Findings indicate that sports have positive effects on young girls' cognitive and social skills, as well as on their mental and physiological states (Beets & Pitetti, 2005; Blom, Bronk, Coakley, Lauer & Sawyer, 2013). However, the participation of young girls in sport, and especially in male-dominated sports, declines dramatically during adolescence.

Male-dominated sports are sports which comprise face-to-face competition, physical contact and reward body-size, strength and toughness. Beginning at a very young age, society reinforces each individual's behavior and activities corresponding to his or her gender role. These gender-roles reflect beliefs about attributes of men and women. In this fashion, male-dominated sports include attributes that are socially associated with the masculine-role, leading to the perception that being female is incompatible with engaging in male-dominated sports (Desertain & Weiss, 1988; Miller & Levy, 1996; Green, 2010). As a result, females who engage in sport experience a female-athlete paradox: either to undermine her femininity and satisfy her own interests, or to repress her desires to play and live up to social norms (Ross & Shinew, 2008). This paradox is particularly noticeable during early-adolescence, a time when many girls decide to dropout of male-dominated sports.

Socialization is a process in which an individual learns and internalizes cultural norms (Weiss & Glenn, 1992). One factor that influences both socialization into sport and socialization out of sport is the socializing agent. Socializing agents are people who
have a significant influence on the practices and thoughts of other people, and they transmit social norms and values by their perceptions (validation support), their behavior (role modeling and companionship support) and interpretation of these experiences (emotional, esteem, informational, and instrumental support). Exposing boys and girls to separate, gendered experiences, because of gender-related social norms, prevents them from opportunities to discover their various interests and talents (Eccles & Harold, 1991).

Because socialization processes occur in a cultural context and because gender-related norms vary among cultures, it is important to identify cultural influences on young girls' and socializing agents' expectancies and values about participation in male-dominated sports. An investigation of this process can help us establish an optimal environment for young girls to engage in male-dominated sports. Therefore, the purpose of the study was to investigate the role of socializing agents on dropout and continuing participation of young adolescent girls in male-dominated sports.

To accomplish this, Israeli and US female young adults who played organized sports during their early-adolescence, were recruited. The participants completed a questionnaire about the social support experience as early-adolescent participants in sports, and their participation status (dropout or continuing participation) at late-adolescence. Results revealed that girls who engaged in male-dominated sports received greater social support than those who participated in neutral and feminine sports. In addition, girls who continued participation during late-adolescence were provided with more social support than girls who dropped out. Finally, American girls who engaged in male-dominated sports were provided with greater social support than Israeli girls.
THE ROLE OF SOCIALIZING AGENTS ON DROPOUT AND CONTINUING PARTICIPATION OF ADOLESCENT GIRLS IN MALE-DOMINATED SPORTS

by

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Girls gain benefits (physical, mental health, social and cognitive) from physical activities and sports (Storm & Jenkins, 2002; Blom, Bronk, Coakley, Lauer & Sawyer, 2013). Maintaining an active lifestyle helps to reduce the risk of certain chronic illnesses such as hypertension, atherosclerosis and diabetes, and females who are more physically active exhibit higher levels of cardiovascular fitness, which can combat illness (Beets & Pitetti, 2005). Mentally, improved self-confidence, physical self-concept and self-esteem have been seen among active girls; athletic girls rated themselves higher in self-esteem and body image than non-athletic girls (Dorak, 2011). Improved self-esteem reduces risk of sexual behavior and pregnancy at adolescence as well as drug and alcohol abuse (Storm & Jenkins, 2002).

In spite of the benefits, female sport participation declines dramatically during adolescence (Shakib, 2003; Stuart & Whaley, 2005). By age 14, the dropout rate for girls is two times more than that for boys (Women's Sport and Fitness Foundation). In middle school, 61.6% of young girls participate in school athletics. In tenth grade, this number drops to 57.5% and in twelfth grade, only half of the adolescent girls are involved in school athletics. Still lower is the participation rate of adolescent girls in organized sports that are considered to be male-dominated (Guillet, Sarrazin, Fontayne & Brustad, 2006).
Male-dominated sport is a term used to classify sports according to the sport's attributes. Sports that comprise face-to-face competition, physical contact, reward body-size, strength and toughness would be considered male-dominated sports (Allison, 1991; Ross & Shinew, 2008). In this fashion, American-football, hockey, basketball and soccer, for example, are considered male-dominated sports.

Beginning at a very young age, society reinforces individual behavior and activities corresponding to his or her gender role. These gender-roles reflect beliefs about attributes of men and women. Agentic characteristics are attributes that society ascribes to the masculine role, for example: assertiveness, independence, and control behavior. On the other hand, communal characteristics are attributes that are socially ascribed to the feminine role, such as presenting gracefulness, dependency and concern for others (Guillet et al. 2006; Walker & Shartore-Baldwin, 2013). Because male-dominated sports include attributes that are socially associated with the masculine-role, being female is perceived as incompatible with engaging in male-dominated sports (Desertain & Weiss, 1988; Miller & Levy, 1996; Green, 2010).

When children are provided with varied experiences, they form ideas about their own competence. Providing girls with different experiences based on gender-role could result in scenarios in which they get fewer opportunities to discover their various interests and talents (Eccles & Harold, 1991). Moreover, having a pool of varied skills has great importance in this modern-competitive world. While in the past girls had to present a narrow range of skills that were needed to maintain domestic work and appearance, a variety of skills is considered an asset and necessary to become integrated in the
competitive world today (Woods, 2016). According to the Oppenheimer/MassMutual Financial Group (2002) report that surveyed 401 executive business women, 82% (327) participated in organized sport in early- and late-adolescence and 80% of them identified themselves as tomboys in childhood. Friedman (2013) interviewed parents in order to understand how they chose between different activities for their daughters. The findings revealed that parents who encouraged their daughters to take part in "aggressive" sports disclosed that the reason for doing this was to develop attributes such as resilience and toughness. Exposing girls to different experiences would provide girls with options in choosing what they wanted to do. That is to say that the social spheres surrounds young girls and influences who and what girls wish to become (Staurowsky, 2016).

Moreover, provision of different experiences and transmission of social norms depend on the cultural environment. That is, the cultural context dictates social norms and the perception about gender-role differs among cultures. In Israel, for example, women are often excluded from sports (Betzer-Tayar, Zach, Galily, 2016). Galily, Kaufman and Tamir (2015) claim that the lack of participation of women in sport in Israel is due to differences in budget allotted to men’s and women’s clubs, the small number of women in key positions in sports organizations (managers, coaches etc.), and the social perception of the feminine-role. Young women who participate in sports in Israel struggle against the perception that a female should present passive, soft and non-aggressive attributes. This perception is seen in the number of Israeli female participants in sports that are considered feminine and masculine. In 2012, active female athletes in rhythmic gymnastics (feminine type of sport) were almost 100% of all participants.
Controversy, in soccer, basketball and handball, sports that are considered as male-dominated sports, active female athletes constituted 2%, 18% and 21% of all participators (Galily et al., 2015). In fact, female athletes only account for 15% of the total number of athletes who engage in competitive sports in Israel (Tamir & Galily, 2010; Galily, Kaufman & Tamir, 2015).

Women's sport participation in Israel is less developed than in the western world. Conversely, the most significant progress in women's participation in organized sports has been seen in the United States. This progress is attributed to Title IX regulation and to the spread of feminist perceptions regarding the femininerole and female status. These factors opened the door for many women to participate in sports in the US (Tamir & Galily, 2010).

Regardless of cultural differences, varied factors influence young girls' engagement or disengagement in sports and physical activities. A systematic review of qualitative studies identified personal and sociocultural aspects that influence young girls' (age range 11-19) involvement in sport and physical activity (Standiford, 2013). These aspects were categorized into three main factors: perceptual, situational and interpersonal influences. Perceptual factors refer to beliefs, thoughts and emotions of the self, for example, prioritizing competing activities over physical activity or feelings about competence. Situational factors refer to environmental conditions such as accessibility to and availability of organized sports clubs for girls. Interpersonal factors refer to the behavior of others, beliefs and perceptions about competence and appropriateness of girls
in sports and physical activities (Standiford, 2013; Women's Sport and Fitness Foundation).

Interpersonal factors are particularly important for sport participation, and this factor refers to people's influence. People influence practices and thoughts of others through socialization. Socialization is a process in which an individual learns and internalizes cultural norms, values, behaviors and skills (Weiss & Glenn, 1992). 'Socialization into sport' and 'socialization out of sport' are two terms that refer to the engagement and disengagement of sports (Weiss & Glenn 1992). 'Socialization into sport' refers to the process in which people become involved in sport and 'socialization out of sport' refers to process in which individuals disengage from sport. People who provide others with socializing processes, and people who have a significant influence on practices and thoughts of others, are called socializing agents. For the purpose of this study, 7 different types of socializing agents were examined: parents, brothers, sisters, same-sex friends, opposite-sex friends, same-sex peers and opposite-sex peers.

According to Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977), people influence an individual's behavior by transmitting social norms and values. From the sporting perspective, the sport context is one domain where socializing agents (i.e., people) could impact youngsters' (i.e., adolescent girls) behavior (i.e., socialization into sports and socialization out of sports). The socializing agents' influence is manifested through social relationships: interpretation of experiences, through the socializing agents' behavior, and through provision of experiences. The common term used to describe support provided
by the socialization agents is social support (Eccles & Harold, 1991; Wills & Shinar, 2000; Craike, Symons & Zimmermann, 2009).

There are different functions of social support that are provided via social relationships: Validation support refers to information about the normativeness or appropriateness of behavior. Emotional support refers to the availability of people to care, listen empathetically, accept and comfort, encouragements and praise. Esteem support refers to any kind of bolstering one's sense of competence and self-worth. Companionship support refers to availability of persons to participate with someone. Instrumental support involves tangible aid and/or practical help. Informational support involves providing feedback, advice and guidance about resources and services (Fraser-Thomas & Beesley, 2015; Freeman, Coffee, Moll, Rees & Sammy, 2014; Wills & Shinar, 2000). Each of these social support functions might influence participation status (i.e., continue or dropout) of adolescent girls in male-dominated sports, therefore an examination of the influence of support functions provided by socializing agents is needed.

To summarize, physical activities and sports have positive effects on young girls' cognitive and social skills, and on their mental and physiological states. Although these benefits are well known, a reduction in sport participation occurs as young girls grow into adolescence. This phenomenon is mainly observed in male-dominated sports. Interpersonal factors influence young girls' participation status in sports, and socializing agents are considered an interpersonal factor. The socializing agents’ influence on engagement or disengagement of young girls in male-dominated sports is manifested
through support functions. Providing young girls with different levels of support functions could play a great role in shaping perceptions about gender roles and perceived competence of girls in male-dominated sports.

The purpose of this study was to better understand interpersonal factors that influence young girls' participation in male-dominated sports. More specifically, the role of parents, siblings, friends and peers (socializing agents) on early-adolescent girls who were involved in male-dominated sports, and who dropped out or continued in male-dominated sports at late-adolescence, was examined. The socializing agents' role was measured by social support functions provided. Additionally, because socialization processes occur in a cultural context, this study also explored differences in social support received by US and Israeli participants.

**Research Questions**

For each of the research questions, the following specific types of social support were examined:

a. Emotional support
b. Esteem support
c. Instrumental support
d. Informational support
e. Companionship support
f. Validation support

Following are the specific research questions:
1) Are there differences in the social support provided by the socializing agents among the types of sports (male-dominated, neutral and feminine sports)? It is hypothesized that social support is greater for feminine and neutral sports than for male-dominated sports.

2) Are there differences in social support provided by the socializing agents between girls who continued participation and those who dropped out of male-dominated sports during late-adolescence? It is hypothesized that social support is greater for those who continued participation than for those who dropped out.

3) Are there differences in the social support functions provided by the socializing agents between American and Israeli girls who participated in male-dominated sports during early-adolescence? It is hypothesized that social support is greater for American girls than for Israeli girls.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the topics of a) socialization processes, socializing agents and social support, b) social norms and male-dominated sports, c) the female-athlete paradox and, d) elaboration of functions of social support.

Socialization, Socializing Agents and Social Support

Behavior is a function of the interaction between the individual's personal characteristics and his or her environment. Involvement in sport occurs within a social context; that is to say, the social context constitutes the environment. Therefore, society can strongly influence the behavior of the individual in sport, in particular his or her involvement in sport (Gill, 2008; Partridge, Brustad & Babkes Stellino, 2008). This kind of interaction between the society and the individual is a process of socialization. In other words, Socialization is a process in which an individual learns and internalizes cultural norms, values, behaviors and skills (Weiss & Glenn, 1992).

Weiss and Glenn (1992) defined two types of socialization processes in sport; 'socialization into sport' refers to the process in which people become involved in sport and 'socialization out of sport' refers to factors that influence people to disengage from sport. One factor that influences both socialization into sport and socialization out of sport is the socializing agent.
Socializing agents are people who have a significant influence on practices and thoughts of other people. A common term that is also associated with socializing agents is 'significant others'. Agents of socialization are subdivided into two categories: primary and secondary. Primary socialization refers to the most likely potential form of influence-usually ascribed to characters within the family. Secondary socialization refers to areas beyond the family context where people experience socialization processes. In the youth context, a secondary socialization circle could be at school or with peer groups, teachers, coaches, religious leader etc. (Green, 2010).

The family context is a primary source of socialization. The family context constitutes the most accessible environment in which parents play a significant role in influencing the child. Siblings, similar to parents, are agents of socialization within the family context. They play a remarkable role in the development of the individual's personality (Horn & Horn, 2007). However, siblings affect sport socialization process considerably later than parents do. While parental influence is at peak during the individual's childhood, siblings' influence may be greater at adolescence (Côté, 1999). It should be noted that there is limited knowledge about the contribution of siblings to their bother's or sister's socialization process of sport (Partridge et al. 2008); and that only a few studies examined siblings influence in sport, and most of them did not differentiate the effect of parental influence from the effect of the siblings influence.

Friends and peers are socializing agents that are considered to be in the secondary circle of socialization process. It should be noted that parents and siblings' influence is not parallel to friends and peers' influence in terms of developmental years (Stevenson,
Age is an indicator that provides a perspective about the differentiation between the developmental years (i.e., childhood, adolescence and adulthood). From the chronological-biological perspective, childhood and adolescence phases refer to periods in which youngsters have not reached full physical, psychological and social maturity. From the social perspective, these young people (i.e., children and adolescents) are in the periods before adulthood (du Bois-Reymond, 2005, quoted in Green 2010). As children reach adolescence, the significance of socializing agent shifts away from family towards friends and peers. In other words, parental influence decreases and peers' influence increases. The reason for this phenomenon is that young individuals place a lot of importance on being part of a group and on a sense of belonging (Green, 2010; Atkins, Johnson, Force & Petrie, 2013).

Relationship with friends includes the factor of friendship. Friendship is a construct that involves having a mutual, dyadic and close interpersonal relationship (Gill & Williams, 2008). People seek out for friendship those who share similar interests. This is true also for adolescents in the sport context. Peers, on the other hand, are defined as a relationship with people who share same social status, for example: being in the same class, taking part in the same sport club membership or even having the same age (Roberts, 2009). In other words, close friends are part of one's peers, but peers are not necessarily considered as one's friend.

The peer context constitutes a major site in examining adolescents' physical activity and sport participation (Shakib, 2003). Not only are friends' and peers' influence found to be higher than other socializing agents during adolescence, but also a greater
number of opportunities to play sports occur in a peer context, for example when playing sports with peers in physical education classes, during recess and after-school hours on neighborhood (Weiss & Knopper, 1982; Shakib, 2003). In addition, at the end of elementary school (e.g., 11 year old) children get greater time to spend with friends without adult supervision. Therefore, examining the experience of girls within peer context could enhance our knowledge of girls sport participation and dropout. This is important in particular during early-adolescence and late-adolescence years when the dropout rate is higher.

The support provided by the socialization agents is known as social support. Social support is a term used to describe tangible and intangible aid that people provide to each other (Beets, Cardinal & Alderman, 2010), in this case the aid that is provided by socializing agents towards young girls in male-dominated sports. There are different forms of social supporting functions that are provided via social relationships: *Validation support* refers to information about the normativeness or appropriateness of behavior provided in social relationships. *Emotional support* refers to the availability of people to listen empathetically, provide indications of caring, accept and comfort, encouragements and praise. *Esteem support* refers to any kind of bolstering one's sense of competence and contributing to one's self-worth. *Companionship support* refers to availability of persons to participate with in social, and cultural activities. *Instrumental support* involves tangible aid and/or practical help such as lending money, lending equipment or assistance with transportation. *Informational support* involves providing advice, guidance and information about resources and services; in the sport field, informational support
involves also sport-specific feedback. (Fraser-Thomas & Beesley, 2015; Freeman, Coffee, Moll, Rees & Sammy, 2014; Wills & Shinar, 2000).

According to the Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977), people influence an individual's behavior by transmitting social norms and values. This transmission process is done consciously and unconsciously. Under the sporting lens, the sport context constitutes a domain in which people (i.e., the socializing agents) influence one's (i.e., adolescent girl) behavior (i.e., socialization into sport and socialization out of sport). Their influence is manifested through social support. That is to say, through interpretation of experiences (i.e., perception, validation support, emotional support, and esteem support), through the socializing agents' behavior (i.e., role modeling and companionship support), and through provision of experiences (i.e., instrumental support and informational support). (Eccles & Harold, 1991; Wills & Shinar, 2000; Craike, Symons & Zimmermann, 2009).

To summarize, socialization is a process in which individuals internalize social norms. Social norms are transmitted by socializing agents. Socializing agents are people who hold a significant influence on other people, for example family members and friends. The socializing agents' influence could be manifested through social support. The various functions of social support are validation, emotional, esteem, companionship, instrumental and informational support.
Social Norms and Male-Dominated Sports

Beginning at a very young age, society reinforces each individual to behave and be involved in activities corresponding to his or her gender-role. It should be noted that gender is a term that helps to understand sociological roles in masculine and feminine behavior, while sex is an aspect of gender and refers to the biological, genetic and anatomical characteristics. The gender-roles reflect beliefs about attributes of men and women: usually agentic characteristics, which is a term that refers to assertive and control behavior, are attributed to men. In the same manner, communal characteristics, which is a term that refers to dependency, softness and concerns for the well-being of others, are attributes ascribed for women (Guillet et al., 2006; Walker & Shartore-Baldwin, 2013).

Sport is a public and visible platform that offers individuals opportunities to exhibit their characteristics and abilities. This makes sport to be a social arena. It is used to categorize sports with respect to the sport's properties and according to the characteristics required of the individual to present. Sports that require pleasing motions, aesthetics, grace and spatial barriers that separate athletes one from each other are considered as a feminine sport, for example synchronized swimming and rhythmic gymnastics. Alternatively, sports that comprise attempts to subdue an opponent through the use of force and face-to-face cooperative competition in which some bodily contact may occur are perceived as masculine sports or male-dominated sports, for example: wrestling and American-football (Allison, 1991; Ross & Shinew, 2008). Allison (1991) described the classification on sports according to their properties on a continuum: the
greater the degree of aesthetic and grace- the more feminine the sport; and the greater the demand of aggressiveness and strength- the more masculine the sport.

Csizma, Witting and Schurr (1988) examined the perception of acceptability of types of sport for both females and males. Out of 68 types of sport, boxing was ranked last (i.e., meant the least acceptable) and cheerleading was ranked at the first place. Other types of sport in the list were football (67th), basketball (50th place), soccer (51st).

Metheny (1965) classified these sports as 'not appropriate for girls. Swimming and volleyball, which were ranked at 18th and 14th places (Csizma et al.1988), were classified by Metheny (1965) as 'appropriate for girls'. The rankers in Csizma et al.'s (1988) study were 199 male and female college students from the US.

McCallister, Blinde and Phillips (2003) interviewed 46 girls (age range 9-12 years) and asked them, among others, to list sport activities that are more identified with boys and sports activities that are more identified with girls. Participants categorized sport activities such as football, soccer, baseball, hockey, wrestling and basketball as sports that were identified with boys. These types of sports contain simultaneous competition and bodily contact. Jump rope, cheerleading, dance and gymnastics were sports and activities that were identified with girls. Most of these types of sport are characterized with aesthetic motion and separation between competitors.

One sport that is considered male-dominated is basketball. Similarities exist between the men's and women's game in terms of almost identical rules, strategy and techniques (Walker, Sartore-Baldwin, 2013). However, face-to-face competition, rewards on body-size, strength and toughness and physical contact are attributes identify more
with masculinity, and as a result, these characteristics mark basketball as a male-dominated sport (Fields, 2005). Similar characteristics, in addition to the popularity on an international scale of men's soccer, make soccer as a sport that remains a largely male preserve (Williams, 2007).

Social norms about gender-role deliver females the message that it is inappropriate to engage in male-dominated sports because of their gender. This message is common, regardless of ethnicity and culture (Green, 2010). It can even possibly say that these social norms reflect discrimination towards a woman by her very being a woman.

To summarize, gender-role is transmitted through social norms. Gender-role reflects beliefs about the role of males and females in the society. Some sports could be categorized to male-dominated because of their characteristics. Since that there are similarities between male-role's characteristics and male-dominated sports' characteristics, a message that it is inappropriate for females to engage in male-dominated sports is being delivered.

The Female-Athlete Paradox

The social message accompanying females' sport participation, especially those who participate in male-dominated sport, exposes the female in front of a conflict- a conflict between her gender-role and her athlete-role (Guillet et al. 2006; Ross & Shinew, 2008). This conflict is labeled as the "female-athlete paradox". On one side, the female undermines her feminine gender-role and endangers her social status while satisfying her
own interests and her desire to play sports. On the other side, she oppresses her desires to play sports and follow social constraints and norms (Ross & Shinew, 2008). Therefore, despite investing a substantial time in her sport, the growing social discrepancy create a dilemma for those young girls who wish to pursue career in sport (Walker & Shartore-Baldwin 2013). This conflict, feminine-role versus athlete-role, causes wear, long-term absence and dropout of the sport (Shakib, 2003).

According to the National Federation of State High School Association reports that at 2015-2016 school year, there were approximately 429 thousand late-adolescent girls participating in basketball comparing to 546 thousand boys at the same age-range who participated in basketball. Adva Center, that provides information on equality and social justice in Israel, published a gender audit of sport budgets report. The report comprise data about Mateh Asher Regional Council (located in the north part of Israel and includes approximately 27,500 inhabitants, and about 23% of them are under the age of 17). According to the report, there were only 27 (10%) girls aged 5-12 who played basketball in comparison to 252 (90%) boys who engage in the same sport. These numbers indicated that along the developmental years (from childhood through adolescence to young adulthood), females tend to take no part or to dropout of basketball.

Lower rate of female participants is also seen in Israeli soccer. According to the Israel Football Association, in 2016-2017 there are 3 leagues of early-adolescent girls and 2 leagues of late-adolescent girls. In boys, however, there are 39 leagues of early-adolescent boys and 31 leagues of late-adolescent boys. These numbers suggest that soccer might not be considered as a popular sport for girls in Israel. In the US,
to the National Federation of State High School Association, at 2015-2016 school year, there were approximately 381 thousand late-adolescent girls participated in soccer compare to 440 thousand boys at the same age-range.

To summarize, the Female-Athlete Paradox is a conflict between the female athlete's gender-role and her athlete-role. This conflict appears especially in females who engage in male-dominated sports. The female-athlete paradox might cause to disengagement in sport and to dropping out of male-dominated sports.

**Lack of Validation Support**

Labeling sport types according to social norms of gender-appropriate and gender-inappropriate sports leads to the perception that being females are incompatible with engaging in sport, particularly in male-dominated sports (Desertain & Weiss, 1988; Miller & Levy, 1996; Green, 2010). Wills & Shinar (2000) defined this perception as Validation support. Validation support (or, in this case, lack of support) is considered as one function of social support and it refers to information about the normativeness or appropriateness of behavior provided in social relationships. Migliaccio and Berg (2007) interviewed tackle football women players (mean age 29.7 years) about the women experience in playing male-dominated sport. Participants reported that they received negative feedback from the general population about their participation in a masculine-typed sport. In addition, when 13 and 15 years old girls were asked why they did not take part in sport, a common answer was that it is not feminine to play sport (Slater & Tiggemann, 2010). This study investigated ceasing participation in sport and physical
activities reasons of early-adolescent girls. In a different study, late-adolescent basketball players' girl, who were interviewed about their pre- and post-pubertal sporting experience, indicated that during late-adolescence they acquired low social status from peers because that were identified as male-dominated sport (i.e., basketball) players (Shakib, 2003).

Basketball is ranked as one of the three major sports in the American culture (Fields, 2005). In spite of basketball being a male-dominated sport, it seems that it is relatively more legitimate for women to engage in basketball in the US than in other countries such as Israel. This implies that maybe American females basketball players receive more validation support from the sociocultural atmosphere surrounding them comparing to other countries. As for soccer, it should be noted that the history of female participation in the US is considered as a 'success', relatively to the international scale of female football (i.e., Middle East, Africa and Latin America), and that might be due to a stereotypical American aspiration (Williams, 2007; Grainey, 2012). However, in Israel, soccer seems to be a male-dominated sport by far (Galily et al, 2015).

Not receiving enough positive messages about their participation in male-dominated sports because of social gender-norms is another symptom for lack of validation support that might cause young girls to dropout of male-dominated sports. Horn and Horn's (2007) review identifies differences in parents' values, beliefs and behaviors toward their children. These differences are varied as a function of gender: parents valued sport for their sons more than for their daughters, parents believed their
sons to have sport competence more than their daughters and parents provided encouragement for their sons' involvement in sport more than for their daughters.

In Coakley and White's (1992) study, findings confirm that adolescent girls perceived that their parents placed constraint on their sport participation more than on their male counterparts. The constraints were based on safety concerns: where the daughters could go, who they could participate with and when to return. The sample included adolescent and young-adults boys and girls who testified that they participated in sports and physical activities for leisure purposes. Another study that focused on the encouragement provided by mothers to their athletes' daughters found that incentives for participating in sport was not automatic. Mothers needed to observe their daughters, who were wrestlers in this specific study, before they could encourage participation in such a sport (Bois, Sarrazin, Brustad, Trouilloud & Cury, 2002).

It should be noted that the social perception about girls who play male-dominated sports varies among age groups (Allison, 1991). During childhood, the peer group perceives girls' large interest in masculine-typed sports as legitimate (Ben-Porat, 2015). However, as girls enter puberty, exhibition of masculine attributes and not being viewed as feminine is no longer perceived as an advantage (Shakib, 2003). This means that the female-athlete paradox becomes notably conspicuous during adolescence (Ross & Shinew, 2008). The female-athlete paradox intensity during adolescence might explain the high dropout rate phenomenon that is seen in this developmental phase.

Adolescence is also a phase when youngsters are anxious about being rejected from same-sex friendship (Craike, Symons & Zimmermann, 2009). Slater and
Tiggemann (2010) conducted focus group interviews among 13 and 15 year old Australian girls. The purpose of the study was to gain deeper understanding of adolescents' reasons for socialization out of physical activities. Girls reported that they gave up sports because of the social pressure to conform with social norms and gender-roles and because of the desire to comply with peers. In other words, young girls did not want to be the only member in the peer group that remained in sports. This evidence indicates about lack of validation support based on sociocultural gender norms.

Further evidences about lack of validation support, based on social norms and gender-role provided by peers in a physical activity setting, were found in the same study (Slater & Tiggemann, 2010). The interviewees reported that peers used to tease girls who participated in physical activities by calling them names such as 'tomboys', which the interviewees found as an insulting word. 'Tomboy' is a word that refers to girls who during childhood and early-adolescence are involved in activities that are typically classified as masculine in nature (Horn & Horn, 2007). Burn, O'Neil and Nederend (1996) asked 'former tomboys' when and why did they stop behaving like a tomboys. Findings revealed that the desire to attract boys and peer pressure were common reasons for conformity to gender roles during adolescence. The average age for the conformity was found to be at 12-13 year age.

In contrast to social negative perception on girls who participate in sport (i.e., lack of validation support), the feminist perspective claims that engagement in physical endeavors and activities could empower women (Migliaccio & Berg, 2007). Shaw (1994) explains that by going against the stream, girls who participate in masculine activities get
beneficial physical and mental outcomes. Fields and Comstock (2008) conducted a survey among women rugby players. These players had the opinion that the sport strengthens them in several aspects of life and personal traits. Rewards such as responsibility, decision-making, gaining confidence, feelings of pride, positive body image and the feeling that they do something just for themselves, accompanied these female athletes' experiences of male-dominated sport. In another study that was conducted among women boxers, participants expressed sense of competence and success that they did not encounter in their past (Mennesson, 2000). Such psychological outcomes could play a possible role that causes girls to continue in participation in sport. It should be noted that the researches presented above were conducted on adult women samples. It might be possible that the ability to devalue negative social messages about gender-role, and the ability to focus on positive outcomes of sports, happens later in developmental phases; that is to say that this ability is evolved as a result of maturation processes.

To summarize, validation support is one function of social support and it refers to the information about the normativeness of a behavior. In this case, lack of validation support refers to the perception about the inappropriateness of the engagement of females in male-dominated sports. It should be noted that normativeness of behavior is influenced by cultural norms; therefore, different levels of validation support might be appeared in different cultures. Additionally, differences in validation support's levels were appeared to occur as a function of the girl's developmental age as well as the function of the type of the socializing agent.
Support by Role Modeling

Modeling is known as one of the most powerful means of transmitting values, norms and attitudes. The learning process occurs by observing the behavior of others and by acknowledging the consequences from that behavior. As the Social Learning Theory suggests, if the behavior is perceived as successful by the observer, the likelihood that the observer would imitate the same behavior is high (Bandura, 1977). In the same manner, if a young girl observes her socializing agents socializing into sports, the likelihood that she would engage in sport is high.

Parental influence in sport and physical activity field may be carried out in a form of role modeling. This type of influence is considered as an active type of influence (Green, 2010). Davison and Jago's (2009) study tracked changes in physically active behavior among young girls. The follow up period lasts from childhood through adolescence (9-15 year-old). By comparing between adolescent girls who maintained physically active routines and girls who became sedentary through the years, the researchers found that girls who maintained physically active routines had parents who had sustained levels of physical activity themselves.

Role modeling by siblings may be reflected in a positive or negative way. A retrospective interview of 29 adult athletes about the process by which they became committed to sport revealed that siblings played a role in the introduction phase for a specific sport (Stevenson, 1990). In focus groups interviews of 62 early- and late-adolescent girls, participants mentioned that they tracked their sibling's manners, in terms of type of sports or type of physical activities, at the time that the girls chose to be
involved in an activity (Craike et al. 2009). That is to say, individuals might participate in
sport because that their siblings do, or because they observed their siblings having
positive experiences in sport. It should be noted that individuals made their decision of
sport commitment based on significant others who were associated with a specific sport,
but also based on evaluation of their potential for success in a specific sport (Stevenson,
1990).

A negative role modeling by siblings had been observed in Wold and Anderssen's
(1992) study. They found that adolescents, who had an inactive older sibling, were less
apt to take part in sport than adolescents who did not have an older sibling. These
findings are in line with Horn and Horn's (2007) review that suggests that having an
inactive sibling may impede involvement of younger siblings into sport.

The Social Learning Theory also suggests that an observer would be more apt to
imitate a model's behavior, if the model is more like the observer (Bandura, 1977). In the
sport domain, this means that a girl might be more apt to mimic her mother or her sister
because they share same-sex identity. Wold and Anderssen (1992) examined the strength
of predictors for children's sport involvement according to same- and opposite-sex of
family members as role models. The sample included 39,086 boys and girls aged 11, 13
and 15 from nine European countries and from Israel. Findings suggested that, among
girls, active mothers and active older sisters were stronger predictors for girl's sport
participation than older brothers were. Shakib and Dunbar (2004) sampled 44 high-school
basketball players (twenty-five of them were females); and investigated their perception
of maternal sporting experience. Findings revealed that more than half of the girls (64%)
reported that their mother participated in sport. Thus, in the family context, mothers' sporting behavior and attitudes could be more crucial than fathers' behavior in determining girls' sporting behavior.

In contrast to the idea that individuals would be apt to mimic same-sex socializing agents' behavior, Weiss and Knoppers (1982) reported different findings. This study sampled 95 female collegiate volleyball players and explored the extent of each socializing agent's (i.e., family members, teachers, coaches, and peers) influence over the developmental years (i.e., childhood through adulthood). Findings indicated that older brothers were found to be the major sport socializing agents of same-sex' and opposite-sex' individual's. This means that, in practice, older brothers might influence their little sister to engage in male-dominated sport. However, no recent study re-examined this hypothesis.

To summarize, modeling is a process in which an individual observes and mimics other peoples' behavior. The role model transmits values, norms, and attitudes by his or her behavior. The literature suggests that modeling physically active behavior by family members was associated with young girls' involvement in physical activities. Additionally, sedentary behavior presented by older sibling was associated with youngest siblings' inactive behavior. There is inconsistency of whether young girls are more apt to mimic same-sex or opposite-sex role models.
Esteem Support

Socializing agents, in this case parents who encouraged their sons' sport involvement more than their daughters, could cause young girls to perceive less competence than boys in engaging in male-dominated sports (Horn & Horn, 2007). Feelings about competence evolving from significant others' responses could be ascribed as esteem support. Esteem support refers to any kind of bolstering one's sense of competence and contributing to one's self-worth (Wills & Shinar, 2000).

Positive association was found between positive peer support, in terms of esteem support, and motivation to maintain physically active behavior. These finding was found in Davison and Jago's (2009) study that followed up changes in physically active behavior for 6 years. Participants were 174 nine-year old (at the beginning of the study) girls. The relationship between parental esteem support and motivation of athlete to persistence in sport was also found in Ullrich-French and Smith's (2009) study. This study that was conducted among 10-14 years old boys and girls soccer players and focused on the participants' perception of competence and on motivational factors that influence the decision to continue to participate in soccer. Findings revealed that parental esteem support, especially from the mother, was associated with motivation to continue to participate in soccer.

Coakley and White (1992) found gender differences in adolescent girls' sport interpretation based on personal feelings of competence. Their findings indicated that even though that the adolescent girls were involved in physical activities and sports, they were not as likely as adolescent boys to perceive themselves as sportspersons. According
to Eccles and Harold's (1991) Expectancy-Value Model, children who recognize that their parents greatly value their children engagement in sport, tend to hold higher perceptions about their sport competence. Inversely, children who do not observe such an attitude from their parents, would hold lower perception of their sport competence. The Expectancy-Value Model suggests that children's choice in task/activity is tied to their expectations (e.g., utility and costs) from the activity and the value (i.e., importance) of it. Similarly, their beliefs and attitudes (i.e., interpretation of previous experiences, identification with gender-role) influence their expectation from the activity. The relation between task/activity's choice and expectation and value constructs depend, among others, on cultural norms; and those who expose individuals to sociocultural norms are significant socializers (Eccles & Harold, 1991). This means that socializing agents, who expose and interpret young girl with sociocultural norms based on gender-role, influence her expectation form her competence in the sports. Furthermore, Fredrick and Eccles (2005) found positive correlation between parents' perception of the importance of sport involvement and their child's perception of their sport competence. This study was conducted among 364 boys and girls in 2nd, 3rd and 5th grade, and among their parents investigated, among other factors, the esteem support provided by the parents. Another study that was conducted among older children (8th grade boys and girls adolescents) revealed similar results: adolescents' values regarding sport participation were affected by parents' values, beliefs and behavior (Stuart, 2003).

The relation between esteem support provided and socialization into/out of sports continues also in case of receiving negative support. This means that feelings of low
competence might result to socialization out of sport and dropout of male-dominated sports. LeBars, Gernigon and Ninot (2009) examined the association between parental support (including esteem support) and athletes' persistent or dropout. Findings indicated that athletes, who perceived less task-involved climate (refers to atmosphere that emphases effort and self-comparison, while ego-involvement climate refers to atmosphere that focuses on competition, winning and social comparison) from their parents, were more likely to dropout. This study was a longitudinal study conducted among adolescents' elite athletes who either kept participating or dropped out of Judo. These findings illustrate that social support, (including esteem support) has positive and negative aspects. For the purpose of this study, negative influence from the society would be considered as unfavorable support.

To summarize, esteem support refers to peoples' behavior that raises others' sense of competence. Positive association was found between socializing agents esteem support and physical activities' behavior as well as motivation to persist in sports. These findings are in line with the Expectancy-Value Model that suggests that people's choice in activity and people's feelings of competence depend on social norms and the social norms' providers.

**Emotional Support**

Emotional support is another function of social support and it refers to availability of people to encourage, praise, listen empathetically, provide indications of caring, accept
and comfort. Emotional support by parents could occur when they promote and encourage physically active behavior (Green, 2010).

The relationship between athlete's motivation and parental support found that parental emotional support, especially from the mother, was associated with motivation to continue in sport participation. This finding was revealed in Ullrich-French and Smith's (2009) study that focused on motivational factors that influence adolescents' decision to continue to participate in soccer and on the participants' perceptions of support received by socializing agents. Jõesaar and Hein's (2011) study also focused on the correlations between socializing agents' (parents and peers) support and motivation to persist or to dropout of sports. The study included 659 Estonian boys and girls aged 9-17 years (33% engaged in Basketball and a total of 53% engaged in a bodily contact and direct confrontation sport). Findings indicated that athletes who persisted in sport, perceived more emotional support (in addition to informational and esteem support) from their parents than athletes who dropped out. The support came in forms of extrinsic rewards on effort, reward on performance and provision of choices and options.

Côté (1999) identified siblings with a positive influence on their other siblings. Emotional support from siblings was found to be important contributor to children and adolescents' participation in sports. Fraser-Thomas, Côté and Deakin (2008) interviewed 13-18 year old elite swimmers concerning the role of significant others in adolescent swimmers' sport involvement. The study compared swimmers who kept engaging in sport and those who dropped out. Swimmers who kept involved in sport spoke of positive influence (in the form of role modeling) from their siblings. In addition, swimmers who
dropped out during their adolescence, reported competition, jealousy and rivalry that they felt in their relationship with their siblings. The last finding indicates about unfavorable emotional and esteem support by siblings.

It seems that perceive emotional support makes it easier to engage in sports and physical activities. However, as Fraser-Thomas, Côté and Deakin's (2008) last finding indicates, the relation between emotional support and socialization into/out of sports continues also in case of negative emotional support. In other words, young girls would socialize out of sports when their socializing agents provided with them unfavorable emotional support. Slater and Tiggemann (2011) explored teasing experiences of 714 early- and late-adolescent boys and girls within a physical activity environment. Feelings that peers stared at them, laughed at them and called them names because of their appearance and/or performance, and feelings of hostility in forms of bullying and teasing, were reported as the general experience of girls who gave up of sports. This behavior came not only from same-sex peers, but also from boys. This finding suggests that an unsafe atmosphere could become objectifying environment for girls and contribute to girls' withdrawal from physical activities and sport. Finding reasons of why girls continuing in participation in sport, despite a hostile environment and in spite of lack of emotional support, might shed light on the best way to provide athletic girls with the experience to fulfill their individual needs (Stuart & Whaley, 2005); in this case, fulfilling their desire to engage in physical activities and sports.

To summarize, emotional support means to any kind of provision an abutment for one's feelings. Researches indicate that emotional support provided by different
socializing agents was associated with motivation to persist in different kind of sport. Additionally, unfavorable emotional support was associated with withdrawal from sports and physical activities.

**Companionship Support**

While one form of role modeling is to project a behavior to an observer, another form of role modeling is to engage with the observer in a behavior. Wills and Shinar (2000) addressed the other form of role modeling as *Companionship support*. Companionship support refers to availability of persons to participate with one in social, leisure, recreational and cultural activities, for example going to concerts together or to play sports together.

In terms of companionship support, the impact of same-sex peers' influence has a great role in determining the decision to participate in or dropout of sport (Weiss & Knopper, 1982; Weiss & Glenn, 1992). This is relevant especially for female athletes as they reach adolescent (Shakib, 2003; Davison & Jago, 2009). In Coakley and White's (1992) study, young women mentioned that they would not have made a decision to participate in organized sports unless a friend accompanied them. One recent study that compared peers' support between continuous and dropped out swimmers revealed that lack of friends in the organized sport negatively affected sports continuation (Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2008). In this study, the researchers interview 10 athletes who continued swimming and 10 swimmers who dropped out of swimming. Reporting about peer's influence, dropped out swimmers indicated that they did not have any swimming friends
left in their group. Findings from a pilot study for this current study supports the idea that young females emphasized a togetherness component as a factor for sport's participation. The pilot study included 47 male and female undergraduate students. The students were asked to rate to what extent and to elaborate about influence on sport participation and dropout by their significant others. Females indicated that they (i.e., the participant and her friend or peer) joined a team together or that they all decided to try out for some sports together. This factor could be considered as a companionship function of social support. There is a gap in the literature about the role of the togetherness component as a determinant for young girls' participation in male-dominated sports.

To summarize, companionship support refers to engagement of ones with another person in any activity. The literature indicates that adolescents made a decision whether to participate or dropout of sports based on their friends' participation with them in the same sport. These findings were more noticeable among females. They emphasized the togetherness component as a factor in a decision to participate in sports.

**Instrumental Support**

*Instrumental support* involves tangible aid and/or practical help such as lending money, buying equipment or assistance with transportation (Fraser-Thomas & Beesley, 2015; Freeman, Coffee, Moll, Rees & Sammy, 2014; Wills & Shinar, 2000). In Davison and Jago's (2009) study that tracked changes in physically activity behavior based on support provided by parent and peers in 6-year follow up, revealed that girls who stayed physically active had parents who sustained instrumental support across ages 9 to 15
year-old. In contrast, girls who became sedentary reported reduction in parental instrumental support across the years. Instrumental support in Davison and Jago’s (2009) study refers to enrolling the girl to activities and provided with them transportation to the settings.

Muchtar, Zilber and Lazar-Shoef (2013) examined the influence of family members on the development of athletes. The researchers interviewed 5 Israeli professional Tennis players and their fathers (one of them was the participant's big brother) about their experience as adolescent players in Tennis. Participants (but one) reported that it was almost impossible to persist in the sport without the instrumental support provided by their family members. The instrumental-logistic support was manifested in terms of providing transportation to trainings and tournaments, providing money for enrollment to tournaments, and buying equipment.

Informational Support

*Informational support* involves providing advice, guidance and information about resources and services; in the sport field, informational support involves also sport-specific feedback (Fraser-Thomas & Beesley, 2015; Freeman, Coffee, Moll, Rees & Sammy, 2014; Wills & Shinar, 2000).

Fraser-Thomas and Beesley's (2015) review about the roles that parents play in creating opportunities of development for their athletic children, suggests that athletes may respond differently to their parental informational support. The response depends on the athletes' perception of their parents' expertise.
Knight, Neely and Holt (2011) interviewed early-adolescent girls (36 athletes, 12-15 years old) who participated in male-dominated sports in order to examine their preferences for parental informational behavior. Findings revealed that during competitions young athletes found their parents' feedback confusing, especially when it contradicted the coach instructions. However, if the athletes perceived their parents to be knowledgeable about the sports, then they did not mind receive advice from their parents. This exception was found in Knight, Boden and Holt's (2010) study that examined the preferences of 42 male and female early-adolescents (12-15 years old) tennis players about their parental informational behavior. Additionally, the tennis players indicated that they did want to get practical advice from their parent before and after a game. Practical information referred to advice about preparation (e.g., nutrition) and advice for recovery after a game.

To summarize the review of the literature, cultural norms shape our socialization processes and comprise norms about gender-roles. These social gender-roles exist, among others, in the sport arena. Because many sports attributes (e.g., competition, leadership, demonstration of physical abilities) are socially ascribed to the masculine-role, stereotypes about incompatibility of females in sport are common. This is true especially for male-dominated sports. As a result of the stereotypes, females who engage in sport experience a female-athlete paradox. This paradox is greatly noticeable at early-adolescent ages and despite evidence of personal empowerment, it seems that a massive number of girls decide to dropout of sport when they arrive at adolescence. Socializing agents have been found to have a great impact on youngsters' socialization into sport and
socialization out of sport. The agents' influence is manifested by role modeling and social support. Because gender-related norms vary among cultures, it is important to identify cultural differences in young girls' and socializing agents' expectancies and values about participation in male-dominated sports. Such identification could shed light on optimal ways to provide young girls with equal opportunities to participate in sports, particularly in male-dominated sport. After reviewing the literature, it seems that young girls' decision about participation or dropout of male-dominated sports is a result of negotiation between the self and the environment. In-depth investigation of this negotiation process, in terms of cultural context and human agency, would assist us establishing an optimal environment for young girls to engage in male-dominated sports. Therefore, the purpose of the study is to better understand the role of socializing agents on dropout and continuing participation of young adolescent girls in male-dominated sports.
CHAPTER III

METHODS

The purpose of this study was to examine the role of socializing agents (i.e., parents, siblings, friends and peers) on both dropout and continuing participation of adolescent girls in male-dominated sport. Specifically, the study focuses on: 1) social support provided by socializing agents for early-adolescent girls who participated in different types of sports, 2) differences in social support provided by socializing agents between girls who dropout and girls who continue to participate in male-dominated sports at late-adolescence, and 3) differences in social support provided by socializing agents between American girls and Israeli girls who participate in male-dominated sports.

Participants were recruited from both the US and Israel. The criteria for participation in the study were: 1) being female and, 2) engaged in organized sport during early-adolescence. Early-adolescence was defined as the developmental phase between the ages 11-14 (Green, 2010). Male-dominated sport was defined as sport which is characterized by face-to-face competition, bodily contact, attempts to subdue an opponent through the use of force, and rewards for body-size, strength and toughness (Allison, 1991; Ross & Shinew, 2008).

The socializing agents' support provided was examined under the prism of different types of social support functions: emotional, esteem, informational, instrumental, companionship and validation support. For each of the supporting
functions participants were asked to rate to what extent each socializing agent provided them with the support.

The provided social support was also examined by open-ended questions. The questions asked the participant to report whether the socializing agent encouraged or discouraged her participation in her sport. Followup questions asked the participant to elaborate how the encouragement or discouragement was manifested. Another question explored how much the support influenced the participant's participation.

Participants

A total of 146 females who participated in organized sports during early-adolescence (age 11-14) completed the questionnaire (see Table 1). The majority, 80.7% (n=118) were American participants and 19.3% (n=28) were Israeli participants. Most (64%, n=92) identified as White, 27.1% (n=39) as African-American, 2.8% (n=4) as Hispanic and 0.7% (n=1) Asian. Six percent (n=8) identified themselves as mixed-racial.

The American sample’s age ranged from 18-45 years old (M=20.34, SD=3.35). Twenty-five percent (n=29) reported that they currently participate in sports and 79% (n=94) reported current participation in physical activities. Ninety percent (n=106) reported that they participated in organized sports during childhood and 88.9% (n=104) participated in organized sports during late-adolescence. Twenty-one percent (n=25) of the participants considered basketball as their main sport during early adolescence, 17.8% (n=21) soccer, 14.4% (n=17) softball and 1.7% (n=2) considered field hockey as their main sport during the ages of 11-14. These were the male-dominated sports. Sports that
were categorized as neutral were track and field (10.2%, n=12), volleyball (6.8%, n=8),
tennis (2.5%, n=3), golf (0.8%, n=1) and swimming (0.8%, n=1). Eighteen percent
(n=21) considered cheerleading, dance and ballet as their main sport during early-
adolescence and 5.1% (n=6) and 0.8% (n=1) considered Gymnastics and Trampoline as
their main sport during early-adolescence, respectively. These sports were considered as
feminine sports because that they involve feminine attributes of pleasing motions,
aesthetics, grace and spatial barriers that separate athletes from each other. Seventy-six
percent (n=89) kept participating in their main sport during late-adolescence, while
23.9% (n=28) dropped out of their main sport during the same developmental age.

The Israeli sample ranged in age from 19-33 years old (M=25.36, SD=4.06).
Twenty-eight percent (n=8) reported that they currently participate in sports and 85.7%
(n=24) reported current participation in physical activities. As for participation rate in
childhood and adolescent years, 78.6% (n=22) reported that they participated in
organized sports during childhood and 96.4% (n=27) participated in organized sports
during late-adolescence. Fifty-seven percent (n=16) of the participants considered
basketball as their main sport during early-adolescence, 7.1% (n=2) soccer, 7.1% (n=2)
handball and 7.1% (n=2) considered martial arts as their main sport during the same age.
These were the male-dominated sports in the Israeli sample. The neutral type sports were
track and field (3.6%, n=1) and swimming (10.7%, n=3). One participant participated in
dance and one in gymnastics during early-adolescence. These were the feminine sports.
Eighty-six percent (n=24) of the Israeli sample reported that they kept participating in
their main sport during late-adolescence, while 14% (n=4) dropped out of their main sport during the same developmental phase.
Table 1. Participants' Demographics- Percent and Counts

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Americans</th>
<th></th>
<th>Israeli</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
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<td>Race- white</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>golf</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cheerleading, dance and ballet</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trampoline</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swimming</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>martial arts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male-dominated sports’ participation status at late-adolescence-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continued</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>81.5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>86.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dropped out</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral sports’ participation status at late-adolescence-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continued</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dropped out</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine sports’ participation status at late-adolescence-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continued</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>78.6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dropped out</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age- mean (SD)</td>
<td>20.34 (3.35)</td>
<td>25.36 (4.06)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (n)</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Procedure

After receiving Institutional Review Board approval, the American participants were voluntarily recruited from kinesiology classes for undergraduate students from a university in the Southeastern US. Participants were invited to complete a questionnaire by providing honest and accurate answers. Additionally, participants were informed that they can withdraw at any time. In addition to promise of confidentiality, privacy protection was kept by asking the participants not to provide any identifying information on the questionnaire.

The Israeli participants were recruited using convenience sampling, many of them were students from colleges for physical education in south and center of Israel. After receiving Institutional Review Board approval, an electronic Hebrew version of the questionnaire was sent to 15 personal contacts. The personal contacts were asked to disseminate the questionnaire in a snowball method. Thirteen more participants were recruited in the snowball procedure. The complete questionnaires were sent back to the researcher. All the participants were informed that participation in the study is voluntarily and they were asked to provide honest and accurate answers without reporting any identifying information on the questionnaires.

Measures

All measures were gathered from a questionnaire containing both close- and open-ended questions (see Appendix I for the complete survey). It should be noted that participants were young adults and they reported about their past experience (early- and
late-adolescence) in organized sports, that is, a retrospective report. The questionnaire included four parts:

The first part of the questionnaire gathered demographic information on the participants’ age, gender, year in school, race/ethnicity and past and current status of sport and physical activity participation.

On the second part participants indicated which sport they considered as their main sport in early-adolescence, and then answered the questions in relation to their experience in their main sport. Then, a series of similar rating scale questions assessed social support provided by each socializing agent, separately. The seven types of socializing agents were parents/guardian, brother(s), sister(s), same-sex friend(s), opposite-sex friend(s), same-sex peer(s) and opposite-sex peer(s). Follow up open-ended questions measured role modeling, encouragement or discouragement and the overall influence of each of the socializing agent. For each socializing agent, social support provided was assessed for each of the supporting functions: emotional, esteem, informational, instrumental, companionship and validation support. Using a 1-5 rating scale (1 = Not at All to 5 = Very Much), the participant was asked to rate to what extent the socializing agent provided: a) Emotional support ("to what extent did the agent encourage your participation in your main sport"); b) Esteem support ("to what extent did the agent make you feel competent in your main sport"); c) Informational support ("to what extent did the agent give you advice on your main sport"); d) Instrumental support ("to what extent did the agent provide you tangible support such as equipment, transportation, money in your main sport"); e) Companionship support ("to what extent
did the agent *participate or practice* your main sport with you"); f) Validation support ("to what extent did the agent *consider* your main sport appropriate for girls"). Follow up open-ended questions asked about a) role modeling ("did the socializing agent participate in sports during your early-adolescence"); b) whether the socializing agent encouraged or discouraged the participant ("did the socializing agent encourage your participation in your main sport? If yes, how they encourage your participation"); c) overall influence on participation ("in general, how much did the support provided by the socializing agent influence your participation in your main sport").

The third part of the questionnaire asked whether the participant kept engaging in their main sport during late-adolescence and why they did or did not ("did you keep participating in your main sport during late-adolescence? Why did you keep/stop participating?").

The fourth part provided the participant with the opportunity to elaborate or provide additional information ("please add any additional comments about your reasons for continuing or not continuing to participate after early-adolescence").

It should be noted the questionnaire was based on the literature (Beets, Cardinal & Alderman, 2010; Freeman, Coffee, Moll, Rees & Sammy, 2014; Fraser-Thomas & Beesley, 2015; Wills & Shinar 2000), but was developed specifically for the purpose of this study. An initial version of the questionnaire was used in a pilot study that examined the role of socializing agents on dropout and continuing participation in adolescence in sports. The pilot study sampled undergraduate male and female students and investigated their sport experience and socializing agents' social support during adolescence. That
pilot questionnaire was adjusted to fit the specific aims of this current study. The current version used in this study was addressed to females who participated in male-dominated sports during their early-adolescence. In addition, the current version of the questionnaire was translated into Hebrew to accommodate to the Israeli sample. The researcher, for whom Hebrew is her native language, translated the measure. Another native Hebrew speaker reviewed and revised the translated questionnaire.

Analysis

Following basic descriptive analysis of demographics, the research questions were addressed with descriptive analysis, comparisons across groups, and summaries of responses to the open-ended questions.

First, to address question one, are there differences based on types of sport (male-dominated, neutral and feminine sports) a series of seven MANOVAs were calculated to compare the ratings of the six social support functions across three types of sport. The independent variable was type of sport (male-dominated, neutral, feminine) and six ratings of social support was the repeated dependent variable. Separate analyses were conducted for each socializing agent and separate analyses were conducted for the American and the Israeli samples.

Similar MANOVAs (seven tests) were used to address question two, are there differences in social support provided by the socializing agents between girls who continued participation and those who dropped out of male-dominated sports during late-adolescence. The independent variable was participation status with two levels: continue
or dropout. Again, the six ratings of social support functions were the dependent variables and the analysis was conducted for each socializing agent separately. Following this step, descriptive statistics were used for role modeling behavior by the socializing agents. In addition to the statistical analyses, open-ended responses were examined to provide added insight. Responses to the open-ended questions were listed and summarized to identify common responses and patterns in socializing agents' social support provided, and its possible influence on participation status at late-adolescence.

To examine question three, did American girls receive different social support from the socializing agents than Israeli girls, similar MANOVAs (seven tests) were used. The independent variable was cultural background, with two levels: US and Israel. The dependent variables were six different functions of social support. The analyses were conducted for each socializing agent separately.

Finally, a summary analysis of open-ended responses about the participants’ perception about the socializing agents’ influence was conducted.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Support Functions across Types of Sport

The first question examined differences in the social support provided by the socializing agents across types of sport (male-dominated, neutral and feminine). It was hypothesized that social support would be greater for girls who participated in feminine sports than those who participated in male-dominated sports. The multivariate results for each socializing agent are presented first. Then if the multivariate sport effect was significant, the univariate differences were examined. For those significant differences, the mean scores across types of sport are presented in Tables 2.a. and 2.b. (see Appendix IV for all social support scores across types of sport).

Table 2.a. Significant Scores in Informational Support across Types of Sport

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male-Dominated M (SD)</th>
<th>Neutral M (SD)</th>
<th>Feminine M (SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>4.02 (1.21) a</td>
<td>3.6 (1.29)ab</td>
<td>3.29 (1.11) b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brothers</td>
<td>2.94 (1.62) a</td>
<td>2.38 (1.32)ab</td>
<td>1.71 (0.77) b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opposite-Sex Friends</td>
<td>3.21 (1.5) a</td>
<td>2.21 (1.44)ab</td>
<td>1.7 (0.95) b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opposite-Sex Peers</td>
<td>2.55 (1.47) a</td>
<td>2.21 (1.28)ab</td>
<td>1.71 (1.15) b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.b. Significant Scores in Companionship Support across Types of Sport

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male-Dominated M (SD)</th>
<th>Neutral M (SD)</th>
<th>Feminine M (SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>3.31 (1.39) a</td>
<td>3.04 (1.51)ab</td>
<td>2.39 (1.39) b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brothers</td>
<td>3.37 (1.28) a</td>
<td>2.62 (1.38)ab</td>
<td>1.65 (1.11) b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opposite-Sex Friends</td>
<td>3.29 (1.59) a</td>
<td>2.67 (1.57)ab</td>
<td>1.68 (0.97) b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opposite-Sex Peers</td>
<td>2.71 (1.47) a</td>
<td>2.58 (1.28)ab</td>
<td>1.64 (1.09) b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The multivariate effect for type of sport for parent support was significant, Wilks’ Lambda=.81, F(12,218)=1.92, p<.05. In the American sample, there was a significant univariate difference in parental informational support, F(2,114)=3.8, p<.05, such that male-dominated sports scored higher than feminine sports. Also, a significant difference was found in parental companionship support, F(2,114)=4.22, p<.05, such that male-dominated sports scored higher than feminine sports. The Israeli sample was smaller and had did not have enough participants in neutral and feminine sports to conduct the analyses comparing support across types of sport.

The multivariate effect for brothers’ support across types of sport was statistically significant, Wilks’ Lambda=.65, F(12,114)=2.22, p<.05. A significant univariate difference was found in brothers’ informational support, F(2,62)=4.56, p<.05, such that male-dominated sports scored higher than feminine sports. Additionally, a significant difference was found in brothers’ companionship support, F(2,62)=10.76, p<.01, such that male-dominated sports scored higher than feminine sports.

The multivariate effect for opposite-sex friends' support across types of sport obtained, Wilks’ Lambda=.707, F(12,212)=3.34, p<.01. A significant univariate
difference in opposite-sex friends’ informational support was found, $F(2,111)=12.66$, $p<.01$, such that male-dominated sports scored higher than neutral and feminine sports. Also, a significant difference in opposite-sex friends’ companionship support was found, $F(2,111)=13.19$, $p<.01$, such that male-dominated sports scored higher than neutral and feminine sports.

The multivariate effect for opposite-sex peers’ support across types of sport was significant, Wilks’ Lambda=.77, $F(12,212)=2.39$, $p<.01$. A significant univariate difference was found in opposite-sex peers’ informational support, $F(2,111)=3.63$, $p<.05$, such that male-dominated sports scored higher than feminine sports. Additionally, opposite-sex peers’ companionship support was found significantly higher, $F(2,111)=6.22$, $p<.01$, such that male-dominated sports scored higher than neutral and feminine sports.

Support Functions across Participation Status

For all remaining questions, only male-dominated sport participants’ data were analyzed. The following section presents analyses of scores of social support functions, role-modeling counts and reasons for continuing and dropping out of male-dominated sports.

The second question, which is also the main question, examined differences in the social support provided by the socializing agents across participation status (continued or dropped out) during late-adolescence. It was hypothesized that girls who continued participation would get greater social support than girls who dropped out. Separate
MANOVA analyses were conducted for each of the socializing agents with the 6 support function ratings as dependent variables. Multivariate results are reported first. When the multivariate participation status effect was significant, univariate differences were examined. The scores of support functions that were significantly different are presented in Table 3 (see Appendix V for all scores of support functions across participation status):
Table 3. Significant Scores of Support Functions across Participation Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ESTEEM</th>
<th>TANGIBLE</th>
<th>COMPANIONSHIP</th>
<th>VALIDATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Continued M (SD)</td>
<td>Dropped out M (SD)</td>
<td>Continued M (SD)</td>
<td>Dropped out M (SD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents (n=53, n=12)</td>
<td>4.34 (0.8)</td>
<td>3.58 (1.12)</td>
<td>4.83 (0.47)</td>
<td>4.33 (1.61)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brothers (n=31, n=4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All mean scores in the table differed significantly between continued and dropped out participants.
The multivariate effect for American parents’ support across participation status was significant, Wilks’ Lambda=.79, F(6,57)=2.49, p<.05. A significant univariate difference was found in parents’ esteem support, F(1,62)=7.64, p<.01, such that continued girls scored higher than dropout girls. A significant difference was found in parents’ instrumental support, F(1,62)=4.66, p<.05, such that continued girls scored higher than dropped out girls. Parental companionship support was found significantly higher, F(1,62)=6.89, p=.01, such that continued girls scored higher than dropout girls. There were no significant differences in Israeli parents’ social support across participation status.

The multivariate effect for American brothers’ support across participation status was significant, Wilks’ Lambda=.65, F(6,28)=2.44, p=.05. A significant univariate difference was found in brothers’ validation support, F(1,33)=9.21, p<.01, such that continued girls scored higher than dropped out girls. No significant differences were found in Israeli brothers’ social supports across participation status.

Role modeling was assessed as yes/no responses to the question on socializing agents as models. Chi-square analyses revealed no significant association between role modeling and participation status in either the American sample or the Israeli sample (see Appendix VI for counts of socialization agents’ role modeling and girls’ participation status).

Responses for the question of did the participant keep participating or dropout of her main sport during lateadolescence, and additional comments about reasons for
continuing or withdrawal participation after early adolescence are presented in Table 4 and 5.

Table 4. Reasons for Continued Participation in Male-Dominated Sports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceptual</td>
<td>Pure Love</td>
<td>I enjoyed it/ I loved (love) it/ It was my true passion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|              | Sport as a mean (Perception of outcomes benefits) | Stress reliever
|              |                                            | Kept me out of trouble
|              |                                            | Kept me in shape/ Good for health
|              |                                            | A mean to control my anger
|              |                                            | Wanted career in college/ Future career
|              |                                            | Gave me something to do
|              |                                            | Gave me sense of power and control
|              |                                            | A mean to make new friends
|              |                                            | Made me feel happy and empowered/ Feel awesome
|              |                                            | A mean to bond with my family
|              |                                            | Escapism
|              |                                            | Sport provides me tools for life                                          |
| Internal Processes | Part of my identity/ Part of my life | Part of my identity/ Part of my life
|              |                                            | I like seeing improvement
|              |                                            | I like setting goals and reaching them
|              |                                            | I wanted to participate
|              |                                            | I am competitive
|              |                                            | I was good at it
|              |                                            | Gave me purpose                                                           |
| Social Reasons | Part of something bigger than myself/ Loved being on a team | Part of something bigger than myself/ Loved being on a team
|              |                                            | Enjoyed the friendly atmosphere
|              |                                            | Great support system
|              |                                            | My friends were there
|              |                                            | Family tradition/ Pushed by my family/ Pushed by my coach/ Pushed by my friend
|              |                                            | Had a good role model
| Situational Reason | I was a part of a sport class track | I was a part of a sport class track                                      |
Table 5. Reasons for Dropping Out of Male-Dominated Sports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceptual</td>
<td>Mental Reason</td>
<td>Burn out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bad sportsmanship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low Ability</td>
<td>I was not good at it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other Preferences</td>
<td>Did not care about it anymore/was not interested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Wanted to do other things/other sports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Did not like it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Did not have time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Too much dedication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Social Reasons</td>
<td>My friends quit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Had no good team to play with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bad coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of Validation Support</td>
<td>Did not want to deal with things people said about me playing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational</td>
<td>External Constraints</td>
<td>There was no program available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Injury</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No opportunity for future career/Women’s sport is not developed in Israel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reasons for Continuing Participation

A total of 87 American and the Israeli girls participated in male-dominated sports during early-adolescence. Eighty-one percent (n=53) American participants and 86.4% (n=22) Israeli participants continued participation in their main sports during late-adolescence. A total of 122 responses of the girls who continued participating in their main sports during late-adolescence were categorized into 5 themes: Pure love, Sport as a means (perception of benefits), Internal processes, Social reasons and Situational reasons. Thirty-four additional comments by the girls who continued participation were added to the total count of responses for the question “Why did you keep participating in your main sport during late-adolescence?” These additional comments were also coded into
the main 5 themes. The final total counts of the comments for both questions was 156 responses.

*Pure love* theme refers to internal motivation to engage in the sport. Pure love is also a sub-theme of the Perceptual factor that influences sports’ participation status. Examples of responses that indicate true passion and love are:

I loved it and had passion especially for soccer the sport (Soccer)

Basketball means more to me than anything in this world. I will never stop loving the game (Basketball)

*Sport as a means* (perception of benefits) theme refers to the additional values and outcomes that participants earned from engaging in their sport, for instance, sport was a means of stress relief, anger control, keeping in shape, escapism, bonding with family, meeting new friends, pursue a future career, etc. This theme is also a sub-theme of the Perceptual factor. Examples of responses that indicate perceptions about benefits:

People go to drug or alcohol as a stress reliever, having sports was my addiction (Basketball)

I enjoyed getting closer to my dad and brother… because I could talk about these sports with them (Soccer)

Extracurricular activities looked good on college applications (Softball)

*Internal processes* theme refers to factors that matched the character or the identity of the participants; for example, love seeing improvement, competitiveness, excellence in the sport and part of the identity. This theme is considered as a sub-theme of the Perceptual
factor that influences sports’ participation. Examples of responses that indicate the match between the girl’s character and the sport’s attributes are:

I excelled in it (Soccer)
I was very competitive so sport was what I did (Soccer)
It was my passion + identity (Basketball)

Social reasons theme refers to socializing agents’ influence that encouraged the participants to continue engaging in their sports; for instance, pushed by socializing agents, good role models, desire for togetherness, good support system and the desire to be a part of a team. This theme is considered as a sub-theme of the Interpersonal factor of influence. Examples of responses that indicate socializing agents’ influence are:

Most of my friends were on the team, so that helped (Soccer)
Because all my good friends participated in basketball (Basketball)
I wanted to be part of something bigger from myself (Softball)

Two Israeli responses indicated Situational reasons, which refers to their continuation in sport just because they were part of basketball class track at high-school.

Reasons for Dropout

Out of 87 girls who participated in male-dominated sports during early-adolescence, 18.5% (n=12) American and 13.6% (n=3) Israeli dropped out of their main sport during late-adolescence. The responses of the girls who dropped out were
categorized into 6 themes: Mental reason, Low ability Other preferences, External constrains, Social reasons and Lack of validation support.

*Mental reason* theme is considered as a sub-theme of Perceptual factors. An example of responses that indicate mental reasons is:

I was burned out of softball (Softball)

*Low ability* theme is also a sub-theme of the perceptual factors. An example of responses that indicate mental reasons is:

I mostly enjoyed playing softball but was never very confident/good (Softball)

*Other preferences* theme refers to choices that made by the girls' free will, for instance: did not like it, was not interested anymore, wanted other sport, had no time and had other obligations. This theme is considered as a sub-theme of the Perceptual factor. An example of responses that indicate other preferences is:

Felt I should focus more on other sport which was dancing (Basketball)

*External constraints* theme refers to factors that were imposed on the participant, for example no programs offered or injury. External constraints theme is a sub-theme of the situational factor. An example of responses that indicate external constraints are:

I went to high-school that did not offer sports (Soccer)

Women’s sport is not developed in Israel (Basketball)
Social reasons theme refers to constraints that were caused by socializing agents, for example: bad coach, no good team to play with and friends that dropped out. Social reasons theme is considered as a sub-theme for the interpersonal factor. Example of responses that indicate social reasons is:

My friends (same-sex) also quit (Soccer)

Two American responses indicated Lack of validation support theme. This theme is considered as a sub-theme of the interpersonal factor that influences sports’ participation status:

I did not want to keep dealing with the things people said about me playing soccer, it almost made me hate playing (Soccer)

Support Functions across Cultures

The third question of the study examined differences in social support functions, provided by the socializing agents for girls who participated in male-dominated sports during early-adolescence, across cultures (American and Israeli). It was hypothesized that American girls would get greater social support than Israeli girls. Scores of social support that differed significantly across cultures are presented in Table 6.
Table 6. Significant Scores of Social Support across Cultures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EMOTIONAL</th>
<th>INFORMATIONAL</th>
<th>COMPANIONSHIP</th>
<th>VALIDATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>American</td>
<td>Israeli</td>
<td>American</td>
<td>Israeli</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=62, n=22)</td>
<td>4.02 (1.21)</td>
<td>2.77 (1.51)</td>
<td>3.31 (1.39)</td>
<td>4.71 (0.77)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same-Sex Friends</td>
<td>4.24 (0.97)</td>
<td>3.64 (1.56)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=64, n=22)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Same-Sex Peers</td>
<td>3.36 (1.34)</td>
<td>2.45 (1.53)</td>
<td>2.82 (1.57)</td>
<td>4.03 (1.25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=63, n=22)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opposite-Sex Peers</td>
<td>3.06 (1.41)</td>
<td>2.18 (1.53)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=62, n=22)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All mean scores in the table differed significantly between American and Israeli participants.
The multivariate effect for American parents’ support obtained, Wilks’ Lambda=.66, F(6,79)=6.56, p<.01. Results revealed that there was significant difference in parental informational support, F(1,84)=15.08, p<.01, such that the American scores were higher than the Israeli scores. Also, there was significant difference in parental companionship support, F(1,84)=4.16, P<.05, such that the Americans scored higher than the Israeli. Additionally, a significant difference was found in parents’ validation support, F(1,84)=15.24, p<.01, such that the American girls scored higher than the Israeli girls.

The multivariate effect for American same-sex friend’s support was significant, Wilks’ Lambda=.82, F(6,78)=2.69, p<.05. There was a significant univariate difference in same-sex friends’ emotional support, F(1,83)=4.43, p<.05, such that Americans scored higher than Israeli. Also, there was a significant difference in same-sex friends’ validation support, F(1,83)=13.12, p<.01, such that American scored higher than Israeli. There was no significant difference in social support provided by opposite-sex friends across cultures.

The multivariate effect for American same-sex peers’ support was significant, Wilks’ Lambda=.77, F(6,76)=3.7, p<.01. There was a significant univariate difference in same-sex peers’ emotional support, F(1,81)=6.82, p=.01, such that American scored higher than Israeli. Also, a significant difference was found in same-sex peers’ esteem support, F(1,81)=5.22, p<.05, such that American scored higher than Israeli. Additionally, there was a significant difference in same-sex peers’ companionship support, F(1,81)=4.42, p<.05, such that American scored higher than Israeli. Significant
difference in same-sex peers’ validation support, $F(1,81)=19.92$, $p<.01$ was found such that American scored higher than Israeli.

The multivariate effect for American opposite-sex peers’ support indicated a significant difference, Wilks’ Lambda=.75, $F(6,77)=4.09$, $p<.01$. There was significant univariate difference in opposite-sex peers’ emotional support, $F(1,82)=6.06$, $p=.01$, such that American scored higher than Israeli participants. In addition, there was a significant difference in opposite-sex peers’ validation support, $F(1,82)=14.79$, $p<.01$, such that the American scored higher than Israeli participants.

Parental Influence

On the open-ended question about how the parents encouraged the participation in their main sport, participants from both samples mentioned informational support in forms of giving advice, feedback and tips. As for companionship support, participants emphasized that their parents played with them or even were the team’s coaches. The responses about companionship support were unique for the American sample.

Instrumental support was found almost uniquely provided by parents. Both samples mentioned that their parents encouraged their participation in their main sport by instrumental support such as paying for participation in a club, buying equipment and driving to games and practices. A soccer player emphasized it by writing:

They drove me 15 hours to play club (Soccer)
Parental instrumental support was also provided in the form of special efforts, for example:

Sent me to camps (Basketball)
They hired people to train me in the sport (Basketball)

Both samples also reported emotional support provided by parents. This support function came in forms of attending games, cheering at games and giving motivational words:

'You can do it' and always reminding me to keep m heads up (Soccer)
Give me talks and encouraging talks (Basketball)

Encouraging participants to join a team and pushing them to keep going to practices were also common responses for the question about parental encouragement:

They pushed me to participate in the sport when they notice my interest in it (Basketball)
My father pushed me to join his practices (Martial arts)
Always encouraged me to go to practice (Softball)

An Israeli participant reported a contradictory response:

My parents pushed me off of sport by telling me not to commit and not go for practices (Basketball)

Overall responses about parental influence indicated a high degree of influence:
My parents played a heavy role in my successfulness in softball because they were involved, brought me to every practice and made sure I had what I needed (Softball)

Brothers Influence

Responses for the question of how brothers influenced participation in the main sport alluded to companionship support, for example:

Practicing with me (Basketball)

An Israeli participant emphasized her brothers’ validation support as an important influence:

They were proud of their little sister who does things contrary to convention, that their little sister is strong and a leader. The showed off about it. I loved that they were proud of me… it gave me legitimacy to participate in sport that is ‘illegitimate’ for women (Basketball)

Overall responses about brothers’ influence indicated little influence:

I did not care about what he thought or if he came to my games (Soccer)

Their support pushed me more, however I kept playing because I loved my sport (Handball)

However, there were a few cases of high influence:

Extremely! Having someone look up to me and want to be as great as me made me work harder (Basketball)
Sisters Influence

Responses to the question of how sisters influenced participation in main sport revealed that sisters provided emotional support. This support was realized by attending games, cheering and providing motivation. Responses about esteem support provided by participants were:

She would always be encouraging and tell me I could do what I did not think I could do (Soccer)

I always had her to lean on and to believe in me (Basketball)

One American participant reported lack of validation support provided by her sister:

She wanted me to be more feminine and she saw me playing sport as the opposite of that (Soccer)

As opposed to the responses about lack of validation support, two Israeli participants mentioned that their sisters used to back them up although that they engaged in male-dominated sports:

She backed me up in with the parents about the fact that I chose to play basketball (Basketball)

She bragged me even thought I was playing basketball (Basketball)

Evidence about role modeling in the American sample was found when the participants mentioned that their sisters were playing with them on the same team:

We all played soccer… a camaraderie thing (Soccer)
The fact that they all participate influenced my participation if I ever had any doubt (Softball)

Just one Israeli participant reported role modeling when she mentioned that her sister used to play Handball as well. The overall estimation about sisters’ influence by the participants ranged from small:

What she thought did not affect me playing (Soccer)

through medium:

Not much. She was younger so she was doing her own sports (Soccer)

To a high extent:

A lot! We each wanted one another to succeed in our sport (Basketball)

Same-Sex Friends Influence

Prevalent responses to the question of how same-sex friends influenced participation in the main sport indicated social reasons. The answers referred to two main social factors: social pressure:

All my friends were doing it (Softball)

I did it to hang out with my friends (Soccer)

I felt like I would left out if I did not play (Basketball)
And togetherness:

Softball was another reason for us to be together (Softball)

We were like family (Soccer)

It made it more fun because I was with my friends (Soccer)

We were a team (Softball)

These responses were found in both the American and the Israeli samples. Consistent with the findings above, companionship support was also a prevalent response about the influence of same-sex friends. Overall responses about same-sex friends’ influence indicate a high degree of influence:

More than anything. My friends were teammates and like family (Basketball)

There were also few comments of medium extent of influence:

The support from my friends made it exciting to play so they had some influence (Soccer)

Opposite-Sex Friends Influence

The most prevalent response, mostly by the American sample, for the question of how opposite-sex friends encouraged participation implied informational support. Another common response emphasized the validation support. American participants reported:

Considering basketball is viewed as a man’s sport first, it felt good to know that they felt I was good enough to excel in my sports which motivated me to keep participating in it (Basketball)
(They) Would not treat us any different just because we were girls (Soccer)

Israeli participant reported:

It gave us the feeling that they support the team and there is no discrimination because it is girls’ basketball (Basketball)

As opposed to the above responses about validation support, participants from both samples also reported discouragement from lack of validation support:

(They) Told me girls could not play soccer (Soccer)

They thought certain things like basketball were only for boys (Basketball)

Basketball is not a game for girls (Basketball)

In a reaction for the discouragement provided by the opposite-sex peers, some participants reported a strong will to prove them wrong:

(They) discouraged me, made it hard to keep playing, but… I wanted to prove them wrong so I continued (Soccer)

Their discouragement only made me want to be better at the sport I was in (Soccer)

Another prevalent response referred to development of a player, or as the participants called it ‘grew as a player’. American participants reported:

If you practice with guys, you tend to get better. That helped me so much. (Basketball)

More harsh and straight forward, but it helped my competitive nature (Soccer)
Overall responses about opposite-sex friends’ influence by the American participants indicated a relatively equal distribution across levels of influence (small, medium and high). The Israeli participants tended to report a small degree of influence.

Same-Sex Peers Influence

The Americans sample's common response for the question of how same-sex peers encouraged participation suggested emotional support. This support function was expressed by attending games, cheering and congratulating, and words of encouragement and motivating by ‘pep’ talks.

On the other hand, the Israeli sample's common answers were discouraging participation and implied lack of emotional support:

There was no talk about me doing sport (martial art)

They did not think it matters (Basketball)

It was not discouragement as a neutral response or crooked look as the rest of the society did (Basketball)

Some evidence about validation support was reported by an American participant and an Israeli participant:

(They) Thought it was great I was playing soccer (Soccer)

(They) provided me an emotional power to face the society and prove to everyone, as a girl, that I can deal with the boys and break all the conventions that a girl can play soccer (Soccer)
Overall responses about same-sex peers’ influence by the American participants indicated an equal distribution across levels of influence (small, medium and high). The Israeli participants tended to report a small extent of influence.

Opposite-Sex Peers Influence

One common response of the American sample for the question of how opposite-sex peers encouraged participation implied companionship support (e.g., practicing with the girls). Another prevalent response of the American sample alluded to emotional support. This support function was realized by attending games, cheering and words of encouragement. Despite significant differences in validation support by opposite-sex peers, there was evidence from both samples about lack of validation support:

(They) Made it seem like girls could not play soccer (Soccer)

They thought I could not do it because I was a girl (Soccer)

(They) Did not encourage girls to engage in competitive sports. Their responses were frustrating… they called me a tomboy (Basketball)

There were those who bothered me about girls not having to practice martial arts (Martial arts)

Overall, responses about opposite-sex peers’ influence by both samples indicated little influence.
CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the role of socializing agents on dropout and continued participation of adolescent girls in male-dominated sports, with a specific interest in examining functions of social support provided by the socializing agents during early-adolescence. This study examined differences in social support across types of sport (male-dominated, neutral and feminine sports), differences in social support across participation status (dropout and continued participation) during late-adolescence and differences in social support across cultures (American and Israeli).

The current findings revealed that male-dominated sport's American participants received more social support than participants in neutral and feminine sports. The support was manifested especially through companionship and informational support and by parents, brothers, opposite-sex friends and opposite-sex peers. This finding contradicts the first hypothesis which suggested that girls in feminine sports would receive more social support. Interestingly, most of the socializing agents that provided the support were males. It could be that because men tend to be identified with sports that are socially recognized with the masculine-role, they feel more comfortable and more competent in providing social support for participants in male-dominated sports.
As for differences across participation status, parents hold a great influence on girls’ participation status. Findings revealed that social support provided by parents for American girls who continued engaging in male-dominated sports during late-adolescence was higher than for girls who dropped out of same type of sport during the same developmental phase. The support provided by parents was manifested especially through esteem, instrumental and companionship support. This finding is partially supported by studies (Ullrich-French & Smith, 2009; Jõesaar & Hein's, 2011) that found that parental support was associated with motivation to continue participation in male-dominated sports. It should be noted that instrumental support was almost unique for parents and it seems to be a substantial parental factor for continued participation.

Differences in parental support by participation status was found only in the American sample. This suggests that American parents might hold higher perceptions about the importance of sports participation regardless the type of sport (male-dominated or other types). Furthermore, Israeli parental perceptions and values regarding the importance of engagement in sports seem to be lower since no difference was found in the support provided based on girls’ participation status. Also, American parents’ perception about the importance of sport was reflected in differences across cultures: American parents provided more informational, companionship and validation support than Israeli parents. This strengthens the notion that Israeli parents tend to devalue the importance of sports’ participation.

When observing the findings through a cultural lens, it seems that the sports in the US is perceived as more important than in Israel. This conclusion is based especially on
differences in the variety of support functions provided and by the variety of American socializing agents involved.

American girls received more validation support by same-sex friends, same-sex peers and opposite-sex peers. The strength of friendship may play an important role with this finding. That is, girls may feel confident in their friends' friendship and trust that the friendship will continue despite controversies (i.e., controversy about participation in male-dominated sports and presenting masculine attributes during competitions). In contrast, because the strength of friendship with peers is lower than with friends, the importance of support by the peers is higher, and American girls got more social support from their peers.

Also, same-sex peers seem to have a more important influence on American girls who engaged in male-dominated sports than for Israeli girls. The findings for same-sex peers differed in four social support functions: esteem, emotional, companionship and validation. Interactions with same-sex peers occur at school (recess, physical education classes), in neighborhoods and other settings (Weiss & Knopper, 1982; Shakib, 2003). These interactions serve as a space for youngsters to practice physical functions. Creating a safe environment, in terms of esteem and emotional support by same- and opposite-sex peers, could increase young girls’ competence and self-confidence with regards to athletic abilities, and thus stimulate young girls to engage and continue participating in sports. In other words, when the atmosphere is safe, young girls would feel comfortable demonstrating physical abilities in public arenas such as the sports arena. This finding is in line with the open-ended responses in which girls testified that a friendly atmosphere
was one reason that kept them involved in their main sports. A further question to be asked is what factors contribute to the creation of a positive and optimal atmosphere for girls to keep engaging in male-dominated sports.

Participants from both samples emphasized a togetherness component when referring to same-sex friend participation in sports (e.g., "My same-sex friends are the reason why I got into this sport"; "We wanted to be on the same together"). These responses are in line with previous studies (Coakley & White, 1992; Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2008) and with this study’s same-sex friends’ role-modeling finding. Eighty-six percent of the American girls and 84% of the Israeli girls who continued participation in their main sport had friends who also engaged in sport. This emphasizes the importance of the togetherness component. There is a gap in the literature about the role of togetherness as a determinant of sport participation in male-dominated sports. Therefore, further investigation is needed to determine the effect of girls' friends' membership in sports clubs on girls' sport persistence, specifically in male-dominated sports.

To summarize, socializing agents seem to hold an important role in the socialization processes of young girls in male-dominated sport. Their role is manifested by bolstering competence, providing assistance, supplying equipment, giving feedback and information, practicing together and validating participation. However, many responses by both American and Israeli who dropped out and continued, testified that perceptual factors might be more important. That is, the way the girl perceives the advantages and disadvantages of her participation in sports determine her decision about
participation at late-adolescence. The socializing agents’ social support constitutes another layer that strengthen or weakens her initial decision.

Although the important role of socializing agents on participation status in male-dominated sports during late-adolescence was identified in this study, there are limitations associated with this work. First, the measurement tool was designed for the purpose of this study. Despite a revision of the tool following a pilot study, validity and reliability are needed for further investigations of the same topic. Second, the study was conducted with samples (American and Israeli) of people that were engaged in professions that are related to sports and physical activity (i.e., mostly kinesiology and physical education students). This sample represents a population with a tendency to engage in physical activities and sports. This means that the sample may not accurately represent the ratio between girls who dropout and continue in sport. Increasing the sample size with varied populations might better balance the ration between continued and dropped out girls. Another limitation relates to retrospective report and age levels used to classify dropout and continuing participants. Participants may not be completely accurate in reporting participation status. Future direction should include interviews (in-person or focus groups) to receive in-depth and accurate answers.

Despite limitations, the study provided information on the role of social support on young girls in male-dominated sports. Finding suggest that social support was greater for girls who engaged in male-dominated sports than girls in neutral and feminine types of sport; social support was greater for girls who continued than for those who dropped out; and social support was greater for American girls than Israeli girls.
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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ADOLESCENT SPORT EXPERIENCES

Thank you for helping us by completing this questionnaire about your sport experiences in during childhood and adolescence. Completing the questionnaires will take about 15 minutes. You are not required to participate, and you may withdraw at any time. All information is confidential, and you will not put your name or any identifying information on any questionnaires. Please be as honest and accurate as you can in your responses.

Part I: Background Information

Demographics:
1) Age: ___________
3) Year in school: ______________
2) Gender: _________
4) Race/ Ethnicity: ______________
5) Do you currently participate in any organized sports? YES / NO
   a. If YES, list the sports that you participate in

6) Do you currently participate in any other physical activities? YES / NO
   a. If YES, list the physical activities that you participate in

Childhood/Adolescent Sport Participation:
7) Did you participate in any organized sport during childhood (age 5-10 years)? YES / NO
   a. If YES, list the sports that you participated in

8) Did you participate in any organized sport during early-adolescence (age 11-14 years)? YES / NO
   a. If YES, list the sports that you participated in

9) Did you participate in any organized sport during late-adolescence (age 15-18 years)? YES / NO
   a. If YES, list the sports that you participated in

Part II: Influence of Others on Early-Adolescent Sport Participation

For this part please refer to your early-adolescent years (age 11-14).

10) First, what sport do you consider your main sport during early-adolescence (age 11-14)? ____________________________

The questions in Part II ask about the influence of significant others (parents, siblings, close friends and other adolescent peers) on your participation in your main sport.
For questions with rating scales, circle the number that most accurately represents your experience using the 1-5 rating scale with 1= Not at All and 5= Very Much.
For the open-ended questions write in your answers.
**Parental/Guardian Influence:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Not at All</th>
<th>Not Much</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
<th>Much</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To what extent did your parents/guardians encourage your participation in your main sport?</td>
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<td>To what extent did your parents/guardians <em>make you feel competent</em> in your main sport?</td>
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<td>To what extent did your parents/guardians <em>give you advice</em> on your main sport?</td>
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<td>To what extent did your parents/guardians <em>provide you tangible support</em> (equipment, transportation, money) in your main sport?</td>
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<td>To what extent did your parents/guardians <em>participate or practice</em> your main sport with you?</td>
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<td>To what extent did your parents/guardian <em>consider</em> your main sport appropriate for girls?</td>
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11) Did your parents/guardians participate in sports during *your* early-adolescence? *YES / NO*

12) Did your parents/guardians encourage your participation in your main sport? *YES / NO*
   a. If YES, how did they encourage your participation?
      __________________________________________________________
      __________________________________________________________
      __________________________________________________________

   b. If NO, did your parents/guardians discourage your participation in your main sport? *YES / NO*
   c. If YES, how did they discourage your participation?
      __________________________________________________________
      __________________________________________________________
      __________________________________________________________

13) In general, how much did the support provided by your parents/guardians influence your participation in your main sport?
    __________________________________________________________
    __________________________________________________________
    __________________________________________________________
14) **Brother(s) Influence:** Do you have brother(s)?  
**YES / NO**  
*If NO, skip this section*

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<td>To what extent did your brother(s) encourage your participation in your main sport?</td>
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15) Did your brother(s) participate in sports during your early-adolescence?  
**YES / NO**

16) Did your brother(s) encourage your participation in your main sport?  
**YES / NO**

   a. If YES, how did they encourage your participation?

   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________

   b. If NO, did your brother(s) discourage your participation in your main sport?  
   **YES / NO**

   c. If YES, how did they discourage your participation?

   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________

17) In general, how much did the support provided by your brother(s) influence your participation in your main sport?

   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
   ________________________________________________________________
18) **Sister(s) Influence:** Do you have sister(s)?  **YES / NO**  *(If NO, skip this section)*

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19) Did your sister(s) participate in sports during your early-adolescence?  **YES / NO**

20) Did your sister(s) encourage your participation in your main sport?  **YES / NO**
   a. If YES, how did they encourage your participation?
      ____________________________________________________________
      ____________________________________________________________

   b. If NO, did your sister(s) discourage your participation in your main sport?  **YES / NO**
   c. If YES, how did they discourage your participation?
      ____________________________________________________________
      ____________________________________________________________

21) In general, how much did the support provided by your sister(s) influence your participation in your main sport?
    ____________________________________________________________
    ____________________________________________________________
Same-Sex Close Friends Influence:

22) Think about your same-sex close friends during your *early-adolescence* (age 11-14) to answer these questions.

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<tr>
<td>To what extent did your same-sex close friends <em>consider</em> your main sport appropriate for girls?</td>
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</table>

23) Did your same-sex close friends participate in sports during your *early-adolescence*? *YES / NO*

24) Did your same-sex close friends encourage your participation in your main sport? *YES / NO*
   a. If YES, how did they encourage your participation?
      ____________________________________________________________
   b. If NO, did your same-sex close friends discourage your participation in your main sport? *YES / NO*
   c. If YES, how did they discourage your participation?
      ____________________________________________________________

25) In general, how much did the support provided by your same-sex close friends influence your participation in your main sport?
    ____________________________________________________________
Opposite-Sex Close Friends Influence:

26) Think about your opposite-sex close friends during your early-adolescence (age 11-14) to answer these questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Not at All</th>
<th>Not Much</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
<th>Much</th>
<th>Very Much</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To what extent did your opposite-sex close friends encourage your participation in your main sport?</td>
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<tr>
<td>To what extent did your opposite-sex close friends make you feel competent in your main sport?</td>
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<tr>
<td>To what extent did your opposite-sex close friends give you advice on your main sport?</td>
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<tr>
<td>To what extent did your opposite-sex close friends provide you tangible support (equipment, transportation, money) in your main sport?</td>
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<tr>
<td>To what extent did your opposite-sex close friends participate or practice your main sport with you?</td>
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<tr>
<td>To what extent did your opposite-sex close friends consider your main sport appropriate for girls?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

27) Did your opposite-sex close friends participate in sports during your early-adolescence? YES / NO

28) Did your opposite-sex close friends encourage your participation in your main sport? YES / NO

   a. If YES, how did they encourage your participation?
      ______________________________________

   b. If NO, did your opposite-sex close friends discourage your participation in your main sport? YES / NO

   c. If YES, how did they discourage your participation?
      ______________________________________

29) In general, how much did the support provided by your opposite-sex close friends influence your participation in your main sport?
    ______________________________________
**Same-Sex Other Adolescent Peers Influence:**

30) Think about other adolescent peers such as other students, neighbors, etc. (other than your close friends) during your early-adolescence (age 11-14) to answer these questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Not at All</th>
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<tr>
<td>To what extent did your same-sex other adolescent peers encourage your participation in your main sport?</td>
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31) Did your same-sex other adolescent peers participate in sports during your early-adolescence? **YES** / **NO**

32) Did your same-sex other adolescent peers encourage your participation in your main sport? **YES** / **NO**
   a. If YES, how did they encourage your participation?
      ____________________________________________________________
   b. If NO, did your same-sex other adolescent peers discourage your participation in your main sport? **YES** / **NO**
   c. If YES, how did they discourage your participation?
      ____________________________________________________________

33) In general, how much did the support provided by your same-sex other adolescent peers influence your participation in your main sport?

__________________________________________________________________________
Opposite-Sex Other Adolescent Peers Influence:
34) Think about other adolescent peers such as other students, neighbors, etc. (other than your close friends) during your early adolescence (age 11-14) to answer these questions.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Question</th>
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35) Did your opposite-sex other adolescent peers participate in sports during your early adolescence? YES / NO

36) Did your opposite-sex other adolescent peers encourage your participation in your main sport? YES / NO
   a. If YES, how did they encourage your participation?
      ____________________________________________________________
   b. If NO, did your opposite-sex other adolescent peers discourage your participation in your main sport? YES / NO
   c. If YES, how did they discourage your participation?
      ____________________________________________________________

37) In general, how much did the support provided by your opposite-sex other adolescent peers influence your participation in your main sport?
    ____________________________________________________________
Part III: Continuing Sport Participation after Early-Adolescence

The following questions ask about your continuing participation in your main sport.

38) Did you keep participating in your main sport during late-adolescence (15-18 ages)? YES/NO

   a. If YES, why did you keep participating in your main sport in late-adolescence (age 15-18)?
      ______________________________________________________________
      ______________________________________________________________
      ______________________________________________________________
      ______________________________________________________________
      ______________________________________________________________

   b. If NO, why did you stop participating in your main sport in late-adolescence?
      ______________________________________________________________
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      ______________________________________________________________
      ______________________________________________________________
      ______________________________________________________________

Part IV: Additional Comments about Adolescent Sport Participation

39) Please add any additional comments about your reasons for continuing or not continuing to participate after early-adolescence (age 11-14).

      ______________________________________________________________
      ______________________________________________________________
      ______________________________________________________________
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APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRE ON ADOLESCENT SPORT EXPERIENCES-
HEBREW VERSION

shallote בגרות חוויות הספורט עקרון בקופסה ייל להבגרות המוקדمة

1. מה לעמירה בצילוב של צלון חורות הספורט עקרון בקופס של ייל להבגרות המוקדمة. מילוי השאלון ייך ב-

2.قيلון אינני מתכון צלון הספורט עקרון בקופס של ייל להבגרות המוקדمة. מילוי השאלון ייך ב-

3. מה לעמירה בצילוב של צלון חורות הספורט עקרון בקופס של ייל להבגרות המוקדمة. מילוי השאלון ייך ב-

4. מה לעמירה בצילוב של צלון חורות הספורט עקרון בקופס של ייל להבגרות המוקדمة. מילוי השאלון ייך ב-

5. מה לעמירה בצילוב של צלון חורות הספורט עקרון בקופס של ייל להבגרות המוקדمة. מילוי השאלון ייך ב-

6. מה לעמירה בצילוב של צלון חורות הספורט עקרון בקופס של ייל להבגרות המוקדمة. מילוי השאלון ייך ב-

7. מה לעמירה בצילוב של צלון חורות הספורט עקרון בקופס של ייל להבגרות המוקדمة. מילוי השאלון ייך ב-

8. מה לעמירה בצילוב של צלון חורות הספורט עקרון בקופס של ייל להבגרות המוקדمة. מילוי השאלון ייך ב-

9. מה לעמירה בצילוב של צלון חורות הספורט עקרון בקופס של ייל להבגרות המוקדمة. מילוי השאלון ייך ב-

10. מה לעמירה בצילוב של צלון חורות הספורט עקרון בקופס של ייל להבגרות המוקדمة. מילוי השאלון ייך ב-
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(11) באיזו מידה ההורים/האפוטרופוס שלך עודדו את השכירות регистраות בתקופת התפתחות המורכזים שלך? 
(12) באיזו מידה ההורים/האפוטרופוס שלך עודדו את השכירות регистраות בתקופת התפתחות המורכזים שלך?

א. Cooke, צוותי בולאי, שולחן

ב. Cooke, צוותי בולאי, שולחן

ג. Cooke, צוותי בולאי, שולחן

(13) באיזו מידה, על מהستانדארד ספורטת את יד ההורים/האפוטרופוס שלך השפעה על השכירות регистраות בתקופת התפתחות:

הспектטר המרוכזים שלך?
<table>
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<th>山村 מוסיפה שולחן נייל לשולחן מולגו עם?</th>
<th>山村 מוסיפה שולחן נייל לשולחן עם עץ אם?</th>
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<td>山村 מוסיפה שולחן נייל לשולחן עם עץ אם?</td>
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шимשאת אורות:
(18) האם יש לך אחות/ות? ropa (אם לא, אנא דלג על חלק זה)

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(19) האם האחיות שלך בוחנות את השתיות בין נשים 중국יות שלך? ropa
(20) האם האחיות שלך גורשות על נשים מ Married? ropa
(21) האם/elmas, אתה/ה בוחן את השתיות בין נשים 중국יות שלך? ropa
(22) אם כן, בעבור קולו בין נשים 중국יות שלך? ropa
(23) האם/elmas, אתה/ה נסיעות בין נשים 중국יות שלך? ropa
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(25) האם/elmas, אתה/ה מחויב ואת השתיות בין נשים 중국יות שלך? ropa
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95
داول השפעת קרובי משפחה:

(22) השבש על bevホット קרובות שליה על בתוקפת החלבון המוקדמת (ג"ד 11-14)ODY לעת טוק ואלה והו.

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(23) האם משפחת כלים הת攻关 מתוקפתי קרובות על בתוקפתי החלבון המוקדמת (ג"ד 11-14)ODY לעת טוק ואלה והו.

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(25) אם איןלקליו מ temperatura קרובות נמצאת שיש להלצה?CPF מסיור עמדה בתוקפתי בכף התשובות שלך?
### השפעת חברים

שלבי על חבר קרובים שבויי להתחפש הת überhוצו המוקדמת (גילי 11-14)-bg חמישה על חלב הז.

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### (26)

אם חבריך הקרובים עודדו את השתחפשת בצעה, האם חבריך הקרובים עודדו לך להשתתף בנטש?  
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### (27)

אם חבריך הקרובים עודדו את השתחפשת בנטש, האם חבריך הקרובים עודדו לך להשתתף בנטש?  
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### (28)

אם חבריך הקרובים עודדו את השתחפשת בנטש, האם חבריך הקרובים עודדו לך להשתתף בנטש?  
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### (29)

אם חבריך הקרובים עודדו את השתחפשת בנטש, האם חבריך הקרובים עודדו לך להשתתף בנטש?  
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השפעת מופרים בבר של אורות הנגרל: 34

(השיבע על מופרים (חברייהו, כשניים, סגן וכ等等)kiye ולבחות ההיברגות המחקמות (גלל-14)כי

להנות על חלון זה.

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(35) האם מופרים ועדדי את השותפים בשעף המפורים? על פל.

(36) האם מופרים עדדי את השותפים בשעף המפורים? על פל.

(37) באומן כללי, האם התרומדה vouchers על ידי מופרים וה써עף לא השותפים בשעף המפורים?
חלק III: הנשיאד וה современнיות בسفرות אחרי תקופת鸨תנוריה והמדוקדמן
השאלות הבאות עוסקות במשהו הנשיאד בسفرות אחר המדריך שלך.

38. הנה המظاهرة לנהנותך בسفرות אחר המדריך שלך בתקופת鸨תנוריה המאוחרת (גיל 18-15)? כן / לא

א. אם כן, מדוע המظاهرة לנהנותך בسفرות אחר המדריך שלך בתקופת鸨תנוריה המאוחרת?

ב. אם לא, מדוע לא המظاهرة לנהנותך בسفرות אחר המדריך שלך בתקופת鸨תנוריה המאוחרת?

חלק IV: העדות esposות בכרוש וויתר והנשים בسفرות בבלית鸨תנוריה

39. הנה העדות esposות בכרוש וויתר והנשים בسفرות בבלית鸨תנוריה/products במרכי אלו והמדוקדמן

המדוקדמן בברית (גיל 14-11).
APPENDIX C
PILOT STUDY

Results

The purpose of the study was to examine the role of socializing agents (i.e., parents, siblings, peers, other significant others, friends, peers) on both drop out and continuing of participation in youth sport. Specifically, the study focused on changes in participation status over childhood, early-adolescence and late-adolescence and the role of socializing agents over those developmental years. To address this purpose, males and females undergraduate students completed a survey on their sport participation and the role of socializing agents in their past experience in sport.

All measures were gathered into a survey that was developed specifically for the purpose of the study and included both close- and open-ended questions.

Forty-seven undergraduate students from a university in North Carolina completed the full survey. Actual sample includes 16 males (34%) and 31 females (66%). The average age was 22.11.

Among types of sports that participants related their answers about, Basketball found to be the most frequent organized sport that participants played during early adolescence (n=13, 29.5%); Soccer and Softball were the second in frequency with 6 participants (12.8%) for each.

Forty-one percent of the female participants (n=12) were involved in male-dominated sports during early adolescence. While 69% (n=20) of the female participants
kept participating during late-adolescence, only 40% (n=8) of them stayed in male-dominated sports.

Common reasons for continuing participation is sports during late-adolescence were enjoyment ("It was fun"), love and passion ("I loved playing the game and felt passionate about it"), socializing opportunity ("It was how I made friends"), fitness ("Did it for fitness") and the perception that they were good at sport ("I was doing really well"). Common reasons for dropout of sport during late-adolescence revealed that participants prioritized other activities:

I did not have time to do it along with other activities

A remarkable reason provided by basketball female player:

I did not have a good support system. I was constantly yelled at by my coach and no one ever come to my games

Influence by Support

There was a significant difference in parental/guardian’s support F(1,44)=6.74, p<0.05, with those who kept participating in sports during late-adolescence (M=4.48) scoring higher than those who dropped out of sports during the same developmental year (M=3.53). Parental positive support was manifested in shape of verbal motivation (i.e., cheering, praising, rewarding), provision of equipment, provision of transportation to practices, teaching/practicing skills together and attendance to games/competitions. Participants’ responses brought to light same topics however, emphasis on attendance has been seen among females. Parental negative support was manifested by verbal efforts to
convince participants to focus on school and education in addition to responses about concerns of injuries.

There was a significant difference in sister’s support $F(1,23)=7.63$, $p<0.05$, with those who kept participating in sports during late-adolescence ($M=4.26$) scoring higher than those who dropped out of sports during the same period ($M=2.87$). The influence was mainly manifested in shape of attendance to games/competitions and verbal motivation.

Males and females reported similar responses about same-sex friend's support however, it should be noted that females referred to a togetherness aspect:

We joined a team together
We all decided to try volleyball out
We did most of all sports together

There was no evidence of same-sex friend's negative support by male participants, however few evidences were reported by females. Participants reported about jealousy within the team and about interference to friendship, but none of them dropped out of sport during late-adolescence.

There was a significant difference in opposite-sex friend’s support $F(1,44)=6.40$, $p<0.05$, with those who kept participating in sports during late-adolescence ($M=4.09$) scoring higher than those who dropped out of sports during the same period ($M=3.23$). Responses about opposite-sex friend's negative support were common among female basketball players, and one reported:
They assumed I couldn't keep up with the boys or wasn't as good

However, this participant kept playing basketball during her late-adolescence. No responses on negative support were observes among the males in the sample.

There was a significant difference in same-sex peer’s support $F(1,44)=11.49$, $p<0.01$, with those who kept participating in sports during late-adolescence ($M=4.29$) scoring higher than those who dropped out of sports during the same period ($M=3.38$). A female basketball player reported on negative support in shape of teasing:

They would call me a lesbian because how I looked on the court

There was a significant difference in opposite-sex peer’s support $F(1,44)=7.75$, $p<0.01$, with those who kept participating in sports during late-adolescence ($M=4.12$) scoring higher than those who dropped out of sports during the same period ($M=3.15$). Positive support by opposite-sex peer appeared in shape of verbal motivation (i.e., cheering, praising). In addition, female reported of contemptuous behavior as encouragement:

They love to talk about how girls were weaker when in reality they were amazed by our ability

**Influence by Role Modeling**

Males and females reported on brother's role modeling in shape of practicing/playing sports together. Few of the female participants indicated that their
sister used to practice with them and that they played in the same team (in the same
day or in different periods).

Same-sex friend's influence by role modeling was manifested in shape of
practicing/playing sport together. Less common but remarkable responses ascribe to the
fact that same-sex friends were those who got the participants to try new sports:

They got me to try new things
My best friend was the one who talked me into cheering

A significant difference was revealed in opposite-sex friend participation in sport
$F(1,44)=4.88$, $p<0.05$, with those who kept participating during late-adolescence
(M=4.03) scoring higher than those who dropped out during the same period (M=3.07).
A significant difference was revealed in same-sex peer participation in sport
$F(1,44)=9.39$, $p<0.01$, with those who kept participating during late-adolescence
(M=4.09) scoring higher than those who dropped out during the same period (M=3.15).
This influence appeared in shape of practicing/playing sport together.

Influence by Perception

Significant differences were found within the family context. Parent’s/guardian’s
perceived sport as appropriate for boys $F(1,27)=13.08$, $p<0.01$, with females who
participated in male-dominated sports (M=4.33) scoring higher than females who
participated in non-male-dominated sports (M=2.76). There was a significant difference
in brother’s perception of sport as appropriate for boys $F(1,18)=19.86$, $p<0.01$, with
females who participated in male-dominated sports (M=4.75) scoring higher than females who participated in non-male-dominated sports (M=2.58). Also significant difference in sister’s perception was found. Sisters perceived sport as appropriate for boys F(1,13)=9.5, p<0.01, with females who participated in male-dominated sports (M=5.00) scoring higher than females who participated in non-male-dominated sports (M=3.22).

There was a significant difference in same-sex friend’s perception of sport as appropriate for boys F(1,27)=22.18, p<0.01, with females who participated in male-dominated sports (M=4.75) scoring higher than females who participated in non-male-dominated sports (M=2.7). In addition, opposite-sex friend’s perceived sport as appropriate for boys F(1,27)=10.71, p<0.01, with females who participated in male-dominated sports (M=4.5) scoring significantly higher than females who participated in non-male-dominated sports (M=2.64). Responses about opposite-sex friend's perception were common among female basketball players:

They think that some sports are just meant for males…I should stick to track or cheerleading even though I was good at basketball

They would tell me I looked like a boy

The first participant kept participating in sport during late-adolescence, however in dance. The second participant dropped out of sports during late adolescence because not getting enough social support.

Significant difference in same-sex peer’s perception was found. Same-sex peers perceived sport as appropriate for boys F(1,27)=7.11, p<0.05, with females who participated in male-dominated sports (M=4.16) scoring higher than females who...
participated in non-male-dominated sports (M=2.82). There was a significant difference in opposite-sex peer’s perception of sport as appropriate for boys $F(1,27)=14.77$, $p<0.01$, with females who participated in male-dominated sports (M=4.33) scoring higher than females who participated in non-male-dominated sports (M=2.64). Female softball player reported about perception of opposite-sex peer when she mentioned that her counterparts expressed the incompatibility of females to sports:

Some said girls aren't good at sports (if they hadn't seen us play)

**Discussion**

The purpose of the study was to explore what is the role of socializing agents on dropping out and on continuing participation in adolescents’ players, with a specific interest in female players in male-dominated sports. Social support and role modeling assessed influence of socializing agents. It was expected that positive support by socializing agents during early-adolescence would result to continuing in participation in late-adolescence; and that negative support by socializing agents during the same period, would cause dropping out of sport. It was also assumed that influence in shape of role modeling, by socializing agent’s participation in sport, would affect the participation on adolescence in sports. As for gender issues, it was expected that girls who participated in male-dominated sports would get less support by socializing agents than girls who participated in non-male-dominated sports.

Positive support by socializing agents found to have an influence on sport participation during late adolescence. It is possible that getting social support in shape of
verbal motivation and attendance to games and competition are determinants that keep participation in sport during late-adolescence. This type of support found to be significant when manifested by parents/guardians, sisters, peers and opposite-sex friends.

No significant influence by same-sex friend's support was found between those who continued playing sport and those who dropped out of sport. However, approval by opposite-sex friend and peer was found to be significant for participation in sport during late-adolescence. Considering these findings, it could be possible that adolescents trust friendship enough that they feel free to go beyond conventions.

Female participants emphasized a togetherness component when referring to same-sex friend positive support. According to the responses, female reported that they and their best friend were members in the same team; one female even reported that her best friend switched school because she did. There is a gap on the literature about the role of the togetherness component as a determinant on sport participation. In other words, is the membership of young girl's best friend in sport club, could play a role in the young girl sport's persistence.

Female participants also emphasized parental attendance to games/competitions. This finding suggests that parental recognition of sport's participation has an important role in keeping young girls in sports. Parental recognition might also reduce the extent of the female-athlete paradox and as a result increase the likelihood of persistence in sport. Recognition as a mean of support also found within the friends and peers' context; and one male participant summarized it "Just by acknowledging the sport and listening to my experience".
In contrast to parental/guardian's positive support, negative support found to be manifested by encouragements to focus on education. This finding partially confirm Slater and Tiggemann (2010) suggestion about re-channeling to competing activities. However, in this case, parents were those who interested in their child to prioritize other commitments over sport participation. In general, it might be that due to small sample there is lack of evidences about negative support by socializing agent; therefore, more evidences are needed to investigate the relationship between socializing agents' negative support and dropping out of sports.

Physically active behavior (i.e., role modeling) by socializing agents during early-adolescence influenced the tendency to persist in sport during late-adolescence. Significant difference was found between participants who kept engaging in sport during late-adolescence and those who dropped out during the same developmental years. Findings suggested that physically active opposite-sex friends and same-sex peers have a great influence on one's involvement in sport. It is possible that role model peers’ environment gives legitimacy for sport participation among adolescence. Since significant findings were found in the same-sex peer context and not in the same-sex friend contexts, studying in depth the role of peers could shed more light on understanding determinants of young girl's participation in male-dominated sports.

No evidences were provided about sedentary behavior of socializing agents as a discouragement of sport participation. Therefore, the researcher could not confirm the hypothesis that non-physically active behavior by socializing agents during early-adolescence influenced the tendency to dropout of sport during late-adolescence.
Socializing agents' influence found to be related to athlete's gender and to type of sport. The sample's participant reported that all types of agents (i.e., parents, brothers, sisters, other significant, friends and peers) perceived male-dominated sports as more appropriate for boys. This finding was significant between female who engaged in male-dominated sports and female who engaged in non-male-dominated sports. Friends' responses strengthen the stereotype about gender-role ("They considered it to be a male sport because we played aggressive"); and some the responses were determinants for girls to dropout of male-dominated sport ("I have been told I should stick to track or cheerleading even though I was good at basketball"). These evidences are in line with the social gender stereotype about incompatibility of female in male-dominated sports (Desertain& Weiss, 1988; Miller & Levy, 1996; Green, 2010). Conform to social conceptions might hold a massive reason of girls dropping out of male-dominated sports. An in-depth research about significant other's stereotypical perception on gender-role is needed in order to understand to what extent it determines to sports' dropout.
**APPENDIX D**

**SCORES OF SUPPORT FUNCTIONS ACROSS TYPES OF SPORT**

Scores of support functions (US sample- All sports)

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Male-dominated sports’ scores of support functions (US sample)

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Neutral sports’ scores of support functions (US sample)

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Feminine sports’ scores of support functions (US sample)

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Scores of support functions (IL sample-All sports)

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Male-dominated sports’ scores of support functions (IL sample)

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Neutral sports’ scores of support functions (IL sample)

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Feminine sports’ scores of support functions (IL sample)

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### APPENDIX E

**SCORES OF SUPPORT FUNCTIONS ACROSS PARTICIPATION STATUS**

Scores of support functions- continued participation (US sample)

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<td>4</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>3.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scores of support functions- dropped out (US sample)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Support Function</th>
<th>Parents (n=12)</th>
<th>Brothers (n=4)</th>
<th>Sisters (n=6)</th>
<th>Same-Sex Friends (n=12)</th>
<th>Opposite-Sex Friends (n=11)</th>
<th>Same-Sex Peers (n=11)</th>
<th>Opposite-Sex Peers (n=11)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>2.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esteem</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>2.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informational</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tangible</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>1.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Companionship</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Validation</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>3.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scores of support functions- continued participation (IL sample)

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Support Function</th>
<th>Parents (n=19)</th>
<th>Brothers (n=17)</th>
<th>Sisters (n=13)</th>
<th>Same-Sex Friends (n=19)</th>
<th>Opposite-Sex Friends (n=19)</th>
<th>Same-Sex Peers (n=19)</th>
<th>Opposite-Sex Peers (n=19)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>2.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esteem</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>2.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informational</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>2.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tangible</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>1.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Companionship</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>2.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Validation</td>
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<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>3.74</td>
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<td>2.47</td>
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</table>
Scores of support functions- dropped out (IL sample)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Support Function</th>
<th>Parents (n=3)</th>
<th>Brothers (n=2)</th>
<th>Sisters (n=3)</th>
<th>Same-Sex Friends (n=3)</th>
<th>Opposite-Sex Friends (n=3)</th>
<th>Same-Sex Peers (n=3)</th>
<th>Opposite-Sex Peers (n=3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esteem</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informational</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tangible</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Companionship</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Validation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX F
COUNTS OF ROLE-MODELING AND PARTICIPATION STATUS

Role modeling counts*participation status during late-adolescence (US sample)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role-mod.</th>
<th>Parents</th>
<th>Brothers</th>
<th>Sisters</th>
<th>Same-Sex Friends</th>
<th>Opposite-Sex Friends</th>
<th>Same-Sex Peers</th>
<th>Opposite-Sex Peers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Role-m.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Par.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continue</td>
<td>21 (39.6%)</td>
<td>32 (60.4%)</td>
<td>26 (89.7%)</td>
<td>3 (10.3%)</td>
<td>23 (67.6%)</td>
<td>11 (32.4%)</td>
<td>45 (86.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dropout</td>
<td>2 (16.7%)</td>
<td>10 (83.3%)</td>
<td>3 (75%)</td>
<td>1 (25%)</td>
<td>3 (50%)</td>
<td>3 (50%)</td>
<td>10 (83.3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(continued on next page)
Role modeling counts*participation status during late-adolescence (Israeli sample)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role-mod. Par.</th>
<th>Parents</th>
<th>Brothers</th>
<th>Sisters</th>
<th>Same-Sex Friends</th>
<th>Opposite-Sex Friends</th>
<th>Same-Sex Peers</th>
<th>Opposite-Sex Peers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Continue</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(42.1%)</td>
<td>(57.9%)</td>
<td>(75%)</td>
<td>(25%)</td>
<td>(53.8%)</td>
<td>(46.2%)</td>
<td>(84.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dropout</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(33.3%)</td>
<td>(66.7%)</td>
<td>(100%)</td>
<td>(0%)</td>
<td>(66.7%)</td>
<td>(33.3%)</td>
<td>(33.3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>