UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

FACTORS INFLUENCING FEMALE TEACHER-TRAINEES’ NON-PARTICIPATION IN PHYSICAL ACTIVITY AND SPORTS IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN ASHANTI REGION OF GHANA

ABENA ADASA NKRUMAH

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BY

ABENA ADASA NKRUMAH

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

JANUARY 2016
DECLARATION

Candidate’s Declaration

In hereby declare 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: Abena Adasa Nkrumah

Supervisors’ Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and the 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. Charles K. Domfeh

Co-supervisor’s Signature …………………………… Date………………

Name: Dr. Silvanus L. Lamptey
ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to examine the factors influencing female teacher-trainees’ non-participation in physical activity and sports in Colleges of Education in Ashanti Region of Ghana. Descriptive survey design was adopted for the study. A sample size of 351 was selected from a population of 2,911 and simple random sampling technique was used to select participants for the study. Questionnaire was the main instrument used for data collection. Descriptive statistics (Frequency, percentages, mean and standard deviation) and inferential statistics (multiple regressions) were used in analyzing and discussing the result. The study revealed that female teacher-trainees’ have a strong negative attitude ($M=2.78$, $SD=1.43$) towards participation in the physical activities and sports. Female teacher-trainees’ have low participation in Physical Activity (78%). Religion (59.8%), misconception (98.8%), social role (98.8%), facilities and equipment (60.1%), sport skills foundation (99.1%), Motivation (96.6%) and academic loads (98.6%) are significant factors influencing female teacher-trainees’ non-participation in physical activities and sport in the Colleges of Education in the Ashanti Region, Ghana. It is recommended that after school games and activities should be made fun and the games should not be male dominated. Student must be educated on the importance of physical activity and sports.
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DEDICATION

To my fathers,

Mr. Asante Mensah Yaw, Prof. Joseph K. Mintah, Dr. Agyenim Boateng,

Prof. Joseph K. Ogah
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DECLARATION</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABSTRACT</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEDICATION</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
<td>ix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background to the Study</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement of the Problem</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose of the Study</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Questions</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance of the Study</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delimitation</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition of Terms</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation of the Study</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical Framework-Bem’s Gender Schema Theory</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Teacher-Trainees’ Attitudes towards Participation in Physical Activity and Sports</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in Physical Activity and Sports</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Factors that Influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation

in Physical Activity and Sports 23
Facilities and Equipment 23
Religion 28
Academic Loads 33
Misconception 40
Social Role 50
Motivation 58
Lack of Sports Skill Foundation 66
Summary 74

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODS 78
Research Design 78
Population 78
Sampling Procedures 78
Data Collection Instrument 80
Reliability and Validity of Research Instrument 81
Data Collection Procedures 82
Data Processing and Analysis 83

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION 85
Research Question One: What attitudes do female teacher-trainees’
show towards participation in physical activities and sport? 85
Research Question Two: What is the level of female
teacher-trainees’ participation in physical activity and sports? 88

Misconception as a factor that influence on Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in Physical Activity and Sports 93

Motivation as a Factor that Influences Female Teacher-Trainees’ Level of Participation in Sports and Physical Activity 108

Academic Loads as a factor that influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in Physical Activity and Sports 113

Research Question Four: Which Factors mostly Influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Non-participation in Physical Activity and Sports? 116

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 119

Summary 119

Key findings 120

Conclusions 121

Recommendations 123

Suggestions for Further Research 123

REFERENCES 124

APPENDICES 159

A QUESTIONNAIRES 160

B INTRODUCTION LETTER 168
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Sample of Female Teacher-Trainees’ in the Colleges of Education</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Female Teacher-Trainees’ Attitudes towards Participation in Physical Activities and Sports</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Level of Physical Activity Participation</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Religion as a Factor that Influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in Physical Activity and Sports</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Misconception as a Factor that Influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in Physical Activity and Sports</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Social Role as a Factor that Influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in Sports and Physical Activity</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Access to Facilities as a Factor that Influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in Physical Activity and Sports</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Sports Skill Foundation as a Factor that Influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in Physical Activity and Sports</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Motivation as a Factor that Influences Female Teacher-Trainees’ Level of Participation in Sports and Physical Activity</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Academic Loads as a Factor that Influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in Physical Activity and Sports</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Multiple Regression Analysis of Factors Influencing Non-Participation of Female Teacher Trainees in Physical Activity and Sports
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Sports are institutionalized competitive activities that involve vigorous physical exertion, or the use of relatively complex physical skills by the participant, motivated by personal enjoyment and external reward (Coakley, 2001). Physical activity on the other hand as stated by World Health Organization [WHO] (2014), is any bodily movements produced by skeletal muscles that require energy expenditure including activities undertaken while working, playing, carrying out household chores, travelling, and engaging in recreational pursuits. This definition gives us a wider scope of activities which can be engaged in to achieve the benefits of participating in physical activity.

Women’s participation in sports and physical activity in general has a history stemming from the colonial era to this modern era which is marked by division and discrimination but also one filled with major accomplishments (History of Women in Sports, 1997). In the ancient Greece where sports was said to have emerged from, women were virtually excluded from it. They were strictly barred from even viewing the Olympic Games, and punishments were prescribed for any woman caught at the Games. However, the women themselves created their own programme of sports that is the Herea Games, in honor of Hera, the wife of Zeus. These were athletic events, held every four years, for women only. This according to Sage (as cited in Hargreaves 1993), might be called the beginning of women in sports.

Jamil (2010) made reference to a report by the Inter-Agency Task Force in 2002, on Sports for Development and Peace, convened by the UN
Secretary General, termed sports and physical activity as a powerful vehicle through which the UN can achieve its goals. Accrediting the positive values and outcomes of sport and its role in the promotion of Education, Health, Development and Peace; the UN General Assembly declared the year 2005 as “the International Year of Sport and Physical Education” through its resolution 58/5 in November, 2003. The Commonwealth Sports Ministers in their 4th meeting held in Beijing in August, 2008 recognized the growing momentum of the sport for development movement, and the congruence with the work of the Commonwealth to support the achievement of health, social and economic development through sport.

Research reveals that participation in sports develops and improves the personality of the participants and brings number of positive changes in their behavioral conduct. The sports managers working in different capacities with the women maintain that sports and physical activity has the ability to develop adherence to discipline which virtually becomes a characteristic of their behaviours (Cigliano, 2006). Sports and physical activities provide women with ample chances of meeting lots of people during and after the course of play and the social interaction taking place enhances the quality of respect for others and increases their sense of responsibility CBC report in 2005 (as cited in Jamil, 2010).

Davis (2002) stated that sport is not a mere source of amusement or pass time, rather, considering its numerous benefits and upshots, it is believed to be a very useful and worthwhile activity. Moses (2009) attested to the fact that people who participate in physical activity and sports benefit a lot. He stated that people who participate are often happy, friendly, competitive and
kind, meaning people with a life including physical activities develop dynamic healthy life, as creative personalities. In accordance with this view, physical activity and sports activities create a mentally, physically and physiologically healthy society.

Again, participation in sports and physical activities improves the power of determination among the women as they are supposed to make on the field abrupt decisions independently (Kerr, 1996) to undo the opponent’s game strategy. On the field practice, women improve their persistency which helps them face practical life situations more purposefully. One of the benefits of sports participation is development of leadership qualities among women, as the implicit competitiveness of sports activities urges them to learn, improve and become a good leader (Dobosz, & Beaty, 1999).

Furthermore, Coakley and Dunning (2002) said the capacity of sports, both competitive and recreational, in bringing positive behavioral changes and developing various desired personality traits among its participants is evidenced through research. Participation in sports activities strengthens and improves peer relations and helps in developing friendships and associations within the community. Following great deal of social interaction and contacts on and off the field, the women tend to become more accommodative and liberal, self confident, bold and generous. Development and promotion of desired socio-cultural traits, in addition to physical and mental growth of the participants is among the prime aims of sports and physical activity. Yan and McCullagh (2004) say that sports enable participants to perform better in other areas of life as well.
Previous studies reported that women show a better level of self-esteem sportsman spirit and emotional stability (Morris, Sallybanks, Willis, & Makkai, 2004; Tenoschok, 2001). According to Parker and Stiehl (2004) positive character traits can very effectively be learned through ardent participation in sports and physical activity, whereas one of the significant outcomes of sports and physical activity participation is promotion of social cohesion in the society (Frisby, 1998).

Education is the cardinal element of any civilized society and the promotion of education is considered as quite essential. One of the dimensions of sports is its contributions towards academics. Positive relationship between sports participation and mental wellbeing of the participants has been manifested in many research studies. It has been observed that sports and physical activity plays a very effective role in the intellectual development of the participants (Lau, Yu, Lee, So, & Sung, 2004), and the students giving appropriate time to participate in physical activity and sports usually produce better academic results (Satcher, 2005).

One of the areas of concern for education, particularly in the developing countries like Ghana, is high and increasing rate of school dropout. Research establishes that sports activities play significant role in academic enhancement and prevention of school dropout, whereas a high ratio of school attendance has been noticed among the women (Stevenson, 2006) with a comparatively lesser trend of remaining absent from classes (Guest, & Schneider, 2003; Ghana Education Service, 2010).

Physical inactivity is on the rise in many countries, it is reported to be the fourth leading risk factor for global mortality and causes 6% of all deaths,
adding to the burden of non-communicable diseases and affecting general health nationwide (WHO, 2002). According to WHO (2014) and Blair, Kohl, Gordon, and Paffenbarga (2008), engaging in physical activity can help reduce the risk of colon cancer, reproductive cancer in females, diabetes, ischemic heart disease and other non-communicable diseases. Friedenreich (2001) also found out that females who have been active through their lives as well as females, who start to be physically active, significantly reduce their risk of breast cancer. Exercise has also been proposed as a treatment for depression, which is twice as prevalent in women as in men (National Mental Health Association, 2000).

The surgeon general’s report on physical activities and health (U.S. Department of Health, & Human Services, 2002 and National Association for Sport and Physical Education [NASPE], 2004) emphasized the importance of regular physical activity on health benefit across the life span, including reducing the risk of heart disease ameliorating and preventing numerous other disease states such as diabetes, cancer and osteoporosis. In addition, physical activity is related to positive mental health and enhanced quality of life (Biddle, Fox, & Boucher, 2000). Although adolescents are more active than adults, participation in physical activity declines with age throughout adolescence, especially for girls (Centre for Disease Control [CDC], 2002; Pate, Long & Health, 1994; Rowland, 1990; Stone, McKenzie, Welks, & Booth, 1998).

Recognizing the importance of physical activity, Healthy People in 2010 reported that only 65% of adolescents in grade 9-12 engage in the recommended levels of physical activity, namely 20 minutes of vigorous
activity 3 days a week. A stated goal of Healthy People therefore, is to increase the percentage of the adolescents who engage in recommended levels of vigorous physical activity to 85% (U.S Department of Health, & Human services, 2002). A recent position statement from the national Association for sport and physical education (NASPE 2004; Corbin, & Pangrazi, 1998) is consistent with the theme of healthy people 2010 and recommends that adolescents engage in 30 minutes of moderate activity on most days). Looking at the significance and contribution of sports and physical activities in the development of the participant, it is quite essential that maximum sports participation should be encouraged.

**Statement of the Problem**

The issue of low participation of women in physical and sporting activities has had its toll on sports and games in most schools and colleges in Ghana (Ampong, 2011). In Colleges of Education in Ghana, physical education is one of the courses which teacher-trainees are expected to study and excel to empower them with the prerequisite skills to be able to handle lessons or issues related to sports and physical activity. In addition to the theoretical training or classroom work there are other regular sporting activities that are designed to expose the prospective teachers to the practical knowledge of physical education to keep them healthy and ultimately develop their talents in athletics (track and field events) and games (soccer, netball, handball and volleyball). During these sessions few females come out to participate sometimes not even getting them to represent their halls as well as the school in even netball which is perceived as women game.
There have been researchers who have investigated into the phenomenon. For instance Ampong (2011) did a study on factors influencing females’ participation at the universities. Moses (2009) also did a study on attitude and perceptions towards female participation in physical education at the secondary school level. Nthangeni, Haycocks and Toriola (2009) also studied the contributory factors of low female participation in sports at Tshwane University of Technology, South Africa. In spite of these, participation is still low and there is limited research into the area at the Colleges of Education level. Bringing about the need for this study.

**Purpose of the Study**

The main purpose of this study was to examine the factors influencing female teacher trainees’ non-participation in physical activity and sports in Colleges of Education in Ashanti Region of Ghana. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Explore female teacher-trainees’ attitudes towards participation in physical activities and sports.
2. Examine the level of female teacher-trainees’ participation in physical activities and sports.
3. Examine the factors (religion, misconception, social role, access to facilities and equipment, motivation, sports skill foundation and academic loads) influence female teacher-trainees’ participation of physical activity and sports.
4. Assess the factors that mostly affect female teacher-trainees’ non-participation in physical activity and sports.
**Research Questions**

The study was guided by the following questions:

1. What attitudes do female teacher-trainees’ show towards participation in physical activities and sport?
2. What is the level of female teacher-trainees’ participation in physical activity and sports?
3. What factors (religion, misconception, social role, access to facilities and equipment, sports skill foundation, motivation and academic loads) influence female teacher-trainees’ participation of physical activity and sports?
4. Which factors mostly influence female teacher-trainees’ non-participation in physical activity and sports?

**Significance of the Study**

It is my finest conviction that this research will help us to find out the fears and worries that women have when it comes to their engagement in physical activity and sports in Colleges of Education in Ashanti Region of Ghana. It will also give an insight into the organization of sports and games at the Colleges of Education on some of the basic reasons as to why participation of women in sporting and physical activities at this level is low. It will also help Physical Education (P.E) Tutors and administrators to find suitable solution to these problems. Findings of the study will also contribute significantly to policy formulation with regards to Physical Education in the Colleges of Education. Physical Education Curriculum developers and reviewers of Colleges of Education will also use the findings as reference material.
Delimitations

The study was delimited to female teacher-trainees’ in selected Colleges of Education in Ashanti Region level 100 and 200. The study was also delimited to descriptive cross-sectional design, proportional sampling strategy as well as questionnaire for the data collection. Also, the study was delimited to variables such as religion, misconception, social role, access to facilities and equipment, sports skill foundation, motivation and academic loads. Further, the study was again delimited to physical activities such as activities you do at work, home, playing soccer, volleyball, handball, netball, basketball and moving from place to place.

Limitation

Untruthfulness on the part of the participants could affect the outcome of the findings in this study since most of them were trying to protect their College as the best in terms of physical activity and this could affect the generalization of these findings.

Definition of Terms

P.E. Tutors: Teachers who teach physical education in colleges of education.

Participation: Term used to refer to active involvement in sporting activities such as games and athletics.

Sports/Sport: Formal competitive physical activities engaged in by students during inter-colleges competition.

Teacher trainee: A person undergoing training to become a teacher in primary school.
Organisation of the Study

The study is presented in five chapters. Chapter one is organized under background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, delimitation, limitations, definition of terms and organization of the study. Chapter two deals with reviewing of literature relevant to the study; the views, findings and suggestions made by earlier researchers on the topic for the study have been reviewed to support points raised in the study. It also presents a review of literature on theoretical framework (Bem’s gender schema theory), female teacher-trainees’ attitudes towards participation in physical activities and sport, level of female teachers-trainees’ participation in physical activity and sports, Factors (facilities and equipment, religion, academic loads, misconception, social role, motivation and lack of sports skill foundation).

Chapter three outlines the methodology including research designs, population, sample and sampling technique, instrument(s), data collection procedures and data analysis procedures. Chapter four presents the findings of the study and results of the data analysis. All significant and novel findings were identified, interpreted and discussed. This spells out the major findings of the research and the inferences made from them in view of findings from related previous review of literature. Chapter five presents the summary of findings, conclusions, and recommendations.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

The main purpose of this study was to examine the factors influencing female teacher-trainees’ non-participation in physical activity and sports in Colleges of Education in Ashanti Region of Ghana. This Chapter reviewed relevant literature in relation to the study. The chapter is in two-fold: theoretical and empirical reviewed. The theoretical review looks at Bem’s Gender Schema Theory while the empirical review focused on female teachers-trainees’ attitude towards participation in physical activities and sport, female teacher-trainees’ level of participation in physical activities and factors that influence female teachers-trainees’ participation in physical activities and sports.

Theoretical Framework-Bem’s Gender Schema Theory

Society forms expectations of individuals and situational outcomes through stereotypes and norms. If the norm does not occur, individuals may become uneasy. Such is the explanation for schema theory. Schema theory explains how thought processes relate to life in society (McVee, Dunsmore, & Gavelek, 2005). Individuals make sense of society by developing expectations or schémas. They then internally and externally attempt to fit into the societal norm and base stereotypes on such schémas (Campbell, Shirley, & Candy, 2004).

Bem’s Gender Schema Theory consolidated contemporary theories of sex typing by identifying the values and inherent flaws of psychoanalytic, social learning, and cognitive developmental theories. Bem rejected Freudian beliefs of “anatomy is destiny” and instead proposed that an individual’s
gender identification emerged from his or her cognitive development and societal influences. Bem’s publication, The Lenses of Gender, sought to “render those lenses (of stereotypical and socially accepted masculine and feminine traits) visible rather than invisible, to enable us to look at the culture's gender lenses rather than through them” (Bem, 1993, p. 2).

There are three defining features of gender schematics based on Bem’s research: Gender schemas develop through an individual’s observation of societal classifications of masculinity and femininity, which are evidenced in human anatomy, social roles, and characteristics. Males and females cognitively process and categorize new information in their environment based on its maleness or femaleness. Self-authorship is displayed by an individual’s categorization of and conformity to the sets of elements that belong to either definition of masculinity or femininity (Evans, 2004).

Gender schema’ theory (Kiouvula, 1995), suggests that the phenomena of sex typing derives in part from gender based schematic processing which form a generalised readiness to process information on the basis of the sex-linked associations that constitute the gender schema. The selectivity of schematic processing allows us to add meaning to a vast amount of stimuli that we are exposed to and enable us to structure incoming information. Sex typed individuals thus process incoming information according to how society defines masculinity and femininity (Kiouvula).

People experience discomfort whenever they are expected to take part in cross-sex activities because they know the demands far exceed their ability. This theory clearly establishes expectations and perceptions of 'appropriate behaviour' and will ultimately determine behaviour patterns. Gregson and
Colley (1986) stress that during adolescence; there is an adoption of sex roles. These roles could have an effect on behavior, for example adolescents whose mothers are involved in sports will also more likely be involved in sports. The socialisation process influences gender schema development. Although it is also important to emphasise that gender has not been able to consistently predict behaviour, it is undoubtedly one of the factors that influence behaviour. Gender differentiation begins at birth and can result in the learning of passive, submissive and nurturing behaviour of the girls and the active, aggressive and autonomous behaviour of the boys, argued Ben (as cited in Kiouvola, 1995). In most homes girls and boys are socialised differently.

Researchers have applied this concept to gender, creating gender schema theory. Bem (1981) argued that individuals are predisposed to associate traits, objects, behaviours, and characteristics based on gender schémas. Levy (1988) divided gender schémas into two types: those that rely upon pre-existing knowledge and those that examine how such knowledge is processed. Individuals are inclined to process information based on maleness or femaleness, whereas behaviours are categorized as gender appropriate or gender inappropriate (Bem, 1981; Campbell et al., 2004; Freedman, 1992).

Researchers define the categorization of gender behaviours as either sex-typing or gender-typing, terms that have been used interchangeably (Hardin, & Greer, 2009; Hudak, 1993; Koivula, 2001). The act of sex-typing leads to the formation of gender stereotypes (Patterson, 2003). Anderson and Bem (1981) shares that sex-typed individuals are more likely to process and categorize information in terms of gender schémas and choose to participate in
gender-appropriate behaviours. The fear of women being seen as sick due to slimness, the anxiety of building up muscles, the cultural antecedents that women are not supposed to expose themselves, women are not supposed to be touched by men in public and the hilarious misconception of women becoming infertile due to their engagement in physical activity which has no scientific proof seems to have been scaring women in Colleges of Education from participating in physical activity and sports.

**Female Teacher-Trainees Attitudes towards Participation in Physical Activities and Sport**

Since physical education teaching involves teaching and actively engaging in physical activities, they require not only high motivation to teach but also strong attitudes to participate in physical activities. Wagner and Sherwood (1969) define attitudes as a predisposition to behave in a certain way to a given object. The theory advanced by these authors’ states that there is no better way to predict how a person will respond to a stimulus than to know their attitudes towards it.

As a matter of fact, Hogg and Vaugan (2005) defined an attitude as a relatively established structure of cognitive and emotional process and behaviours related to a subject or a disposition to those behaviours or a relatively enduring organisation of beliefs, feelings and behavioural tendencies towards socially significant objects groups’ events or symbols. It was prudent to establish the attitudes of teacher trainees towards participation in physical activities and sport in colleges of education in the Ashanti Region, Ghana.

Researchers in physical activities and sport (physical education) settings classified attitudes for why people choose to participate in various
physical activities and sport under different categories. Based on different research results, people choose to participate in physical activities due to health and fitness benefits, social, psychological, leisure and recreational benefits (Treasures, & Roberts, 2001). The scientific evidence proved that participation in various physical activities and sports enhances the quality of life by improving cardiovascular and respiratory function, increasing performance at work, increasing feelings of well-being, decreasing stress, anxiety, and depression, and reducing total body fat, blood pressure and insulin needs (Armstrong, Balady, Berry, Davis, Davy, & Davy, 2006). The attitude towards participations in physical activities and sports are mainly determined by curriculum content, class atmosphere, teacher behavior, dressing out, and self-perception (Krouscas, 1999).

Several studies have been carried out to evaluate the attitudes of teacher-trainees towards participation in physical activities and sports at different levels education system (Wamukoya, 1993; Muindi, 1998), but the findings have been conflicting. Hildebrand and Johnson (2001) found that when college students take a PE class and are competent in the activity, there is greater likelihood of continued participation throughout life. Similarly, Koca, Asci and Demirhan (2005) opined that students have positive attitudes towards participation in physical activities and sports because of the desire to be successful or spend their time without pressure of academic success in PE lessons. Positive attitude motivates students to engage in physical activities which contribute to their development, not only physically but also emotionally, socially, mentally while negative altitudes on the other hand tend to hinder such development (Shamshoum, 2003). Tuckman (1999) argues that
individuals develop strong attitudes toward physical activities given the
benefits inherent in participating in physical activities.

Negative attitudes towards participation in physical activities and
sports shave been reported in colleges (Muindi, 1998) secondary schools
(Wamukoya, 1994) and universities (Njororai, 1994). Njororai (1994)
conceded that students pursuing physical activities and sports programmes at
the university are regarded by their peers and community at large as dull and
unintelligent and that this deficiency limits their potential to pursue more
“academic subjects”. He also reported that students had negative attitudes
towards participation in physical activities and sports (Njororai, 1990).

Njororai (1994) asserts that in all the teachers colleges, PE is
obligatory for every teacher trainee and must be taken regardless of interest,
age, gender or physical condition. Perhaps for this reason, student teachers in
general seem to associate the subject with a low esteem. They generally lack
enthusiasm, fail to understand the role of PE in child development and show
little knowledge about the aims and objectives of PE as a subject. With the
aforementioned contrasting findings in view, this study set out to investigate
the attitudes of certificate teacher trainees towards PE in Kenya. PE is a
compulsory subject in Kenyan teacher training colleges. Understanding
student attitudes should help PE teachers develop and use approximate
teaching methods and techniques leading students to appreciate physical
activity and motivating them to develop personal habits in practicing them
particularly after leaving their student lives.

To combat the decreasing levels of participation in physical activity
and sports in many female teacher-trainees, health professionals are calling
upon school physical education to equip students with the skills and knowledge necessary to become physically active for a lifetime (Krouscas, 1999). A positive attitude towards participation in physical activities and sports are required to promote physical education in colleges. Therefore, colleges at all levels should develop and encourage positive attitudes toward participation in physical activities and sports, providing opportunities to learn physical skills and to perform physical activities (Williams, Haskell & Ades, 2007).

**Level of Female Teachers-Trainees’ Participation Physical Activity and sports**

Physical activity is any bodily movements produced by skeletal muscles that require energy expenditure including activities leisure time physical activity, transportation (e.g. walking or cycling), occupational (i.e. work), household chores, play, games, sports or planned exercise, in the context of daily, family, and community activities (WHO, 2014). Despite the well-established links between physical activity and both physical and psychological health, alarming declines in levels of adult physical activity have been observed in recent years.

This trend has also been noted in children and adolescents, with some authors reporting a marked drop in physical activity apparent in children aged 9-14 years (Barnett, O’Loughlins, & Paradis, 2002), perhaps particularly after the age of 12 (Petlichkoff, 1996; Telama, & Yang, 2000). Kirshnit, Ham, & Richards (as cited in Slater, & Tiggemann, 2010), reported that approximately 80% of all children drop out of organised sports programs between the ages of 12 and 17 years.
Equally of great concern is the existence of striking gender differences in adolescent participation in sport and physical activity. Khalaf, Ekblom, Kowalski, Berggren, Westergren and Al-Hazzaa (2013) did a study on Female University Students’ Physical Activity Levels and Associated Factors, in their study they found that UW females were found to be less active than OW/obese students. Moreover, of those not encouraged by their parents to be physically active, only 28% were highly active.

The mother’s level of education, the students’ marital status and residence proximity to parks all had a significant impact on the students’ PA. The findings of their study with regard to PA levels among females are consistent with studies conducted in similar environments and cultures in other countries (Al-Hazzaa, 2004; Dumith, Hallal, Reis, & Kohl, 2011) levels that ranged between 43% and 99% among Saudi children and adults alike, in comparison to Khalaf et al study that showed a high prevalence of students not meeting the WHO recommendations for PA at a vigorous-intensity level (85%).

Results from other international studies conducted in different cultures with similar lifestyle patterns to that of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia [KSA] (Al-Nozha et al., 2007; Al-Nuaim et al., 2012) also indicated high inactivity levels among female students (Varela-Mato, Cancela, Ayan, Martín, & Molina, 2012).

Reasons for the observed similarities may be explained in terms of a trend towards replacement of an active lifestyle with an increasing frequency of sedentary routines in daily life and a growing trend towards unhealthy
weight gain. In addition, global physical inactivity patterns were reported to be more prevalent (Al-Nakeeb et al., 2012).

Some research has examined the reasons that adolescents give for participating in sports and physical activities. These include most commonly fun, skill development, challenge and fitness (Frederick, & Ryan, 1993). Weiss (2000) argued that research consistently points to three major motives: developing and demonstrating physical competence (such as athletic skills, physical fitness and physical appearance), gaining social acceptance and support (including friendships, peer group acceptance, and approval and encouragement from significant adults), and fun and enjoyment. Patrick et al. (1999) also highlighted the important role of relationships with peers in adolescents’ continuation in sports and physical activities.

They argued that while adolescents may not necessarily initially choose to engage in an activity for social reasons, peer relationships can play a vital role in the maintenance of continued involvement in sporting activities. With regard to motives for giving up sport, Kirshnit et al. (1989) reported that young people tend to discontinue their involvement in sports for one of two major categories of reasons. The first involves interest in and conflicts with other activities. There is only a finite amount of leisure time available to young people, and with increasing age, adolescents experience greater options and demands on this free time (Kirshnit et al, 1989; Petlichkoff, 1996). The other major category focuses on the negative and overly professionalized qualities of organised youth sports programs. Here specific reasons include lack of playing time, lack of success, little skill improvement, high pressure to
perform or win, dislike of the coach and lack of fun (Butcher, Lindner & Johns, 2002; Kirshnit et al., 1989).

In contrast, some researchers (Petlichkoff, 1996) have suggested that dropping out of sport may reflect a normal trial and error sampling by children and adolescents searching for an enjoyable activity. Of all the reasons provided above, none accounts for girls’ higher rates of withdrawal from sport. Thus, the primary aim of the present study was to explore more deeply the reasons that adolescent girls give for ceasing participation in sports and other physical activities.

According to James (1998), girls who resist the trend to drop out of sport, and continue to participate, are more likely to remain active later in their lives. Given the clear benefits of regular physical activity (such as reduced risks of cardiovascular disease, osteoporosis and obesity), exploration of the reasons that adolescent girls give for withdrawing from sport may be particularly valuable for enhancing later rates of participation. The importance of physical activity is well known. It is one of the nation’s leading health indicators, according to Healthy People 2010 (US Department of Health and Human Service, 2000). Physical activity helps to reduce the risk of a number of critical health problems, including obesity, heart disease, stroke, colon cancer, diabetes, and osteoporosis (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services and Department of Education, 2000).

Additionally, participation in physical activities and sports among young people has been shown to promote social well-being, physical and mental health, academic achievement, and skills such as teamwork, self discipline, leadership, and socialization (U.S. Department of Health and
Human Services, & Department of Education, 2000). The National Association for Sport and Physical Education asserts in a position paper that “all middle school students should have the opportunity to participate in a wide variety of organized sports and activities through intramurals, clubs, and school sponsored co-curricular programs” (National Association for Sport and Physical Education, 2002).

Unfortunately, in a nationally representative sample of 9th–12th grade students, less than two-thirds (65%) reported participating in sufficient vigorous activity in the previous week and only one-fourth (26%) in sufficient moderate physical activity in the previous week, as defined by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Furthermore, just over half (55%) reported participating on one or more sport teams during the previous year (Grunbaum, Kann, & Kinchen, 2002). Increasing participation in physical activities and sports among American adolescents is therefore a critical priority. Although involvement in school-sponsored sports and physical activities outside of school have been promoted as one means to increase physical activity and hence the health of adolescents (US Department of Health and Human Service, 2000).

In a research by U.S Department of Health and Human Services (2002), they reported that for active physical activity behaviour, participants were asked on average the number of days per week they would normally be moderately physically active (that is exercise sustained for many minutes, without exhaustion or extreme fatigue that increases the breathing and heart rate, such that the pulse can be felt with increased warmth and possible sweating) as recommended by National guidelines.
Further the guidelines suggest that adults should achieve this at a minimum of 30 minutes a day on at least five days or more a week for general health benefit. That was the definition used in that study to denoted adequately physical activity. Those only achieving the recommended levels of physical activity up to 4 days a week were grouped as being ‘inadequate exercisers’ while those managing this on 5–6 days per week were grouped as ‘adequate exercisers’. Two questions addressed sedentary behaviour. These were the number of hours spent each day watching TV and similarly on computer/games consoles. For each, the response originally had five options but these were compressed into three categories “Less than half an hour’, ‘1< 4 hours’ and ‘>4 hours’ (Poobalan, Aucoot, Clarke, & Smith, 2012).

According to WHO (2010), recommended level of physical activity for adults aged 18-64. The recommendations in order to improve cardio respiratory and muscular fitness, bone health, reduce the risk of NCDs (Non Communicable Disease) and depression are: 1. Adults aged 18–64 should do at least 150 minutes of moderate-intensity aerobic physical activity throughout the week or do at least 75 minutes of vigorous-intensity aerobic physical activity throughout the week or an equivalent combination of moderate - and vigorous-intensity activity. 2. Aerobic activity should be performed in bouts of at least 10 minutes duration. 3. For additional health benefits, adults should increase their moderate intensity aerobic physical activity to 300 minutes per week, or engage in 150 minutes of vigorous-intensity aerobic physical activity per week, or an equivalent combination of moderate and vigorous intensity activity. 4. Muscle-strengthening activities should be done involving major muscle groups on 2 or more days a week (WHO, 2010).
Factors that Influence Female Teachers-Trainees’ Participation physical Activities and Sport

There are many factors that influence teacher-trainees’ participation in physical activities and sports. Some of these factors include age of the teacher-trainees, teacher-trainees grade level, severity of disability, teacher experience, the gender, social class, race, and ability of the teacher, and how teachers-trainee feel about their own competency level (Elliott, 2008). Below are some of the factors considered and discussed in the thesis.

Facilities and Equipment

Coaches and sportswomen recognize the importance of sports facilities and equipment in the organization and development of sports in the country as a whole, and institutions in particular. Lack of this would greatly hinder even the most proficient coach and athletes as well. Availability of facilities and equipment, therefore, is a prerequisite to the conduct of sports programmes. Onifade (1995) observed that for the success of any physical education and sports programmes, there must be availability of qualitative and quantitative facilities and equipment.

Torkildson (2000) expressed the same opinion that the presence and absence of facilities and equipment, their accessibility, quality, pricing, structure, and policy could not have substantial influence on recreational participation. Butler (1996) similarly asserted that, equipment and facilities have an important place in recreational centers, because they contribute to physical development, stimulate creative activity, and provide opportunities for other activities to take place.

23
Facilities and equipment are important aspects of recreational needs and interests of students. Facilities such as playing fields and gymnasium attract sportsmen and women to participate. Again the question of availability and quality of facilities and equipment are of vital importance. Awosika (1982) in Onotago agreed that, facilities afford students the opportunity to practice skills taught in physical education, in sports programmes, and these facilities and equipment should be available all the year around. These presuppose that it becomes possible for the individuals to engage in recreation during their leisure hours. Asabia (2002) disclosed that, the renowned tennis star, Jimmy Corners’ mother built a tennis court around the house even before he was born. This gave him the opportunity to practice often and grew up to become the World champion.

This also raises the question of income and status, whereby females from higher income homes have the opportunities to practice from infancy and are likely to participate in university sports. Burrow and Bammel (1992) agreed with this assertion that females from higher income homes have swimming pools in their yards, installed saunas, exercise equipment, large television screen and personal computers. Nowadays, equipment and clothing for sports can be expensive. One may have to put on good clothing for activities and lack of money to buy these could be a factor for non-participation. Women’s Sports Foundation (2007) indicated that images of the above people can promote the idea that unless you are dressed in favourable design clothing for a particular sport, you will look out of place.

Asabia (2002) observed that image falls as distance grows between users home and the facilities, and rises with those who live near the facility.
She cited Frank Ofori a national tennis player who rose to that position as a result of the nearness of his father’s residence to the tennis court at Kaneshie Sports Complex, as a living example in Ghana. Burrow and Bammel (1992) in their work similarly submitted that place of residence has great effect on the type of opportunity that is readily available. Proximity to services and facilities can influence young people’s participation in physical activity.

Most females may feel lazy going out of their Halls to recreational centres, especially, when they are far away. If facilities were near, females might show interest in sports. NSW Department of Sports and Recreation (2000) found in a study that a well designed physical facility attracts people and encourages them to use it. The way facilities are managed and its atmosphere can either encourage or discourage people’s active involvement in sports.

The Halls may have few indoor games, but they are usually occupied by men. Females who may be interested may not be bold to play with them; those who may be bold to play may be intimidated by the men. This claim is supported by Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001) report indicate that boys dominate space in school playground and sporting arenas and tell girls that they cannot play. Similarly Davis (1999) remarked that teachers will assign duties and manage equipment according to stereotypes. Female students’, even highly skilled females, are often left out of the game interactions allowing male students to dominate the game setting.

In another investigation, Murray (1991) revealed that a famous football coach proclaimed that, if girls and women participate it will emasculate his players. Eitzen and Sage (1993) opine that facility for female High Schools
and College programmes have customarily been second-rate. The newer and later gymnasium routinely went to males while the older gymnasium was routinely given to the females.

Females then cannot play sports if they cannot get access to the necessary facilities (Women’s Sports Foundation, 2007). In disagreement to this assertion, Sports and Recreation South Africa (2005) concluded in their studies that people will participate in sports or not regardless of human access to sports club or sport equipment and kit. Clothing which are so revealing may be a barrier to some females. Some females feel shy while doing sports in this kit and more so being watched by others. Examples are the obese and those who are self-conscious about their bodies.

Women’s Sports Foundation (2007) appears to support this view that, girls and women feel very reluctant to wear tight-fitting and revealing sports wears. Some will rather not do sports at all than face the embarrassment. Moreover, females who attended schools in the rural areas may be limited in skill due to lack of access to facilities and equipment. Burrow and Bammel (1992) revealed in a study that cities consistently neglect the recreation needs of tenement district; the recreational facilities and services for the urban poor are inadequate. He further concluded that American remote or wilderness areas received about 7% of outdoor recreation, all the rest occurred in developed areas. Women Sports Foundation (1998) noted that class goes along with higher income, more education, better housing, and thus, facilities and equipment, and the access to more sports activities.

In any human endeavour, there is an amount of risk involved. Some women may have fear for their personal safety using sports equipment and
their facilities such as hockey. Women Sports Foundation indicated that women and girls particularly are underrepresented in physical activity; often this is simply that they do not feel safe or comfortable using sports facilities. People are more likely to participate in sports if they believe the environment in which they participate is safe to meet their needs (NSW Department of Sports and Recreation, 2000).

The issue of facilities has been found to be one of the problems being encountered by sportsmen and women. The reason is that the existing facilities are obsolete and in states of disrepair. The sporting world has reached a stage where complex facilities and equipment are needed for teaching, practicing, and competition. Speaking on the lack of sports facilities and equipment in Ghana, the former Minister for Youth and Sports stated that ‘it is sad to say that a park like Kaladan where one of the nation’s Greatest heroes, Abedi Pele, played, the Sekondi Gyendu Park, and the Tema Stadium cannot boast of any good playing fields (Osei, 2007). The boxing gyms at Bukom and James Town, have provided boxing, heroes, but have nothing to show for this feat’. Of course one should not doubt the importance of adequate facilities and equipment in meeting the objectives of physical education and sports programmes.

In support of this Lundy (1998) in his address on participation and the foundation of elite success said, “Poor and non–existing infrastructure is a major problem and present structural barrier; community sporting infrastructure, there are definitely a number of areas that must be addressed if we are to increase the level of participation of women in sports” (p.12). Rothberger (2014) shares that women feel anxious and particular about the
kind of cloth they wear when participating in physical activity and sports. To them the kind of cloth can either increase or decrease their confidence level to participate in physical activities and sports.

Out of the four participants interviewed, three of them attested to the fact that they feel anxious regarding displaying one’s physique while wearing certain clothing. To the participants the Ideal clothing choices for them were said to be those that were not too tight or revealing, and that made the body appear to be slimmer and toned (Rothberger, 2014). Sports wears that are tight are often worn in exercise settings, thus potentially influencing those who are already insecure about their own physique to experience feelings of inferiority and stress (Hart, Leary, & Rejeski, 1989).

Religion

Religion is a socially shared set of beliefs and rituals that people use to transcend the material world and give meaning to important aspect of their lives (Coakley, 2007). Religious beliefs and rituals are unique because people connect them with a sacred and supernatural realm and accept this connection on faith, which is the foundation for all religions and religious beliefs. The practice of sporting activities has become an important part of the nation’s culture as well as other cultures throughout the world. While some cultures strengthen the practice and propagate sporting programmes in their communities, others do not for reasons they consider affects their religious inclinations (Coakley, 2007).

Islam and Christianity are religions that are alien to African cultures especially the stoppage of the killing of twins that was in practice in Africa before the coming of Mary Slessor to Nigeria and the introduction of Western
Education to Africa and abolition of slave trade, (Stevenson, 1991). Coakley (2003), Hoffman (1992) and Stevenson (1991) observed that the interaction between sports and religion has been a significant area of study for sports sociologists who have recognized the importance of religion and spirituality in athletes’ lives.

Accordingly, as the two religions (Islam and Christianity) were introduced to Ghana and Nigeria in particular and each came with the mindset to anchor all their cultural practices on the soil of Africa. Sports-wise, Christianity warmly encouraged and recognized the relevance of sports to the well-being of their followers. No wonder that Mohler (2010) emphasized that, sports has taken an increasingly influential role in the lives of evangelical Christians. He went further to state that, sports has the potential to give Christians a good platform for Christian witness, and also the potential to lead Christians into idolatry.

On the other hand, Islam too, recognizes the impact of sports on the health of believers and encourages her followers to partake in sports as long as such participation does not run counter to Islamic acceptable laid down principles and practices. On Muslims participation in sports, one of the renowned scholar Al-Munajjid (2011), has made some statement to the questions: “what is the ruling on our body building in Islam? Are we allowed to put our bodies in structures like the wrestlers so long as we do not show it out and it is to our good? The renowned scholar among the responses stated that: “Body building aims to make the body strong and sound, which is an important and desirable goal”.
Al-Munajjid (2011) went further to say that Islam is concerned with man’s well-being in both body and soul, and it encourages all kinds of sports that will strengthen the body and maintain good health as well as providing relaxation and leisure, such as swimming, shooting, horse riding, sword fighting and wrestling. He also added by quoting from Hadith that, “The strong believer is better and more beloved to Allah than a weak believer”. He stated categorically that in Islam, if the aim of sports is relaxation and maintaining good health, then sports is permissible. If it involves something “Haraam” (sinful act), such as missing prayers, uncovering any part of the “Awrah” or mixing with women and so on, the it is “Haraam” [sinful] (Edim, & Idris, 2014).

In Northern Nigeria, sports and its programme of activities are of integral aspect of the culture of the people and they have been practicing their indigenous sports before the advent of Christianity and Islamic religion that has now absorbed a larger number of people. The role of sports in the cultural setting and practices among these ethic groups even though organization differs cannot be overemphasized. The importance attached to sports varies from one community to the other. For instance, while some of the communities use sports as the only means of recreation, others use it for the test of strength and development of physique among youth.

On a communal level, Ali (2011) asserts that, participation in sports is an effective way of grooming children into becoming individuals, and organizers in some community programmes. This paper therefore is an attempt to x-ray some of the socio-cultural indices of religion on sports participation in the Northern parts of Nigeria.
From the foregoing, it can be deduced that religion can be used to determine the extent of sports participation and development in some Northern parts of Nigeria. Islamic beliefs and practice have significant difference between Christians in terms of the development of sports in Northern Nigeria.

Finally, the principles of Sharia Law runs counter to the general principles and practices that govern sports and so it does not give room for social interaction among youths of opposite sex. Also, there are certain practices in Islam that cannot be avoided in sports such as men and women interacting together, shaking of hands by opposite sex, hugging etc. These aspects deprived Muslims especially the women from participating actively in sporting activities (Edim, & Idris, 2014).

Islamic culture refers to the lived experience of being a Muslim. ‘The code of living is expressed through Islamic laws laid down in the Shari’ah. These codes imbue Islamic culture, giving meaning to the way in which Muslims make sense of their lives, behave, dress, eat and drink’ (Benn, 1996, p. 6). The all-encompassing nature of Islam is well-described by Mawdudi (1989, p. 12): Islam is not a religion in the Western understanding of the word. It is at once a faith and a way of life, a religion and a social order, a doctrine and a code of conduct, a set of values and principles and a social movement to realize them in history. It needs to be stated that Muslim females are not a homogeneous group and that there are differences in how they choose to resolve religious and other cultural demands. For example, some choose to adopt the hijab (head-scarf) and Islamic dress, others do not.

There is clear evidence that those women who adopt Islamic dress in the West suffer an increase in violence, discrimination, prejudice and
exclusion (Runnymede, 1997). This is always exacerbated in backlashes after major terrorist events such as September 11th 2001 in New York and Madrid in 2004 (Allen, & Nielsen, 2002; Jawad, & Benn, 2003; Richardson, 2004). With growing evidence that Muslim women can face similar problems of disadvantage across the world, (Jawad, & Benn, 2003), gaining insight into the schooling experiences of young Muslim women in Greece and Britain adds another dimension to the limited literature in the area.

In 1988 Carrington and Williams suggested that Muslim students face difficulties in physical education, and that ethnicity heightens gender differences and shapes different attitudes and beliefs, with girls facing more problems than boys. According to their study, these problems are due to religious and cultural traditions, which assign particular roles to men and women, and contain strict codes controlling behaviour and conduct, thereby restricting access to physical education. Fleming’s (1994) studies of Asian Muslim youth mention the low value placed on sports and physical education, and this was supported in De Knop et al.’s 1996 research Islam and physical education in Greece and Britain into the implications of Islam on Muslim girls’ sports participation in Western Europe.

According to Benn (1996), Islam and physical education share some common concerns, the central issue being control of the body, in time and space, in rituals and cleanliness, in dress, in the control of diet and pursuit of a healthy body. Furthermore, both perpetuate gender specific notions of masculinity and femininity, and have been described as male domains in which there has been an imbalance of power between the sexes (Scraton, 1992; Ennis, 1998). Tensions between cultural practices of Islam and physical
education have been identified, for example, dress codes for women, mixed/single-sex groupings, attitudes towards the body related to privacy and modesty, extra-curricular activities, Ramadan, swimming and dance activities.

The Islamic requirements for modesty and privacy are not met in kit requirements for short skirts, shorts and tee-shirts, public changing and showering situations. After puberty Muslim pupils are supposed to be sex-segregated and many secondary school environments do not permit this. During Ramadan many Muslims fast from sunrise to sunset so energy levels and hydration are risk factors in physical education and sporting activities. Swimming is sometimes problematic because of the mixed-sex public nature of swimming baths, and there is no consensus in Islam about the educational value of some curriculum subjects like dance and music (Parker-Jenkins, 1995; Benn, 2000; Ansari, 2002; McDonald, & Hayes, 2003).

Such tensions can continue into adulthood (Benn, 2002; Wray, 2002). The recent outcry against the French banning of religious symbols in state schools, and the hijab for Muslim girls in particular, raises awareness of tensions across Europe (Vaisse, 2004). Wider global issues have been recognised for some Muslim women wishing to participate in sport at a serious international level (Hargreaves, 2000).

Academic Loads

Deciding “how much” to register for in any given term is referred to as your academic “load.” To be a full time student requires a minimum of 12 credits, but you could reach up to 18 credits and be in the full time fee range. Taking 19 or more credits in a semester is considered an “overload,” and an
additional fee is charged for each hour of the overload (Sabo, Melnick, & Vanfossen, 1992).

Only two studies were located in which the effect of course difficulty was assessed, and in neither study was course difficulty a central focus of the investigation. Employing different measures of course difficulty, both studies found that less difficult courses resulted in higher GPAs. Using a sample of college’s students not limited to first-year students and measuring course difficulty by students’ judgment if course work was more difficult than they expected or preferred. Bean and Bradley (1986) found course difficulty to have small negative effects on semester GPA.

Using a sample of college seniors and measuring course difficulty by whether a student had taken courses required for engineering or business majors, two reputedly very demanding academic programs at the university where the research was conducted, Pike (1991) found a negative net effect of course difficulty on cumulative GPA. In the case of course difficulty, therefore, what research is available supports the view that an easier first semester or first year is likely to be a more successful one.

More researchers have examined the effect of credit load on academic outcomes, but the results have not supported the expectation that lighter loads resulting greater academic success. In fact, most researchers have found not a negative relation between credit load and academic success but rather a significant positive effect. In a study of Saudi students in six different academic departments, Ahmed, Abo-Laban, & Ahmed-Shami (1980) report that in every department students registered for less than 12 credits had the lowest semester GPAs while students registered for more than 17 credits had
the highest GPAs. Suspecting that these results might be affected by the wide range in student credit loads.

Zakirkhouz and Ahmed-Shami (1982) conducted a replication study at another Saudi university. Only students enrolled for 13 to 18 semesters credits were included. Again it was found that students with heavier credit loads tended to earn higher GPAs regardless of the major. In a study of 219 provisionally admitted beginning college students, Abram, & Jernigan (1984) reported significant positive correlations between the number of credits for which students enrolled in their first term and their first-term GPA, the credit load for their second term and their second term GPA, and the total credit load over both terms and their two-term overall GPA.

Duby and Schartman (1997) provide compelling evidence from two different regional comprehensive universities that first-semester credit load is a strong positive predictor of first-semester GPA, 12-month retention, and graduation within a six- to eight-year-period. In explaining these results, they offer two suggestions: first, that credit load may impact GPA and retention because credit load represents a student’s commitment to academics relative to other time consuming activities such as work or family and, second, that an adviser’s recommendation that a student take a light academic load may be perceived by the student as a judgment about their academic ability and may function as a self-fulfilling prophesy.

Based on a study of juniors and seniors at a research university, Volkwein and Lorang (1996) also report that first-semester credit loads tend to be predictive of later semester credit loads. Vollwein and Lorang maintain that these ‘extenders,’ students, who are enrolled full-time but take light credit
loads and graduate in more than four years, represent a substantial and growing proportion of the undergraduate population. Duby and Schartman (1997) also noted that first semester credit load patterns tend to persist over time. Students who begin with slight loads tend to continue with light credit loads.

The literature on the effect of credit load is not entirely consistent, however, nor does it always suggest that the effect of credit load is simple or direct. For example, not all studies have reported a positive relationship between credit load and academic outcomes. Academically weak students participating in a program that allowed them to enroll for less than a full load of credits received grades similar to those received by comparable students who registered for a full load (Hunziker, 1985). An explaining factor, however, may be that the students who registered for fewer credits were required to participate in academic skills workshops.

The effect of credit load on academic outcomes may depend on other factors. In Stage’s (1989) study of first-year college retention, a student’s level of academic integration was measured using several indicators, one of which was number of credit hours. Academic integration was a positive predictor of retention for most, but not all, categories of students. Whether academic integration and, presumably, credit load had a positive as opposed to negligible effect on retention depended on a student’s primary motivation for attending College. Academically integrated students were more likely to stay in College if they were attending College in order to increase their knowledge or improve their career prospects. Academic integration did not affect
retention for students attending College primarily to help improve their communities.

In an early review of College student workload studies from Australia and New Zealand, Gough and Monday (1979) argue against adopting too simplistic an approach toward the effect of workload on outcomes. They point out that a student’s ability to manage a particular College workload is a function of background characteristics such as prior achievements, cognitive capacity, entry knowledge, and disposition, as well as concurrent characteristics such as attitude, resources, time allocation to task, and perceived importance of the task. They point out that several studies noted considerable variation in the amount of work required of courses carrying the same number of credits and that number of hours of work does not consistently correlate with level of performance.

In a community College study (Okun, Weir, Richards, & Benin, 1990), students who reported greater number of hours of employment per week registered for fewer hours than students with few or no weekly hours of employment. Volkwein and Lorang (1996) reported that students with greater numbers of light semesters more frequently dropped courses, reported greater trouble scheduling needed classes, reported greater concern to maximize their GPA or maximize their free time, reported greater family and work responsibilities, and had less social involvement on campus. Looking specifically at first-semester credit load, Duby and Schartman (1997) found the following to be significant positive predictors of credit load at one university: high school GPA, living on campus, nonminority status, family income, and advanced degree aspirations. At the second university they
studied they found ACT scores, reported importance of living on campus, clarity of career goals, and high school grades to be significant positive predictors of credit load.

A range of evidence suggests that for many girls, sports and physical activities are positive features of their academic aspirations and achievement. The classic study of the relationship between physical activity and school performance was carried out in France in the early 1950s, in Vanves (Hervet, 1952). Researchers reduced ‘academic’ curriculum time by 26%, replacing it with physical activities, yet academic results did not worsen, there were fewer discipline problems, greater attentiveness and less absenteeism.

More recent studies have found improvements for many children in academic performance when time for physical activity is increased in their school day (Sallis, McKenzie, Kolody, Lewis, Marshall & Rosengard, 1999). A report of three longitudinal studies emphasises that ‘academic performance is maintained or even enhanced by an increase in a student’s level of habitual physical activity, despite a reduction in curriculum or free time for the study of academic material’ (Shephard, 1997). There is considerable evidence of a positive relationship between girls’ participation in sports and pro-educational values, although, at present, it is difficult to distinguish between correlation and causation.

Studies from the United States by Sabo, Melnick and Vanfossen (1992), reported a host of encouraging findings including: girls who participate in sports are more likely to achieve academic success than those who do not play sports; female high school athletes pressed a greater interest in graduating from both high school and college; female athletes from
ethnic minority groups reported better school grades and greater involvement in extra-curricular activities than non-athletes, and in some cases are considerably less likely to drop-out from school.

Other studies have suggested that sports participation can help undermine traditional gender stereotyping in terms of academic aptitude, by demonstrating an association between girls’ engagement in sports and improved performance in science and mathematics (Hanson, & Kraus, 1998). Physical Activity was recently found to improve cognitive and memory functions (Ploughman, 2008; Flöel et al., 2010).

These reports showed that regular physical activity might improve the academic performance of adolescent students. In addition, several studies have reported that physical activity enhances academic performance and outcomes (Fox, Barr-Anderson, Neumark-Sztainer, & Wall, 2010). However, while studies conducted in various regions of the world suggest that physical activity has beneficial effects on academic performance, and some practical meta-analysis-based evidence associates physical activity with academic performance (Fedewa, & Ahn 2011).

According to So (2012), there is no epidemiological evidence that indicates whether there is an association between physical activity and the academic performance of students in Korea. So (2012), conducted a study and her study she concluded that vigorous physical activity undertaken less than 4 times a week was positively correlated with academic performance in the case of boys, and moderate physical activity was positively correlated with academic performance in both boys and girls, in the adolescent Korean population.
However, strengthening exercises were not positively correlated with academic performance in boys or girls. Furthermore, when performed 5 or more times a week, vigorous physical activity in boys and strengthening exercises in both boys and girls were negatively correlated with academic performance. Adequate physical activity can provide health benefits and play a vital role in weight control and reducing the risk of chronic diseases. Furthermore, this study shows that physically active adolescents are more likely to perform better at school. On the basis of the results of this study, we suggest that health-care providers incorporate physical activity in the students’ time tables and encourage them to be physically active and consequently improve academic performance.

**Misconception**

The study of psychological misconceptions has constituted a recognizable research enterprise for more than eighty years now, with the general public, educators as well as undergraduate and graduate students, all found to harbor a number of inaccurate beliefs about disciplines and its subject matter (Arntzen, Lokke, Lokke, & Eilertsen, 2010; Furnham, Callahan, & Rawles, 2003; Green, Page, Rasekhy, Johnson & Bernhardt, 2006; Gardners, & Hund, 1983; Vaughan, 1977).

United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2007), pointed out that there are misunderstandings when it comes to sport and its impact on girls’ sexual and reproductive health. The fear that playing sport will cause loss of virginity which is a common myth in some cultures that the physical exertion of sport, such as running, kicking or jumping, will cause the hymen to tear discourages
females from participating. An intact hymen is erroneously seen as a physical indicator of virginity.

In societies where a girl’s virginity before marriage is sacred, the threat of sport causing a tear can be a very serious concern. Again, girls and society also often have misunderstandings about the safety of participating in sport while menstruating, especially in traditional cultures or among economically disadvantaged families when girls begin to menstruate, they are often confined to their homes and temporarily or totally cease participation in sport. Perry (2007) also pointed out various myths and misconceptions about the effects of strength training on women which are primarily responsible for the lack of participation among women in the weight room. He said that women who participate in strength training are mostly addressed by the society as men due to the muscles hypertrophy which occurs.

Stanly and Wise (1993), further stated that, cultural images and all sort of misconceptions about the sportswomen tend to scare women from achieving excellence in sports. It is, therefore, no wonder that the sex role expectation have encouraged women to be passive, gentle, delicate and submissive. Fortunately however, after the Beijing conference in September, 1995, women’s emancipation has gone through evolution and the past negative attitude society had towards women is gradually dying out.

Notwithstanding, in the field of sports, Stanly and Wise (1993), painfully regrets that femininity of those females who defiled cultural expectations are often questioned and given marginal status thereby making females not stay long enough in sports competitions to achieve excellence, but they rather revert to their “proper” societal roles, that is to be on the sideline.
supporting men who do the achievement. Many girls and women have the fear for the development of unsightly bulging muscles should they exercise vigorously.

Fox and Matthew (1981), however, explained further that muscle hypertrophy is less in females. Muscular hypertrophy is regulated by hormone testosterone which is about ten times lower in women. Female athlete is perceived as less than ideal women, which makes them feel negative and there is physical and psychological loss of femininity especially in the track athletes and basketball (Sage, & Londermilk, 1979; Ziegler, 1972). In the actual sense, such over developed musculature is the result of long arduous hard and concentrated training for many years which can be compared to the span of time usually covered in training and completion. Despite the successes of female participation in strength training and other sporting settings, many of these myths continue to prevail today (Osei, 2011).

Research has predominantly focused on undergraduate (introductory) students whose endorsement of misconceptions has been found to vary from 28% to 71% agreement across studies (Lilienfeld, Lynn, Ruscios, & Beyerstein, 2009). Such large variations may in part reflect sampling differences, as well as methodological issues surrounding the measurement procedures employed in this area (Kuhle, Barber, & Bristol, 2009; Hughes, Lyddys, & Kaplan, 2013). At the same time, students’ endorsement of misconceptions also differs with the amount of disciplinary training they have received and their critical thinking ability (Gardner, & Dalsing, 1986; Lamal, 1995; Taylors, & Kowalski, 2004).
Nevertheless, misconceptions appear to reflect a genuine and general phenomenon concerning core beliefs about the discipline (example, Research conducted in controlled laboratory settings is not essential for understanding everyday behaviour), as well as specific disciplinary information (example, ‘The polygraph test is an accurate detector of lies’). Although much work has focused on the prevalence of psychological misconceptions, less attention has been devoted to understanding how people come to acquire or develop them. Several authors suggest that misconceptions stem from exposure to inaccurate information reinforced in the popular media, or instruction and textbooks that present an oversimplification of concepts (Stanovich, 2009).

For instance, Taylor and Kowalski (2004) found that students attribute 20% of their misconceptions to the media, 19% to personal experience, 16% to reading, and 15% to classroom learning (Higbee, & Clay, 1998). Similarly, 38% of students reported that their misconceptions emerged directly as a result of one of their psychology courses or instructors (Landau, & Bavaria, 2003). While potentially informative, the reliability of these self-reported ‘sources of misconceptions’ will need to be addressed in further detail.

Misconceptions have also been argued to reflect cognitive biases such as confirmatory bias, illusory correlations, a tendency to infer causation from correlation, post hoc ergo propter hoc reasoning, as well as exposure to selective samples (Lilienfeld et al., 2009; Schick, & Vaughn, 2010). Still others argue that misconceptions do not reflect inaccurate or incomplete prior beliefs, but rather a core set of explanatory concepts that people use to understand, predict and influence behaviour (Amsels, Baird, & Ashley, 2011). It is worth noting, however, that these environmental and cognitive factors...
have generally been supported more by argument than empirical evidence (Chew, 2006).

According to Beier and Ackerman (2005), Thompson and Zamboanga (2004) students who come equipped to their studies with accurate pre-existing knowledge demonstrate greater understanding and retention of new information compared to those who harbor inaccurate or incomplete knowledge. Moreover, students who endorse disciplinary-inconsistent knowledge and beliefs often find their learning of new concepts impaired (Dochy, Segers, & Buehl, 1999). Unfortunately, prior to setting foot in the classroom, many students already hold a spectrum of incorrect preconceptions about the core ideas and concepts relevant to their field of study - whether it is biology, physics, or chemistry (Nehm, & Reilly, 2007; Stefani, & Tsaparlis, 2009; Hein, 1999). Psychology is no exception to this phenomenon.

In physical education classes whether during games play, practical drills, or fitness exercises, among the many reasons that some pupils fail to perform the activity correctly is that their understanding of what they are trying to do is incorrect. That is, they misconceive the task in some fundamental way that involves having constructed a false explanation of how that particular instance of the world works. Unlike mistakes that can be corrected when the accurate conception is acknowledged by the students misconceptions are firmly held and are highly resistant to modification (Lumpe, & Staver, 1995; Schmidt, 1997; Clement, 1993).

They represent understandings or perspectives that are unlike those considered acceptable by experts (Clement, 1993; Odom, 1995; Klaasen, & Lijnse, 1996). Three different forms of misconceptions have been noted in the
science literature by Perkins and Simmon (1988). The first, naïve conceptions, describes those beliefs that develop as a result of individuals’ limited knowledge. The second, ritual conceptions, exists when learners have received formal instruction about a concept, but then fail to transfer that understanding to a situation away from the classroom. The student applies the concept in classroom. The student applies the concept in the classroom by completing the appropriate necessary procedures; nonetheless, they fail to transfer the concept to other contexts requiring the same procedure.

The third, Gordian misconceptions is identified by Perkins and Simmons (1988) as misconceptions existing among the most knowledgeable individuals in their field of study. Many people rarely reach this level of expertise, and it follows that Gordian misconceptions are the least common form of misconceptions, rarely noted in the literature.

In the first study to be conducted in physical education (Placek, Griffin, Dodds, & Briand, 1998), students’ naïve conception of “bunching up” (gravitating toward the ball rather than staying spread out) were investigated. Close examination of the students’ reasoning revealed that some children held incorrect (even bizarre) notion about the purpose of the game itself, how the ball was advanced, or how strategic options might be served by their actions. As any teacher (and many coaches) will testify, such behaviours can be frustratingly resistant to modification.

In this context, our hypothetical explanation of such persistence is that the problem lies not with lack of movement skill, but with some fundamental misunderstanding of what is going on in the game. Whether carried forward from previous experiences (daily play activities, television, or residual
confusion originating with previous instruction) or arising from some false cues or incomplete explanation in the present class, misunderstanding how things work can be a barrier to present learning and performance, at more demanding levels of the same task, or when the false understanding is transferred to other tasks in different movement contexts.

Misconceptions can appear in all content areas of education but have been studied almost exclusively within the sciences. For example, a physics study verified that students have misconceptions about the force exerted when figure pushes into a piece of foam rubber creating an indentation. When the finger is removed from the foam rubber, the foam rubber returns to its natural shape, and its upward motion, as incorrectly believed by some students, is due to a force exerted by the foam rubber (Klaasen, & Lijnse, 1996).

Consistent with constructivist theory the influence of prior knowledge held by learners is an important factor in the development of misconceptions (Barman, Griffiths, & Okebukola, 1995; Lumpe, & Staver, 1995). In a study of mathematical instruction (Bristow, & Desforges, 1995), the methods used by children to apply previous knowledge to a new situation were investigated. Result indicated that old knowledge was important for learners when construct new knowledge. As emphasized by Clinchy (1995), for content to be meaningful it must combine with the students existing and prior knowledge Clement (1993) suggest that prior knowledge of learners should be an important focus for teachers to consider. Schoom (1995) declares that teachers should determine their student’s prior knowledge before planning to teach new concepts.
The process of modifying, reducing, or remediating student misconceptions, however, is difficult. Specific variables have been identified as necessary prerequisites for conceptual change to occur. For example, Posner, Strike, Hewson and Gertzog (1982) outlined components regarding conceptual change in accommodating scientific concepts, (a) existing conceptions must be unsatisfactory or questionable, (b) a new conception must be believable and make sense to the learner, and (c) a new conception must readily blend with existing knowledge and experiences. Understanding these components has enabled researchers to conclude that conceptual change of students’ scientific knowledge is possible.

Thijs and Bosch (1995) examined instructional strategies utilized during laboratory experiences in two Netherlands high schools to determine if misconceptions were likely to occur with a specific instructional strategy. Allowing small groups of ninth grade students to perform laboratory experiments by themselves (without previous demonstrations) was one instructional strategy. The other involved students passively observing the teacher demonstrate the experiment. Pretest and posttest laboratory question, an audio-recording of the lessons, and observation notes led the investigators to concludes there were no differences between effects of teachers demonstration laboratory practical’s or student executed laboratory practical’s on students’ understanding of force.

Individual and cooperative learning effects on students understanding of photosynthesis also have been investigated (Snyder, & Sullivan, 1995). Although the authors note that when interacting students who hold misconception can influence the development of misconception in other
students, cooperative small groups were found to be the preferred instructional strategy for 12- and 13-year’s students, with the exception of high ability boys. The investigators’ conclusions, however, maintained that the individuals learning approach surpassed cooperative learning approaches on mean score of the post test.

Given the difficulty involved when modifying misconceptions, Synder and Sullivan (1995) suggest that individualized teacher support for students (inherent in individual learning strategies), along with lessons led by the teacher, and produces a greater chance of directly confronting misconceptions. In another study, peer collaboration was utilized as an instructions techniques and resulted in more concrete understanding than with students working alone (Lumpe, & Staver, 1995). Although peer collaboration appeared to be the better strategy, it must be noted that there were instances where not all members of the group held the same conceptions.

Interestingly, research has identified language usage as problematic to constructing accurate conceptions (Garnett, & Treagust, 1992; Klaassens, & Lijnse, 1996), because language used by teachers is often different than language used by students, for example, Schmidt (1997) examined high schools German students and their misconceptions of language with regards to chemistry terminology. Results suggested that three were chemistry terms that student incorrectly understood. This, in part, may be attributed to students who hold interpretations of words used in daily interactions outside class that are different from the scientific meaning during class. Sanger and Greenbowe (1997) suggested that the misapplication of Standard English, or ‘everyday
words” (common words used in the daily interactions of high schools aged students) can contribute to developing misconceptions.

Memorization of information or rote learning also has been found to potentially influence the evaluation of misconceptions (Sanger, & Greenbowe, 1997). It is possible for students to arrive at the correct response to a scientific question without having a clear understanding of the correct response to a scientific question without having a clear understanding of the answer (Quilez-Pardo, & Solaz-Portoles, 1995; Sanger, & Greenbowe, 1997). When students do not develop an understanding of a concept, but merely memorize the law or principles is when the opportunity for misconceptions to develop is present.

Given that a secondary purpose of the present investigation was to test alternative methods for recording misconceptions, we were disappointed by the absence of methodological reflection in many of the manuscripts we reviewed. As a result, we were unable to glean much insight from investigators into the relative merits or shortcomings of the particular methods they employed. It was surprising, however, that in a large number of students methodology consisted almost exclusively of pretest and posttest. That is, students were administered a pretest and provided with some form of instruction, followed by a posttest that was designed to determine whether or not misconceptions emerged or remained unchanged as a result of the instructional intervention.

In some cases investigations supplemented paper and pencil exams with interventions and observations for purposes of (a) developing deeper understandings of what students believed and how they came to those beliefs, (b) assessing how various forms of instruction influenced the development of
misconceptions, and (c) examining the degree to which other students may have influenced the development of misconceptions. In a novel approach, Placek, Griffin, Dodds and Briand (1998) recorded student responses as they viewed a videotaped lesson of soccer.

Hare and Graber (2000) did a study on students’ misconceptions that was revealed during the course of participation by students in an elementary physical education class. According to them misconception clearly appeared throughout the investigation. Interestingly, those that emerged were best described as being highly idiosyncratic in nature (not necessarily shared by others). Consequently, future work will need to systematically examine their independent or combined role in the formation and persistence of misconceptions. Such an analysis would serve to strengthen existing claims about the origin of misconceptions, and aid the development of teaching techniques that aim to prevent or combat their influence.

Social Role

The debate on the role of women in societies and their participation in economic activity has sparked a lot of controversy for a considerable time. To this effect, different groups of people women groups, government, development partners, and civil society groups have forwarded many arguments to support their stand. Those who are against the increased participation of women in all spheres of economic and political activities have argued that the biology of sex determines that women are limited to the home and children and must play a subordinate role in the economy, public affairs and even in the home. On the other side of the divide is the argument that, since the biology of sex has been constant throughout it cannot be used to
explain changes in societies and therefore cannot be used to explain the status of women in societies (Deckard, 1983).

According to Leavitt (as cited in Amu, 2005), the most important clue to a woman’s status anywhere in the world is her degree of participation in economic life and her control over property and the product she produces. To enhance efficiency and aid survival, every known society divides and specializes labour tasks to some extent and these divisions of labour has knowingly or unknowingly been done along sex lines where men carry out tasks that take them outside the home and women are largely restricted to homecare, childbearing and childrearing. Women are generally perceived to be patient, dependent and passive and their work considered being unexciting and repetitive. In fact, women are naturally mothers, and their greatest pleasure and true fulfillment lies in maternity, the one out of a few things that women are good at Deckard (as cited in Amu, 2005). These kinds of ideologies about women have tended to marginalize women and have belittled women’s work in the home and outside the home and therefore women’s contribution to economic well being of the home and society.

To correct this imbalance and to reverse the marginalization of women it was necessary for both men and women to realize that women are not treated as equals of men. Furthermore, women’s voices needed to be heard and included. Unfortunately, not all women had equal access to avenues that made this possible. Voices heard were generally from one part of the world, the West and these voices purported to speak for all women irrespective of location. While they did a good job from the limited perspective of their own experiences, a lot of misrepresentation arose due to their lack of knowledge of
those they purported to represent. As was to be expected, Africa and other locations outside their immediate environment became esoteric laboratories for the study of quaint, barbaric and repressive traditional practices. Not much was made of the unique strengths and institutionalized powers of women in other places, particularly in many parts of Africa, especially prior to colonialism (Ufomata, 2000).

Changing dynamics of relations of power within families and societies are often ignored. Ample evidence points to the fact that traditional roles have been altered for many men and women and even traditional professional roles that were gender specific have become gender neutral. Women head several families, and others still are equal breadwinners with the men. In times gone by, it used to be the case that only women were to be midwives. However, in contemporary times, gynecologists are more likely to be men than women. A gynecologist and a midwife are two separate professions.

Furthermore, in several traditional African societies, men would not be caught dead selling produce that were considered women’s, but now everybody sells whatever would give them money. Women now engage in all kinds of professions all over the world (Ufomata, 2000). Thus, sex-ascribed roles are giving way to more open environment in terms of economic and social opportunities. While women’s roles and participation in economic activity in the traditional sense has to a large extent been defined and restricted along biological and cultural lines, women’s role in the Ghanaian economy have not been limited to the home alone but has spanned all sectors of the economy with its impact felt more in the agricultural sector and services (wholesale and retail sub-sector) sectors.
Women’s participation in the labour force has contributed to household incomes and the education and health of their children. However, there are marked disparities in women’s access to economic resources that will enable them to achieve their economic and social goals when compared to their male counterparts. Women generally lack access to credit, land and education, which make their progress in economic development relatively difficult. Women are also bogged down with their responsibility as the primary care givers in the home, thus, putting constraints on their time.

Furthermore, the economic growth process in Ghana with its attendant turbulence of decay and reforms has tended to worsen the plight of vulnerable groups in the society, including women. To address these problems facing women and to improve women’s participation in economic and social activities in the past 10 few decades, a number of programmes and policies have been designed and implemented by government and international agencies and non-governmental organizations.

Particularly in developing countries there has been a proliferation of policies, programmes and projects designed to assist women, especially low-income women in their bid to achieve economic independence in all spheres of their lives and to improve their participation in public life and the decision making process. Until recently however, there has been little systematic classification of these various policy initiatives. This concern for low-income women’s needs has coincided with recognition of their important role in development. Since the 1950s many different interventions have been made reflecting changes in macro level and economic and social policy approaches.
to development in developing countries, as well as in state policy toward women (Amu, 2005).

Policy approaches towards women have shifted from welfare to equity to antipoverty to other approaches such as efficiency, empowerment and integration. This mirrors the general trends in development policies in the developing world, from modernization policies of accelerated growth through basic needs strategies associated with redistribution to more recent compensatory measures associated with structural adjustment policies and the highly indebted poor countries (HIPC) initiative. After all these approaches, women continue to be marginalized and their contribution to the economy limited to the home and the lower ranks of economic life due to poor access to resources that could enhance their full participation in the economy.

Gradually, however, Ghanaian women’s fundamental contributions in their households, food production systems and national economies are increasingly acknowledged, by civil society and also by the international community. This has come about as a result of women’s own energetic efforts to organize, articulate their concerns and make their voices heard as well as efforts that have been put in by some development partners and civil society organizations within and outside the country.

At both grass-root and national levels, more women’s associations have been formed since the beginning of the 1990s, taking advantage of the new political openings to assert their leadership roles. They are also pressing for an expansion of women’s economic and social opportunities, and the advancement of women’s rights. By improving their own positions, they are simultaneously strengthening Ghanaian and African societies as well as
enhancing the country’s broader development prospects (Manu, 1998), which is in the right direction. The percentage of women in the labour force is 49.7% as at 2000 according to the population census data. In fact, if the human resources of a nation are supposed to be an asset, then it will be unthinkable to marginalize almost half of the labour force, which happens to be women, in Ghana. On the whole, women in Africa continue to face enormous obstacles (Amu, 2005).

The growing recognition of their contributions has not translated into significantly improved access to resources or increased decision-making powers. Neither has the dynamism that women display in the economic, cultural and social lives of their communities through their associations and informal networks been channeled into creating new models of participation and leadership (Manu, 1998). While all women around the world share many social disabilities, one must not lose sight of the fact that strong differences exist between them. This is where problems arise when any group of women claiming to speak for and on behalf of others simply because they are all women.

Debates on women’s issues have in the last few decades assumed prominence on the global agenda. Issues concerning women are topics of meetings and conferences around the world. Legislation is constantly being introduced and passed on ways to better the lot of women, which is a good development but it will be more important and much more beneficial for these debates and conferences, policies and programmes to be translated to reflect in the daily lives of women by enhancing the capacity and access to economic resources that are vital to their social and economic well being (Amu, 2005).
The literature on the topic of gender roles suggests an overwhelming amount of evidence supporting the influence of society on gender roles and identities. For example, Long (1991), examined U.S. culture and found that U.S. society showed a pattern of viewing "competency-oriented" masculine traits as more positive and more revered than "passive" feminine traits. Some of the typical masculine traits that were viewed favorably were independence, competitiveness, rationality and objectivity whereas some of the typical feminine traits that were viewed negatively were intuition, submissiveness, dependence and emotionality.

As a result of society's differential portrayal of each gender, Long found that women tend to undermine their abilities, to expect less of themselves concerning their futures and to mentally diminish the significance of the roles that they played which contributed to their individual successes. She found that society believed that women who possess traditional feminine traits were incapable of success. Although the American society generally viewed masculine traits more positively; Lara-Cantu (1989) Long suggested that people who possess androgynous traits actually retain greater general well-being. Therefore, a high correlation exists between women with masculine and androgynous traits and high levels of motivation. In examining the Mexican culture, the researchers have found that, in general, very traditional sex roles and stereotypes have been ingrained within the society (Chia et al., 1994; Gibbons, Stiles, & Shkodrian (as cited in Schmitz & Diefenthaler, 1998).

For example, male-to-male relationships have been characterized by "machismo" which entails extreme aggressiveness and stubbornness whereas
in male-to-female relationships "machismo" has been characterized by sexual aggression and contempt. In contrast, Mexican women have been viewed as "self-sacrificing" as they have been thought to possess dependent, submissive and passive traits (Lara-Cantu, 1989). For example, within the family setting, although males' and females' roles have been considered to be of equal importance, more authority has generally been given to the husband. Mothers have been expected to make ultimate sacrifices for their families, especially for the children whereas fathers have been expected to earn the income for the family yet to play a minimal role in the functioning of the family.

These great sacrifices women have had to make encompass the spectrum of education, careers and a social life outside the family (Martin, 1989). In previous research, great differences have been found between Mexican and American attitudes towards gender roles. For instance, one study found that Mexican college students attached greater significance to family, acted more "macho", believed less in sexual equality and were less independent than American and Taiwanese university students (Chia et al., 1994). Instead of sexual equality and independence, Mexicans were more concerned with family solidarity.

Although, in general, Americans were found to be more in favor of sexual equality, men from both Mexico and the United States were shown to have more traditional gender attitudes and to believe less in sexual equality than their female counterparts. For example, many believed that men should play the roles of the decision makers while women should play the roles of homemakers and family caretakers. Despite these parallel attitudes, Mexican men showed a greater difference in their ideal perceptions of gender roles as
they believed that the men were in complete control of the family and were expected to control the women whereas the American men were more in favor of sexual equity (Chia et al., 1994).

Motivation

Motivation is an internal energy force that determines all aspects of our behaviour. It also impacts on how we think, feel, and interact with others (Karageorghis, 1999). Wesson, Wiggins-James, Thompson and Hartigon (2005) are of the view that motivation is a special cause of behaviour that energizes, directs, and sustains a person’s behaviour. Motivation, therefore, causes people to make choices from the available alternatives about how best to allocate their energy and time (Lenskyi, 1994). Sport psychology has traditionally focused on the sporting experiences of young, elite male athletes.

During the 1970’s however, research on women’s sporting experiences started to gain the attention of a few psychologists. This was facilitated by the growth of feminism in the social sciences and humanities as well as new opportunities for women in sport at various levels initiated by second wave feminism and subsequent structural changes, such as Title IX in the US, which supported women’s sport participation (Birrell, 2000). Sport psychologists have increasingly examined various socio-psychological aspects of women’s sporting and physical activity experiences including participation motivation and attrition (Beaudoin, 2006; Guillet, Fontayne, Sarrazin, & Brustad, 2006), imagery and sport confidence and flow (Callow, & Hardy, 2001; Pates, Karageorghis, Fryer, & Maynard, 2003).

Throughout this socio-psychological analysis many key findings surrounding women’s participation in sport have been fore grounded. These
include information on what draws and entices women to sport and the vastly differing reasons for women’s sport participation. For example, such research has discovered that female footballers are highly competitive and intrinsically motivated (Beaudoin, 2006), that females engage in netball for skill improvement, fitness, and social fulfilment (Hodge, & Zaharopoulos, 1992), and that value and competence in an activity contribute to lower levels of sport attrition among female handball participants (Guillet et al., 2006).

Additionally, research within this discipline has also provided insights into how psychological skills can enhance women’s physical performance in sports. Callow and Hardy (2001) and Pates et al. (2003) also took this approach in their studies of elite netball players, examining the use of imagery and sport confidence, and flow respectively. Callow and Hardy (2001) discovered that the types of images netballers use depend on their physical ability and level of confidence. Pates et al. (2003) in their study of flow and goal shooting performance in netball, found a positive relationship between shooting performance, flow and asynchronous music use.

Maslow provides a hierarchy of basic human needs to explain why people get involved in physical activity (Wesson et al., 2005). When these needs are satisfied it leads to feelings of self confidence, worth, adequacy, and capability of being useful, and of making contribution. The frustration aspects of these in turn produce a sense of basic discouragement; that the underlying concept of motivation is ‘needs’, which creates some driving force within individuals by which they make attempts to fulfill the needs. Boachie-Mensah (2006) shares that needs are drives or forces that initiate behaviour and therefore, people’s behaviour is determined by what motivates them. This
indicates that motivation is an important factor in both learning and coaching. Karageorghis confirms this assertion by saying that, in sports, high motivation is widely accepted as an essential prerequisite in getting athletes to fulfil their potential.

Karageorghis (1999) opines that of all the studies on motivation, self determination theory, propounded by Deci and Ryan (1994) is the widely used in sports. The different types are: A motivation which represents lack of intention to engage in behaviour. It is accompanied by lack of competence and lack of connection between one’s behaviour and the expected outcome. External and interjected regulations represent non-self determined or controlling types of extrinsic motivation. Identified and integrated regulations represent self determination types of extrinsic motivation, because behaviour is initiated out of choice although not necessarily perceived to be enjoyable. Intrinsic motivation comes from within, is fully self-determined and characterized by interest in and enjoyment derived from sports participation.

Motivation can be both extrinsic and intrinsic. Both play important roles in the development of skill performance and behavioural change. Wesson, Wiggins-James, Thompson and Hartigon (2005) opined that rewards can expedite learning, and achievement serves to ensure that a good performance attracts and persuades a person to participate. People normally tend to be more motivated in activities or relationships that offer greatest perceived rewards or the finest penalties, that is, they will observe priorities (Boachie-Mensah, 2006). Educationally speaking, however, it has been empirically thought that the intrinsic type is the best (Harackieweiz, 1998; Deci, & Ryan, 1994; Wesson, Wiggins-James, Thompson, & Hartigon, 2005).
Ryan and Deci (2000) also suggested that intrinsic motivation is important for self-determined and autonomous behaviours and is related to the satisfaction of the need to feel competent.

In the University, the external motivation is used mostly to encourage students to participate, except a few who are intrinsically motivated. Wesson, Wiggins-James, Thompson and Hartington (2005) maintain that extrinsic rewards are used extremely in sporting situations. Most major sports have achievement performance incentives linked to some form of the tangible reward system. Students have, however, shown that there are times when extrinsic motivation may actually decrease an achievement motivation (intrinsic motivation) (Harackieweiz, 1998; Wesson, Wiggins-James, Thompson, & Hartington, 2005; Deci, & Ryan, 1994). A recent study showed that, during competition, deemed to be important, intrinsically motivated athletes developed task-oriented (positive) coping strategies. Conversely, extrinsically motivated athletes tended to avoid dealing with the issues and were far less likely to achieve their goals (Green, & Hardman, 2005).

The amount of motivation needed for best results varies with the individual, but each has tolerance level beyond which performance declines (Santrock, 2000). Wesson, Wiggins-James, Thompson and Hartington (2005), success and failure are related to motivation as well as to the level of aspiration. These levels then give information in relation to a person’s level of competence or incompetence. It has been observed that the more successful one becomes, the higher the goal will be set, and the more one will become motivated to achieve them. On the other hand the more one fails; the more
likely goal will be lowered along with a corresponding loss of interest (Bandura, 1997).

In support of this, Karageorghis (1999) suggests that an over-bearing, unrealistic challenge can cause excess anxiety which means that the coach should ensure that athletes set realistic goals. Conversely, if athletes bring a high level of skill to an activity and the challenge that it provides is relatively low it can result in boredom. An example is Michael Essien who is in his peak performance, asked, to play in Ghana’s local football league which is far below his standard.

Bandura (1997) and Schunk (1995) have said that the individual’s achievement improves when he/she sets goals that are specific, proximal, and challenging. They explain that specific is short term. An example is when one is hurt in a match, like Wayne Rooney, who six weeks before the world cup, went through a series of processes like daily physiotherapy session, and medical exercises, to mention a few to regain full fitness. Proximal, is medium term, while challenging is a long term. An example of medium term is the United States’ heptathlete, Kelly Sotherton who won a bronze medal at the 2004 Athens Olympics, set herself the medium term goal of winning 2006 Commonwealth title in Melbourne enroot to pursuing her long term goal to be crowned Olympic champion at the 2008 Beijing Games. Daft and Marcic (2004) and Armstrong (2003), stipulate that well motivated people are those with clearly set goals who take action that they expect will achieve these goals.

Females are motivated to participate for various reasons and their participation also varies from person to person. This will again depend on their
personalities, lifestyles, goals, and needs; Kraus (2001) thinks people participate because they want to have fun and enjoyment. In another study females participate in sports for the reason of achievement/status, team atmosphere, energy release, skill development, friendship, and fun (Hamafyelto, & Badego, 2002).

In a similar study, social interaction and improving appearance are the main motivations in females (Senate Committee Inquiry, 2005). Yet in another study, health benefit, encouragement from school and family, and social advantage are the three main motivations for regular sports participation of females, hence sport was seen as a way of having fun and reducing stress and other chronic diseases (Cox, Coleman, & Rocker, 2005). Unfortunately many of the females do not participate in university sports. A study conducted by Cox, Coleman and Rocker (2005), asserted that, women who did not participate said transition from high school made sports no longer compulsory, they had less time because of education commitment; they were self conscious about themselves and were part of social group that did not participate in sport. Several of them in this group mentioned that they just dislike sport in general and it appears that nothing could alter that deep rooted belief. In another development a coach, who was not liked by the athlete could bring about demotivation and then eventual dropping out of females from sports (Martin, 1997). A lack of opportunity to be involved in sports could bring about demotivation in sports. In a survey conducted by Sports and Recreation South Africa (2005) revealed that lack of opportunity was cited mostly by the African and coloured communities and the Asian and white groups tended to place more emphasis on time constraints.
In the games and sports, psychological and physiological factors play an important role in determining the performance level (Grange, & Kerr, 2010; Schilling, & Hyashi, 2001). Numerous studies have demonstrated the impact of psychological factors on sports performance (Crespo, 2002). Achievement motivation and Anxiety have been two of those factors under consideration. Taylor (1994) treated motivation as the base of a pyramid towards success in sports.

Other important factors in this area include ‘goal orientation’, ‘goal setting,’ ‘motivational climate’ and ‘burnout’ (Boyce 2001; Gould, Guinan, Greenland, Medbery, & Peterson, 1999). Weiss and Chaumeton (1992), argued that players have multiple motives for continued participation, such as competence, friendship skill improvement and competition. There are many studies conducted in the aspect of achievement motivation and its effect on performance. Studies suggest that achievement motivation is most significant predictor of performance and essential to participate in a competition (Huschle, & Katie, 2008).

Several motivation theories in the academic area have been adopted in the quest for greater understanding of achievement motivation in sport (Ames, 1992) Motivation is an essential element of human personality. It directs a person’s activity and makes it more or less dynamic. Without the desire to succeed other psychological features and abilities do not provide nearly so much influence on performance. Achievement motivation influences other factors affecting performance in sport like: physical preparation, technique, tactics and even life style. Again, a study conducted by Erkut, Sing and Marx (1996) revealed that half of Pan American, Native American, African
American, European American, Asian, and Pacific American females reported that although they were aware of the benefits of participating in sports and physical activity, their parents prevented them from taking part, and rather advised them to take their academic work seriously. It has also been observed that girls rely on adult’s comments, parents, coaches, and teachers, play a particular important role in motivating them to participate.

Females are more likely to enjoy sport if they think that relevant adults have realistic expectations, provide support, and encouragement, for their efforts, and refrain from making negative evaluations of their performance (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2001). In addition socio-economic stratification could play a role in low motivation of females’ participation. Research reveals that participants from high socio-economic status homes showed more positive disposition to recreation and sports. They are motivated to do sports right from infancy (Adeyanju, & Alla, 2006; Burrow, & Bammel, 1992; Cox, Colemans, & Rocker, 2005).

Mercer and Mercer (1998) identify the provision of a positive and supportive learning environment as one of the crucial instructional variables related to learning. It may be a simple remark like “that is good” a smile, or praise. Again, in handling students who lack interest and confidence in their ability to perform, a negative reward would rather kill their interest and desire to participate. Furthermore, one may not be motivated to take part in sports, either because of perceived lack of skill necessary to take part in sports or because of perceived lack of skill necessary to engage in a particular leisure activity (Edginton, Jordan, Degraaf, & Edginton, 2002). Another constraint may be health reason. One’s ability to engage in successful physical activities
may be restricted. Women may sometimes be demotivated because of dress code for activities.

In a study by Women’s Sport Foundation (2007), Muslim girls and women practice Islamic Law which prevents them from appearing in front of men dressed in inappropriate attire. An example is the swim suit. Even some non-Muslim females feel reluctant to wear tight fitting and or revealing sportswear that will embarrass them, while others feel that being watched while doing sport can be excruciatingly painful for them (Cockburn & Clarke, 2002). Females are not encouraged to take sports as a challenge due to media discrimination. Lack of role models, the under-representation of female athletes in the media, limits the role models that girls and young women have (CAAWS, 2004). There are other factors that may affect females’ level of motivation. Ikulayo (1990) outlines such variables, as absence of audience, neutral or negative attitude of the audience, sports facilities, and equipment.

**Lack of Sports Skill Foundation**

Motor skill is smoothly executing physical movement and responses, or it is one way of denoting an act for a task that has specific aim or goal to achieve (Wesson, Wiggins-James, Thompson, & Hartigan, 2005). This implies that skill depends on one’s innate inherited traits that determine one’s coordination, balance, agility and speed of reaction.

Physical activity is good for children of all ages. Participation in organized sports may be an enjoyable way for children to increase their physical activity. However, sporting activities must be developmentally appropriate for the child. Enrolling children in sports that are beyond their developmental ability can lead to frustration and early dropout. Thirty five per
cent of children who participate in organized sports drop out every year by age 15, 75% of youth no longer play organized sports (Harris, 2000). Wesson et al. (2005), define abilities which are closely related to skill as “stable” and enduring capability, or qualities and characteristics that a person has within himself. One is, therefore, born with these qualities, but there is a need to practice or to try one’s hand on a sporting activity to be able to carry out coordinated movements. Involvement in physical activity is, therefore, a prerequisite to movement skill acquisition and performance. Thompson, Hudson and Bowers (2002) in support of this assertion wrote that without ample participation, children may develop syndromes related to hypo activity, defined by Bar-Or in Thompson et al. (1994) as an activity level lower than that of their healthy peers of similar cultural and socio economic background.

Flieshman (2005) outline proficiency abilities as, “physical fitness, strength (static, dynamic, explosive trunk), flexibility, coordination, equilibrium and stamina”. (p.538). He added that “one should be aware that everybody possesses all the above abilities identified, however, we do not posses them at equal or similar levels”. In view of this, if one does not have the necessary levels of specific abilities needed to perform a specific sport, then one will be a failure and will not be proficient in that skill.

Flieshman (2005) ascertains that there is a need to identify a sport that will fit one’s specific ability. Wesson et al. (2005) opine that the fact that a person does not have the level of abilities necessary to succeed at one activity does not mean one does not have the potential to succeed in another activity requiring slightly different abilities. This presupposes that two people may not
achieve similar standards of performance in physical activity since they have different levels of genetically determined abilities.

According to Wesson et al. (2005) there is many factors which are psychological as well as socio-cultural that can influence future performance levels. These are; “Motivation, opportunity for early successes, amount of previous encouragement given, Coach/parental expectations, demand/interest, opportunity for practice, availability of facilities, personality” (p.540).

Low participation of females in university sport can somehow be traced from their previous experiences. It is clear then, that Physical Education in Basic and Senior High Schools plays significant roles in the future development of the young female (Asteri, 1995). Studies conducted by Rashid (1994) and Perry (2007) confirmed that many black schools in South Africa have minimal, if any, physical education facilities, and physical education teachers are very rare in primary schools, thus, physical education lessons are virtually non-existent. Rashid (1994) postulates that “school teachers are designated remote controls” who provide a ball, “sit by a tree” or stay in the staff room, then at the end of the lesson the teacher blows his whistle and the pupils return to their classrooms, and hence no real lesson learnt.

In Ghana, the average school curriculum does not allot sufficient instructional time to physical education for skill acquisition. Physical education in the basic school is not taught in many schools, while in the secondary school some teachers who teach have limited time. Rashid ascertains that in many black schools in South Africa, there is a large gap between policy of time allocation of syllabus content, and implementation.
Physical education is prescribed, but its practice depends on the head teacher. Physical education is seen as a subject without academic significance.

Involvement and exposure to sport impact significantly on skill acquisition and hence sport participation. Students who have (or had) physical education classes at school and those who participated in organised sports at school are more likely to participate in university sports (Sports and Recreation South Africa, 2005). Cahpherd and Alpherd (1995) reported that the lack of opportunities at school for daily physical education with the continuing decline in physical activity within the home setting is leading to development in sedentary life style pattern that will continue to adulthood and throughout life.

Females, normally beginning at an early age, undervalue and underestimate their capacity and potential for competency in physical activities, and as a result of their physical activity levels constantly fall further behind their male peers (Canadian Association for Advancement of Women and Sport, 2004). Moreover, past experiences of females have made it either possible or impossible for them to participate in sports. Some students even lack the skills to perform. For example, before a child goes to school he/she has been performing different physical activities in the form of running, jumping, catching, climbing or throwing. It has been observed that it is during the regular physical education programme in schools that these fundamental skills are modified and taught.

Hence, in the course of teaching, the individual identifies the specific skills and interest in particular sports. However, the opportunity to learn the correct execution of the basic skills is not in schools, and so the female would
not be adequate to perform when she grows. Keim (1999) and Dauer and Pangrezi (1990) lamented that most female students drop out of activity due to lack of skills and competency during elementary school which is rather unfortunate. Coakley (2001) is of the view that mothers reinforce the family restrictions by treating their daughters as “mummy’s little helpers.” He added that, though he is not against the idea, he is not in favour when it becomes an overly dependent relationship with their mothers; they seldom have opportunities to develop their competence in physical activities and sports.

Adedeji and Ikpeme (2006) reported that in most African societies, especially in the rural communities, the primary and post primary physical education curricular were tailored in such a way that young males benefited from sports engagement more than their female counterparts. Another factor worth considering is the lack of confidence which can have a negative effect on females’ participation. Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001) revealed that a lack of confidence in their abilities to perform physical task may lead girls to avoid situations which could expose their lack of competence. It further revealed that when this reluctance begins at an early age, girls fail to master basic motor skills such as running, jumping, catching or throwing, which will result in their avoidance of any sport.

Thompson (1995) argue that children with movement competence more often experience negative outcomes and are less likely to participate in movement situation. However, children who are movement competent experience positive effective feelings and are likely to engage in movement situations. Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001), yet in another research revealed that many girls shy away from sports because they are self-conscious
about how they look and believe they lack skills or physical competence. Some research works have revealed that socio-economic status of parents has been a factor in skill acquisition leading to participation, and especially, choice of event.

Omoruan (1996) expressed that socio-economic stratification makes for the automatic participation in sports. He cited the game of polo as an expensive sport, which requires a player to own and maintain a horse. In the case of Ghana, just a few people can afford to learn golf or buy a hockey stick or tennis racket. A study conducted by Griffiths (2001) on economic status and sports participation concluded that the key factor that influences recreation participation is accessibility and mobility. Wuest and Bucher (1999) maintain that socio-economic status separated participants and non-participants in the community.

In support of this, Cox, Coleman and Rocker (2005) in a study on sports participation among young women in England, indicated that most of the young people who always participated said that they lived in active households, where family members were sporting role models and sport was often undertaken. It also revealed that these family members were the people who could pay to do sports. Msheilia (1998) corroborated this view by saying that, for a woman to be involved, and continue active participation in sports, she must be located in a social environment highly supportive of her activities.

Evans (2004) confirms that young people with experiences, abilities and taste acquired by virtue of their social class may be more or less ‘able’ and willing to take part in various sports and physical activities. In support of this assertion Green and Hardman (2005) wrote that the middle class young people
are more likely to have the skills, abilities and experiences that will make them more rather than less likely to be involved in and be successful in sports and physical activities, because they are the most likely to be introduced to a wider range of sports by their parents.

Some female students may be disadvantaged under this social stratification within the school system in Ghana in terms of skill acquisition. Schools in the urban areas are likely to have access to so many sports through Parent Teachers Associations or sponsorship from big companies and organisations, whilst the rural people are hardly able to pay school fees for the head to use some for installing and purchasing facilities and equipment. When females from such urban schools enter the university they are less likely to participate, except in athletics in a few cases, because they do not have the prerequisite skills.

Goral, Taylor and Fritz (2003) support this assertion by saying that, it is extremely difficult for secondary school physical education to make a difference in youth because of growing social stratification within the state school system with working class children becoming concentrated in ‘sink’ or ghetto schools. They pointed out that social class does not just impact upon choice and preference in sport and physical activities; it also has substantial impact upon individual’s physical capabilities or skill and abilities. Another attribution of skill development which leads to participation in sport may be fear of injury. Weiss and Petlichkoff (2002), Stewart and Taylor (2002) collaborated this view in their statement that, fear of injuries and failure to improve skills, among other things, are the reason for females dropping out of sport. Athletics in the lives of Women and Girls (as cited in Wright, 1995) also
reported that, fear of injuries and negative coaching behaviours are some of the barriers that reduce females’ participation.

The attitude of male sportsmen may also lead to withdrawal of females from participation. In schools, girls are denied space to practice or acquire skills and this may discourage females, and in turn may affect their future participation in sports. This assertion is confirmed by Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001) that boys dominate space in school’s playgrounds and sporting arenas and frequently tell females that they cannot play, because it's boys only. They also monopolise sporting equipment unless special measures are taken to ensure it does not occur. In physical education lessons, males try to keep the ball to themselves in game situation which makes females tend to lack skill and fade into the background, especially in team games.

Further studies also confirm this observation that, there is a relationship between the amount of over-learning and the length of time a skill will remain in muscle memory (Barrow, 1983). The Canadian Association for Advancement of Women in Sports (2004) emphasized then, that while some females excel in sport and physical activity, others face barriers to their participation, including inadequate opportunities to participate and develop their skills. The physical skills of the athletes are ignored and women athletes are then trivialised (Berger, 1996).

Although there are observations to support that all children have a kind of natural need for physical activity, children do not enjoy sports, because of constant failure that may reduce their need for activity and develop negative image of sports, which may never be altered. Dauer and Pangrezi (1990) opined that the way students view their competency have stronger impact on
the ability to succeed, especially when a student sees that he/she is not skillful to succeed in an activity he/she withdraws completely.

This is continued by a study conducted by Cox et al. (2005) that, most of the females who were interviewed about participation in sports, said they were not very good at it and felt intimidated of doing sports in front of people. In support of this, Beck (1992) reported that students’ uncertainty about failure was found to influence their involvement in extra curricula activities among high school and college students.

Also a similar research by Sports and Recreation South Africa (2005) indicates that 78% of the women said they were simply not interested. However, Green and Hardman (2005) and McDonald (2003) argue that physical experiences, and even condition, shape females predisposition towards new or familiar activities and give rise to their tastes in, among other things, sporting activities. In support of this view, McDermon (2002) observed that, being an athlete, especially skilled athlete, can change the way a woman sees herself, which can make her feel physically stronger, more competent, and in control of her life as an independent individual.

**Summary**

Society forms expectations of individuals and situational outcomes through stereotypes and norms. If the norm does not occur, individuals may become uneasy. Such is the explanation for schema theory. According to this theory, individuals adjust their behaviour to fit in with gender norms and expectations of culture and society. Such is the case with female’s participation in physical activity and sports. Participation in sports has been shown to develop and improve the personality of its participants and brings
about a number of positive changes in their behavioral conduct. Sports and physical activity provides women with ample chances of meeting lots of people during and after the course of play and the social interaction taking place enhances the quality of respect for others and increases their sense of responsibility. In spite of this, physical inactivity is on the rise in many countries especially amongst women and in Ghana, the situation keeps rising especially with regards to women’s participation in school sports. One would think that teaching physical education at the Colleges of Education level would influence the females in these institutions to want to participate in sports, but this is not the case. Most research has shown that the misconception that these females have about sports is the main contributor to their non-participation. Other factors that research has revealed include attitude, religion, misconception, motivation, lack of sports skill foundation, academic loads, social role, facilities and equipment.

The attitude towards participation in physical activities and sports are mainly determined by curriculum content, class atmosphere, teacher attitude and self-perception. Students have positive attitude towards participation in physical activities and sports because of the desire to spend their time without pressure of academics. Positive attitude motivates students to engage in physical activities and sports which contribute to their development, not only physically but also emotionally, socially and mentally while negative attitudes tend to hinder such developments. Also the success of any physical activity and sports programmes depend on the availability of facilities and equipment. Its availability motivates people to always wish to participates. A renowned tennis star Jimmy Corners’ mother said she built tennis court around her house
even before the birth of her son and this according to her gave him the opportunity to practice often to grow up and become the World champion. The issue of facilities and equipment has been found to be one of the problems being encountered by sportswomen and men. The reason being that the existing ones are obsolete and in state of disrepair. Again, the practice of sporting activities has become an important part of the nation’s culture as well as other cultures throughout the world. While some cultures and religions strengthen the practice and propagate sporting programs in their communities, others do not for reasons they consider affects their religious inclinations. The number of hours allocated for academic purpose also has been said to have influence on students’ participation in sports and physical activity. Academic loads such as quizzes, assignments and the number of credit hour put so much pressure on students leaving no time for them to pursue leisure not to talk of participating in sports, despite the numerous researches ascertaining the benefits participation in sports and physical activities has on academic performance. The fear that playing sport will cause loss of virginity which is a common myth in some cultures also keeps most females from participating in sports. It is said that the physical exertion of sport, such as running, kicking or jumping, will cause them to lose their hymens discouraging females from participating in sports as an intact hymen is erroneously seen as a physical indicator of virginity. In societies where a girl’s virginity before marriage is sacred, the threat of sport causing a tear can be a very serious concern. Women are generally perceived to be patient, dependent and passive and their work considered being unexciting and repetitive. These kinds of ideologies about women have tended to marginalize women and have belittled women’s
participation in sports and physical activities. These roles assigned to women by the society tie women to the home making it difficult for them to come out to participate. Motivation to come out and participate in sports can be extrinsic and intrinsic. Both play important roles in the development of skill performance and behavioural change. The amount of motivation needed for best results varies with the individual while success and failure are related to motivation as well as to the level of aspiration. This again depends on their personalities, lifestyles, goals, and needs. People participate because they want to have fun and enjoy while others participate because of status, team atmosphere, energy release, skill development, friendship, and fun. Furthermore, low participation of females in Colleges and University sport can somehow be traced from their previous experiences. In teaching the individual to identify the specific skills and interest in particular sports, the correct execution of the basic skills is needed, which is mostly lacking in the Basic and Senior High Schools. Most female students drop out of physical activity and sports due to lack of skills and competency during elementary school which is rather unfortunate. They seldom have opportunities to develop their competence in physical activities and sports. When girls fail to master basic motor skills such as running, jumping, catching or throwing, it then results in them failing at any sport.

These factors have been associated with females’ non-participation in University sports in some Colleges outside Ghana but information pertaining to females’ participation in sports in Colleges in Ghana is minimal.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODS

The main purpose of this study was to examine the factors influencing female teacher-trainees’ non-participation in physical activity and sports in Colleges of Education in Ashanti Region of Ghana. This chapter outlines the methodology used in this study. It covers the areas of research design, target population, sample and sampling procedures, instrument(s), reliability and validity, data collection procedure and data analysis.

Research Design

Descriptive survey design was adopted for the study. The choice of this design was influence by the assertion of Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) that when trying to describe the current state of a phenomenon, the most appropriate is descriptive survey design. Again, the use of this particular design helps in achieving the purpose of the study and the drawing of meaningful conclusions from the study.

Population

The population for the study involved all female teacher-trainees’ at the Colleges of Education in Ashanti Region of Ghana. The estimated total number of female teacher-trainees’ in Colleges of Education in the Ashanti Region was 2911.

Sampling Procedures

The sample frame for the study was the list of all female teacher-trainees’ in the College of Education in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The female teacher-trainees’ composed of level 100 and 200 only because the third years were out for their outstation program. A sample size of 351 respondents
was sampled for the study using the mathematical model expressed as: \( n = \frac{N}{1+N \left(e^2\right)} \), \( n = \frac{2911}{1+2911 \left(0.05^2\right)} = 351 \) (Gomez & Jones, 2010) from the total population 2,911. The ‘n’ denotes the sample size; ‘N’ denotes the sampling frame and the ‘e’ denotes the margin of error. Using 5 percent margin of error and 95 percent confidence level the sample size was determined. After the total sample size was derived, the proportional sampling strategy was used to obtain the sample size for each College (see Table 1).

Table 1 - Sample of Female Teacher-Trainees’ in the Colleges of Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Colleges of Education</th>
<th>No. of females</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Proportionate Sampling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Offinso College</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>300/2911x100=10.3</td>
<td>10.3/100x351=36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Monicas College</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>850/2911x100=29.1</td>
<td>29.1/100x351=102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agogo College</td>
<td>547</td>
<td>547/2911x100=19</td>
<td>19/100x351=67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Louis College</td>
<td>705</td>
<td>705/2911x100=24.2</td>
<td>24.2/100x351=85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wesley College</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>210/2911x100=7.2</td>
<td>7.2/100x351=25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akrokeri College</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>299/2911x100=10.2</td>
<td>10.2/100x351=36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2911</td>
<td>2911/2911x100=10.2</td>
<td>351</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, Nkrumah (2015)

Proportional allocation was used because, the distribution of female teacher-trainees’ in the various colleges were not equal and thus the method ensured that respondents selected from each College reflected the total number of students’ population for each school. The female teacher-trainees’ respondents were selected using simple random sampling technique, in doing so; a soft copy of the sampling frame (School Registers) of 2014/2015 was obtained from the colleges and input into the computer. Ms. Excel generated and assigned random numbers for students to be selected in to the sample.
This was done separately for all the six colleges. Picking was done until the required sample for each college was obtained. This was done with the help of the research assistants. The simple random sampling technique was use in order to give respondents equal chance and opportunity of being selected and help to avoid biases in selecting the respondents. In all, a sample size of 351 was selected and chosen for the study.

**Data Collection Instruments**

The instrument used for the study was questionnaire of which some were designed by the researcher and some ware also adopted and modified to suit the study being conducted. The questionnaire contained four sections (see Appendix A). Section ‘A’ contained five items (1-5) which consisted of respondents’ demographics and biographical data. These items helped in tracing the institutions of respondents as well as some important information needed for the study, since item (3-6) on the questionnaire sought for the extent of participation in physical activity and sports of female teacher trainees in single sex and mixed colleges and the extent to which background variables predicted their non-participation.

Section B was based on the female teacher-trainees attitude towards participation in the physical activities and sports. The questionnaire items were presented in a five point Likert scale, 5=Strongly Agree (SA), 4=Agree (A), 3=Undecided (UN), 2=Disagree (D) and 1= Strongly Disagree (SD). The questionnaire contained items of close-ended type. The respondents were to choose responses applicable to statements given by ticking in the appropriate column. The Likert scale made it very easy to analyze statistically (Jackson, 2009).
Section C was items adopted and modified from the International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ). Consisted of four items which sought for female teacher-trainees’ level of participation (vigorous, moderate) in physical activity and sports within a week? The meaning of ‘vigorous’ and ‘moderate’ physical activity and sports level were explained in the item. In items 6, 7 and 8, respondents were given options to choose their responses from, (None, 2days, 3days, 4days, 5days, 6days and 7days) whiles respondents’ provided a response for item 9 which demanded for time spent on participating in physical activity.

Section D was also presented in a five-point Likert scale, 5=Strongly Agree (SA), 4=Agree (A), 3=Undecided (U), 2=Disagree (D) and 1=Strongly Disagree (SD). The Likert scale made it very easy to analyze statistically (Jackson, 2009). The respondents were to choose responses applicable to statements given by ticking in the appropriate column. The items in the questionnaire were based on contributing factors influencing female teacher-trainees’ participation in physical activity and sport in and the benefits derived from it (see Appendix A).

Reliability and Validity of Research Instrument

To establish validity, the items formulated for the questionnaire were scrutinized to ensure that they were based on the content of the literature. Again, the content and face validity of the instrument was checked by experts in the Department of Physical Education of the College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast who are well knowledgeable about participation in sports and physical activities to ensure that they were devoid of ambiguities.
Before the actual study, a pilot test of the instrument was conducted to check the validity and reliability. The instrument was pilot tested in Brekum College of Education in Brong-Ahafo in order to ensure that items were worded correctly and were understandable to respondents. This was done to sharpen and fine tune it by correcting possible weaknesses, inadequacies and ambiguities that could characterise the items. These female teacher-trainees’ of Brekum College of Education in Brong-Ahafo were used because I considered them as having similar characteristics with respondents that were sampled for the actual study.

The collected data was processed using IBM SPSS version 21.0. I used Cronbach coefficient alpha to determine the reliability coefficient of the instrument. The questionnaire yielded an internal consistency reliability coefficient of 0.80. This was considered to be acceptable and reliable, since according to researchers (Bonett, 2010; Cronbach & Shavelson, 2004; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000), the reliability coefficient should be at least 0.70 and preferably higher.

Data Collection Procedures

Since the study involved human beings, ethical procedures were followed in the data collection. The data collection began from 18th March, 2015 to 17th April, 2015. In all, eight weeks were used to collect the data. Two weeks were used to collect the data from Agogo College and St. Monicas College, whereas in Offinso College, St. Louis College, Wesley College and Akrokeri College, one week was used to collect the data from each college.

Before, the data collection, an introductory letter was obtained from the Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation (HPER) of
University of Cape Coast to the selected Colleges of Education. I personally took these letters to the principals of the selected Colleges. I was then introduced to the Vice Principal academics who then introduced me to the physical education tutors of the colleges. I explained to them the reason for carrying out the research and if they could permit me to use their students for the study. They gave me permission and dates that I could administer the questionnaires.

The questionnaire was administered by me with the help of two research assistants from each of the selected Colleges. The two research assistants assisted me to arrange the classroom and the distribution of the questionnaires. The sampled teacher-trainees’ were arranged in a classroom and they were briefed on the reason for carrying out the research work and also solicited from them the need to respond to the items on the questionnaire. The questionnaires were given to them and they were given ample time to respond to them. The completed questionnaires were collected from the respondents. In all, 351 questionnaires were distributed to the respondents and all were retrieved which represents 100%. After the collection, the questionnaire were numbered one after the other and coded to allow easy entry of the items into the computer.

**Data Processing and Analysis**

Data screening was done to take care of incompletely filled questionnaires and prepared the data for statistical analysis. The analyses and discussion were done according to research question, using descriptive statistics (frequency, percentages, mean and standard deviation) and inferential statistics (multiple regression). Section A of the questionnaire comprised
background data of the participants and this was discussed using frequency and percentages. Research question one which aims to explore female teacher-trainees’ attitude towards participation in physical activities and sport was analyzed and discussed using mean and standard deviation. A mean of 3.1 and above indicates a positive attitude while a mean of 2.99 and below indicates negative perception towards participation in physical activities and sports. NB: a mean of 3 as undecided (U).

\[
\text{Means rating} = \frac{5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1}{5} = \frac{15}{5} = 3
\]

Research question two which sought to determine the level of participation in physical activity and sports was analysed using frequency counts and percentages. Research question three which sought to examine the factors that influence female teacher-trainees’ participation in physical activities was interpreted and discussed using frequency and percentages. Research question four was analysed and discussed using multiple linear regression. The results were presented using Tables in the chapter four.
CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The main purpose of this study was to examine the factors influencing female teacher-trainees’ non-participation in physical activity and sports in Colleges of Education in Ashanti Region of Ghana. Chapter four presents the results and the discussion of the study.

Research Question One: What Attitudes do the Female Teacher-Trainees’ show towards Participation in Physical Activities and Sports?

The main purpose of this research question was to explore the female teacher-trainees’ attitude towards participation in the physical activities and sports. The result was discussed using mean and standard deviation. The result was presented in Table 2.

Table 2- Female Teacher-trainees’ Attitudes towards Participation in Physical Activities and Sports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The pursuit of physical activities and sport in the colleges makes individual physically, mentally and morally strong</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The time provided for participation in physical activities and sports influence my participation.</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The environment influence my participation in physical activities and sport in my colleges</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>1.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical activities and sport teachers are presenting a good picture about what goes on in the classroom and on the play field</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Means /SD</td>
<td>11.13</td>
<td>5.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean of Means/ SD</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Filed survey, Nkrumah (2015)
Table 2 shows the result of the female teacher-trainees’ attitude towards participation in the physical activities and sports in the College of Education of the Ashanti Region, Ghana. The findings showed that on the average, female teacher-trainees have a negative attitude (M=2.78, SD=1.43) towards participation in the physical activities and sports. The standard deviation score revealed that there is a heterogeneous response among the female teacher-trainees towards participation in the physical activities and sports.

From example, in Table 2, it was found that most of the respondents had positive attitude (M=3.53; SD=1.28) towards the statement that the pursuit of physical activities and sport in the colleges makes individual physically, mentally and morally strong. This result indicates a positive attitude from the female teacher-trainees towards participation in the physical activities and sports. This finding is in agreement to the study of Shamshoum (2003) who asserted that positive attitude motivates students to engage in physical activities which contribute to their development, not only physically but also emotionally, socially and mentally.

According to Tuckman (1999), individuals develop strong positive attitudes toward physical activities given the benefits inherent in participating in physical activities and sports. Moreover, positive attitude motivate students to engage in physical activities contributing to their development not only physically but emotionally, socially and mentally, while negative attitudes on the other hand tend to hinder such development (Godin & Shepherd, 1990).

On the other hand, it was observed that most of the respondents showed negative attitude (M=2.60; SD=1.55) towards the statement that the
time provided for participation in physical activities and sport influence my participation. This result implies that time provided for participation in most physical activity and sport was not sufficient and adequate to the students and this could discourage female teacher-trainees’ in participating any physical activities in the colleges. This finding contradicts the result of Koca, et al. (2005) who opined that students have positive attitude towards participation in physical activates and sports because of they spend their time without pressure of academic success in Physical Education lessons.

Similarly, to the statement “the environment influence my participation in physical activities and sport in my colleges”, it was realized that most of the students had negative attitude (M=2.73; SD=1.47) towards the statement. This findings contradict the assertion by Katzenellenbogen’s (1994) that physical activities and sport learning environment should encourage the mastery and refinement of performance, acquisition and application of knowledge and development of values and beliefs.

As regards to the statement “physical activities and sport teachers are not presenting a good picture about what goes on in the classroom and on the play field” it was noted that most of the respondents showed negative attitude (M=2.27; SD=1.40) towards the statement. This finding is in line with the study of Njororai (1994) who conceded that students pursuing physical activities and sports programme at the college are regarded by their peers and community at large as dull and unintelligent and that this deficiency limits their potential to pursue more “academic subjects”.

87
Research Question Two: What is the Level of Participation in Physical Activity and Sports by Female Teacher-Trainees’?

To determine the level of physical activity (PA) participation among the female teacher-trainees’, World Health Organization’s International PA Questionnaire (IPAQ) short form was used. It assesses the frequency and duration of past-week walking, moderate-intensity and vigorous-intensity PA that lasted for at least 10 minutes (WHO, 2005). The students were asked to consider all PA on campus, at home and during leisure time. Classification of PA participation is done at three levels by the use of algorithms provided in the short-form scoring protocol version of November 2005, developed by the IPAQ group (WHO, 2005). The three categories used in this study are as follows:

Low: (a) No activity reported or (b) Some activity reported but do not meet any of the categories in (moderate) or (high) below (WHO, 2005).

Moderate (any of the following standards): 5 or more days of combination of walking, moderate or vigorous-intensity activities achieving a minimum of at least 600 Metabolic Equivalent Task (MET)-min week (WHO, 2005).

High (any of the following criteria): 7 or more days of combination of walking, moderate or vigorous-intensity activities, accumulating at least 3000 MET-min week (WHO, 2005). Participants in ‘High’ Physical activity category were deemed to meet PHR for Physical activity. Thus, they have reached health-enhancing PA threshold (WHO, 2005). The MET at each Physical activity level was converted to median and thus calculated in frequency and percentage.
Table 3- Level of Physical Activity Participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of participation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>77.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Filed survey, Nkrumah (2015)

From Table 3, the results indicated that out the total of 349 female trainees, none met high level of PA, 22% \((n = 78)\) participated moderately while 78% \((n = 271)\) were classified as having low participation level. Therefore, majority of the female teacher-trainees’ in the Ashanti Region have low participation in PA. The findings of this study among females are consistent with studies conducted in Saudi Arabia (Al-Hazzaa, 2004; Dumith, Hallal, Reis, & Kohl, 2011). These studies showed that the prevalence of physical inactivity levels ranged between 43% and 99% among Saudi adults.

In a Brazilian survey using the IPAQ short-form instrument, physical inactivity prevalence of 41.1% was found among adults aged 20 years and above (Hallal et al., 2003), in comparison to the present study that showed a high prevalence of students not meeting the WHO recommendations for PA at a high-intensity level where none of them attained that level is very alarming and disheartening \((L=22\%, M=78\%)\). Results from other international studies conducted in different cultures with similar lifestyle patterns to that of Ghana (Al-Nozha et al, 2007: Al-Nuaim et al, 2012) also indicated high inactivity levels among female students (Varela-Mato, Cancela, Ayan, Martín, & Molina, 2012).
Reasons for the observed similarities may be explained in terms of a trend towards replacement of an active lifestyle with an increasing frequency of sedentary routines in daily life and a growing trend towards unhealthy weight gain. In addition, global physical inactivity patterns were reported to be more prevalent and it is supported by Al-Nakeeb et al. (2012). Physical inactivity has been said to be associated with diseases like obesity, hypertension, diabetes, back pain, poor joint mobility and psychosocial problems which poses a serious threat to societal growth (Kiess, Galler & Reich, 2001). Therefore, public policies are needed to encourage active living and discourage sedentary habits.

**Research Question Three: What factors (religion, misconception, social role, access to facilities and equipment, sports skill foundation, motivation and academic loads) influence female teacher-trainees’ participation of physical activity and sports?**

The main reason for this research question three was to examine how religion, misconception about sports and physical activity, social role, access to facilities and equipment, sports skill foundation, motivation and academic loads actually lead to female teacher-trainees’ participation in physical activity and sports. The result was analysed and discussed using frequency counts and percentages. The result is presented in Tables 4-10. Due to the nature of the responses, strongly agree (SA) and Agree (A) has been combined as one and strongly disagree (SD) and disagree (D) responses was also combined as one to simplify the results.

Table 4 indicates the result of religion as a factor that influences female teacher-trainees’ participation in physical activities and sports in the
Colleges of Education in Ashanti Region, Ghana. As evident in Table 4, 350 respondents representing 99.7% either strongly agreed or agreed that cultural beliefs have a great impact on women participation in sports and physical activity, one respondent representing 0.3% undecided whiles no respondent strongly disagreed or disagreed with it. Also, 342 respondents representing 97.4% strongly agreed or agreed to the fact that females who participate in sports are seen as anti-culture, two respondents representing 0.6% undecided and seven respondents representing 2.0% strongly disagreed or disagreed. Again, 349 respondent representing 99.4% strongly agreed or agreed that their religion does not permit them to wear dress which does not cover their head and toes and said, that restrict them from participating in physical activity and sports, one respondent representing 0.3% were indecisive whiles 1 respondent representing 0.3% strongly disagreed or disagreed. Seven respondents representing 2.0% strongly agreed or agreed that participation in sports and physical activity promotes many religious values like character building, hard work, and perseverance, one respondent representing 0.3% was indecisive whiles 343 respondents representing 97.7% strongly disagreed or disagreed.

From Table 4, it is obvious that on average majority 210 (59.8%) of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed to the statements concerning religion as a factor that influence female teacher-trainees’ participation in physical activities and sports. Hence, it is concluded that religion is a major factor that determines and influence female teacher-trainees’ participation in physical activities and sport in the Colleges of Education in the Ashanti Region, Ghana. From the foregoing, it appears that religion can be used to
Table 4- Religion as a Factor that influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in Physical Activity and Sports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural beliefs have a great impact on women participation in sports and physical activity</td>
<td>49 13.96</td>
<td>301 85.74</td>
<td>1 0.3</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females who participate in sports are seen as anti-culture</td>
<td>3 0.84</td>
<td>339 96.56</td>
<td>2 0.6</td>
<td>7 2.0</td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My religion permits women to participate in sports and physical activity.</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>1 0.3</td>
<td>1 0.3</td>
<td>9 2.55</td>
<td>340 96.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My religion does not permit me to wear dress which does not cover my head and toes and that restrict me from participating in physical activity and sports.</td>
<td>299 85.17</td>
<td>50 14.23</td>
<td>1 0.3</td>
<td>1 0.3</td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in sports and physical activity promotes many religious values like character building, hard work, and perseverance.</td>
<td>5 1.42</td>
<td>2 0.6</td>
<td>1 0.3</td>
<td>330 94.00</td>
<td>13 3.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Frequency and Percentages</td>
<td>71 20.28</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>39.49</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>69.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, Nkrumah (2015)
determine the extent of sports participation and development in Ashanti Region of Ghana.

These findings were in congruence to the study of Coakley (2003), Hoffman (1992) and Stevenson (1991) who observed that the interaction between sports and religion has been a significant area of study for sports sociologists who have recognized the importance of religion and spirituality in athletes’ lives. In light of this finding, Mohler (2010) emphasized that, sports has taken an increasingly influential role in the lives of evangelical Christians. He went further to state that, sports has the potential to give Christians a good platform for Christian witness, and also the potential to lead Christians into idolatry.

According to Al-Munajjid (2011), Islam is concerned with man’s well-being in both body and soul, and it encourages all kinds of sports that will strengthen the body and maintain good health as well as providing relaxation and leisure, such as swimming, shooting, horse riding, sword fighting and wrestling. He stated categorically that in Islam, if the aim of sports is relaxation and maintaining good health, then sports is permissible. From the foregoing, it can be deduced that Islamic beliefs and practice are significantly different from those of Christians in terms of the development of sports in the world.

Misconception as a factor that influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in physical Activity and Sports

Misconception about sports and physical activity has been a controversial issue said to have been affecting female’s participation in sports and physical activity. To the statement “sports and physical activity are for
men only”, the results from this study indicated that 345 (98.3%) of the respondents either strongly agreed or agreed, 1 (0.3%) undecided, 5 (1.4%) strongly disagreed or disagreed to the statement as indicated in table 5. It was observed that 345 (98.9%) of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed to the statement that females who engage in sports can’t give birth whiles 4 (1.1%) strongly disagreed or disagreed. As regards the statement “females who play sports look masculine” it was found that 351 (100%) strongly agreed or agreed to the statement. these findings confirmed the assertion that female participation in sports and physical activity is the assertion that females build excessive muscle thereby looking masculine. It was found that 347 (98.9%) of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed to the statement that females who participate in sports and physical activity are academically weak, 1 (0.3%) of them were undecided whiles 3 (0.9%) strongly disagreed or disagreed to the statement.

From Table 5, it is concluded that on average, 347 (98.8%) of the respondents either strongly agreed or agreed to the statements that misconception is a significant factor that determines female teacher-trainees’ participation in physical activities and sports. These results were in congruence with the finding of Perry (2007) who revealed that various myths and misconceptions about the effects of strength training on women which are primarily responsible for the lack of participation among women in the weight room. He said that women who participate in strength training are mostly addressed by the society as men due to the muscles hypertrophy which occurs. This result is in line with the study of United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2007),
which pointed out that there are misunderstandings when it comes to sport and its impact on girls’ sexual and reproductive health. The fear that playing sport will cause loss of virginity which is a common myth in some cultures that the physical exertion of sport, such as running, kicking or jumping, will cause the hymen to tear discourages females from participating. An intact hymen is erroneously seen as a physical indicator of virginity.

Stanly and Wise (1993), further stated that, cultural images and all sort of misconceptions about the sportswomen tend to scare women from achieving excellence in sports. It is, therefore, no wonder that the sex role expectation have encouraged women to be passive, gentle, delicate and submissive. According to Ziegler (1972), many girls and women have the fear for the development of unsightly bulging muscles should they exercise vigorously. Fox and Matthew (1981), however, explained further that muscle hypertrophy is less in females. Muscular hypertrophy is regulated by hormone testosterone which is about ten times lower in women. Female athlete is perceived as less than ideal women, which makes them feel negative and there is physical and psychological loss of femininity especially in the track athletes and basketball (Sage & Londermilk, 1979). According to the result of Hare and Graber (2000) misconception which affect students’ participation in sport activities and physical education were best described as being highly idiosyncratic in nature (not necessarily shared by others). Despite the successes of female participation in strength training and other sporting settings, many of these myths continue to prevail today (Osei, 2011).
Table 5- Misconception as a factor that influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in Physical Activity and Sports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Misconception</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports and physical activity are for men only.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>97.15</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females who engage in sports can’t give birth.</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>77.77</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>20.51</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females who play sports look masculine.</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>71.22</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>28.77</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females who play sports are promiscuous.</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>24.78</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>74.07</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females who participate in sports and physical activity are academically weak.</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>84.33</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>14.52</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Frequency and Percentages</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>51.85</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>47.00</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, Nkrumah (2015)
The debate on the role of women in societies and their participation in economic activity has sparked a lot of controversy for a considerable time. To this effect, different groups of people—women groups, government, development partners, and civil society groups—have forwarded many arguments to support their stand.

Table 6 shows the result of how social role as a factor influenced female teacher-trainees' participation in physical activities and sports. As shown in Table 6, 350 of the respondents indicating 99.7% strongly agreed or agreed to the statement that role of females is to learn how to cook not to participate in physical activity and sports at the college, whiles one of them indicating 0.3% strongly disagreed or disagreed to the fact. It was found that 348 of the respondents indicating 99.1% strongly agreed or agreed respectively with the fact that females are expected to learn values that will help them to nurture their babies not to participate in physical activity and sports at the college, one of them indicating 0.3% undecided whiles two of them indicating 0.6% strongly disagreed or disagreed. Concerning the statement “sports and physical activity participation helps females to develop the attitude of dependency which is prohibited by society” it was noted that 343 of the respondents indicating 97.7% strongly agree or agree respectively whiles eight of them indicating 2.3% strongly disagreed or disagreed. It was realized that 349 of the respondents indicating 99.4% strongly agreed or agreed that according to the societal roles, sports is for men not women, whiles two of them indicating 0.6% strongly disagreed or disagreed. As shown in Table 6, 348 of the respondents indicating 99% strongly agreed or agreed that females who
Table 6- *Social Role as a Factor that Influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in Sports and Physical Activity*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Role</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The role of females is to learn how to cook not to participate in physical activity and sports at the college.</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>60.96</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>39.74</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females are expected to learn value that will help them to nurture their babies not to participate in physical activity and sports at the college</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>96.85</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports and physical activity participation help females to develop the attitude of dependency which is prohibited by society</td>
<td>324</td>
<td>92.30</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>According to the societal roles sports is for men not women</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>82.60</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>16.80</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females who participate in physical activity and sports are considered in the society as outcast.</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>31.62</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>67.52</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Frequency and Percentages</td>
<td>255.7</td>
<td>72.86</td>
<td>91.7</td>
<td>26.14</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, Nkrumah (2015)
participate in physical activity and sports are considered in the society as outcast whiles three of them indicating 0.9% strongly disagreed or disagreed.

From Table 6, it is concluded that, on average, majority 347 (99%) of the respondents either strongly agreed or agreed to the statements regarding social role as a factor that influenced female teacher-trainees’ participation in sports and physical activity. These results imply that traditional roles have been altered for many men and women and even traditional professional roles that were gender specific have become gender neutral.

These findings were in agreement with the study of Chia, et al. (1994) in their study, they revealed great differences between Mexican and American attitudes towards gender roles. Mexican college students attached greater significance to family, acted more "macho", believed less in sexual equality and were less independent than American and Taiwanese university students (Chia et al., 1994). Instead of sexual equality and independence, Mexicans were more concerned with family solidarity.

According to Amu (2005), the most important clue to a woman’s status anywhere in the world is her degree of participation in economic life and her control over property and the product she produces. In the study of Long (1991) he found that U.S. society showed a pattern of viewing "competency-oriented" masculine traits as more positive and more revered than "passive" feminine traits. Long (1991) suggested that people who possess androgynous traits actually retain greater general well-being. Therefore, a high correlation exists between women with masculine and androgynous traits and high levels of motivation. Gibbons, et al. (1991) found that, in general, very traditional sex roles and stereotypes have been ingrained within the society of Mexican.
Women’s participation in the physical activities and sport in Ghana (as regarded as labour force) has contributed to household incomes and the education and health of their children. However, there are marked disparities in women’s access to economic resources that will enable them to achieve their economic and social goals when compared to their male counterparts. Women are also bogged down with their responsibility as the primary care givers in the home, thus, putting constraints on their time.

As shown in Table 7, 351 female teacher-trainees’ from six Colleges of Education in Ashanti Region responded to these questions and out of them 1 (0.3%) either strongly agreed or agreed, 1 (0.3%) undecided whiles 349 (99.4%) strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement that Colleges of Education do not have a lot of facility/equipment for physical activity and sports participation.

It was noted that seven respondents representing 2.0% shared they strongly agreed or agreed whereas 344 of them representing 98.0% strongly disagree or disagree with the fact that facilities/equipment at the colleges of education are accessible to females more than males. To the statement “the non-availability of physical activity and sports facility/equipment at the colleges discourages females from participating in physical activity and sports”, it was realized that 335 (95.4%) of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed respectively to the statement, 2 (0.6%) of them were undecided whiles 14 (4.0%) of them strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement.

The results of this study is in accordance with a research by Torkildson (2000) who expressed the same opinion that the presence and absence of facilities and equipment, their accessibility, quality, pricing, structure, and
policy could have substantial influence on physical activity and sports participation. Butler (1996) similarly asserted that, equipment and facilities have an important place in physical activity and sports, because they contribute to physical development, stimulate creative activity, and provide opportunities for other activities to take place. Facilities such as playing fields and gymnasium attract sportsmen and women to participate.

As evident in Table 7, 344 respondents representing 98.0% either strongly agreed or agreed to the statement that female trainees get the chance to utilize the facility/equipment only during official class period whiles seven respondents representing 2.0% strongly disagreed or disagreed with the item. Also, it was found that 6 (1.7%) respondents strongly agreed or agreed to the statement that facility/equipment at the Colleges of Education is closer to students making it easy for people to participate in sports and physical activity, 3 (0.9%) couldn’t decide whiles 342 (97.4) strongly disagreed or disagreed.

From Table 7, it is concluded that on average, the majority 211 (60.2%) of the respondents either strongly disagreed or disagreed to the statement regarding facilities and equipment availability and access to them in the colleges of education in Ashanti Region, Ghana while 139 (39.5%) strongly agreed or agreed to the items. These results imply that availability and easy access to facilities and equipment are factors that determine and influence female teacher-trainees’ participation in physical activities and sports. This indicates that the adequate availability of the resource would influence and encourage female teacher-trainees to participate in physical activities and sports while absence of these resources would discourage and
kill the morale and positive mood of the female teacher-trainees to participate in the physical activities and sports.

The findings of the study were congruent to the study of Awosikas (1982) agreed that, facilities afford students the opportunity to practice skills taught in physical education, in sports and physical activity programmes, and these facilities and equipment should be available all the year around. These presuppose that it becomes possible for the individuals to engage in physical activity and sports during their leisure hours. In light of these results, coaches and sportswomen recognize the importance of sports facilities and equipment in the organization and development of sports in the country as a whole, and institutions in particular. Lack of this would greatly hinder even the most proficient coach and athletes as well. Availability of facilities and equipment, therefore, is a prerequisite to the conduct of sports programmes. Onifade (1995) observed that for the success of any physical education and sports programmes, there must be availability of qualitative and quantitative facilities and equipment.

Facilities and equipment are important aspects of recreational needs and interests of students. Facilities such as playing fields and gymnasium attract sportsmen and women to participate. Burrow and Bammel (1992) revealed in a study that cities consistently neglect the recreation needs of tenement district; the recreational facilities and services for the urban poor are inadequate. He further concluded that American remote or wilderness areas received about 7% of outdoor recreation, all the rest occurred in developed areas.
Table 7- Access to Facilities/equipment as a Factor that influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in Physical Activity and Sports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Asses to facilities/equipment</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Colleges of Education have facility/equipment for sports and physical activity participation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The facility/equipment is more accessible to females than males.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The non-availability of physical activity and sports facility/equipment at the colleges discourages females from participates in physical activity and sports</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>39.60</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>55.83</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female trainees get the chance to utilize the facility/equipment only during official class period.</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>58.97</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>39.03</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The facility/equipment at the Colleges of Education is closer to students making it easy for people to participate in sports and physical activity.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Frequency and Percentages</td>
<td>70.2</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>68.4</td>
<td>19.46</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, Nkrumah (2015)
Females then cannot play sports if they cannot get access to the necessary facilities (Women’s Sports Foundation, 2007). In disagreement to this assertion, Sports and Recreation South Africa (2005) concluded in their studies that people will participate in sports or not regardless of human access to sports club or sport equipment and kit. Clothing which are so revealing may be a barrier to some females. The issue of facilities has been found to be one of the problems being encountered by sportsmen and women. The reason is that the existing facilities are obsolete and in states of disrepair. The sporting world has reached a stage where complex facilities and equipment are needed for teaching, practicing, and competition.

Table 8 revealed the result of the respondents concerning sports skill foundation as a factor that influencing female teacher trainee participation in physical activity and sports. As shown in Table 8, it was found that out of 351 respondents, 350 (99.7%) of them strongly agreed or agreed that Females in the college lack the basic skill to play sports. This was followed by 1 (0.3%) of them who strongly disagreed or disagreed with this statement. Similarly, regarding the statement “most female in the colleges do not play sports because they did not have good foundation in the senior high schools” it was found that the majority 346 (98.6%) of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed to the statement, 1 (0.3%) of them were undecided whiles 4 (1.1%) of them strongly disagreed or disagreed to the statement.

These findings imply that involvement and exposure to sport impact significantly on skill acquisition and hence sport participation. These results were in line to the study of Cahpherd and Alpherdl (1995) who reported that the lack of opportunities at school for daily physical education with the
continuing decline in physical activity within the home setting is leading to development in sedentary life style pattern that will continue to adulthood and throughout life. In light of these results, Sports and Recreation South Africa (2005), conceded that students who have (or had) physical education classes at school and those who participated in organised sports at school are more likely to participate in university sports.

From Table 8, it was observed that the majority 347 (98.9%) respondents either strongly agreed or agreed to the notion that females who play sports for the colleges have high skill levels, 2 (0.6%) of them were found undecided whiles 2 (0.6%) of them strongly disagreed or disagreed to the statement. With regard to the statement “females are denied space to practice skills learnt making it difficult for them to participate in the colleges” it was found that the majority 350 (99.7%) of respondents strongly agreed or agreed to the statement whiles 1 (0.3) of them strongly disagreed or disagreed. These findings were in line with the assertion by Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001) that boys dominate space in school’s playgrounds and sporting arenas and frequently tell females that they cannot play, because the game is for boys. In schools, girls are denied space to practice or acquire skills and this may discourage females, and in turn may affect their future participation in sports. These findings also contradict the study of Dauer and Pangrezi (1990) who opined that the way students view their competency have stronger impact on the ability to succeed, especially when a student sees that he/she is not skillful to succeed in an activity he/she withdraws completely.

From Table 8, it was concluded that the majority 348 (99.1%) of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed to the statement regarding sport skills
foundation as a factor that influence female teacher-trainees’ participation in physical activities and sports. These results implies that majority of the respondents agreed that there is a lack of sport skills foundation and this would insignificantly influence and discourage female teacher-trainees to participate in physical activities and sport organized by the College of Education in Ashanti Region, Ghana.

Results of this study showed that most females did not have the necessary skills to participate in colleges of education physical activity and sports. In support of this, Cox, Coleman and Rocker (2005) in a study on sports participation among young women in England, indicated that most of the young people who always participated said that they lived in active households, where family members were sporting role models and sport was often undertaken. It also revealed that these family members were the people who could pay to do sports. Msheilia (1998) corroborated this view by saying that, for a woman to be involved, and continue active participation in sports, she must be located in a social environment highly supportive of her activities. Green and Hardman (2005) wrote that the middle class young people are more likely to have the skills, abilities and experiences that will make them more rather than less likely to be involved in and be successful in sports and physical activities, because they are the most likely to be introduced to a wider range of sports by their parents.
Table 8- *Sports Skill Foundation as a Factor that Influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in Physical Activity and Sports*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lack of sports skill foundation</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females in the college lack the basic skill to play sports in the colleges</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>38.17</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>61.53</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most female in the colleges do not play sports because they did not have good foundation in the senior high schools</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>49.55</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>49.00</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females who play sports for the colleges have high skill levels</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>94.01</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females are denied space to practice skills learnt making it difficult for them to participate in the colleges.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>28.77</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>70.94</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Frequency and Percentages</td>
<td>106.5</td>
<td>30.33</td>
<td>241.75</td>
<td>68.86</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, Nkrumah (2015)
In Ghana, the cultural influence on female participation is so great that parents themselves discourage their females from playing sports even at an early age. In Ghana, the average school curriculum does not allot sufficient instructional time to physical education for skill acquisition. Physical education in the basic school is not taught in many schools, while in the secondary school some teachers who teach have limited time. Keim (1999) and Dauer and Pangrezi (1990) lamented that most female students drop out of activity due to lack of skills and competency during elementary school which is rather unfortunate. According to Harris (2000), 35% of children who participate in organized sports drop out every year by age 15, 75% of youth no longer play organized sports as result of lack of skills exhibited during sports.

Motivation as a Factor that Influences Female Teacher –Trainees’ Level of Participation in Sports and Physical Activity

Regarding motivation as a factor that influences female teacher trainee’s level of participation in sports and physical activity, it was found that out of 351 respondents, 344 of them representing 98.0% strongly agreed or agreed to the fact that a lot of females would have played sports for their colleges if they were motivated enough, three respondents representing 0.9% were undecided whiles four respondents representing 1.14% strongly disagree or disagree to it as indicated in table 9.

Again, it could be seen from the Table 9 that, the majority 341 of the respondents representing 97.2% attested to the fact that a lot of females would have participated in physical activity and sports if they had had encouragement from their parents while 10 trainees representing 2.8% strongly disagree or disagree. It was found that 348 (99.1%) of the respondents
strongly agreed or agreed that females participate in physical activity and sports because they want to maintain their fitness level, 3 (0.9%) did not strongly agree or agree.

Motivation is an internal energy/force that determines all aspects of our behaviour. It also impacts on how we think, feel, and interact with others (Karageorghis, 1999). Motivation, therefore, causes people to make choices from the available alternatives about how best to allocate their energy and time (Lenskyi, 1994). These results confirmed the study of (Beaudoin, 2006) who discovered that female footballers are highly competitive and intrinsically motivated, that females engage in netball for skill improvement, fitness, and social fulfilment (Hodge, & Zaharopulos, 1992), and that value and competence in an activity contribute to lower levels of sport attrition among female handball participants (Guillet et al., 2006).

As regards the statement “a lot of females would have participated in sports and physical activity at the college if they were given incentives” it was noted that 320 of the respondents representing 91.2% were in agreement to the statements, 5 (1.4%) of them were not certain whiles 26 (7.4%) of them also strongly disagree or disagree. It was realized from Table 8 that 344 (98.0%) of the respondents also shared that lot of females don’t play sports because of derogative remarks some tutors make about females sports persons, one respondent representing 0.3% said she has no opinion on it whiles 26 (7.4%) strongly disagree or disagree.

From Table 9, it is concluded that on average, 339 (96.7%) of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed to the items that motivation is a factor that influence female teacher-trainees’ level of participation in sports and
physical activity. These results imply that motivation (extrinsic and intrinsic) is a significant factor that determines and predicts female teacher-trainees level of participation in the physical activities and sports.

Sport psychology has traditionally focused on the sporting experiences of young, elite male athletes. Sport psychologists have increasingly examined various socio-psychological aspects of women’s sporting and physical activity experiences including participation motivation and attrition (Beaudoin, 2006; Guillet, Fontayne, Sarrazin, & Brustad, 2006), imagery and sport confidence and flow (Callow & Hardy, 2001; Pates et al, 2003).

In the University, the external motivation is used mostly to encourage students to participate, except a few who are intrinsically motivated. These findings were congruence to the study of Wesson et al. (2005) who maintained that extrinsic rewards are used extremely in sporting situations. Students have, however, shown that there are times when extrinsic motivation may actually decrease an achievement motivation (intrinsic motivation) (Harackieweiz, 1998; Deci, & Ryan, 1994). A recent study by Green and Hardman (2005) showed that extrinsically motivated athletes tended to avoid dealing with the issues and were far less likely to achieve their goals. The amount of motivation needed for best results varies with the individual, but each has tolerance level beyond which performance declines (Santrock, 2000).

Females are motivated to participate for various reasons and their participation also varies from person to person. This will again depend on their personalities, lifestyles, goals, and needs; Kraus (2001) thinks people participate because they want to have fun and enjoyment. In another study females participate in sports for the reason of achievement/status, team
atmosphere, energy release, skill development, friendship, and fun (Hamafyelto, & Badego, 2002). In a similar study, social interaction and improving appearance are the main motivations in females (Senate Committee Inquiry, 2005). Yet in another study, health benefit, encouragement from school and family, and social advantage are the three main motivations for regular sports participation of females, hence sport was seen as a way of having fun and reducing stress and other chronic diseases (Cox et al., 2005).

In the games and sports, psychological and physiological factors play an important role in determining the performance level (Grange, & Kerr, 2010; Schilling, & Hyashi, 2001). Numerous studies have demonstrated the impact of psychological factors on sports performance (Crespo, 2002). Again, a study conducted by Erkut et al, (1996) revealed that half of Pan American, Native American, African American, European American, Asian, and Pacific American females reported that although they were aware of the benefits of participating in sports and physical activity, their parents prevented them from taking part, and rather advised them to take their academic work seriously.

In addition socio-economic stratification could play a role in low motivation of females’ participation. Research reveals that participants from high socio-economic status homes showed more positive disposition to recreation and sports. They are motivated to do sports right from infancy (Adeyanju, & Alla, 2006; Burrow, & Bammel, 1992; Cox et al., 2005).
Table 9 - Motivation as a Factor that Influences Female Teacher-Trainees’ Level of Participation in Sports and Physical Activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Females would have played sports for their colleges if they were motivated enough.</td>
<td>304 (86.60)</td>
<td>40 (11.39)</td>
<td>3 (0.9)</td>
<td>4 (1.14)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females would have participated in Colleges of Education sports if they have had encouragement from their parents</td>
<td>171 (48.71)</td>
<td>170 (48.43)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>4 (1.14)</td>
<td>6 (1.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females participate in physical activity and sports because they want to maintain their fitness level</td>
<td>21 (5.96)</td>
<td>327 (93.14)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1 (0.3)</td>
<td>2 (0.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females would have participated in sports and physical activity at the Colleges if they were given incentives</td>
<td>319 (90.88)</td>
<td>1 (0.3)</td>
<td>5 (1.4)</td>
<td>16 (4.55)</td>
<td>10 (2.84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females don’t play sports because of derogative remarks some tutors make about females sports persons.</td>
<td>135 (38.44)</td>
<td>209 (59.52)</td>
<td>1 (0.3)</td>
<td>2 (0.6)</td>
<td>4 (1.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average frequency and Percentages</td>
<td>190 (54.11)</td>
<td>149.4 (42.55)</td>
<td>2 (0.52)</td>
<td>5.4 (1.54)</td>
<td>4.4 (1.25)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, Nkrumah (2015)
Academic Loads as a factor that influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in Physical Activity and Sports

Table 10 shows the result of the respondents concerning effect of academic loads on female teacher trainee participation in physical activity and sports. It was found that the majority 349 (99.4%) of the respondents either strongly agreed or agreed that the courses registered for at the colleges of education are too difficult discouraging females from participating in physical activity and sports, 1 (0.3%) were found undecided whiles 1 (0.3) strongly disagree or disagree to the statement. This result is consistent with the study of Bean and Bradley (1986) who found that course difficulty to have small negative effects on semester GPA. Pike (1991) also found a negative net effect of course difficulty on cumulative GPA.

From Table 10, it was realized that the majority 326 (98.6%) of the respondents either strongly agreed or agreed, 1 (0.3%) undecided whiles 4 (1.1%) strongly disagreed or disagreed to the statement that the number of credit hours per semester prevents female in the colleges of education from taking part in physical activity and sports. In light of this result, many researchers have examined the effect of credit load on academic outcomes. Ahmed, Abo-Laban and Ahmed-Shami (1980) report that in every department students registered for less than 12 credits had the lowest semester GPAs while students registered for more than 17 credits had the highest GPAs.

Zakirkhouz and Shami (1982) found that students with heavier credit loads tended to earn higher GPAs regardless of the major. Volkwein and Lorang (1996) revealed that first-semester credit loads tend to be predictive of later semester credit loads.
Similarly, concerning the statement “assignments are too loaded leaving no time for females who want to participate in physical activity and sports” it was observed that the majority 351 (100%) of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed to the notion. It was found that 349 (99.4%) of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed whiles 2 (0.6) strongly disagreed or disagreed that most females miss a lot of lectures because they play sports for the colleges making them perform poorly academically.

A range of evidence suggests that for many girls, sports and physical activities are positive features of their academic aspirations and achievement. Sallis et al. (1999) found improvements for many children in academic performance when time for physical activity is increased in their school day. Shephard (1997) emphasises that ‘academic performance is maintained or even enhanced by an increase in a student’s level of habitual physical activity, despite a reduction in curriculum or free time for the study of academic material’.

From Table 10, it is concluded that on average, 348 (99.3%) of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed to the items that academic loads is a factor that determine and influence female teacher trainee’s level of participation in sports and physical activity. These findings were in line with the study of Sabo, et al. (1992) who reported that girls who participate in sports are more likely to achieve academic success than those who do not play sports. Physical Activity was recently found to improve cognitive and memory functions (Ploughman, 2008) while Fox et al. (2010) reported that physical activity enhances academic performance and outcomes.
Table 10- *Academic Loads as a factor that influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Participation in Physical Activity and Sports*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic loads</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The courses registered for at the colleges of education are too difficult discouraging females from participating in physical activity and sports.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>347</td>
<td>98.9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The number of credit hours per semester prevents female in the colleges of education from taking part in physical activity and sports.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>94.01</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The assignments are too loaded leaving no time for females who want to participate in physical activity and sports.</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>91.45</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>8.54</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most females miss a lot of lectures because they play sports for the colleges making them perform poorly academically.</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>13.95</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>85.46</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Frequency and Percentages</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>27.62</td>
<td>251.75</td>
<td>71.72</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, Nkrumah (2015)
Research Question Four: Which Factors mostly Influence Female Teacher-Trainees’ Non-participation in Physical Activity and Sports?

The aim of this research question was to identify the factor which mostly influences female teacher-trainees’ to participate in physical activities and sports. Forced enter multiple linear regression model was built to determine which factors predict non-participation of Physical Activity among female teacher-trainees’. Pearson linear correlation among the factors (motivation, facilities, religion, misconceptions, academic load, and lack of sports skills, social role and equipment) was determined prior to building the regression model. Pearson correlation because the variables were measured in the interval scale. Correlation co-efficient among the factors were low, thus permitting the use of forced enter method.

Table 11- Multiple Regression Analysis of Factors Influencing Non-Participation of Female Teacher-Trainees’ in Physical Activities and Sports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>.201</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>-.045</td>
<td>-.82</td>
<td>.411</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities</td>
<td>-.083</td>
<td>-1.504</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.243</td>
<td>.808</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misconceptions</td>
<td>-.145</td>
<td>-2.411</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic loads</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.159</td>
<td>.874</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of sports skills</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>.653</td>
<td>.514</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social role</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.753</td>
<td>.452</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment</td>
<td>.089</td>
<td>1.570</td>
<td>.117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, Nkrumah (2015)

The result in Table 11 indicates that multiple regression results showed a non-significant predictive power of the general model to the non-
participation female teacher trainees in PA $\beta = 211.621$, $t = 1.430$, $p = .154$. However, misconception as a factor was statistically significant in determining the non-participation of the female teacher-trainees’ in PA $\beta = -8.439$, $t = -2.411$, $p = .016$. Besides, the factor, misconception, contributed 15% to the variance of female teacher-trainees’ non-participation in PA. Hence, female teacher trainees’ non-participation in PA and sports is largely influence by their misconception about PA and sports.

The finding revealed that female teacher-trainees’ non-participation in PA and sports is mostly determined by their misconception about PA and sports. The fear that playing sport will cause loss of virginity (running, kicking or jumping, will cause the hymen to tear), masculine body figures, barrenness, being seen as tomboys, not pretty, lesbians, promiscuous, academically weak etc., which are common misconception in the Ghanaian society about participating in sports and physical activity.

According to this research misconception discourages them from participating. Again, girls and society also often have misunderstandings about the safety of participating in sport while menstruating, especially in traditional cultures and among economically disadvantaged families when girls begin to menstruate, they are often confined to their homes and temporarily or totally cease participation in sport. The findings are in accordance with the studies of Perry (2007), which pointed out that indeed myths and misconception affects women participation in sports and physical activity. He said that females who participate in strength training are mostly addressed by the society as men due to the muscles hypertrophy which occurs.
A study by Stanly and Wise (1993) also attested to the fact that misconceptions scare females from achieving excellence in sports. They went ahead to state that females who defiled cultural expectations are often questioned and given marginal status thereby making females not stay long enough in sports competitions to achieve excellence but rather revert to their “proper” societal roles. Many girls and women have the fear for the development of unsightly bulging muscles should they exercise vigorously.

Hare and Graber (2000) also did a study on students’ misconceptions that was revealed during the course of participation by students in a physical education class. According to them misconception clearly appeared throughout the investigation.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The main purpose of this study was to examine the factors influencing female teacher-trainees’ non-participation in physical activity and sports in Colleges of Education in Ashanti Region of Ghana. This chapter focused on summary, conclusions based on the results and findings and the recommendations made.

Summary

Descriptive survey design was adopted for the study because the main purpose of this study was to examine the factors influencing female teacher trainees’ non-participation in physical activity and sports in colleges of education in Ashanti Region of Ghana. This design is considered appropriate due to it’s relatively inexpensiveness and usefulness when dealing with a large number of populations. The target population for the study involved all female teacher trainees at the Colleges of Education in Ghana. A total of 351 respondents were sampled for the study using the mathematical model expressed as: \( n = \frac{N}{1+N \left( e^2 \right)} \) from the total population 2,911. Simple random sampling technique was used to select participants for the study. Self-administered questionnaire was the main instrument used for data collection. The questionnaire was designed in relation to the research questions. Reliability and validity of the instrument were ensured. Descriptive statistics (Frequency, percentages, mean and standard deviation) and inferential statistics (multiple regressions) were used in analyzing and discussing the result.
Key Findings

The following are the key findings from the study:

1. The findings showed that on the average, female teacher-trainees’ had a negative attitude (M=2.78; SD=1.43) towards participation in the physical activities and sports. The standard deviation score revealed that there is a strongly heterogeneous response among the female teacher-trainees’ towards participation in the physical activities and sports.

2. The results indicated that the majority 271(78%) of female teacher-trainees’ in the Ashanti region have low participation in Physical Activity while 78 (22%) participated moderately.

3. It was found that on average, majority of the respondents agreed that religion (n=210; 59.8%), misconception (n=347; 98.8%), social role (n=347; 98.8%), facilities and equipment (n=211; 60.1%), sport skills foundation (n=348; 99.1%), Motivation (n=339; 96.6%) and academic loads (n=348; 99.1%) are significant major factors that determine, predict and influence female teacher-trainees participation in physical activities and sport in the colleges of education in the Ashanti Region, Ghana.

4. Multiple regression results showed a non-significance predictive power of the general model to the non-participation female teacher-trainees’ in Physical Activity and sports beta = 211.621, t = 1.430, p = .154. However, misconception as a factor was statistically significant in determining the non-participation of the female teacher trainees in PA beta = -8.439, t = -2.411, p = .016. Besides, the factor, misconception, contributed 15% to the variance of female teacher-trainees’ non-participation in PA. Hence,
female teacher trainees’ non-participation in PA and sports is largely influence by their misconception about PA and sports.

Conclusions

The main purpose of the study was to examine factors influencing female teacher-trainees’ non-participation in physical activity and sports in College of Education in Ashanti Region of Ghana. It is a common phrase that a sound mind is in a sound body. In addition, involvement in physical activity can positively affect grade scores of female teacher-trainees’ in Colleges of Education. Through physical activities, a student can prevent herself from contracting different types of diseases.

Regarding research objective one, the study concluded that female teacher-trainees’ on average, had a negative attitude towards participation in physical activities and sports. This leads to the thought that female teacher-trainees are dissatisfied by the subject taught in the colleges. Participation in physical activities and sports requires strong attitudes toward physical exercise.

Pertaining to research objective two, the study concluded that female teacher-trainees’ participation in physical activities and sports was very low. Lessons in physical education positively influence female teacher-trainees’ attitude towards participation in physical activities and sports. Female teacher-trainees attitude towards physical activities and sports would be enhanced when they engage in activities that recognize their individual abilities.

Concerning research objective three, the study revealed that motivation, facilities and equipment, religion, misconceptions, academic load, lack of sports skills and social role were significant major factors that
determined and influenced female teacher-trainees participation in physical activities and sports in the college of education in the Ashanti Region, Ghana. These factors become challenges to students to fully participate in physical activities and sports. This implies that there are no adequate facilities in colleges for Physical Education. The condition of the available facilities is poor.

The findings also reveal that misconception plays a vital role when physical education students are choosing the physical education teaching profession. If students are not motivated in physical education, if they find it a boring or humiliating experience, they will form a negative attitude toward it. Therefore, it is logical to assume that physical activity programs in colleges of education in Ghana will have a more positive impact when children are motivated to participate in physical education, and when they experience positive cognitive and affective outcomes as a result of their participation. To ensure that female teacher-trainees in colleges are motivated to participate in physical activities and sports in Ghana, physical education teachers should obtain opportunities for all students to experienced achievement regardless of their talent.

To combat the decreasing levels of physical activity in many young people, school physical educators must equip students with the skills and knowledge necessary to become physically active for a lifetime (Krouscas, 1999). A positive attitude towards physical education and physical facilities are required to promote physical education in schools. Therefore, schools at all levels should develop and encourage positive attitudes toward physical
exercise, providing opportunities to learn physical skills and to perform physical activities (American Heart Association, 1992).

**Recommendations**

Based on the findings and the conclusions of the study and bearing in mind its limitations, it is recommended that:

1. After school games and activities should be made fun and the games should not be male dominated.
2. Student must be educated on the importance of physical activity and sports.
3. The Colleges of Education and other stakeholders should provide motivational (Extrinsic rewards e.g scholarship) packages for females who excel in the sports. This would pull more students to exhibits their talents and skills by participating in the physical activities and sports.

**Suggestions for Further Research**

The following suggestions are made for further studies:

1. The impact of physical education curriculum content on college students’ attitudes and perception toward physical education.
2. Furthermore, it will be beneficial to establish a more definite causal relationship among physical education teachers’ self-efficacy and students’ learning process.
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APPENDICES
Dear Respondents

The researcher is a student of the University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast. This questionnaire is meant to solicit your contribution towards gathering data for my research on the title ‘Factors Influencing Female Teacher Trainees Participation in Physical Activity and Sports in Colleges of Education in Ashanti region of Ghana’. The project is in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of a master of philosophy degree in Physical Education.

Instructions: Please tick (√) the answer that you feel is the most appropriate to questions. Thank you.

Section A

Background Characteristics of the Respondents

1. Which Colleges of Education are you?
   a) O. F.C.E [ ]
   b) WESCO [ ]
   c) ST. LOUIS [ ]
   d) ST. MONICA’S [ ]
   e) A.P.W.T.C [ ]
   f) AKROTCO [ ]

2. What is your age-group?
   a) 15-25 [ ]
   b) 25-35 [ ]
   c) 35yrs above [ ]

3. What is your marital status?
   a) single [ ]
   b) married [ ]
   c) divorce [ ]
4. What level are you?
   a) 100
   b) 200

5. Which religion do you belong to?
   a) Christian
   b) Muslim
   c) Traditionalist
   d) No religion

6. Do you participate in physical activity and sports?
   a) Yes
   b) No

Section B
Female teachers- Trainees Attitude towards participation in physical Activities and Sport

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7. The pursuit of physical activities and sport in the colleges makes individual physically, mentally and morally strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The time provided for participation in physical activities and sport influence my participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The environment influence my participation in physical activities and sport in my colleges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Physical activities and sport teachers are not presenting a good picture about what goes on in the classroom and on the play field</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section C
Level of Participation in physical activities and sports

I am interested in finding out about the kinds of physical activities and sports that people do as part of their everyday lives. Your answers will help me to understand how active people are. The questions are about the
time you spent being physically active in the last 7 days. These include questions about activities you do at work, home, playing soccer, volleyball, handball, netball, basketball, moving from place to place etc. Please answer each question even if you do not consider yourself to be a physically active or sports person.

In answering these questions, **VIGOROUS physical activities** refer to activities that take hard physical effort and make you breathe much harder than normal. **MODERATE activities refer** to activities that take moderate physical effort and make you breathe somewhat harder than normal.

11. During the last 7 days, how many days did you do vigorous physical activities like heavy lifting, playing soccer, netball, handball, volleyball, fast bicycling for at least 10 continuous minutes?

   a) None [ ]
   b) 2 days [ ]
   c) 3 days [ ]
   d) 4 days [ ]
   e) 5 days [ ]
   f) 6 days [ ]
   g) 7 days [ ]

12. During the last 7 days, how many days did you do moderate physical activities like carrying light loads, bicycling for at least 10 minutes?

   a) None [ ]
   b) 2 days [ ]
   c) 3 days [ ]
   d) 4 days [ ]
13. During the last 7 days, how many days did you walk continuously for at least 10 minutes at a time? This includes walking to school, walking from place to another, and any other walking that you did solely for recreation, sport, exercise or leisure.

a) None [  ]
b) 2 days [  ]
c) 3 days [  ]
d) 4 days [  ]
e) 5 days [  ]
f) 6 days [  ]
g) 7 days [  ]

The last question is about the time you spent sitting on weekdays while at school, at dormitory and/or during leisure time. This includes time spent sitting at a desk, visiting friends, reading, traveling on a bus.

14. During the last 7 days, how much time did you usually spend sitting on a day?

a) 1 hr-2hrs [  ]
b) 3hr-4hr [  ]
c) more than 4 hrs [  ]
# Section D

Factors that influence participation in physical activities and sports

Please respond to the following statements by ticking [✓] the column that most accurately represents the extent to which you agree or disagree to these statements. There are no ‘correct’ or ‘wrong’ responses; it is your own views that are important. SA=Strongly Agree, A= Agree, U=Undecided, D= Disagree, SD= Strongly Disagree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Females would have played sports for their colleges if they were motivated enough.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Females would have participated in colleges of education sports if they have had encouragement from their parents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Females participate in physical activity and sports because they want to maintain their fitness level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Females would have participated in sports and physical activity at the colleges if they were giving incentives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Females don’t play sports because of derogative remarks some tutors make about females sports persons.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Assess to facilities/equipment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>The Colleges of Education have facilities for sports and physical activity participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>The facilities/equipment is accessible to females than males.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>The non availability of sports facilities/equipment at the colleges discourage females from participate in physical activity and sports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Female trainees get the chance to utilize the facilities only during official class period.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>The facilities/equipment at the colleges of education is closer to students making it easy for people to participate in sports and physical activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Religion</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Cultural beliefs have a great impact on women participation in sports and physical activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Females who participate in sports are seen as anti-culture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>My religion permits women to participate in sports and physical activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>My religion does not permit me to wear dress which does not cover my head and toes and that restrict me from participating in physical activity and sports.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Participation in sports promotes many religious values like character building, hard work, and perseverance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Misconceptions</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Sports and physical activity are for men only.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Females who engage in sports and physical activity can’t give birth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Females who play sports and physical activity look masculine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Females who play sports and physical activity are promiscuous.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Females who participate in sports and physical activity are academically weak.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Academic Loads</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>The courses registered for at the colleges of education are too difficult discouraging females from participating in physical activity and sports.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>The number of credit hours per semester prevents female in the colleges of education from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>taking part in physical activity and sports.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>The assignments are too loaded leaving no time for females who wants to participate in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>physical activity and sports.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>Most females miss a lot of lectures because they play sports for the colleges making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>them perform poorly academically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Lack of Sports Skill Foundation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>Females in the college lack the basic skill to play sports in the colleges.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Most female in the colleges do not play sports because they did not have good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>foundation in the senior high schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Females who play sports for the colleges have high skill levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>Females are denied space to practice skills learnt making it difficult for them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to participate in the colleges.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Social Role</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>The role of females is to learn how to cook not to participate in physical activity and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sports at the college.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>Females are expected to learn value that will help them to nurture their babies not to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>participate in physical activity and sports.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>Sports participation helps females to develop the attitude of dependency which is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>prohibited by society.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>According to the societal roles sports is for men not women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>Females who participate in physical activity and sports are considered in the as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>outcast.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Females in my college who wants to play sports have no equipment to use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>The sports equipments are accessible on during official class periods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Students can go and sing for sport equipments and return them at their own convenience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>More female would have participated in physical activity and sports if there were enough equipment.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX B

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
Department of Health, Physical Education & Recreation

Ref: ED/MPE/13/0003/6

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

The bearer of this letter, Ms Abena Adasia Nkunnah with Registration number ED/MPE/13/0003, is a student of the above-named department who is pursuing Master of Philosophy (Physical Education). She is working on a thesis that may require administering questionnaire at your institution. The data collected will be used for academic purposes only and you are assured of absolute confidentiality of any information given.

We would therefore be very grateful if she is given the assistance she may need from your outfit.

We count on your usual co-operation.

Thank you.

Dr. Charles Dornfeh
For: Head of Dept.