

Attitudes on gender equality in soccer among primary and secondary students in Santiago de Chile

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Abstract:

The popularity of women's football has grown in recent years, despite the lack of resources and prestige that women footballers receive in comparison to men. The objectives of this research were to determine the psychometric properties of the *Attitudes towards gender equality in football in the school context scale* in a sample of students in Chile and to determine differences according to gender and primary/secondary education. The tool was applied to 749 students, with a mean age of 15.0±1.8 years, 57.9% of whom were female. The results show that the instrument is valid and reliable to be applied to students in the sample. When comparing by sex, females have higher scores in aspects related to equality in football practice, while males have higher scores in aspects that denote male superiority in football. The same situation occurred when comparing primary and secondary school students, with a more egalitarian attitude towards the practice of football among secondary school students. It can be pointed out that the objectives of the study were achieved and the scale presents adequate validity and reliability indexes to be used in the sample, so its use is recommended. It should be noted that sport itself is a means of working on different skills, not only linked to performance or physical qualities, but also others such as teamwork, empathy, perseverance, etc. As a projection of the research, carry it out longitudinally, to see how these attitudes evolve over time and relate it to other sociodemographic variables, to determine what characteristics could be influencing these attitudes in the sample.

Key Words: perception, sport, school, sexism.

Introduction

Throughout history, professional football has been a sport developed predominantly by men. This has led to various situations when it comes to establishing and formalising the sport for women at a competitive and professional level in the world, leading to the implementation of different actions and measures on gender issues (Nuhrat, 2021). For many years there has been an exclusion of women in sports (Rodriguez et al., 2005), also showing a lack of resources and prestige that women footballers receive in comparison to men (Pfister, 2015). For Torradeflot & Solanellas (2022) there is a need to optimise the incorporation of women in the practice of football and they highlight the importance of schools in establishing initiatives for its practice. Ribalta (2010) points out that there is a hidden educational and social curriculum that transmits beliefs, languages and expectations. In this context, Salazar (2016) indicates that there are no development programmes in the school environment that encourage girls and female adolescents to play football.

Gil & Contreras (2003) point out that boys and girls up to the age of 11-12 years participate and are motivated to practice physical activity and sports, specifically in Physical Education class; however, this interest disappears as they get older (Biddle, et al., 2004), which could be explained by the socialisation of the gender role for social and cultural reasons (Hamzeh, 2007). In this context, Marambio et al. (2020) studied the levels of physical activity in and out of school in 318 schoolchildren between 7 and 14 years old, showing that boys practice more physical activity on Saturdays than girls ($p=0.001$), with girls preferring dancing and boys football. Petracovschi et al. (2021) conducted a study applying football games to twenty 13-year-old schoolchildren in mixed physical education classes over 7 months in Romania, a country with an education system that separates boys and girls for physical education classes. The authors sought to demonstrate that it is possible to develop mixed activities in physical education and that, after puberty, boys' motives for choosing a

partner in physical education class are based on motor skills rather than gender. They conclude that the motives for choosing to work in pairs in football games depended on sports skills and physical development. Similar results were obtained by Cárcamo et al. (2021) who investigated gender stereotypes in physical education in 4th and 5th-grade primary school children (aged 8 to 10 years) in two Colombian schools. To do so, they conducted a semi-structured recorded interview, obtaining differences between boys and girls concerning their perception of their physical abilities and the importance given to the subject, as well as evidence of the presence of stereotypes that guide the choice of activities and the use of school facilities. Another study, conducted by Rodríguez and Miraflores (2018), in the context of gender equality, implemented a proposal to adapt football norms and rules for physical education classes for students in the 2nd year of Compulsory Secondary Education (ESO). The authors conclude that a high level of teacher preparation is vital to promote and correct students' attitudes, seeking the value dimension of gender equality. Cabañero & Velásquez (2018) showed that gender and federated football influence fair play, the desire to win and gender equality. In addition, it reflects that males are more prone to behaviours contrary to fair play, result-oriented and with a more negative perspective towards women in football. Solar (2009) shows that multiple gender relations limit the development of girls in football classes. However, some girls present resistance to the hegemonic model that causes discomfort and opposition to different situations in girls. The author concludes that it is possible to observe in pre-sports, that boys usually maintain a leading role, intervening more in the activities, marginalising, reproaching and pressuring girls to a secondary role, represented in whether the observed performance contributes or not to the team, affecting the girls' learning. Chacón et al. (2016) studied the relationship between sports practice and gender in 818 primary school students in Spain. The results showed significant differences ($p < 0.001$) in the practice of individual non-contact sports, where girls obtained greater participation compared to boys. The opposite situation was found for collective contact sports, where boys showed greater participation, where, in general, priority was given to federated teams, secondly to extracurricular activities and lastly to leisure activities in the company of friends. In addition, boys showed a higher level of sports practice, frequency and longer sessions compared to girls. The authors' conclusion is to promote measures and intervention plans that contribute to equalise sport practice regardless of gender. Another study by López et al. (2012) on gender differences, and attitudes towards physical activity and sport in 800 students aged 11-17 years showed significant differences ($p < 0.001$) between the perception of motor competence by gender, with a higher mean for boys. The same situation was found when comparing the scale of perceived usefulness and value, with boys showing a higher mean than girls ($p = 0.003$). The authors conclude that actions and training interventions should be carried out to promote gender equality in physical-sports activities in primary and secondary schools.

In terms of professional sports, there is an increase in the number of female players, associated with the level of professionalisation and success of women's sports (Fink, 2015), where one of the main objectives is to optimise performance along with the well-being of female athletes (Emmonds et al., 2019). Globally, the popularity of women's football has increased, shown by the fact that in 2019 the the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) indicates that 73% of associations have an active adult women's national team, a much higher proportion than in 2015, where only 55% of adult teams participated (FIFA, 2019). Currently, approximately 13 million women are playing organised football and this number is expected to increase to 60 million by 2026 (FIFA, 2019). Particularly in Chile, women's football has experienced a progressive development, achieving an adherence of 9,000 female players playing organised football, of which 870 adult female players and 870 players under 18 years of age federated to clubs belonging to the national league in Chile are registered (FIFA, 2019). In this regard, the report presented by the National Association of Women's Football Players (ANJUFF), indicates that only 51% of the players in the Chilean national football league receive a monthly salary while 43% of the players play football and study at the same time, then 28% play football and work at the same time, 19% of the players play football, study and work at the same time and finally only 10% only play football (Rojas, 2021). This is important to note, given that there is still much to be developed in terms of the professionalisation of the Chilean women's football league (Rojas, 2021).

Undoubtedly, in recent years women have had greater prominence in different areas, but there are still limitations and a lack of support in the area of sports and the promotion of more inclusive physical activity. Based on the above background, the objectives of this research are the following; a) to determine the psychometric properties of the *Attitudes towards gender equality in football in the school context scale* in the city of Santiago de Chile; b) to determine the differences in attitudes towards football between girls and boys.

Material & methods

Design The study has a quantitative approach of a comparative descriptive type, since gender equality attitudes will be shown by sex and educational level.

Participants intentional non-random sample. It consisted of 749 primary and secondary school students from four schools in Santiago de Chile. One of the educational establishments is public and the other three are subsidised. The minimum age was 10 and the maximum 19 years, with a mean of 15.0 ± 1.8 . Of the total, 316 were male (42.1%) and 433 were female (57.9%). 75 students were in the 6th year of primary school (10.0%), 96 were in the 7th year of primary school (12.8%), 38 were in the 8th year of primary school (5.1%), 169 were in the 1st year of secondary school (22.6%), 191 were in the 2nd year of secondary school (25.5%), 106 were in the

3rd year of secondary school (14.2%) and 74 were in the 4th year of secondary school (9.9%). Of the total sample, 129 reported playing football regularly (17.2%) and 619 reported not playing football regularly (82.8%).

Procedure the surveys were administered in person in the four educational establishments, during class hours, with a duration of approximately 25 minutes. For student participation, authorisation was requested from the school principals, informed consent from the parents and informed consent from the students.

Instruments

Statistical analysis to determine the construct validity indices of the Attitudes towards gender equality in football in the school context scale, exploratory factor analyses were applied by the principal components method with orthogonal Varimax rotation. For this purpose, the statistical programme IBM SPSS version 25.0 for Windows was used. Confirmatory factor analyses were then performed using the maximum likelihood (ML) estimation method, the absolute chi-square indices (χ^2), the RMSEA (standardised residuals mean) and the CFI (comparative fit). SPSS AMOS 26.0 was used for this purpose. Reliability indices were obtained with Cronbach's Alpha test. Descriptive statistics (with means and standard deviations) were applied. Normality tests were also performed with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test, which gave a normal distribution of the variables ($p > .05$), so we proceeded to use parametric statistics such as t-tests for independent samples comparing the scores of attitudes towards school football according to sex and primary/secondary education of the sample (p values $< .05$ were considered significant).

Results

Psychometric properties of the Attitudes towards gender equality in football in the school context scale

During the validity tests of the instrument, item 19: In Physical Education class we usually play football without getting angry between boys and girls was eliminated, as it saturated in more than two factors. Thus, the scale consisted of 19 items. The Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) test showed a value of .873 and Bartlett's test of sphericity showed a $p < .001$, so we proceeded to carry out an exploratory factor analysis through a principal components analysis with Varimax rotation. The analyses revealed the existence of five factors (table 1) that explained 58.302% of the total variance. Dimension 1: Equality in football contains six items, dimension 2: Male superiority in football contains four items, dimension 3: Female discrimination in football contains three items, dimension 4: Football as a male sport contains three items and dimension 5: Paternalism towards female football players contains three items. Cronbach's alpha gives a value of .738 for the 19 items of the instrument.

Table 1.

Factors of the Attitudes towards gender equality in football in the school context scale in a sample of school students in Santiago de Chile.

Items	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
4. Sports sponsors and media (press and television) should support women's football teams more to boost their development.	.624				
5. Women's participation in football helps the growth of society.	.720				
6. Girls' performance in football could match (or surpass) that of boys.	.700				
7. Girls have the physical skills needed to play football.	.734				
8. With constant training and willpower a woman can become as skilled (or more skilled) than a man in football.	.705				
11. Girls who play football are just as feminine as girls who do not play the sport of football.	.446				
13. Girls are too delicate to play football.		.571			
14. Girls get hurt more often than men when playing football.		.742			
15. Boys are born with a greater aptitude for football than girls.		.729			
16. Boys are better than girls in terms of the speed of decision-making in football.		.762			
17. When we play football in PE class, the boys often insult the less prepared girls.			.800		
18. When we play football with mixed teams in PE class, boys prefer to pass the ball to boys rather than girls.			.796		
19. When forming mixed teams to play football in PE class, girls are selected as the last choice.			.768		
1. Football is a male sport.				.744	
2. The time spent by girls in football training is time wasted as they will not play football professionally.				.736	
3. Practising football makes girls less feminine.				.763	
9. Women should avoid contact sports, such as football because they can be dangerous to their health.					.578
10. Instead of playing football, girls should be cheerleaders or play sports that show off their bodies.					.779
12. Investing in women's football is a waste of time and money.					.592
Variance explained	15.390%	11.307%	8.908%	7.888%	7.728%
Cronbach's Alpha	.869	.771	.756	.767	.740

Table 2 shows the correlations between the five factors of the instrument. Equality in football is negatively related to factor 2. Male superiority in football, 3. Female discrimination in football and 5. Paternalism towards female football players. Male superiority in football is positively and moderately related to factors 3 and 5. Finally, factor 3. Football as a male sport is positively and moderately related to factor 5.

Table 2.

Correlations of the six factors of the *Attitudes towards gender equality in football in the school context scale*.

	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Factor 1	-.348**		.068	-.338**
Factor 2		.476**	.105**	.472**
Factor 3			.048	.437**
Factor 4				.009

** significant correlation at the level of .01

Figure 1 presents the final model of dimensions and items for the questionnaire based on the six factors extracted from the confirmatory factor analysis. The results showed a significant χ^2 ($\chi^2=277.510$; $p<.001$), which is why we looked at other values for the fit of the proposed model. The values of RMSEA=.036, CFI=.964 and TLI=.957 indicate an adequate model fit (Maureira, 2016, Morata et al., 2015).

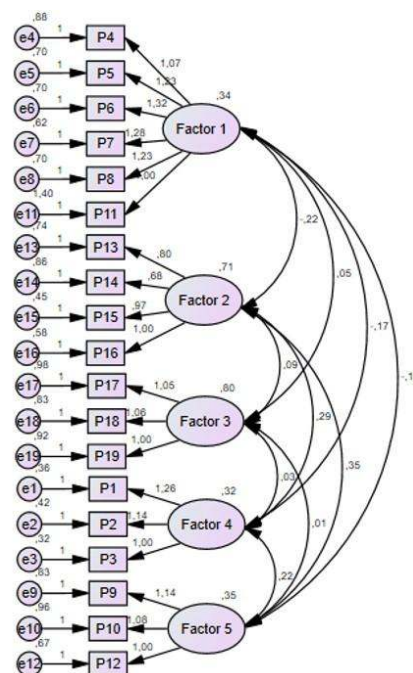


Figure 1. Confirmatory factor analysis.

Attitudes towards gender equality in football in the school context

Table 3 shows the means obtained for each item of the *Attitudes towards gender equality in football in the school context scale* in the total sample. The highest score (highest degree of agreement) was obtained for item 8. *With constant training and willpower, a woman can become as skilled (or more skilled) than a man in football*, with 4.16 ± 1.10 , followed by item 4. *Sports sponsors and media (press and television), should support more women's football teams to boost their development*, with 4.16 ± 1.13 and item 7. *Girls have the necessary physical skills to play football*, with 4.14 ± 1.08 . On the contrary, the items with the lowest scores (lowest degree of agreement) are item 3. *Practising football makes girls less feminine*, with $1.40 \pm .80$, followed by item 1. *Football is a male sport*, with $1.47 \pm .93$ and item 2. *The time girls invest in football training is time wasted as they will not dedicate themselves to it professionally*, with $1.54 \pm .91$.

When comparing females and males (table 3) it is possible to note that there are significant differences in 16 of the 19 items, with females obtaining higher scores on the items dealing with equality in football and lower scores on the items denoting male superiority in football. Effect sizes were also calculated and were low for most of the items, except for those presented in Figure 2.

When comparing each dimension of the instrument, significant differences can be observed in all of them. In dimension 1. *Equality in football and dimension 3. Discrimination against women in football*, women obtain higher scores. In the other three dimensions, men have higher mean scores.

Table 3.

T-tests comparing the scores obtained by girls and boys on each item and each dimension of the *Attitudes towards gender equality in football in the school context scale*.

Items	Total (n=749)	Females (n=433)	Males (n=316)	P value
1. Football is a male sport.	1.47±.93	1.31±.81	1.66±1.04	.000* *
2. The time spent by girls in football training is time wasted because they will not play football professionally.	1.54±.91	1.48±.83	1.62±1.01	.037*
3. Practising football makes girls less feminine.	1.40±.80	1.31±.71	1.54±.89	.000* *
4. Sports sponsors and media (press and TV) should support more women's football teams to promote their development.	4.16±1.13	4.26±1.06	4.01±1.20	.003* *
5. Women's participation in football helps the growth of society.	4.05±1.10	4.17±1.04	3.89±1.15	.001* *
6. Girls' performance in football could match (or surpass) that of boys.	3.91±1.13	4.00±1.11	3.76±1.16	.004* *
7. Girls have the physical skills needed to play football.	4.14±1.08	4.22±1.06	4.05±1.11	.036*
8. With constant training and willpower a woman can become as skilled (or more skilled) than a man in football.	4.26±1.10	4.30±1.09	4.20±1.11	.206
9. Women should avoid contact sports, such as football because they can be dangerous to their health.	1.83±1.14	1.65±1.05	2.07±1.20	.000* *
10. Instead of playing football, girls should be cheerleaders or play sports that show off their bodies.	1.79±1.17	1.68±1.12	1.92±1.22	.004* *
11. Girls who play football are just as feminine as girls who don't play the sport of football.	3.97±1.32	4.09±1.26	3.80±1.37	.003* *
12. Investing in girls' football is a waste of time and money.	1.60±1.01	1.50±.97	1.73±1.05	.002* *
13. Girls are too delicate to play football.	1.85±1.10	1.68±1.04	2.06±1.13	.000* *
14. Girls get hurt more often in football than men.	2.26±1.09	2.20±1.07	2.34±1.12	.081
15. Boys are born with a greater aptitude for football than girls.	1.81±1.06	1.62±.93	2.07±1.16	.000* *
16. Boys are better than girls when it comes to the speed of decision-making in football.	2.00±1.13	1.75±1.02	2.35±1.19	.000* *
17. When we play football in PE class, the boys often insult the less prepared girls.	2.62±1.36	2.79±1.39	2.39±1.29	.000* *
18. When we play football with mixed teams in PE class, boys prefer to pass the ball to boys rather than girls.	3.31±1.32	3.46±1.30	3.09±1.29	.000* *
19. When forming mixed teams to play football in PE class, girls are selected as the last choice.	2.93±1.31	3.07±1.35	2.74±1.23	.114
Dimension 1: Equality in football	4.08±.78	4.17±.74	3.96±.82	.000* *
Dimension 2: Male superiority in football	1.99±.84	1.83±.75	2.23±.90	.000* *
Dimension 3: Female discrimination in football	2.95±1.08	3.10±1.11	2.74±.99	.000* *
Dimension 4: Football as a male sport	1.47±.73	1.37±.61	1.60±.85	.000* *
Dimension 5: Paternalism towards women in football	1.74±.83	1.61±.78	1.91±0.86	.000* *

* significant difference at the level of .05

** significant difference at the level of .01

± standard deviation

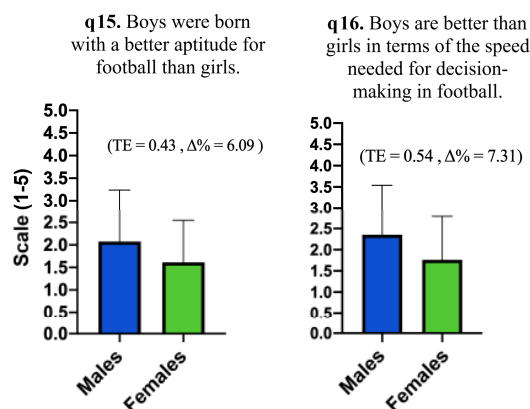


Figure 2. Comparison between girls and boys on items 15 and 16 of the *Attitudes towards gender equality in football in the school context scale*.

Table 4 shows the items that show differences when comparing the scores of primary (6th-7th-8th) and secondary (1st-2nd-3rd-4th) students. Secondary school students have higher scores on items that point to equality in football and lower scores on items that denote male superiority in football. This is observed in 14 of the 19 items of the *Attitudes towards Gender Equality in Football in the School Context scale*. Effect sizes were also calculated and were low for most of the items, with the exception of those presented in Figure 3.

When comparing each dimension of the instrument, significant differences are observed in four of them. In dimension 1. *Equality in football* and dimension 3. *Discrimination against women in football*, secondary school students obtain higher scores. In the other three dimensions, primary school students have higher mean scores.

Table 4.

Items showing differences when comparing scores between primary and secondary school students.

Items	Primary (n=209)	Secondary (n=540)	P value
1. Football is a male sport	1.62±1.10	1.41±.85	.005**
2. The time girls spend on football training is time wasted as they will not be involved in it professionally.	1.66±1.02	1.49±.86	.032*
4. Sports sponsors and the media (press and television) should support women's football teams more to promote their development.	3.82±1.29	4.29±1.02	.000**
5. The participation of women in football helps the growth of society.	3.90±1.14	4.11±1.08	.025*
6. Girls' performance in football could match (or surpass) that of boys.	3.45±1.25	4.09±1.04	.000**
7. Girls have the physical skills needed to play football.	3.88±1.22	4.26±1.00	.000**
8. With constant training and willpower a woman can become as skilled (or more skilled) than a man in football.	3.99±1.28	4.37±1.00	.000**
9. Women should avoid contact sports, such as football because they can be dangerous to their health.	2.07±1.30	1.74±1.05	.000**
11. Girls who play football are just as feminine as girls who do not play the sport of football.	3.78±1.35	4.04±1.29	.015*
13. Girls are too delicate to play football.	1.99±1.16	1.79±1.07	.025*
14. Girls get hurt more often than men when playing football.	2.56±1.12	2.14±1.05	.000**
15. Boys are born with a greater aptitude for football than girls.	2.05±1.21	1.71±.98	.000**
16. Boys are better than girls when it comes to the speed of decision-making in football.	2.23±1.27	1.91±1.07	.000**
18. When we play football with mixed teams in PE class, boys prefer to pass the ball to boys rather than to girls.	3.12±1.38	3.38±1.28	.019*
Dimension 1: Equality in football	3.80±.86	4.19±.72	.000**
Dimension 2: Male superiority in football	2.23±.88	1.91±.81	.000**
Dimension 3: Female Discrimination in football	2.87±1.07	2.98±1.09	.209
Dimension 4: Football as a male sport	1.58±.82	1.42±.69	.009**
Dimension 5: Paternalism towards women in football	1.87±.88	1.69±.81	.006**

* significant difference at the level of .05

** significant difference at the level of .01

± standard deviation

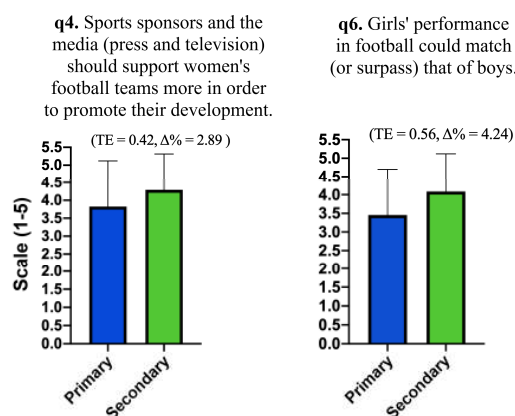


Figure 3. Comparison between primary and secondary school students on items 4 and 6 of the *Attitudes towards gender equality in football in the school context scale*.

Table 5 shows the items that show differences when comparing the scores of students who play football and those who do not. Differences are observed in six of the 19 items of the scale. Students who play football have higher scores on items that suggest that female football players are less feminine, that they should be cheerleaders and that men have better football skills. It is also shown that the effect sizes (d) are smaller than .30 for all items, which accounts for a small difference between the scores of students who play football and those who do not. A similar situation occurs with dimension 2. *Male superiority in football*; dimension 4. *Football as a male sport* and dimension 5. *Paternalism towards female football players*, where those who do play football have higher scores.

Table 5.

T-tests comparing the scores obtained by students who play and those who do not play football in each item and dimension of the *Attitudes towards gender equality in football in the school context scale*.

Items	Yes (n=128)	No (n=619)	P value	d
2. The time the girls spend on football training is time wasted as they will not be involved in it professionally.	1.73±1.13	1.50±.86	.009**	.23
3. Practising football makes girls less feminine.	1.57±1.02	1.37±0.74	.009**	.22
10. Instead of playing football, girls should be cheerleaders or play sports where they can show off their bodies.	2.02±1.34	1.74±1.13	.011*	.23
13. Girls are too delicate to play football.	2.05±1.24	1.80±1.06	.022*	.22
15. Boys were born with a better aptitude for football than girls.	1.98±1.13	1.77±1.04	.043*	.19
16. Boys are better than girls in terms of the speed needed for decision-making in football.	2.27±1.22	1.95±1.11	.003**	.27
Dimension 2: Male superiority in football	2.16±.85	1.96±.83	.012*	.24
Dimension 4: Football as a male sport	1.62±.87	1.44±.70	.009**	.23
Dimension 5: Paternalism towards women playing football	1.92±.92	1.70±.81	.006**	.25

* significant difference at the level of .05

** significant difference at the level of .01

± standard deviation

Dicussion

The European context indicates changes in social values from the beginnings of the women's game in the 1890s to the present day, with the understanding that sporting practices are historically produced, socially constructed and culturally defined (Williams, 2006). In this context, the results of this study show consensus on the importance of the media and sponsors in the dissemination and expansion of women's football through different strategies and events, which has contributed to the growth of leagues such as the Spanish league, and has increased the participation of more girls and women (Valiente, 2021); in addition, the performance of clubs must be improved to increase the commercial value and attractiveness of the leagues (Bagheri, et al., 2021) in order to try to reduce a significant gap in terms of salaries and precarious working conditions for the majority of female players (Valiente, 2021). Sponsors have a key role to play in this regard, as it has recently been shown that sponsorships are motivated by a desire to promote gender equality at the company, industry and wider societal level (Morgan, 2019). This is relevant because equality between men and women has not yet been achieved, when examining how men and women in sports are represented in the media (Ravel & Gareau, 2014), which needs to change in the future, as women's football can be seen as a legitimate opportunity for business, not only in leading sports countries such as Europe and the USA, but also other countries where the sport is more emerging (Elardt, et al., 2015; Hakala, 2020; Khatibi, et al., 2020; Kiani & Nazari, 2022; Koski, 2022).

One of the main disagreements obtained in the present study in the sample in general, as well as the percentage of the sample who played football, is due to the fact that *Practicing football makes girls less feminine*, because football is considered a masculine sport and women who play it are more likely to experience gender role conflicts than those athletes in appropriate *female* sports (Guillet, et al, 2006; Hardy, 2015). This belief encourages discrimination and opposition towards heterosexual female players within the sporting world (Harris, 2005), as football tends to be seen as a male-appropriate activity and consequently female players are likely to be negatively labelled (Devonport, et al., 2019). This may be subject to the real or perceived presence of a masculine lesbian sexuality in women's football, revealing and iterating their sexuality to varying degrees, which appears to affect the representation of sexual identity by women who play (Caudwell, 1999, 2002). It should be noted, however, that women's football is not a purely lesbian activity and although a number of lesbians play the sport, it should not be overlooked that many heterosexual women also play the sport (Harris, 2005). However, sport may not always provide an opportunity to challenge and resist dominant discourses (Devonport et al., 2019). Therefore, it is considered biased to unify the criteria of female football players' sexuality in a single sense (homosexuality). On the other hand, and in line with Caudwell (2003), it is relevant to highlight that little attention has been paid to the sex-gender-desire disposition and its relationship with sexual differentiation that is understood as *natural*, stable and fixed.

In terms of girls' aptitude for playing football, there is concordance in the overall results of the total sample; however, there are differences when comparing the results between males and females, as well as when considering the sample that played football. Talent in football is a multifaceted construct that combines technical-tactical skills with physical performance and anthropometric attributes (Reilly, 2005; Tomas, et al., 2005). In this sense and despite the growing popularity of women's football, information related to female football players is scarce and limited to the club standard (Castagna & Castellini, 2013). There is currently an extensive literature on talent development, but the lack of data related to women is problematic, as it can be assumed that current talent development pathways and systems for female athletes were designed and developed based on male data, lacking a solid evidence base, and instead may be the product of experience, intuition and tradition largely adopted from the experiences of male athletes (Curran, et al., 2019). However, some studies have shown gender differences (Castagna & Castellini, 2013), but not in factors relevant to practising and talent detection, focusing on football-specific endurance and agility in post-adolescent players (Mujika, et al., 2009). Thus, talent detection itself can use and consider the same performance parameters as males. However, having no or poor gender data on issues affecting female athletes in particular is a major problem; some issues (e.g. maturation, puberty, pregnancy, menstruation) clearly affect female athletes differently than their male counterparts and gender data would help to better understand the current reality (Curran et al., 2019).

From the school level, studies such as those by Soler (2009); Chacón et al. (2016) and López et al. (2012) coincide with hostile, discriminatory and contemptuous attitudes on the part of male primary and secondary school students, which are conducive to discrimination and unequal opportunities for the female sex (Moreno, 2006). Consequently, the problems are not only a reality in professional football, but also stem from implicit aspects from the socio-cultural sphere. This is reflected in the practice of physical-sports activities from school and throughout the student's formative development, which affects the future professional life of women in sport.

Conclusions

It can be pointed out that the objectives of the study were achieved and the scale presents adequate validity and reliability indexes to be used in the sample, so its use is recommended. It should be noted that sport itself is a means of working on different skills, not only linked to performance or physical qualities, but also others such as teamwork, empathy, perseverance, etc.

In the Chilean reality, it could be said that women footballers are already recognised, undoubtedly due to the international participation in women's football in recent years (Scott, 2008). Now, what we need to move forward is the massification of this sport in the school context, and for this we need teachers who understand, for example, the category of gender as a constitutive element of social relations and as a primary form of symbolic power relations between men, women and sexual dissidence.

From a pedagogical point of view, teachers in Chile in general, including physical education teachers, are in a process directly linked to the progressive incorporation of gender equity in the school environment, both in the curricular framework and in the different aspects of school coexistence, sports workshops and educational management, encompassing dimensions that understand gender equity in education and the demand for a non-sexist education as a way to overcome the structural and symbolic barriers that influence the existence of differentiated educational outcomes for girls, boys and young people as well as granting fewer opportunities for girls and students who do not identify with traditional gender patterns. The existence of diverse situations of violence, harassment and abuse of power based on gender hierarchies that have placed girls, women and sexual dissidents in positions of lesser power. Football is not exempt from this, and in this sense, the framework for action and the political agenda of the Ministry of Education provides teachers with educational tools that will enable them to face these new challenges. These are represented in equity, non-sexist education, understanding of gender and respect for diversity.

Undoubtedly, this research shows that attitudes of inequality in football are still evident in young people, fortunately to a lesser extent in the female sex, which could account for security and equality of condition in sporting practice. As a projection of the research, carry it out longitudinally, to see how these attitudes evolve over time and relate it to other sociodemographic variables, to determine what characteristics could be influencing these attitudes in the sample.

Conflicts of interest

The author(s) declared no have conflict of interest concerning this work, authorship, and/or publications of this paper.

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