

PARTICIPATION IN SPORT AND RECREATION BY CULTURALLY AND LINGUISTICALLY DIVERSE WOMEN

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Abbreviations

| | |
|---------|--|
| ABS | Australian Bureau of Statistics |
| ASC | Australian Sports Commission |
| CALD | Culturally and Linguistically Diverse |
| CCEH | Centre for Culture Ethnicity and Health |
| CICMA | Commonwealth Interdepartmental Committee on Multicultural Affairs |
| ERASS | Exercise, Recreation and Sport Survey |
| FACSLIA | Australian Government Department of Families and Community Services and Indigenous Affairs |
| NESB | Non-English Speaking Background |
| NSIC | National Sport Information Centre |
| SCORS | Standing Committee on Recreation and Sport |
| SRG | SCORS Research Group |
| SPRC | Social Policy Research Centre |

Executive Summary

In June 2006, the Australian Government Office for Women, Department of Families and Community Services and Indigenous Affairs (FaCSIA) engaged the Social Policy Research Centre (SPRC) at the University of New South Wales to research how culturally and linguistically diverse (CALD) women participate in sport and recreation, and the factors that may limit their full involvement in this area of Australian social and cultural life. The project is designed to inform the development of policies and programs to effectively support the inclusion of CALD women in sport and recreation activities.

To this end, the report firstly outlines available statistical data pertaining to CALD women's participation in Australia (see Section 3). This shows that a lower proportion of women born in countries other than Australia or the main English speaking countries participated in organised sport than others (ABS, 2005). However, when unorganised sport is included, participation rates increase (ABS, 2003). The data also shows that women from North Africa and the Middle East were significantly less likely to participate in sport or physical activity than their male counterparts, and less likely to be involved than women born elsewhere. Those not proficient in English were also less likely to participate than others and their male counterparts.

Secondly, the data outlines Australian and international research about the factors that facilitate and constrain CALD women's participation in different cultural and socio-geographic contexts (see Section 4). This highlights socio-cultural constraints (referring to racial and cultural based constraints and discomfort in certain social settings); access constraints (eg lack of recreation provision, information, skills and transport); affective constraints (ie lack of appeal and meaningfulness of certain activities); physiological constraints (ie physical problems and age); resources constraints (eg time and money); and interpersonal constraints (eg nobody to participate with).

Thirdly, the report outlines existing policies and programs designed to promote the inclusion of CALD women in sport and recreation (see Section 5). While few programs or policies have been rigorously evaluated, approaches have focused on providing information and promoting activities, developing sport and recreations organisations, establishing peer support and peer education initiatives, establishing activities, training and competitions for CALD women, and, at a higher level, setting standards and establishing strategic frameworks.

The report highlights a number of gaps in the evidence-base pertaining to CALD women in sport and recreation. Information currently collected about the participation of CALD women is insufficient to answer important policy questions about the preferences of, and barriers faced by particular cultural groups in different contexts. As limited information can hamper the development of effective interventions, the quality of data has implications for policy makers, program funders, sporting administrators, and importantly, for CALD women.

A further insight of the report is that interventions aimed at supporting CALD women's participation in sport and recreation tend to be small and short-term, and few have been evaluated. The lack of evaluation makes it difficult to determine what constitutes best practice in reducing barriers and supporting the participation of different CALD groups.

The insights contained in this report will be explored further in a subsequent stage of research, which will involve consultations with key stakeholders, such as peak cultural and women's organisations and sporting groups. These consultations will help to identify stakeholders' perceptions about CALD women's participation in sport and recreation activities and organisations, and to identify the approaches currently being undertaken (if any) addressing CALD women's inclusion. In turn, findings from the consultations will inform a further stage of research, in which the Social Policy Research Centre will conduct focus groups with CALD women in metropolitan and regional Australia in early 2007. Focus groups will include women who participate and those who do not participate in sport and recreation activities, to identify both the barriers to CALD women's participation, and to inform policies and programs that might help CALD women negotiate and overcome these barriers to participate more equally in sport and recreation.

1 Introduction

Sport and recreation are key leisure activities in Australia and integral components of national culture and social life. In 2002, 62.4 per cent of Australian adults reported participating in sport and physical activities in the last year (including both organised and non-organised activities). Half of this group (31.4 per cent of all adults) participated in sport or physical activities that were organised by a club, association or other organisation (although participation rates were higher for males, younger adults and those living in capital cities; ABS, 2003). Sport and recreation are a significant area of economic, social and community participation. In June 2001 there were 87 447 paid employees working in the sport and physical recreation industries, with more than double this number (178 837) involved as volunteers (ABS, 2002a).

Playing sport and participating in physical recreation offers important opportunities to enhance health and wellbeing. As well as promoting well-documented health benefits (such as reduced risk of cardiovascular disease), participation can offer a social and political space in which to cultivate cultural diversity and promote social inclusion. Appendix A contains a summary list of the personal, socio-cultural and economic benefits of sport and recreation. These benefits mean that enabling equal participation and dismantling any barriers that exist for different groups is important not only for individual wellbeing, but also for social cohesion and national economic performance.

Although sport is sometimes perceived as a 'level playing field', it is not unlike other spheres of social and economic life, in that factors such as gender and ethnicity have played, and continue to play, key roles in shaping individual choices, interpersonal interactions, and institutional policies and practices. As Taylor and Doherty (2005: 211) note:

individuals...from ethnic minorities...contend with barriers that restrict access to education, social, cultural, and economic opportunities...which in turn limit full participation in society.

Gender, ethnicity, and the intersections between these factors shape patterns of participation in sport and recreation, as they do in wider society. In her exploration of the experiences of CALD women in netball, Taylor (2004) points out the importance of intersections of ethnicity and gender:

migration affects women and men differently, depending on the social, political and cultural context of the migration decision, as well as the settlement experience. Gender relations are maintained, negotiated, and reconfigured in light of the host country's social and cultural contexts. Gendered processes are further evident in the way in which migrants interact with social institutions in the settlement country. Sport is one of these institutions. (Taylor, 2004: 454)

Women's lower levels of participation in sport and recreation are unsurprising, given that as a group, women perform a greater proportion of care and domestic responsibilities over the life-course, and so have lower levels of financial independence than men and less leisure time (Bittman and Wajcman, 2000). Indeed, women with children are less likely to participate in active leisure than those without (Miller and Brown, 2005), reflecting the impact of care on leisure time.

Research about women in sport has been criticised for developing relatively slowly, and for its overwhelming focus on those born in Australia or Britain (Taylor and Toohey, 1997). Indeed, researchers have recently identified tendencies for gender and ethnicity to be analysed separately, leaving gaps in knowledge about the nexus between gender and ethnicity in sport and recreation (Taylor, 2004). This report aims to inform debate about this nexus by focusing on a group of Australian women who are under-represented in sport and recreation: CALD women.

1.1 Key research questions

The key questions addressed in this report are:

- What data is available about CALD women's involvement in sport and recreation and what are the strengths and limitations of these data collections? What do these data tell us about how CALD women participate in sport and recreation in Australia and what are the gaps? These issues are addressed in Section 3.
- What factors have been found to constrain and facilitate CALD women's involvement in sport and recreation? These issues are addressed in Section 4.
- What programs and policy strategies have been adopted to support CALD women's involvement in sport and recreation, and what are their strengths and limitations? These issues are addressed in Section 5.

The material contained in this report will inform the research questions to be explored in subsequent stages of the project. This will involve consultation with relevant stakeholders such as peak sporting, women's and multicultural organisations, and focus groups with CALD women about their experiences of sport and recreation and the factors they believe inhibit and support their participation in different social and cultural contexts.

1.2 Definitions

Sport and recreation

The report uses the Australian Sports Commission's definition of sport. That is, sport is considered to be:

a human activity capable of achieving a result requiring physical exertion and/or physical skill which, by its nature and organisation, is competitive and is generally accepted as being a sport (ASC website, <http://www.ausport.gov.au/nso/recognition.asp>).

While recreation activities are not so clearly defined, the report is concerned with only those physical recreation activities done for exercise, such as walking for exercise. Unlike sport, recreation activities are not generally competitive.

Cultural and Linguistic Diversity

There is no strict definition of cultural and linguistic diversity.¹ The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) has recommended that government administrative collections include three minimum variables relating to migrant populations in Australia (CICMA, 2001):

1. Country of birth;
2. Main language other than English spoken at home and
3. Proficiency in spoken English.

In this report we consider each to be an indicator of CALD status. However, information has been drawn from a range of data collections and research studies that do not use consistent definitions. As a result, the report illustrates CALD women's participation in sport using different combinations of indicators depending on those used in the source data. Using a single category of 'CALD' status may obscure difference. Therefore we attempt to examine patterns of participation in sport for ethnic or linguistic groups separately. However, sample sizes in existing data collections are insufficient to allow this level of detail.

Note that Indigenous Australians are not considered to be CALD in this report, as they are not a clearly identifiable group based on the above indicators. Moreover, issues pertaining to Indigenous Australians' participation in sport and recreation differ to those of CALD populations, and are captured in other data sources and research literature, which was not possible to cover here.

1.3 Conceptual approach

This report treats sport and recreation as opportunities to generate and express social inclusion. In sport and recreation, social, cultural and economic factors present in the wider society may intersect to restrict access for certain groups and influence patterns of participation for minority groups. Sport has the capacity to maintain or exacerbate social exclusion by predicating participation on conformity to mainstream cultural norms. As a result, sport can play and has played a role in assimilating ethnically diverse groups into mainstream society and suppressing difference (Taylor, 2004). Indeed although post-war immigration from Europe and later from Asia and the South Pacific influenced the range of sporting and leisure activities available in Australia, immigrants were largely expected to assimilate into British sporting traditions (Mosely, 1997). Requiring conformity and assimilation can maintain and reproduce barriers to participation and contribute to alienation and exclusion, thereby inhibiting positive experiences of individual identity formation and full participation in social, economic and cultural life.

This report is also founded on recognition that sport and recreation has the potential to help smooth what can be a dislocating experience of migration by offering familiarity and facilitating community connections. Sport can provide a forum through which to

¹ Note that the term 'non-English speaking background' (NESB) was dropped from Australian policy vernacular following a meeting of the Ministerial Council of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs in May 1996 (CICMA, 2001)

express and promote diversity; celebrate, maintain, revive and affirm cultural difference; challenge stereotypes and enhance intercultural relations (Taylor, 2001; Hanlon and Coleman, 2006; Coakley, 2001).² As Walseth and Fasting (2004) point out, sport can generate inclusion if social justice norms and values are transmitted from multicultural sporting contexts into the rest of society, and if minority women's feelings of belonging and experiences in other areas of society improve as a result of participating in sport.

1.4 Methodology

Material contained in the report has been obtained through a review and analysis of data sources pertaining to CALD women's participation in sport and recreation, available government and program reports, and Australian and international peer reviewed journals.

Literature review

Literature was sourced through a systematic search of the National Sport Information Centre (NSIC) resources such as AUSPORT, Sportscan, and NSIC Full Text Archive, as well as the Sport Discus database and major Australian and international sport and leisure sociology journals. Information about programs aimed at CALD women was obtained through a comprehensive search of Australian and international internet resources and through information provided by stakeholders in sport and cultural organisations.

Data and program review and analysis

Available data was sourced primarily through the ABS and the Standing Committee on Recreation and Sport (SCORS). SCORS provides a coordinated and collaborative approach to national sport and recreation data collection and analysis through its Research Group (known as the SCORS Research Group or SRG). The research team also conducted a web search and contacted a number of state sport and recreation departments to identify what data (if any) is currently being collected about the sex and ethnicity of program participants, and whether there are any state or industry initiatives in place to support the participation of CALD women. Key findings are reported in Section 3. Statistics are primarily reported in terms of proportions of populations rather than numbers, in order to best highlight how patterns of participation differ between populations (such as men and women, those born in Australia versus those born elsewhere).

Peak national and state sporting organisations in popular team and competition sports were also contacted to identify whether they were collecting relevant participant data, and whether they had or knew of any initiatives in place to promote the participation of CALD women. The sports included in the scan were tennis, netball, soccer, bowls, cricket and golf. Statistics were initially sought from sporting association websites and were followed up by phone or email to relevant organisations. These included the Football Federation of Australia, Women's Soccer Association in NSW, SA, QLD

² Note however that although sport played a role in building community amongst migrants in post-war Australia (eg soccer), there is little evidence that migrant women were able to use sport to achieve the same ends (Taylor, 2004: 457).

and WA, Cricket Australia, Bowls Australia and Women's Bowls NSW, Golf Australia, Tennis Australia and Netball Australia.

Finally, the Federation of Ethnic Communities Councils of Australia and State ethnic community councils were contacted to identify whether they knew of any programs aimed at facilitating and supporting CALD women's involvement in sport and recreation. As these programs and activities are often organised at the community level, few of them have been documented so the use of key informants was an important complement for the web and literature search.

2 CALD women in sport and recreation: data review and analysis

Participating in sport and recreation activities and organisations is important for the health, wellbeing, representation and social inclusion of CALD women. In 2001, over 2.1 million females in Australia (21.6 per cent) were born overseas (ABS, 2002b); 1.3 million of these women and girls (61.9 per cent of all overseas born females) were born outside the main English speaking countries of the United Kingdom and Ireland, New Zealand, Canada, the United States of America, and South Africa. This represented 13.3 per cent of all females (ABS, 2002b). Almost 1.5 million females spoke a language other than English at home (representing 15.3 per cent of all women and girls in Australia)³ and 301 407 of these women and girls were identified in the 2001 Census as speaking English ‘not well’ or ‘not at all’ (ABS, 2002b).

Whether women from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds are categorised by being born outside the main English speaking countries, by speaking languages other than English at home, or by speaking English ‘not well’ or ‘not at all’, they are less likely than others to participate in sporting activities, engage in physical activities, and/or watch sport (Taylor, 2004)⁴.

Separately, women, CALD populations and CALD women are each under-represented in sport and recreation, both as players and in non-playing roles (including coaches, officials, umpires and administrators). Australian women aged 15 years and over have lower rates of involvement in organised sport and physical activity than men aged 15 and over; and people born outside the main English speaking countries have lower rates of involvement than those born in Australia and the main English speaking countries (ABS, 2005; ABS 2003). Proficiency in spoken English has also been found to affect rates of sport participation. Stratton et al (2005) for example found that participation rates for people who spoke ‘no English’ were 17.5 per cent, rising to 53.2 per cent for men and women who spoke ‘some English’ (and rising higher as English proficiency improved).

Women born outside the main English speaking countries⁵ have been found to have the lowest rates of sport participation in Australia (ABS, 2006a, 2006b, Taylor and Toohey, 1999, ABS 2003). The General Social Survey (ABS, 2003) shows that in a twelve month period, 46.3 per cent of females born outside the main English speaking countries had participated in sport and recreation activities (as either players or non-players) compared with 66.5 per cent of women born in the main English speaking countries and 63.6 per cent of Australian-born women. This survey has shown female migrants from the main English speaking countries to have a higher rate of participation than others. This suggests that it is not migration per se that creates barriers to participation, but a more complex interaction of social, cultural and economic factors.

³ These figures exclude overseas visitors.

⁴ Length of time in Australia is not used as a variable in data collections about sport participation. However, first generation immigrants are likely to have a different experience to subsequent generations (Tsai and Coleman, 1999).

⁵ That is, outside Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland, the Republic of Ireland, and the United States of America, as well as Australia.

Importantly, CALD women's low level of sport participation is not unique to Australia. In the United Kingdom in 2003, 26 per cent of women from ethnic backgrounds participated in some form of physical activity, compared to 36 per cent of all women. Pakistani and Bangladeshi women in the United Kingdom were found to do the least physical activity, while those categorised as 'white-other' (as opposed to 'white-British') were found to do the most physical activity. Similar trends are also evident in western Europe, where surveys have shown that minority women are less involved in sport than other women and minority men (Walseth and Fasting, 2002). The Canadian Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute shows similar evidence for Canada. It found that 59 per cent of children and young people who recently immigrated almost never participate in organised sport, compared to 42 per cent of Canadian born youngsters (cited by Taylor and Doherty, 2005).

Overall, these trends indicate the existence of significant social, cultural, and organisational barriers to CALD women's participation in sport and recreation in Australia and elsewhere. Women's patterns of participation and the barriers faced are likely to differ between ethnic, linguistic and socio-economic groups. However, available statistical data is unable to give full insight into the social, cultural and economic characteristics of CALD women who participate in sport and sporting organisations in Australia; the type, location and duration of their participation; or the barriers they face in participating. Data collections on the topic are useful and improving, yet small sample sizes and limited numbers of variables leave gaps in our knowledge about the patterns of participation of different cultural minorities, in different locations and in different sport and recreation activities.

After outlining available statistical evidence of CALD women's involvement in sport in Sections 3.2, the report suggests some possible strategies for improving data on the topic, and for developing the research base that can be used to inform policy and practice. In particular, existing survey data gives little indication as to the *reasons* that CALD women choose to participate or not participate, and studies in the field have recently called for further studies of the factors shaping, constraining and facilitating the participation of CALD people in sport and recreation, with a sensitivity to differences within CALD groups (Stratton et al, 2005:7; Coakley, 2001; Walseth and Fasting, 2004).

2.1 Australian Bureau of Statistics data

Data collected, analysed and reported by the ABS is a key source of information about participation in sport and recreation in Australia. The main sources of recent data are the Survey of Involvement in Sport and Physical Activity (conducted in April 2004) and the General Social Survey (2002). The results of these surveys are contained in three key publications:

- Involvement in Organised Sport and Physical Activity, Australia, 2004 (Cat. No. 6285.0)
- Participation in Sport and Physical Activities, Australia, 2002 (Cat. No. 4177.0), and
- Migrants and participation in sport and physical activity (ABS, 2006b)

Although these publications contain rich information about the socio-demographic characteristics of sport participants in Australia, the surveys are inevitably limited and cannot be expected to fully profile CALD women's patterns of participation.

Involvement in Organised Sport and Physical Activity, Australia, 2004

The Survey of Involvement in Sport and Physical Activity was conducted by the ABS in April 2004 and published in 2005 (ABS, 2005). The ABS conducted this as a supplementary survey to the Monthly Population Survey, and was completed for approximately 26 250 private dwellings.

This survey provides the most recently reported national data on the topic. Respondents were persons aged 15 years and over, and were asked about their involvement in *organised* sport and physical activity over the last 12 months. Organised sport and physical activity was defined in terms of those activities organised by a club, business or other organisation. Questions covered participation both as players and non-players, including involvement as a coach, teacher, referee, administrator, scorer or timekeeper, medical support officer, or other non-playing role. However, the definition excludes those involved only as spectators or club members without an active role.

This data shows that around 27 per cent of the population aged 15 years and over participated in organised sport and physical activity, with those aged 15 to 24 having the highest rate of involvement (39 per cent). Those residing outside capital cities were more likely to participate in organised sport than those in capital cities (30 per cent compared to 26 per cent). Participation rates were higher for employed people (32 per cent) than unemployed people (27 per cent) and those not in the labour force (19 per cent).⁶ The data also shows the overlap between those involved in playing and non-playing roles: 60 per cent of those involved as non-players also had a playing role.

Gender differences in organised sport and physical activity

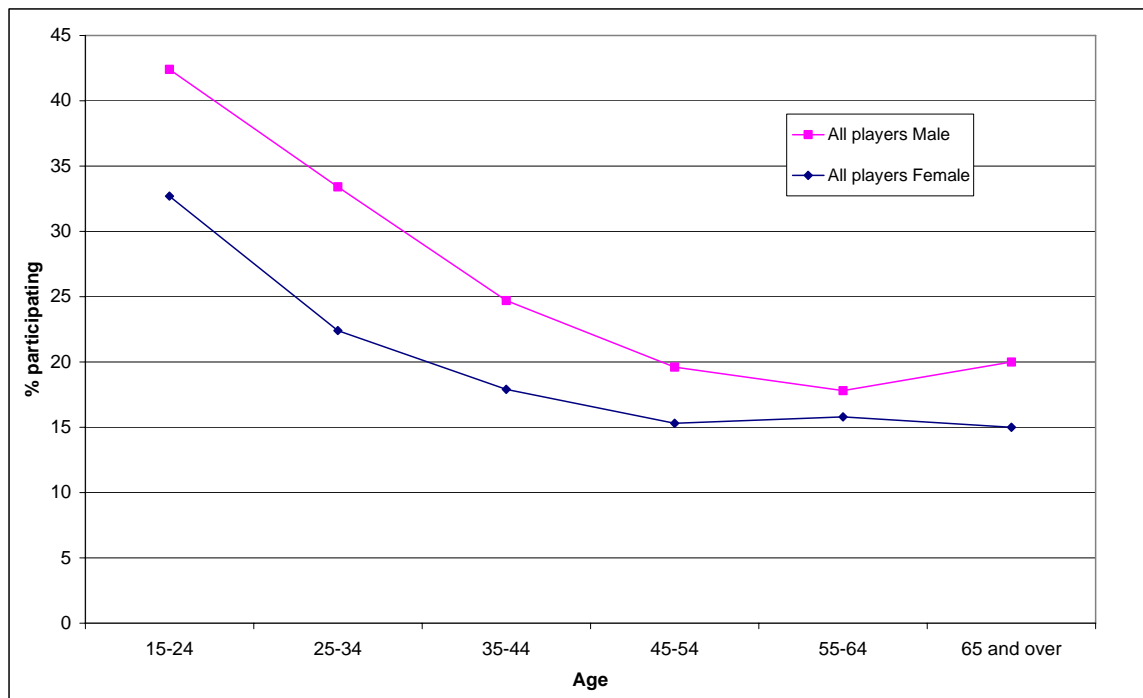
The data reveals highly gendered patterns of participation in organised sport and physical activity. Firstly, a higher proportion of males than females were involved in any capacity (31 per cent compared to 23 per cent). However, the gender gap was wider for those in playing roles: 27 per cent of males were players in the previous 12 months compared to 20 per cent of females, whereas 11 per cent of males were involved in non-playing roles compared to 7 per cent of females.

Further, the data shows interesting differences in the playing involvement of men and women through the life course. Figure 2.1 shows that for each age group, males had higher rates of participation as players than females.⁷ The proportion of males and females playing organised sport falls over the life course, despite slight rises for women aged 55-64 and men aged 65 and over.

⁶ Note that while employment status is reported in this data collection, other socio-economic indicators, such as income or education level, are not.

⁷ The accompanying data can be found in Table B.1.

Figure 2.1: Proportion of males and females playing organised sport by age, Australia, 2004

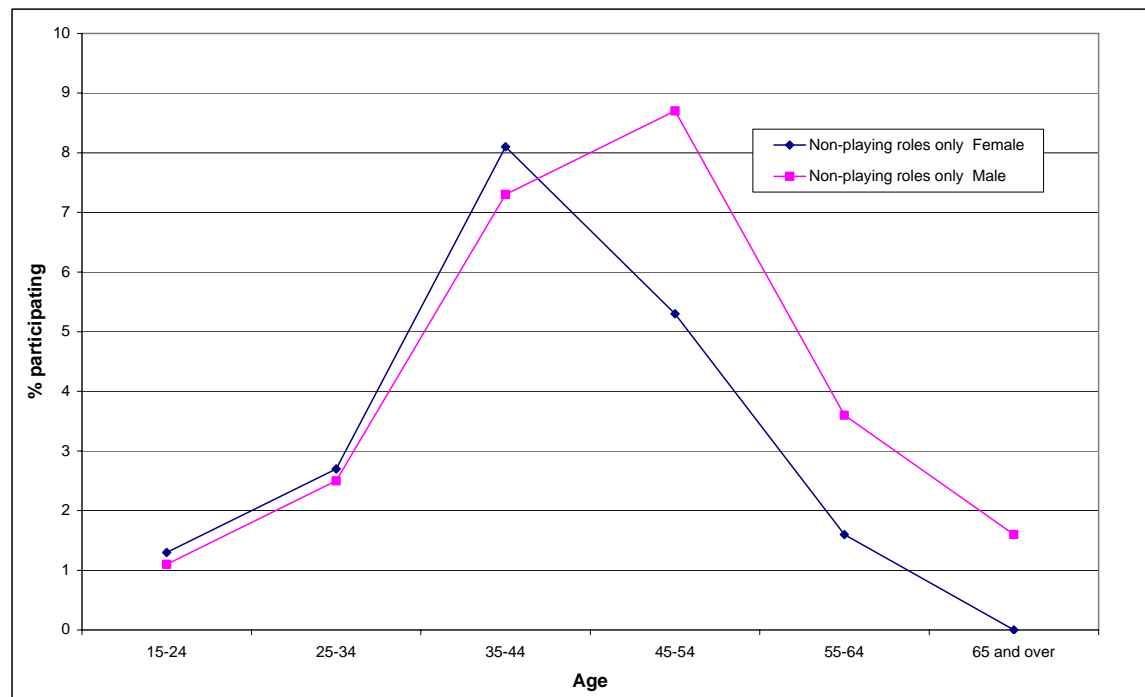


Source: Involvement in Organised Sport and Physical Activity, Australia, 2004.

Figure 2.2 shows a different pattern of participation for those involved in sport as non-players only (who are not players as well).⁸ Overall, levels of non-playing involvement peak in the 35-44 year old age group for women, and the 45-54 year old age group for men (the peak child-rearing age groups). Levels of involvement as non-players are slightly higher for women than men in the younger age groups. However, a higher percentage of males than females participate in non-playing roles from the age of 45-54.

⁸ The accompanying data can be found in Table B.2

Figure 2.2: Proportion of males and females involved in organised sport as non-players by age, Australia, 2004



*This includes those in non-playing roles only, and not those who are also players.
Source: Involvement in Organised Sport and Physical Activity, Australia, 2004.

In addition, the data reveals that men and women are involved in different *types* of non-playing activities. For males, the most common non-playing role was as a coach, instructor or teacher (4.7 per cent) followed by committee member or administrator (4.3 per cent). For females, the most common non-playing role was scoring or timekeeping (3.4 per cent), followed by committee member or administrator (3.1 per cent) (ABS, 2005:5).

Involvement and country of birth

Having outlined different patterns of involvement for men and women in Figure 2.1 and Figure 2.2, Figure 2.3 presents data from the Survey of Involvement in Organised Sport and Physical Activity about sporting involvement and CALD status.⁹ This shows variations in levels of involvement according to birthplace.

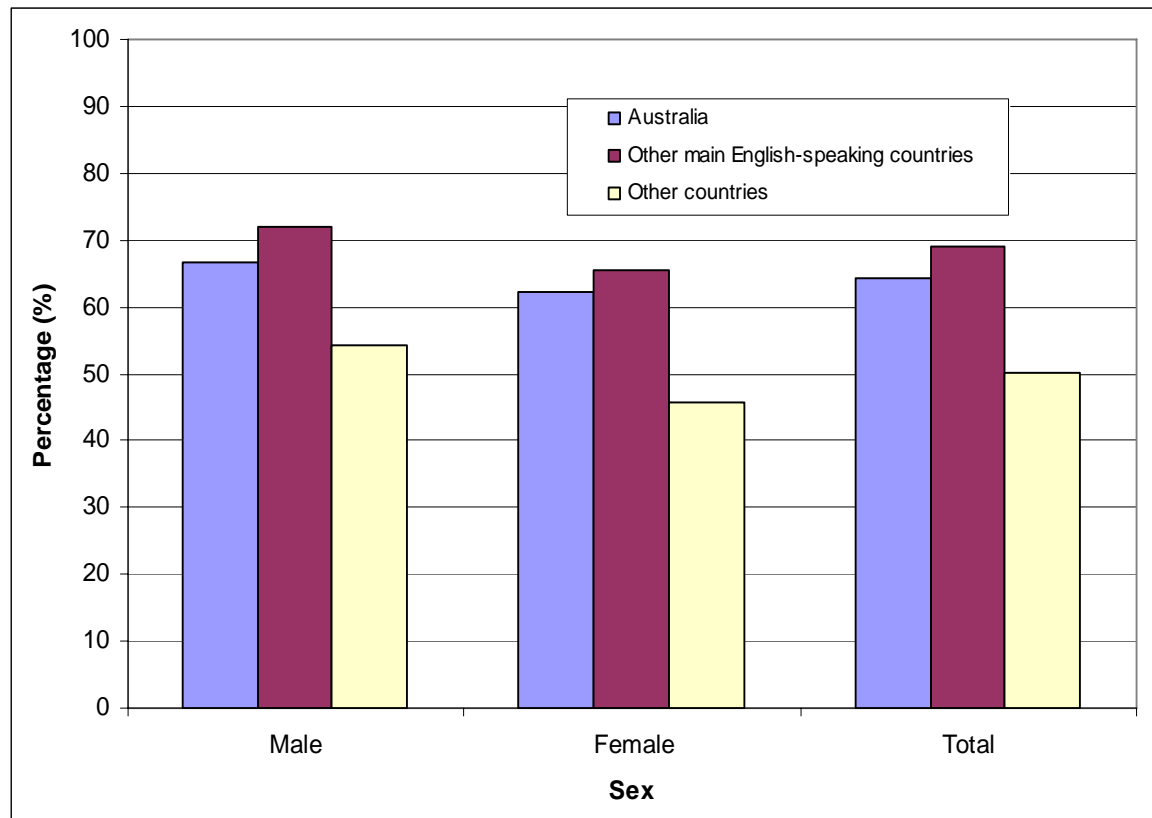
While there was a small gap between the rates of participation of persons born in Australia and in the main English speaking countries (31 per cent and 27 per cent respectively), there was a substantial gap between Australian born and those born outside the main English speaking countries (only 12 per cent of the latter group participated in the previous 12 months). Participation in organised sport was highest for Australian born persons (27 per cent were players and 11 per cent were involved as non-players). Participation was lowest for those born outside the main English

⁹ The accompanying data can be found in Table B.3.

speaking countries (10 per cent were players and 3 per cent were involved as non-players).

Figure 2.3 depicts these patterns for all of those involved in organised sport, and separately for those involved as players and non-players. It also shows that the gap between Australian born people and those born in other countries is greater for players than non-players.

Figure 2.3: Proportion of the population involved as players and non-players by birthplace, persons, Australia, 2004



Source: Involvement in Organised Sport and Physical Activity, Australia, 2004
 Data for this figure is contained in Table 6.4, Appendix B.

Further, the data show that women and those born outside Australia are less likely than others to have *paid* involvement in sport. Less than 1 per cent (0.7) of those born overseas had some paid involvement, compared to 1.9 per cent of those born in Australia; and 1.4 per cent of women had paid involvement, compared to 1.8 per cent of males. This is shown in Table 2.1 (below).

Table 2.1: Proportion of the population with paid involvement in sport, gender, birthplace, Australia, 2004

| | Some paid involvement (a) | Unpaid involvement only | Total involvement |
|--|------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|
| Sex | | | |
| Males | 1.8 | 9.2 | 11.0 |
| Females | 1.4 | 6.8 | 8.1 |
| Country of birth | | | |
| Australia | 1.9 | 9.3 | 11.2 |
| Overseas | 0.7 | 4.5 | 5.2 |
| Main English speaking countries | 1.3 | 7.6 | 8.9 |
| Other than main English speaking countries | *0.4 | 2.6 | 3.1 |

Note that this table presents the number of persons involved in organised sport and physical activity expressed as a percentage of the population in the same group

* estimate has a relative standard error of 25-50 per cent and should be used with caution

(a) "Some paid involvement" may include some persons who were paid for their playing role. For example, if a person was unpaid for their involvement as a player but received some payment in dollars or goods and services for their involvement as a coach, they would be classified as having 'some paid involvement' (ABS 6285.0, p. 29, Explanatory note 15)

The data from 'Involvement in Organised Sport' also shows that patterns of involvement according to birthplace are highly gendered. As Table 2.2 (below) shows, this is true for those in both playing and non-playing roles, and for those with both playing and non-playing roles.

Table 2.2 shows men's and women's patterns of participation (as players, non-players or both) by country of birth. Higher proportions of both men and women born in Australia participated in any role, compared with those born overseas. Of those born overseas, higher proportions of those born in the main English speaking countries participated. This was true for men and women in every category of involvement.

Women born in countries other than the main English speaking countries had the lowest participation rates in organised sport (8.9 per cent overall). Only 6.6 per cent of those born outside the English speaking countries were involved as players, 1.1 per cent were both players and non-players and 1.3 per cent had non-playing roles only.

As Table 2.2 shows, the participation rates of women born outside the main English speaking countries are lower than those born in Australia or in the English speaking countries, and are lower than those for males born in English speaking countries. Gender differences in involvement in organised sport (as a player, non-player or both) are depicted in Figure 2.4 by birthplace and sex.

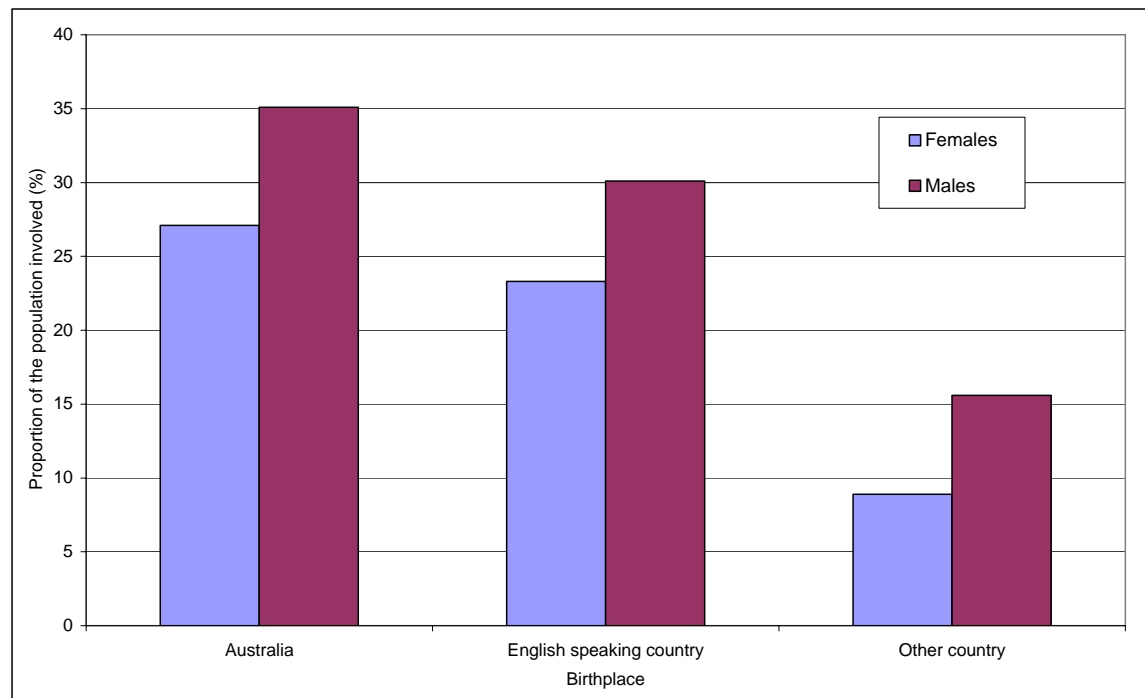
Table 2.2: Proportion of the population participating in organised sport by birthplace and gender, Australia, 2004

| | Players only (A) | | Players with non-playing involvement (B) | | Involved in non-playing roles only (C) | | All players (A+B) | | All non-playing involvement (B+C) | | Total persons involved (A+B+C) | | Persons with no involvement (D) | | Total persons (A+B+C+D) | |
|--|------------------|------|--|------|--|------|-------------------|------|-----------------------------------|------|--------------------------------|------|---------------------------------|------|-------------------------|------|
| | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male |
| Country of birth | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Australia | 17.3 | 22.3 | 5.8 | 8.1 | 4.0 | 4.6 | 23.1 | 30.4 | 9.8 | 12.8 | 27.1 | 35.1 | 72.9 | 64.9 | 100 | 100 |
| Overseas | 10.2 | 14.5 | 1.8 | 3.3 | 2.2 | 3.2 | 12.0 | 17.9 | 4.0 | 6.5 | 14.2 | 21.1 | 85.8 | 78.9 | 100 | 100 |
| Main English speaking countries | 16.5 | 19.1 | 3.1 | 6.2 | 3.7 | 4.8 | 19.6 | 25.4 | 6.8 | 11.0 | 23.3 | 30.1 | 76.7 | 69.9 | 100 | 100 |
| Other than main English speaking countries | 6.6 | 11.8 | 1.1 | 1.6 | 1.3 | 2.3 | 7.6 | 13.4 | 2.3 | 3.8 | 8.9 | 15.6 | 91.1 | 84.4 | 100 | 100 |

* estimate has a relative standard error (RSE) of 25-50 per cent and should be used with caution

Source: Involvement in Organised Sport and Physical Activity, Australia, 2004, page 8-9

Figure 2.4: Involvement in organised sport as players and non-players by birthplace and sex, Australia, 2004



Source: Involvement in Organised Sport and Physical Activity, Australia, 2004.

Table 2.3 (below) shows changes in the proportion of the population participating in sport as non-players according to birthplace and gender. Time series data is not available for players, due to changes in the question and methodology in the 1993 and 1997 surveys (ABS 2005:32). While rates of participation for women as a whole have risen slightly before falling, it is important to note that differences between 1997 and 2001, 2001 and 2004 and 1993 and 1997 were not significant. Over the period from 1993 to 2004, however, there is evidence of a fall in the proportion of women participating as non-players. The proportion of women born in countries other than the main English speaking countries who participated as non-players has remained stable.

Table 2.3: Proportion of the population participating as non-players by birthplace and gender, Australia, 1993-2004

| | 1993 | | 1997 | | 2001 | | 2004 | |
|--|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| | Females | Males | Females | Males | Females | Males | Females | Males |
| Country of birth | | | | | | | | |
| Australia | 10.9 | 13.5 | 11.5 | 15.1 | (c) 9.6 | 12.6 | (c) 9.8 | 12.8 |
| Overseas | (d) 4.4 | (d) 7.0 | 4.7 | (d) 8.8 | 4.1 | (c) 6.5 | (c) 4.0 | (c) 6.5 |
| Main English speaking countries | (d) 7.5 | 10.7 | 8.6 | 12.7 | 7.0 | 10.7 | (c) 6.8 | 11.0 |
| Other than main English speaking countries | (d) 2.3 | (d) 4.4 | 2.1 | (d) 6.2 | 2.3 | (c) 3.6 | (c) 2.3 | (c) 3.8 |

(a) The number of persons involved in non-playing roles, expressed as a percentage of the population in the same group. Note that this includes those who had both playing and non-playing roles

(b) Difference between females' and males' (separately) rates of participation in 1997 and 2001 not significant

(c) Difference between females' and males' (separately) rates of participation in 2001 and 2004 not significant

(d) Difference between females' and males' (separately) rates of participation in 1993 and 1997 not significant

Source: Involvement in Organised Sport and Physical Activity, Australia, 1993, 1997, 2001 and 2004.

Participation in Sport and Physical Activities, Australia, 2002

An earlier ABS publication, *Participation in Sport and Physical Activities* (ABS, 2003) presents data drawn from the General Social Survey, 2002, providing additional evidence of the low participation rates of CALD women in sport and recreation. However, unlike in the *Involvement in Organised Sport Survey* outlined above, data from the General Social Survey relates to participation in both organised and non-organised sport and physical activities. By including non-organised sport and physical activities, the survey captures larger numbers and rates of participation than in the *Survey of Involvement in Organised Sport*. Participation rates appear higher for CALD populations relative to others, and the gender participation gap appears lower (as a high proportion of women participate in non-organised activities such as walking for exercise).

In this data, the term ‘participant’ is defined more narrowly than in the *Survey of Involvement in Organised Sport*. *Participation in Sport and Physical Activities* captures participation in terms of playing, competing or physically undertaking the activity. This excludes involvement by people as coaches, umpires and club officials. Another difference between the datasets is that the General Social Survey includes persons aged 18 years and over, whereas the *Survey of Involvement in Organised Sport* relates to those aged 15 years and over. Finally, the data reported in *Participation in Sport and Physical Activities* is based on a smaller number of dwellings (15,500) than the *Survey of Involvement in Organised Sport*.

The results reported in *Participation in Sport and Physical Activities, Australia 2002* show that around three-fifths (62.4 per cent) of Australian adults participated in sport and physical activities in the twelve months prior to interview. However, males were more likely to have participated than females (65.0 per cent compared to 59.9 per cent).¹⁰

Gender and sport and physical exercise

Key indicators of the gender gap in sport and recreation arising from the survey are contained in Table 2.4. This shows that although women are less likely than men to have participated in sport or physical activities in the last twelve months, they have similar weekly participation rates, but are less likely to participate as part of an activity organised by a club, association or other organisation.¹¹

¹⁰ As noted earlier, while participation rates are available by employment status, other indicators of socio-economic status, such as income or education level, are not reported.

¹¹ The club or organisation did not need to be a sporting body; it may have been a social club, church group, old scholars association or gymnasium. Persons may participate in more than one organised activity and also participate in non-organised activities (ABS, 2003:38).

Table 2.4: Participation in sport and physical activities by sex, Australia, 2002

| | Males (per cent) | Females (per cent) | All (per cent) |
|---|---------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|
| Participated in the last 12 months | 65.0 | 59.9 | 62.4 |
| Participated at least weekly | 38.6 | 38.7 | 38.6 |
| Participated in activity organised by a club, association or other organisation | 34.3 | 28.5 | 31.4 |

Source: Participation in Sport and Physical Activities, Australia, 2002 (Cat. No. 4177.0)

The data also showed some difference in the types of physical activities undertaken by men and women. For women, the most popular activities were walking for exercise, followed by swimming, and aerobics/fitness. For men, the most popular activities were walking for exercise, followed by golf and swimming. Men also tended to participate in a wider range of sporting and physical activities (see ABS, 2003: 15).

Other influences on sport participation

The data from the General Social Survey demonstrates that in addition to gender, other socio-demographic factors influence participation. People aged 18 to 24 for example, are most likely to have participated in sport and physical activities, and participation rates decline steadily to 45.6 per cent for those aged 65 years and over. Employed people have higher rates of participation (68.9 per cent) than unemployed people (61.3 per cent) as do those employed full time (69.5 per cent) compared to those employed part time (67.6 per cent).¹²

Family type and location are also important to participation in sport and physical activity. Persons in couple families with dependent children had higher rates of participation than those in single parent families with dependent children (65.3 per cent compared to 58.5 per cent) and persons in lone person households were even less likely to participate (57.2 per cent).

Contrary to findings from the Survey of Involvement in Sport and Physical Activity, the General Social Survey found residents of capital cities had higher rates of participation in sport and physical activities (63.4 per cent) than those living elsewhere (60.6 per cent). Both publications used the same geographic definition (capital cities were defined by their statistical division which is set out in the ASGC, ABS Cat No. 1216.0). The contradictory findings may be primarily attributed to the inclusion of non-organised activities in the General Social Survey¹³.

The General Social Survey also found differing participation rates by state. Higher rates of participation for men and women were evident in the Australian Capital Territory and Western Australia and the lowest in South Australia (see Table 2.5).

¹² The lowest participation rate was recorded for people not in the labour force (49.6 per cent), 62.9 per cent of whom were retired from work.

¹³ Other differences, such as the inclusion of 15-17 year olds in only one of the surveys may also have affected the results

Table 2.5: Participation rates by sex and state, Australia, 2002

| | NSW | VIC | QLD | SA | WA | TAS | NT | ACT | AUST |
|--------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Female | 56.6 | 60.2 | 59.0 | 56.8 | 73.0 | 57.4 | 70.9 | 73.4 | 59.9 |
| Male | 62.5 | 65.9 | 63.4 | 58.6 | 76.9 | 63.3 | 70.4 | 78.9 | 65.0 |

Source: ABS (2003) Participation in Sport and Physical Activities, Australia, 2002 (Cat. No. 4177.0)

Sport and CALD status

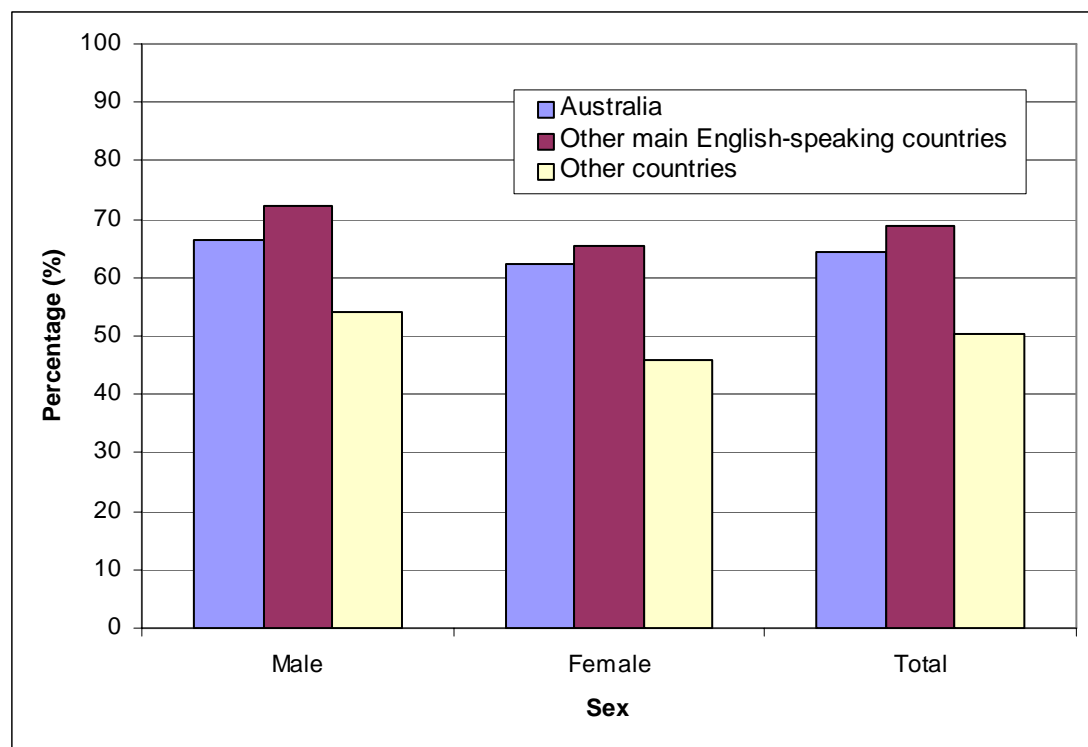
Participation in Sport and Physical Activities, Australia, 2002 also shows the importance of CALD status on patterns of participation in sport and recreation activities. Similar to the Survey of Involvement in Organised Sport, sample sizes in the General Social Survey were too low to allow country of birth to be reported separately. Rather, birthplace is reported in three categories

- Those born in Australia;
- Those born in the mainly English speaking countries (consisting of Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland, the Republic of Ireland, and the United States of America);
- Those born in other countries.

Figure 2.5 shows that for men and women, those born outside Australia in the main English-speaking countries are most likely to participate in sport and recreation, and those born in other countries are least likely.¹⁴

A higher proportion of people born in the main English-speaking countries (68.9 per cent) participated in sport and recreation, compared to 50.2 per cent of people born in other countries. Females across all birthplace categories had lower rates of participation than their male counterparts, with the lowest rate recorded for females born in other countries (45.8 per cent). This rate of participation is significantly lower than for females born in Australia (62.2 per cent) and those born in the main English speaking countries (66.5 per cent). These rates are depicted in Figure 2.5.

¹⁴ The accompanying data can be found in Table B.4.

Figure 2.5: Participation rates by sex and birthplace, Australia, 2002

Source: Participation in Sport and Physical Activities, Australia, 2002 (Cat. No. 4177.0)

Migrants and Participation in Sport and Physical Activity, Australia, 2002

The analysis presented in *Migrants and Participation in Sport and Physical Activity* (ABS, 2006b) gives the best indication of patterns of CALD women's patterns of participation in sport and physical activities. This is further analysis of GSS data by the ABS, and reports a wider range of birthplace categories, giving greater insight into the patterns of participation of different CALD groups.

Gender and Region of Birth

In 2002 females with the highest rates of participation in sport were from North-West Europe (67.4 per cent; see Table 2.6).¹⁵ Participation rates for women born in North Africa and the Middle East (19.5 per cent) were significantly lower than for women born in other areas. Women from North Africa and the Middle East were significantly less likely to participate than men from these same regions (19.5 per cent compared to 42.7 per cent); although men from these regions also had the lowest participation rates out of all areas. These patterns are depicted in Table 2.6.

Participation rates by women from North Africa and the Middle East may be low in their country of origin, and may in fact be higher in Australia post-migration. As Walseth and Fasting (2003:48) point out, although data is not necessarily kept in other countries, Muslim women in Muslim countries tend to have low rates of participation in sport and physical activities.

¹⁵ The accompanying Figure B.1 can be found in Appendix B.

Table 2.6: Participation in sport and physical activity by sex and region of birth, Australia, 2002

| | Males (%) | Females (%) | All (%) |
|----------------------------------|-----------|-------------|---------|
| North-West Europe | 69.8 | 64.7 | 67.4 |
| Australia | 68.5 | 63.6 | 66.0 |
| Oceania and Antarctica | 69.1 | 63.6 | 66.3 |
| Sub-Saharan Africa | 72.0 | 60.0 | 50.8 |
| Americas | 67.5 | 56.0 | 52.6 |
| North-East Asia | 68.8 | 53.5 | 61.9 |
| South-East Asia | 61.1 | 52.3 | 56.2 |
| Southern and Central Asia | 63.0 | 43.6 | 74.2 |
| Southern and Eastern Europe | 44.1 | 40.7 | 42.5 |
| North Africa and the Middle East | 42.7 | 19.5 | 31.2 |

Source: Migrants and Participation in Sport and Physical Activity (ABS 2006b: 10).

Gender, birthplace and English proficiency

The results in Table 2.7 demonstrate that as well as region of birth, language proficiency also influences patterns of sport participation amongst men and women.¹⁶ For male and female migrants who identified as not proficient in English, rates of participation in sport and physical activity were low, at around 35 per cent for both males and females. For those proficient in spoken English, the participation rate rises to 60.2 per cent for males and 49.8 per cent for females, highlighting a differential effect by sex.

Table 2.7: Participation rates by sex, country of birth, and language proficiency, Australia 2002

| | Born in Australia (per cent) | Born in main English-speaking countries (per cent) | Born in other countries: proficient in spoken English (per cent) | Born in other countries: not proficient in spoken English (per cent) |
|--------|------------------------------|--|--|--|
| Male | 68.5 | 74.6 | 60.2 | 35.2 |
| Female | 63.6 | 66.5 | 49.8 | 34.7 |
| Total | 66 | 70.7 | 55.4 | 35.0 |

Source: Migrants and Participation in Sport and Physical Activity (ABS 2006b: 10).

Organised and non-organised sport by region of birth

Table 2.8 differentiates between participation rates in organised and non-organised sport and physical activity by region of birth¹⁷. Generally, the results show that participation in organised sport is highest among those from Oceania and Antarctica

¹⁶ The accompanying Figure B.2 can be found in Appendix B.

¹⁷ The accompanying Figure B.3 can be found in Appendix B.

(which includes Australia, New Zealand, Polynesia and Micronesia) (56.4 per cent) and lowest among those from North Africa and the Middle East (which includes Egypt, Morocco, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Lebanon and Turkey) (17.2 per cent)¹⁸. In relation to non-organised sport, the highest rates of participation were for those from South-East Asia (including Vietnam, Thailand, Malaysia, Singapore and Indonesia) (90.2 per cent) and the lowest rates of participation were for those from Oceania and Antarctica (72.9 per cent). Unfortunately, this data has not been disaggregated by sex.

Table 2.8: Participation in organised and non-organised sport by region of birth, Australia, 2002

| | Organised | Non organised |
|----------------------------------|-----------|---------------|
| Oceania and Antarctica | 56.4 | 72.9 |
| Sub-Saharan Africa | 53.8 | 75.7 |
| Americas | 50.6 | 77.8 |
| North-West Europe | 48.7 | 76.7 |
| Southern and Central Asia | 46.2 | 83.2 |
| South-East Asia | 36.9 | 90.2 |
| Southern and Eastern Europe | 26.1 | 84.1 |
| North-East Asia | 25.4 | 89.7 |
| North Africa and the Middle East | 17.2 | 87.8 |

Source: Migrants and Participation in Sport and Physical Activity (ABS 2006b: 10). For definitions see ABS (2004) Standard Australian Classification of Countries (SACC), 1998, Cat. No. 1269.0.

Gender, CALD status and type of sport

The types of sports and physical activities undertaken differ slightly by gender and country of birth. While the most popular activities for males overall were walking, swimming and golf, the most popular for males born outside the main English speaking countries were walking for exercise (14.4 per cent), outdoor soccer (6.7 per cent) and swimming (5.2 per cent). For females, the most popular activities overall were walking (24.7 per cent), swimming (5.2 per cent) and aerobics/fitness (2.8 per cent). However, these were also the top three activities for women born outside the main English speaking countries (ABS, 2006b: 4).

2.2 Standing Committee on Recreation and Sport (SCORS) data

The SCORS Research Group (SRG) consists of representatives from State and Territory Departments of Recreation and Sport, the Australian Sports Commission, and the Commonwealth Department of Communications, Information Technology and the Arts. Its primary aim is to collect and analyse data on national sport and recreation (for example, physical activity trends, sport and recreation participation, economic and social impact) to inform “decision-making by industry and governments in the development, implementation and evaluation of policies and programs” (<http://www.ausport.gov.au/scorsresearch/aboutus.asp>)

¹⁸ For full definitions of the countries found in each region, see ABS (2004) Standard Australian Classification of Countries (SACC), 1998, Cat. No. 1269.0.

The primary source of data arising from SCORS is the Exercise, Recreation and Sport Survey (ERASS), relevant results of which are outlined below.

Exercise, Recreation and Sport Survey (ERASS)

The Exercise, Recreation and Sport Survey (ERASS), conducted by the Standing Committee on Recreation and Sport (SCORS) Research Group (SRG), is a quarterly collection of data (analysed annually) regarding:

- participation in organised and non-organised sport and physical activity
- type and frequency of sport and physical activity participation; and
- breakdowns of state/territory participation rates in sport and physical activity.

The survey collects information on an annual sample of persons aged 15 years and over who participated in exercise, recreation and sport in the 12 months prior to interview.¹⁹ The sample design is a random survey stratified by State and Territory. Note that the sample size is around 13 000. This is smaller than either the data collected through the General Social Survey or the Survey of Involvement in Sport and Physical Activity conducted by the ABS. Also, participation in ERASS is defined in terms of active 'playing' only (including practice and training activities) and not other types of sport participation (such as coaching, refereeing and spectating) or other physical activities. By not including involvement in non-playing roles such as coaching and refereeing, this survey differs from the Survey of Involvement in Sport and Physical Activity conducted by the ABS.

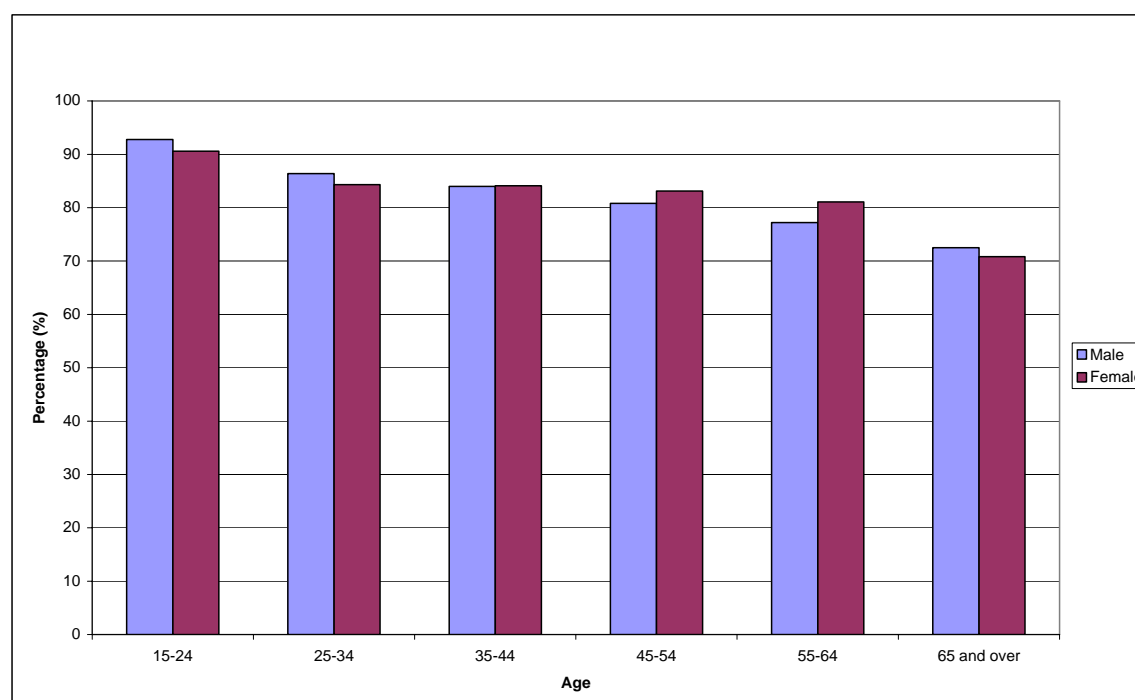
ERASS includes sport participants' demographic information, such as sex, age, labour force status, family structure, SES, and education. However, it does not collect data on country of birth or other factors relating to cultural and linguistic diversity, such as language use, English proficiency or ancestry. As a result, the survey has major limitations as data cannot be disaggregated to determine patterns of sport participation by CALD status.

Despite this limitation, ERASS is useful for identifying gendered patterns of sport participation. Overall, this data shows male and female participation rates to be comparable. However, younger females participate more than older females, and a higher proportion of females in the ACT participate than females in the other states. While this information does not provide the details of CALD women's participation, the data about other variables is useful contextual information.

The most recent ERASS (2004) report for example, shows that the overall participation rates for male and female respondents were 83.0 per cent and 82.6 per cent respectively (which was higher than ABS estimates for the population). As indicated in Figure 2.6, people aged 15-24 years had the highest participation rate, with a steady decline as age increases.²⁰

¹⁹ 13 640 in 2001 and 13 662 in 2004.

²⁰ The accompanying data can be found in Table B.5.

Figure 2.6: Participation rates by age and sex

Source: ERASS. Data for this Figure are contained in Table

The data also shows that for females, the decline in participation between ages 25-34 and 55-64 is small (84.3 per cent to 81.1 per cent). This suggests that sport participation among women is significantly affected by life course or developmental factors in the youngest and eldest age categories, but remains relatively stable in the middle years. The largest difference between males and females was for 55-64 year olds, with a higher proportion of females than males participating.

As shown in Table 2.9, and similar to the results obtained by the ABS, participation rates in the ACT are notably higher than in the other states, however male and female participation rates within each state are relatively comparable. The most notable difference is in Western Australia, where males' participation rates are 2.3 percentage points higher than females.

Table 2.9: Participation rates by sex and state, ERASS

| State | ACT | NSW | NT | QLD | SA | TAS | VIC | WA | AUST |
|---------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Females | 87.8 | 81.5 | 82.3 | 81.5 | 81.1 | 81.9 | 84.9 | 83.7 | 82.6 |
| Males | 88.6 | 82.5 | 83.2 | 80.9 | 79.1 | 80.9 | 85.3 | 86.0 | 83.0 |

ERASS identifies gendered patterns in the types of activities undertaken. Like the data in the General Social Survey, it shows that three activities with the highest participation rates among females were walking (51.3 per cent), aerobics/fitness (21.3 per cent), and swimming (18.3 per cent). Also, of those who participated in organised physical activity, participation was higher for males (44.7 per cent) than females (40.8

per cent), and highest in the 15-24 year age group (66.1 per cent). Participation rates were lowest for persons aged 65 years and over (30.7 per cent).

Australia's Sports Volunteers 2000

The SCORS Research Group (SRG) produced a report, "Australia's Sports Volunteers 2000" based on data collected by the ABS in 2000 for the Voluntary Work Survey. The survey covered all usual residents aged 18 years and over in private dwellings, with approximately 12,900 personal interviews conducted in total. This information is useful for identifying the likely rates of participation of those involved in sport in a voluntary capacity.

A volunteer was defined as someone who willingly gave unpaid help, in the form of time, services or skills, through a club, organisation or association. The results show that 10 per cent of males were likely to be involved as volunteers in sports organisations compared with 7 per cent of females. People aged 35-44 years were most likely to be involved as volunteers in sport (12 per cent) and people aged 55 years and over had the lowest participation rate (4 per cent).

Family type was also important to sport participation. People with children aged 5-14 years were more likely (14 per cent) to be involved in a volunteer role in sport, compared with 7 per cent of people with no children in the same age group. Employed people were more likely to be involved in voluntary capacities in sport than other people (11 per cent and 4 per cent respectively), with no difference between those employed part-time and full-time. Further, higher proportions of the population volunteer for sports organisations in non-metropolitan areas (12 per cent compared to 6 per cent in metropolitan areas), and rates are highest in South Australia (10.6 per cent) and lowest in Queensland (6.8 per cent)

Data on ethnicity from this survey has only been stratified by two groups (born in Australia and born overseas) and so is quite limited in its scope compared to other surveys that reveal significant difference depending on country of birth. The results show that Australian-born people had greater involvement (10 per cent) in voluntary capacities in sport, compared with a participation rate of 5 per cent of overseas-born people.

2.3 State data about CALD women in sport and recreation

Rather than collect their own data, state government agencies appear largely reliant on the sport participant information collected through ERASS and ABS surveys. However, because ABS surveys do not allow identification of different cultural groups, and because ERASS does not include indicators of CALD status, this data is unlikely to effectively support policy and program development for CALD women.

Western Australia's Department of Sport and Recreation takes a different approach by collecting annual data from State Sporting Associations about the number and gender breakdown of their members, coaches and officials. However, this does not currently include ethnicity data.

Similarly, Sport and Recreation Victoria has also collected data about sporting organisations in their state. They collected data from 1569 private, public and volunteer clubs and organisations in the Sport and Recreation Survey commissioned by Sport and Recreation Victoria (SRV). While this offers good data about gendered

patterns, it is reported by organisations and so requires their accurate identification of CALD status.

Notwithstanding, the survey showed that 89 per cent of organisations advised that members, participants or customers were predominantly born in Australia. Only 3 per cent had a membership base comprised of people predominantly from overseas non-English speaking countries, and 2 per cent were from English speaking countries. Of all organisations, 11 per cent felt their membership was moving away from their traditional Australian-born membership base. Of all the organisations that reported this change, 27 per cent offered multiple activities, 10 per cent offered tennis, 8 per cent offered Australian Rules football and 6 per cent offered netball, golf and individual sports.

2.4 Sport Industry data about CALD women in sport and recreation

Sporting associations appear to collect limited membership data. While national associations tend to collect information about the sex, age and location of their members, there is an absence of information collected about the CALD status of participants. Netball Australia, Tennis Australia, Bowls Australia, Golf Australia and the Football Federation of Australia, for example, collect participant data but this does not include information about participants' ethnicity. Women's Bowls NSW and the Women's Soccer Federation of South Australia are state examples of organisations that collect membership data but do not include ethnicity information. The implications of sport associations collecting and reporting participant information is worthy of further research.

2.5 Summary and further issues

This data review and analysis has shown how ABS data is a key source of information about the participation of CALD women in sport and recreation. The data shows a gap in participation rates by gender and birthplace. A lower proportion of women born in countries other than the main English speaking ones participated in organised sport than their Australian or main English speaking born counterparts (ABS, 2005). When data includes both organised and unorganised sport, participation rates increase for CALD women, and the gender gap reduces (ABS, 2003).

Women from North Africa and the Middle East were significantly less likely to participate in sport or physical activity than their male counterparts, and less likely to be involved than women born elsewhere. Those not proficient in English were also less likely to participate than others. Finally, the General Social Survey data revealed that not only gender, birthplace and language spoken at home affect participation rates, but employment status, family type and geographic location are also influential factors.

While ABS data is clearly rich and critical to understanding CALD women's levels of participation in sport and recreation activities, small sample sizes make it difficult to disaggregate participation trends for discrete CALD communities at a cultural, ethnic, religious and geographic level. Other variables which may be useful to include in future data collections and reports are length of time in Australia, language spoken at home and other indicators of socio-economic status, such as income or education. Income and education data would help elucidate the relationship between CALD status and socio-economic factors in sport and recreation, while time in Australia and language data would help show how patterns of participation in sport might be

affected by the different cultural and economic circumstances of migrant women. Such a survey would require a sufficiently large sample of CALD women.

This section has also shown how ERASS provides useful data but does not currently include indicators of CALD status. Future reviews about the extent to which ERASS is meeting users' needs could discuss this point. Further, the section has shown that sport associations keep limited data about members' demographic characteristics. When participant data is recorded, surveys or membership records tend not to include indicators of CALD status.

3 CALD women's involvement in sport and recreation: exploring the literature

As the previous section has shown, available statistical data shows that women from culturally diverse backgrounds are significantly less likely to participate in sport and recreation activities than others. However, these data leave open important questions relating to the factors that constrain and facilitate involvement in sport and recreation for different groups of CALD women, and how programs and policies might support their participation. Research studies have attempted to explore these issues, in particular, the factors that shape participation and to determine ways to support CALD women in sport, providing qualitative and quantitative information that complements data arising from the large sample surveys analysed in Section 3.

3.1 Factors affecting involvement in sport and recreation

Research about participation in sport and recreation for the general population (not just CALD women) highlights an array of social, economic and cultural factors that intersect to facilitate and constrain participation. Commonly cited factors influencing the desire to participate include levels of awareness of opportunities, as well as levels of skill and ability. Factors identified as preventing participation for those who wish to begin or extend their involvement include time pressures, access problems such as transport, costs, and a lack of facilities (Tsai and Coleman, 1999: 244).

To better understand these influences, researchers have identified how factors may shape patterns of participation at different points:

- Firstly, factors may dampen or prevent the development of individual desire to participate;
- Secondly, factors may intervene to prevent participation despite the formation of individual preference to participate; and
- Thirdly, factors may hinder participants from participating to their desired levels, or may lead one to cease involvement (Tsai and Coleman, 1999:245).

These distinctions usefully problematise individual sporting choices, by acknowledging the existence of factors that may suppress or prevent any desire to participate. Moreover, they usefully acknowledge that one's desire to take up new activities, their actual participation, and their decisions to continue or discontinue their involvement may be subject to different influences (Tsai and Coleman, 1999: 243).

Another way to understand the factors affecting involvement in sport and recreation are to consider them in the categories of structural, mediating and personal factors. Collins et al. (1999: 26) uses these three sets of factors to understand participation in sport and leisure for United Kingdom based minority or special needs groups, including youth, the poor or unemployed, women, older people, ethnic minorities, and people with a disability. In that typology, structural factors relate to the availability and appropriateness of physical and social environments, such as facilities, transport and support networks. Mediating factors are considered to include organisational policies and social stereotypes, which might facilitate or impede participation. Personal factors included a lack of time, money, skills, fears about safety, and poor self-image. The factors Collins et al. considered to be most likely to affect the participation of ethnic minorities were labelling by society, feeling powerless and having a poor physical and social environment. Importantly, the analysis also pointed

out how the factors affecting exclusion in sport and leisure for ethnic minorities also shape the experiences of other groups.

Tsai and Coleman (1999) used a more detailed framework to understand the range of factors influencing male and female first generation Chinese immigrants' participation in sport and recreation in Australia. They concluded that barriers to participation fell into six groups:

- socio-cultural constraints (referring to racial and cultural based constraints and discomfort in certain social settings);
- access constraints (for example, lack of recreation provision, information, skills and transport);
- affective constraints (that is, lack of appeal and meaningfulness of certain activities);
- physiological constraints (that is, physical problems and age);
- resources constraints (for example, time and money);
- interpersonal constraints (for example, nobody to participate with).

Overall, Tsai and Coleman (1999) found that Chinese immigrants believed that resource and interpersonal constraints were the most important factors that affected their participation, whereas physiological constraints were the least important. Although perceived constraints differed according to whether one wished to take up a new sport or had recently reduced their involvement, there was no significant correlation in perceived constraints according to gender, length of time in Australia, financial status or age (Tsai and Coleman, 1999).

However, the supposed lack of correlation between gender and barriers to participation found by Tsai and Coleman (1999) is not replicated in other studies of leisure, sport or recreation. Of course, both men and women confront some similar barriers to participation in sport, such as language, organisational cultures and a lack of information. Indeed, many of the factors that shape CALD women's involvement in sport and recreation also tend to be shared with the wider female population, while some are also shared with CALD men. It is also important to note that while some factors arise consistently in studies of the constraints on CALD women's participation in sport and recreation, no study presents a definitive list. CALD women are a heterogeneous group living in different social, economic and cultural environments, and different facilitators and constraints will impact on participation in different ways in different contexts.

Indeed, it is important to note the complexity of the intersection between ethnicity and gender. Although migration can affect women's levels of participation in sport and the types of sports played, it is not migration per se that shapes women's experiences and patterns of participation. Experiences of different types of migration shape sport participation, and other factors, such as self-esteem can moderate these experiences (Yu and Berryman, 1996, cited by Taylor and Doherty, 2005). One example comes from Taylor (2004), who shows how the experiences of migrant women from English-speaking backgrounds in netball can differ to those of migrants from other countries. In that study, women migrants from English-speaking backgrounds were found to be

more effective in using sport as a pathway into other social networks. For them, sport offered to facilitate the development of new social networks and smooth the potentially dislocating experience of migration. Those from non-English backgrounds had more difficulties, especially where sports offered in Australia were different to those offered in their country of origin. These women tended to feel alienated, with any desire to participate being overshadowed by language difficulties and fear of rejection (Taylor, 2004).

Notwithstanding the complexity of women's experiences of migration, it is possible to discern some common themes relating to CALD women's participation in sport and recreation. Barriers relating specifically to CALD women's participation arising in the literature include time constraints, family responsibilities, the lack of appropriate facilities and programs, the absence of companions to attend with, a lack of finances, social and family pressures, negative school sports experiences, and a lack of information on sporting associations (Hanlon and Coleman, 2006; Taylor, 2001; Taylor and Toohey, 1997, 1998, 1999). In their study of the sport participation of recent adolescent immigrants to Canada, Taylor and Doherty (2005) found that gaining a sense of achievement from sport seemed more important for boys than girls, suggesting that girls may feel less rewarded for participating in sport.

The following section considers the range of barriers to CALD women's participation in sport documented in published studies. To do so it uses Tsai and Coleman's (1999) framework of socio-cultural, access, affective, physiological, resource and interpersonal constraints.

Socio-cultural factors

Socio-cultural constraints on participation in sport and recreation may be direct, such as being required to follow particular codes or traditions, and indirect, such as experiencing dissonance or discomfort in certain social settings. In part, such discomfort may come from being part of a minority group. McGinnis et al (2005) highlight how women's mere presence in the male dominated sport of golf made them feel overly visible and open to scrutiny and tokenism. Importantly however, socio-cultural barriers to participation tend to relate to the way sport is organised.

Socio-cultural constraints on participation include feeling different, standing out or having difficulties in communicating in mainstream social contexts; needing to fulfil family and cultural requirements; and the need for female-only coaches or sporting environments and flexible dress requirements (especially for Muslim women who wear a hijab (Keogh, 2002)). Further, even within a cultural group, different traditions and interpretations may produce unique sets of barriers to sport participation. Differences, for example, have been observed amongst Muslim women with more traditional or modern religious interpretations. In Walseth and Fasting's study (2003) for example, women wearing the *krimar* (which covers hair and chest) or *nikab* (also the face) found it more difficult to play sport compared to those wearing the hijab (which covers hair only).

It is important to note that many socio-cultural constraints faced by CALD women in sport are indirect rather than manifest in the form of direct racism. Indeed, qualitative research by Taylor (2002; 2004) for example found that CALD women in Australia tended not to feel they were directly discriminated against. Rather, they found formal leisure activities did not recognise their cultural requirements or were not welcoming,

making it difficult for them to participate. This has been confirmed in other research. Muslim women in one study for example (Taylor and Toohey, 2002) did not raise overt racial or religious discrimination as an issue affecting their participation. Rather, exclusion from sport and recreation tended to be informal and indirect and shaped by complex configurations of personal, cultural and institutional practices.

Taylor and Toohey's research with Muslim women in Australia (2002) highlights how socio-cultural factors can influence women's patterns of participation in sport and leisure. In that study, women described a need to negotiate ways to both fulfil cultural requirements and pursue their own leisure opportunities. Some of these women expressed how family expectations could constrain their choices (for example fathers preferring them to spend their leisure time at home). Factors relating to sporting programs and institutions were also important influences, with activities needing to be structured around religious requirements, such as having no males present, having activities appropriately timed, easing uniform or clothing restrictions and ensuring venues were appropriate.

Interestingly, socio-cultural barriers, such as not being able to participate in sports in ways that allow them to express their religious identity can facilitate a desire amongst women to participate in activities with others who share the same cultural, linguistic and religious background (Taylor and Toohey, 2002). This helps explain why some CALD women may prefer to take part in activities with people of the same background over formally organised sport and recreation outside their ethnic communities.²¹ Indeed, participation in sport and recreation activities with people from a similar background can be beneficial as it can express and maintain cultural identity:

Leisure activities that occur in the context of family and friendship groups with few social limitations serve to provide a supportive environment for the expression and transmission of subcultural identity, that is, the retention of certain core cultural or religious traits (Taylor and Toohey, 2002).

Further, attempts to maintain cultural traditions, language and customs can enrich women's leisure opportunities (Taylor and Toohey, 2002). However, the tendency to prefer participating in activities with people from a similar background may be misinterpreted as hostility or a lack of desire to conform to mainstream values and practices (Taylor and Toohey, 2002) and may do little to help facilitate broader social inclusion.

While cultural constraints are important in some contexts, these should not be assumed to be the most significant factors shaping CALD women's participation in sport and recreation. One study of 1800 women from CALD backgrounds (Taylor and Toohey, 1998), for example, found that the most common constraints amongst women were not related to their specific cultural needs, but instead to time constraints, not having a companion to attend with, family responsibilities, lack of information, lack of skills, and inappropriate facilities and programs.

²¹ A study of Canadian migrants showed girls' tendency to participate less in organised than informal sport (Taylor and Doherty, 2005: 231).

Access

Access relates to the provision and availability of recreation facilities, information, and transport. A lack of information and inappropriate facilities and programs arise repeatedly in the literature (eg Taylor and Toohey, 1998; Keogh, 2002). Transport has been highlighted as particularly important for CALD young people, who tend to rely on public transport because of a lack of parental support (Keogh, 2002).

Citing Campbell (1999), Kay (2003:111) highlights how sporting organisations and policy makers can improve access by improving the female-friendliness of sporting facilities. They recommend redesigning facilities around five core principles: ensuring girls and women feel *confident* using facilities on their own; that they feel safe and *comfortable* in the facility; that they can exercise *choice* about sporting activities; that facilities are *convenient* in terms of transport, timing, clothing and childcare; and that women are *consulted* about facility and program design. Provision of culturally appropriate childcare in sporting facilities, as well as transport, are means to overcoming access barriers.

Affective factors

Affective factors relate to how appealing and meaningful people consider certain activities. That CALD girls and women form an interest in sporting activities in the first place is obviously a critical pre-requisite for their participation. The role teachers and schooling environments play in facilitating equal access without invoking stereotypes has been noted as important (Taylor, 2004).

In terms of promoting desire amongst women, personalised forms of information, such as word of mouth have been identified as important for encouraging involvement. Other influential factors are providing full details about what is involved in participating and using facilities, and targeting publicity to the range of local amenities that CALD women are likely to frequent (Kay, 2003: 111). Indeed, Keogh (2002) points out how many ethno-specific organisations may not have full information about the sporting associations and clubs and services offered in their local areas.

There has also been some debate about the relationship between affective factors and other possible constraints on participation. In particular, there is debate about whether the appeal of a given activity is shaped by other factors. That is, whether other factors, such as having family responsibilities or transport problems may suppress one's desire to participate (Tsai and Coleman, 1999: 245; Henderson and Bialeschki, 1993). Research has, for example, identified how levels of desire to participate in sport can be influenced by a lack of awareness of opportunities and levels of skill and ability (Tsai and Coleman, 1999: 244).

Physiological factors

Physiological constraints on sport and recreation participation relate to physical problems and old age. Women's physical weakness, and their supposed need for preservation for childbearing, has historically been used to justify privileged white women's marginalisation from physical activity including sport and recreation (Park and Mangan, 2001; McCrone, 1988; Roth and Basow, 2004). However, while physiological factors do present barriers to some women's participation, these are unlikely to be unique to CALD women and do not emerge in documented studies of CALD women's perspectives.

Resource factors

Resource factors relate to socio-economic status, time and caring responsibilities. The inter-play between having the time and money to participate in sport and recreation should be considered. The unemployed, for example, may have more time than their working counterparts, yet, as noted in section 3.1, they are less likely to participate in sport and recreation. The financial expense of participation may be the primary barrier to participation for this group.²² Average annual costs of participation in organised sport or physical activities are estimated to be over \$650 for people aged 15 and over with many costs required to be paid up-front (Keogh, 2002). Migrants may find this particularly difficult if they face resettlement costs or are experiencing financial pressures or barriers to employment as a result of migration. As such, socio-economic factors such as costs as well as time may prevent participation even where people would prefer to participate (Tsai and Coleman, 1999: 244).

Barriers of time and money are recurring themes in studies of women and sport. Women's primary responsibility for child and elder care constrains their available income and time for leisure, thereby limiting their participation in sport and recreation (CCEH, 2006). Because of these structural factors, resource constraints on leisure participation are likely to differ between men and women. In the UK, a major reason cited by women from minority groups for not participating in sport was home and family responsibility, whereas for men it was work and study demands (cited by Walseth and Fasting, 2004). Indeed, women with children are less likely to participate in active leisure than those without (Miller and Brown, 2005), reflecting the impact of care on leisure time. In a more particular study of recreational women golfers in the United States, McGinnis et al (2005) found that wider socio-economic factors, such as the unequal distribution of work and leisure time affected women's participation, leading them to draw parallels between the factors shaping women's participation in sport and women's entrance into and experience in male-dominated occupations.

However, while resource constraints are likely to differ between women and men, they are also likely to impact unevenly on the participation and experiences of different groups of CALD women. Women from different cultural backgrounds may have different levels of family responsibility, with Walseth and Fasting (2004:113) speculating that family responsibilities may differ between minority women of different ages and between first and second generation immigrants (as migration may break extended-family care relationships). Indeed, factors such as migration experience as well as age, location and socio-economic status are likely to compound barriers to sport participation. One set of contrasting findings comes from a study of adolescent girls recently arrived in Canada, who were found *not* to perceive the amount of free time and money available as constraints on sport and recreation participation (Taylor and Doherty, 2005). Other studies show that affordability is important for CALD young people, especially those from refugee backgrounds or large families (Migrant Information Centre Eastern Melbourne, 2005).

²² It should be acknowledged that factors, such as disability, may also be a barrier.

Interpersonal factors

Interpersonal constraints on participation in sport and recreation, such as not having anybody to participate with, are strong themes arising from studies of the barriers to CALD women's participation in sport and recreation (Johnson, 2000). Social networks have been found to be important facilitators of CALD women's participation, and participation in activities with family and friends can offer supportive environments for the expression and transmission of identity (Taylor and Toohey, 2002). A survey of young female netball players found those from non-English speaking backgrounds nominated 'friends' as the main influence on their choice to play netball, and placed more emphasis on fun than respondents from non-English speaking backgrounds (Taylor, 2003). Interview data (Taylor, 2002) has also highlighted the importance of family, friends, ethnic and church groups to women's decisions about their leisure activities. Familiarity and the exchange of support from those with similar religious beliefs and values were important, as were informality and low cost. It is likely that the importance of family and friendship groups to CALD women is one reason they are more likely to participate in non-organised sport than organised sport, as the data in Section 3 shows.

Moreover, the social support that comes from playing with others in the same circumstances has been found to be important to participation. A study by McGinnis (2005) of women golfers in the United States found that the social support that women received while playing was critical to their continued involvement. Playing with other women offered a feeling of security, and difficulties in finding other women to play with acted to limit when and how often participants would play.

Social networks have similarly been found to be important both to CALD populations in general (men and women) (Tsai and Coleman, 1999) and to women specifically (McGinnis, 2005). However, one study of CALD adolescent women in Canada found that not having friends who participated was not a significant constraint on participation (Taylor and Doherty, 2005).

Indeed, age, lifecycle and family factors emerge as important interpersonal influences on CALD women's participation in sport. Mothers' involvement in sport and sporting organisations and their knowledge of particular sports and sporting systems has been found to influence both women's participation and the sports they encouraged daughters to play (Taylor, 2002). Children's friends can also take mothers outside their own communities and broaden their knowledge of sporting practices and opportunities (Taylor, 2002: 544).

3.2 Summary and issues for further research

Overall, this section has highlighted the range of factors that have been found to impact on CALD women's participation in sport and recreation activities. These include socio-cultural constraints (referring to racial and cultural based constraints and discomfort in certain social settings); access constraints (such as a lack of recreation provision, information, skills and transport); affective constraints (that is, a lack of appeal and meaningfulness of certain activities); physiological constraints (that is, physical problems and age); resources constraints (for example, time and money); and interpersonal constraints (such as not have anyone to participate with).

Of particular significance are subtle socio-cultural constraints on CALD women's participation which cause women to feel uncomfortable in sporting settings, and

which require change in how sport and recreation activities are organised and managed. Another theme of interest is the impact of interpersonal factors on CALD women's patterns of participation, including interpersonal and intergenerational relationships. Future research could focus more closely on how friendships and interpersonal networks impact on decision making and shape sport participation for different groups of CALD women, and which types of activities different groups see as attractive or unattractive and why. Teasing out the nuances and complexity of CALD women's experiences requires studies with large enough samples to explore differences amongst cultural groups in varying kinds of sport contexts.

4 Supporting CALD women in sport and recreation: policy and program initiatives

Tensions about diversity and conformity (or assimilation) underpin debates about whether and how policies and programs should seek to support CALD women in sport. Overarching questions exist, for example, as to whether interventions should aim to incorporate CALD women into existing sport structures, or to promote wider change in sporting institutions and cultures to enable CALD women to participate on their own terms. There are also tensions about what constitutes effective and appropriate means of intervening in this area, for example, which women or organisations to support, and which combination of policy levers to use, including financial support, organisational regulation, codes of practice, or media attention and recognition, for example. Walseth and Fasting (2004) question whether policies and programs should be directed to enhancing or altering people from minority groups' current patterns of participation. For Walseth and Fasting, evidence that minority women are less involved in organised club sport than unorganised activities (such as at a gymnasium or in parks) in the Netherlands and Norway raises questions about whether governments in those countries should continue to intervene by providing financially supported sporting organisations.

A key means of negotiating questions about policy and program approaches is to ensure interventions and initiatives for CALD women are grounded in evidence of what best addresses CALD women's sport and recreation needs and facilitates participation. Evaluative research evidence is necessary to determine the best approaches for overcoming socio-cultural, resource, interpersonal, access, and other barriers to participation in different circumstances. While there is still considerable research and evaluation required to determine how policies and programs can best support CALD women, the following review of approaches in Australia offers to guide the development of policy and program interventions to support CALD women in sport. As interventions in Australia tend to be small and fragmented, this is not an exhaustive review.

4.1 Initiatives in Australia

While few programs or policies have been rigorously evaluated, approaches have focused on providing information and promoting activities, developing sport and recreation organisations, establishing peer support and peer education initiatives, establishing activities, training and competitions for CALD women and, at a higher level, setting standards and establishing strategic frameworks.

Information and promotion

One approach to support CALD women's participation in sport and recreation is through the provision of information about opportunities and promotion of particular activities and issues. Womensport and the Centre for Multicultural Youth Issues in Victoria²³, for example, publish resources to support CALD participation. These

²³ The CMYI Multicultural Sport and Recreation Program aims to create a more responsive sports sector that is attuned to the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) young people, as well as increase access and participation in sport and recreation for CLD young people. The Program receives its funding from VicHealth and the Department of Victorian Communities.

include translated program resources, tip sheets for sport providers about how to engage young CALD women in sport and physical activity, tips for newly arrived young people to join a club, and tip sheets for coaches about the inclusion of culturally and linguistically diverse participants. Note also that in terms of promoting activities to CALD women, word of mouth, personal invitations and community radio were found to be effective strategies (VicHealth, 2000). Taylor and Toohey (1998) recommend distributing information about how to access activities at places of worship, specialty shops, community centres and retirement villages with large ethnic populations.

Organisational development

Another site for program and policy intervention is in organisations. Taylor's (2004) study of netball, for example, recommended directing change toward sporting organisations. She found sport administrators' perspectives reflected the organisational barriers to participation, as these administrators did not feel they needed to alter policy or practice to accommodate players from different cultural backgrounds, and that it would be too costly to implement diversity strategies (Taylor, 2004). Indeed, if clubs are doing well and have a strong membership base, they may not perceive a need to diversify to develop new networks or practices (Keogh, 2002), leaving inclusion to occur largely through chance rather than any direct planning (Taylor, 2004).

Taylor (2002) also found a degree of incongruence between rhetoric and practice in sporting organisations. She found that 72 per cent of sport associations saw themselves as open to cultural diversity, yet few of these (12 per cent) could cite specific policies that encouraged diversity in practice. Taylor found that soccer clubs were most likely to have policies in place (30 per cent), with softball the least likely (4 per cent). This suggests a tendency for sporting organisations to see themselves as open to diversity but failing to match this by putting structures in place.

Notwithstanding this critique, some more progressive clubs and associations have been found to actively promote the inclusion of CALD and other groups in their organisations and activities. In Victoria for example, grants and funding opportunities have increasingly focused on promoting under-represented groups, and progressive associations and clubs have taken up opportunities, such as the employment of a Participation Officer by Surf Life Saving Victoria (Keogh, 2002). Workforce development within sporting organisations, such as cross-cultural training and education about the benefits of becoming culturally inclusive offer to extend programs and interventions to support participation (CCEH, 2006:19). Hanlon and Coleman (2006) recommend that State Sporting Organisations, local government and cultural community groups more closely guide sport and recreation clubs in the development of policies and strategies targeted to specific cultures.

Peer support and peer education

Some programs have emphasised peer support and peer education as a means of supporting and enhancing CALD women's participation, while others highlight the importance of having activities facilitated by an instructor from the same cultural background (VicHealth, 2000). One example is the Queensland Government, which, in partnership with the Islamic Women's Association of Queensland Inc undertook a 13 month multi-strategy pilot project to enhance the physical activity of isolated Islamic women (Islamic Women's Association of Queensland Incorporated, 2003).

Titled 'Active Sisters!', the project effectively increased levels of physical activity among Islamic women by establishing a supportive recreation environment. Islamic women became peer-educators and increased their skills while establishing community physical activity programs, including a religiously appropriate personal-development program, swimming lessons and recreational swimming, local walking groups, peer-education and support (Islamic Women's Assoc of Qld Inc). The project report concluded that peer-support and peer-education are effective strategies to increase, establish and maintain activity programs, maintain participant engagement and increase community connections.

Activities, training and competitions for CALD women

A further approach is to establish activities, training and competition specifically for CALD women. The inclusion of a funding strand for culturally and linguistically diverse women under the Australian Sports Commission's 2006-07 Sport Leadership Grants for Women program offers to support such activities.

Sporting programs for CALD women have also been established in the states. In South Australia, for example, the Office for Recreation and Sport in collaboration with the South Australian Women's Soccer Association has conducted a soccer training and competition program with girls and women from non-English speaking backgrounds, targeting refugee girls and women in particular. The South Australian department has helped facilitate a 'Women's Only Swimming' program that targeted Muslim women and has broadened to target women from CALD backgrounds in general.

Indeed, swimming programs for Muslim women are common. These respond to a need amongst Muslim women to access women's only swimming facilities that provide privacy for swimming and changing clothes. New South Wales provides 'WimSWIM', a swimming program for women and girls from non-English speaking backgrounds, and swimming programs are also in place in Western Australia. An evaluation of a pilot swimming program for Afghan women in Eastern Perth found that the program addressed participants otherwise unmet need for privacy, while also promoting water skills and awareness (Di Francesco and Hansen, 2002). The evaluation recommended community ownership of future programs, partial subsidies for transport and childcare and improved collection of data for program monitoring. Similarly, in Victoria, a collaboration between the Migrant Information Centre (Eastern Melbourne) and the Network of Australian Muslim Women provided a "Swimming for Muslim Women" program which has also been evaluated (Migrant Information Centre, 2001).

In New South Wales, other programs have been conducted on a regional basis, including a Multicultural Women's Water Awareness Program for newly arrived refugees from Bosnia and Sudan; The Arabic Multi-Sport program, which provided culturally appropriate environments for girls to participate in activities including martial arts, soccer, swimming and basketball; and a Koori women's netball competition and netball camp. A Dance for Fitness for Arabic speaking women programs was also undertaken in Eastern Melbourne.

Critical ingredients for success in these programs included ensuring access (such as transport and childcare) and providing information about how to participate, as well as ensuring cultural sensitivity, such as reference to national, cultural and religious

calendars, like Ramadan (CCEH, 2006). Other suggestions include promoting 'come and try' days (CCEH, 2006) to broaden experiences of available sports. Taylor and Toohey (1998) also recommend linking programs for women to programs for children, or to provide childcare services to enable mothers of young children to participate.

Strategies, standards and policy frameworks.

A further approach to supporting CALD women's participation is in developing high level strategies, standards and frameworks, such as codes of practice. The UK Government, for example has a comprehensive strategy for achieving sport and physical activity objectives (Strategy Office, 2002). It also has in place a Strategy Framework for Women and Sport (UK Sport, 2005), as well as a standard to promote racial equality in local authority sport and leisure services (Sharma, 2004). This comprehensive framework of strategies and standards for equality in sport could be considered in an Australian context. Such targets are already being set in individual sporting contexts. Bowls Australia, for example, included a goal of determining an approach to promote the sport to Indigenous Australians, women and people from non-English speaking backgrounds in its 2005 to 2008 strategic plan. However, the strategies through which this plan is being implemented for CALD women are unclear.

4.2 Elements of good practice in supporting CALD women's participation

Across these initiatives and approaches, it is difficult to determine elements of good practice, because of the absence of comprehensive and rigorous program and policy evaluations. Notwithstanding, there are some recurring themes that offer suggestions as to possible directions, and the subsequent stages of this project will shed more light on these issues. Ensuring cultural appropriateness and family friendliness in sport and recreation facilities is important. Privacy, especially for swimming programs for CALD women, and relaxing uniform requirements in other sports are recurring themes. Creating an atmosphere that is non-threatening and where the emphasis is on social interaction rather than competition is also important.

Many programs have also documented the importance of having support from within ethnic communities and employing bilingual project officers who are members of target communities. Indeed, positive relationships and engagement with ethno-specific organisations or individuals from CALD communities has been identified as an ingredient of success (CCEH, 2006:14). Indeed, relationship building with CALD communities to overcome language and cultural barriers needs to be built into planning and timing of resources.

However, in pointing to these approaches, the priority is to develop evidence as to the effectiveness of various physical activity programs and policy initiatives that seek to engage people from CALD backgrounds. While current research shows that sport and recreation can help build inclusion and express cultural diversity and promote better social relations, a priority must be to develop the evidence base to more thoroughly establish best practice approaches for doing so.

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Appendix A

Potential benefits of sports participation

Personal benefits

Physical health
Stress management
Self-esteem
Academic performance
Sense of achievement, meaning and life satisfaction

Socio-cultural benefits

Social interaction and community strengthening
Reduced antisocial behaviour and crime
Promotion of ethnic and cultural harmony
Strengthening families
Promoting community involvement, pride and empowerment
Offering access for the disabled or disadvantaged
Promotes ethical behaviour models
National cohesion

Economic benefits

Cost-effective health prevention
Fit, productive workforce
Business growth
Reduces costs of crime
Tourism
Employment
International representation and influence

Adapted from Collins and Kay (2003:28-33)

Appendix B

Table B.1: Proportion of males and females playing organised sport by age, Australia, 2004

| | All players* | |
|-------------|-------------------|-----------------|
| | Female (per cent) | Male (per cent) |
| 15-24 | 32.7 | 42.4 |
| 25-34 | 22.4 | 33.4 |
| 35-44 | 17.9 | 24.7 |
| 45-54 | 15.3 | 19.6 |
| 55-64 | 15.8 | 17.8 |
| 65 and over | 15.0 | 20.0 |

*This includes players who also have non-playing roles

Source: Involvement in Organised Sport and Physical Activity, Australia, 2004.

Data from this Table is graphed in Figure 2.1.

Table B.2: Proportion of males and females involved in organised sport as non-players by age, Australia, 2004

| Age | Female (per cent) | Male (per cent) |
|-------------|-------------------|-----------------|
| 15-24 | 1.3 | 1.1 |
| 25-34 | 2.7 | 2.5 |
| 35-44 | 8.1 | 7.3 |
| 45-54 | 5.3 | 8.7 |
| 55-64 | 1.6 | 3.6 |
| 65 and over | 0.7* | 1.6 |

This includes those in non-playing roles only, and not those who are also players.

* Estimate has a relative standard error (RSE) of 25-50 per cent and should be used with caution

Source: Involvement in Organised Sport and Physical Activity, Australia, 2004.

Data from this table is graphed in Figure 2.2

Table B.3: Proportion of the population involved as players and non-players by birthplace, persons, Australia, 2004

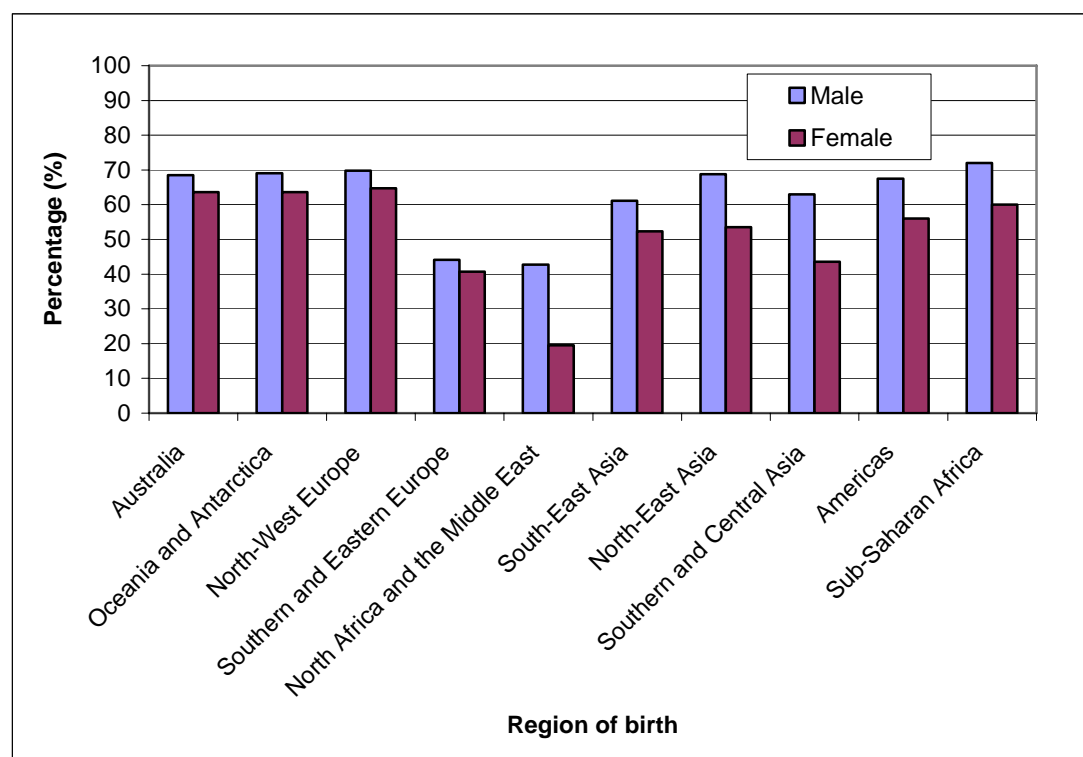
| | Born in Australia (per cent) | Born in other main English speaking country (per cent) | Born elsewhere (per cent) |
|------------------|---------------------------------|---|------------------------------|
| Organised Player | 31 | 27 | 12 |
| Non-player | 27 | 22 | 10 |
| | 11 | 9 | 3 |

Source: Involvement in Organised Sport and Physical Activity, Australia, 2004. Data from this table is graphed in Table 3.3.

Table B.4: Participation rates by sex and birthplace, Australia, 2002

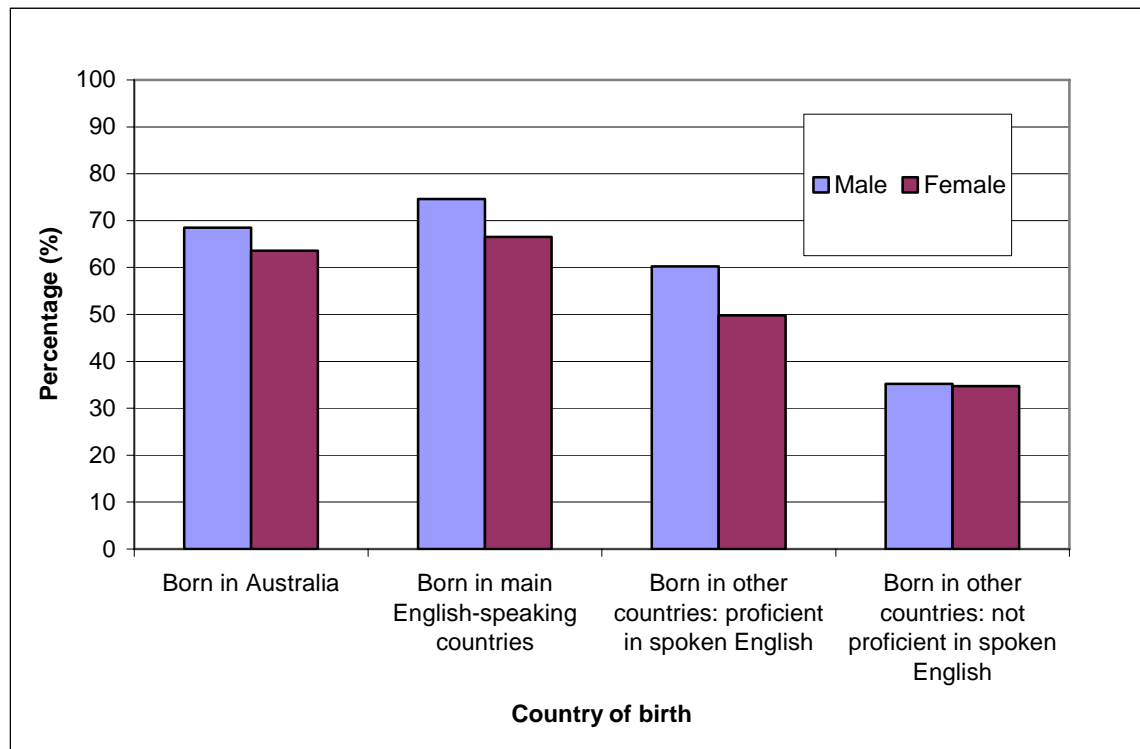
| | Males (per cent) | Females (per cent) | All (per cent) |
|---|---------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|
| Born in Australia | 66.6 | 62.2 | 64.4 |
| Born in main English speaking countries | 72.1 | 66.5 | 68.9 |
| Born in other countries | 54.2 | 45.8 | 50.2 |

Source: Participation in Sport and Physical Activities, Australia, 2002 (Cat. No. 4177.0)
Data from this Table is graphed in Figure 2.3

Figure B.1: Participation rates by sex and region of birth, Australia, 2002


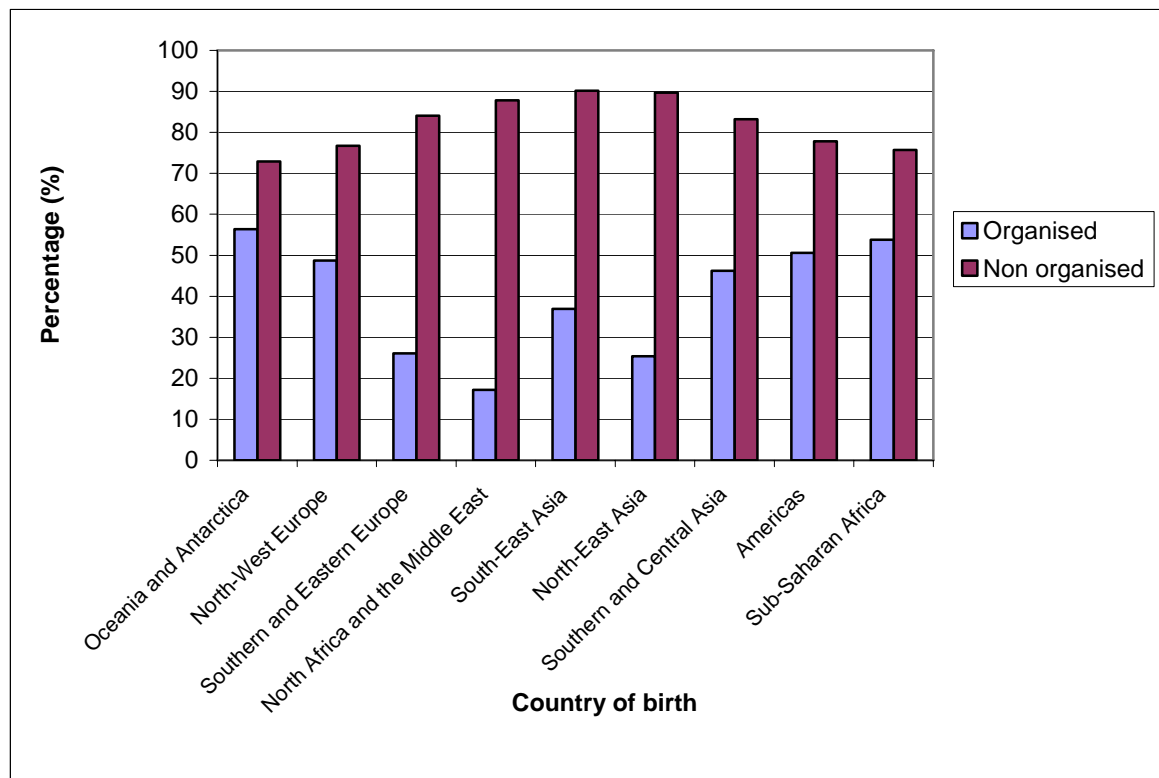
Source: Migrants and Participation in Sport and Physical Activity (ABS 2006b: 10). Data for this Figure is contained in Table 2.6.

Figure B.2: Participation rate by sex, country of birth, and language proficiency, Australia, 2002



Source: Migrants and Participation in Sport and Physical Activity (ABS 2006b: 10). Data from this Figure is contained in Table 2.7.

Figure B.3: Participation in organised/non-organised activity by country of birth



Source: Migrants and Participation in Sport and Physical Activity (ABS 2006b: 10). Data for this Table is contained in Table 2.8.

Table B.5: Participation rates by age and sex, Australia, ERASS

| Age | Male | Female |
|-------------|------|--------|
| 15-24 | 92.8 | 90.6 |
| 25-34 | 86.4 | 84.3 |
| 35-44 | 84 | 84.1 |
| 45-54 | 80.8 | 83.1 |
| 55-64 | 77.2 | 81.1 |
| 65 and over | 72.5 | 70.8 |

Source: ERASS. Note that the sample consists of persons aged 15 years and over (n=13,662). Data from this Table is graphed in Figure 2.6.