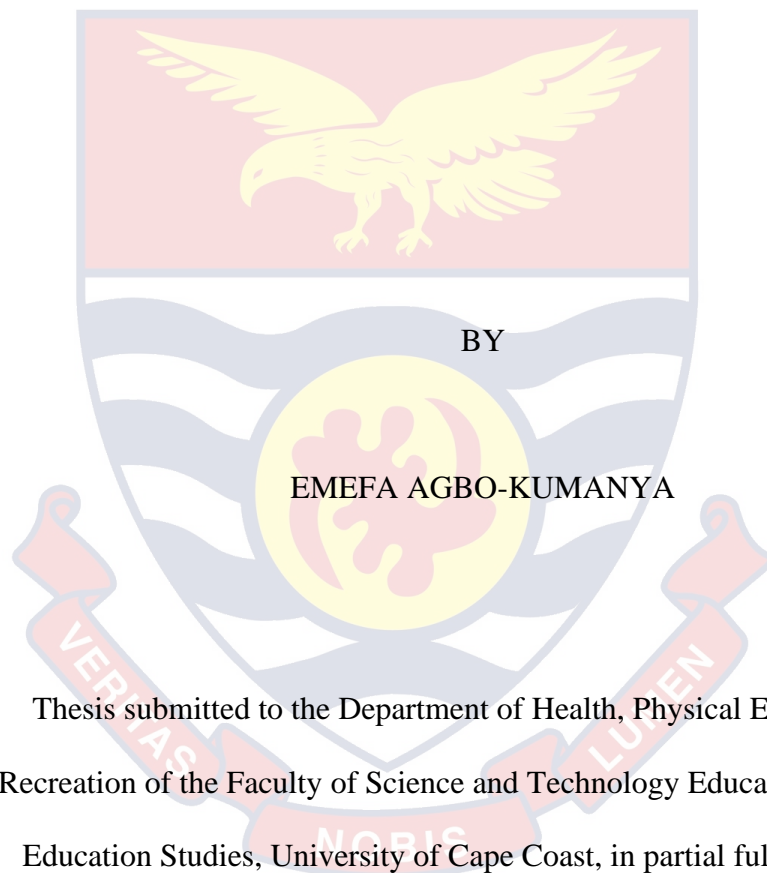


UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

FACTORS INFLUENCING LOW REPRESENTATION OF FEMALES IN  
COACHING REGIONAL SPORTS TEAMS AT SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

LEVEL IN GHANA



Thesis submitted to the Department of Health, Physical Education and  
Recreation of the Faculty of Science and Technology Education, College of  
Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the  
requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy Degree in Physical  
Education

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## DECLARATION

### Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declared that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: ..... Date.....

Name: Emefa Agbo-Kumanya

### Supervisor's Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature:..... Date.....

Name: Dr. Daniel Apaak

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## ABSTRACT

The study examined the factors influencing low representation of females in coaching regional sports teams in Ghana. A mixed method research design was employed, in which cross-sectional design and phenomenology were used in the study to conduct a survey on 424 respondents and three Regional P.E. coordinators. Questionnaires were used to collect data from the 424 female sports coaches and interview guides were also used to collect data from the three Regional P.E. coordinators. The study found that the selection criteria for female coaches was predominantly competency-based and most females were satisfied with such an approach. Moreover, most female coaches did not perform any coaching duties, but were rather assigned ancillary roles like handling food. Low female exposure to frontline activities, marital and family life-choices were the most potent hindrances to the careers of female coaches. The study recommended that aspiring female coaches should engage in rigorous self-development through professional courses in order to build their confidence and competence. Furthermore, the Ghana Education Service was advised to strategize an elaborate training programme for female coaches with flexible schedules that will allow them to combine household and family responsibilities with training. The achievements of successful female coaches were also proposed to be resonated frequently through special seminars, to encourage aspiring female coaches.

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## DEDICATION

To my husband, Mr. Hanson Kumanya and my lovely children, Alice,  
Amanda and Adolphus.



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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### Background to the Study

Sport is one of the most popular activities of mankind across the modern world. It is valued among people of all ages, gender, abilities and races. Coackly and Donnelly (2004) indicated that the popularity of sports stems from its benefits, not only at an individual's level but also at national or societal levels. Sports Coach UK (2011) reported that sport enhances physical fitness and health of participators. Additionally, it is an important tool of bringing people together, providing opportunities for socialisation, improving self-image and leadership training (Bruening, 2005). It is also a fact that sports is one of the major economic industries in most countries of the world (Turpeinen, Jaako Kankaanpaa & Hakamaki, 2011) but has recreational dimension too. Indeed, the United Nations International Charter on Physical Education (P.E.) and Sport which was proclaimed by the UNESCO conference on 21st November, 1978, focuses on access to sports and P.E. as a fundamental human right (Pfister, 2009). Therefore, any form of discrimination in sports on the basis of gender, ability, age or race is unacceptable.

The Brighton declaration of 1994, whose aim was to develop a sporting culture that enabled and valued the full involvement of women in every aspect of sports, underscored the need for governmental organisation and other institutions involved in sports to apply the principles set out in the declaration (Collins & Kay, 2003). This was to be done by developing appropriate policies, structures and mechanisms which would ensure that all

women and girls have the opportunity to participate in sports in a safe and supportive environment which preserves the right, dignity and respect of the individual. Among the principles was one on developing participation. It was observed that women participation in sports is influenced by the range of activities available. Those responsible for delivering sporting opportunities and programming should provide and promote activities which meet women's need and aspirations (Bailey, 2004).

On facilities, Loughborough University (2010) observed that women participation in sports was influenced by the extent, variety and accessibility of facilities. As a result, LaVoi and Dutove (2012) suggested that the planning, design and management of sport facilities should appropriately and equitably meet the particular needs of women in the community with special attention given to the needs for childcare provision and safety. The Brighton declaration also expressed that women are underrepresented in the leadership and decision making level in all sport and sport-related organisations, hence those responsible for these areas should develop policies and programmes and design structures which increase the number of women coaches, advisers, decision makers, officials, administration and sports personnel at all levels with special attention given to recruitment, development and retention (Norman, 2010).

However, gender as a social construction has had a powerful impact on the way that sports in schools has evolved throughout history, and continues to shape the way sports is offered and administered in schools today (Sabo, Miller, Melnick & Heywood, 2004). According to Heuze (2005), constructions of masculinity dictated, in large measure, the types of activities

that are considered desirable in sports programmes and the types of students who are successful in these activities as well as the gender of coaches that are selected to provide technical assistance to athletes. Fasting and Knorre (2005) posited that Western societies continue to draw on the Olympic model of sport that began in the seventh century B.C. that celebrated male athletic prowess. The events celebrated in the Olympics were highly nationalistic and were engaged in by men and viewed largely by men. Single women were relegated to the role of spectator, and married women were banned from the events altogether (Kajtna, 2008).

According to Bruening (2004), several authors have problematized this notion of hegemonic masculinity in sports and sporting activities in schools. The gender order in sports is such that girls are generally marginalized and absent because boys are at its centre (Demers, 2004). Kamphoff and Gill (2008) asserted that sports and games in particular, celebrate male space, male physicality and male dominance. As Norman (2015) noted, that for girls, sports did not help them develop physical identities other than antithesis of men – less able, less strong and less competitive. Thus, the politics and power used in sports, has contributed immensely to constrain female participation in sports. The reason is that, men wield a great deal of power on the development and management of female sports (Pfister, 2013). It is also the males who are seen to be aggressive, a trait necessary for participation in sports. Again, traditionally, socialisation into sports for both sexes has been given a wide gap that favours males.

North (2007) argued that for novice sports coaches to accommodate the social expectations placed upon them, they are expected to draw upon their

background experience and in so doing shift their teaching identities towards a complicit masculine teaching identity. Although unintentional, this situation represents a dilemma that serves to perpetuate a link between generations of sports discourse and practice, helping to reproduce and legitimize hegemonic masculinity and the gender order in physical education (Fasting & Knorre, 2005). These unexamined notions of sports imply a sense of embodied power and a sense of competence exercised over others that generates status, pride and identity at the expense of others (Coackly & Donnelly, 2004).

In other words, the very success that motivates students to become sports coaches may be the factor that leads them to perpetuate the boys' physical culture and the subsequent gender order. This is due to the perception that sports is a masculine activity leading to the building of human muscles which is considered to be a characteristic of males rather than females. As a result, more males than females are attracted to sports. This has also affected issues related to coaching various sporting disciplines. According to Bruening (2005), the gender dimension in sporting activities has created the situation where females are largely relegated from the coaching and administration of sports, including female disciplines.

Gender also influences sports in terms of the kinds of activity that are valued and supported in the society, the types of students who are encouraged to participate, the types of teachers who are attracted to the sports coaching profession, and the types of people who are selected or employed to administer sporting activities (Turpeinen et al., 2011). This has, over the years, created huge technical, competence and experience gaps between males and females with respect to the coaching and administration of sporting activities



across the globe (Sports Coach UK, 2011). Thus, Pfister (2013) explained that prospective teachers are mostly drawn to the sports profession because of their own personal experiences in school. Kajtna (2008) added that many sports coaches were those students who succeeded in team sports both in school and the broader community, and most had positive relationships with sports coaches. Occupational socialisation, therefore, plays a critical role in gender participation in sporting activities. LaVoi and Dutove (2012) explained the influence of occupational socialisation in sports activities as all kinds of socialisation that initially influence persons to enter the field of sports and later are responsible for their perceptions and actions as teacher coaches, instructors and administrators.

Whereas more efforts are being done to bridge the gender disparity gap in sports coaching and administration in the advanced countries, many countries in Africa lag behind. According to Norman (2010), negative perceptions emanating from socio-cultural settings of most African societies discourage female participation in sports activities. In other words, the socio-cultural views of people in African societies have given gender definitions to sports activities. Sports activities that require intense physical activity and muscle building are considered as more appropriate for males. Bruening (2005) also indicated that the female in an African society is revered as a symbol of procreation and reproduction, and as such any sporting activity that is considered tangential to this natural role of the woman is discouraged. Such sporting activities are considered to be potential for rendering the reproductive systems of females less functional, and impediment for child bearing and societal growth. Accordingly, most females are unable to acquaint themselves



with sports occupational socialisation from the onset. This has led to the situation where males dominate in the coaching and management of sports in almost every African country.

The situation is not different from Ghana, where sports coaching and administration is dominated by males. Sports activities have been built into the educational system of Ghana. This has led to the creation of regional sports coordinating units in all the 10 regions of the country. The regional sports coordinating units are responsible for the development and management of school sports in the regions. It comprises sports teams for various disciplines, including, football, athletics (both field and track events), table tennis, tennis, hockey, volleyball, basketball, handball and netball (Darko & Sheibu, 2016).

Sports activities within the educational system gets to its critical stage at the Senior High School level (SHS), where students are in the transition stage from childhood to adulthood and may be considering the option of entering into sports as a professional career. Thus, it is at the SHS level that students are able to socialise well with sports as a potential career and take personal decisions on how to utilise their talents and skills in the area for the future. Sports activities at the tertiary level of education are not under the G.E.S. regional sports authorities. This is because tertiary schools are mostly autonomous and do not rely on the sports authorities to organise their activities. The focus of this study is on the second cycle institutions which feed the regional sports teams with coaches and athletes.

Since regional sports festivals are organised around schools at the SHS level, P.E. teachers play a pivotal role in the administrative and coaching functions. This is because most of the schools do not have sports coaches and

as such rely on the P.E. teachers as coaches for the various sports teams. The P.E. teachers are responsible for identifying and building students' interest in particular sporting activities as well as developing their sports talents and skills for competitions at the SHS level. They also give students the opportunity to socialise with the professional sports and to develop their interests in the discipline as future job prospects. It is the responsibility of P.E. department of every school to organise annual inter-houses competitions to select and develop sports talents in various disciplines for inter school competitions. Athletes who excel in the inter school competitions are selected for regional teams for inter-regional sports competitions.

In all these competitions, P.E. teachers act as coaches and physical instructors to the athletes. As a result, P.E. teachers in SHS are synonymous to sports coaches. In addition, there are some registered coaches in the various regions who are not teachers. Even though they are few, some of them are sometimes invited to assist regional sports teams in disciplines where the P.E. teachers lack technical knowledge to guide or support athletes during sports festivals. As a result, female sports coaches comprise both P.E. teachers and registered female sports coaches.

However, the selection of female sports coaches for the regional sports teams has been bedevilled with a number of issues, principal among them is gender imbalance. Darko and Sheibu (2016) found that female coaches represented only 12.4% of the regional sports coaches during the 2016 regional sports festival. Nonetheless, Turpeinen et al. (2011) have expressed that the low participation of female coaches in sports activities could affect the quality of performance, especially of female athletes. This is because female

athletes may consider male coaches as less appropriate in sharing certain feminine issues which could be critical in influencing their performance. As a result, Pfister (2013) suggested that female coaches should be made in-charge of female sports teams to enhance the flow of information with athletes.

Fasting and Knorre (2005) also indicated that female coaches managing female teams could better understand the female athletes in terms of their training schedules and technical handling. Coackly and Donnelly (2004) argued that the selection of coaches for sports teams should not be made gender sensitive rather, it should be based on technical competence. However, Kamphoff and Gill (2008) posited that the domineering nature of sports coaching by males over females is indirectly implying that males are more technically competent in coaching than females. Similar picture is painted in the Ghanaian context as all coaching duties are assigned to males. Also typical of the schools and colleges sports festivals, women are always relegated from technical roles to backroom staff such as chaperones, food handlers, house mistresses etc.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Gender representation in sport participation and leadership is an issue of major concern across the world (Coackly & Donnelly, 2004). Most of the studies carried out seem to point towards women under representation as active participants and in leadership (Fasting & Knorre, 2005). Coaching is a critical area in sports management. It helps to develop the skills and talents of athletes for improved performance. According to Pfister (2009), interaction is an inherent part of coaching. Coach-athlete exchanges in particular, are shaped by particular assumptions and ideas about coaching and teaching relationships

(Coackly & Donnelly, 2004). Kajtna (2008) reported that interactions in coaching are complex because sports make a number of demands on participants. Varying individual characteristics increase this complexity and demands different gender roles. However, gender relations appear to be problematic, particularly with respect to coaching.

The issue of gender in sports has been well debated within literature. One of the most common issues is the critique of sports as a patriarchal domain, one in which women have been socio-historically positioned physically inferior to men (North, 2007). Yet, women's sporting participation has risen steadily since the health and fitness boom of the 1970s. Statistics from the UK and London 2012 Olympic Games, indicate that women participation in sport is growing closer to men (Sport England, 2013). Furthermore, not only is female participation increasing, but the types of sports that both male and female athletes are choosing to participate in are also changing (Sport England, 2013). However, one significant barrier that prevents more women from participating, remaining and progressing in sport, is the inability of male coaches to understand how to engage their female athletes in terms of communication (Norman, 2015). Coaching is one area of sports that has consistently remained a male domain.

In Ghana, majority of coaches in the regional school sports teams are males. A study by Darko and Sheibu (2016) at the Regional Basic schools sports competition at Ho showed that out of the 250 coaches that participated in the exercise only 31 were females. The situation is likely to impede effective coaching and interaction as female athletes may not feel confident and willing to discuss feminine issues with their male coaches. This is even

more crucial as the number of female-participating sports teams increase. Despite the increasing concern about the need for female participation in coaching regional school sports teams in Ghana, only Darko and Sheibu (2016) have conducted an empirical study on the issue.

To the best knowledge of the researcher, not much work has been done at the SHS concerning female participation in coaching Regional School Sports teams. Also, the observation made by Darko and Sheibu at Ho about the percentage representation of female coaches as against their male counterparts in the Regional Basic Schools, may not be different from the regional second cycle institutions. This study sought to go a step further to examine the factors influencing the low representation of females in coaching regional sports teams in Ghana.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study was to examine the factors influencing low representation of females in coaching regional sports teams in Ghana.

### **Research Questions**

The study sought to find answers to the following questions:

1. What are the criteria used in selecting coaches for the regional schools and colleges sports teams?
2. What roles are assigned to female coaches during regional schools and colleges sports festivals?
3. What are the barriers to female participation in coaching regional sports teams?
4. What factors attract females into coaching regional sports teams?

### **Significance of the Study**

The study sought to contribute to the body of knowledge on female participation in sports coaching in Ghana. The findings of this study, it is hoped, will inform the G.E.S. Regional Sports Coordinating Units on the barriers to female participation in sports coaching. This would enable policy makers in national sports administration such as the Regional Sports Administration, National Sports Authority, and Ministry of Youth and Sports to adopt strategies to increase female participation in sports coaching at the regional centres.

A study of this nature would help to uncover the challenges female sports coaches encounter in their engagement in Regional Sports Coaching Teams, which could help in uncovering how such challenges could be addressed to increase female-teacher participation in coaching regional sports teams. It would also provide all stakeholders (such as sports coaching association, Regional Sports Administration, National Sports Authority, Ministry of Education, and Ministry of Youth and Sports) in Senior High School Sports guidelines to help female coaches to participate fully in coaching of all disciplines.

### **Delimitation of the Study**

The study covered female sports coaches in regional sports teams in Ghana and Regional P.E. coordinators in the various regional sports units. It was also delimited to the variables such as selection criteria, coaching roles for females, and challenges in sports coaching believed to be associated to female participation in sports. A response rate of 70.9% was achieved, and only three



out of the 10 Regional Coordinators gave their consent to participate in the study.

### **Limitations of the Study**

Although the study was supposed to be a census where all participants will be included, the noncompliance of some regional coordinators reduced the numbers anticipated. However, those included had in-depth knowledge and experience in the criteria for selecting sports coaches for various regional sports teams and so, provided information relevant for the purpose of this study. Also, using a cross sectional design, the study was unable to establish causality. That is the study only revealed the factors associated with, but not the causes of low representation of female in coaching regional sports teams in Ghana. Finally, the Self-reporting scales used in the questionnaire to measure variables for analysis might have affected the result of the study since some of the respondents may have over – estimated their responses.

### **Definition of Terms**

**Coaching:** Giving instructions to athletes during skill training.

**Participation:** Participation is the level of involvement of an individual or group of people in an exercise that affects them.

**Regional Teams:** Various athletes selected from individual schools in various disciplines to a regional sports team.

**Regional P.E. coordinators:** Regional P.E. coordinators are regional administrative heads responsible for coordinating sports activities in the regions.

**Female Sports Coaches:** They constitute female P.E. teachers in SHSs.

**Female Registered Sports Coaches:** These are female registered coaches who are not teachers. They are sometimes invited by the Regional Sports Teams in disciplines where they lack the technical competence to coach the athletes.

**Sporting activities:** In this study referred to football, netball, volleyball, basketball, table tennis, handball, hockey and athletics (comprising field and track events) which are the disciplines participated for in school sports.

### **Organisation of the Study**

The study is organised into five chapters. Chapter one is on introduction. The chapter considered issues such as background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, delimitations of the study, definition of terms and organisation of the study. The second chapter focused on review of literature on theories and concepts as well as some previous studies related to female participation in physical education and coaching of sports teams. Chapter three presented the methodology of the study. It included the research design, population, sampling procedure, data collection instrument, data collection procedure and data processing and analysis. The fourth chapter presented the results and discussion of field data, whereas the fifth chapter focused on the summary, main findings, conclusions and recommendations.



## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviewed literature related to the study topic. It includes theories and concepts related to women participation in coaching sports teams. Some of the issues reviewed were gender and equity in sport governance, reasons for the underrepresentation of women in coaching sports teams, importance of getting women into sports coaching, approaches to get women involved in sports coaching, and historical overview of women's participation in sports coaching. The study also review empirical literature on previous works conducted on female participation in sports coaching.

#### **Theoretical Framework**

The study was guided by feminism, social constructivism, and social cognitive career theories. Underlining the appropriateness of a feminist theoretical perspectives for studies on the experiences of women in leadership, Burns (1987) noted that a feminist theoretical perspective “includes the construction of that reality, but also may specifically attend to the special needs of women to establish self and her activities within the social world that has a predominant male definition” (p. 216). While constructivism is necessary for creating meaning out of participant's stories, the critical feminist perspective is used to create a better understanding of the workplace experiences of women sports leaders in a predominantly male environment (Higgs, 2001). Hence, because each person is able to narrate his/her experience from his/her own perspective and construct meaning of those experiences individually, constructivism, social cognitive career choice and

feminism were deemed to be appropriate theoretical perspectives for this study.

### **Social Constructivism**

Social constructivism provided ways to understand the multiple perspectives of women in sports leadership (Webb & Macdonald, 2007). Social constructivism also helped to understand gender and gender role allocation in the world of sports, as well as leadership as social constructs that are used to exclude women (Norman, 2010). As an epistemology of knowledge, social constructivism posits that meaning is constructed through people's interaction with their environment, and that people's worldviews are influenced by their culture, historical as well as social institutions (Crotty, 1998). Constructivism also holds that in order to understand the social world, one has to take into consideration the use of language, symbols, and meanings in that social setting; hence, reality is socially constructed (Klenke, 2008). Social constructivism, which embraces multiple realities, was chosen as the epistemological stance in which the experiences of women in this study were examined.

M'mbaha (2012) used the social constructive theory to examine the experiences of women in sports leadership in Kenya. The study focused on how women perceived themselves in a male dominated world, on the gendered ideals set by institutions to maintain power imbalances; societal attitudes, and on the sports participation, experiences as influenced by the teachers, parents and schools. She explained that women's perception and understanding of reality in terms of their participation in sports were generated from past experiences and the status quo. She also found that women's constructivism in

sports participation is complex and interconnected, thus a phenomenon that should be understood within its environment. In other words, socio-cultural characteristics played an important role in their level of acceptability to assume leadership roles in sports. The researcher acknowledges the different perceptions and meanings that each individual creates through interaction with others, resulting in multiple realities.

In this regard, the study focused on how women perceived themselves in a male dominated world, on the gendered ideals set by institutions to maintain power imbalances (Webb & Macdonald, 2007); societal attitudes (Norman, 2010), and on the sports participation experiences as influenced by the teachers, parents and schools. Pfister and Radke (2009) posited that the perception of women about the leadership competences in sports coaching and management significantly influences the extent to which they avail themselves for such roles and opportunities.

### **Feminism**

A brief history of the feminist theory can be traced back to John Stuart, an advocate for human rights and author of *Subjection of Women* (Hattery, 2010). Feminism began with the concern for the status of women in the family and the right for women to vote. Modern feminist theory (1960's-1970) focused on reproductive rights, economic freedom that resulted in the Equal Pay Act of 1963 and the U.S. Title IX of 1972. Diverse forms of feminism propose different ways of fighting for social injustice including liberal feminism, which champions personal autonomy and individual rights (Higgs, 2001). It advocates for equal opportunity, sharing power and transforming institutions (Hattery, 2010). Marxist feminist, on the other hand, views power

in terms of capitalism and focuses on complete dismantling of oppressive structures, while radical feminism views patriarchy as contaminating the social structure and advocates for complete dismantling and rebuilding of all structures so as to establish some form of gender equality (Haverkamp & Young, 2007). On their part, social feminists seek to unify feminists to speak in one voice (Crotty, 1998), while postmodern feminism focuses on the intersection of race, gender, class and other variants as being part of “a complex system of oppression that results in variations of gender oppression” (Hattery, 2010 p. 100).

Feminist critical inquiry is attributed to Karl Marx’s theories, and it is critical of the use of knowledge by power elites to control others (Crotty, 1998). The critical ideological paradigm focuses on the way in which power is structured by race, class, gender and other systems of domination and oppression. Critical perspectives not only aim at drawing attention to the existing oppressive structures brought about by historical, social and political factors, but they also seek to challenge and transform those structures and to emancipate the marginalized (Haverkamp & Young, 2007; Higgs, 2001). As one of the theories that utilize the critical perspective, feminism views the world within the oppressive lens and reality as it is related to power (Crotty, 1998).

Burns (1987) aimed at developing a feminist theory that would be used in studies on women in leadership. She noted that previous studies on women leadership were conducted by men and framed within the male theoretical frameworks, and thus, conceived of a feminist perspective as imperative for studies on experiences of women in leadership. According to Webb and

Macdonald (2007), feminist inquiry concerns finding facts, and highlighting the existing inequalities in order to challenge the existing power structures. Through feminism, females are given a voice to bring their issues to the forefront (Kay, & Jeans, 2008).

Shearer (2018) used the feminist perspective to study the experiences of women coaching male athletes in the United States of America. Shearer (2018) reported that research on feminism and sport focuses on masculinity in the sport field, and how women are gaining equality in organisations, male-dominated fields, and leadership roles in sport. According to the author, research on masculinity in the sport field specifically discusses the problems patriarchal norms creates for women within the sport field. Beyond that, research problematizes gender trait stereotypes and the coherent gender discrimination within the sport field. More specifically, in obtaining gender equality, women engage different strategies and techniques in sport organisations. Gender inequalities in male-dominated fields and leadership roles specifically underscore the lack of opportunities for women in the sport industry.

In essence, there is a clear need for activism in the sporting field in order to create a fair playing field for women. In this vein, it is imperative to examine the issues associated with assigned gender traits to further understand why feminist perspectives are needed in the sport field. Feminists have been challenging the notions of male and female traits in relation to masculinity and femininity. This notion demonstrates the problems of associating specific traits of masculinity and femininity to individuals in expecting them to act according to gender norms. This causes issues for women coaches as they will

always be subjected to the negative connotation of ‘feminine traits’ and, if they act any differently, they will still be undermined. As notions of femininity and masculinity have been challenged by feminists for years, sport feminist scholars have been discussing the notions of femininity and masculinity issues in sport.

### **Social Cognitive Career Theory**

Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) framed the current study. SCCT was developed in 1994 by Lent, Brown & Hackett and suggests that “career interests are a function of self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations, such that individuals are more likely to consider a particular career when they view themselves as competent in that domain and anticipate positive outcomes in the chosen career” (Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011, p. 109). In essence, this would mean that elite athletes consider coaching as a viable career choice and in addition, would develop a goal to become a coach because of their abilities and competence in their chosen sport. Lent, Brown & Hackett went on to theorise that role models are an important component of SCCT, particularly among athletes establishing career interests and career goals.

In a study of 368 female sports coaching students it was found that, in most cases, “role model influence added to the prediction of career choice over and above the contribution of self-efficacy” (Quimby & DeSantis, 2006, p. 297). When it comes to coaching as a career however, Moran-Miller and Flores (2011) found that females often did not choose or consider coaching as a viable career option for a number of reasons, some of which may be due to the male dominance of the sport environment and the perceived coaching



incompetency of women in sport based on their gender. Moran-Miller and Flores further posited that SCCT explains how career interests are established, how career goals develop and, whether one persists and achieves success in a career or, whether one pursues their goal career and achieves success in that career.

Many research studies used SCCT to examine the career choices and interests of immigrants. Using SCCT and path analysis, Flores and O'Brien (2002) examined Mexican American adolescent women and the influence of contextual and social cognitive variables on career aspiration, career choice, prestige and traditionality. Their findings supported SCCT and they concluded that these adolescents consider themselves to have more self-efficacy in traditional careers with fewer barriers, more parental support and better access to role models. Gibbons and Shoffner (2004) used SCCT to examine first generation college students and their academic (choice of college degree) and career choices. The case study supported SCCT and determined that SCCT could be used as a tool at the high school level to assist students in choosing their academic and career paths by examining self-efficacy beliefs. Other studies have examined college students and their academic choices in relation to SCCT and self-efficacy (Lee, Magnusen & Cho, 2013). Both studies found that the more self-efficacy students felt they had in their area of study, the more likely they were to find careers in that area.

This study used SCCT to determine whether the sex of a coach is an important factor for female athletes when choosing coaching as a career. Other variables affecting the sport environment were subsequently examined like team vs. individual sport and male vs. female dominated sport. SCCT was also

used for the examination of incentive strategies for female athletes to become coaches in Ghana. The study also aimed to add to the social value of women in sport by demonstrating the importance of female sport role models.

### **A Historical Overview of Women in Sports Leadership**

While leadership has been assumed to be an “entitlement” for men, women have had to work hard to prove their leadership abilities (Doherty & Manfredi, 2010). According to Whisenant (2008), the historical, social, political, religious, cultural practices and ideologies uphold the superiority of men over women. Women’s progressive entry into leadership positions and working within a male dominated environment is filled with controversy and barriers. The patriarchal heritage present in most societies and organizations around the world promote women’s subordination to men (Dixon, Warner & Bruening, 2008). For example, the Victorian conceptions of women as frail and inferior promoted the assignment of leadership roles to men, while relegating women to subordinate roles of child rearing and bearing (Couturier & Chepko, 2001). In the gender allocation of duties, the roles assigned to women were considered “private”, while those allocated to men were of the “public” nature.

Prior to women’s movements’ fight for property and education rights in the 18th century in Europe and USA, education was considered necessary for men who served in the government (Dixon et al., 2008). For women, education was considered an “unnecessary luxury” because their roles as wives were not considered to require any intellectual capabilities (Couturier & Chepko, 2001). Illustrating the history of education in the USA, McAllister (2006) noted that the best education was provided to men, while women



received only basic minimum education suitable for domestic work and teaching children. Furthermore, there were fears that providing women with an education freed them from domestic roles (Freedman, 2002).

However, the breakthrough for women came during the civil war and World War I, when men were called to serve in the military, leaving women to take over roles that had been previously occupied by the men, including leadership positions (McAllister, 2006). After the war, the management of education was restructured to follow a business model, creating the superintendent position as the highest post where the principals, deputy principals and teachers reported. The superintendent was mainly a man. In addition, the chances of women ever becoming leaders in education were inhibited by the universities exclusion of women from administration and management programmes; yet administration and management skills were prerequisites for one becoming a school Superintendent or school principal (McAllister, 2006).

The changes in education occurred in tandem with other sectors of society. Freedman (2002) points out that the growth of labour market and industrialization, which paved way for men's paid employment in the industries away from home, resulted in the confinement of women to domestic labour. This was unrewarding and made women to be dependent on men. The structuring of labour into "separate spheres" were effectively used to define gender roles, under which, domestic labour/roles were trivialized. Feminists regard both capitalism and colonialism as being conduits of the oppression of the women (Freedman, 2002).

Furthermore, the subordination of the women was enhanced by Charles Darwin's theory of male superiority and sex differences, which promoted the patriarchal hierarchical structure that was predominantly used in the Victorian era (Couturier & Chepko, 2001). This theoretical perspective continues to manifest in most organizations today. Colonialist and the Christian missionaries extended the idea of natural superiority of men to other continents such as Africa and Asia, and used education and religion to prepare men for leadership positions (Freedman, 2002). This illustration demonstrates the genesis of the marginalization of women; their loss of authority, and the continued loss on the grip of power in public sectors and sports sector as well (McAllister, 2006).

A number of researchers consider education and sports as areas where the gender roles are continuously perpetuated, and a place where the dominant group controls the agenda (Coleman, 2007; Maurtin-Cairncross, 2009). Although various national and international bodies have ratified policies such as Affirmative Action and the Equal Opportunities Acts, women continue to be underrepresented in most leadership positions, an obvious disconnect between policy and practice (Dixon et al., 2008). The passing of some of the legislations such as the Brighton Declaration, which sought to promote women participation in sports, in the United Kingdom was met with a lot of resistance from men as they saw it as a form of "reverse discrimination" and a way of denying them their rightful positions (Freedman, 2002).

The empowerment policies, such as the Brighton Declaration and Equal Opportunity Act, 1969, are yet to be fully implemented in some countries which further disenfranchise the women in leadership. While the

international bodies, such as UNESCO and International Olympic Committee, acknowledge the existing inequities and have adopted a number of legislative laws and policies for the empowerment of women, the progress of women to leadership positions has been slow (Doherty & Manfredi, 2010). Despite the phenomenal increase of women acquiring higher education and gaining entry into the labour market, the progress of women into leadership positions has not been proportional with the changes (Maurtin-Cairncross, 2009). Few women occupy decision making positions. Statistics from around the world attest to the unequal representation of women in leadership positions: the 2006 American Association of University Professors (AAUP) report showed that there were 66 % men, and 34 % women professors; 43% women, and 66% men were tenured (Carlson, 2008). In 2005, 14.7% women held board seats in the Fortune 500 companies, but only 2.4% were in the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) position (Branson, 2007).

The 2000 world wide representation of women in parliament was 5,100 (13.8%), and that out of 179 nations around the world, only 39 had ever elected women as prime minister or president (Branson, 2007). Additionally, only one tenth of world cabinets and one fifth of assistant minister positions were held by women. Apparently, there are no comprehensive data on the world wide representation of women in sports leadership, particularly at the grassroots levels either in sports administration, coaching or physical education. Only Henry and Robinson (2010), through a study commissioned by the International Olympic Committee, provide some data on women in the National Olympic Committees around the world. Nevertheless, those results uphold findings that women are underrepresented in leadership positions as

only 12.4% women had been recruited to serve on the National Olympic Committees globally. While the Henry and Robinson's study focused on representation of women in National Olympic Committees' around the world, failure to consider the position of women leaders in sports federations or those at the grass roots levels implies lack of comprehensive statistical study on women in sports leadership around the world.

### **Gender Equity in Sport Governance**

Pfister (2013) posited that women face gender equity issues as athletes and as sport governance officials. There is a lack of women in leadership positions in sport because sport is a gendered institution (i.e. dominated by one gender group) and that all processes operate within a hegemonic masculine norm (Norman, 2015). Furthermore, sport institutions have institutionalized masculinity as the operating principle within sport, which identifies male activity as privileged, and reinforcing masculinity and masculine behaviour as acceptable leadership qualities required in sport (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Kidd (2013), therefore, concluded that gender inequality has become an institutionalised practice within sport organizations.

According to Burton (2015) women hold only 33% of general manager positions within the Women's National Basketball Association, and outside of the U.S., women are less likely to hold leadership positions in sports, including volunteer and professional level organizations. Furthermore, the International Olympic Committee has self-imposed threshold of at least 20% women as members of the board in 2012 (Smith & Wrynn, 2013). Smith and Wrynn also found that within national Olympic governing bodies (NGBs), 85.3% of those governing bodies are composed of all male leadership teams,

and 14.1% have male/female leadership teams, whereas only one (0.5%), Zambia, has an all-female leadership team. They concluded that leadership positions in sports organisations are skewed towards male leadership, and also that the underrepresentation of women in high international sports organisations have trickled down to national and sub-national sports authorities.

Hegemonic masculinity is an operating principle within sport organizations that restricts women's access to leadership positions within sport (Adriaanse & Schofield, 2014). Based on a study by Whisenant, Pedersen and Obenour (2002) on the influence of hegemonic masculinity on the rate of advancement of women and women in senior leadership positions in intercollegiate athletics, it was found that men maintained control of athletic director positions at the highest level of intercollegiate sport and had higher rates of organizational success. Furthermore, it was found that women held less than 15% of athletic director positions at the interscholastic level (Whisenant, 2008).

Another issue affecting gender equity in sports governance is the influence of power. Claringbould and Knoppers (2007) examined affirmative action policies, and how such policies are interpreted in sport organizations. Male leaders of the examined sport organizations discussed the importance of women's inclusion as members of Boards of Directors, but these leaders did not show any support for any policy changes that would effectively increase the number of women on those boards. Furthermore, recruitment and selection of women included a gender fit, which stated that they should have no young children, should be well educated, should have held high jobs previously,

should have flexible schedules, and should behave properly based on the standards of male leaders. Therefore, it was demonstrated that male leaders use power to ensure that male leadership remains dominant, and the participation of women is limited to those who fit the model of leader as determined by the men on the boards studied.

Alongside the theme of masculinity comes the issue of access and treatment discrimination. According to Schneider, Stier, Henry and Wilding (2010), and Simmons (2011), these types of discrimination occur at the organisational level and can negatively impact women in leadership positions in sport organisations. Adriaanse and Schofield (2014) noted that access discrimination operates by excluding members of certain groups from entering the organisation, while treatment discrimination occurs when individuals from certain groups receive less organizational resources than would be legally deserved. In relation to women in sport management, they are often impacted by treatment discrimination as they are denied access to rewards, resources, or opportunities on the job that they legitimately deserve in organisations (Smith & Wrynn, 2013; Whalen, 2017). Evidence from examining the work experiences of women in intercollegiate athletics in the U.S. by Tiell, Dixon and Lin (2012), shows that women in the Senior Woman Administrator position were denied opportunities to engage in important oversight roles in budgeting and leading men's sports programmes, which negatively impacted their abilities to build skill sets toward positions of athletic director.

A considerable body of research in the corporate domain has found that that ratio of women directors is positively related to board effectiveness and good governance (Adriaanse & Schofield, 2014). Spoor and Hoye (2013)



found that an organizational culture that valued gender equity and top management support for gender equity had more positive organizational outcomes for women and men within the organization, which included stronger organizational commitment and intentions to stay in the organisation. The findings of Spoor and Hoye demonstrated that organisations that practiced support for women can have a more significant impact on the entire organization in a positive manner. This, therefore, makes it quite intriguing why sport organisations would not implement equality in leadership positions based on the results that this would improve upon organisational objectives.

Similar to sport leadership, women in athletic sports participation are affected by some of the same masculinizing effects. It was anticipated in 1996 after the Olympic Summer Games that the enormous progress female athletes experienced in terms of their abilities 25 years after Title IX would have brought greater media attention in terms of quantity, and also, a qualitative reform in which women are recognized as true athletes (Fink, 2015). However, 15 years later, very little has changed in terms of media coverage, marketing, and promotion of female athletes and women's sport (Fink, 2015). According to Mullins (2015), women in sport are still greatly underrepresented in all types of media and are usually not recognized for their athletic ability, but instead for their physical appearance, femininity, and/or heterosexuality. One will discuss how the media affects gender equity in sports and promotes the masculinization of sports, and also, how society is affecting gender equity and female sports participation through feminization of women.

Gender marking is a common issue woman face in sport media, and this term represents the verbal and visual presentation of male athletes and

men's sports as being the norm, while rendering female athletes and women's competitions as secondary (Fink, 2015). Examples of gender marking are present in many women's championships like the Women's World Cup, and the United States Women's Open Championship. When looking at the similar events for men's sporting events, one will notice that they are never qualified with a gender moniker, which sets the tone as the male event being the standard and the female event being marked as the "other" event. Mullins (2015) found that sport commentators often participate in gender marking for women's events but not men's events. It was also found that gender marking occurred an average of 27.5 times in women's sporting events, but none in men's sports.

Another issue women face in sport media and coaching is a focus on femininity, heterosexuality, and sexism. Essentially, sport media reinforces patriarchal sovereignty by focusing on female athletes' femininity and heterosexuality, which serves to degrade their athletic accomplishments and athleticism (Fink, 2015). According to Trolan (2013), the most common theme of sexualisation in sport for women is in reference to their appearance, which many studies have observed that print media focus on the physical appearance of women athletes much more than their athletic skills or abilities. Trolan (2013) added that the most referenced was make-up, hair, and body shape for women, but this was rarely, if ever, focused on with men. This shows that physical appeal and aesthetic appeal highlight the idea that gender inequalities are the norm in the media about women in sports.

Burton (2015) reported that women had a rough entrance into the sports arena as it was seen as an unwelcoming intrusion into the realm of



masculinity, and this caused women who played sports to be viewed as masculine or lesbians. Essentially, for women to not be considered lesbians in sport, they must have beauty and grace as opposed to skill or athleticism. Successful women athletes were considered to be lesbians because they were seen as portraying a manner contrary to gender roles (Donnelly & Donnelly, 2013). Mullins (2015) found that by perceiving powerful women as lesbians, it is an attempt to belittle and disempower them. This threat and the resulting perception of it, reinforces the negativity of lesbianism, but also the negativity associated with being a female athlete, and could potentially affect female participation in sports leadership and management, as well as society's interest in female sports.

Mullins (2015) reported that the socializing effects at an early age affect sport participation of females throughout development. Mullins points out the notion that at a young age, girls are made to play with dolls, baking kits, and are essentially bombarded with the colour pink, which sets the tone for women as feminine, soft, and passive. However, Mullins notes that for men, the colour most associated with them is blue, but also they are made to play sports when growing up, as well as play with trucks and masculinizing things. Gender bias and stereotypes limit the physical activities in which girls participate, persist, and succeed in sporting activities (Leaper, & Friedman, 2007). Title IX has greatly increased athletic participation among girls and women, however non-compliance and inequities are still common.

Knifsend and Graham (2012) indicated that while American boys who play sports enjoy high school status from their peers, female athletes are judged to be of lower social status, especially if they play masculine sports.

Furthermore, girls who play sports during adolescence are also subject to direct, derogatory comments about their athleticism. In a study by Leaper and Firedman (2007), it was found that about three-fourths of the girls in their sample reported discouraging comments regarding their ability in sports. The most common sources were brothers or close male friends at 45%, other male peers at 54%, sisters or close female friends at 31%, and female peers at 38%. Furthermore, teachers and coaches were less common sources at 28%.

Based on the presented data, one can see that women in sports are faced with many challenges when in their attempt to participate in sports. From the point that sport is essentially masculinized from the beginning, to sexism, lesbianism, and heterosexualization of sport, one can see that women are continuing to be perceived less capable than men, and only taken seriously as beautiful and graceful athletes, assuming that they are beautiful and graceful. Any woman that is not perceived as such is considered masculine, or perhaps a lesbian for not following gender guidelines set forth by men. Furthermore, they are perceived as lesbians if they attempt to play masculine sports, and succeed. It is plausible to state that these issues could cause women to want to participate less, especially if they are socialized to fear the scrutiny involved with being athletic, or the ordeal of not being taken seriously as athletes.

### **Women in Sports Administration and Physical Education Leadership**

Generally, sports remain a male dominated arena, especially in leadership positions, where women are seen as intruders (Hargreaves, 2007). Despite the different social, religious and cultural factors that distinguish communities around the world, one thing that remains common to all

humanity is gender and how it is constructed and maintained, indicating that most of the societies around the world support the notions of gender differences. In Europe, the Victorian conceptions depicted women as frail and inferior, while men were in paid employment in commerce and industry, women concentrated on domestic work and raised children (Couturier & Chepko, 2001). The same reasons were used to deny women a chance to participate in sports as illustrated in the following section that focuses on women at the Olympics and women leaders' roles in physical education and sports.

### **Women at the Olympics**

The history of sports shows that the ancient Olympics games were constructed as a preserve for men, and women were neither allowed to watch nor participate in the games (Couturier & Chepko, 2001; Norman, 2010). It is only in the year 1900, that women were first allowed to participate in the International Olympic Committee games, and only in selected sports, which emphasized grace and beauty such as golf and lawn tennis (Hargreaves, 2007). Some of the founding fathers of modern Olympics games objected to women's participation in sports. For instance "Baron de Coubertin envisioned the modern Olympic Games as a celebration of masculinity," and said that: "women's proper place was in the stands as appreciative observers and not participants" (Couturier & Chepko, 2001, p. 89). By this statement, de Coubertin was marking out sports as a male domain. In fact, his statement reinforced the long-held beliefs and patriarchal practices of the ancient Olympics, where women were originally the prizes in men's Olympic chariot races (Whisenant, 2008)

Avery Brundage, the International Olympic Committee President from 1952 to 1972, was also opposed to women sports and advocated for removal of some of the women's events from the Olympic programme (Hargreaves, 2007). These leaders' positions articulate the gendered ideologies used to protect sports from women's involvement. This, in turn, resulted in the slow growth of women's sports. Schell and Rodriguez (2000) observed that inadequate representation in decision-making positions allow the dominant group to successfully impose their ideas on the minority. In sports for example, men determine the whole agenda.

### **Women Leaders' Roles in Promoting Physical Education and Sports**

After successfully lobbying for equal access to education and employment, women became bolder in their demands for equal rights, and succeeded in getting women allowed to participate in the Olympics games. With the expansion of education, USA and European nations recognized the importance of sports and physical education programmes, and introduced them to the university and colleges academic programmes (Swanson & Spears, 1995). However, men and women's sports and P.E. programmes were conducted separately. For women leaders in sports and P.E, "separate spheres" strategy ensured that women could have equal access to sports and P.E. without interfering in men's sport (Park, 2010; Poulsen, 2004). Women were only allowed to participate in certain sports that were modified in accordance with the prescribed feminine requirements. In Belgium, women P.E. and sports leaders introduced girls' physical education programmes in schools, as well as in women's Teacher training colleges. Moreover, aggressive appointment of women as inspectors of girls P.E. in school and promotion of

gymnastics as a women's activity helped create an identity for women's P.E. and sports (Poulsen, 2004). Notably, highly educated professionals who were committed to promoting sports for all women managed women's sports, and these professionals were opposed to the men-preferred competitive sports because they wanted to expand opportunities for women's participation in sports (Park, 2010).

Swanson and Spears (1995) established that women physical educators were proactive in advocating for participation of women in sports by playing tripartite roles of teachers, coaches, and administrators. In addition to these multiple roles, they used their organizations to develop women's physical education programmes in the universities (Park, 2010). According to Buchanan (2011) women leaders resisted the idea of competitive sports as they felt it promoted individualism, but rather encouraged the participation-for-all model for the development of a culture that allowed everyone to benefit from the sports experience.

The success of women only activities combined with women's management of their own activities lasted up to the 1970's when there was a merger of women's and men's physical education and sports programmes under the Title IX (Acosta & Carpenter, 2008). The subsequent appointment of men to head those programmes further reduced the number of women in sports leadership. For instance the number of women coaches declined from 90% in the 1970's to less than 45% in 2000 (Acosta & Carpenter, 2008). Increasingly, more men are being hired to coach women sports, yet very few women ever get a chance to coach male sports; the gendered stereotypes and sexism limit coaching opportunities for women (Norman, 2010). In view of

the declining representation of women in leadership, Branson (2007) argues that women have been underserved by policies that were meant to empower them. This situation is replicated by other national and international sports organizations around the world (Norman, 2010).

### **Current Status of Women in Sports Leadership Internationally**

One of the International Olympic Committee's (IOC) 1997 women's sports policy resolutions was to increase the number of women in National Olympic Committees (NOC) leadership to 10% by 2001 and to 20% by 2005. However, the 2004 IOC evaluation indicated that those targets had not been achieved due to the lack of women members or representatives at the local sports federations (Henry & Robinson, 2010). Henry and Robinson revealed that women were not offering themselves for positions in their sports federations and thus men remain dominant leaders in national bodies. As previously indicated, the Women Sports Foundation report on the 2006 leadership representation at the IOC indicated male dominated IOC committees at all levels except the women's sports committee, and the situation remained unchanged (Henry & Robinson, 2010). It is clear that the Olympic movement's leadership continues to function as a male dominated arena from its highest office to the grassroots or the national sports federation levels.

The Women Sports Foundation's report on sports leadership among the United Kingdom's (UK) executives in administration and coaching revealed leadership to be a male dominated sphere, and in all major sports governing bodies, men occupied leadership positions. For instance, the Central Council for Physical Recreation's executive body consisted of 24% female



and 76% male, and in UK sports funded bodies, high performance directors and coaches comprised 19% female and 81% male. The British Universities Sports Association's executives and committee members included 39% females and 61% males. In coaching, the Institute of Leisure and Amenities employed 12% female and 88% male coaches, with active sports coaches accounting for 34% female and 60% male population. In addition, the 2000 Olympics games had less than 5% representation of women as coaches or team managers (Women's Sports Foundation, 2004).

Pfister and Radke's (2009) study on German sports federations showed that nearly all of the top level sport positions were men leaders, specifically 96.6% presidents and 80% of other top executive positions. The regional sports federations consisted of 18 men and one woman. Additionally, women composed of only 20.1% of the regional federations' executive positions, and of the 2,726 leadership positions at different levels of the regional sports associations, women occupied only 14%. Of the positions at the national level, the proportion of women to men in leadership was even more striking, with men occupying 91% of the 682 positions, and women occupying only 9%. The number of women in leadership positions decreased greatly as the status of the job increased at all levels of governance, from the regional to the national levels. The study further revealed that in 2002, only four of the 55 national sports federations had women presidents, and that women were typically allocated roles in women and youth sports, and strategic planning responsibilities were reserved for men. The gender role hierarchies present in the organizational cultures impede women from taking up leadership positions (Pfister & Radtke's, 2009). Although women may just be as qualified as the



men, a number of them hardly meet standards considered for an ideal leader. This is because the standards are set by males and the expectations are to get males to occupy some critical positions.

Contrary to most studies that indicate the low representation of women in sports, Canada seems to be the one nation where equal opportunity policies seem to have been fully implemented. According to Martel (2007), Canada's sports survey showed that by 1991, 42% of women were employed in sports Administration in Canada and that equal participation in sports had been achieved, with 49% women participating on equal grounds as men. Further, there was a steady growth of the women's representation in leadership from the general underrepresentation in 1981, to an improved status in 1985, though in smaller organization and later in 1988, more women were serving in executive positions in national bodies (Martel, 2007). Evidently the progress of women in leadership positions in Canada resulted from Canadian government's commitment to increase the number of women in the governance of sports.

Representation of women from some of the sports federations in Kenya revealed that leadership positions are dominated by men in almost all organizations. The Kenya Rugby Football Union (KRFU) had a total of 17 directors, 4 (23.5%) of whom were women. Out of the 26 Kenya Hockey Union (KHU) boards of directors members were only 2 (7.7%) women. The Kenya Lawn Tennis Association's (KLTA) leadership included 5(41.7%) representation of women (M'Mbaha, 2012). Although KLTA seemed to have an almost equal representation in its leadership, only one woman was on the executive board with the rest serving as council members. In both KRFU and

KHU women's roles were limited to office administration or serving as facilitators of women's and youth programs. In addition, women served as vice chairs or treasurers. This role allocation is similar to what has been found in other countries, and even at the IOC, where women are hardly allocated roles that can impact policy decisions in sports organizations.

### **Reasons for Underrepresentation of Women in Sports Coaching**

According to Mattila (2010), a number of factors have contributed to the continuous underrepresentation of women in sports coaching. These factors range from historical antecedents of how both gender groups are perceived and their socio-cultural roles through legislative elements to socialisation. Acknowledging these reasons is the first step towards the efforts to address them to increase female participation in sports coaching.

### **Coaching as a Gendered Role**

Traditionally, women involved in coaching have tended to work with younger athletes due to perceptions that they are better equipped to 'mother' and nurture than their male counterparts (Norman, 2010). This, however, may only serve to enforce the notion that the high-performance environment is 'too tough' for women. This has contributed to increase the dominance of males in sports administration. According to Norman (2010), women in sports leadership are unable to make any significant impact on policies due to the type of portfolios assigned them. Mattila (2010) therefore described women participation in sports leadership as 'cosmetic' gesture, where people are made to believe that women are participating but in reality, all critical portfolios are controlled and administered by males.

## Coaching Networks

Elite coaching networks tend to be male dominated, leading many female coaches to perceive them as less accessible. Women coaches, therefore, remain at grass-roots, club or regional level, when in reality there could be a huge benefit in the shared learning and development of being part of a coaching network (Mattila, 2010). According to Norman (2010), males use such network to perpetuate their dominance in sports leadership.

## The Woman's Role

Coaching is known to be a time-consuming pursuit that may require travel, and weekend and evening work. Quite simply, due to women typically taking on the greater role for domestic responsibilities, their ability to commit to coaching positions at any level is more likely to be questioned compared to their male equivalents. Thus, the socio-cultural role assigned to women disadvantaged them from securing coaching roles and engaging themselves in sports management (Martel, 2007).

## Leadership

The majority of governing bodies of sport performance directors and senior leaders are males and may themselves have preconceived ideas as to who makes a good coach and which qualities and attributes are desired in good coaches. These attributes may be seen as 'masculine', which automatically create challenges for female coaches (Pfister & Radtke, 2009). The perpetuation of male dominance in sports coaching and leadership sometimes discourages women from applying for some critical positions (Martel, 2007).

### ***Role Models and Representation***

Low numbers of women coaching in the highest echelons of sport inevitably means fewer role models for up-and-coming female coaches. This is further exacerbated by the fact that, with one or two exceptions, the women involved in high-performance coaching work in sports with a lower public profile, such as diving or judo (Koller, 2010). This affects other females in choosing sports coaching as a professional career. Pfister and Radke (2009), asserted that the subordinate roles mostly assigned to female coaches in sports teams do not allow others to have confidence in them and use them as role models to build their professional career.

### ***Sports-Specific participation***

According to Koller (2010), some sports, such as tennis or gymnastics, may rely on coach strength or playing ability, which could present perceived challenges for female coaches. Thus, the few number of representation of females in coaching such sports suggests that successes and achievements will always be attributed to male coaches. This does not encourage females to enter into coaching specific sports disciplines.

### ***Coaching Qualifications***

For many women, professional coaching qualifications serve as a means of gaining confidence and perceived credibility to progress to higher levels of coaching. The emphasis some women give to these qualifications may, consequently, make attaining them more time-consuming and costly (Webb & Macdonald, 2007). Thus, combining the stress in achieving coaching qualifications in particular sporting disciplines with their socio-cultural roles

sometimes act as disincentive for females to enter into sports coaching as a professional career (Pfister & Radtke, 2009).

### ***Women Creating their Own Opportunities***

A study by Kay and Jeans (2008) shows that women only apply for jobs if they feel they meet 100% of the stated criteria, whereas men will put themselves forward if they feel they meet just 60%; thus perpetuating the problem. This social issue may prevent some female coaches from attaining higher-level coaching positions and being able to develop their skills and knowledge. In other words, the dominance of males in sports coaching does not motivate females and also give them confidence to challenge their male counterparts in leadership roles (Kay & Jeans, 2008).

### **Review of Gender Equity Policies in Sport**

Gender equity is a constant, complex and difficult challenge to address at all levels of government. The existence of policies therefore provides an avenue for resolving such complex challenges. (Campbell, 2009). According to Holman (2001), organizations or institutions can express their commitment to gender equity through the incorporation of policies that guide decision making. Such policies contribute to the provision of fair access to programmes and associated benefits. In this section, a number of international, federal, provincial and municipal policies that attempt to increase female participation and coaching in sport along with some league-specific policies and organizational programmes that have attempted to address gender equity in coaching have been examined. Generally, these policies have however, failed to have any significant impact on change.

According to VanderZwaag (1998 p.11), “policies are broad guidelines for the achievement of objectives; they naturally have to be developed after the objectives are established”. The development of such policies all over the world demonstrate the value of female sport and the importance of female sport participation and the social value of sport for all. The failure of most of these policies, however, demonstrates the complexity of achieving equity in sport. In this section, the study examined global efforts that address gender equity in sport and some country specific policies aimed at increasing women participation in sport coaching that could be emulated by others.

### **Global Policies**

In 1978, Canada signed the Charter of Physical Education and Sport for the purpose of guaranteed access to physical education and sport for all. The International policy was developed by the United Nations (UN) under their United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organizations (UNESCO), which encompassed sport (Oglesby, 2015). Oglesby observed that the policy does not mention gender in particular but recognises physical education as a human right issue. “The policy presented principles and policy recommendations to guide ‘best practices’ in national planning programmes around the world” (Oglesby, 2015). The Charter has been used to develop and improve sport programmes and physical education curricula. The Charter comprised seven articles which aimed at to promoting gender equity in sports and sports administration (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organizations, 1978). The articles include:



- i. The practice of physical education and sport is a fundamental right for all. As a result females should also be given equal opportunities as males to participate in physical education programmes and exercises.
- ii. Physical education and sport form an essential element of lifelong education in the overall education system. Physical education programmes should be designed taken into account the peculiar and socio-cultural roles of females in mind.
- iii. Physical education and sport programmes must meet individual and social needs. The needs of females should also be factored into the planning and implementation of physical education and sport programmes.
- iv. Teaching, coaching and administration of physical education and sport should be performed by qualified personnel. The selection of sports coaches, administrators and physical instructors should not be discriminated on the basis of gender, rather on competence.
- v. The mass media should highlight the positive influence of physical education and sport on the holistic development of children. The mass media are encouraged to expose discrimination and underrepresentation of females in sport programmes and leadership.
- vi. National institutions play a major role in physical education and sport. National institutions should demonstrate their commitment in achieving gender parity in sports leadership to encourage local governments to promote gender equity in sports and sports administration.

- vii. International co-operation is a prerequisite for the universal and well-balanced promotion of physical education and sport. International sports committees should develop policies and procedures to promote gender equity in sports.

### **Importance of Getting Women into Sports Coaching**

According to Hattery (2010), women are an untapped resource and will help widen the talent pool for prospective coaches. In many sports, women make up half of the national teams and, given that many coaches have themselves been athletes, sports leaderships are inevitably losing valuable expertise by not encouraging these women to coach (Haverkamp & Young, 2007).

The low number of women visible in high-profile coaching positions does little to change perceptions of sport being a male-dominated environment or promote sport as an attractive proposition for women as participants, volunteers, coaches or administrators (Hattery, 2010). The engagement of women into sports coaching is essential as it would disabuse the notion that sports are masculine activities.

Women also have different life and leadership experiences and qualities; this is something that the corporate world is becoming increasingly aware of and is capitalising on (Quimby & Desantis, 2006). The powers that be in sports also need to recognise the attributes and experiences women can bring to coaching. Haverkamp and Young (2007), argue that women are also well placed to understand the psychological and social pressures female athletes tend to experience; but this does not suggest that women should only coach women and vice versa.

Sports provide a number of health benefits to people. The low participation of females in sports implies the denial of women of the health benefits associated with sports (Quimby & Desantis, 2006). Haverkamp and Young (2007), suggests that the promotion of women in sports participation is an avenue for promoting their fundamental human right on health.

According to Oglesby (2015), the promotion of female participation is premised on the principle of fairness. This is because sports is not reduced to a gendered-activity and relegate female to lower levels of participation. Hattery (2010) posited that it is only fair to promote females to gain equitable control in sports. This would help to create role models for young females to accept sports as a professional activity.

### **Approaches to Getting More Women into Coaching**

The status quo needs to change and there are things organisations can do to encourage more women to work in sport. However, it is important to recognise that many of the structures and pathways within sport have been established for a long time and may, inevitably, have a gender bias (Quimby & Desantis, 2006). In encouraging high participation of women into sports coaching, Oglesby (2015) suggested that organisations may choose to develop their own positive action schemes or work in partnership with governing bodies of sport or sports coaches associations to identify specific opportunities for getting more women involved in coaching. Obviously, it is also important that appropriate time and resources are committed to any programme if it is to have a positive impact. To achieve a fairer system, special measures may be required. These include the following:

### *Athlete to Coach Transition*

As a result of female athletes choosing other professions at the end of their active participation or playing careers, the world is losing considerable competitive experience. Actively promoting coaching as a career option and developing appropriate support programmes may help to address this, as well as helping the athlete manage her retirement from elite competition (Kerr & Banwell, 2014).

### *Support Networks*

A study by Kilty (2006) revealed that social support networks play a crucial role in encouraging women to consider sports coaching as a career. The female coaches that were interviewed said a solid support network was important for their ability to progress and continue working in sport. Peer and family encouragement were highlighted as vital and establishing networks across sport was also recommended.

### *Role Models*

Pfister (2009) suggested that the governing bodies of sport and national sport agencies need to work collectively to raise the profile of female coaches and their successes. Women coaches also need to recognise that they can inspire others to follow in their footsteps and they are well positioned to help make this happen.

### *Policy Decisions*

There are governing bodies of sport internationally who have taken the policy decision to only employ women coaches to work with women's teams/athletes which in turn to promote women's participation in other male-dominated sports. This approach enables women to challenge the assumption

that the best coach for the job will always be a man and should, therefore, encourage more women to put themselves forward for coaching jobs (Heuze, 2005).

### ***Ensuring Women Coaches Focus on Coaching***

It is important female coaches are allowed to focus on coaching. They should not be expected to take on additional roles (e.g. as chaperone) simply because of their gender. LaVoi and Dutove (2012) asserted that such additional or peripheral roles distract women coaches from achieving their targets which further the perpetuation of the notion that male coaches are better than female coaches.

### ***Talent Identification***

Identifying, supporting and encouraging female coaching talent is essential (Smith & Wrynn, 2013). It is also important to recognise that, as with talent identification and female athletes, support in this area may not mirror what is provided to their male counterparts.

### ***Understanding the Client Group and Tailoring Support***

In addition to formal coach education, LaVoi and Dutove (2012) indicated that female coaches identified a desire for more continuous professional development, informal learning and mentoring opportunities to help them improve and develop as coaches.

### ***Creating and Promoting Opportunities for Female Coaches to Interact and Progress***

The creation of networks that allow women to learn from and support each other has also been cited by coaches as a way of encouraging more

women to progress in coaching (Burton, 2015). This is not surprising because it provides room for them to learn from their peers and gain new experience.

### ***The Coaching Environment***

According to Adriaanse and Schofield (2014), sports organisations should institute policies and codes of conduct to ensure the coaching environment is free from discrimination or harassment. There should also be effective guidelines in place to ensure grievances can be handled appropriately, sensitively and professionally at any level of coaching.

### **Making Changes through Legislation**

Some of the most celebrated achievements in women's movements have been the successful push for legislation of international laws against discrimination. Legislation provides a structure for examining equality issues, and the progress toward achieving goals passed at various international forums such as the Equal Opportunity Act, the Affirmative Action, the Brighton Declaration, and Title IX. These are discussed in this section.

### ***Equal Opportunities Act***

Women's agitation for equal representation was provoked by capitalism and industrial changes that were seen as suppressing women, while awarding men special privileges (Freedman, 2002). Salaried employment, access to education, and property rights for men were perceived by women as being out rightly unjust, hence the feminist movements and agitation for equal rights. The achievement of women's movement included the increased entry of women into labour market, the enactment of equal pay law in European nations in 1957; Scandinavian nations passed the law in the 1960's; USA in 1963, and Britain in 1975. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission



(EEOC) of 1969 was also formed in response to the women's demands to be allowed into formal employment, access to better wages and improved working conditions.

Following the EEOC recommendations, a number of countries enacted anti-discrimination laws and vowed to improve the working conditions for women. Britain outlawed sexual discrimination in employment in 1975; Italy passed the Equal employment Act in 1977; France in 1983; Japan in 1985 (Freedman, 2002). These laws enabled women have access to jobs. The ability to secure a job is viewed as the first step towards accessing leadership position in all fronts, including sports. Thus, the promulgation of such laws created the platform to empower women to vie for positions in sports management and administration, including coaching. Even though the actualisation of the tenets of the law in sports has been slow, it has created the environment where women are gradually being accepted as equally competent to handle sports teams without discrimination in some countries.

### ***Affirmative Action***

Although the EEOC was ratified by a number of nations, not everyone seemed to benefit from this specific act, specifically women and other minority groups. In the United States, where the Affirmative Action (AA) concept originated in 1967, AA was considered as a remedy to the problem of discrimination of marginalized groups based on their race, gender, sexual orientations, religious affiliations and ethnicity (Freedman, 2002). The affirmative action in the United States focused on recruitment of 20-25% of the underrepresented groups into formal employment. For most African nations that are signatories to the international laws against gender based

discrimination, the Affirmative Action law is widely used for the purpose of increasing the number of women civic employment and other decision making positions.

In Kenya, affirmative action that was proposed in 2007 was included in the country's constitution of 2010. The law recommends that women are to form at least 30% of the employees both in the public and private sectors. Following the 2007 election, there are 18 women in parliament; 10 elected and 8 nominated, which is an increase from 3.8% in 2002 and 9.5% in 2007. Out of the 2,837 civic seats, only 377 are held by women, and of the 90 ministerial and assistant minister's positions, seven were ministers and six were assistant ministers (Ogutu, 2010). In the corporate world in Kenya, Ogutu (2010) found that the gender equity was not observed by a majority of the organizations. Clearly, the absence of women on the executive boards points to the low or lack of priority given to gender equity within organizations. For example, of the two companies that had women on their boards, one had two women out of the 17 board seats, and another had only three women directors out of 11 members.

Chabaya, Rembe and Wadesango (2009) reported that when Zimbabwe attained independence in 1980, gender equity policy became part of the national agenda, with the establishment of the affirmative action policy of 1992 confirming the government's intent to make gender equity possible. The National Gender Policy of 2004 was also enacted with the purpose of eliminating all forms discriminatory practices including political, economic, cultural and religious, yet the paucity of women in governance persists.

Continued underrepresentation of women in governance points to disconnection between policy and practice.

Although research points to the persistent low representation of women in governance, some critics consider laws such as Affirmative Action (AA) as “reverse discrimination” which disadvantages men (Freedman, 2002). Others consider adoption of affirmative action as a confirmation of the deeply held perceptions of women’s inferiority, and that women may be stigmatized as being less qualified. Additionally, Affirmative Action has been criticized for excluding those it was originally intended for, and this has been seen as promoting social class, as appointments to positions maybe based on nepotism; hence, AA is regarded as being ineffective in influencing policies for promoting women into leadership positions.

When the historical background of the status of women in sports is considered, then the effects of the Equal Opportunity Act in sports can be perceived as being enormous, given the tremendous increase in participation of women in sports over the years. However, from the leadership standpoint, sport remains a male dominated area and is seen as one of the most “contested arena” (Sabo & Messner, 2001). In order to increase the number of women in sports, a number of global and regional sport policies and declarations on women and sports have been enacted. These include: Brighton Declaration (1994); Beijing platform for action (1995); IOC Women and Sport Commission (2004); “Women, Leadership and the Olympic Movement” (2004); The International Year of Sport and Physical Education (UN 2005); “Women 2000 and Beyond: Women, gender equality and sport” (UN 2007); EU Commission's “White Paper on Sport” and accompanying “Action Plan” -

2007 (Mattila, 2010). Of all these, the Brighton declaration is said to be the most critical when considering the representation of women in sports leadership.

### *Title IX*

Title IX of the Omnibus Education Act was enacted in 1972 by the United States Congress to ensure that institutions were providing equal opportunities for male and female students at higher education institutions that receive federal funding (Koller, 2010). Thornton, Champion and Ruddell (2012) claim that the Title IX Statute as follows: “No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education programme or activity receiving federal financial assistance”. Thornton et al. also deduced exceptions to Title IX to include educational institutions that traditionally admit members of only one sex, institutions that train individuals for military service, and institutions whose compliance with Title IX would violate religious beliefs.

Furthermore, it did not specifically refer to athletic opportunities when it was first developed; however, subsequent interpretations and court cases set the tone that opportunities in athletics are also to be upheld to this standard (Koller, 2010). Further continuations of Title IX involved the 1975 Title IX regulations and the 1979 Policy Interpretation: Title IX and Intercollegiate Athletics, which were both issued by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare: Office of Civil Rights, and the 1996 Clarification of Intercollegiate Athletic Policy Guidance: The Three Part Test, issued by the

U.S. Department of Education: Office of Civil Rights (11). This test (11) presents the following key points:

- i. Are participation opportunities substantially proportionate to enrolment?
- ii. Is there a history and continuing practice of programme expansion for the underrepresented sex?
- iii. Is the institution fully and effectively accommodating the interests and abilities of the underrepresented sex?

Also, as it relates to sports participation, the general rule in both contact and non-contact sports is that when only one team is available, both sexes must be allowed to try out for and play on the team. If there is a contact sport where no women's team is available, the trend is to allow women to participate on the men's team (Thornton et al., 2012). Further, the regulations under Title IX permit an athletic department that receives federal funds to maintain separate teams for each sex if selection for the teams is based on competitive skill or if the sport involved is a contact sport (Thornton et al., 2012).

#### ***Brighton Declaration***

The 1994 Brighton Declaration is particularly important to the cause of women in sports leadership around the world. For instance, although some gains were realized following the Equal Opportunity Act of 1969 and subsequent legislation laws and policies, access to leadership remained a challenge for women in all sectors. In sports, the outcomes of Title IX, in the United States were incongruent with its purposes given that the increased participation of women in sports never translated in the increase of women in

leadership positions (Acosta & Carpenter, 2008). Therefore, the Brighton declaration was conceptualized to counter the underrepresentation of women in leadership positions in sports, and by the year 2002, 250 organizations had adopted the declaration (White & Scoretz, 2002), and by 2010, a total of 322 nations around the world had endorsed the Brighton declaration (Mattila, 2010). The main purpose of the Brighton declaration is: To develop a sporting culture that enables and values the full involvement of women in every aspect of sport. The Brighton objectives included:

- i. Ensuring equality in society and sport.
- ii. Increasing availability and access to sport facilities for women.
- iii. Increasing representation of women in leadership positions in sport.
- iv. Increasing education, training and development programmes that address gender equality.
- v. Increased information and research on women and sport.
- vi. Allocation of resources for sportswomen and women's programmes.
- vii. Incorporation of the promotion of gender equality and sharing of good practices into governmental and non-governmental policies and programmes on women and sport.

The Brighton conference emphasized the importance of physical education and sports in society and underscored the need for women leaders in sports to act as role models in society. It still remains a crucial reference point for governments and sports organizations interested in enhancing participation of women in sports and also developing a more inclusive sports governance body (Mattila, 2010).



## **Female Coaches in Sport and the Effects of Role Models on Female**

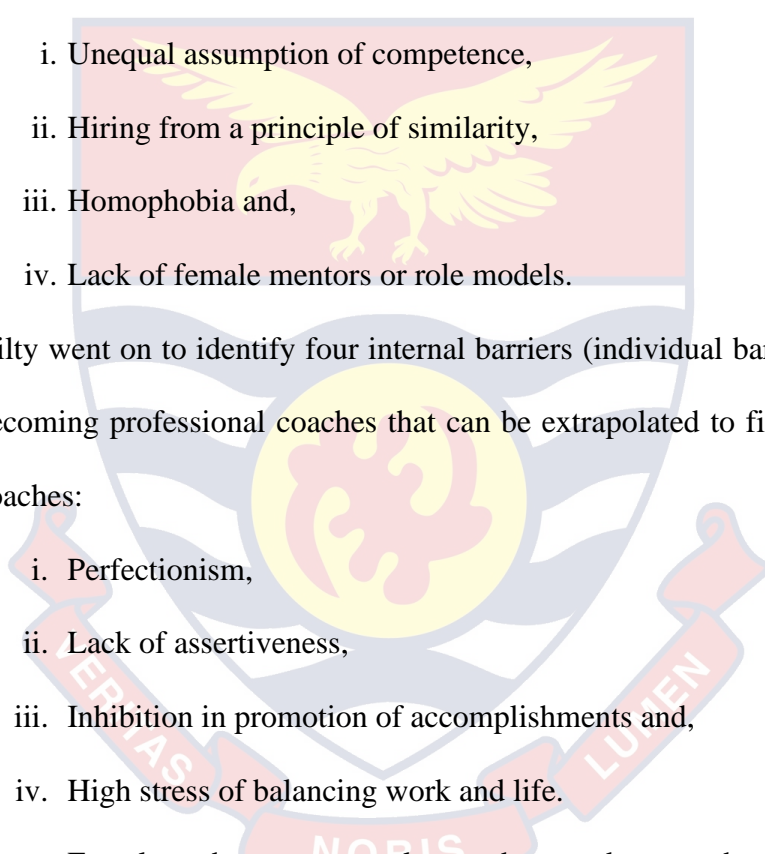
### **Athletes**

The last decade has seen a major increase in literature on female leaders. What makes a good leader (Gachter, Nosenzo, Renner & Sefton, 2009; Goleman, 2004), why do females become leaders and, what are the barriers to females becoming leaders (Eagly, 2007; Eagly; Oakley, 2000 & Carli, 2007) are all heavily researched topics. Female sport leaders have also become a trend in leadership research. The statistics show that there is a huge gender gap in coaching at all levels. In 2016, 47% of members of the executive board of the Canadian Association of Coaches' were female (Smith, 2016). At the 2012 London Olympics, only 20% of Canadian coaches were female (Kidd, 2013).

A study by Kerr and Banwell (2014) examined Canadian Inter-university Sport (CIS) level female athletes. They found that almost all of the athletes did not consider coaching as a viable career option because it is not a traditional career and does not pay well. Male dominance in coaching also acted as a deterrent to females choosing coaching as a career because the athletes did not feel women were competent enough to coach. Interestingly, Reade, Rodgers and Norman (2009) found that the number of women who complete first-level courses for coaching certification is almost equal to men but, as they examined higher levels of certification, there were fewer and fewer women (in relation to men). Donnelly, Norman and Kidd (2013) examined CIS coaches and administrative positions. They found that 24% of Athletic Directors in the CIS were females. Coaching positions however were predominantly male with only 17% of head coach positions occupied by

females. Female squads were coached by males 68% of the time and 82% of mixed gender such as track and field teams were coached by males. Additionally, over 99% of male teams were coached by males.

According to Kilty (2006), females do not become coaches due to several barriers (external and internal). Kilty identified four external barriers (cultural or environmental barriers) to females becoming professional coaches that can be extrapolated to fit grass root level coaches:

- 
- i. Unequal assumption of competence,
  - ii. Hiring from a principle of similarity,
  - iii. Homophobia and,
  - iv. Lack of female mentors or role models.

Kilty went on to identify four internal barriers (individual barriers) to females becoming professional coaches that can be extrapolated to fit grass root level coaches:

- i. Perfectionism,
- ii. Lack of assertiveness,
- iii. Inhibition in promotion of accomplishments and,
- iv. High stress of balancing work and life.

Females who are currently coaches tend to emphasize the need for guidance to become a coach. Mentors and role models are an important part of this guidance and involve helping people overcome the above barriers. Reade, Rodgers and Norman (2009) expanded Kilty's research to include more barriers and to further explain the imbalance of male and female coaches. They examined social-structural conditions of coaching like opportunity and power and found that "when the proportion of women is too low, women can

be subordinated and marginalized. One way women are potentially marginalized is by being restricted to low-level, low-paying coaching positions, where there are few opportunities to advance and few role models to demonstrate how to coach” (Reade et al., 2009, p. 506). This study went on to add institutional barriers to Kilty’s external and internal barriers. They were:

- i. “The old boy’s network”,
- ii. Inadequate pool of women candidates and,
- iii. Occupational closure or hierarchies that use exclusionary mechanisms (in this case male dominance).

Reade et al. (2009) further expanded the research to examine high performance or elite level coaches. They found that, even in the same sport and/or at the same level of sport, there were several differences between male and female coaches. Women tend to be:

- i. Younger,
- ii. Unmarried,
- iii. Are less likely to have children,
- iv. Only hold part time positions,
- v. Coach females only,
- vi. Have formal education in an undergraduate degree or higher level and,
- vii. Are more likely to have national or international competitive experience, indicating they are “professionals” in their sport.

There were some similarities between males and females with regards to:

- i. Number of years as a coach,
- ii. Number of years they intended to remain as coaches and,
- iii. Level of coaching certification.

The same study (Reade et al., 2009) found that most female coaches were at the lowest levels of competition and coached “feminine” activities (i.e., synchronized swimming, figure skating). At these lower levels the proportion of female coaches to men was almost equal but, as the level of sport increased, so did the number of male coaches. According to Eagly and Carli (2007), social-structural factors associated with careers contribute to the imbalance of men and women in the workplace as seen here in coaching. She suggested that women were disadvantaged in terms of power at higher levels of sport. While almost all coaches have some experience in the sport they coach, female coaches were more likely than male coaches to have experienced elite sport and competition as athletes. Eagly and Carli’s theory suggests that coaches with elite sport and competition experience are qualified to coach their respective sport. This power creates a unique opportunity for men who have this experience to coach at an elite level. It should be noted that being an athlete does not necessarily qualify someone to coach.

Reade et al. (2009) also examined why there were higher proportions of male coaches than female coaches. They argued that athletic directors hire male coaches more often than females because of:

- i. Power and opportunity (i.e. to maintain male power within the organization),
- ii. Assumption of higher competence of men,
- iii. Traditional hiring practices and,
- iv. Homophobia (e.g. to hide the risk of a lesbian image).

Kerr and Banwell (2014) speculated that male hegemony in sport can be maintained by limiting women to ‘traditional feminine’ sports and to lower

levels of coaching. They also suggested that limiting women to coaching only female athletes in team sports might also be working as a method of marginalization, decreasing the power of women in sport and leading women to have lack of affiliation with power. This lack of power and marginalization ultimately leads to a decrease in female coaching candidates at all levels of sport.

### **Conceptual Framework**

The study adapted a path model analysis framework from the Social Cognitive Career Theory (see Figure 1) to examine the extent of engagement of female P.E. teachers in sports coaching, quantity and quality of coaches along with working hours and perceived discrimination to determine coaching self-efficacy and interest in coaching. Moran-Miller and Flores (2011) reported that role models and working hours predicted an athlete's coaching self-efficacy and coaching outcome expectations. Additionally, coaching self-efficacy, coaching outcome expectations and contextual factors such as female coaching role models, working hours, and perceived discrimination predicted an interest in coaching.

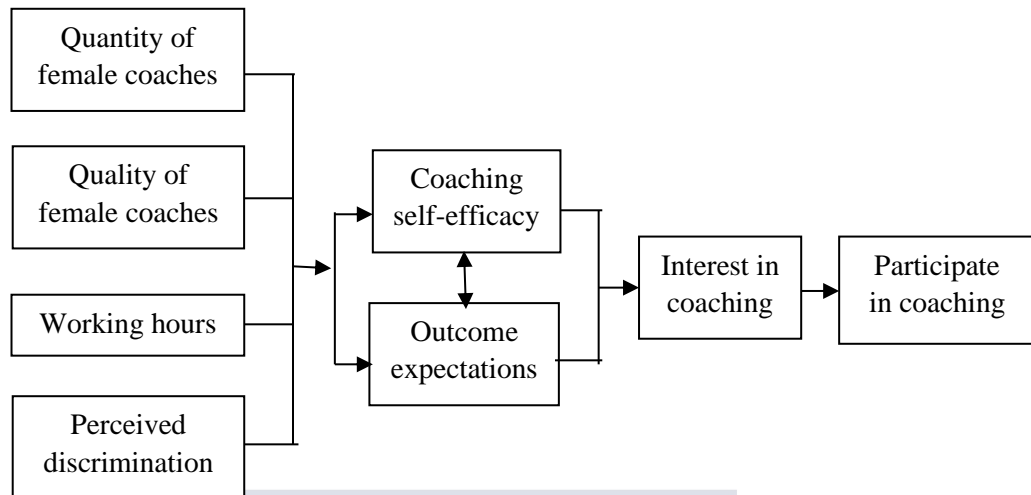


Figure 1- Framework for Analysing Factors Influencing Female Participation in Coaching

Source: Moran-Miller & Flores, 2009.

Thus, a number of factors influence the entire process of female participation in sports coaching. The number and quality of female coaches in the system serve as role models or reference points to upcoming females to consider sports coaching as a career. Increased numbers of high quality female coaches serve as source of motivation for upcoming female sports coaches. In addition, working hours and conditions surrounding sports coaching affect the decisions of females to opt for coaching as a job career. Further, perceived discrimination and nature of power structures within the sports organisations critically influence the willingness and desire of females choosing coaching as a career.

In other words, the number and quality of female coaches, working hours and perceived discrimination influence coaching self-efficacy and the outcome expectations of prospective female coaches. Females opt for coaching or develop interest in coaching when they have a net positive outcome expectation and self-belief about their competence to make meaningful impact in sports as coaches. According to Moran-Miller and



Flores (2011), the level of interest in coaching drives people's passion to participate in higher levels of coaching. This is done by influencing existing male-dominated structures to accommodate females at various levels in sports coaching.

### **Summary**

Social constructivism, feminism and SCCT were the theoretical grounds on which this study stood. Leadership roles had been listed as an entitlement for men but women had their breakthrough during the Civil War and World War I. To provide equity, policy frameworks have been drawn by different entities to enhance women representation. Sports as a male dominated enterprise increases discrimination against women in leadership as they are seen as intruder. Despite efforts to increase women participation in sports/coaching, women are still underrepresented. It is evident that women are underrepresented since coaching is considered as a gendered role, professional coaching networks are less accessible to female, and lack of role models for females in coaching. Other factors include the demands of specific sports, sporting qualification, lack of opportunities, interest, family roles, etc. Efforts to improve female participation in coaching highlighted include, athlete to coach transition, support networks, role models, talent identification, and opportunity creation among females.

## CHAPTER THREE

### RESEARCH METHODS

The purpose of the study was to examine the factors influencing low representation of females in coaching regional sports teams in Ghana. This chapter presents the methodology of the study. It describes the processes by which the study findings were arrived at. It focuses on the research design, study area, population, sampling procedure, data collection instruments, data collection procedures and data processing and analysis.

#### **Research Design**

According to Yin (2009), a research design provides the framework for structuring the various aspects of a research work. The study adopted a concurrent mixed method research design. Creswell (2013) defined a mixed method research design as the combination of qualitative and quantitative techniques in the sampling, data collection and analysis in a single study. Clark and Springer (2007) supported the use of mixed methods because it helps researchers to gain better understanding and insight regarding the phenomenon under study and also helps to complement the strength of both quantitative and qualitative methods. A concurrent mixed method design allows the researcher to implement both qualitative and quantitative designs at the same time (Creswell, 2009). The result of each design is not dependent on the other as they are compared simultaneously.

The study adopted the mixed method research design to enable the researcher to combine the strengths of qualitative and quantitative techniques to arrive at its findings as well as improve the validity of the results by using each method to validate the data obtained from both sources. As part of the

mixed-method research design, both qualitative and quantitative techniques were used to sample respondents for the study, design research instruments to gather data, and analyse data.

A cross-sectional descriptive survey design was adopted as the quantitative approach for the study. A cross-sectional study design involves the gathering of data at a single point in time. As a result, the study gathered data from the respondents at a single point in time without any follow-ups to track changes in the factors influencing low representation of females in coaching regional sports teams. Descriptive survey research, on the other hand, describes essential findings in rigorous ways that are free from distortions and biases (Creswell, 2013). According to Creswell (2013), descriptive studies help to discover new meaning, describe what currently exist, verify the rate at which something occurs and categorises the information.

The study also adopted a phenomenological research design or qualitative research design that focuses on common subjective experiences, or lived experiences of a group of people (Maxwell, 2013). Neubauer, Witkop and Varpio (2019), the phenomenological approach aims at having a nuanced understanding of a phenomenon through the perspective. This often would involve gathering data participants lived experiences through inductive, qualitative methods such as interviews, discussions and participant observation, and representing it from the perspective of the research participant(s). This study adopted these descriptive designs to enable the researcher gain insights into factors influencing low representation of females in coaching regional sports teams at the SHS level in Ghana.

## Population

The population of the study comprised regional P.E. coordinators, female P.E. teachers at the Senior High School (SHS) level, and registered female sports coaches in Ghana. There are 10 Regional P.E. coordinators, 579 female P.E. teachers at the SHS level, and 13 female registered sports coaches in Ghana. The total population for the study is therefore 602. The female P.E. teachers have minimum educational qualifications of First Degrees in Physical Education while the sports coordinators have a minimum of Masters in P.E. with some years of working experience at the sub-regional level. The registered female coaches also have tertiary level of education with Diploma or First Degree qualifications in coaching. They are, however, not attached to any school. Most of them are attached to national sports teams.

The female P.E. teachers are mostly trained from the University of Education, Winneba and University of Cape Coast in the Central region, where sports and physical education programmes are taught. The programme is open to males and females, and commonly people between the ages of 19 to 45years apply to the programme (Darko & Sheibu, 2016). Upon completion the candidate is either posted to the Basic Schools or Senior High Schools all over the country. The core mandate of the sports coaches/P.E. teachers is to unearth sports talents for their various schools, regions and the nation at large. According to the Ghana Education Service (statistical units), there are 579 female P.E. teachers at the SHS level, 13 registered female sports coaches and 10 regional P.E. coordinators in Ghana. The total population is therefore, 602. Table 1 presents the regional breakdown of the study population.

Table 1- Regional Distribution of Study Population

Regions	P.E. teachers	Coordinators	Registered
Greater Accra	87	1	4
Central	72	1	
Western	64	1	
Ashanti	79	1	6
Eastern	64	1	
Volta	49	1	
Brong Ahafo	48	1	
Northern	44	1	3
Upper East	38	1	
Upper West	34	1	
	579	10	13

Source: GES (2019)

### Sampling Procedure

A census was carried out to engage all the 602 participants. This comprised of 579 female P.E. teachers, 13 registered female sports coaches and 10 Regional P.E. coordinators in the country. Sarantakos (2005) defines census as the research study where the researcher engages all the elements in the study population. Accordingly, the aim to include all the female sports coaches in Ghana in the study constitutes a census. Clark and Springer (2007) posited that census studies enable researchers to get complete data about the research subjects for informed policy making with respect to the subject matter. Census is more appropriate when the population size is not too large and widely scattered across a geographical area.

The aim for the census study is to get a true reflection of the participation of females in coaching regional teams in Ghana. The study also intends to be a census because the researcher seeks to collect data from all the

female sports coaches in the country and all Regional P.E. coordinators during regional sports meetings and during sports festivals. Thus, such programmes make it easier to interact with the female sports coaches to gather the required data. As a result, the data gathering was targeted at the times scheduled for regional sports meetings and sports festivals across the country. The census targeted 10 Regional P.E. coordinators, 13 registered female sports coaches and 579 female P.E. teachers in all 10 Regions of Ghana.

The 10 Regional P.E. coordinators were targeted by the study, but only three responded. They were included in the study due to their in-depth knowledge and experience in the criteria for selecting sports coaches for various regional sports teams. Thus, the Regional P.E. coordinators are the main actors in the process of appointing coaches to coach the regional sports teams. Data on the female sports coaches from each region was obtained from the Ghana Education Service (statistical unit 2018). At the end of the study a total of 427 respondents, comprising 411 P.E. teachers, three Regional P.E. coordinators, and 13 registered female sports coaches were covered. This constituted 70.9 percent response rate. The reasons were that some of the P.E. teachers were reluctant to participate in the study, while others were indisposed.

According to Visser, Krosnick and Marquette (1996), surveys with lower response rates (near 20%) yielded more accurate measurements than did surveys with higher response rates (near 60 or 70%). This is contrasted by Keeter, Kennedy, Dimock et al. (2006) who found that response rates of 25% yielded similar results as compared to response rated of 50%. Choung, Locke, Kathy et al. (2013) further confirmed that response rates of 52% and provided



reliable results for a study with a target population of 723. Evans (1991) also reported that for small samples, less than 100, a response rate higher than 80% is preferable. Accordingly, response rates of 20 to 80% and above have been proven to be adequate for reliable results.

### **Data Collection Instruments**

Interview guide and questionnaire were used as instruments for gathering data from the respondents. The interviewing method was used for the Regional P.E. coordinators, whereas the questionnaire was used for the female sports coaches. Interview guide was used to gather data from the Regional P.E. coordinators because of their active involvement in the appointment of coaches for regional sports teams as well as their in-depth knowledge in the application of the criteria for selecting coaches for the sports teams. According to Sarantakos (2005), interview guide is flexible and allows researchers to probe further into issues to obtain more information from experienced research subjects. The interview guide was purely open-ended. It was structured along the research questions.

Questionnaire was used to solicit data from the female sports coaches. This was partly due to the busy working schedule and literacy levels of the female sports coaches. Thus, the literacy level of the respondents enabled them to self-administer the research instruments without any interpretation from the researcher. The questionnaire was developed by the researcher based on the issues in the literature. This enabled the researcher to associate the findings to the literature to draw conclusions. As a result, questions on the factors influencing low representation of females in coaching regional sports teams were derived from the literature. According to Sarantakos (2005),

questionnaires are more appropriate in gathering data over a large sample size as it is self-administered.

The questionnaire was structured into five sections. The first section was on the background characteristics of the respondents. It considered issues such as age, years of experience in sports coaching and specialised discipline. The second section was on the criteria used to select coaches for regional sports teams. Some of the issues that were considered under the section are fairness in the criteria for selecting coaches, satisfaction with the criteria for selecting coaches, and preference for the criteria to be changed.

Section three was on the factors attracting females into coaching sports teams. The section captured issues such as interest in sports, health benefits associated with sports, and technical competence in coaching. The fourth section was on the level of participation of females in coaching regional sports teams. Some of the issues considered under the section included disciplines women are made to participate in, roles assigned to women in the coaching of the sports teams, and proportion of women coaching regional sports teams. Section five was on perceived barriers to female participating in coaching regional sports teams. Some of the issues considered under the section will include child bearing, physical demands, and technical incompetence. A five-point Likert type scale questionnaire was employed in the study.

### **Validity of the instrument**

Validity determines whether the research truly measures what it was supposed to measure or how truthful the research results are (Joppe, 2000). To check for the validity of the instrument, the researcher gave it to the supervisors and one other lecturer, all from the Department of Health Physical

Education and Recreation at the University of Cape Coast to evaluate the research instrument for content and construct as well as face validity. After their feedback, the necessary changes to the content were made.

### **Reliability of the instrument**

After the validity of the instrument, the improved questionnaire was pre-tested at the Department of Health Physical Education, Recreation and Sports (HPERS). The school was selected because it contained all the characteristics as those in the Regions. Thus, the school was made up of P.E. teachers, sports coaches, coordinators who have experience in the processes leading to the appointment of regional sports coaches, and post-graduate students who were already in sports coaching but furthering their education. The pre-testing exercise was used to test the appropriateness of the questions in terms of the wording and orderliness. Findings of the pre-testing were used to improve on the research instrument for the actual data collection exercise.

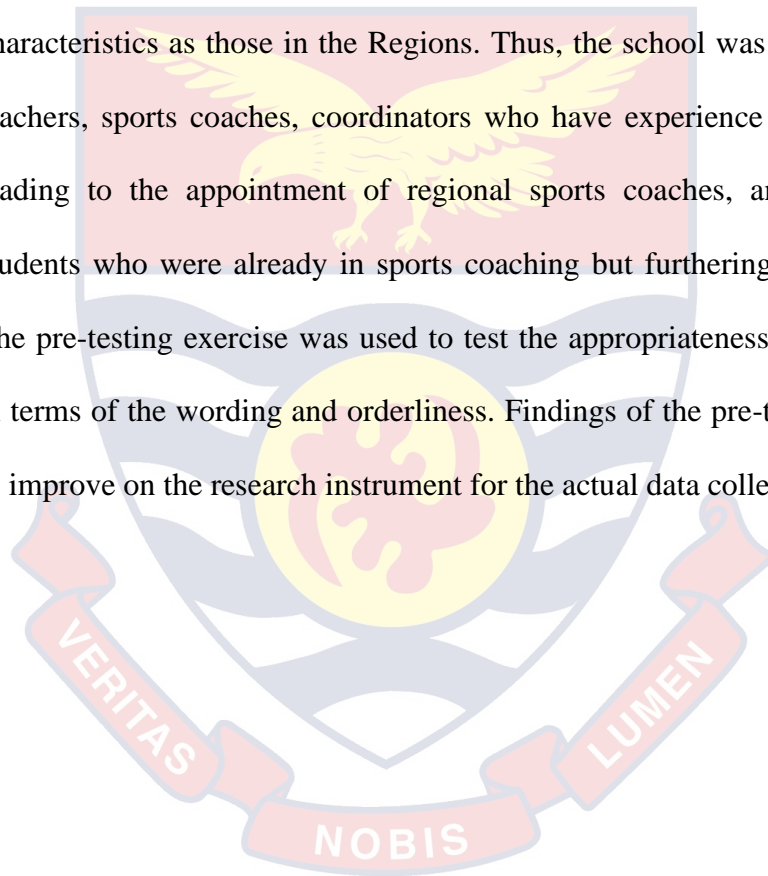


Table 2- Test on Internal Reliability of Scales

	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation		$\alpha$
			n	N	
Barriers to female coaching	Physical strain	2.25	1.16	396*	0.781
	Family responsibilities	2.07	1.05	396*	
	Child bearing	1.97	1.12	396*	
	Marital issues	2.12	1.15	396*	
	Religious beliefs	2.64	1.17	396*	
	Cultural orientation	2.59	1.19	396*	
	Poor perception about competence of females	2.02	1.19	396*	
	Low exposure of females to frontline activities	1.91	1.11	396*	
Factor affecting female interest in coaching	Interest in sports	1.57	.872	410**	0.726
	Health benefits associated with sports	1.83	.810	410**	
	Technical competence in sports	1.82	.966	410**	
	Being a former sport women	2.01	1.086	410**	
	Role models	2.27	1.145	410**	

\* 28 excluded based on listwise deletion; sample size = 424

\*\* 14 excluded based on listwise deletion; sample size = 424

Source: Fieldwork, 2019

The internal reliability tests were conducted for different items in the questionnaire. The Cronbach's alpha was used to test likert-type scales. Two items on the instruments had composite likert-type scales under Sections IV, and V. In Table 2, eight items are subjected to internal reliability test, regarding the barriers to female coaching.

The test reported a Cronbach's alpha of 0.781, which represents an acceptable internal reliability co-efficient, because the acceptable lowest threshold for Cronbach's alpha is 0.7 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011; Santos, 1999). Similarly, the data regarding the factors affecting female interest in coaching was associated with an alpha of 0.726, which also was acceptable.

Some of the challenges encountered during the data collection exercise were scepticism about the purpose of the study which caused some delays in the exercise, forgetfulness in administering the questionnaire, misplacement of questionnaire, and lack of interest by some female sports coaches. Other challenges were difficulty in identifying the respondents. Some of the ethical issues considered were seeking the consent of the respondents before gathering data from them, giving respondents ample time to administer the questionnaire. The respondents were also assured of the confidentiality of their responses. As a result, data were not collected on the personal identities of the respondents.

### **Data Collection Procedures**

The survey data collection method was adopted by the study. This involved the gathering of data from a part of a population and generalising the findings to cover the population. Interview and questionnaire were used as tools for collecting the data. The fieldwork exercise was organised in February, 2019. The researcher employed the services of one research assistant in each region to aid the data collection process. The research assistants were taken through the research instruments to ensure common understanding and interpretation. They were also trained on the proper conduct of an interview. The researcher obtained a letter of introduction,

indicating the study title, name of the researcher and purpose of the study from the department. The researcher presented the introductory letter to the regional sports coordinating units for permission to carry-out the exercise. An ethical clearance was also obtained from the Institutional Review Board of UCC to collect data.

After approval, the researcher secured the regional sports calendar for the year 2019 and participated in the regional sports meetings and sports festivals with the research team to gather data from the female sports coaches in the regions. At the regional sports programmes (meetings and sports festivals), the research team introduced themselves to the respondents and sought their consent to participate in the study. After securing their approval, the respondents were given the questionnaire to be filled overnight. The research team proceeded to the respondents the following day to retrieve the administered questionnaire. This was necessary because regional sports festivals are organised over a short period of time. The short time given reduced high loss of the instruments and increased response rate. The interviews were also conducted over the same time-period. The respondents were identified and approached during the intermissions of the regional sports festivals. One interview session lasted between 15 to 20 minutes. Their consent was given to record the interviews to be transcribed later.

### **Data Processing and Analysis**

The gathered data were edited and coded for data entry into statistical software. The data were then processed using Statistical Product for Service Solutions (SPSS version 21). The data were analysed based on the research questions. Research questions one was analysed using frequencies and



percentages, as well as the mean values. These descriptive statistics were used to describe the demographic background of the respondents. Pearson's chi-square tests and multiple response cross-tabulations were employed to analyse research question two and three as there was the need to show the significance of relationships between some variables of the study, for example as it pertained to perception of fairness of selection criteria for female coaches. The fourth research question was analysed using descriptive statistics and Kruskal Wallis H test for the significance of difference among certain variables. In all inferential analyses employed throughout the study, an error margin of up to five percent allowed.

With the content analysis on the qualitative data from the Regional P.E. coordinators, the recorded data was transcribed and coded. After the coding was done, the data was then organised into broad thematic themes which were in line with the research questions. Sub-themes were also generated based on the responses from the respondents. Direct quotations were made from the responses to provide further explanations on issues that were identified in the study. The findings of the study were compared to the issues in literature to ascertain the extent of agreement or disagreement. Implications on the findings in relation to female participation in sports coaching were also provided.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the results of the study pertaining to the factors influencing low representation of females in coaching regional sports teams in Ghana. A total of 427 respondents, comprising 414 P.E. teachers, 13 registered female sports coaches and three Regional P.E. coordinators were successfully covered during the survey. The reasons were that some of the participants were reluctant to participate in the study, while others were indisposed. There were omitted responses for specific items in the questionnaire, but in each case, the response rate for each item was above 68 percent of the target population (579). The demographic information of the respondents is described and this was followed by the presentation of results and discussion of the findings.

#### **Demographic Characteristics of Respondents**

The demographic characteristics of the respondents were examined as a precursor to analysing the responses directly related to the study objectives. The purpose of this section was to put the responses into context, and to explain into detail either for the purpose of replication or comparison, the sources of responses analysed to fulfil the objectives. The demographic background of female P.E. teachers, 13 registered female sports coaches and regional P.E. coordinators, included in the study was examined.

The resident region, shown in Table 3, was examined by the study to establish the geographical spread of the respondents. Its results indicated that respondents were from all the regions, although amidst one non-response, more than half (57%) of the sampled P.E. teachers were from Ashanti (29.2%)

and Greater Accra Regions (27.8%). The statistics revealed that the age distribution of the P.E. teachers was associated with a skewness of 0.408 (std error = 0.169), whereas their years of coaching experience had a skewness of 1.288 (std error = 0.173). Therefore, while the age distribution was statistically evenly spread along the normal curve, and rightly indicated by the mean value, the years of experience was positively skewed, and thus the median best represented its overall average.

Table 3- Age and Coaching Experience of participants

Region	Age		Coaching experience	
	N (%)	Mean	N (%)	Median
Western	14(3.3)	44.14	12(2.8)	9.0
Central	46(10.8)	41.26	44(10.4)	8.5
Greater Accra	118(27.8)	36.66	112(26.4)	8.0
Volta	18(4.2)	40.78	18(4.2)	9.0
Eastern	6(1.4)	40.33	6(1.5)	12.0
Ashanti	124(29.2)	37.74	118(27.8)	6.0
Brong Ahafo	20(4.7)	42.40	22(5.2)	12.0
Northern	18(4.2)	43.89	18(4.2)	15.0
Upper East	34(8.0)	36.71	32(7.5)	7.5
Upper West	14(3.3)	43.14	14(3.3)	11.0
Non-responses	12(2.8)		28(6.6)	
Total	424(100.0)	38.81	424(100.0)	8.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2019

The average age of the participants was 38.81 ( $\approx$  39) years, and they had an average of 8 years of coaching experience. The study therefore showed that a certain age range was common for all the participants in all the regions. This could be due to the physical demands of the job which requires coaches to be within a particular age of ultimate physical agility. The ages also fall

within the margin of 19 to 45years, which was found by Darko and Sheibu (2016).

The background analysis of the participants also involved the examination of their educational qualification and coaching specialisation. Figure 2 shows the distribution of the educational attainment of the P.E. teachers. The results indicate that the least qualification among the respondents was a diploma and 71.7 percent of the P.E. teachers had First Degrees, which conform to Darko and Sheibu's (2016) findings.

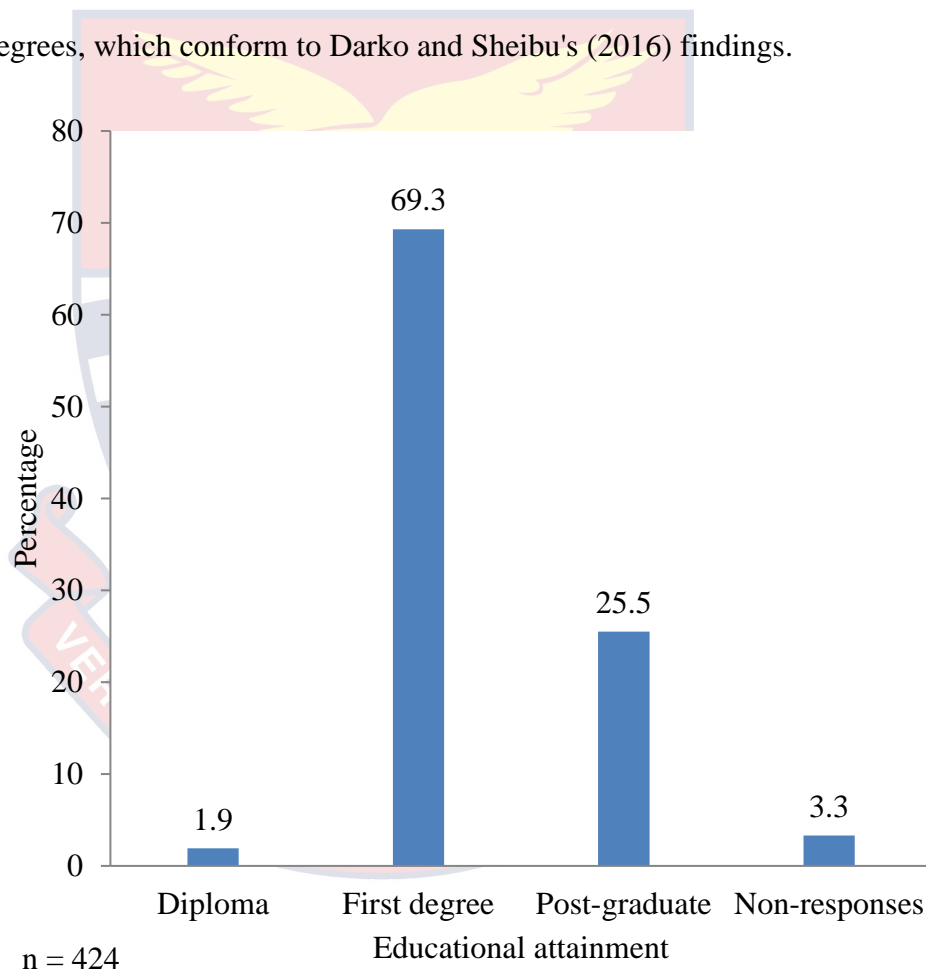


Figure 2: Educational Attainment of P.E. Teachers

Source: Fieldwork, 2019

The results, shown in Table 4, depicted that 79.8% of the teachers had either a single specialisation (40.6%) or dual specialisation (39.2%). Teachers with one or two disciplines of specialisatoin had an average of 8 years of

experience, whereas those with three (8.5%) and four (1.4%) disciplines of specialisation had average coaching experience of 10 years and 7 years, respectively.

Table 4- *Number of Coaching Disciplines Attained by P.E. Teachers*

Specialisation	f(%)	Median	Mean Rank
None	44(10.4)	7	184.69
One	172(40.6)	8	194.18
Two	166(39.2)	8	200.23
Three	36(8.5)	10	230.14
Four	6(1.4)	7	170.25

Chi-Square = 1.847; df = 4; p-value = 0.759

Source: Fieldwork, 2019

The study determined, as detailed in Table 5, that the commonest interest of specialisation among the P.E. teachers was in athletics, in which 25.5 percent of the sample had received special training. Next to this were netball, volley ball, hockey, and soccer. The least popular specialisation among the teachers was table tennis. The areas of interest among the teachers was in line with the popular sports in Ghana, and that which Ghana's international sports athletes usually compete in.

Table 5- Specialisation of P.E. Teachers

Discipline	Frequency	Responses	Cases
Soccer	88	12.2%	21.3%
Athletics	184	25.5%	44.4%
Netball	128	17.7%	30.9%
Volleyball	122	16.9%	29.5%
Basketball	52	7.2%	12.6%
Hockey	102	14.1%	24.6%
Table tennis	46	6.4%	11.1%
Total	722	100.0%	174.4%

n = Multiple response

Source: Fieldwork, 2019

Among the targeted 10 Regional P.E. coordinators to be interviewed, those from the Central, Ashanti, and Northern Regions, were the only ones available for interviewing. They were all males, with 26 years, 25 years, and 28 years of coaching experience, respectively. In respect of the educational background of the sports coordinators, the Central Regional Coordinator indicated having attained an MPhil. in Physical Education, whereas the Ashanti and Northern Regional Coordinators, respectively had a Diploma in Physical Education and a Degree in Physical Education. With regards to the coaching specialisation among the Regional Coordinators, the excerpts from the responses of the participants were as follows:

*Yes, several. I am a CAF license coach. I have also undergone coaching course in volleyball and handball - Central Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 18/02/2019)*



*I have undergone some coaching courses like volley ball, soccer, athletics and hockey - Ashanti Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 12/02/2019)*

*Yes, several of them. The latest I can remember is the NKOFIE - Northern Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 22/02/2019)*

The responses depicted that, the Regional Coordinators had received specialised training, just as many of the P.E. teachers had trained in specialised disciplines in sports. Generally, however, the Regional Coordinators had considerably longer years of experience than the P.E. teachers.

**Research Question One: What are the Criteria used in Selecting Coaches for the Regional Schools and Colleges Sports Teams?**

The central research question of the study was to attempt an explanation regarding the selection criteria for coaches and the reasons behind low female representation in coaching regional sports teams. In order to attain this objective, this section details the criteria for selecting coaches for regional sports teams in educational institutions within Ghana.

The Regional P.E. coordinators were asked to identify number of female sports teams within their respective regions. In response to this question, the Central Regional Coordinator indicated that:

*"We have teams in soccer and we see some of the ladies showing interest. For example, Mfantseman has started the soccer club and the architect is a female known as Faustina Kwara. Likewise, the technical school in Twifo-Praso won the last edition of the male*

*competition and it was a female who was engineering that"*

(Interview date: 02/08/2019)

The Ashanti Regional Coordinator also reported as follows:

*"We have female teams for all the games that are played in the schools at the festivals, like hockey, table tennis, hand ball, basketball, soccer and volley ball. These are the major games including athletics"* (Interview date: 08/08/2019)

From the perspective of Northern Regional Coordinator, the region had eight sports teams for different sports. It can be discerned from the excerpts that the regions had multiple female teams, organised sometimes by female supervisors, as in the case of Central Region. While the orchestrators of female teams in the other regions were not indicated in the responses, it can be argued that the major sporting events in the festival have female teams in all the regions covered in this study. This showed some degree of female participation in the major sporting events.

The Regional P.E. coordinators were subsequently asked "How many of the female teams have females as head coaches?" To this question, the Central Regional Coordinator revealed that none of the female teams had female head coaches. The Ashanti Regional Coordinator could not indicate the number of female coaches but conceded that he knows one of them and this claim is illustrated in the following excerpts:

*"Yeah, I remember Paulina Ankama of Ghana National was in hockey, coaching the female hockey team"* (Interview date: 08/08/2019)

The Northern Regional Coordinator also noted that:

*"The female soccer team is coached by a female, because most of them have FIFA, Euro license A". (Interview date: 15/08/2019)*

The Coordinators further asserted that the representation of female coaches, in particular reference to the most recent Regional sports festivals of the Ghana Education Service. The Central Regional Coordinator explained as follows:

*"If I want to give you a specific answer then I have to go through the records. But it has not been too high but it could be 1:5 ratio"*  
(Interview date: 18/02/2019)

The Northern Regional Coordinator revealed that:

*"Female representation was very low at the last two festivals. It is always 80% males and 20% females. And 20% is the highest figure for females"* (Interview date: 15/08/2019)

The responses suggest that, while there are several female teams in the various sporting events, most of the teams, as in the case of Ashanti Region and Northern Region, and in some cases, like that of Central Region, none of the teams had female head coaches. This is in sharp contrast to earlier response by the Central Regional Coordinator that the setting up of some of the female teams were conducted by female supervisors.

The responses also to a great extent confirm the side lining of females from coaching teams, even female teams, which has been the focus of several global legislative Acts to introduce a balance in coaching (Freedman, 2002; Doherty & Manfredi, 2010). It also confirmed the assertion that women in sport are still greatly underrepresented (Mullins, 2015). While the literature on

female coaches or coaching in Ghana is not elaborate, these findings suggest that female coaches are greatly outnumbered by male coaches. However, a further understanding of this state of affairs would be needed, whether the criteria used in selecting coaches is unfairly precluding females from coaching.

The responses both pointed to the low representation of female coaches, indicating that about 1 in 5 coaches are females, in both the Central and Northern Regions. This confirmed Darko and Sheibu's (2016) study that in Ho, 31 of 250 coaches were females, representing a ratio of about 1 female to 8 males. Thus, the low number of female coaches could be a common phenomenon to all the regional sports centres. Therefore, the female to male ratio gap in coaching found by Darko and Sheibu (2016) is confirmed to be persistent, through these findings. With regards to the reasons why there weren't as many female coaches as males, the Regional Coordinators had further explanations to offer:

From the Central Regional Coordinator, the reason was:

*"...because most of them wouldn't want to go into the coaching. At that point they see themselves to be mothers and they don't want to leave their children. We have very good ones who want to venture into coaching, but still they have the challenge of marriage and they wouldn't want to leave their children and venture into this kind of activity" (Interview date: 02/08/2019)*

*"The reason is that they are not many. And those there, some of them are not comfortable or competent enough to handle the sports*

*disciplines that are being competed in*" - Ashanti Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 08/08/2019)

*"Maybe we don't have plenty of them offering themselves. Especially my end here"* - Northern Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 15/08/2019)

The responses from the Coordinators have in common, the small number of females that avail themselves for coaching positions. From the Ashanti Regional Coordinator, the few available ones tend to not be competent enough for the job, and this would further reduce the lot from which female coaches are recruited. These two factors are stressed in the conceptual framework, where quantity and expected outcomes of aspiring female coaches influence their selection and participation. The response from the Central Regional Coordinator introduces the interference of gender roles, citing that females who are rather qualified as coaches tend to prioritise motherhood and family life over their coaching careers. Thus, this would seem as a personal choice of the females to opt out of pursuing a coaching career.

In this study the key respondents established that the females did not show the requisite interest in coaching, which led to lesser motivation to become coaches themselves. This is also supported by Moran-Miller and Flores (2011), who found that females often did not choose or consider coaching as a viable career option for varied reasons, which from the Coordinators' perspective was underscored by their preference for family life.

The choices of females in this regard has been elaborated on within the spheres of higher education (Lefgren & McIntyre, 2006; Parvazian, Gill, & Chiera, 2017; Tor, 2011), and higher careers (Pew Research Center, 2015).

These studies expounded that females tend to value building a family over pursuing careers and achieving educational heights that would take them away from their nuclear families or which would prolong the period for childbearing and marriage.

From this study three reasons for the lower number of female coaches stand out - that there are not many female applicants; the few are not all qualified; the females choose family lives over coaching careers. While these reasons may hold true, the study further investigated the selection criteria for coaches and tried to establish the fairness in the criteria. The Coordinators were consequently asked to outline the selection criteria for the position of head coaches in their jurisdiction. The responses obtained are captured from the following excerpts:

*"There are a number of factors we consider before choosing. The first one is what you just mentioned about professionalism. That is, after a candidate has successfully attained a coaching certificate [sic]. We also consider the ability to also coach, the interest of the coach and the school, where she is coming from. The ability to double as coaches and multi-task is also important [sic]. So we pick people who can come in not as lady representatives to keep the houses or to keep the girls as chaperons but also double as coaches who can also do that job because after the students leaving the dormitories, they bring them and they cannot know their where about so they expect that the coach should also know about what is going on, on the field. So that they can also perform*



*one or two services" - Central Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 02/08/2019)*

*"First of all we look at the number of games that we are going to compete in. sometimes we alternate. This year it may be volley ball and another year it may be hockey or whatever. So, we look at the interest of the person. Whether the person is competent to handle the females and would want to look at her area of speciality. These are the things that we look for before we select you. If you can't handle hockey how can I pick you. So, we look at their level, where they have specialised in. Some of the women go with us as chaperons" - Ashanti Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 08/08/2019)*

*"Apart from the Degree you have, you must have an extra certificate and all that we are looking for. You should have sport coaching courses that warrant that I should pick you" - Northern Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 15/08/2019)*

The responses indicated that the criteria for recruiting coaches comprised educational qualification, which according to the Northern Regional Coordinator is preferably a Degree, in addition to receiving coaching courses. There is also the issue of proven competency and interest in the field of application. This was asserted by the Coordinators of the Central and Ashanti Regions. In addition to the under listed, successful recruits would also have to be able to double as coaches and chaperons.

While the educational qualification and specialisation in sports discipline seem objective enough, the measurement of competence of

applicants needed some further explanation with regards to the objectivity of identifying competent applicants from inept ones. The Coordinators were therefore asked to indicate how they or the designated assessors identify or measure the competence of applicants. In this, the Central Regional Coordinator responded as follows:

*"Through monitoring. When you go out to supervise their competition you see some of them doing it. There is a lady who has even approached me that she wants to do soccer coaching. The next CAF license course that will come, she will be the first person to be called. She was coaching a team last year and the team won even though she was doing it alongside with a guy but I saw her interested"* (Interview date: 02/08/2019)

The Ashanti Regional Coordinator and the Northern Regional Coordinator confirmed that applicants are invited to the field to test out their competency in coaching, usually with the help of other more experienced coaches. Therefore, monitoring and supervision are essential to the selection process. Per the response of the Central Regional Coordinator, the expression of interest by females in coaching is important, since it was indicated earlier that there were not many of them available. Overall, the criteria for selecting coaches included the expression of interest, having the requisite educational and training background, being able to work as a chaperon, and proving ones competence on the field.

Based on the monitoring experience of the Coordinators, they were asked to provide an overall assessment of the competence of females in coaching. According to the Central Regional Coordinator:

*"Those who want to do it show serious interest in whatever they are doing. Some of them are good. Last year, we went to Koforidua with two of them at the basic level. This year, we are inviting some of them for trials. Currently, the complete list has not come out. We are now deliberating on the applicants' profiles. From observation, the females' interest of getting the license and the certificate is low"*

(Interview date: 02/08/2019)

*"I will say that as far as the questions are concern, they are far below the men in that aspect. The confident level to is one aspect that we have to look at. Some of them are not competent enough" -*

Ashanti Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 08/08/2019)

*"When you put them on the field they do very well" -* Northern

Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 15/08/2019)

The Northern Regional Coordinator generalised that the female applicants in that region do well, or in other words are generally competent. On the polar end of this response, the Ashanti Regional Coordinator generally stated that the females are not as confident and also not as competent, in comparison to the males. Holding this observation as true, it would explain, to some extent, why there are not as many female coaches as males, in all the regions. The Central Regional Coordinator explained further, the reasons for competence and incompetence of the female applicants. In his opinion, the high achievers are those that show high interest in attaining the certificate and coaching license. Therefore, it would befall the female applicants to motivate themselves internally to gain certification.

The responses pointed out the importance of interest, confidence, and motivation in performance, and this is backed by both theory and practice. Several studies have confirmed the relevance of intrinsic motivation in high achievers in sports (Dzikas, 2013; Ishan, 2017; Mladenović & Marjanović, 2011), and the suggestions of the respondents support such assertions. By indicating that the females' confidence and interest is low, it suggests that the male counterparts have higher interest and confidence in coaching, which would explain to some degree, why the males outperform the females in the selection process. Norman (2010) explained the fewer number of female coaches as the inadequacy of opportunities given to females to demonstrate their technical competence, but the responses from the Coordinators suggest that it is rather the lack of interest by the females, their lesser competence, and their lifestyle choices that preclude them from coaching.

The two basic arguments in selecting female coaches are from the gender-sensitive perspective and the competence perspective. Turpeinen et al. (2011) argued that female coaches are best suited for female teams by virtue of both coaches and athletes being of the same gender, just as Pfister (2013) suggested that female coaches should be made in-charge of female sports teams to enhance the flow of information with athletes. Coackly and Donnelly (2004), on the other hand, argued that the selection of coaches for sports teams should not be made gender sensitive rather, it should be based on technical competence. In this study, the Coordinators' responses align with the competence perspective, wherein the coaches are selected based on their performance, but not gender.

Given this set of criteria, the female P.E. teachers were asked to note their level of satisfaction and perception of fairness in selecting coaches within their region. As an antecedent, the respondents were asked of their awareness of the selection criteria for coaches, based on a five-point likert-type scale. However, the initial spread of the scale over the 10 regions, generated many empty cells in the cross-tabulation. The scale was, therefore, remodelled to a three-point scale, and the results are detailed in Table 6. According to Sarantakos (2012), empty cells in a crosstab weakens the comparison property of the Chi-square value and may give spurious results. Accordingly, reducing the number of empty cells, strengthens the test of association.

The results indicated that with the exception of Central Region, Eastern Region, and Upper West Region, the majority of the P.E. teachers from the other regions were aware of the selection criteria for coaches. A total of 414 responses was obtained for this question. Overall, 55.6 percent as against 42 percent of the respondents were aware of the selection criteria for coaches in their jurisdiction. The Chi-square and associated p-value revealed no statistically significant difference in the proportion of the respondents that were aware of the selection criteria and those that did not. Consequently, the level of awareness of the selection criteria across the regions was uniform among the respondents.

Table 6- P.E. teachers' Awareness of Selection Criteria for Coaches

Region	Aware N (%)	Not Aware N (%)	Not Sure	Total N (%)
Western	6(50.0)	6(50.0)	3(30.0)	15(100.0)
Central	22(44.0)	28(56.0)	1(10.0)	51(100.0)
Greater Accra	80(67.8)	38(32.2)		118(100.0)
Volta	12(66.7)	6(33.3)		18(100.0)
Eastern	2(33.3)	4(66.7)		6(100.0)
Ashanti	64(51.6)	60(48.4)		124(100.0)
Brong Ahafo	12(60.0)	8(40.0)	1(10.0)	21(100.0)
Northern	14(77.8)	4(22.2)	2(20.0)	20(100.0)
Upper East	22(64.7)	12(35.3)	1(10.0)	35(100.0)
Upper West	2(14.3)	12(85.7)	2(20.0)	16(100.0)
Total	236(55.6)	178(42.0)	10(2.4)	424(100.0)

Chi-square = 16.268; df = 18; p-value = 0.116

Source; Fieldwork, 2019

The study further delved into the P.E. teachers' assessment of the fairness of the selection criteria for coaches. Their responses were disaggregated according to their awareness of the selection processes, as shown in Table 7. This was to identify the differences in responses as to whether their awareness influenced their perceptions and also to make out the prevalent perception among teachers with different levels of awareness of the selection process.

The results revealed that 68.6% of the teachers who were aware of the selection criteria also found the criteria to be fair to all applicants. On the other hand, 48.3% of those that were not aware of the criteria for selection coaches were uncertain of the fairness of the methods. At an alpha of 0.05, the association between the respondents' perception and their awareness of the



selection criteria was statistically significant. Moreover, a significant proportion of the respondents found the criteria fair, as compared to those that found them unfair or were uncertain.

Table 7- *P.E. Teachers' Perception of Fairness of Selection Criteria*

Perception	Response			Total N(%)
	Aware N (%)	Not aware N (%)	Not sure	
Fair	162(68.6)	25(14.0)	3(18.6)	190(52.8)
Uncertain	8(3.4)	86(48.3)	4(58.1)	98(27.2)
Not fair	64(27.1)	35(19.7)	3(23.3)	38(10.6)
Non-response	2(0.8)	32(18.0)		34(9.4)
Total	236(100.0)	178(100.0)	10(100.0)	424(100.0)

Chi-square = 43.256; df = 6; p-value = 0.018

Source: Fieldwork, 2019

These results refuted any assumptions that the selection criteria for coaches may be biased towards males, thus precluding females from gaining coaching positions. This would suggest that the competency-based approach adopted by the Coordinators was generally perceived as an equal opportunity approach for both male and females aiming to be coaches. These findings go against Shearer's (2018) notation that gender inequalities in male-dominated fields and leadership roles specifically underscores the lack of opportunities for women in the sport industry. This would connote unfair discrimination against females in the selection of coaches, yet the findings of this study suggest otherwise.

The P.E. teachers were also asked to indicate their satisfaction with the selection criteria. The responses were disaggregated according to their awareness of the selection processes. It was assumed that respondents with more knowledge of the selection criteria would have different opinions on the satisfaction of the criteria, thus necessitating the crosstab, as seen in Table 8. The prevalence of empty cells and cell-counts less than 5 in the crosstab, when the five-point likert-type scale of satisfaction was cross tabulated with the level of awareness led to the regrouping of the scale into a three-point scale to strengthen the goodness-of-fit of the comparison.

The results revealed that 70.3% of the teachers who were aware of the selection criteria were also satisfied with the criteria. On the other hand, 48.3% of those that were not aware of the criteria for selection coaches were uncertain of their satisfaction with the methods. At an alpha of 0.01, the association between the respondents' satisfaction and their awareness of the selection criteria was statistically significant. Moreover, a significant proportion of the respondents found the criteria satisfactory, as compared to those that found them unsatisfactory or were uncertain.

The findings further asserted the respondents' resolution on the fairness of the selection methods and their general accord with the competency-based approach adopted by the Coordinators and the Education Service in selection coaches for the SHS sports teams. This also further emphasised the rebuttal of assumptions that suggest unfairness against females in selection of college coaches.

Table 8- P.E. Teachers' Satisfaction with Selection Criteria

	Awareness			Total
	Aware	Not aware	Not sure	
Satisfaction	n(%)	n(%)		N(%)
Satisfied	166(70.3)	24(13.5)	1(10.0)	191(45.0)
Uncertain	6(2.5)	86(48.3)	6(60.0)	98(23.1)
Dissatisfied	62(26.3)	30(16.9)	3(30.0)	95(22.4)
Non-response	2(0.8)	38(21.3)		40(9.4)
<b>Total</b>	<b>236(100.0)</b>	<b>178(100.0)</b>	<b>10(100.0)</b>	<b>424(100.0)</b>

Chi-square = 53.542; df = 6; p-value = 0.000

**Research Question Two: What roles are assigned to Female Coaches during Regional Schools and Colleges Sports Festivals?**

The second research question addresses the roles that are assigned to females during the regional schools' sports festivals. The intent was to ascertain whether the female coaches actually performed duties befitting their qualification and competence. Therefore, the study aimed to further investigate the possible extent of preclusion of female coaches from their roles, after they have been admitted as coaches. In light of this, the Coordinators delineated the roles that female coaches undertake during the sports festivals at the regional level. The responses obtained were as follows:

*"As of the lady representative you cannot take it from them. Some also come in as house mistresses apart from lady chaperons. And we ask some of them to be head coaches. Example is the volley ball I gave you. In this year, we want to try some."* - Central Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 18/02/2019)

"Some are picked as officials to officiate the games. There are those who are competent. We may have the main coaches there and some of them serve as assistant coaches to them because they have to organise the ladies to camp and training. So that is another aspect of their work too" - Ashanti Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 08/08/2019)

"Some of them are still coaching and some of them are made as chaperons. Some are also assigned medical duties, like first aid " - Northern Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 15/08/2019)

The responses outlined show that female coaches are assigned head and assistant coaching duties, game officiating roles, as well as chaperoning, and duties covering house mistresses and as lady representatives. This confirms earlier responses that besides coaching abilities, the Education Service looks out for females who can double as chaperons and perform other duties. The Ashanti Regional Coordinator indicated that the selection for coaching duties is based on competency, as the response "... *There are those who are competent...*" suggest so. It also suggests that females assigned to chaperoning and those allowed to double as house mistresses or game officials are not well-versed in coaching.

In order to ascertain the prevalence of coaching roles assigned to females during the festivals, the female P.E. teachers were asked series of questions that would provide more details on their roles and also triangulate with the responses of the Coordinators. They were asked to indicate the frequency of their involvement in regional sports coaching, and the results are detailed in Table 9. According to 31.6% of the respondents, they were

sometimes involved in the regional sports festivals. This group of respondents had an average of 8 years on experience in coaching. Those (23.6%) with the longest coaching experience (11.5 years) indicated that they were always engaged in some roles during the regional sports festivals. In comparison, the respondents (22.6%) with the least experience (6 years) had never been involved in the regional festivals.

The Kruskal-Wallis test showed that the differences in the frequency of involvement as determined by the respondents' length of coaching experience was significant at an alpha of 0.01. The inference was that the respondents' coaching experience was a significant determinant in their involvement during the regional sports festivals and also, a significantly larger proportion of the respondents were only sometimes involved in the festival.

Table 9- *P.E. Teachers' Frequency of Involvement in Sports Festivals*

Involvement	N (%)	Median	Mean Rank
Always	100(23.6)	11.5	270.22
Often	74(17.5)	7.5	190.49
Sometimes	134(31.6)	8.0	190.38
Never	96(22.6)	6.0	148.07
Not sure	10(2.4)	3.0	44.00
Non-responses	10(2.4)		
Total	424(100.0)	4.0	

Chi-Square = 37.862; df = 4; p-value = 0.000

Source: Fieldwork, 2019

The responses conform to the Coordinators' assertion of allowing females to engage in the sports festivals, although most of the teachers

indicated that their involvement was not at all times. The conditions that may account for the reported frequency of female involvement was investigated next, from the perspective of the teachers.

In Table 10, the multiple response crosstab depicts that the respondents who were always engaged in the festivals attributed it to their technical competence (35.2%) and experience (34.3%), similarly those often involved accounted that to their technical competence (42.2%) and experience (32.8%), so did the majority that were grouped under respondents who are sometimes engaged. For those who were never involved, they attributed it more to preference given to males (37.5%) and to familiarity (33.3%).

Table 10- *Reasons for Involvement in Regional Sports Festivals*

Reasons	Involvement					Total
	Always	Often	Unsure	sometimes	Never	
Experience	72(34.3)	42(32.8)	4(28.6)	54(24.8)	6(12.5)	178(28.8)
Technical competence	74(35.2)	54(42.2)		82(37.6)	4(8.3)	214(34.6)
Familiarity	26(12.4)	8(6.3)		24(11.0)	16(33.3)	74(12.07)
More preferences for males	10(4.8)	12(9.4)	2(14.3)	30(13.8)	18(37.5)	72(11.7)
Personal decision	28(13.3)	12(9.4)	8(57.1)	28(12.8)	4(8.3)	80(12.9)
<b>Total</b>	<b>210(100.0)</b>	<b>128(100.0)</b>	<b>14(100.0)</b>	<b>218(100.0)</b>	<b>48(100.0)</b>	<b>618*(100.0)</b>

\*Multiple response crosstab: Sample size = 424

Source: Fieldwork, 2019

The responses show diverse and somewhat polarised reasons for engagement for those who were always to sometimes involve and those who were never involved in the festivals. The responses depict that those involved



tend to attribute their involvement to their own self-attributes like experience and competence, whereas those who were never engaged tend to attribute that to external factors like the board's preference for males. However, the majority of the respondents were involved at varying frequencies and they attributed it to their competence and experience. This suggested that competence and experience were the most important factors for involving female coaches in the sports festivals.

The reasons for not being engaged support chauvinistic perspectives of the feminist explanation that a largely male-dominated sport side-lines females, which reinforce female oppression (Hattery, 2010). However, the divergence in the responses as noted earlier suggest that, this opinion, which is indeed the opinion of the minority could be as a result of ill-feelings stemming from the non-involvement of some teachers.

The specific roles that female coaches are assigned in the sports festivals are outlined in Table 11 as observed and experienced by the P.E. teachers. According to 45.9% of the respondents, handling food was the commonest role accorded to female coaches during the sports festivals. Next to this was those assigned backroom technical roles (28.8%), handling logistics (27.8%), and medicals (23.9%). Only 10.8% of the respondents noted that female coaches played coaching roles during the sports festivals.

Table 11- *Roles Assigned to Female Coaches during Sports Festivals*

Roles	N	Responses	Cases
Head coach	38	5.5%	9.3%
Assistant Coach	6	0.9%	1.5%
Handling logistics	114	16.4%	27.8%
Food handling	188	27.0%	45.9%
Medicals	98	14.1%	23.9%
Coordination	68	9.8%	16.6%
Backroom technical staff	118	17.0%	28.8%
Chaperone	66	9.5%	16.1%
Total	624*	100.0%	

\*Multiple responses: Sample size = 424

Source: Fieldwork, 2019

Earlier responses indicated that 1 in 5 coaches are females. Subsequently, these findings suggest that about 1 in 10 of those female coaches play any coaching roles. This further elaborates the problem statement, that not only are the number of female coaches fewer as compared to males, but even a lesser fraction of female coaches does any coaching at all.

While some of the roles identified by the female P.E. teachers were mentioned by the Regional Coordinators, the extent to which females were frequently engaged in those roles were emphasised by the P.E. teachers. The results suggested that female coaches do not often perform their major roles as coaches, but are rather more often assigned supporting roles, like handling food and logistics. This could be as a result of understaffing, where the teams may not have separate managers for food and logistics, but the reasons for assigning such roles to the female staff may be explained by gender occupational stereotyping which may project females as more competent food managers than males. This would support the feminist assertion of unequal

opportunity given to females in sports coaching due to the general idea that sports is male-oriented (Demers, 2004; Kamphoff & Gill, 2008).

Table 12 elaborates on the reasons P.E. teachers attributed to the respective roles assigned to female coaches during the regional sports festivals. The multiple response crosstab detailed that the major reason for electing female head coaches was because in those instances, preference was given to females (50%). For all the remaining roles that is, handling logistics (56.3%), food handling (53.8%), medicals (62.9%), coordination (71.1%), and backroom technical assistance (45.7%), the responses showed that the main reason was because the females were comfortable with the supporting roles.

Table 12- *Reasons for Assigning Specified Roles to Female Coaches*

Roles	Reasons			Total
	Preference for females	Female's comfort with supporting roles	Largely male board	
Head coach	22(50.0)	10(22.7)	12(27.3)	44(100.0)
Assistant coach		4(66.7)	2(33.3)	6(100.0)
Handling logistics	12(9.4)	72(56.3)	44(34.4)	128(100.0)
Food handling	18(8.5)	114(53.8)	80(37.7)	212(100.0)
Medicals	6(4.8)	78(62.9)	40(32.3)	124(100.0)
Coordination	6(7.9)	54(71.1)	16(21.1)	76(100.0)
Backroom technical staff	14(10.0)	64(45.7)	62(44.3)	140(100.0)
Chaperone	10(13.9)	32(44.4)	30(41.7)	72(100.0)
Total	88(11.0)	428(53.4)	286(35.7)	802*(100.0)

\*Multiple response crosstab: Sample size = 424

Source: Fieldwork, 2019

The responses did not suggest the side lining of females due to male dominance, as presented by Pfister (2013) and Shearer (2018), but rather that mostly the female coaches were comfortable with playing supporting roles. This may be related to earlier assertions by the Central Regional Coordinator with regard to the low confidence level among the female coaches. It may also be as a result of social learning, as proposed by the social cognitive theory (Crotty, 1998; Klenke, 2008), which trains females in general to play supportive roles to males.

The version of the Regional Coordinators, with respect to why female coaches are assigned these roles, was investigated. The following responses were obtained:

*"Because of the uniqueness of the activities. For example, we cannot assign a male to handle the girls as a lady chaperon and double as a house mistress. Any role that we play here, we replicate it at the ladies' side except that we use the gender differences to give out the roles, like in the example I just gave. For some time now, we have been seeing only the male teachers do the physiotherapy for the female athletes"* - Central Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 02/08/2019)

*"Well, we are working together as qualified P.E. personnel so when I know your competence level and know that you can do the work, I will just assign you so that we don't overburden the males only"* - Ashanti Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 08/08/2019)

*"Because they (female coaches) understand the children (female athletes) and apart from that they know the children better than others (male coaches), but if you give them to someone else (male coaches), he might not know the children and there will be problems every day"* - Northern Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 15/08/2019) Phrases in parenthesis were inserted by the researcher for clarification.

The responses indicated that the Coordinators assigned the roles of female coaches based on their assessment of competence. However, they were also largely influenced by the gender disparities of the athletes, such that they were inclined to assign certain roles because they presumed that the female coaches would be better at them than the males. This can be seen in the Northern Regional Coordinators' response that "... *they (female coaches) understand the children (female athletes) and apart from that they know the children better than others (male coaches) ...*"

In addition, it also seemed likely that males were given prominence over females in coaching. The Ashanti Regional Coordinator mentioned that "... *when I know your competence level and know that you can do the work, I will just assign you so that we don't overburden the males only...*", which would suggest that females were mostly considered for coaching as a measure to not overburden the male coaches. Thus, in times when the males were not perceived as overburdened it may be unlikely for females to be assigned coaching responsibilities.

The inferences would suggest an underlying perception among the Coordinators that males were better suited for coaching and that some duties must be segregated by gender. This corroborates with some studies on women's engagement in sports. For example, Leaper and Friedman (2007) indicated that gender bias and stereotypes limit the physical activities in which girls participate, persist, and succeed in sporting activities. Similarly, Norman (2010) expressed that gendered stereotypes and sexism limit coaching opportunities for women.

The satisfaction of the P.E. teachers with their assigned roles was analysed, as shown in Table 13. It was found that generally, a greater proportion of the teachers were satisfied (45.3%) with their roles, as against those that were uncertain (11.5%) or dissatisfied (43.2%) with their regular roles in the sports festivals. The disaggregated results further showed that, in comparison to being dissatisfied, a greater fraction of the respondents were satisfied as head coach (72.2%), logistics manager (51.8%), medical assistant (51%), coordinator (61.8%), and technical staff (47.7%). The most prevalent role assigned to females was food handling and 57.1% of the respondents were dissatisfied with it. In addition, most (68.8%) of those assigned chaperoning roles were dissatisfied with this assignment. Two out of the three respondents assigned as assistant coaches were also not satisfied.



Table 13- *Satisfaction with Roles Assigned to Female Coaches*

Role	Satisfaction			Total N(%)
	Satisfied N(%)	Uncertain N(%)	Dissatisfied N(%)	
Head coach	26(72.2)	2(5.6)	8(22.2)	36(100.0)
Assistant coach	2(33.3)		4(66.7)	6(100.0)
Handling logistics	58(51.8)	22(19.6)	32(28.6)	112(100.0)
Food handling	60(33.0)	18(9.9)	104(57.1)	182(100.0)
Medical assistant	50(51.0)	6(6.1)	42(42.9)	98(100.0)
Coordinator	42(61.8)	12(17.6)	14(20.7)	68(100.0)
Backroom technical staff	54(47.7)	14(12.3)	46(40.4)	114(100.0)
Chaperone	16(25.0)	4(6.3)	44(68.8)	64(100.0)
Total	308(45.3)	78(111.5)	294(43.2)	680*(100.0)

\*Multiple responses: Sample size = 424

Source: Fieldwork, 2019

In most cases, it was seen that most of the respondents were dissatisfied with roles that were not directly in line with sports. Thus, although earlier responses indicated that the females were comfortable with playing other supporting roles to male head coaches, they were mostly not satisfied with those roles. They were therefore asked to indicate how to improve female P.E. teacher participation in regional sports coaching. The results, detailed in Table 14 revealed several suggestions. As much as 64.6% of the respondents suggested giving more opportunities to females to play frontline roles in sports coaching. Others (55.8%) also suggested more involvement of females in sports administration, whereas others (51%) also proposed changing the perception about masculinity of sports.

Table 14- *Suggestions to Improve roles of Female Coaches*

Suggestion	N	Responses	Cases
Increase number of females in regional sports administration	230	25.7%	55.8%
Promote females to higher positions in regional sports administration	188	21.0%	45.6%
Give more opportunities to females to play frontline roles in sports coaching	266	29.8%	64.6%
Change perception about the superior competence of males over females	210	23.5%	51.0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>894</b>	<b>100.0%</b>	

\*Multiple responses: Sample = 424

Source: Fieldwork, 2019

The suggestions seem to converge around increasing female numbers in both administration and sports roles. This is in line with the general idea that the sheer number of males in frontline roles and administration preclude women from participating in coaching activities. Such suggestions are in line with earlier proposals such as Oglesby (2015) who advised organisations to develop their own positive action schemes to identify specific opportunities for getting more women involved in coaching.

### **Research Question Three: What are the Barriers to Female Participation in Coaching Regional Sports Teams?**

The study also aimed to analyse the barriers precluding female participation in coaching at the regional level. The Regional Coordinators were asked of the observed barriers and these were their responses:

*"The major one is marriage. Currently, there is a lady I have identified and want to bring on board, but I contacted the husband and he told me their children are now growing and the woman has*

*to take care of them. So, all that I can do is to bring her during the athletic competition for a short period, but keeping her in camp will not be possible. The other barrier boils down to attitude. Some of the females have attitudes that do not conform to GES' codes. If you want to marry, you don't marry during camping period.... Competency and personal development also matter. I earlier mentioned that we look at their qualifications and ability to improve. Anybody who finishes first Degree assumes that they can coach but one cannot be a coach until you are trained to that effect. So we are a little bit sceptical bringing on board those who are not well-trained. So, some of us took a lot of courses to get this far"* - Central Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 02/08/2019)

*"I don't see any challenge as such if the person is well. Unless she is not well, that is when we will take her out. You know women have their problems so during that time she may not be very comfortable working."* - Ashanti Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 15/08/2019)

*"It looks like the females' numbers are declining. They are not interested in the activity. So, after a certain period, they become assistant head mistresses and that's it"* - Northern Regional Coordinator (Interview date: 18/08/2019)

The responses reflected different barriers and in the case of the Ashanti Regional Coordinator, no barriers. The list of barriers identified in the responses included marriage, children, family responsibilities, and disinterest among females to be coaches. The conceptual framework's emphasis on

working hours would come into such context where the coaching hours coincide with family roles. The responses also highlight Kilty's (2006) findings that a major barrier to female coaching is the high stress of balancing work and life. In this study, the stress of child upbringing was mentioned, as well as marital interference with the coaching carriers of females.

Reade et al. (2009) noted that female coaches are more likely to be younger, unmarried, and less likely to have children, which would suggest these factors as significant impediments to coaching among females. Kilty (2006) also noted that lack of female' assertiveness forms a barrier to their progression in coaching. This was alluded to in the response that female interest in coaching was lessening thus leading to fewer numbers of aspiring female coaches. Reade et al. (2009) confirmed that inadequate pool of women candidates also pose a barrier to their coaching carriers.

The P.E. teachers were asked to identify the barriers which they had observed to hinder the coaching careers of females. A large number of them agreed (30.6%) or strongly agreed (32%) that the physical strain of coaching forms a barrier to their coaching carrier (Table 15). This generally affirms that coaching is physically demanding, and that it is not just the notion of sports being physically demanding that precludes females from coaching or sports in general (Norman, 2015), but that it is a real phenomenon.

According to 71.2% of the teachers attending to family duties was a significant barrier to their coaching career. This conforms to earlier responses from the Coordinators and also in affirmation to Reade et al.'s (2009) findings regarding the strain of family life on coaching for females.

The responses revealed that child bearing and marital issues were strong barriers for 44% and 36.4% of the respondents, respectively. These same pair of factors were also mild barriers for 30.9% and 33% of the teachers, respectively. Child bearing and marital issues formed part of life style decisions, which earlier studies have found to be potent barriers to coaching for females (Pfister & Radtke, 2009; Koller, 2010).

Religious background of the respondents was a strong barrier for 18 % of the respondents and a mild barrier for 30.2%. Whisenant (2008) noted that the historical, social, political, religious, cultural practices and ideologies uphold the superiority of men over women. In this study there were more females that upheld such a perspective than those that did not agree to this or were indifferent to this factor. Similarly, 48.6% of the teachers were in agreement that cultural orientation posed a mild to strong challenge to their coaching goals.

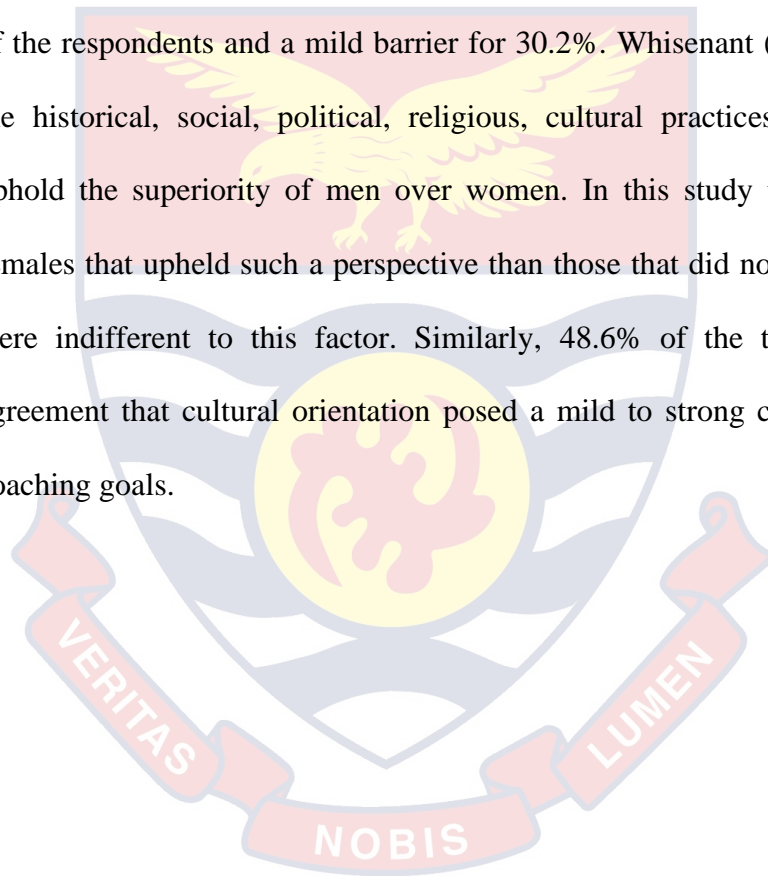


Table 15- *Barriers to Females Participation in Coaching at the Regional Level*

Response	Factors							
	PS	FR	CB	MI	RB	CO	PC	LE
Strongly agree	132(32.0)	148(34.9)	182(44.0)	150(36.4)	74(18.0)	84(20.2)	186(44.5)	202(48.8)
Agree	126(30.6)	154(36.3)	128(30.9)	136(33.0)	124(30.2)	118(28.4)	112(26.8)	110(26.6)
Indifferent	82(19.9)	68(16.0)	58(14.0)	76(18.4)	124(30.2)	122(29.3)	60(14.4)	58(14.0)
Disagree	56(13.6)	32(7.5)	28(6.6)	28(6.8)	52(12.7)	54(13.0)	36(8.6)	28(6.8)
Strongly disagree	16(3.9)	14(3.3)	18(4.2)	22(5.3)	36(8.8)	38(9.1)	24(5.7)	16(3.9)
Total	412(100)	416(100)	414(100)	412(100)	410(100)	416(100)	418(100)	414(100)

Legend: PS - Physical strain; FR - Family responsibilities; CB - Child bearing; MI - Marital issues; RB - Religious background; CO - Cultural orientation; PC - perception of female incompetence; LE - low female exposure to frontline activities

Source: Fieldwork, 2019



The respondents also indicated that the poor perception about female incompetence in sports (71.3%) and low exposure of females to frontline activities in sports (75.4%) were also significant barriers to their career progression in coaching. Perceived discrimination is elemental to the conceptual framework of this study, which expounds that perceived discrimination and nature of power structures within the sports organisations critically influence the willingness and desire of females choosing coaching as a career, as per the feminist perspective (Pfister, 2009; Shearer, 2018). Thus, the results further establish the grounds for the conceptual framework. In the order of significance the barriers were ordered as low female exposure to frontline activities (75.4%), child bearing (74.9%), perception of female incompetence (71.3%), family responsibilities (71.2%), marital issues (69.4%), physical strain (62.6%), cultural orientation (48.6%), and religious background (48.2%).

According to Bruening (2005), sports is often seen as a masculine activity. Furthermore, sport institutions have institutionalized masculinity as the operating principle within sport, which identifies male activity as privileged, and reinforcing masculinity and masculine behaviour as acceptable leadership qualities required in sport (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Shearer (2018) elaborated that this leads to patriarchal norms which tend to inhibit females from attaining greater heights in sports. These confirm that general perception that females are often precluded from frontline sporting activities, which hinders their progress to becoming coaches.

When asked what could be done to weaken or remove the barriers identified, only the Central Regional Coordinator had a response, as follows:

*"One, they need to develop personally through professional courses. Secondly, we (the Directorate of Education) should also create the environment to develop them by organising in-service training. We did that last year, but the double track system has posed some problems with fixing the date for this year's event. Thirdly, teachers need to be more determined to progress in coaching. I am also saying that we have to improve on our facilities to also motivate aspiring female coaches to enlist. For some time now we have not been using this stadium, this park due to it being refurbished, which comes at a great cost. We therefore need financial support because the capitation grant is inadequate"*  
(Interview date 02/08/2019).

The responses in respect of self-development corroborate with the conceptual framework's emphasis on self-efficacy. Thus, it further entrenches the perspective that self-efficacy plays a major role in the selection of female coaches. In the conceptual framework, this represents early determining factors, before the aspirants' interest comes to play.

#### **Research Question Four: What Factors Attract Females into Coaching Regional Sports Teams?**

The final research question was on the factors attracting females into coaching at the regional level. Table 16 details the distribution of responses obtained on the P.E. teachers' perception of the factors attracting females into coaching. The responses indicated that 94.5 percent of the respondents were

motivated by their personal interest to pursued coaching. Interest in the job had the highest number of teachers' approval, as compared to all the other possible factors. In order of significance, the factors that attract female coaches to the job were competence (77.3%), history with sports (72.9%), health benefits (62%), serving as role models (64.6%) and seeing it as an opportunity in the absence of male coaches (48.5%).

The results largely showed that the motivation for females to engage in coaching was of an internal origin, which stems from their personal interest. They would also assess their competence in line with their interest in coaching. The results tally with earlier responses by the Regional Coordinators that the interest of the females determine the pool of female applicants to coaching and their motivation for furthering their coaching career through professional courses. The conceptual framework elaborates on interest and self-efficacy as an essential precedence to females' participation in coaching.

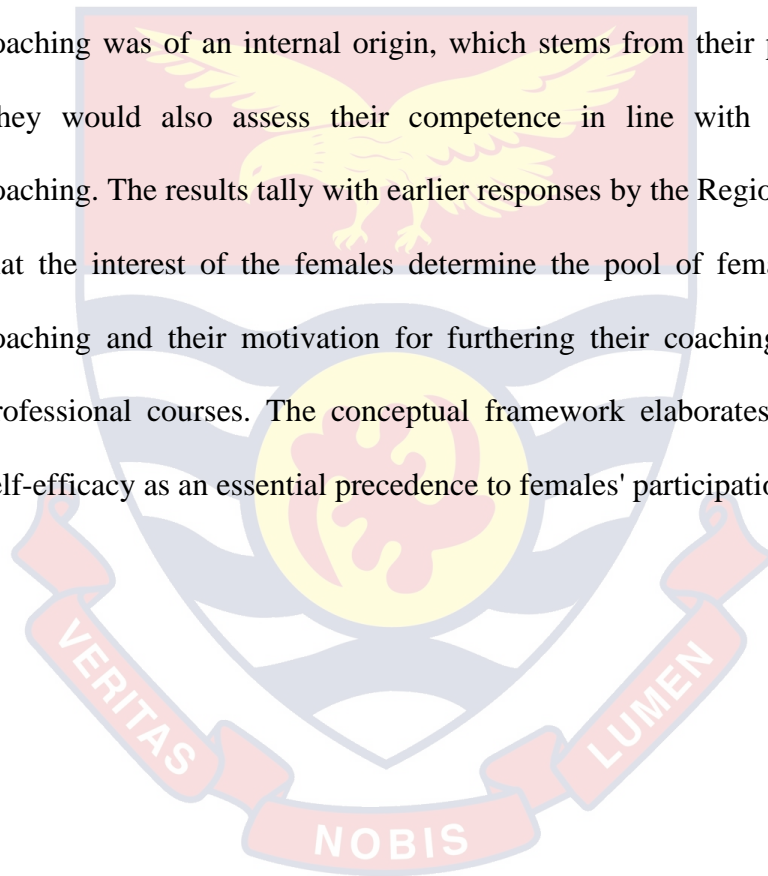


Table 16- *Factors Attracting Females into Coaching at the Regional Level*

Response	Factors					
	Interest	Health	Competence	History	Models	Opportunity
Strongly agree	258(60.8)	158(38.3)	202(48.8)	174(42.0)	126(30.6)	102(25.0)
Agree	98(23.7)	178(43.2)	118(28.5)	128(30.9)	140(34.0)	96(23.5)
Indifferent	44(10.6)	62(15.0)	68(16.4)	60(14.5)	76(18.4)	90(22.1)
Disagree	8(1.9)	14(3.4)	22(5.3)	44(10.4)	54(13.1)	72(17.6)
Strongly disagree	6(1.4)		18(1.0)	8(1.9)	16(3.9)	48(11.8)
Total	414(100)	412(100)	414(100)	414(100)	412(100)	408(100)

Source: Fieldwork, 2019



## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter summarises the findings of the study and outlines the major findings of the study. It also presents the conclusions with regard to the research questions raised, and the consequent recommendations. Considerations for future studies are added in to conclude the chapter.

#### Summary

The study aimed to examine factors influencing low representation of females in coaching regional sports teams in Ghana. In order to achieve this purpose, a mixed method research design was employed to enable the researcher to combine the strengths of qualitative and quantitative techniques to arrive at its findings. Within the context of a cross-sectional survey, a census of 10 Regional P.E. Coordinators, 579 female P.E. teachers at the SHS level, and 13 female registered sports coaches were attempted but about 74.3% (447) of the teachers and three Regional Coordinators were successfully engaged. Questionnaire was used to solicit data from the female sports coaches and interview guides were used to collect data from the Regional P.E. coordinators. Statistical tools used to analyse the data collected included descriptive tools and inferential statistic like Kruskal Wallis and Pearson's Chi-Square tests. The results were presented in tables and charts.

#### Key Findings

The following major findings were made regarding the research questions:

1. What are the criteria used in selecting coaches for the regional schools and colleges sports teams?

2. What roles are assigned to female coaches during regional schools and colleges sports festivals?
3. What are the barriers to females participating in coaching regional sports teams?
4. What factors attract females into coaching regional sports teams?

On research question 1, the major finding was that, generally, selection criteria for coaches into the regional teams are: competence, interest, educational qualification, ability to take up other roles and area of specialization. On research question 2, the major finding was that, the major role assigned to female coaches was food handling, and the majority of the P.E. teachers were dissatisfied with these roles. The major findings regarding research question 3 were that:

1. The major barriers to female coaching careers from the Regional P.E. coordinators' perspective were marriage, children, family responsibilities, and disinterest among females to be coaches;
2. From the P.E. teachers' purview, the most significant barriers to female coaching was the low female exposure to frontline activities;

The final research question yielded the following key findings:

1. Interest in coaching was the most significant motivator for females to aspire to coach sports teams;
2. Other factors that attract females into coaching included competence, history with sports, and health benefits.



## Conclusions

The study concluded that there was no bias in the selection of coaches for regional teams as coordinators generally consider objective criteria like competence, interest, educational qualification and dual roles for selection which gives both males and females equal opportunities to be selected. In terms of the roles assigned to female coaches, it was concluded that most female coaches do not perform any coaching duties, but are rather assigned ancillary roles like handling food. Although interest was the major driving force behind female participation in coaching, an increase in their exposure to frontline activities will pave way for more females to go into coaching.

## Recommendations

The following recommendations were made based on the findings and conclusions of the study:

1. Female coaches should engage in rigorous self-development through professional courses in order to build their confidence and competence.
2. Regional sports coordinators must assign females more coaching roles instead of ancillary roles.
3. Females should be exposed to frontline activities to enhance their confidence in coaching.

## Suggestions for Further Studies

Future studies can focus on how successful female coaches combine coaching with family responsibilities, and how they deal with possible gender bias issues in coaching. A deeper study into other selection criteria that could be more inclusive than the current system can be of value.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

#### INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR REGIONAL P.E. COORDINATORS

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a postgraduate student of the University of Cape Coast. This interview guide is designed to examine the factors influencing low representation of females in coaching Regional Sports Teams at the Senior High School level in Ghana. It aims at examining the criteria used in selecting coaches for the regional schools and colleges sports teams, and roles assigned to female sports coaches in regional sports teams. This is in partial fulfilment for the award of a Master of Philosophy Degree in Physical Education at the University of Cape Coast. Any information provided will be treated with the utmost confidentiality. You are also not obliged to continue with the answering of the questionnaire if you strongly feel like discontinuing. Attached are my phone numbers: 050-907-3989 or 024-497-8566. You may contact me on these phone numbers if you need any clarification on the research instrument. Thank you

Yours Sincerely,

Emefa Agbo-Kumanya

Reg. No. ED/MPE/15/0005

#### Section I: Background of Respondents

1. Region:

.....

2. Gender: [1] Male [2] Female

3. Number of years spent in coaching at the school and colleges level  
.....
4. Have you undergone any professional coaching course? [1] Yes [2] No
5. What is your highest level of qualification?
6. What has been the gender representation of coaches in the last two festivals of the Ghana Education Service in your region?

2015			2017		
Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total

**Section II: Criteria Used in Selecting Coaches for the Regional Schools and Colleges Sports Teams**

7. What criteria do you use in selecting coaches for the Regional Schools and Colleges Sports Teams? .....  
.....  
.....
8. In your opinion, how do you assess the proportion of females' coaches in the regional sport teams? .....  
.....  
.....
9. Please give reasons for your response in question 8.  
.....  
i.....
10. How will you describe the technical competence of females in coaching regional sports teams? .....



.....  
.....

11. How many female sports teams do you have in your region?

.....

12. How many of the female sports teams have females as head coaches?

.....

13. Any reason(s) for the answer in question 12? .....

.....  
.....

**Section III: Roles Assigned to Female P. E. Teachers in Regional Sports teams**

14. What roles are assigned to females in the regional sports teams?

.....  
.....

15. Why are such roles assigned to females in regional sports teams?

.....  
.....

16. What roles in the regional sport team are not assigned to the female coaches?

.....  
.....

17. Why are these roles not assigned to female coaches?

.....  
.....

18. What challenges do you encounter with the role of females in the regional sports teams?

.....  
.....

19. What do you think are the barriers to females participating in coaching regional sports teams?

.....  
.....

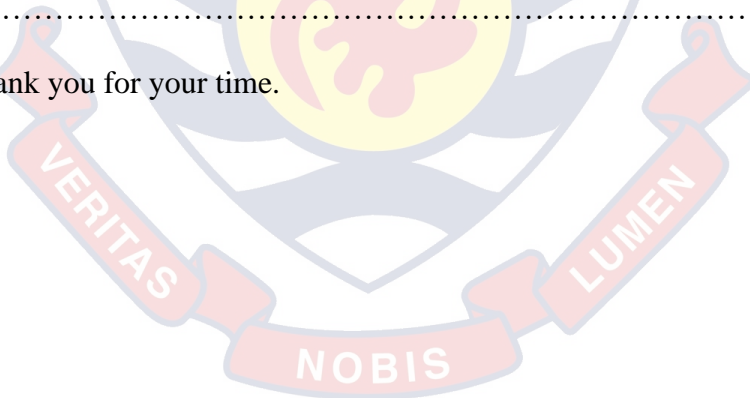
20. How do you think such barriers could be addressed?

.....  
.....

21. Any additional information or suggestions?

Thank you for your time.

.....  
.....



## APPENDIX B

### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR FEMALE P.E. TEACHERS AND REGISTERED SPORTS COACHES

Dear Madam,

I am a post-graduate student of the University of Cape Coast. This questionnaire is designed to examine the factors influencing low representation of females in coaching Regional Sports Teams at the Senior High School level in Ghana. It aims at examining the criteria used in selecting coaches for the regional schools and colleges sports teams, roles assigned to female sports coaches in regional sports teams, barriers to females in coaching regional sports teams, and factors attracting female coaches into coaching regional sports teams. This is in partial fulfilment for the award of a Master of Philosophy Degree in Physical Education at the University of Cape Coast. Any information provided will be treated with the utmost confidentiality. You are also not obliged to continue with the answering of the questionnaire if you strongly feel like discontinuing. Attached are my phone numbers: 050-907-3989 or 024-497-8566. You may contact me on these phone numbers if you need any clarification on the questionnaire.

Thank you

Yours Sincerely,

Emefa Agbo-Kumanya

Reg. No. ED/MPE/15/0005

**Section I: Background of Respondents**

1. Region: .....
2. What is your age at last birthday? ..... years.
3. Please indicate the number of years spent in coaching at the school and colleges level ..... years.
4. In which of the sports disciplines do you coach? [1] Soccer [2] Athletics [3] Netball [4] Volley ball [5] Basketball [6] Hockey [7] Table tennis [8] Others .....
5. What is your highest level of academic qualification? .....
6. Have you undergone any professional coaching course? [1] Yes [2] No
7. If yes, what kind of professional coaching course have you undergone?  
.....  
.....

**Section II: Criteria Used in Selecting Coaches for Regional Schools and Colleges Sports Teams**

8. Are you aware of any criteria used to select coaches into the regional sports teams? [1] I am aware of a criteria used [2] I am not aware of any such criteria used
9. If you are aware of any criteria used, how do you perceive fairness in such a criteria for selecting coaches into the regional sports team?  
[1] Very fair [2] Fair [3] I don't know [4] Not fair [5] Not at all fair
10. What is your level of satisfaction with the criteria used for selecting coaches into the regional sports teams? [1] Very satisfied [2] Satisfied [3] No idea [4] Not satisfied [5] Not at all satisfied

### Section III: Roles Assigned to Female P.E. Teachers during Regional Sports Teams

11. How often have you been involved in regional sports coaching?

- [1] Always [2] Often [3] I don't know [4] Sometimes [5] Never

12. What accounts for the frequency of your involvement in regional sports coaching? (*multiple response*) [1] Experience [2] Technical

- competence [3] Familiarity [4] More preferences given to males [5] Personal decision [6] Others .....

13. What roles are usually assigned to female P.E. teachers in regional sports teams during preparation and participation at competitions? (*multiple response*)

- [1] Head coaches [2] Handling logistics [3] Food Handling [4] Medicals [5] Coordination [6] Backroom technical staff [7] Others .....

14. What do you think accounts for such roles? (*multiple response*)

- [1] Preferences of female coaches [2] Females comfortable playing supporting roles to males [3] Role assignments determined largely by males [4] Others .....

15. How satisfied are you with the roles assigned to females during the preparation for, and participation in regional sports festivals?

- [1] Very satisfied [2] Satisfied [3] No idea [4] Dissatisfied [5] Very dissatisfied

16. What do you think should be done to improve female P.E teacher participation in regional sports coaching? (*multiple response*)

- [1] Increase number of females in regional sports administration

- [2] Promote females to higher positions in regional sports administration
- [3] Give more opportunities to females to play frontline roles in sports coaching
- [4] Change perception about the superior competence of males over females
- [5]Others .....

**Section IV: Barriers to Female P.E. Teachers Participating in Coaching Regional Sports Teams**

17. How do you agree to the following as barriers to female P.E. teachers participating in coaching regional sports teams? Use strongly agree = 1, agree = 2, indifferent = 3, disagree = 4, and strongly disagree = 5 for your answers

Barriers	1	2	3	4	5
Physical strain					
Family responsibilities					
Child bearing					
Marital issues					
Religious beliefs					
Cultural orientation					
Poor perception about competence of females					
Low exposure of females to frontline activities					
Others					



**Section V: Factors Attracting Female P.E. Teachers into Coaching Regional Sports Teams**

18. How do you agree to the following as factors that may attract you into coaching regional sports teams? Use strongly agree = 1, agree = 2, indifferent = 3, disagree = 4, and strongly disagree = 5, for your answers.

Factors	1	2	3	4	5
Interests in sports					
Health benefits associated with sports					
Technical competence in sports					
Being a former sport woman					
Role models					
Absence of other coaches					
Others					

19. Any additional information or suggestions? .....

.....

.....

Thank you for your time.

## APPENDIX C

### INTRODUCTORY LETTER

**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST**  
CAPE COAST, GHANA  
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES  
FACULTY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION  
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION & RECREATION

TELEPHONE: +233 - (0)206610931 / (0)543021384 /  
(0)268392819

TELEX: 2552, UCC, GH

Our Ref: ED/MPE/15/0005/4



EMAIL: [hper@ucc.edu.gh](mailto:hper@ucc.edu.gh)

Cables & Telegrams:  
UNIVERSITY, CAPE COAST

16<sup>th</sup> January, 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

**INTRODUCTORY LETTER:**  
**MS. EMEFA AGBO-KUMANYA (ED/MPE/15/0005)**

The above named person is a student of the Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation of the University of Cape Coast. She is pursuing a Master of Philosophy degree in Physical Education. In partial fulfilment of the requirements for the programme, she is conducting a research for her thesis titled **"Factors Influencing Low Representation of Females Coaching Regional Sports Teams at Senior High School Level in Ghana."**

We would be very grateful if she is granted the opportunity to conduct her research and also provide her with the information needed from your outfit. The data will be used for academic purposes only and be assured that the information collected will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

We count on your usual co-operation.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Daniel Apaak'.

Daniel Apaak (Ph.D)

**(Head of Department)**

Tel.: +233 (0)208587866

Email: [daniel.apaak@ucc.edu.gh](mailto:daniel.apaak@ucc.edu.gh)

## APPENDIX D

### INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Title: Factors influencing low representation of females in coaching regional sports teams at Senior High School level in Ghana.

Principal Investigator: Emefa Agbo-Kumanya. 0244978566 / 0509073989

Address: University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast

#### General Information about Research

I am an M.Phil. Student at Physical Education at the Department of Health Physical Education and Recreation in University of Cape Coast. I am conducting a study on Factors influencing low representation of females in coaching regional sports teams at Senior High School level in Ghana. The study seeks to examine the factors influencing low representation of females in coaching regional sports teams, what criteria the coordinators use in selecting coaches, what roles are assign to them, what prevents them from participating and what attracts them into coaching.

#### Procedures

The interview will be conducted by Emefa Agbo-Kumanya within fifteen minutes. Fill out a survey which will be provided by Emefa Agbo-Kumanya and collected by Emefa Agbo-Kumanya. If you do not wish to answer any of the questions posed during the interview, you may say so and the interviewer will move on to the next question. The interview will take place in a place convenient to you, and no one else but the interviewer will be present. The information recorded is considered confidential, and no one else except Emefa Agbo-Kumanya, my supervisors and the two field assistants will have access to the information documented during the interview. Answering of this

questionnaire will last for 10 minutes. The questionnaire and pens will be distributed and collected after completion by Emefa Agbo-Kumanya, Stephen Anim, Edward Acquah and some other research assistance. You are being invited to take part in this survey because your experience as a female physical education teacher can help me solicit information on the low representation when it comes to coaching in sports in Ghana. If you do not wish to answer any of the questions included in the survey, you may skip them and move on to the next question.

#### **Possible Risks and Discomforts**

There are no foreseeable risks or discomfort associated with this study.

#### **Possible Benefits**

The result of the study will help educators to identify factors influencing the low representation of females in coaching sports. It will also bring to light the challenges they face for which they don't invite them and even if they are invited, what prevents from taking up the challenge to coach. Also, for the coordinators, the challenges they face when the female P.E. teachers are invited to coach during the regional sports festivals. These can help stakeholders to find solutions to those problems.

#### **Confidentiality**

Apart from the researcher, principal supervisor and co-supervisor and the two field assistants, no one will have access to the information collected from you. We will protect information about you to the best of our ability, by keeping it safe under lock and key and you will not be named in any report.

### **Compensation**

Pens will be given to participants (female P.E. teachers) and a bottle of water for each regional coordinator. Also, their participation will be highly appreciated.

### **Voluntary Participation and Right to Leave the Research**

Participation in this study is voluntary and you may withdraw from it at any point. You may also refuse to answer any question that makes you feel uncomfortable.

### **Termination of Participation by the Researcher**

The researchers do not intend to terminate participation of any participant since there are no foreseeable risks or discomfort associated with the study. Termination of participation will only happen when the participant has given consent to discontinue.

### **Notification of Significant New Findings**

Respondents deserve the right to know what happens at any stage of the activities.

### **Contacts for Additional Information**

1. Dr Charles Domfeh, Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Cape Coast,

+233504595527

2. Dr Daniel Apaak, Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Cape Coast,

+23326176876 / +233208587866

### Your rights as a Participant

This research has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board of University of Cape Coast (UCCIRB). If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant you can contact the Administrator at the IRB Office between the hours of 8:00 am and 4:30 p.m. through the phones lines [0332133172](tel:0332133172) and 0244207814 or email address: [irb@ucc.edu.gh](mailto:irb@ucc.edu.gh).

### VOLUNTEER AGREEMENT

The above document describing the benefits, risks and procedures for the research title “**Factors influencing low representation of females in coaching regional sports teams at Senior High School level in Ghana**” has been read and explained to me. I have been given an opportunity to have any questions about the research answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate as a volunteer.

---

Date \_\_\_\_\_ Name and signature or mark of volunteer \_\_\_\_\_

### If volunteers cannot read the form themselves, a witness must sign here:

I was present while the benefits, risks and procedures were read to the volunteer. All questions were answered and the volunteer has agreed to take part in the research.

---

Date \_\_\_\_\_ Name and signature of witness \_\_\_\_\_



I certify that the nature and purpose, the potential benefits, and possible risks associated with participating in this research have been explained to the above individual.

---

Date \_\_\_\_\_ Name Signature of Person Who Obtained Consent \_\_\_\_\_



## APPENDIX E

### ETHICAL CLEARANCE

University Junior High School

P.M.B.

UCC

Cape Coast

6<sup>th</sup> May, 2019

The Director  
Institutional Review Board  
UCC  
Cape Coast

Dear Sir,

#### APPLICATION FOR ETHICAL CLEARANCE

I Emefa Agbo-Kumanya, a Master of Philosophy student of the Department of Health Physical Education and Recreation, University of Cape Coast. As part of my academic work, I am conducting a study on the topic “**Factors influencing low representation of females in coaching regional sports teams at senior high school level in Ghana**”. As part of requirement by the University, I wish to apply for an ethical clearance in order to carry out my study. I will be very grateful if my application is given the necessary consideration.

Counting on your usual cooperation

Yours faithfully



Emefa Agbo-Kumanya

NOBIS

APPENDIX F

ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD SECRETARIAT

TEL: 03321-33172/3 / 0207355653/ 0244207814

C/O Directorate of Research, Innovation and Consultancy

E-MAIL: [irb@ucc.edu.gh](mailto:irb@ucc.edu.gh)

OUR REF: UCC/IRB/A/2016/459

YOUR REF:

OMB NO: 0990-0279

IORG #: IORG0009096



30<sup>TH</sup> JULY, 2019

Ms. Emefa Agbo-Kumanya  
Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation  
University of Cape Coast.

Dear Ms. Agbo-Kumanya,

**ETHICAL CLEARANCE –ID: (UCCIRB/CES/2019/21)**

The University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board (UCCIRB) has granted **Provisional Approval** for the implementation of your research protocol titled **Factors influencing low representation of females in coaching regional sports teams at Senior High Level in Ghana**. This approval requires that you submit periodic review of the protocol to the Board and a final full review to the UCCIRB on completion of the research. The UCCIRB may observe or cause to be observed procedures and records of the research during and after implementation.

Please note that any modification of the project must be submitted to the UCCIRB for review and approval before its implementation.

You are also required to report all serious adverse events related to this study to the UCCIRB within seven days verbally and fourteen days in writing.

Always quote the protocol identification number in all future correspondence with us in relation to this protocol.

Yours faithfully,

Handwritten signature of Samuel Asiedu Owusu in blue ink.

Samuel Asiedu Owusu, PhD

UCCIRB Administrator

ADMINISTRATOR  
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD  
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST