examine population groups more closely rather than treating them homogenously and providing generalised findings. Indeed, by offering opportunities for individual, aesthetic-based activities, many women may be missing the opportunity to develop both their physical and personal skill sets as well as challenging societal beliefs and expectations regarding female competitive physical activity.

9.2 Summary of Main Points

Future research could be undertaken investigating the effect of increased physical literacy and how this may increase physical activity and sports participation amongst females. Another interesting area to examine would be to probe the influence of ethnicity and netball participation, as there are clubs which cater, for example, for Muslim women in Scotland and this is an under-researched subject. In addition, the impact of new pathway programmes such as Bounce Back, INSTA Netball and Walking Netball on female lifelong participation can be an area of study that may provide a model for other sports to support women in sport. Also, the examination of women's participation in other team sports could demonstrate whether there is a wider desire for this aspect of female physical activity or whether this is confined to netball alone. The impact of social media on the game, along with increased television coverage and how this has affected the perceptions of female sports participation, is another area of study that would be exciting to explore in future research.

This thesis has examined the views of a sample of women and has provided a new perspective on Scottish female physical activity and sports participation through netball. This work provides information which challenges societal views in relation to female physical activity and demonstrates a positive opportunity for women of all ages in this sport. These feelings are exemplified by such comments from respondents as, *'everyone comes back [to netball]', 'it's the competitive side I love – that feeling of winning is great!*' Therefore, society needs to embrace this aspect of physical activity and provide opportunities for women to engage with sport in different ways than have not been easily accessible until now.

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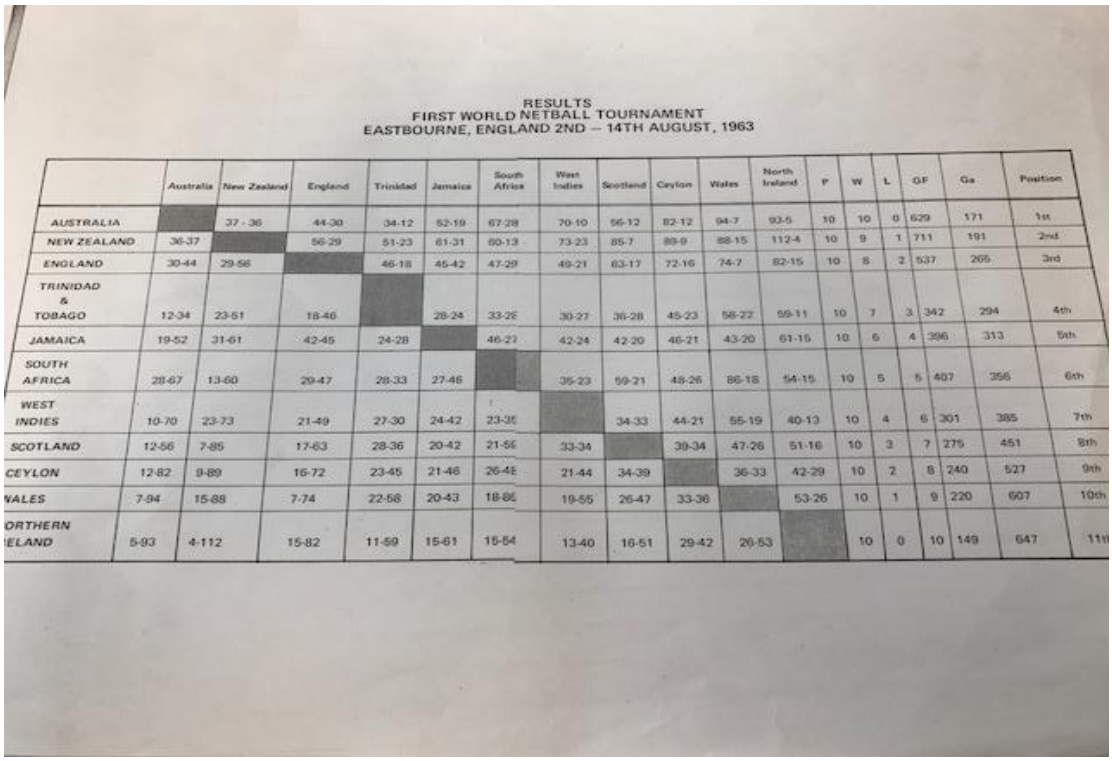
APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Scottish Netball Team (1949)

Position	Name	Area
Goal Shooter	Rena Johnston	Glasgow
Assistant Shooter	Helen Glen*	Edinburgh
Attacking Centre	Lily Hunter*	Aberdeen
Centre	M Fleming	Dunfermline
Defending Centre	Rita Renfrew*	Glasgow
Assistant Goal Keeper	Noelle Brebner	Aberdeen
Goal Keeper	Doris Fitzpatrick	Glasgow
Reserve	Eileen McLean*	Glasgow
Reserve	B Smith	Dunfermline

(* players were P.E. teachers)

Appendix 2: 1963 World Championship Results



RESULTS
FIRST WORLD NETBALL TOURNAMENT
EASTBOURNE, ENGLAND 2ND – 14TH AUGUST, 1963

	Australia	New Zealand	England	Trinidad	Jamaica	South Africa	West Indies	Scotland	Ceylon	Wales	North Ireland	P	W	L	GF	Ga	Position
AUSTRALIA		37 - 36	44-30	34-12	52-19	67-28	70-10	56-12	82-12	94-7	93-5	10	10	0	629	171	1st
NEW ZEALAND	36-37		56-29	51-23	61-31	60-13	73-23	85-7	89-9	88-15	112-4	10	9	1	711	191	2nd
ENGLAND	30-44	29-56		46-18	45-42	47-29	49-21	63-17	72-16	74-7	82-15	10	8	2	537	265	3rd
TRINIDAD & TOBAGO	12-34	23-51	18-46		28-24	33-28	30-27	36-28	45-23	58-22	59-11	10	7	3	342	294	4th
JAMAICA	19-52	31-61	42-45	24-28		46-23	42-24	42-20	46-21	43-20	61-15	10	6	4	396	313	5th
SOUTH AFRICA	28-67	13-60	29-47	28-33	27-46		35-23	59-21	48-26	86-18	54-15	10	5	5	407	356	6th
WEST INDIES	10-70	23-73	21-49	27-30	24-42	23-35		34-33	44-21	55-19	40-13	10	4	6	301	385	7th
SCOTLAND	12-56	7-85	17-63	28-36	20-42	21-59	33-34		39-34	47-26	51-16	10	3	7	275	451	8th
CEYLON	12-82	9-89	16-72	23-45	21-46	26-48	21-44	34-39		36-33	42-29	10	2	8	240	527	9th
WALES	7-94	15-88	7-74	22-58	20-43	18-86	19-55	26-47	33-36		53-26	10	1	9	220	607	10th
NORTHERN IRELAND	5-93	4-112	15-82	11-59	15-61	15-54	13-40	16-51	29-42	26-53		10	0	10	149	647	11th

Appendix 3: Survey Questionnaire

CODE (to be completed by researcher)

This questionnaire should take about 20-30 minutes to complete. **Your name and address are not required**. The majority of questions only require you to tick a box, and some require answers of a few sentences.

Your answers are only required for statistical purposes and will be treated as **confidential and anonymous**. If you cannot answer any questions it is better to leave them blank.

Some of the questions have 'code boxes' added- please just **ignore** these boxes as they are for the researcher.

Thank you for your help.

SECTION 1: EDUCATION AND OCCUPATION DETAILS

The purpose of this section is to provide an educational and socio-economic profile. (*Some of the questions have 'code boxes' added- please just* ***ignore*** *these boxes as they are for the researcher.)*

- In the table below please list the name and location of the secondary school or college or university you have attended and the qualifications you achieved.

School/College/University	Town/City	Qualifications (e.g. 8 Standard Grades

- Which of the following best describes your occupational status? Please tick one box.

		Code
Employed		*1*
Unemployed		*2*
Student		*3*
Other (please specify)		*4*

- If you are employed, what is your current occupation? (*If you are not currently employed please go to* ***Question 5.***)

		Code
Manager/Senior official		*1*
Professional		*2*
Associate professional & technical		*3*
Administration & secretarial		*4*
Skilled trades		*5*
Personal service		*6*
Sales & customer service		*7*
Process & plant machinery		*8*
Semi Skilled/Unskilled		*9*
Other		

- If you are employed on what basis do you work? Please tick one.

		Code
Full-time		*1*
Part-time		*2*
Job-share		*3*
Other (please specify)		*4*

(*If you are employed please now go to* ***Section 2.****)*

- If you are unemployed what was your most recent occupation?

		Code
Manager/Senior official		*1*
Professional		*2*
Associate professional & technical		*3*
Administration & secretarial		*4*
Skilled trades		*5*
Personal service		*6*
Sales & customer service		*7*
Process & plant machinery		*8*
Semi Skilled/Unskilled		*9*
Other		

- If you are a student, please tick which best describes your status.

(*If you are not a student please* ***go to Section 2****.*)

	Full-time	Part-time	Mature student	Code
Secondary Education				*1 2 3*
Further Education College				*1 2 3*
University – Undergraduate				*1 2 3*
University – Postgraduate				*1 2 3*

SECTION 2: SPORTING BIOGRAPHY

This section looks into your sports participation experiences. (Some of the questions have 'code boxes' added- please just **ignore** these boxes as they are for the researcher.)

- What sports were (or are) offered to you by your school? Please tick the relevant boxes and tick if you participated.

Activity	PE lessons	Participated	Outwith PE lessons	Participated	*Code*
Athletics					*1 2 3 4*
Badminton					*1 2 3 4*
Basketball					*1 2 3 4*
Cross-country					*1 2 3 4*
Dance					*1 2 3 4*
Football					*1 2 3 4*
Fitness					*1 2 3 4*
Gymnastics					*1 2 3 4*
Handball					*1 2 3 4*
Hockey					*1 2 3 4*
Netball					*1 2 3 4*
Rugby					*1 2 3 4*
Swimming					*1 2 3 4*
Table Tennis					*1 2 3 4*
Tennis					*1 2 3 4*
Others (Please specify)					

- Of the above sports, which have you continued to play since leaving school? (*If you still attend school please **go to Question 3***.)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

- Please tick which of the following activities you participate in regularly (once or more often a week) non-competitively.

Activity	Non-competitive level	*Code*
Badminton		*1*
Basketball		*2*
Dancing		*3*
Football		*4*
Hockey		*5*
Netball		*6*
Rugby		*7*
Running		*8*
Squash		*9*
Tennis		*1 0*
Gym/Aerobics		*1 1*
Other (please specify)		

4. Please tick which of the following activities you participate in regularly (once or more often a week) at a competitive level.

Activity	Competitive level	*Code*
Badminton		*1*
Basketball		*2*
Dancing		*3*
Football		*4*
Hockey		*5*
Netball		*6*
Rugby		*7*
Running		*8*
Squash		*9*
Tennis		*10*
Gym/Aerobics		*1 1*
Other (please specify)		

5. What sport would you consider to be your main competitive sport?
(*If none, please* ***go to Section 3****.)*

_____

_____

_____

_____

SECTION 3: INTRODUCTION TO AND EXPERIENCE OF NETBALL

This section explores how you were first introduced to netball and the experiences you have had playing netball.

1. Please tick a box to explain how you were first introduced to netball and the nature of your involvement.

Through my.....	Spectator	Player	*Code*
Mother			*1 2*
Older sister			*1 2*
Younger sister			*1 2*
Father			*1 2*
Older brother			*1 2*
Younger brother			*1 2*
Friend			*1 2*
School teacher			*1 2*
Other			

2. What age were you when you first played a game of netball?

6-10 years old		*Code*
11- 14 years old		*1*
15 – 18 years old		*2*
19 – 24 years old		*3*
Other		

3. Please tick how you were first introduced to playing netball regularly.

		Code
At school		*1*
At a netball club		*2*
Other		*3*

4. At what age were you playing regularly at school?

6-10 years old		*Code*
11- 14 years old		*1*
15 – 18 years old		*2*
Other		

5. When you began playing regularly did you then join a local team? If yes, which team did you play for?

_____

6. Please tick who encouraged you to play most at this time.

		Code
Mother		*1*
Father		*2*
Older sister		*3*
Older brother		*4*
Younger sister		*5*
Younger brother		*6*
Friend		*7*
School teacher		*8*
Other		

7. Please tick how you were first introduced to playing netball competitively (e.g. for a Netball Scotland affiliated club).

*(If you have only ever played non-competitively please **go to Question 10**.)*

		Code
Mother		*1*
Older sister		*2*
Younger sister		*3*
Friend		*4*
School teacher		*5*
Other		

8. Please tick the age were you when you first began to play competitively.

6-10 years old		*Code*
11- 14 years old		*1*
15 – 18 years old		*2*
Other		

9. Please tick who encouraged you to play at this level.

		Code
Mother		*1*
Father		*2*
Older sister		*3*
Older brother		*4*
Younger sister		*5*
Younger brother		*6*
Friend		*7*
School teacher		*8*
Other		

10. Please describe how you were first introduced to playing netball as a recreational sport. *(If you have only ever played competitively please* ***go to Section 4****.)*

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

11. Please tick the age were you when you first began to play netball as a recreational sport.

		Code
6-10 years old		*1*
11- 14 years old		*2*
15 – 18 years old		*3*
Other		

12. What was the club you first played netball as a recreational sport with?

_____

13. Please explain why you wanted to play at this level.

		Code
To be with friends		*1*
To keep fit		*2*
To have fun		*3*
I enjoy the sport of netball		*4*
Other		

SECTION 4: BEING A MEMBER OF A NETBALL CLUB

The purpose of this section is to assess the meaning you attach to playing netball and being a member of a club in a wider social sense.

(*If you do not still play regularly please* ***go to Section 5****.)*

- How many hours of training do you **usually** do each week?

		Code
1-2 hours		*1*
3-5 hours		*2*
6-10 hours		*3*
Other		

- How do you **usually** travel to training sessions? Please tick one.

		Code
Walk alone		*1*
Walk with other club member/s		*2*
Public transport alone		*3*
Public transport with other club member/s		*4*
By car alone		*5*
By car with other club member/s		*6*
Other (please specify)		

- How often do you socialise with people from your netball club?

Please tick one.

		Code
Often		*1*
Sometimes		*2*
Occasionally		*3*
Never		*4*

4. Please tick how many hours a week do you socialise people from your netball club.

		Code
1-2 hours		*1*
3-5 hours		*2*
6-10 hours		*3*
Other		

5. Which of the following do you **usually** do after matches? Please tick one. *(If you do not play in matches please **go to Question 6**.)*

		Code
I go home		*1*
I do something with other friends		*2*
I socialise with other club members		*3*
Other (please specify)		

6. Which of the following statements best describes your view about being a member of a netball club? Please tick one.

		Code
I am only interested in playing netball.		*1*
Netball is important to me but I sometimes enjoy socialising with club members.		*2*
I value playing netball and the social aspects of being a club member equally.		*3*
I enjoy playing netball but it is the social aspects of being a club member that are most important to me.		*4*
I am only interested in the social aspects of being a club member.		*5*
Other (please specify)		

7. Which of the following statements best describes your relationship with other club members? Please tick one.

		Code
I regard other club members only as fellow netball players.		*1*
I regard 1 or 2 members as friends, but most of my friends are not involved in netball.		*2*
I regard several club members as friends and have a good relationship with most other members.		*3*
I regard most club members as friends and think this is an important part of being a club member.		*4*
I regard all club members as friends and think this is a very important part of being a club member.		*5*

8. To what extent do you agree with the following statements? Please tick.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	*Code*
Our club members get on well.					*1 2 3 4*
Many of our club members are really good friends.					*1 2 3 4*
I am friends with women who play for other clubs.					*1 2 3 4*
I know a lot of players outside my own club.					*1 2 3 4*
I really enjoy being involved in netball.					*1 2 3 4*
I only really know players in my own club.					*1 2 3 4*
There is a good atmosphere within our club.					*1 2 3 4*

SECTION 5: PERSPECTIVES ON NETBALL

This section investigates your experiences of other people's perspectives on netball.

- How have the following people **generally** influenced your involvement in playing netball? Please tick the appropriate nature of influence for those people that apply to you (those that are not applicable, please leave blank).

Nature of influence	Positive	None	Negative	*Code*
Father/male guardian				*1*
Mother/female guardian				*2*
Brother/s				*3*
Sister/s				*4*
Physical Education teacher				*5*
Husband/partner				*6*
Male friends				*7*
Female friends				*8*
Other male relatives				*9*
Other female relatives				*10*

- What was the general attitude of the **PE Department** of your high school to netball? Please tick one.

		Code
Supportive		*1*
Very supportive		*2*
Not supportive		*3*
Very unsupportive		*4*
Other		

- Has anyone ever tried to discourage you from playing netball? Please circle. *(If no, please **go to Question 5.**)*

Yes No *1 2*

- Who has discouraged you and can you explain why they did so?

_____

_____

_____

- To what extent do you agree with the following statement about netball? Please tick one.

'Netball will never be taken seriously.'

		Code
Strongly agree		*1*
Agree		*2*
Disagree		*3*
Strongly disagree		*4*
Other		

- To what extent do you agree with the following statement about netball? Please tick one.

'*No-one is interested in reading about or watching netball.'*

		Code
Strongly agree		*1*
Agree		*2*
Disagree		*3*
Strongly disagree		*4*
Other		

SECTION 6: WIDER INVOLVEMENT IN NETBALL

This section explores the netball aspirations you have had while playing netball and your wider involvement in the game.

- Please describe your first netballing ambition.

(i.e. to play for the school team, to win a trophy etc.)

_____

_____

_____

_____

- Please describe your current netball related ambition.

_____

_____

_____

- To which of the following extents are you involved in playing matches for your team? Please tick. *(If none, please **go to Question 4**.)*

		Code
I am in the First or Second or Third team.		*1*
I am usually a substitute and often get brought on.		*2*
I am usually a substitute and sometimes get brought on.		*3*
I am sometimes named as a substitute.		*4*
I don't feature in the squad for matches.		*5*

- What, if any, Netball Scotland coaching or refereeing awards do you hold? *(If none, please **go to Question 5**.)*

_____

_____

- *Please **only answer** this question if you are/were a **Physical Education** teacher otherwise please **go to Question 6**.*

In your experience, please describe how widespread you feel netball has been taught through curricular and extra-curricular Physical Education.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

- Please list any club/committee positions (e.g. secretary, treasurer etc.,) you have held, at which club, and the duration you held the position.

*(If you have not held any such positions please **go to Question 7**.)*

_____

_____

_____

- Please list any wider netball organisational or administrative positions (e.g. league secretary) that you have held outside of the club committee, and the duration you held the position. *(If you have not held any such positions please **go to Question 8**.)*

_____

_____

_____

- Please describe any other ways in which you are involved in the organisation, administration, coaching, umpiring etc. of netball at any level. *(If none, please go to **Question 9**.)*

_____

_____

_____

9. How many times per season you go and watch netball? Please tick.
*(If you attend matches as a spectator please answer the following questions if you do not please **go to Question 12**.)*

		Code
Never		*1*
1 – 5 times		*2*
6 – 10 times		*3*
10+ times		*4*

10. Which team or teams do you usually go and watch?

_____

_____

11. Who do you usually attend netball matches with?

_____

_____

12. If there are any other comments you would like to make about netball in your life please use this space to highlight or expand on any issue mentioned earlier.

_____

_____

_____

_____

SECTION 7: PERSONAL AND FAMILY DETAILS

The purpose of this section is to enable an understanding of your family set-up and your place within it.

1. What age are you? Please tick one box.

Years		*Code*
16-17		*1*
18 – 23		*2*
24 – 29		*3*
30 – 34		*4*
35-39		*5*
40 – 44		*6*
45 – 49		*7*
50 – 54		*8*
55- 59		*9*
60 -69		*10*
70 +		*11*

2. From the list below please tick the status which best describes you.

		Code
Single		*1*
Living with partner		*2*
Married		*3*
Divorced		*4*
Widowed		*5*
Other (please specify)		*6*

3. Please state the number you have of the following.

Elder brothers	
Younger brothers	
Elder sisters	
Younger sisters	
Children	

4. Which town or village do you currently live in?

_____

5. Where did you grow up?

_____

6. What country were you born in? Please tick one box.

		Code
Scotland		1
England		2
Ireland		3
Wales		4
Other		

7. What is your ethnic background? (This refers to the country where your parents or grandparents were born.) Please tick one box in the most appropriate section.

a.

		Code
Scottish		1
English		2
Welsh		3
Irish		4
British		5
Indian		6
Pakistani		7
Bangladeshi		8
Chinese		9
African		10
Caribbean		11
Black		12
Polish		13
Other		

Thank you very much for your time – your help is greatly appreciated.

PLEASE RETURN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

TO _____ BY _____

Appendix 4: Interview Schedule

Background details

- Where were you born and brought up? Where do you live know?
- How old are you just now?
- What about your parents/guardians? What did they/do they do for a living?
- Do you have any brothers or sisters?
- Where did you go to school? What qualifications do you have from school? What's your job? Have you always done this type of work? Have you got any further qualifications?

Experiences of Netball

- What are your earliest memories of netball?
- What was the nature of your early involvement and with whom?
- How did you first become involved in playing netball?
- What was your first club/team?
- Who encouraged you to play?
- How old were you when you first started playing regularly?
- What netball clubs have you played for and when?
- At what level do you play/have you played?
- How long have you played for this club?
- Do either/both of your parents play/watch netball? What about your siblings?
- Would you say that netball has been and still has an important place in your family life?
- What are the main reasons why you play netball? Is anything over and above simply playing netball?

Sporting biography

- What would you say your main sport is/has been?
- What other sports are/have you been involved in?
- What sports did you play? During PE or extra-curricular?
- Did you play netball at school?
- What is it about netball that you particularly enjoy? Why was it more attractive to you than other sports?

Other people's influences on netball

- What has been the role/influence of the following people? And why do you think this has been the case? Parents/Siblings/Other relatives/School/Teachers/Coaches/Partner/Friends (past and present)
- Overall, who would you say has had the most positive, and who has had the most negative effect on you being involved in netball? Why do you think this?

Perspectives on netball

- What attitudes have you experienced towards netball from, for example the general public, media etc.
- Do you think stereotypes are created regarding netball? Do you think that players conform to stereotypes? Are these accurate?
- Have certain attitudes towards netball ever affected your, or anyone else you know, participation in the sport? Have you ever been discouraged from playing? If so how?
- Has anyone ever considered is strange that you play netball? Who? Why?

Being a member of a club

- Apart from netball would you say there were any particular characteristics that make netball players a distinct social group? i.e. what do you feel you have in common with other players – background/social class/attitudes/personality/style/clothes/sense of humour
- Do you think that netball players have a particular identity that differs from other sports players, or other women?
- How would you describe the social aspects of being a club member? What are they? Friendships/socialising/interaction/community
- How important are such social aspects to you? To other players?
- To what extent would you say that such social aspects are a part of being a member of a club?
- Have you ever nearly given up playing? If so, why? And did you continue?
- What do you usually do after training or matches?
- Do you socialise with other players outside of training and matches etc.?

To recap/summarise

What values and meaning would you attach to your experiences of playing netball

- What importance had it had?
- Would you say that netball has played and does play a significant part in your life?
- What do you enjoy most about it?
- What would you do/how would you feel if you weren't able to play netball again? What would you miss the most?

Present and future

- What plans do you have for the future in relation to netball?
- What part do you expect it to play in the rest of your life?
- What might make you stop playing netball?

Appendix 5: Interview Information and Consent Form

University of Stirling
Department of Sport Studies
STIRLING
FK9 4LA
elinor.steel@stir.a.uk

The historical and contemporary role of physical activity and sport for women: a case study of netball in Scotland

Interview Information & Consent

Dear

As discussed during our meeting/email/phone call on _____. I am currently conducting research into netball participation in Scotland. This research is part of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy programme in which I am enrolled at the University of Stirling.

The research examines the reasons why women are involved in netball. Your participation in the research involves arranging an interview, which should last approximately one hour, at a time and place convenient to you. The interview will cover a range of topics including, how you were introduced to netball, your perspectives on netball and your experience being involved in a club as a player or other official.

If you agree to participate in the study I will seek your permission to digitally record the interview so that I can transcribe it for analytical purposes. During the interview you may decline to answer any question, you may request that the digital recorder is turned off, or you may withdraw from the study without consequence. The information you provide will be stored securely with access restricted to the researcher only.

CONSENT

I agree to participate in the research study 'The historical and contemporary role of physical activity and sport for women: a case study of netball in Scotland'.

I do/do not (please circle one) give my consent to be interviewed for this study. I understand that the interview will be carried out as described above. I realise that I can withdraw from the study at any time and do not have to give a reason for doing so. I have had all my questions relating to the study answered to my satisfaction.

Signed _____

Date _____

Please contact me if you have any questions relating to the study before we meet.

Yours sincerely,

Elinor Steel (PhD Research Student)

Appendix 6: Quantitative Data

Figure 5.1.2 Local Authority of secondary school attended (respondents = 111)

Glasgow	South Lanarkshire	Argyll & Bute	North Lanarkshire	Dumfries & Galloway	Other
14.68%	19.58%	6.99%	5.59%	4.89%	7.63%

Table 5.1.2 Employment level (respondents =139)

	Full time	Part time	Job share
Employed	65%	33%	1%
Unemployed	1%	--	--
Student	24%	--	--
Other	3%	--	--

Table 5.1.3 Current occupation (respondents =109)

Occupation	Percentage
Managerial/Senior Official	32.9%
Professional Administration & Secretarial	12.6%
Skilled Trades	0.7%%
Personal Service	2.1%
Sales & Customer Service	9.8%
Semi-Skilled/Unskilled	0.7%
Other	9.1%

Table 5.1.4 Student status (respondents = 35)

Secondary school	College (FT)	University Undergrad (FT)	University Postgrad (FT)	University Postgrad (PT)
34%	11%	43%	9%	1%

Figure 5.2.1 Sports participation (in and out of school) (respondents = 138)

Activity	PE lessons	Outwith PE lessons
Athletics	76%	24.6%
Badminton	62%	18%
Basketball	56%	8%
Cross Country	51%	16.6%
Gymnastics	54.3%	9.4%
Hockey	66.6%	15.2%
Netball	76%	58%

Figure 5.3.1 Who first introduced you to netball? (respondents = 143)

Mother	Older sister	Father	Older brother	Friend	School teacher	Other
15.4%	7%	1.4%	1.4%	21%	68.5%	9.1%

Figure 5.3.2 What age did you first play netball? (respondents = 143)

6-10 years old	11-14 years old	15-18 years old	19-24 years old	Other
53.8%	41.3%	2.1%	2.1%	0.7%

Figure 5.3.3 How were you first introduced to playing regularly? (respondents = 143)

At school	At a Netball Club	Other
79%	18.2%	2.8%

Figure 5.3.4 Age you first played netball regularly at school (respondents = 137)

6-10 years old	11-14 years old	15-18 years old	Other
44.1%	44.1%	3.5%	4.9%

Figure 5.3.5 Which local club did you join? (respondents = 81)

Highland	West	Central	East	Tayside & Fife	Grampian	Other UK	Other – outwith UK
1.2%	74%	--	--	1.2%	2.4%	19.7%	1.2%

Figure 5.3.6 Who encouraged you to play at this time? (respondents = 135)

Mother	Older sister	Younger sister	Father	Friend	School teacher	Other
28%	6.3%	0.7%	9.1%	26.6%	43.4%	15.4%

Figure 5.3.7 How were you first introduced to playing competitively? (respondents = 131)

Mother	Older sister	Younger sister	Friend	School teacher	Other
11.2%	3.5%	0.7%	28.7%	34.3%	23.8%

Figure 5.3.8 What age did you begin to play competitively? (respondents = 130)

6-10 years old	11-14 years old	15-18 years old	19-24 years old	Other
9.8%	46.2%	16.1%	1.4%	17.4%

Figure 5.3.9 Who encouraged you to play competitively? (respondents = 135)

Mother	Older sister	Father	Friend	School teacher
26.6%	4.2%	9.8%	25.2%	32.9%

Figure 5.3.10 How were you introduced to netball as a recreational sport (respondents = 53)

Friend	School	Family	Work	Advert/Internet	Other
22%	44%	20%	2%	6%	12%

Figure 5.3.11 What age did you first play recreationally (Netball Scotland Region)? (respondents = 70)

6-10 years old	11-14 years old	15-18 years old	19-24 years old	Other
18.2%	9.1%	4.2%	0.7%	17.5%

Figure 5.3.12 What club did you first play recreationally with (Netball Scotland Region)? (respondents = 65)

Highland	West	Central	East	Tayside & Fife	Grampian	Other - UK	Other – outwith UK
2%	77%	--	--	2%	--	18.7%	--

Figure 5.3.13 Why did you play at this level? (respondents = 72)

Friends	Keep fit	Fun	Enjoy netball	Other
17.5%	26.6%	24.5%	39.9%	0.7%

Figure 5.4.1 How many hours a week do you train? (respondents = 126)

1-2 hours	3-5 hours	6-10 hours	Other
42.7%	26.6%	10.5%	7.7%

Figure 5.4.2 Mode of travel to training (respondents = 126)

Walk alone	Walk – with club member	Public transport alone	Public transport – with club member	Car - alone	Car – with club member	Other
7%	5.6%	1.4%	1.4%	46.2%	25.2%	0.7%

Figure 5.4.3 Frequency of socialisation with club members (respondents = 126)

Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
32.9%	23.1%	28%	4.2%

Figure 5.4.4 Hours per week socialising with club members (respondents = 118)

1-2 hours	3-5 hours	6-10 hours	Other
35%	20.3%	8.4%	19.6%

Figure 5.4.5 What do you usually do after matches? (respondents = 126)

Go home	Do something with other friends	Socialise with club members	Talk with others	Umpire another game
74.8%	0.7%	9.8%	0.7%	0.7%

Figure 5.4.6 View on being a member of a club (respondents = 127)

Only interested in playing	Netball is important but sometimes socialise with members	Value playing & social aspects	Enjoy playing but social aspects are most important	Other
5.6%	35.7%	44.1%	2.1%	1.4%

Figure 5.4.7 - Relationship with other club members (respondents = 126)

Regard other members as fellow players	Regard 1 or 2 members as friends	Regard several members as friends	Regard most members as friends	Regard all members as friends
2.1%	14%	33.6%	21.7%	16.8%

Figure 5.4.8 How members get on (respondents = 127)

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree
47.5%	40.6%	0.7%

Figure 5.4.9 Club members are really good friends (respondents = 126)

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree
36.4%	45.5%	4.2%

Figure 5.4.10 Friends with women from other clubs (respondents =125)

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly agree
16.1%	40.6%	19.6%	7.7%

Figure 5.4.11 Know players outside own club (respondents = 125)

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
22.4%	33.5%	23.1%	6.3%

Figure 5.4.12 Really enjoy being involved in netball (respondents = 125)

Strongly agree	Agree
62.2%	23.8%

Figure 5.4.13 Only know players in own club (respondents = 125)

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
13.3%	25.2%	20.3%	28%

Figure 5.4.14 Good atmosphere within club (respondents = 125)

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree
53.8%	31.5%	0.7%

Figure 5.5.1 Who was a positive influence on involvement (respondents = 141)

Father	Mother	Brother	Sister	Husband	Male friends	Female friends	Another male relative	Other female relative	PE teacher
60.1%	74.8%	17.5%	33.6%	46.2%	26.6%	79.7%	23.1%	33.6%	66.4%

Figure 5.5.2 General attitude of PE department at school (respondents = 137)

Supportive	Very supportive	Not supportive	Very unsupportive	Other
38.5%	36.4%	16.8%	0.7%	2.8%

Figure 5.5.3 Someone has tried to discourage you from playing netball (respondents = 140)

Yes	No
7%	90.2%

Figure 5.5.4 Who discouraged you? (respondents = 100)

Coach	Friends	Family	PE teacher	Other
20%	20%	20%	30%	10%

Figure 5.5.5 Netball will never be taken seriously (respondents = 134)

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.2%	20.3%	44.8%	29.4%

Figure 5.5.6 No-one is interested in reading about or watching netball (respondents = 14)

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Other
2.1%	15.4%	45.5%	31.5%	1.4%

Figure 5.6.1 First netball ambition (respondents = 105)

Play for school team	Play for national team	Play for club team	To coach	Keep fit/ fun	Be captain etc.	To umpire	To win medals, events etc.	Other
39%	4%	16%	2%	4%	3%	1%	31%	1%

Figure 5.6.2 Current netball ambition (respondents = 99)

Play for national team	Play for club	To coach	Keep fit/ fun	To umpire	To win medals, events etc.	Other
16.6%	20%	6.6%	26.6%	4.1%	19.1%	6.6%

Figure 5.6.3 Extent of involvement in matches (respondents = 140)

1st/2nd or 3rd Team	Often brought on as a sub	Sometimes brought on as a sub	Don't feature in squad
70.6%	0.7%	2.1%	10.5%

Figure 5.6.4 Netball Qualifications (respondents = 38)

Umpire (any level)	Coach (any level)	Other
39.5%	54.1%	6.2%

Figure 5.6.5 P.E. teacher experience (respondents = 13)

In curriculum only	In extra-curricular only	In curriculum & extra-curricular	Other
31.2%	12.5%	31.2%	25%

Figure 5.6.6 Club positions held (respondents = 63)

Coach	Captain etc.	Secretary etc.	President	Other
17.7%	8%	50%	4.8%	19.3%

Figure 5.6.7 Wider netball positions held (respondents = 26)

Development officer	District/ national umpire	Region/ league secretary etc.	Netball Scotland Board	Netball Scotland Coach etc.	Table official	Other
4.3%	4.3%	47.8%	4.3%	17.4%	4.3%	21.7%

Figure 5.6.8 Other involvement (respondents = 54)

Support school teams	Assistant coach	Assistant umpire	Event management	Volunteer	Other
3.3%	60.7%	17.8%	3.5%	7%	7%

Figure 5.6.9 Frequency of watching netball (respondents = 126)

Never	1-5 times	6-10 times	10+ times
1.6.8%	39.9%	7.7%	24.5%

Figure 5.6.10 Which teams do you go to watch play? (respondents = 143)

West (Netball Scotland region)	Superleague	National team	School team	Other
21.6%	34.3%	33.5%	2.9%	7.4%

Figure 5.6.11 Who do you attend matches with? (respondents = 100)

Alone	Friends	Club members	Family	Work	Other
5.6%	41.5%	50.9%	35.8%	3.8%	5.6%

Figure 5.7.5 Number of children (respondents = 133)

Total no. of children	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
% of respondents	76.2%	9.5%	9.1%	2.1%	1.4%	0.7%	0%	0.7%

Figure 5.7.4 Current residence (based on Netball Scotland regions) (respondents = 137)

Highland	West	Other - UK
1.6%	81%	17.4%

Figure 5.7.5 Where did you grow up (based on Netball Scotland regions)? (respondents = 137)

Highland	West	Central	East	Tayside & Fife	Grampian	Other UK	Other – outwith UK
1.2%	58.3%	1.2%	1.2%	2.4%	4.8%	23.8%	7.1%

Figure 5.7.6 Country born in (respondents = 137)

Scotland	England	Ireland	Other
74.8%	16.8%	0.7%	3.5%

Figure 5.7.7 Ethnic background (respondents = 137)

Scottish	English	Irish	British	Caribbean	New Zealand	Other
72.75%	12.6%	0.7%	4.9%	2.8%	0.7%	0.7%

Appendix 7: Netball Scotland Regions