Authors' Contribution:
A Study Design
B Data Collection
C Statistical Analysis
D Data Interpretation
E Manuscript Preparation
F Literature Search
G Funds Collection

# Gender differences in motives for participation in sports and exercise among Norwegian adolescents 

<br>Faculty of Education and Arts, Nord University, Bodø, Norway

## abstract

Background: Drawing from the theories of self-determination, this study examined how intrinsic and extrinsic motives affect Norwegian adolescents' participation in organized sports and their stamina for exercising relative to gender. We also investigated which motives can predict exercising/training, and whether this is influenced by gender.

Material/Methods:
368 students (male, 51\%; female 49\%) aged between 16 and 18 years completed a standardized questionnaire "Motives for Physical Activity Measure - Revised (MPAM-R)" (by Ryan, Frederick, Lepes, Rubio \& Sheldon). The main effects were followed up using one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA). To analyze the relationship between the dependent variable "sustained exercise" and the independent variables "intrinsic motives", "gender", and "age", we conducted a multiple regression analysis.

Results: Our results showed that Norwegian girls have higher scores on intrinsic motives for sports participation than boys, and that boys have higher scores on more extrinsic motives. We also determined that girls are more active in organized sports and exercise more than boys.

Conclusions: Intrinsic motives, such as interest/enjoyment and competence, were found to influence sustained exercise in adolescents, but gender had no influence.

Key words: motives, sports, exercise, Norwegian, adolescents.

[^0]
## INTRODUCTION

Factors affecting young people's engagement in sports have attracted increasing research attention in recent years [1, 2]. This study investigates further how intrinsic motives affect participation in organized sports as well as stamina for exercising. It also aims to determine whether there are gender differences among Norwegian adolescents in these areas.

Most participants are intrinsically motivated for sports. People participate in sports more often due to intrinsic motives, such as enjoyment and interest rather than extrinsic goals [3, 4], while exercisers are more likely to be motivated by extrinsic motives, such as improving one's appearance. Contexts fostering autonomy and perceived competence enhance enjoyment and sustained motivation [1, 5, 7]. Sustained exercise is most likely when a person has both well-internalized extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation [8, 9, 10, 11, 12].

The motivation for engaging in sports and exercise extends beyond intrinsic motivation. People also have many extrinsic reasons for engaging in sports, from health reasons to a desire for recognition. Self-determination theory includes two broad classes of non-intrinsic motivation: extrinsic motivation, which is behavior motivated by expected outcomes not inherent to the activity itself, and amotivation, which is the lack of energy directed toward action or intention. People are typically viewed as having multiple motives, both extrinsic and intrinsic [13, 14, 15].

The optimal motivational function is achieved through the satisfaction of a person's needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. This is called the basic psychological needs theory. Cognitive evaluation theory describes the environmental contingencies that lead to the adoption of intrinsically- or extrinsically-motivated behavior. Lastly, the organismic integration theory identifies the quality of motivation on a scale of perceived locus of causality. These causalities are ranked from highly autonomous to highly controlling [10, 16, 17,18$]$.

The highest level of intrinsically motivated behavior includes activities people do only for enjoyment, pleasure, and fun and there are no rewards or discernible reinforcements involved [19,20]. Autonomous regulation is associated with action and maintenance of change for exercise [17, 21], exercise-related selfesteem [22], greater physical fitness [23, 24], more frequent self-reported exercise behavior [25], and more positive attitudes toward exercise [23, 24]. Perceived autonomy support from friends is positively associated with identified regulation and intrinsic motivation [25]. It has also been reported that perceived autonomy support from exercise instructors positively predicts relatedness, autonomy, competence need satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation [17]. Psychological need satisfaction is positively correlated with identified and introjected regulation and intrinsic motivation [23, 25, 26]. Competence need satisfaction and introjected and identified regulations positively predict strenuous exercise behavior, while external regulation is a more negative predictor of strenuous exercise behavior [27]. Competence need satisfaction also has both direct and indirect effects on behavioral investment [17]. The expectancy-value theory of motivation states that gender directly influences children's motivational beliefs and participation through gender role expectations and schemas [28]. Males report higher perceived
competence, value (interest and importance), and participation in organized sports than females [29,30]. Males are also more likely than females to have higher values and self-competence [31]. Additionally, age has been shown to be a predictor of participation in organized sports. Fifty-six percent of Norwegian adolescents are members of a sports club at age 14, while nearly $40 \%$ of the adolescents are members of a sports club at age 19 [32, 33].

No gender differences were found in organized sports participation among Norwegian adolescents [32]. However, in the same study girls also reported a higher amount of training during a week than boys - $80 \%$ of the girls compared to 70\% of the boys [32].

Men rate competition/excitement as their major reasons for participating in sports more frequently than women. On the other hand, women rate appearance as more important than men [34]. Men use sports as a tool for achieving popularity in society and among friends, while women participate in sports as a means of relaxation [35]. Male university students report higher levels of motivation than women for challenge, competition, social recognition, strength and endurance, enjoyment, fitness, skill development, and health pressure. Women rate weight management, appearance, and stress management as more important than men [36, 37]. Males tend to score higher than females on autonomous motivation, whereas females tend to report higher levels of controlled motivation [38, 39].

A study among British university students reported female gender to be a negative predictor of periods of moderate intensity exercise [39]. Male gender has been found to increase the likelihood of meeting physical activity guidelines [40]. The gender of sport is conspicuously masculine. Women in sport can be seen as the 'other sex' [41]. It is, therefore, important to study the gender differences in motives for participation in sport and exercise.

The aims of this study were to determine whether gender differences in sports motivation exist among Norwegian students between the ages of 16 and 18 at upper secondary schools, whether gender predicts participation in organized sports, and whether gender differences influence the amount of exercise/training during the week. It also sought to determine which motivating factors can predict exercising/training, and whether these are influenced by gender.

The hypotheses were as follows:

- H1: Male students are more intrinsically motivated and place higher values on sports than female students.
- H2: There are no gender differences in organized sports participation.
- H3: Female students exercise more than male students during a week.
- H4: There is a positive correlation between intrinsic motives and exercise/ training.
- H5: We also expect that gender (female) influences the amount of exercise/ training during a week.


## MATERIAL AND METHODS

## PARTICIPANTS

The participants were 368 upper secondary school students. A total of 186 male and 182 female students participated in the study (age 16 - 143 subjects; age $17-126$ subjects; and age $18-95$ subjects). Gender and age were the inclusion criteria. Two hundred and twenty of the included students held a membership in a sport club, and 148 did not. The ethnicity was native Norwegians.

## PRODECURE

The data were collected during one month in the spring of 2014. The language of the questionnaire was Norwegian. The questionnaire was translated into Norwegian and validated in an earlier study [42]. We collected the data at school during a Physical Education lesson.

## MEASURES

Participants' motives were assessed using the Motives for Physical Activity Measure - Revised (MPAM-R) [43]. The scale consists of 30 items assessing five different motives for participating in physical activities.

Fitness (5 items) refers to being physically active out of the desire to be physically healthy, strong, and energetic ("Because I want to be physically fit"). Appearance ( 6 items), assesses being physically active in order to become more physically attractive, to have defined muscles, and to achieve or maintain a desired weight ("Because I want to lose or maintain weight so I look better"). Competence ( 7 items ), refers to being physically active out of the desire to improve at an activity, to meet a challenge, or to acquire new skills ("Because I like engaging in activities that physically challenge me"). Social motives ( 5 items) refer to being physically active in order to spend time with friends and meet new people ('Because I enjoy spending time with others doing this activity"). Interest/enjoyment ( 7 items ) measures being physically active because it is fun, makes the person happy, and is interesting, stimulating, and enjoyable ("Because I like the excitement of participation").

The questions are rated on a 7-point Likert scale, from one (not at all true for me) to 7 (very true for me). We also registered total physical activity (training) during a week.

## ANALYSIS

The data were analyzed using SPSS (Version 20.0). In the section describing the sample, one-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were applied to determine sample differences. Significant main effects were also followed up using ANOVAs. Effect sizes were reported using Cohen's d and eta-square $\eta^{2}$. Cohen defined effect sizes as "small, $d=.2$," "medium, $d=.5$," and "large, $d=.8$ " [44].

To analyze the relationship between the dependent variable „sustained exercise" and the independent variables "intrinsic motives", "gender", and "age", we constructed a multiple regression analysis.

## RESULTS

## PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS

Data were screened according to the recommendations of Hair Jr, Black, Babin and Anderson [45]. Examination of the assumptions associated with regression analyses (homoscedasticity, linearity, and normality) suggests that there were no particular problems in the data. Both homoscedasticity and linearity assumptions were tenable.

To explore whether the data were marked by multicollinearity, both tolerance and variance inflation were examined. No problems were found, since the obtained values were within acceptable values [45].

## RELABILITY ANALYSIS AND DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Internal consistency estimates (Cronbach's alpha) of the MPAM-R subscales were computed. The reliability analyses indicated that the internal consistency coefficients were good. All coefficients were greater than 0.86 for all multiitem scales (Table 1).

Table 1. Mean, standard deviations and internal consistency estimates (Cronbach's alpha) of the MPAM-R subscales

|  | N | Mean | Std. Error | Std. Deviation | $\alpha$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Interest/enjoyment | 352 | 5.33 | .08 | 1.50 | .94 |
| Competence | 358 | 5.32 | .08 | 1.45 | .95 |
| Fitness | 359 | 5.38 | .07 | 1.38 | .90 |
| Social | 359 | 4.36 | .08 | 1.42 | .86 |
| Appearance | 357 | 4.12 | .09 | 1.63 | .90 |
| Valid N | 333 |  |  |  |  |

## DIFFERENCES BETWEEN BOYS AND GIRLS WITH REGARD TO MOTIVES FOR PARTICIPATION IN SPORT

Both boys and girls seem to score high on intrinsic motives, such as "interest/ enjoyment" and "competence". They also scored high on "fitness", which is an extrinsic motive. Both groups showed a low score on "appearance". The last motive, "social", also had a relatively low score in both groups. Statistically significant differences existed between the two groups at the $5 \%$ level in "interest/enjoyment" and "appearance". Girls received higher scores on "interest/enjoyment" ( $5 \%$ level, $\eta^{2}=.01$ and $d=.2$ ), while the boys received the highest scores on appearance ( $5 \%$ level, $\eta^{2}=.02$ and $d=.14$ ). "Competence", in which the girls scored higher than the boys, was also close to being significantly different at the $5 \%$ level (sign .067).

## DIFFERENCES IN ORGANIZED SPORTS PARTICIPATION BETWEEN BOYS AND GIRLS

The organized sports participation score was high. Two hundred twenty (60\%) of the students reported that they participated in organized sports. The girls (122; $67 \%$ ) were found to participate more than the boys ( $98 ; 53 \%$ ). The difference was significant at the $1 \%$ level ( $\eta^{2}=.02$ and $d=.3$ ).

## DIFFERENCES BETWEEN BOYS AND GIRLS IN EXERCISING/ TRAINING DURING A WEEK

There was a small difference in exercising/training between boys and girls. The girls were found to exercise more than the boys (Table 2). $51 \%$ of the girls exercised more than 9 hours a week, while only $42 \%$ of boys reported the same amount of exercise. The difference was significant at the $1 \%$ level.

Table 2. Crosstab between physical activity during a week and gender

| Gender | Physica activity during a week |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 3 hours <br> or less | $4-6$ <br> hours | $7-9$ <br> hours | $10-12$ <br> hours | $13-15$ <br> hours | 16 hours <br> or more |  |
| Male | 31 | 48 | 28 | 32 | 16 | 31 | 186 |
|  | $16.7 \%$ | $25.8 \%$ | $15.1 \%$ | $17.2 \%$ | $8.6 \%$ | $16.7 \%$ | $100.0 \%$ |
| Female | 25 | 37 | 27 | 40 | 32 | 20 | 181 |
|  | $13.8 \%$ | $20.4 \%$ | $14.9 \%$ | $22.1 \%$ | $17.7 \%$ | $11.0 \%$ | $100.0 \%$ |
| Total | 56 | 85 | 55 | 72 | 48 | 51 | 367 |
|  | $15.3 \%$ | $23.2 \%$ | $15.0 \%$ | $19.6 \%$ | $13.1 \%$ | $13.9 \%$ | $100.0 \%$ |

## REGRESSION ANALYSIS

One hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine how extrinsic and intrinsic motives and gender predict the variable exercising/training during the week. As shown in Table 3, the only motives that had an effect on exercise/ training were the intrinsic motives interest/enjoyment and competence. These were significant at the $5 \%$ level. Gender had no effect on the model. The explained variance for the model was $21 \%$.

Table 3. Hierarchical regression analysis on how extrinsic and intrinsic motives and gender predict the variable exercising/training during the week

|  | $\beta$ | t | Cl |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Constant |  | $2.10^{*}$ | $[.0451, .418]$ |
| Interest/enjoyment | .28 | $2.55^{*}$ | $[.070, .544]$ |
| Competence | .24 | $2.19^{*}$ | $[.028, .519]$ |
| Appearance | -.05 | -.75 | $[-.181, .081]$ |
| Fitness | -.04 | -.47 | $[-.248, .152]$ |
| Social | -.00 | .02 | $[-.158, .161]$ |
| Gender | -.01 | -.21 | $[-.359, .289]$ |
| R $^{2}$ | .21 |  |  |
| F | 15.64 |  |  |

## DISCUSSION

The current study examines whether gender differences exist in sports motivation among Norwegian secondary school students between the ages of 16 and 18 years. It also examines gender differences as a predictor for participation in organized sports and whether there are differences between boys and girls in the amount of exercising/training during a week. Finally, it examines which motives can predict the amount of exercise/training during a week and whether gender influences this.

As expected, both boys and girls had a high score on intrinsic motivation for exercising/training. Interest/enjoyment and competence were the two motives with the highest scores. Gender is an aspect of our society which affects the daily lives of individuals, including their interests. Some studies have indicated that women are more motivated to participate in sport by intrinsic motives rather than extrinsic motives [46]. Intrinsic and extrinsic motives play a role in the kinds of sports an individual participates in [43]. Research integrates the findings of Ryan et al. [43] on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation with the differences in motivation based on gender. Studies have found that men are more likely to be motivated by intrinsic factors than women [24]. In a Brazilian study, it was found that the motivation to exercise appears to have different origins in each gender, with women displaying greater motivation to exercise in order to lose or maintain their weight, while men are more likely to participate in exercise and sports due to social and competitive factors related to vigor [47]. This study, found that girls had significantly higher scores on the intrinsic motive interest/enjoyment, and boys had significantly higher scores on the extrinsic motive appearance. In addition, the intrinsic motive competence nearly had significant differences between the boys and girls, with girls showing a slight advantage.

Internationally, boys have consistently reported more activity than girls [48]. However, it is informative to examine the gender differences in physical activity in the context of exercise intensity. For daily vigorous physical activity, the average gender gap has been substantial. In contrast, the average gender difference for moderate-intensity physical activity is quite modest. This indicates that boys and girls do not differ markedly with respect to daily participation in moderate physical activity, and that the majority of the gender gap in overall physical activity is accounted for by low participation of girls in vigorous-intensity activities [48]. Additionally, a Norwegian study reported that there were no gender differences in organized sports participation [21]. In this study, it is found that there was a significant difference in favor of the girls among the 220 students who participated in organized sports. Based on a previous Norwegian study, it was hypothesized that girls exercise more than boys during a week [32] despite the fact that other studies have reported that gender is a negative predictor of physical activity. However, females are less likely to participate in exercise/sports than men [39, 40, 47]. In this study, a gender difference was found regarding the amount of exercise performed during a week. This difference supports our hypothesis that girls exercise more during a week than boys. The reasons why there are differences between Norway and Britain/USA is hard to explain. The most obvious reason is cultural differences between the countries in women's liberation.

It is also known from earlier studies that intrinsic motives dominate the reasons for sustained exercise among both men and women. Therefore, it was hypothesized that there was a positive correlation between intrinsic motives and exercise/training, but also expected that gender (male) would explain sustained exercise [8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 16, 49] Also in this study, it was found that intrinsic motives, such as competence and interest/enjoyment influenced sustained exercise, while gender had no influence on the amount of exercise performed during a week.

## CONCLUSIONS

Girls had high scores on intrinsic motives for sports participation, while boys had high scores on more extrinsic motives. This led to rejection of the hypothesis that male students are more intrinsically motivated and place higher values on sports than female students. A possible explanation for this could be cultural differences in gender roles between the Scandinavian countries and the countries in which earlier studies have been conducted.

It was also determined that girls are more active in organized sports and exercise more than boys. This required rejecting the hypotheses that there are no gender differences in organized sports participation. The null hypothesis can be replaced with an alternative hypothesis that girls are more active in organized sports than boys. Finally, it was determined that intrinsic motives, such as interest/enjoyment and competence influenced sustained exercise, while gender had no influence. This maintains the hypothesis regarding the correlation between intrinsic motives and exercise and rejects the hypothesis that gender (women) can explain the amount of weekly exercise.

There are several limitations of the study. The participants are all students, they are between 16 and 19 years old and most of them hold a membership in a sport club. Generalization to other groups can be problematic. The fact that women's liberation possibly has come a long way in Scandinavia makes it difficult to compare with countries outside of Scandinavia. On the other hand, the study can provide new knowledge about gender differences in motivation for sport and physical activity.

The results indicate that promotion of physical activity should be differentiated more between men and women. More of the promotion should be aimed at men.

## REFERENCES

[1] Hagger MS, Chatzisarantis NLD, Culverhouse T, Biddle SJH. The processes by which perceive autonomy support in physical education and promotes leisure-time physical activity intentions and behavior: A trans-contextual model. J Educ Psychol. 2003;(95):784-795.
[2] Sarrazin PG, Boiche JCS, Pelletier LG. A Self-Determination Theory approach to dropout in athletes. In: Hagger MS, Chatzisarantis NLD, editors. Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in exercise and sport. Champaign IL: Human Kinetics; 2007, 229-242.
[3] Vallerand RJ, Losier GF. An integrative analysis of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in sport. J Appl Sport Psychol. 1999;11(1):142-169.
[4] Verloigne M, De Bourdeaudhuij I, Tanghe A, et.al. Self-determined motivation towards physical activity in adolescents treated for obesity: An observational study. Int J Behav Nutr Phys Activ. 2011;8:97. doi: 10.1186/1479-5868-8-97.
[5] Chatzisarantis, N. L. D., Hagger, M. S., Biddle, S. J. H., Karageorghis, C. The cognitive processes by which perceived locus of causality predicts participation in physical activity. Journal of Health Psychology. 2002;7(6):685-699.
[6] Hagger MS, Armitage CJ. The influence of perceived loci of control and causality in the theory of planned behavior in a leisure-time exercise context. J Appl Behav Res. 2004;9(1):45-64.
[7] Hagger MS, Chatzisarantis NLD, Harris J. The process by which relative autonomous motivation affects intentional behavior: Comparing effects across dieting and exercise behaviors. Motivation and Emotion. 2006;30(4):307-321.
[8] Duncan LR, Hall GR, Wilson PM, Jenny O. Exercise motivation: a cross-sectional analysis examining its relationships with frequency, intensity, and duration of exercise. Int J Behav Nutr Phys Activ. 2010;7:1-7.
[9] Ryan RM, Deci EL. Active human nature. In: Hagger MS, Chatzisarantis NLD, editors, Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in exercise and sport. Champaign IL: Human Kinetics; 2007, 1-20.
[10] Ryan RM, Deci EL. An overview of Self-Determination Theory: An organismic-dialectical perspective. In: Deci EL , Ryan RM, editors, Handbook of self-determination research. Rochester, N.Y.: University of Rochester Press; 2002, 3-37.
[11] Smith AL, Ntoumanis N, Duda JL, Vansteenkiste M. Goal striving, coping, and well-being: A prospective investigation of the self-concordance model in sport. J Sport Exerc Psychol. 2011;33(1):124-145.
[12] Lonsdale C, Sabiston CM, Taylor IM, Ntoumanis N. Measuring student motivation for physical education: Examining the psychometric properties of the Perceived Locus of Causality Questionnaire and the Situational Motivation Scale. Psychol Sport Exerc. 2011;12(3):284-292. doi: 10.1016/j. psychsport.2010.11.003
[13] Ryan RM, Connel JP. Perceived locus of causality and internalization: Examining reason for acting in two domains. Contem Educ Psychol. 1989;25:54-67.
[14] Edmunds J, Ntoumanis N, Duda JL. Perceived autonomy support and psychological need satisfaction in exercise. In: Hagger MS, Chatzisarantis NLD, editors. Intrinsic motivation and Self-Determination in exercise and sport. Champaign IL: Human Kinetics; 2007, 35-53.
[15] Markland D, Ingledew DK. Exercise participation motives. In: Hagger MS, Chatzisarantis NLD, editors. Intrinsic motivation and Self-Determination in exercise and sport. Champaign IL: Human Kinetics; 2007, 23-34.
[16] McLachlan S, Hagger MS. Do people differentiate between intrinsic and extrinsic goals for physical activity? J Sport Exerc Psychol. 2011;33:273-288.
[17] Bagoien TE, Halvari H. Autonomous motivation: Involvement in physical activity and perceived sport competence: Structural and mediator models. Percept Motor Skil. 2005;100:3-21.
[18] Hagger MS, Chatzisarantis NLD. Advances in Self-Determination Theory research in sport and exercise. Psychol Sport Exerc. 2007;8(5):597-599.
[19] Landry JB, Solomon M. African American women's self-determination across the stages of change for exercise. J Sport Exerc Psychol. 2004;(26):457-469.
[20] Wilson KB, Rodgers WM. The relationship between perceived autonomy support, exercise regulations and behavioral intentions in women. Psychol Sport Exerc. 2004;(5):229-242.
[21] Stanley DM, Cumming J, Standage M, Duda JL. Images of exercising: Exploring the links between exercise imagery use, autonomous and controlled motivation to exercise, and exercise intention and behavior. Psychol Sport Exerc. 2012;13(2):133-141. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2011.10.002.
[22] Wilson PM, Rodgers WM, Blanchard CM, Gessell J. The relationship between psychological needs, selfdetermined motivation, exercise attitudes, and physical fitness. J Appl Soc Psychol. 2003;33(11):23732392.
[23] Wilson KB, Rodgers WM, Fraser SN. Examining the psychometric properties of the behavioral regulation in exercise questionnaire. Measur Phys Educ Exerc Sci. 2002;(6):1-21.
[24] Stuart J. Enjoyment based motivation and enjoyable exercise experience in Generation Y sample: A mixed methods approach. (Master of Science Master), Georgia Southern University; 2013.
[25] Jakobsen AM. Are there differences in motives between participants in individual sports compared to team sports? Lase J Sport Sci. 2014:5(2):32-43.
[26] Wingfield A, Eccles JS. Expectancy-value theory of achievment motivation. Contemp Educ Psychol. 2000;25:68-81.
[27] Eccles JS, Harold RD. Gender differences in sport involvement: Applying the Eccles' expectancy value model. J Appl Sport Psychol. 1991;3:7-35. doi: 10.1080/10413209108406432.
[28] Fredricks JA, Eccles JS. Children's competence and value beliefs from childhood through adolescence. Growth trajectories in two male-sex-typed domains. Develop Psychol. 2002; 38:519-533. doi: 10.1037/0012-1649.38.4.519.
[29] Dawes NP, Vest A, Simpkins S. Youth participation in organized and informal sports activities across childhood and adolescence: Exploring the relationships of motivational beliefs, developmental stage and gender. J Youth Adolesc. 2014;43:1374-1388. doi: 10.1007/s10964-013-9980-y.
[30] Seipell Ø, Strandbu Å, Sletten MA. Ungdom og trening, Endring over tid og sosiale skillelinjer. In: NOVA, editor, 2011;3:115. Norwegian.
[31] Synovate. Rapport Barn og Ungdom. Synovate; 2009. Norwegian.
[32] Koivula N. Sport participation: differences in motivation and actual participation due to gender typing. J Sport Behav. 1999;22:1-13.
[33] Kondric M, Sindik J, Furjan-Mandic G, Schiefler B. Participation motivation and student's physical activity among sport students in three countries. J Sport Sci Med. 2013;12(1):10-18.
[34] Kilpatrick M, Hebert E, Bartholomew J. College students' motivation for physical activity: Differentiating men's and women's motives for sport participation and exercise. J Am Coll Health. 2005;54(2):87-94.
[37] Rintaugu EG, Ngetich EDK. Motivational gender differences in sport and exercise participation among university sport science students. J Phys Educ Sport. 2012;12 (2):180-187.
[38] Jakobsen AM, Elbe AM. A cross-cultural comparison of fitness center members' motivation for training in Norway and India. Int J Soc Sci. 2015;4(10):15-27.
[39] Standage M, Sebire SJ, Loney T. Does exercise motivation predict engagement in objectively assessed bouts of moderate-intensity exercise?: A Self-Determination Theory perspective. J Sport Exerc Psychol. 2008;30:337-352.
[40] Martin SB, Morrow JR, Jackson AW, Dunn AL. Variables related to meet the CDC/ACSM physical activity guidelines. Med Sci Sport Exerc. 2000;32:2087-2092.
[41] Pfister G. Women in sport - gender relations and future perspectives. Sport in Society Cultures, Commerce, Media, Politics. 2010;13(2):234-248
[42] Brislin RW. The wording of translation of research instruments. In: Lonner WJ, Berry JW, editors. Field methods in cross-cultural research. Beverly Hills: Sage; 1986, 137-164.
[43] Ryan RM, Frederick CM, Lepes D, Rubio N, Sheldon K. Intrinsic motivation and exercise adherence. Int J Sport Psychol. 1997;(28):335-354.
[44] Cohen J. Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences (2nd ed.), New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1988, retrieved 10 July 2010.
[45] Hair Jr JF, Black WC, Babin BJ, Anderson RE. Multivariate data analysis (7th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall; 2009.
[46] Colley A, Berman E, Millingen LV. Age and gender differences in young people's perceptions on participants. J Appl Soc Psychol. 2005;35(7):1440-1454.
[47] Trost SG, Pate RR, Sallis JF, et al. Age and gender differences in objectively measured physical activity in youth. Med Sci Sport Exerc. 2002;34 (2):350-355 doi: 0195-9131/02/3402-0350/\$3.00/0.
[48] Van Mechelen WJ, Twisk WR, Post GB, Snel J, Kemper HCG. Physical activity of young people: the Amsterdam longitudinal growth and health study. Med Sci Sport Exerc. 2000;32:1610-1616.

Cite this article as:
Jakobsen AM, Evjen E.
Gender differences in motives for participation in sports and exercise among Norwegian adolescents.
Balt J Health Phys Act. 2018;10(2):92-101.
doi: 10.29359/BJHPA.10.2.10


[^0]:    article details
    Article statistics: Word count: 2,744; Tables: 3; Figures: 0; References: 48
    Received: May 2017; Accepted: April 2018; Published: June 2018
    Full-text PDF: http://www.balticsportscience.com
    Copyright © Gdansk University of Physical Education and Sport, Poland
    Indexation: Celdes, Clarivate Analytics Emerging Sources Citation Index (ESCI), CNKI Scholar (China National Knowledge Infrastructure), CNPIEC, De Gruyter - IBR (International Bibliography of Reviews of Scholarly Literature in the Humanities and Social Sciences), De Gruyter - IBZ (International Bibliography of Periodical Literature in the Humanities and Social Sciences), DOAJ, EBSCO - Central \& Eastern European Academic Source, EBSCO SPORTDiscus, EBSCO Discovery Service, Google Scholar, Index Copernicus, J-Gate, Naviga (Softweco, Primo Central (ExLibris), ProQuest - Family Health, ProQuest - Health \& Medical Complete, ProQuest - Illustrata: Health Sciences, ProQuest - Nursing \& Allied Health Source, Summon (Serials Solutions/ProQuest, TDOne (TDNet), Ulrich's Periodicals Directory/ulrichsweb, WorldCat (OCLC)
    Funding: This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.
    Conflict of interests: Authors have declared that no competing interest exists.
    Corresponding author: Dosent Arne Martin Jakobsen, Nord universitet, Postboks 1490, 8049 Bodø, phone no.: +47 997 39 805; e-mail: arne.m.jakobsen@nord.no
    Open Access License: This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Non-commercial 4.0 International (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/), which permits use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited, the use is non-commercial and is otherwise in compliance with the license.

