



**UNIVERSITY OF PELOPONNE
FACULTY OF HUMAN MOVEMENT AND
QUALITY OF LIFE SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF SPORTS
ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT**

MASTER'S THESIS

**“OLYMPIC STUDIES, OLYMPIC EDUCATION, ORGANIZATION
AND MANAGEMENT OF OLYMPIC EVENTS”**

**EXPERIENCES OF WOMEN IN SPORT LEADERSHIP: THE
CASE OF ZAMBIA**

Tomaida Phiri

Supervisor: Kristine, Margaret Toohey
Professor

Sparta, January, 2016



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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my children Gladys Tamera Mbale, Georgina Towera Mbale, Gerald Tamika Mbale and George Themba Edwin Zulu. I fail to find words that can perfectly describe what the four of you mean to me. For you, even love is not enough. There should be something more!

ABSTRACT

Research studies on women leaders have been on the increase over the last few years. It is, however, worth noting that research on African women in leadership is not fully developed or done despite the exemplary performance of African women in sports over the past number of years. To a large extent, African women in sports leadership remain rare or invisible. Therefore, this study endeavoured to examine experiences of women in sport leadership in Zambia. A number of women leaders including Physical Education (PE) teachers, pupils and sport administrators were selected from various institutions, organizations and education institutions in Kabwe and Lusaka districts of Zambia. These responses were examined as they relate to their socialization, education and training, work and family lives, the challenges experienced, and how they are able to negotiate these in a male dominated world. This study is built on the 2004 International Olympic committee and Institute of Sport, Leisure Policy study on the women in National Olympic Committee (NOCs) from different nations around the world. It has highlighted important roles that women sports leaders play in the development of sports. The researcher hopes that the findings from the study will influence the National Sports Council policy in Zambia, helping to create more opportunities for women and girls as participants and leaders in sport, operating in line with the 'Sport For All' mandate of the International Olympic Committee (IOC), whose, among other purposes, is to promote active lifestyles and assisting in the crafting of legislative policy directives to augment promotion of women to position of leadership in sports.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CaLD	Culturally and Linguistically Diverse
CDC	Curriculum Development Centre
CSO	Central Statistics Office
GRZ	Government Republic of Zambia
HOD	Head of Department
MoE	Ministry of Education
NOC	National Olympic Committee
NOWSPAR:	National Organization for Women in Sport, Physical Activity and Recreation
NSC	National Sports Council
PE	Physical Education
PEO	Provincial Educational Officer
PESO	Principal Education Standard Officer
SESO	Senior Education Standard Officer
TTC	Teachers' Training College

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

For a long time women have been expected to live up to traditional gender roles that are held by both men and women in mainstream society. While they have made notable progress in leadership in business corporations, little has changed in the sport industry with still far fewer women than men in senior decision-making positions in sports management. These gender roles often resulted in women being dissuaded from involvement in sectors of society, including participating and competing in sport. The lack of gender equality in sport could also be seen as a missed opportunity for the sport sector. Research and developments in sport have shown that better skilled and educated women and men could lead to interesting benefits on personal, organisational and societal levels. But given the fact that historically, sports leadership in Zambia has been synonymous with men, the main objective of this study was to identify the roles women fulfil in sports leadership, highlight the challenges women encounter in sports leadership and to identify how women in sports leadership overcome challenges.

1.1. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY.

Among the subjects studied in Zambian schools at primary and secondary levels is Physical Education (PE). Like all other subjects, PE is on the school curriculum because many people believe that there in its content; aims and methods learners can acquire and make their lives more meaningful and worthwhile. People widely accept that the deeper purpose of education cultivates the minds of the learners so that they can accomplish all or most of their aims in life. Education should enable the individual to use the full potential of their body and mind.

Women's participation in sport is influenced in a multitude of ways, both positively and negatively, directly and indirectly, internally and externally,

and intentionally or unintentionally. What motivates girls and women to participate will change over time and factors influencing participation will have multiple cultural and social origins. Program designers and providers can leverage the subtle influences that people and environments can have on the motivations of girls and women to participate in sports programs. Females within segments of the population; including persons with disability; culturally and linguistically diverse (CaLD) groups; Indigenous; young girls, teenagers and mature age Australians; are generally under-represented in sport participation when compared to their male cohort. Therefore, concerns exist that gender bias may be preventing half our population from receiving the full benefit of participation in sport and physical activity.

The Ministry of Education (MoE, 1977:2) urged the government to pay special attention to schools because “. . . education plays an important role in human capital formation, particularly in developing the types of knowledge, skills, values and competencies necessary for economic development and social welfare.” The mission statement of the MoE (1996) “. . . is to guide the provision of education for all Zambians so that they are able to pursue knowledge and skills, manifest excellence in performance and moral uprightness. . . .” Besides this, the MoE sees schools as strong agents of social change in the communities. In 1996, the Zambian government re-emphasised the importance and roles schools should play in lives of individuals, especially the learners and society as a whole. According to **Educating Our Future** (MoE 1996:29) “. . . the overarching mission of schools and education are to promote the full and well-rounded development of physical and intellectual qualities of individuals and communities.” PE and sports too offers a positive effect on the intellectual development of children. Therefore, the emphasis needs be that learners be holistically educated so that they can co-exist with others in society without major problems or conflicts. If conflicts arise, they should be able to resolve them peacefully.

Women's Sport and Fitness Foundation (2008) pointed out that "The many reasons for this gender gap between men's and women's participation rates in sport can be grouped into practical, personal and social and cultural domains. This overview can provide ideas for sports deliverers to implement that may encourage and enable women and girls to participate more." Practical barriers include the lack of child care, cost, transport and access to facilities, and lack of specific clothing and equipment. Personal barriers include body image, personal safety, parental and adult influence on young girls, and lack of self-confidence. Social and cultural barriers include a male-dominated sport culture, lack of media representation of the role of women in sport, attitudes and prejudices about sexuality and ability, and sexual harassment and abuse.

1.2. STATEMENT OF THE STUDY.

This gender imbalance makes one wonder whether the gender imbalance in sports' leadership positions is caused because women choose not to become administrator or whether there are obstacles which prevent them of becoming leaders. While the representation of women in sports continues to be of great interest, it is important to note that most of the researches have been limited to 'Developed' countries. However, this study interested itself with experience of women in sports leadership in Zambia

1.3. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY.

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to establish the experience of women in sports leadership in Zambia; that is, roles women fulfil in sports leadership, challenges they encounter and how they overcome the challenges.

1.4. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY.

The objectives answer the question: What does one wants to archive?

Hence, we state them as:

1. To identify the roles women fulfil in sports leadership
2. To highlight the challenges women encounter in sports leadership.
3. To identify how women in sports leadership overcome challenges.

1.5. RESEARCH QUESTION.

Since women leadership in sports is supported and encouraged by ‘The National Organization for Women in Sport, Physical Activity and Recreation’ (NOWSPAR) the study operationalized the objectives into the following research questions:

1. What roles do women fulfil in sports leadership?
2. What challenges do women in sports leadership encounter?
3. How do women in sports leadership overcome these challenges?

1.6. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY.

This section presents a detailed outline of the theoretical elements that will undergird this research. In Social Sciences, according to Bogdan, et al (1957:1), there are two major theoretical perspectives which dominate. The first is, positivism, which originated from Emile Durkheim in 1897. This theory seeks facts and causes of social phenomena with little regard for the subjectivity of individuals. Within this positivist tradition, much social research and theory followed the path of the natural sciences with the result that it overlooked the human dimension or the ‘inner perspective’. Attention focused on data of sense, neglecting data of consciousness (Bogdan, et al 1997:1). The second dominant theory in the Social Sciences is phenomenology. This theory centres on understanding human behaviour from the actor’s outlook. Kombo & Tromp (2006:94) point out that, “The phenomenological approach differs particularly from

the positivist in that it focuses on data of consciousness and human meaning.” In this phenomenological context, it becomes difficult to speak of ‘objectivity’ for according to Weber (1949:72), “There is no absolute ‘objective’ scientific analysis of culture . . . ” This means that the phenomenologist begins by ‘suspending’ or ‘bracketing’ his or her previous ideas, thoughts, opinions or beliefs. However, there will be few admitted exceptions to the exactitude of this orientation, which are in part due to its limitations. This is clearly put by Borg (1989:61) who states, “The scholar is to a great extent committed to the ideas of his age. When he begins studies, he is already influenced by his biases towards the issue.”

1.7. ASSUMPTION OF THE STUDY.

This study assumed that the contribution of women in sports is hinged on the importance they attached to leadership. Sports help in addressing multicultural issues. It further assumed that sports helps in promoting understanding in order to reduce tensions in society.

Based on my experiences in sports administration and education, I made various assumptions. First is that the women sports leaders’ choices of career are influenced by various factors such as family and education, leading to their present positions as leaders in sports. The second assumption is that as leaders, women in sports have specific roles to play and that they engage in various decision-making processes in their place of work. The third assumption is that in the course of their long careers in sports, women have developed a style of leadership which suits their specific roles within particular environments. Fourth is the assumption that given the fact that women in sports operate in a male dominated environment, they encounter various organizational or social-cultural barriers and challenges in their place of work. The fifth assumption is that in their course of work and long careers, the women in sports leadership must have devised strategies for overcoming the challenges that they encounter that enabled them to perform their duties.

1.8. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY.

The academic relevance of this study was to contribute to the understanding of how women in male dominated environments can be motivated to challenge the masculine hegemony. This study focused on the sport environment, in particular leadership, but the factors uncovered might also be relevant to women working in other male dominated environments.

The study adds a new cultural dimension to the study of leadership, and serves as a basis for more research in the area of women in sports in Africa and Zambia in particular. It is acknowledged that the roles of women as leaders cannot be ignored; hence the need for leadership development. In addition, through research, the needs of the Zambian women can be identified, highlighted, and improved.

This study also furthers understanding in the field of leadership development. This field is rarely researched (Avolio *et al.*, 2009, p. 424, 442). This study tries to uncover factors that are of importance in motivating tomorrow's leaders. Are factors such as the leader's gender, leadership type and role congruency of importance to the intention of followers to become leaders themselves? This study also aims to improve understanding in this question.

The social relevance of this study relates to the fundamental right of gender equality and equal opportunities (in the workplace) and how to fix these social inequalities. Furthermore, women's sport is one of the fastest growing sports in the Zambia and sport is often seen as carrying many benefits for participants. With sport being such a positive influence on society, it is inexplicable why women are underrepresented in coaching and administrative ranks.

Very few studies have been conducted in Africa or addressed experiences of women in sports leadership from the African women's perspectives. Given the paucity of research on women in sports leadership in Africa, this study explored experiences of women in Physical Education, coaching and

sports administration, who served in various sports organizations and educational institutions in Zambia. As women increasingly take up leadership roles, the need to explore their experiences in the male dominated organizations is paramount, hence the conduction of the current study.

1.9. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY.

The attitude that this researcher sought, therefore, was to try to minimise some recognised perceptions in order that a fresh look at the issue under study may yield new insights and lead to greater understanding. Great efforts were taken into consideration to ensure that biases and prejudices were avoided. However, this is not to say that this is a crystal clear research.

The main limitation in this study was the methodological limitation. Qualitative research attempts to understand and make sense of a phenomenon from the participant's perspectives; however, the human instrument has shortcomings and biases. The subjective nature of qualitative research questions the trustworthiness of qualitative research, leading to what Merriam (2002) refers to as the reliability and validity dilemma, questioned as well is the challenge of controlling for researcher bias and establishing the trustworthiness of qualitative approach (Maxwell, 2005). Since the researcher is the main instrument for data collection, lack of transparency could result in difficulties in establishing data collection and data analysis methods.

The use of interviews to get primary information from respondents was preferred. This proved difficult because part of the target population have either left Zambia or retired. It was neither easy nor cheap to contact some of those who have moved to other places even retired via email or phone calls.

Secondary data was also associated with limitations. Bias derived from the sports administrators from other country who documented the record may

not be accurate for example, various expatriate leaders could have written to please their 'home' countries.

Limitations of operational definitions: no one can fully define a phenomenon. One can use any operational definitions but should use operational definitions similar to those in use and which are consistent with historical reference avoids initial struggle.

1.10. DELIMITATION OF THE RESEARCH.

Delimitations are choices made by the researcher which should be mentioned. They describe the boundaries that s/he has set for the study. They define the parameters of the investigation. They frequently deal with such items as population, sample and/or instrumentation.

This study included Kabwe districts of Central province and excluded five other districts namely: Itezhi-Tezhi (newly added), Kapiri Mposhi, Mkushi, Mumbwa and Serenje. These districts were left out because there are no major sporting activities there. It also included Lusaka district of Lusaka.

It included the two districts (Kabwe and Lusaka) and excluded six districts; Chibombo Itezhi-Tezhi, Kapiri Mposhi, Mkushi, Mumbwa and Serenje due to the researcher's limited sources of income and time.

1.11. OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS.

Robson (2002:73) indicated that "The need for operational definitions is fundamental when collecting all types of data. It is particularly important when a decision is being made about whether something is correct or incorrect, or when a visual check is being made where there is room for confusion." An operational definition, when applied to data collection, is a clear, concise detailed definition of a measure. Good definitions in science are used so others can better understand research methods, findings and interpretations. (See also Punch 2005:81). Operational definitions should therefore be made before the collection of data begins.

Punch (2005:83) indicates that “There are two types of operational definitions namely: first, ‘Experimental’, e.g., illustrates how term referents are manipulated and second, ‘Measured’, e.g., describes how referents of a term are measured. ”The main purpose of operational definition is control. By understanding what one is measuring, one can control for it by holding the variable constant between all of the groups or manipulating it as an independent variable.

Robson (2002:79) outlines that “There are three advantages of operational definitions.” Firstly, they make research methodology used clearer to readers. Second, confine statements to things either directly or indirectly observable i.e. empirical. Third, helps assure good communication by specifying how terms are used.

In this study key concepts comprised the following:

Class monitor: It is a leadership position where a student is assigned the responsibility of maintaining order in the classroom. He or she is a class representative and normally reports to the teacher.

Coaches: Persons that are involved in coaching of clubs and in school institutions.

Curriculum: Includes, the subjects or elements of subject that are taught at a school or institution. It also includes topics that are taught within a subject.

Development: This is the process of changing and becoming more impressive, successful or advanced from the previous one. It refers to improvement in the way of doing things and looking at situations. In terms of education, it means a greater improvement in terms of content, methods, aims and content of the subject or curriculum.

Education: means different things to different people for it embraces a lot of issues, but it is generally agreed that it is a process. For Peters (1966), education is “an initiation into worthwhile pursuits”. That is, education concerns itself with initiating young people into what is worthwhile. Emile

Durkheim (1971) defines education as “the systematic socialization of the younger generation by which the later learn religious and moral beliefs, feelings of nation and collective opinion of all kinds.” Farrant (1994:67) also sees education as the “process of changing behaviour patterns of people by exposing them to a kind of knowledge, which is worthwhile and capable of achieving a voluntary and committed response from the learner.” The traditional people of Zambia, whose education is basically informal, is meant to prepare the young ones to fit into their respective societies. This type of education is all-encompassing – religious, social, economic and so on. Again, this research adopts Durkheim`s definition of education, for it fits into the scope of education as it is viewed in here.

Leadership: It is a process by which one person influences the thoughts, attitudes, and behaviours of others. Leaders set a direction for the rest of us; they help us see what lies ahead; they help us visualize what we might achieve; they encourage us and inspire us. Without leadership a group of human beings quickly degenerates into argument and conflict, because we see things in different ways and lean toward different solutions. Leadership helps to point us in the same direction and harness our efforts jointly.

Physical Educators: Those women with an educational background or specialists in Physical Education. They may be serving as teachers or instructors in colleges.

Senior secondary: program of public or private education immediately following junior schooling. It is an upper secondary school that includes grade 10 through grade 12. It leads to advanced training in colleges, universities, or technical schools. The purpose of senior secondary education is to expand knowledge of subjects already studied, for physical and intellectual development and to prepare pupils as future citizens.

Sports Administrators: Women in leadership who were elected or co-opted to serve in various positions in sports organizations

1.12. STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION

This dissertation is divided into five chapters. The first chapter gives the general background of the study by giving an overview of women in sports in the world, Zambia in particular, in relation to their leadership experiences, their role in sports. It also gave a brief history of gender imbalance in sports leadership. The chapter, further, gives the background of the study. The other components of this chapter are; statement of the problem, the objectives of the study and the research questions. The significance of study is also dealt with in this chapter. Finally, the chapter provided the operational definitions of the terms used in this study.

Chapter two reviews the literature related to this study. In this chapter, I attempted to answer the research questions. The chapter starts by giving a brief introduction on the importance of sports and sports leadership before reviewing the literature relevant to each three stated objective.

Chapter three looks at the methods used in the collection and analysis of data. The research design which was used is stated here. The chapter provides information on; location of study, study population, sampling technique, sample size, and specific data collection tools that were used (e.g., interview schedules, questionnaires, documents and records). The chapter concludes with information on data analysis and the ethical consideration.

Chapter four is a presentation of the findings from the field and the discussions of the findings. Data collected through document analysis, in-depth interviews and questionnaires form the body of this chapter. In this same chapter, I interpreted the findings.

Finally, in chapter five, I summarized my research, concluded the results of the study and made appropriate recommendations.

Having outlined the structure to my research, I now move to the next chapter which analyses the literature that supports my study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviewed the literature the experience of women in sports leadership in Zambia; that is, their leadership experience in sports. It was important to do so because it puts this particular study in line with what has already been written about this topic. First, a critical analysis of the roles women fulfil in sports leadership was undertaken. Its purposeful implications can be more accurately identified, interpreted and understood when its genesis is known and grasped. Second, the challenges women encounter in sports leadership, were also dealt with in details. Third, how women in sports leadership overcome challenges was studied as well. The review of literature starts with a general historical overview of importance of leadership in sports, politics and the corporate world.

2.1. GENERAL BACKGROUND.

Few things are more important to human activity than leadership. In their work, Pfister & Radtke (2009:173) pointed out that “Effective leadership helps our nation through times of peril. It makes a business organization successful.” It enables a not-for-profit organization to fulfil its mission. The effective leadership of parents enables children to grow strong and healthy and become productive adults.

Communication skills are essential for any leader to have, develop and use. A sports leader must have a clear voice and a command over the language that dominates the performers in the sport being delivered. They, Pfister & Radtke (2009:177), further point out that, “Many people are chosen to be a captain or a coach in their sport due to their experience as a player at a very high level.” However, although they may have an excellent understanding of the sport, if they cannot communicate effectively they will not be able to pass this knowledge on. Delivering information effectively is important, but to do this, you must also listen.

Listening carefully to performers as they acquire skills may help you to improve the performance of the player. Listening to performers' experiences of playing may clarify areas of difficulty that you, as a leader, may not be able to see. Communication is a two-way process for the improvement of performance.

Soucie (1994: 11) has clearly stated that "As a sports leader, part of your role will be to impart knowledge and advice to team members. In order to do this, you need to have a positive relationship with your team mates." You also need to be positive about the area of delivery you are commenting upon but remember that this does not mean only offering positive comments. The team will not be able to improve if you concentrate only on their strengths and neglect to highlight weaknesses. Such comments can be put in a positive way, by giving constructive advice and offering solutions. A further role of a sports leader is to help other performers to achieve their goals. You can directly influence a team member's performance by discussing it with them. You can also influence performance by being a role model or inspiration in their sport. For example, Pelé (in football) and Steve Redgrave (in rowing) were the world's best in their sports. Each continues to be an ambassador for his sport, showing great commitment and the positive attitude that is required for all sports.

2.2. ROLES WOMEN FULFIL IN SPORTS LEADERSHIP

A number of researchers consider education and sports as areas where the gender roles are continuously perpetuated, and a place where the dominant group controls the agenda (Zaleznik 2004). Although various national and international bodies have ratified policies such as Affirmative Action and the Equal Opportunities Acts, women continue to be underrepresented in most leadership positions, an obvious disconnect between policy and practice. The passing of some of the legislation such as the Brighton Declaration in the United Kingdom was met with a lot of resistance from men as they saw it as a form of "reverse discrimination" and a way of denying them their rightful positions (Soucie, 1994). The empowerment

policies are yet to be fully implemented in some countries which further disenfranchise the women in leadership.

In his analysis, Bass (1997:193) has indicated that “While the international bodies acknowledge the existing inequities and have adopted a number of legislative laws and policies for the empowerment of women, the progress of women to leadership positions has been slow.” Despite the phenomenon increase of women acquiring higher education and gaining entry into the labour market, the progress of women into leadership positions has not been proportional with the changes. Few women occupy decision making positions. Statistics from around the world attest to the unequal representation of women in leadership positions: the 2006 American Association of University Professors (AAUP) report showed that there were 66 % men, and 34 % women professors; 43% women, and 66% men were tenured (Cohen 2001). In 2005, 14.7% women held board seats in the Fortune 500 companies, but only 2.4% were in the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) position (ibid, 2001). The 2000 world wide representation of women in parliament was 5100 (13.8%), and that out of 179 nations around the world, only 39 had ever elected women as prime minister or president.

Generally, sports remain a male dominated arena, especially in leadership positions, where women are seen as intruders (ibid, 2001). Despite the different social, religious and cultural factors that distinguish communities around the world, one thing that remains common to all humanity is gender and how it is constructed and maintained, indicating that most of the societies around the world support the notions of gender differences. In Europe, the Victorian conceptions depicted women as frail and inferior (Bass 1997). While men were in paid employment in commerce and industry, women concentrated on domestic work and raised children. The same reasons were used to deny women a chance to participate in sports as illustrated in the following section that focuses on women at the Olympics and women leaders’ roles in physical education and sports.

After successfully lobbying for equal access to education and employment, women became bolder in their demands for equal rights, and succeeded in getting women allowed to participate in the Olympics games. With the expansion of education, USA and European nations recognized the importance of sports and physical education programs, and introduced them to the university and colleges academic programs (Cohen, 2001). However, men and women's sports and PE programs were conducted separately. For women leaders in sports and PE, "separate spheres" strategy ensured that women could have equal access to sports and PE without interfering in men's sport (Park, 2010; Poulsen, 2004). Women were only allowed to participate in certain sports that were modified in accordance with the prescribed feminine requirements. In Belgium, women PE and sports leaders introduced girls' physical education programs in schools, as well as in women's Teacher training colleges. Moreover, aggressive appointment of women as inspectors of girls PE in school and promotion of gymnastics as a women's activity helped create an identity for women's PE and sports (Cohen 2001). Notably, highly educated professionals who were committed to promoting sports for all women managed women's sports, and these professionals were opposed to the men-preferred competitive sports because they wanted to expand opportunities for women's participation in sports.

Women physical educators were proactive in advocating for participation of women in sports. These pioneer physical educators played tripartite roles of teachers, coaches and administrators (Eddy & Cox 2008). In addition to these multiple roles, they used their organizations to develop women's physical education programs in the universities. While men sports showed preference for competitive sports which were viewed as promoting individualism, women leaders resisted the idea of competitive sports for women, and instead preferred the participation-for-all model, encouraging the development of a culture that allowed everyone to benefit from the sports experience.

The Women Sports Foundation's report on sports leadership in United Kingdom's (UK) executives in administration and coaching revealed leadership to be a male dominated sphere, and in all major of sports governing bodies, men occupied leadership positions. For instance, Eisenstein (1999:82) indicated that "The Central Council for Physical Recreation's executive body consisted of 24% female and 76 % male, and in UK sports funded bodies, high performance directors and coaches comprised 19% female and 81% male." The British Universities Sports association's executives and committees members included 39% females and 61% males. In coaching, the Institute of Leisure and Amenities employed 12% female and 88% male coaches, with active sports coaches accounting for 34% female and 60% male population. In addition, the 2000 Olympics games had less than 5% representation of women as coaches or team managers (Women's Sports Foundation, 2004).

Studies on sport specific socialization show that exposure to sporting environments and availability of resources influenced women leaders to develop interest in sports. Researchers further confirm that a majority of women leaders attribute their socialization into sports to family, school experiences, and peer interactions (Eisenstein, 1999:82). These studies show that majority of women attribute their participation in sports and career choices to encouragement and support from parents, partners as well as friends. Exposure to activities through availing of opportunities and being involved in the activities fosters the development of skills and also enhances positive socialization. Additionally, developing special interests in sports leadership, as well as involvement in volunteer work in sport, and extracurricular activities were found to enhance individuals' chances in gaining entry into leadership positions. Eisenstein (1999) study found that the majority of school principals applied the leadership skills acquired from their days as competitive athletes to their management of schools.

Gender equality in sport is primarily the responsibility of national and local stakeholders and efforts should be made at a local level to address the role of women and men in the governing bodies of sport. This includes access to clubs, improved access to coaching courses, changing stereotypes and safety and security arrangements. However, this should not depend on private local initiatives only and there is a need for a sustainable approach to the whole sport sector, as part of a policy and or legal framework.

2.3. CHALLENGES WOMEN ENCOUNTER IN SPORTS LEADERSHIP.

Overall, gender differences in the rate of sports participation exist across all activities (including participants, coaches, officials, administrators and Board Directors), age categories, and in most population sub-groups.

Patriarchy and associated beliefs are operational within structures of organizational that put men's careers in positions of high visibility, expediting men's ascendancy to leadership roles, while pastoral or counselling roles assigned to women inhibit their visibility and career progress (Coleman, 1996). In the corporate world, women are typically "shunted" into staff roles or human resources, invisible positions that they cannot emerge from them. The women's 'shunted position is explained by the "glass walls" metaphor, which describes situations that denies women opportunities to serve in other capacities so as to gain the necessary experience required for promotion to leadership. Unrealistic demands placed on the women leaders by the organizations are also seen as intended to frustrate women into submissive positions. Studies show that when women reach the highest CEO positions, the assigned duties maybe overwhelming because they are high risk in nature and are specifically designed to "set them up for failure". Additionally, the use of long hours of work as criteria for effective leadership disqualifies women from pursuing leadership positions (Pfister & Radtke, 2009). This assumption disregards the extra domestic work responsibilities that women often engage in hence discriminating women during recruitment.

Lack of structural, organizational, and financial support often prevent women from performing their duties or even accessing leadership positions. Most women successful in their leadership roles attributed their success to the support that they got from their families, friends, and organizations. Rappoport (2005:102) found out that “Women sport leaders in Morocco identified differential treatment and resource allocation as obstacles to women sports.” Often, the female leaders were not consulted or involved in the decision making process and there was a clear preference for men’s sports. His analysis of gendered stereotypes in sports found deeply rooted decision-making process, where decisions were made on behalf of women, basically as if they were not there. Failure to recognize and compensate women appropriately for their roles and achievements and to provide them with much needed resources undermines women’s authority. The above study found that although women were accorded positions of leadership in universities and were dedicated to improving their communities, they were neither recognized nor rewarded, and their designated leadership positions were not similar to men.

The social construction of gender depicts a woman as being weak, frail and not as capable of any physically or intellectually strenuous activities when compared to men (ibid, 2005). Gender role socialization enhances subordination of women to men. Gender stereotypes formed throughout one’s life’s experiences may be difficult to separate from the person. Negative cultural socialization perpetuates the belief that women are not suited for leadership positions and also influence the type of decisions that they make. These decisions are based on the attitudes and perception of women as leaders. He further maintains that self-limiting behaviours reinforce the gendered stereotypes about women’s ability to lead and negatively affect their self-confidence. The social dominance theory views society cultures, beliefs and socialization systems, which assign men superior roles to those of women as normal. Further the theory posits that at some point, both the marginalized groups and the dominant groups tend

to agree and accept this situation as normal and thus cannot challenge the existing inequalities.

Lack of confidence is cited as a barrier to women's progress or promotion to leadership. Women rarely apply for leadership positions because of lack of confidence. In fact, some have admitted to being forced to apply for leadership positions (Coleman, 1996). These self-limiting behaviours can be explained using Sherrow's feminine modesty theory. Sherrow (1996:82) where she pointed out that, "Feminine modesty theory is where one downplays her abilities, and instead promotes the contributions of others." Feminine modesty theory impinges on women's careers and access to leadership positions and economic rewards. It is noted that while self-promotion behaviours are rare in women, men use these self-promoting behaviours to access leadership positions and gain economic rewards.

Women's roles as mothers and professionals are entwined, and it is a twofold identity and a connection of mother and child, with their private and public spheres. Most women plan their careers to coincide with their family situation, taking into consideration the needs of their children and spouse (Sherrow, 1996). This is particularly true and challenging for women in different careers because they have to resolve existing tensions that may arise at the peak of their careers, when job promotion or tenure track decisions coincide with their childbearing years. Despite the equal opportunity legislation laws, research indicates that women still take the largest domestic responsibilities, including taking career breaks, and even deferring job promotion for the sake of the family, when compared with men. Essentially, women make these decisions based on their values for the family and also based on the traditional gender roles, where child rearing and other domestic responsibilities are considered to belong to women. Such decisions have negative implications on the progress of women into leadership, and result in low representation of women in leadership positions. It is apparent that amidst the changing trends of increased entry of women into formal employment, the traditional gender

roles still uphold, as Sherrow (1996:87) pointed out that “One thing has stayed the same: it is still women who adjust their lives to accommodate the needs of children, who do what is necessary to make a home, who forego status, income, advancement and independence.” However, for contemporary career women, delayed motherhood and choice of a career over family becomes the only way to sustaining career growth and progress.

Most barriers to sports participation among girls and women have been attributed to sociological and cultural influences. Although social attitudes toward participation by females in sport activities have changed dramatically over time, the predominant social ‘view’ of sport, as portrayed in print and electronic media, is still male oriented. In his book, Sullivan (2007:72) is of the view that “Gender stereotypes exist across society and within its various institutions and sport has a traditional stereotype of being a male dominated activity.” This research supports the fact that very few differences exist between the participation patterns and attitudes of boys and girls under the age of 12 years. However, as girls mature there are social and cultural, and perhaps biological, considerations that impact upon their decision to participate in sport during adolescence and throughout life. Sports participation becomes one of many lifestyle choices influenced by a complex interaction of factors.

Social research by Sullivan (2007) in the United Kingdom reports similar barriers and drivers to women's participation in sport, particularly organised sport. National governing bodies for sport in the United Kingdom are challenged with encouraging more women to take up sport and physical activity on a more frequent basis. Latest consumer research suggests that traditional formal sport, as offered by sports clubs, does not appeal to the majority of women and that there is a need for more informal or social based sports programs. This report identifies barriers that prevent women from participating more fully in sport and physical activity, why informal sport activities are more appealing, and what these participants want. The report also examines the role of the coach. Three sports and

their programs were examined in detail: Football (Just Play), Badminton (No Strings) and Athletics (Run England); participants and coaches in these sports formed the basis for the research conducted. Reported barriers to participation included: (1) the cost of club membership, equipment, and venue hire; (2) activities that were socially isolating; (3) worry about skill level, and; (4) logistics of organising. The reported appeal of participation in informal sport and physical activity was: (1) motivation from the group; (2) convenience; (3) fun (no pressure to perform); (4) meeting people and socialising with friends; (5) visible improvement in fitness and performance.

The volume of sports coverage of female athletes compared to male athletes offers disproportionate exposure to male sporting activities on Australian television, despite the ongoing successes of Australian women in international sport. Coverage of women in sport made up only 9% of all sports coverage in Australian television news, while 7% of non-news television programming content was devoted to female sport. Male sport, on the other hand, occupied 81% of television news reporting and 86% of non-news programming. Television news reports about female sports on average were 30 seconds shorter than reports on male sports. The relatively low volume of reporting and comparatively low duration of air time given to female sport, when compared to women's success and participation rates, implicitly give male sports more significance on Australian television.

According to the International Olympic Committee (2000), "Australian Broadcasting Corporation (ABC) provided the best representation of women in sport when compared to other providers." It was noted that female sport was the focus of 11% of television news coverage on ABC1 (Sydney and Melbourne). For non-news programming in the Sydney market, ABC1 and ABC2 were the only stations with more female sport than male sport coverage by duration. In television news coverage, Channel Nine (Sydney) and Channel Ten (Melbourne) were at the lower

end of the spectrum, with only 6% of all sports coverage devoted to female sport.

Despite the extreme disparity in the amount television media coverage across female sports, it is important to note that the tone and content of reports on female athletes and female sport have markedly improved when compared to previous studies. In print and television commentary and reporting there was a remarkable absence of stereotyping of female athletes. Women were very rarely portrayed in a sexual way; they were most frequently portrayed as competitive and successful. Glamourised shots of female athletes were concentrated in entertainment media and not sports reporting. While gender-based stereotypes in news reporting on sport were rare, sport in Australia was represented in the electronic media as a traditionally male culture that draws on a rich spectrum of narratives, with female sport as its less-complex, more-novel other.

The tone of coverage of female sport (in general) was more favourable than the tone used to describe some male sports, both in year-round coverage and reporting on the Olympics. This can largely be attributed to the focus on unfavourable behaviour of some male athletes and the media's presentation of their actions. However, the comparatively favourable tone of media coverage of women's sport may be a double-edged sword, as it also reflects a view that female athletes need to win in order to secure media coverage, whereas male athletes are discussed in media regardless of their success. Writing about the media in sports, Eisenstein (1999:115) stated that "The media focus on male athlete behaviour stems from an acknowledgment of them as sporting professionals, and often role models, in a way that was not as apparent in the coverage of female athletes." This reinforces the male dominance of sporting culture in Australia. In both coverage of the Olympics and year-round television news reporting, there is a perception that men are more likely to have something interesting to say about sport than women. Furthermore, the proportion of men speaking about female sport was greater than the proportion of female spokespeople discussing male sport.

Coverage of female athletes during the Olympic Games, unlike year-round coverage of sport, showed that the two genders received a more equal proportion of time on television and women were more likely to be discussed in contexts beyond simply results (such as training and preparation, and as part of the sporting industry). The analysis of television news coverage of the Paralympics shows coverage of female athletes competing at the Games (23%) to be greater than year round coverage (9%).

During year-round coverage of sports, the range of female sports was comparatively narrow and focused on tennis, surfing, cycling, golf and netball. 250 television journalists reported on male sport, while only 82 journalists reported on female sport. This is, in part, a reflection of the fact that male sport tends to spill over into the mainstream news. It may also be the case that journalists are better equipped and commissioned to report on male sports.

A look at media coverage during the 2012 London Olympic Games is the central theme of the report: For two weeks every four years the Olympics provides audiences around the world with a kaleidoscope of sport, showcasing many 'minor' sports alongside mainstream sports. This report presents the results of research conducted during the 2012 London Olympic Games on the way media represented the Games and examines two key issues. First, the interdependent relationship of mainstream media and certain sports; and second, the 'gendering' of sport and media. The report does not challenge the interdependent relationship between media and major international men's sports (i.e. football, cricket, motor sports, golf and basketball, etc.) and its merchandising and attendance; this would require a major shift in our cultural preferences. Since this is unlikely, the prospect of equal media coverage of men's and women's sport and better access to sponsorship deals by women's sport is at best 'inspirational' and at worst 'naive'. To find solutions this report suggests that new debates need to be explored, new realities need to be realised, and there needs to be fixed points which can be periodically measured to demonstrate

change.

Evidence over the past thirty years shows that during major sporting events media coverage of women's sports increases, yet outside such events coverage remains stuck at less than 10%. During the Olympic Games the coverage given to women in certain sports increased substantially. However, overall the balance remained weighted toward men's sport. By way of comparison, Jamaican Usain Bolt and compatriot Shelly-Ann Fraser-Pryce won their respective 100m gold medals, but received different degrees of attention. For the small nation of Jamaica the men and women sprinters deliver high level performances on the international stage, but the recognition of those performances is different. There is no question that Bolt is a big personality and the media gives him a stage which he fills with achievements and with himself. By way of contrast Pryce is not given such a stage as big nor as often. The Olympic Games can reflect the national and cultural gender norms that influence profiles of athletes at home and abroad. The International Olympic Committee has claimed gender equality by simply looking at numbers; but as this report discusses, this is a superficial measurement which does not tell the whole story.

Australian Sports Commission (2001) provides a snapshot of the media, sport and gender relationships during the Olympic Games which is very complex. The report offers commentary that is intended to provoke debate and discussion that goes beyond the recognition that men and women athletes are treated differently by media and society. To realise social change that makes a positive difference to the lives of both men and women, this report advocates further research, measurement, discussion, professional development training and co-ordinated action.

The disparity in media coverage by gender is not unique to Australia. A study of gender inequities among European Union countries looked at each country's ability to meet the EU's 'Sport for All Charter'. The United Kingdom, France, and Spain were among countries that did not meet the

EU targets; while Denmark, Finland, Sweden, and the Netherlands were generally more successful in eliminating gender inequities. The Women's Sport and Fitness Foundation (WSFF) in the United Kingdom has been tracking the amount of media coverage given to women's sport and has produced a number of reports. Long-term studies of media coverage of women's sport in the United States show that inequities continue to exist and coverage of women's sport does not reflect participation rates of women (Australian Sports Commission (2001)).

Participation rates among women and girls are much lower than men's. The many reasons for this gender gap can be grouped as practical, personal and social and cultural. The Euro barometer on Sport and Physical Activity 2014 highlighted that the participation of girls and women in Europe in general is still not at the same levels of participation as boys and men. In addition, research has shown that the number of women in leadership positions in sport governing bodies in Europe is still very low (average of 10%) with exceptions in some EU Member States and at local level.

Despite some positive action substantial changes through legislation and policies have rarely taken place, with the exception of the Nordic countries, UK and France and in federations such as the International Triathlon Union. Furthermore, employed female coaches are in the minority of the coaches in Europe and often earn less per month on average than their male colleagues with differences of up to 1000 Euros reported for the same type of job.

With the exception of women-only sports organisations, women form a minority in all sports, at all levels, and in all countries when it comes to decision-making positions. The barriers women face in taking on decision making and management positions can partly be explained by the different values, attitudes and behaviours of women and men. Such factors however are also related to equal rights, gender roles, gender regimes and the gender order in society at large and can be considered as cultural barriers. More often organisational processes in sport governing bodies are barriers

as they are related to mechanisms such as 'sex typing of jobs', so that certain personality characteristics and skills that traditionally have been defined as masculine are required and 'stereotyping' leading to masculine connotation.

Commonwealth Games Federation (2006) states that, co-option processes in sport also easily lead to 'homologous reproduction', where leaders elect or appoint new leaders who look like themselves. Women are also at risk in that they don't join networks and so become marginalized. Furthermore, women and men are recruited to different types of positions (gender segregation) leading to leadership positions that have the lowest prestige, i.e. not in national or international sport organisations, and as secretaries and not as presidents. However, the largest barrier seems to be that sports organisations are dominated by a male culture which either excludes women or does not attract, nor accommodate, large groups of women. Having a decision-making position in a voluntary sport governing body requires a heavy investment of time and energy plus a flexible home and work life, and sports organisations are seldom organised to be sensitive to the family responsibilities of decision-makers.

The structures of the sports organisations themselves and the way they are organised and operate are not very often questioned. Furthermore, job search committees, or election committees, which normally consist of men, often use subjective evaluative criteria or profiles in which men will be seen as more qualified than women. In practice this means that men have used their male networks to help them during their job search and hiring process, or during election procedures for administrative positions. Women administrators often feel they are judged by more demanding standards than men.

2.4. HOW WOMEN IN SPORTS LEADERSHIP OVERCOME CHALLENGES.

In spite of the gender stereotypes suggesting women as incapable of leading, there is enough evidence showing women as suited for leadership. Rink (2002:72) is of the view that “Women leaders bring a different perspective to leadership thus the proposition to include more women in leadership positions in various organizations. Despite women being highly educated with excellent credentials, they still remain invisible in leadership positions, making women to constantly search for equal representation in governance. Equality can only be gained through changing the systemic and organizational structures. He further (ibid 2002) suggests that increasing the number of women in the boardroom and other senior management positions can increase the appreciation for diverse talents and enrich the organization. Also, organizations are advised to devise flexible schedule and family friendly reforms such as maternity leave, to accommodate women. Developing social capital and networks can be used to mentor others and help women to develop careers and advance into leadership. As noted before, networks are very crucial in enhancing personal development and acquiring groups’ support as evidenced by the “old boys’ networks,” which have been used by men to enhance their positions in work places, and in sports as well.

The “Law of Sports”, Commonwealth Games Federation (2006) enacted by the Hungarian Parliament in December 2000, ensured equal opportunities for men and women and for boys and girls to choose and participate in sport, contribute to the development of leadership in sport and enjoy funding to execute different sport programmes. It also required all sporting organizations, foundations, federations and committees to raise the participation of women to 10 per cent by November 2001, 20 per cent by November 2002, 30 per cent by November 2003 and 35 per cent by November 2004.

In 2002, the African Sports Confederation of Disabled (ASCOD) established a policy on disabled women's and girls' participation in sport and recreation. The policy aims to increase the participation of women and girls at all levels of sport and recreation in order to achieve gender equality, and calls on the Confederation and its member nations to bear the duty of advising Ministers of Sport on ways to meet the targets set out in the policy.

Regional bodies also address gender equality issues in sport. For example, in 2005, the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe passed recommendation 1701 on discrimination against women and girls in sport. The recommendation calls on the Committee of Ministers to promote women's sport and women's participation in sport; accord greater importance to school-based physical education for women and girls; conduct awareness raising among officials in sport, education and health; support women's participation in top-level sport; ensure equality in terms of pay, prize money and bonuses; ensure that women play a greater role in ruling bodies of sports organizations; conduct an in-depth study of national sport policies; ensure collection of gender-specific statistics; and increase media coverage of women in sport. The recommendation also calls for the combating of sexual abuse in relation to sport, which follows on from the 2000 Council of Europe resolution on the prevention of sexual harassment and abuse of women, young people and children in sport.

Eddy & Cox (2008:48) stated that "The Pakistan Association of Women Sport, affiliated with the national sports organization, is active in promoting women's participation in sports in Pakistan." Believing that sport provides an excellent venue for women to gain confidence and develop decision-making and leadership skills for future life, the Association organizes seminars, clinics and workshops of women leaders in the sports field to promote a cross-cultural exchange of ideas on women in sports and sports decision making. The Association also aims to raise awareness about the development needs of Pakistan, particularly those relating to young women.

The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, quoting the International Olympic Committee (2000) has also reminded States parties, in its general recommendation No. 25 on temporary special measures, that temporary special measures, such as positive action, preferential treatment or quota systems, should be implemented in the areas of sports, culture and recreation. The Committee further emphasized that, where necessary, such measures should be directed at women subjected to multiple discrimination including rural women. Article 10 calls for States parties to take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in order to ensure to them equal rights with men in the field of education, including ensuring the same opportunities to participate actively in sports and physical education.

In 1995, the International Olympic Committee established a Working Group on Women and Sport, which was elevated to the status of a Commission in 2004. The Women and Sport Commission that meet once a year, monitor the participation of women in the Olympics as well as their representation in decision-making. The Commission organizes quadrennial IOC World Conferences on Women and Sport to assess progress made in women and sport within the Olympic Movement, defines priority actions and increases the involvement of women.

Australian Sports Commission (2001) is of the view that “The Montreal Tool Kit was developed for the Third World Conference on Women and Sport as a reference manual containing 20 tools to help women activists working to increase women’s participation in sports.” The manual includes tools on advocacy and awareness-raising, such as creating an advocacy strategy and Non-sexist sport commentary for media; tools for changing organizations, such as ‘Terms of reference for a Women and Sport Committee’ and ‘Sample harassment policy’; tools for individual development, such as building a case for mentoring; and other tools for action, such as measuring your success.

Registers of women in professional management in sport should be established at the local, regional, and national levels so that female candidates are made visible for further recruitment. Courses and degrees in sport management have been established during the previous decades in many universities and colleges. Hence, there is now a large pool of qualified female candidates for professional management positions in sport that maybe an untapped resource. When sport organisations look for female candidates for positions in professional management they should look at these women and encourage them to apply for such positions.

According to several studies female leaders in sports face far more barriers than support in today's sport. Siedentop (1994:72) stated that "The barriers at the individual level (e.g. low self-efficacy, low perceived confidence and competence) have been addressed in some countries by supporting small education programmes developed for both active female and male members of clubs." However, women's recruitment in this way was successful only in a limited number of sports. In several EU Member States more formal education programmes for coaches were set up at universities and vocational education and training institutes, attracting more young women, but specific post-programme opportunities to obtain the needed qualifications for the highest performance level simply seems to be non-existent.

As it is recognised that the biggest route into coaching is through sports participation, female athletes with a high performance/elite sport background can play an important role in increasing the female representation among coaches. Their experiences could represent significant knowledge in performance development and technical aspects of their sport. Through their involvement, existing stereotypes about female coaches could be broken. It would therefore be an effective use of resources to recruit women who show an interest in coaching (during or as part of their dual career) and adapt or create educational pathways which recognize the informal learning experience of these (ex) athletes.

It is also important to recruit women from the growing number of (higher) educational institutes which specialise in coaching and physical education as well as women not directly involved in sport (for example mothers with children active in sport), inactive female members of a sports club, and/or women occupying other 'supporting' roles in the sporting community. Positive results could be expected from recruitment projects which target different groups of girls and women such as migrant and disabled women.

CONCLUSION.

This chapter was primarily concerned with analysing how scholars dealt with research objectives and/or research questions. We have looked at the importance of sports leadership in general across the world and in selected countries. The review of the roles of women in sports leadership enabled us to have an idea of why various countries and organisations have insisted on having a good number of women taking up leading roles and leadership position in sports. It is also essential to trace the barriers that women encounter in sports leadership and how they overcome those challenges in shaping the character of sports.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes several methodological issues in the conduct of the study. First, it gives a detailed explanation of the research design, noting several related issues such as its method and sources of data which included interviews, questionnaire and documents and records analysis. Secondly, concerning interviews, it explains who the participants for this study were and how they were selected. Third, it describes how the study minimised bias, on to a discussion dealing with methods used in identifying the research location and how access for the research was gained. Fourth, the dependability issues of the research were then noted on to a discussion of how the study complied with the necessary ethical issues. Finally, the researchers' competence to undertake this study is given. The chapter concludes with a brief summary.

The method was primarily descriptive, analytic and interpretative of the data. In order to put the study into the correct perspective, data from historical printed news articles, letters from the various sports organisations and institutions, selected book chapters, scholarly journals focusing on the development of sports leadership, roles women occupy in sports and challenges they face were consulted. Various policy documents from various organisations concerned with how women overcome barriers in sports leadership were used in this study. Among the people who were consulted include some sports leaders, lecturers at various universities and institutions, officers of Ministry of Sports and teachers of PE and the sports bodies: e.g., National Sports Council, The FAZ Secretariat, among others.

Due to the importance that various countries and nations put on the necessity to have many women on the sports leadership the study operationalized the objectives into the following research questions:

1. What roles do women fulfil in sports leadership?
2. What challenges do women in sports leadership encounter?
3. How do women in sports leadership overcome these challenges?

3.1.RESEARCH DESIGN

Before examining types of research designs it is important to clarify the role and purpose of research design. It is important for to understand what research design is and what it is not. There is need to know where design fits into the whole research process from framing a question to finally analyse and report data.

A research design is generally a framework for the collection and analysis of data which one employs in a research project or study. This design helps, according to Kombo & Tromp (2006:12), “The researcher has to explore a single entity or phenomenon bound by time and activity, and collects information by using a variety of data collection procedures during a sustained period of time.” This research design describes the state of affairs as it is. In this kind of research, the researcher reports the findings as they are gathered from the field and the sampled population. It is not only restricted to fact findings, but may often result in the formulation of important principles of knowledge and solution to significant problems. It is more than just a collection of data (Kombo & Tromp 2006). Regarding the research design, Dube (2011) pointed out that it is “a plan showing how the problem of investigation will be solved, a process of meticulous selection of methods to be used to answer the research question and solve the research problem.”

The following were the research design used in this research, first, field work was carried out to obtain data from respondents and sample population. Document analysis of various books and articles on sports and

PE was also done. These helped in situating the research and avoid duplicates of what others have already done. Comparison of how women have taken up sports leadership was developed, their barriers and how they overcome such challenges in other countries namely: England, Kenya, Uganda and Zimbabwe was also done. Pioneers who introduced sports in and came to work in Zambia had also worked in the neighbouring countries and hence it was possible for them to exchange 'notes' with the counterparts from those countries or areas. Library study was carried out; this was done to review the literature on the objectives and answer the research questions. It gave me the opportunity to have an understanding what other scholars have already done and what needs to be done (Seidman 1998). Observation of the PE teachers in various institutions was also done. Their behaviour was monitored as they dealt with various situations in school which were presented to them.

Social research needs a design before data collection or analysis can commence. A research design is not just a work plan. The function of a research design is to ensure that the evidence obtained enables one to answer the initial question as unambiguously as possible to avoid making wrong conclusions (Mason 1997).

3.1.1. Qualitative Research

Traditionally, there two types of research paradigms namely, qualitative and quantitative. According to Scott and Morrison (2006:193), "This is when quantitative and qualitative approaches complement each other in some ways producing a third research paradigm sometimes referred to as mixed-methods research." It should be noted that triangulation also applies to situations where two or more research methods, tools, strategies or data are used to look at the same phenomenon.

There are fundamental differences between the various paradigms that should be noted. Gall et al. (2003:202) pointed out the differences in this way, "Quantitative approaches are generally associated with positivism - the idea that 'objective truth' can be known with a higher degree of

certainty through the use of experimental/quasi-experimental approaches because such methods are replicable, generalizable, cumulative, causal and random. On the other hand, qualitative approaches are more interested with the ‘why’ and ‘how’ of human behaviour.” Another major difference is that quantitative research usually involves larger samples and uses replicable statistical methods to analyse data while qualitative research usually involves smaller samples which can be subjected to different interpretations of reality.

The present study adopted the qualitative paradigm because of its relevance to nature of inquiry under investigation. First, using the words of Creswell (2005:281) “A paradigm is interpretive because it is concerned with the interpretation of the social world, in which various aspects are constructed, understood and experienced.” This is relevant to the present study because it seeks to investigate different perceptions concerning the leadership of women in sports of a field associated with the teaching of PE. Secondly, this method follows standardized forms of experimental inquiry; Wragg (1978:193) stated that “Qualitative research adopts flexible methods that are sensitive to the social context in which data is produced.” This paradigm was relevant to the study because any investigation of an issue related to society (sport/PE) ought to be flexible enough to accommodate negotiated knowledge of reality being a subject that is multifaceted, contentious and admittedly difficult to research. Third, a qualitative paradigm was chosen because as Mason (1997:94) puts it, “. . . it offers a richer explanation in our understanding of complex human experience.” In other words, it offers holistic forms of analysis and explanation to produce rounded understandings on contextual and detailed data such as that which any investigation of sports leadership/PE nature can generate.

As opposed to being an ‘expert’ who passes judgment on the participants, using a qualitative framework for this research enabled the researcher to construct a holistic picture of development of sports leadership, roles of women in sports leadership, barriers and how they overcome those

challenges by capturing detailed views from documentary evidence and crucially from participants' own perspectives.

The approach used in this research was 'phenomenology', which is a 'baby' of qualitative method. Punch (2005:134) indicates that "Qualitative research is a complex and contested field owing to multiple methodologies and research practices, the researcher had a difficult task of choosing a 'suitable' research method from among the many available." After examining a number of research methods this study settled for the phenomenological research method. A qualitative research approach such as a phenomenology is appropriate for the study that seeks to explore women in sports leadership and its evolution since the introduction of the first national sports body. The researcher preferred the phenomenological study for a number of reasons. Three reasons can be suggested for this choice. This method is popular in studies that, according to Fraenkel & Wallen (2006:436), "Investigate various reactions to, or perceptions of, a particular phenomenon, i.e. to help the researcher, gain some insight into the world of his or her participants and to describe their perceptions and reactions." This method was suitable for the study because it captured data from the perspective of people, e.g. parents, sports leaders, teachers, government officials, lecturers, teachers and leaders of professional organisations. In a study such as the present, the perspectivism of these key informants provided useful insight regarding the evolution of women in sports leadership as a distinct area (phenomenon) for study.

A further advantage of using the phenomenological method for a study dealing with leadership (in sports), as clarified by Moustakas (1994:84) is that "It allows the researcher to 'bracket out' his/her assumptions about the phenomenon under study." This was a helpful quality owing to the fact the present study investigated a contested area of the extra school curriculum where a high level of impartiality on the part of the researcher was needed to produce a balanced and somewhat holistic picture of pertinent issues underpinning the nature of sports in the country. The fact that the phenomenological research method allows one to bracket out one's prior

assumptions was also helpful in the personal situation as a researcher because the researcher has some level of insider knowledge about sports/PE in here. This owes to the fact the researcher is a professionally trained PE teacher who has taught in secondary school, university and teacher education in Zambia. Further, without bracketing out the researcher's own personal sports views, as a practising lecturer of PE, could have affected the analytical judgment on some of the issues investigated in the research.

The downside of using the phenomenology research method according to Bogdan & Biklen (1997:96) is that "It generates a large amount of data that requires more time than planned to process." Relevant literature points out that one of the difficulties in using phenomenological research method, and indeed as with most qualitative methods, is the demand for time required for the researcher to analyse the large amounts of data that is generated as the researcher tries to grasp the central issues i.e. in search of something relevant and universal in the data.

Research design is not related to any particular method of collecting data or any particular type of data. Any research design can, in principle, use any type of data collection method and can use either quantitative or qualitative data. Research design refers to the structure of an enquiry: it is a logical matter rather than a logistical one.

3.1.2. LOCATION OF STUDY

The research was conducted in the Central and Lusaka Provinces of Zambia. Zambia is a landlocked country in South-Central Africa, neighbouring the Democratic Republic of the Congo to the north, Tanzania to the north east, Malawi to the east, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Botswana and Namibia to the south and Angola to the west.

There are ten (10) provinces namely: Central, Copperbelt, Eastern, Luapula, Lusaka, Muchinga, Northern, North-western, Southern and Western. Central province lies between the Lusaka province in the south, Copperbelt and North Western in the north, Eastern, Muchinga in the east and Western and Southern provinces in the west.

FIGURE 3.1: MAP OF ZAMBIA



The research was carried out from two (2) districts namely: Kabwe and Lusaka. Kabwe district of Central Province is found north of Lusaka, the capital city of Zambia. Kabwe city is the administrative capital of Central Province, located 135 Km north of Lusaka. The major economic activity of Kabwe is agriculture. Crops like maize, tobacco and beans are grown in the area. Lusaka is an administrative town of Lusaka district.

There are reasons for choosing to conduct the research in Central and Lusaka provinces. First, it is where the researcher works from. Second, the provinces have a number of schools and sport based organisations where various sporting activities take place. Third, there are a high number of

senior secondary schools in the area. Fourth, there are libraries and communication facilities which enabled the researcher to conduct detailed research.

In choosing the research sites it was relied on the principle that, as Berg (2001:29) notes, “The decision to use a particular research site is tied closely to obtaining access to an appropriate population of potential subjects.” Dube (2011:85) further states that the participants may be located at a single site, though they need not be. Most important, they must be individuals who have experienced the phenomenon and can articulate their conscious experiences.

3.1.3. POPULATION OF STUDY.

Kombo & Tromp (2006:77) state that, “A population is a group of individuals, objects or items from which the samples are taken for measurement.” They further suggest qualities of effective population an effective attempt to be as diverse as possible. The researcher must identify and choose the respondents that meet the questions the research is seeking to address. An effective population is supposed to be accessible to the one the researcher and also the respondent should have an idea of the topic under study.

According to the Central Statistical Office, the population (De facto) of Zambia as at 2010 census was, 12,526,314 rural and urban. The growth rate for the country according to Central Statistics Office is 2.3. The country has seen a rapid population growth. The growth rate of 2.3% is considered very high by the United Nations Statistical Division. The table below shows the population increase since 2010 at 2.3%.

TABLE 3.1.: POPULATION GROWTH SINCE 2010-2015

Year	Total Population
2010	12, 526, 314
2011	12, 814, 419
2012	13, 109, 150
2013	13, 410, 660
2014	13, 719, 105
2015	13, 924, 892

In Kabwe district, the research was conducted in two (2) constituencies namely: Bwacha and Kabwe Central. These two constituencies have a number of areas or wards as they are called by law. The combined population (De Jure) of two constituencies in Kabwe district is as follows:

Area	Male	Female	Total
Bwacha	41, 357	42, 364	83, 721
Kabwe Central	57, 424	61, 215	118, 639
Total	98, 781	103, 579	202, 360

In order to achieve the stated objectives it was necessary to get views from various categories of informants, namely; university lecturers in the department of PE, the subject specialists, officials from the ministry of education, sports leaders, leaders of professional groups, Parents-Teachers Association (PTA) members, teachers in secondary schools and parents. These informants formed the target population which, as Bryman (2008:697) defines, is “The universe of units from which a sample is selected.”

3.1.4. SAMPLING PROCEDURES AND TECHNIQUES.

Sampling is the procedure a researcher uses to gather people, places or things to study (Kombo & Tromp 2006). This is a process of selecting a number of individuals or objects from a population such that the selected group contains representative of some characteristics found in the whole

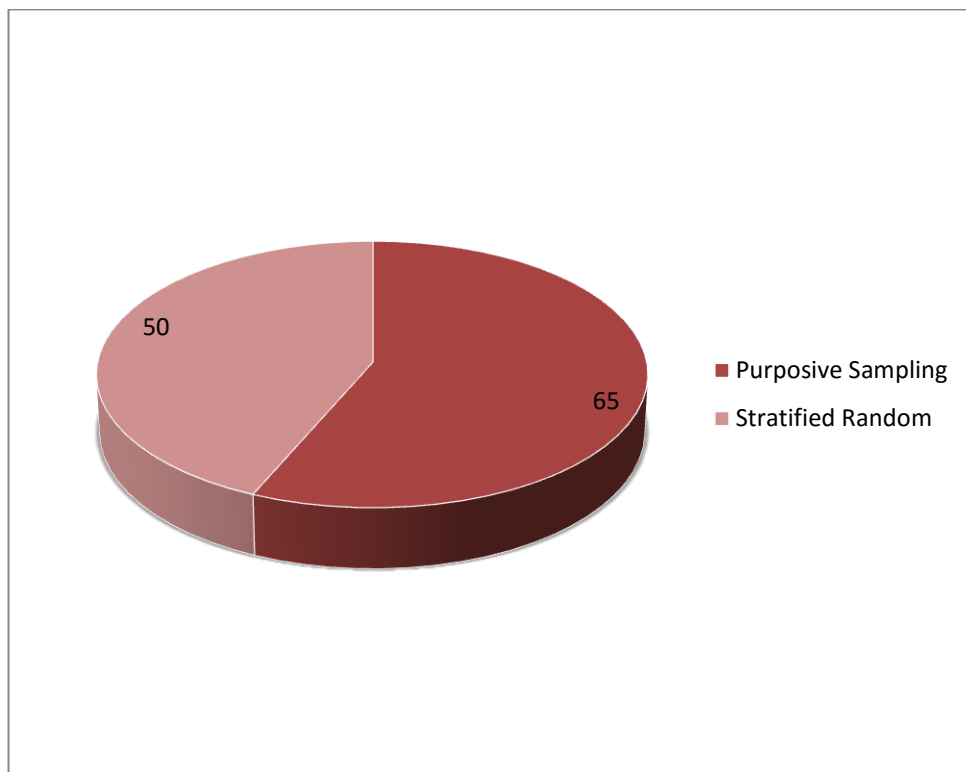
group. It is, therefore, an act or technique of selecting a suitable sample or representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters of the whole population. In this research, a purposive sampling technique for PE/Sports teachers/leaders was adopted in order to ensure that all categories of the population (teachers/leaders) would be proportionally represented. Kombo & Tromp (2006:82) indicate that, “In this sample method the researcher purposively targets a group of people believed to be reliable for the study.

A total of 65 respondents were selected by means of this technique. This was used to sample respondents for the second and third research questions. The researcher sampled people believed to be knowledgeable by the researcher in this field, e.g. sports leadership and PE. Kombo & Tromp (2006:82) claim that ‘The richness of the results depends on selecting information rich cases for in-depth analysis related to the central issues being studied’. The other argument for choosing this procedure is that, according to Kombo and Tromp (2006:84), “It is best suited when one is studying past events, most importantly when only a small fraction of relevant materials is available or accessible.” Writing about this technique, Dube (2011:87) acknowledges that, “If the research question is descriptive, asking, “What?” the simple purposive sampling method is appropriate.”

In order to arrive at the suitable sample, the researcher inquired from academicians at Nkrumah University and Sports Council of Zambia as to who may be suitable to provide data on the topic, especially on the first and second research questions. In this study most of the information was obtained from text book study and Sports records, especially on the first and third research questions. In using the sampling technique, consolation comes from Dube (2011:87) who points out that “Sampling is used in research since it is not possible to study every member or element in the whole population.”

The other sampling technique that was used for the second research question is 'stratified random'. Kombo & Tromp (2006:79) state that, "Stratified random sampling involves dividing your population into homogeneous subgroups and then taking a simple random sample in each subgroup." The research used this technique especially when choosing Sports leaders and PE teachers, university lecturers and parents. This ensured that certain subgroups were represented in the sample in relationship to their number in the population. This method is appropriate in this research because the researcher wanted respondents of different ages to be represented. The advantage of using this sampling technique is that small minority group can be represented because it is very precise. (see pie chart below)

Figure: 3.2



3.2.SAMPLE SIZE

The non-probability quota sampling strategy, commonly associated with qualitative research, was employed in the selection of some of the participants, e.g., pupils (any child met on the road who will be wearing a recognizable

uniform will be selected) and the general public (2 elderly men and 2 women who were met on the road were sampled haphazardly), for this study. Marshall and Rossman (1995:162) stated that “Non-probability sampling involves a process of case selection that is not random but purposefully selected as ‘representative’ or ‘typical’ of the population.” For instance an illustration for this could be that, if one knows that the population has 55% women and 45% men, and wanted a total sample size of 100; one continues sampling until the two correct percentages are attained and then stop. So, if one has already got the 55 women for the sample, but not the 45 men, then one continues to sample men but even if legitimate women respondents came along, they would not be sampled because quota has already been met.

For its part, this method is a bit less restrictive. The criteria set for the selection of the sample also makes quota sampling non-random because it is used when the proportions of particular sub-groups within a population are known and the study wants to ensure that each group is proportionately represented (Patton 2002).

Despite the inevitability of investigator limitation in the selection of participants and the inappropriateness of generalising findings from such samples, non-probability sampling will be appropriate for the present study because it involves ‘key’ informants. Arksey and Knight (1999:122) state that “The term ‘key’ is used in this study to denote individuals considered ‘influence’, prominent and well informed in their respective groups, communities, jobs and organizations whose activities, roles in decision-making processes and the relationships they have with the rank and file have a huge bearing on society.” As with quota sampling which deals with small purposive samples based on some predetermined criterion of importance (Singleton et al. 1993), through in-depth interviews the present study explored the opinions, experiences and preferences of ‘key’ informants involved or concerned with sports leadership and PE. Relevant literature also suggests that the researcher must use his/her experience and prior knowledge to identify criteria for selecting participants (Gall et al. 2003).

3.3. DESCRIPTION OF THE DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS.

This section explains in detail data collection tools that were used in this research. Data for the study was collected through the use of three research tools, namely, interviews, questionnaires and documents and records.

3.6.1. Secondary data.

Although the research involves a design, (e.g. the issues of sampling), method of data collection, (e.g. questionnaire, observation, document analysis) and preparation of questions are all subsidiaries to the matter of what evidence does the researcher need to collect from the field. It should be pointed out that secondary data was used to provide background information about the topic. Secondary data was acquired from books, journals, magazines, internet, reports and newspapers. The sources of secondary data were gathered from various libraries in Lusaka, Kabwe, Curriculum Development Office in Lusaka, Provincial Educational Office, resource Centre in Kabwe. In addition, background information was gotten from the Ministry of Education who provided more information on the roles of women in sports leadership and PE at different stages.

The secondary data was necessary because it provided the context in which one may understand the research topic. In other words, secondary data sharpens and deepens understanding of the research methodology, such as research design, data collection, data quality and data management, data analysis and evaluation, application and finally dissemination. Kombo & Tromp (2006:101) state that, "Secondary data involves gathering data that already has been collected by someone. It is important because they help to avoid duplication of work already done by others. Further, they also help to determine how the topic will fit into the body of knowledge already established." It is in line with the above statement that secondary data was used in this research. A lot of secondary data was necessary in writing up the literature review and also in situating this study with the other related works by various scholars.

3.6.2. Primary data.

In this study, primary data was the main source of information and data was collected from respondents in the field. Kombo & Tromp (2006: 90) say that “Primary data is necessary because it is empirical evidence from the target groups.” They also enable the researcher to capture and obtain real experiences from the field. This is raw information which needed careful study and scrutiny before presenting to the general public.

3.6.3. Tools of data collection.

Data collection refers to gathering of specific information aimed at proving or refuting some facts (Kombo & Tromp; 2006:98). This is an important aspect of research because it allows for the dissemination of accurate information and development of meaningful outcomes. The purpose of data collection is to gather new information, highlighting a situation which in turn would create awareness to others, influencing decision making and is one of the reliable ways of evaluating the responsiveness and effectiveness of the study. In this research, in order to collect data, the researcher used the interviews, questionnaires and documents analysis procedures.

(a) Interview schedule.

The main source of data for the study came from in-depth interviews given by key respondents as a response to a number of questions (see appendix II) put to them by the researcher. The interviews offered special insights in the understanding of the roles women occupy in sports leadership, barriers and how they overcome such challenges.

It is common understanding that interviews are labour intensive and that sometimes responses can be open to bias, however, there are a number advantages to consider. Gall et al. (2003:206) says, “Interviews are adaptable and therefore they allow interviewers to follow up respondents’ answers to obtain more information and clarify vague statements. Secondly, they allow for a variety of question formats including closed

and open-ended questions and lengthy questions with multiple responses as well (Drew et al. 2008). Third, if properly done, interviews can build trust and establish rapport with respondents making it possible for the interviewer to obtain information which the interviewee probably would not have revealed by other data collection methods (Walliman 2005).

The interviews were based on semi-structured (partially organised, controlled and planned) questions, that is, questions were formulated but the order in which these were presented was at the researcher's discretion. Gall and others have pointed out that using partially structured interviews is advantageous because it enables the researcher to add questions or modify them as would be necessary (Gall et al. 2003).

One way of learning about things that cannot be directly observed is by asking people who have experienced such situations to inform the researcher. In phenomenological research, Borg and Gall (1989:130) are of the view that, "Data collection methods typically include interviews with a small, purposive sample with the researcher working towards an articulation of the interviewee's reflections on experience that is as complete as possible." By asking people to tell the researcher what they are experiencing, researchers as listeners begin to understand and see the world of the other person in deeper way. It is one of the most important tools used in research. One on one interview was used with people who have worked at developing and promoting women leadership in sports at selected institutions in the country. This enabled the researcher to get in-depth information from some key informants. For the interviews in this study, I was the only interviewer involved in the research.

(b) Questionnaire.

This was the main tool for data collection in this study. Sports leaders and PE teachers/lecturers were purposively sampled because by using this method of selection, each individual in the population frame has equal chance of being selected (Dube 2011). It was used to collect data from various sports leaders from the main sports body, leaders in various

schools, and various PE scholars in universities, secondary schools and colleges in Zambia.

(c) Documents and records.

The documents and records referred to are written documents about sports and PE in Zambia. Bryman (2008:276) explains that this data collection tool, “Emphasises the role of the investigator in the construction of the meaning in the texts.” This strategy, in other words, gives the researcher leeway to determine the meaning beneath the surface of the content of the books. The researcher establishes the trend in the data analysed. The documents included: educational reports, policy documents, circulars, publications or research papers and newspapers.

Documentary materials were helpful in a number ways. First, they provided the starting point in the early stages of the research such as helping the researcher to understand the research problem better. Secondly, they aided the development of key concepts and issues which would be followed up with the interview method. Third, they provided the means of comparing and cross checking data obtained either from interviews or other secondary materials. Fourth, in conjunction with data from interviews and surveys, it assisted in the evaluation and analysis of ‘new’ data that was obtained in the research (Scott & Morrison 2006).

3.7. DATA ANALYSIS

Kvale & Brinkmann (2008:190) state that “Data analysis is a systematic way of evaluating data using analytical and logical reasons to examine the components of data that had been collected through the various data collection strategies.” It involves aiming to uncover and or understand the big picture; by using the data to describe the phenomenon and what this means.

It involves labelling and coding all of the data in order that similarities and differences can be recognised. The researcher, however, had no system for pre-coding. In this research, ‘content’ analysis was used because data was

collected through: Interviews, questionnaires, observation and documentary analysis. Kombo & Tromp (2006:108) state that “Content analysis is ‘. . . a procedure for the categorisation of verbal or behavioural data, for purposes of classification and summarisation.” The aim of content analysis is to make sense of the data collected and to highlight the important messages, features or findings.

To begin the analysis, all the questionnaires and responses were studied thoroughly. This was done by first grouping the closed questions (e.g., what leadership position do women occupy in sport), and then the open ended questions, (e.g. how do women overcome barriers in sports leadership). For the closed ended questions (e.g. what barriers do women face in sports leadership) only a simple description of responses was recorded. For the open ended questions, the majority opinions of responded were considered.

3.8. RESEARCH COLLABORATION AND CONSULTATION

The study benefited from feedback that was received from member of staff from the various sports bodies, universities, colleges and secondary schools that were visit and workmates from the University. During the course of the research the study also benefited from informal discussions done with the staff and students from schools and colleagues in the universities.

The exchange of ideas and opinions of others on the study offered a much needed critical and independent view of the research. Hopefully, the interaction helped to strengthen the reliability of the study.

3.9. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.

The study complied with all ethical requirements and procedures. First, in line with the University’s strict ethical code for research, an introductory letter was obtained from the Dean. Secondly, a letter of permission to carry out the research in the provinces was also obtained from the Provincial Education Officer of Central Province and Lusaka Province (see Singleton et al. 1993).

There are several reasons why it is important to adhere to ethical norms in research. Bryman (2008:118) gives the reasons to adhere to ethical principles as:

. . . first, ensure that no harm is made to the respondent. Second, respondents participate in the study out of their own volition. Third, the privacy of respondents is respected. Fourth, there is no deception involved in bringing the respondents into the study.

Following from the reasons stated above guarantees that the rights of the research subjects were not violated in any way.

Kombo & Tromp (2006:107) gives various reasons why this is so. “Norms promote the aims of research, such as knowledge, truth, and avoidance of error.” For example, prohibitions against fabricating, falsifying, or misrepresenting research data promote the truth and avoid error. Since research often involves a great deal of cooperation and coordination among many different people in different disciplines and institutions, Kombo & Tromp (2006:107) further states that, “Ethical standards promote the values that are essential to collaborative work, such as trust, accountability, mutual respect, and fairness.” For example, many ethical norms in research, such as guidelines for authorship, copyright and patenting policies, data sharing policies, and confidentiality rules in peer review, are designed to protect intellectual property interests while encouraging collaboration. Third, many of the ethical norms help to ensure that researchers can be held accountable to the public. Therefore, the respondents were requested by the researcher to consent as to whether or not they are willing to complete the questionnaire.

Kombo & Tromp (2006:107) put it clearly that, “The researcher must obtain informed consent from any subjects used in the study and must ensure that all subjects participate voluntarily.” A consent form was provided to all participants to be read and signed before the start of the interviews. The consent form covers the following points: (a) who is doing the research and to what end (whom to contact for information if they have problems with

the research process), (b) risks and vulnerability, (c) right to participate or not, (d) rights of review and withdrawal from the process, (e) anonymity (i.e. whether participants' names or pseudonyms will be used) and (f) university where the researcher is coming from (g) dissemination (i.e. an indication how the results of the study will be communicated or distributed to the public).

In line with the above, no respondent was forced or compelled to provide information. The privacy of research subjects and confidentiality was strictly observed. Respondents whose names appeared in this research consented and allowed the researcher to go ahead and publish their views.

3.10. RESEARCHER'S COMPETENCE

My personal experiences have benefited the research in a number of ways. First, I have a fair knowledge of sports and PE because I have taught the subject in various schools and institutions. Secondly, I belong to a professional institution under which sports and PE is one of the subjects taught and administered.

I am confident that the research training I have undergone, some research seminars and conferences I have attended, and my professional experience in publication of articles, gave me the requisite competence, especially in writing skills, to undertake this study.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to describe the research methodology of this study, explain the sample selection, describe the procedure that was used in designing the instrument and collecting the data, and provide an explanation of the procedures going used to analyse the data.

The research, as explained in this chapter, is comprised of standardized methodologies to gather information by examining systematically identified population samples. Social scientists rarely draw conclusions without disaggregating the sample population into various sub-groups.

The researcher is of the view that there are distinct advantages in using a questionnaire versus an interview; questionnaires are less expensive and easier to administer than personal interviews. They lend themselves to group administration and, allow confidentiality to be assured. Questionnaires are extremely efficient at providing information in a relatively brief time period at low cost to the researcher.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION OF THE STUDY.

This chapter presents and discusses the findings of the study. The researcher reviewed the literature on the roles that women fulfil in sports leadership, the challenges that women in sports leadership encounter, and how women in sports leadership overcome the challenges. The researcher wanted to explore more by carrying out the research. The findings in this chapter have highlighted important issues, some common and others different in each of the two districts, namely; Lusaka and Kabwe which engendered not only a rethink of the future of women in sports but in many respects actually suggested how this could be done.

This study looked at the following research questions:

1. What roles do women fulfil in sports leadership?
2. What challenges do women in sports leadership encounter?
3. How do women in sports leadership overcome these challenges?

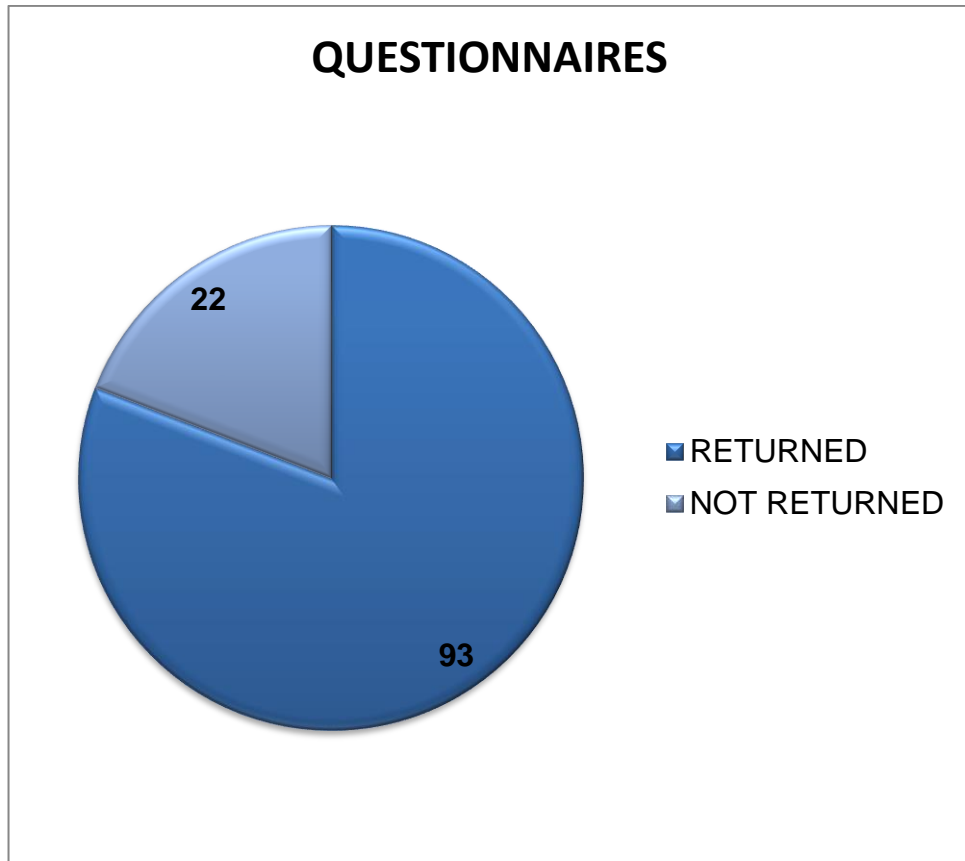
4.1. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

This section describes the characteristics of the sample in terms of;

- The sex of respondents
- Availability of sports/PE at the institute/school
- Importance of sports/PE at the institute/school
- One responsible for organizing the sporting activities at the institute/school.

4.2. DISTRIBUTION OF QUESTIONNAIRES

The researcher prepared and distributed 115 coded questionnaires to different respondents. 93 respondents successfully answered the research questions while 22 respondents did not return the questionnaires. (see chart below)



The above pie chart shows that 80.8% or the respondents answered and returned the questionnaires compared to 19.2% who didn't return the questionnaires. This was a good result which also shows an overwhelming response and interest of the respondents to the topic under research.

Table 1: Distribution of respondents by sex

Sex	No	Percent (%)
Male	20	21.51
Female	73	78.49
Total	93	100

Source: Field data 2015

The table above shows that the majority of the respondents from the sample of the target group were females (78.49%) while 21.51% of the

respondents were males. These percentages are important to the researcher. It means that women took the research more important and gave concrete responses to the topic which sought to address their concern in sports leadership and organisation. The number of male respondents is also good enough because it falls within the required number of a sampled population of not less than 20 respondents.

4.2. Availability of sports/PE at the institute/school

The graph below shows the number of respondents who acknowledged the availability of sporting activities and Physical education at their institution or school.

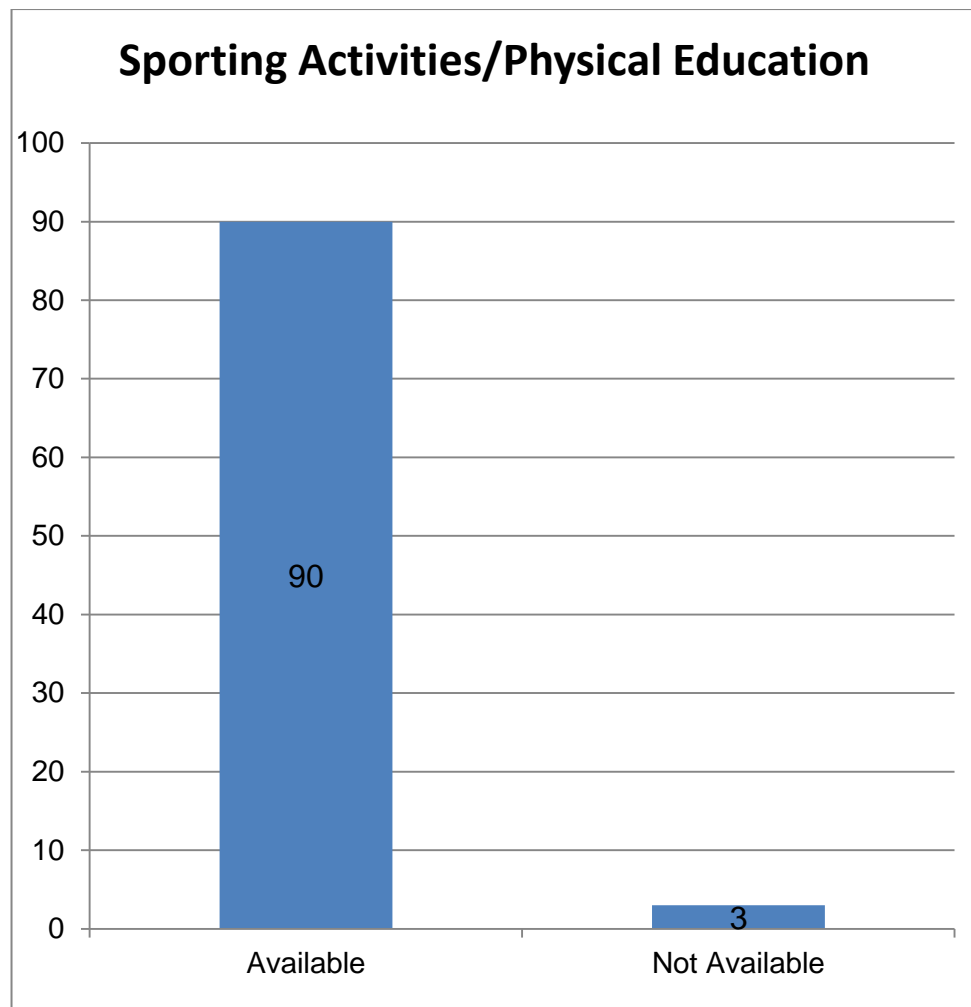


Figure 1: Availability/Unavailability of PE/Sport. Field Data 2015

From the above chart it is notable that over 96.77% of the respondents have access to sporting facilities or PE at their institution. The availability of sporting activity is important to this research because it is the window through which we would learn who is in charge of sports and PE.

4.3. Importance of sports/PE at the institute/school

Of the sampled population, 87 out of the received questionnaires indicated that sports/PE was very important at their institute/school. This is shown in the pie chart below.

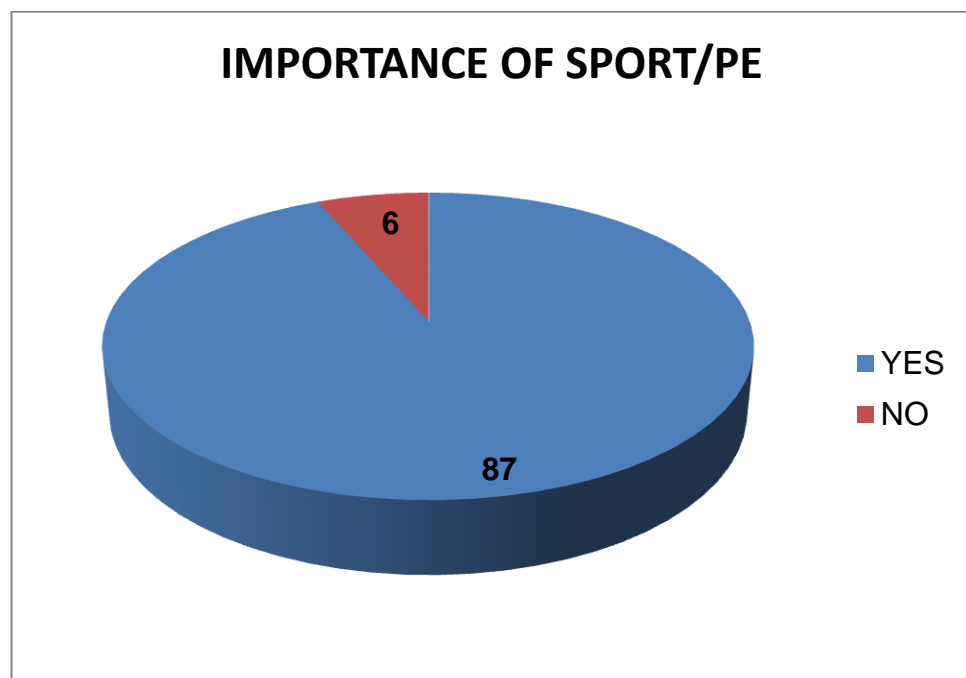


Figure 2: Source...Field work 2015

Out of 6 respondents who stated that sports/PE was not important in their lives and society, 4 were female. This may indicate the slight of lack of interest that some women have in sports in particular.

4.4. One responsible for organizing the sporting activities at the institute/school

The chart below shows who is responsible for organizing sports/PE in various institutions/ schools. There were three options from which respondents were supposed to choose from namely; men only, women only and both men and women. The response was very interesting. There was no institution/school where only women are responsible for organizing sports/PE while 3 respondents noted that at their institution/school men only are the ones responsible for organizing sports/PE. (see chart below).

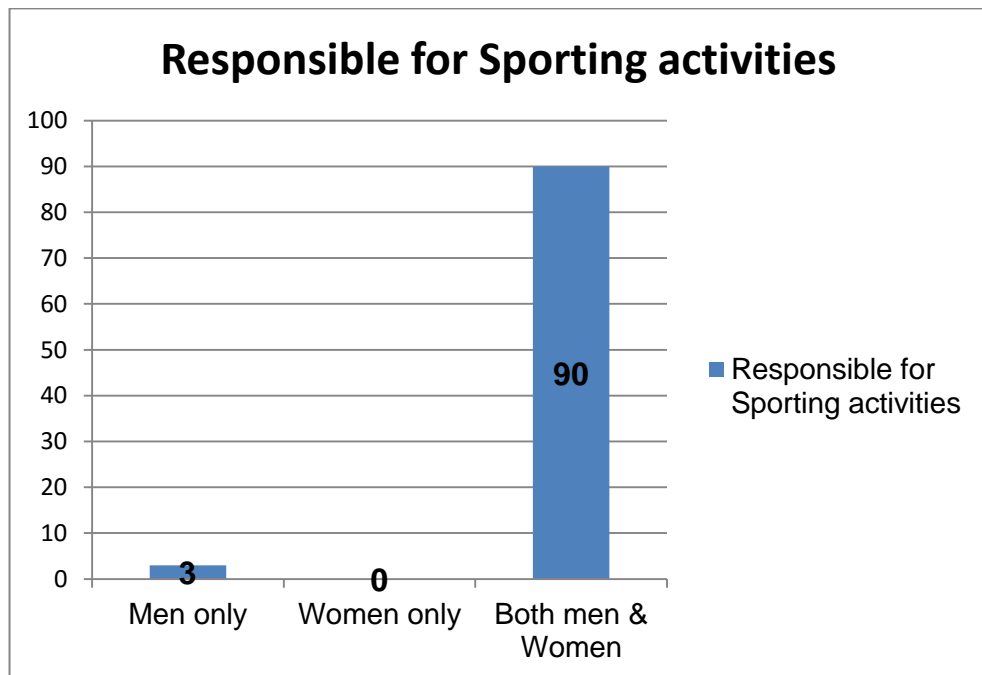


Figure 3: Source: Field Data 2015

The number of institutes where both men and women are responsible for organizing sporting activities and PE translates into 96.77%.

4.5. ROLES WOMEN FULFIL IN SPORTS LEADERSHIP

The following section discusses the roles that women fulfil in sports leadership. About four out of five respondents believed that higher standards for women and lack of readiness by companies to hire women for top positions and by voters to elect women to higher office are major

reasons that there aren't more women in top leadership roles in sports and other high ranking positions in society. Other reasons, such as family responsibilities, inexperience, or women not being tough enough, are cited less frequently as significant barriers to female leadership. However, there are a number of roles that women fulfil in sports leadership.

Highlighting one of the roles women fulfil in sports leadership, one of the respondents (2015) stated that "They organize tournaments for various games and . . . offer counselling to athletes." This is in line with Strawbridge (2000:46) who stated that, "Obviously, more and more women are making sports administration their careers at higher and higher levels. . . . and the women who have persevered and are functioning in these top positions have much to teach us." From this we note that understanding the cluster of skills is one of the necessary steps to providing guidance for women who are seeking to become sport leaders. Sporting activities organization and leadership were the prominent responses as shown below.

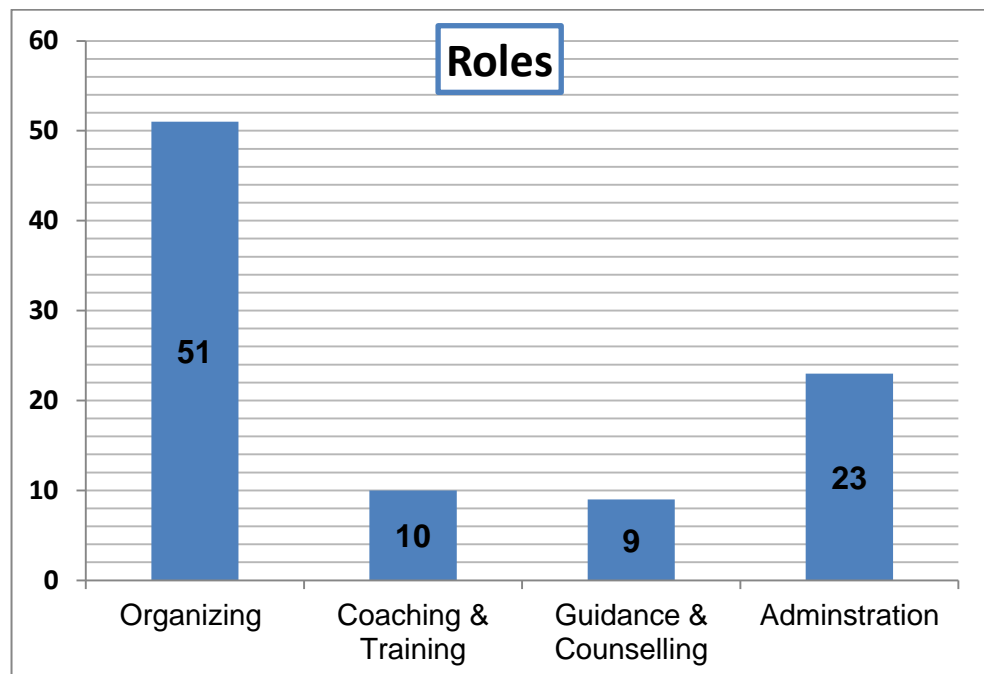


Figure 4: Source...Field Data 2015

Most respondents, 74, representing 79.56% indicated that most of the roles women fulfil in sports leadership consists of administration and sports activities organization. This was clearly pointed out by a respondent (2015) from Mulungushi University who stated that, “Women are very good at sports organization and administration because they are very fair in their selection of players and participants.” This was an outstanding standing which acknowledges the importance of allowing women to take up leadership roles in sports.

Most respondents, as pointed out above, believed that leadership is about being able to implement change. This is supported by Bass (1985) who stated that, “Vision, strategy, intellect, I’m not afraid of change, in fact I cause change, I’m a change agent.” She adds to this belief by explaining that leadership is “Not settling for the status quo and requires the ability to bring people along for a common mission.” These findings and conclusion on the basic function of women leadership in sports/PE support and confirm the conclusions from other research on women leadership (Yukl, 1998) and are also in line with Kotter’s (1990) view that the essential functions of leadership include producing movement within an organization.

It is perhaps important to look at some of the skills required in leadership as highlight by the respondents. The first leadership skill which came out clearly is the ability to establish the direction and set the course for the organization. This is pointed by Eagly (2007) who once stated that, “Leadership is about defining goals . . . a leader has to have the ability to see long term, to think about things in broader terms and be more strategic. It’s about setting priorities and providing a direction or an idea.” Some of the respondents who were interviewed stated that in leadership things are not supposed to be left to a chance in terms of how a vision is articulated and how getting clarity about what strategies will help you deliver that vision. It was identified that one as a leader, that direction extends from knowledge about the organization and the environment in which that person or leader operates from.

A good number of the respondents pointed out that, women leaders in sports don't only seek this input, but also know what questions to ask and be able to analyze the data collected from those being led in an organization. This process is vital to one of the key responsibilities of a leader, which is making strategic decisions on behalf of the organization. These findings align well with Kotter's (1990:104) explanation of the components of setting a new direction for the organization as an inductive process. He posits that "Leaders gather a broad range of data and look for patterns, relationships, and linkages that help explain things. What's more, the direction-setting aspect of leadership does not produce plans; it creates vision and strategies."

According to one respondent (2015), indicated that being a leader is about more than simply guiding a team to an ultimate goal. Leadership is also about getting people to embrace the vision and grow to become leaders themselves. The successful women in sports/PE leadership need to be good at the act of inspiring and leading by example has the greatest impact in getting people on board with the vision and direction of their teams. Nkole (2015), a respondent from Angelina Tembo Girls Secondary School explains this aspect well in the following:

If you can have some energy, like our sports leader here has, and direction or a movement towards something that is new, that's leadership. Leadership is about thinking really broadly, widely and building a vision that can be inspiring to many, especially to us in school and can create a new era of perspective about where it is possible for an organization to go.

In all reality, leadership matters a lot, as Nkole remarks. It involves the dimensions where a leader can tether others to something that feels like it has more intrinsic value. Other characteristics respondents (2015) from Raphael Kombe Secondary School believed were crucial to effective leadership are human characteristics such as truthfulness, morally uprightness and gentleness. Dependability, consistency and trust were among the virtues that were highlighted. Being a good leader is taking the

time to teach and grow others. Women in leadership are good at this. This helps to facilitate the growth and the progress of the organization forward and hopefully that leads to big visionary things.

According to the participants, the other role that is undertaken by women in sports leadership is that of management. With management, Chishimba (2015) pointed out in a one-on-one interview that “Management is kind of something we have to do every day; we have to go with the flow, get things done and check off the tasks on a daily basis.” She further stated that management is a daily responsibility and requires constant practice in terms of coping with the complexities of the organization and executing the plan. This information is supported by Kotter (1990) who claimed that managers primarily deal in the now and work to define and refine the steps needed to reach established targets and organizational goals. All the interviewed agreed that management is working towards a goal and organizing people or processes and taking steps to achieve a certain goal. What is common among the participants’ explanations is that in management the goal is known and the direction has already been set. The respondents believed that women in sports leadership keep the system working once a direction is established.

The other roles that women in sports leadership fulfil include; planning, budgeting, organizing, staffing, controlling and problem solving, either directly or indirectly according to participants.

4.6. CHALLENGES WOMEN ENCOUNTER IN SPORTS LEADERSHIP

In this research, there are three notable challenges that emerged as the main factors that women encounter women in leadership roles in sport namely; family conflict, cost and time constraints and a lack of networks and mentors. It is common knowledge that women bear the ‘lion’s share’ responsibilities of child rearing. Therefore, family conflict is seen as a key issue when women consider taking on a leadership role. Women often feel guilty for missing key milestones or not being at home with their

family while they pursue their leadership goals. Having the support to share family responsibilities is a major determining factor as to whether women are able to manage both their leadership and family roles.

One of the respondents, Stanford (2015) made his point in this way, “Due to family commitments, women generally have less available time to commit to extraneous leadership roles, even in sports.” The cost of time away from home often associated with sport including extensive travel and weekend work, combined with the financial cost of transportation fees and accommodation to attend events or training courses, means that women are less likely to pursue leadership roles due to the high costs (Respondent 2015).

A respondent (2015) who has been involved in organizing sports at various levels pointed out that, “There are few established formal women’s networks established that can mentor or help develop women.” He explained that women in leadership roles often work in isolation, leading to failure in their work. There is also a perceived lack of female mentors or role models for those women to model their leadership.

An official (2015) from Stephen Luwisha pointed out that for years now, it has been believed that historically, politically, socially, culturally and religious ideologies used to promote the patriarchal hierarchal organizational structures are heavily weighted in favour of men, making women invisible helping to explain the low representation of women in leadership. This is supported by Hargreaves (2001) who stated that “The challenges women face in sports leadership traverses all social, political and cultural spaces and are not limited to any specific culture, geographical region, country, ethnicity, religion or social class groups.” Despite the passing of various legislations on gender discrimination in sports, very little achievements have been realized. Accordingly, sport remains one of the most gendered institutions. While the number of women participating in sports over the years has been increasing, the representation of women in leadership has remained low.

In Zambia, traditional beliefs and cultural values are deeply rooted into the fibres of people's lives. It is true that traditional cultural beliefs in most societies uphold that women are not suited to be leaders (Agezo, 2010). The power and the authority vested in men over the years enhanced differential role allocations for men and women, consequently helping define the roles that women have come to assume, occupying subordinate roles (Eddy & Cox, 2008). Other researchers like, Sartore and Cunningham (2007) extensively discuss how gendered stereotypes contribute to underrepresentation of women in sports leadership. They have explained that gender stereotypes emanate from traditional practices, especially those influencing every aspect of women's lives and enhancing the beliefs of women's inability to pursue positions of leadership. For instance, it is on record that teachers in the neighbouring Zimbabwe were socialized and culturally conditioned to believe that women were incapable of leadership, hence their hesitancy to take up leadership roles (Chabaya et al., 2009). Patriarchy is deeply rooted and influences people's daily lives, choices and actions, impacting negatively women in leadership positions.

One other challenge that women encounter in sport leadership that was highlighted by Chilombo (2015) from Kabwe is little support to these women from men, in particular. Lack of structural, organizational, and financial support often prevent women from performing their duties or even accessing leadership positions. This is supported by Bodey (2007) who pointed out that women sport leaders in Morocco acknowledge differential treatment and resource allocation as major obstacles. Very often, the female leaders were not consulted or involved in the decision making process and there was a clear preference for men's sports. This was complimented by Sartore and Cunningham's (2007) review and analysis of gendered stereotypes in sports found deeply rooted decision-making process, where decisions were made on behalf of women, basically as if they were not there. Failure to recognize and compensate women appropriately for their roles and achievements and to provide them with much needed resources undermines women's authority. Dominici et

al.'s (2009) well undertaken study found that although women were accorded positions of leadership in universities and were dedicated to improving their communities, they were neither recognized nor rewarded, and their designated leadership positions were not similar to men.

One respondent (2015) in the interview indicated that “Zambian society depicts a woman as being weak, frail and not as capable of any physically or intellectually strenuous activities when compared to men.” The above statement sound rather strong but it is backed by Greendorfer who once wrote that gender role socialization enhances subordination of women to men (Greendorfer, 2001). Gender stereotypes formed throughout one’s life’s experiences may be difficult to separate from the person. Negative cultural socialization in our society perpetuates the belief that women are not suited for leadership positions and also influence the type of decisions that they make. It is perhaps worth noting that this perception is slowly changing. Abdela, (2000) maintains that self-limiting behaviours reinforce the gendered stereotypes about women’s ability to lead and negatively affect their self-confidence.

Lack of confidence was cited as a barrier to women’s progress or promotion to leadership in sports and in corporate world in general by a number of respondents. This is perhaps supported by Maürtin who made a shocking statement in his work where he pointed out that, women rarely apply for leadership positions because of lack of confidence (Maürtin-Cairncross, 2009). He further stated that in fact, some have admitted to being forced to apply for leadership positions. It is noted that while self-promotion behaviours are rare in women, men use these self-promoting behaviours to access leadership positions and gain economic rewards. Lack of confidence among would be women leaders have disadvantaged a number of them hence making a number of men in leadership position greater than that of women.

A sports leader (2015) who was interviewed brought to the researcher’s attention that since leadership was founded on male standards and principles, most organizations use male standards to evaluate women

during recruitment or promotion. These lopsided recruitment criteria that look for male qualities in women, as other researchers have revealed, are seen as discriminatory and deliberately prevent women from accessing high leadership positions. In addition, requiring women to adhere to male standards or leadership styles often result in conflicts that expect them to display feminine behaviour and yet, masculine characteristics are normally sought when recruiting leaders. Mwamba (2015) stated that “In sports, as in other disciplines, women that display masculine characteristics of aggressiveness and competitiveness are labelled lesbians.” Perhaps this is why many scholars and researchers advise the need to be cognizant of both the biological and individual difference between men and women, because using male standards on women may not reflect their true leadership qualities (Eddy & Cox, 2008).

In concluding this part, it is important to mention that for sports organizations to function effectively, both the leader and members have to develop relationships that will ensure that the organizational goals are met. Through interactions, people learn to communicate, understand each other, and work to accomplish specific goals. In sports, the male dominated work place environment tends to create certain tensions that prevent women from realizing their goals or rising to leadership positions (Inglis et al., 2000). Researches on the underrepresentation of women in leadership indicate glass ceiling, glass floors, gender discrimination and power relations as some of the obstacles to women’s advancement to leadership (Webb & Macdonald, 2007). This needs to be fought by all well-meaning leaders, civil and political alike.

4.7. HOW WOMEN IN SPORTS LEADERSHIP OVERCOME THE CHALLENGES

Despite gender stereotypes suggesting women as incapable of leading, there is enough evidence showing women as suited for leadership either in the corporate world or sports. Many scholars have stated that women leaders bring a different perspective to leadership thus the proposition to include more women in leadership positions in various organizations (Vanderbroeck, 2010). Despite women being highly educated with bright and brilliant qualifications, they still remain to a large extent invisible in leadership positions. This ‘invisibility’ is making women to constantly search for equal representation in governance and corporate responsibilities. One of the respondents who participated in the research, Mainga (2015) indicated that “Equality can only be gained through changing the systemic and organizational structures.” This is in line with Northouse (2010) who once suggested that increasing the number of women in the boardroom and other senior management positions can increase the appreciation for diverse talents and enrich the organization.

Chipo (2015) was of the view that all organizations, whether government or corporate should devise flexible schedule and family friendly reforms such as maternity leave, to accommodate women in leadership positions. Developing social networks among women can be used to mentor others and help women to develop careers and advance into leadership positions (Doherty & Manfredi, 2010). Women can learn and adapt skills and tactics from various men’s movements which support them in their leadership roles. As noted earlier in this research, networks are very crucial in enhancing personal development and acquiring groups’ support which have been used by men to enhance their positions in work places, and in sports as well.

Developing women leaders provides a means for empowering women and ensuring that they are equipped with skills to assume leadership roles. One respondent (2015) indicated that “Women are perceived as different, and these biased perceptions are formed over the years through cultural and

social interactions.” It is true that culture plays a major role in influencing behaviours, attitudes, as well as conceptualizations of leadership. While most organizations are cognizant of the need to have gender-friendly policies, people’s attitude have proved hard to change, and women are still perceived as inferior to men. Pheko (2009) proposes a change of people’s attitudes, embracing cultural diversities, as well as to be accepting of women as equals while Chabaya et al. (2009) recommends re-socializing of individuals and embracing gender equality as a way of addressing cultural stereotypes that prevent women from seeking for leadership positions. On the other hand, Mennesson (2009) proposed reverse-gender socialization, where men and women could participate in activities that are not congruent with their gender. Using various concepts, it may be plausible to socialize both girls and women into believing that leadership is not a male preserve, which could be a positive step towards increasing the number of women leaders.

It was a common theme that family issues act as one of the greatest hindrance to women taking up leadership role, it was suggested that a balance should be created between work and family life by most respondents. Mwanza (2015) from sports academy in Kabwe stated that “Creating a balance between family-work has been the most effective strategy that worked for women in sport.” This was one of the views that were shared by most of the respondents who were interviewed. It is an option worthy pursuing if women are to achieve good and high numbers in leadership positions.

Lack of knowledge and lack of power are some of the reasons cited for persistent underrepresentation of women in leadership positions. A number of respondents indicated that in order to change the power dynamics in sport leadership, there was need to empower more women than is the case now. This could be achieved through thinking beyond one’s horizons, knowing their rights and claiming them. Empowering women also entailed getting women to be in the right places, through assigning them roles and responsibilities within the organization, and

placing them in right positions where they could influence change. Confidence building is considered as one of the ways of developing women leaders. This allows them to be more assertive when performing their duties in the area that is perceived as male dominated and teemed with obstacles. This message was made clear by one of the respondents who stated:

I really had to be very aggressive to get to where I am now. You need to be assertive to get what you want in our society which is dominated by men. . . . At times I had to step on men's heads and toes.

One of the challenges that women leaders face has been the lack of social networks that can propel them to leadership positions. Findings of the study show that most of the women were cognizant of this and were keen on fixing the problem. A respondent (2015), a PE teacher and sports administrator who was expected to handle multiple roles, pointed out that the ability to manage these roles sometimes required one to get help from colleagues. She explained how the support from her colleague enabled her to manage:

I handled all PE lessons and training of the girls in other fields. I found this hard and challenging to do alone. A colleague who was teaching Geography would once in a while come to my aid, since he loved playing Basketball and would couch the girls while I taught aerobics to another class. The help I received from my colleague enabled me to multitask.

Most of the respondents pointed to the need and importance of the role of mentoring in the development of young ladies and women for leadership positions. They highly believed that handing over leadership helped develop the sport, and that it was the only way that could ensure a constant supply of leaders at the top. It was clear the constant supply of women leaders to the top was inhibited by many factors, like the reluctance of older and would be retiree leaders to hand over leadership to the young

and the hopelessness experienced by those that had received leadership training through being denied opportunities to put their skills into practice. Advancing women leaders would require removal of such obstacles.

4.8. WHY WOMEN SHOULD BE ENCOURAGED TO TAKE UP LEADERSHIP POSITIONS IN SPORTS.

There has been a lot of talk about why more women don't become leaders. About what our society needs to change to produce more female leaders. There's even been some discussion about why women are better leaders than men in some arenas. With change, crisis, and complexity coming at us faster and faster from all directions, we dare not depend on just a few to lead us and we dare not eliminate any group of people from the opportunity to lead others to a better future.

The key is that women, and men also, in position to influence others, that is, either by virtue of the title they hold in an organization or because they have gained the necessary skills, insight and confidence, create the conditions under which many more people can and will lead within their broadly-defined spheres of influence. They encourage, promote, lay the groundwork for, communicate the need, celebrate steps along the way and otherwise create the conditions under which many more people can and will lead within their own spheres

Women, on average, are terrific communicators and tend to be better at it than men. It's the information age and it's highly competitive. This means companies will need more skilled communicators involved in all aspects of business where good, clear communication is critical to generate revenue, control expense, manage top talent and build a loyal customer base.

There is overwhelming evidence that women pay more attention to the quality of relationships versus men. The special thing women leaders bring to the team is that they exercise relational leadership practices, stimulating

high-quality relationships, bonding, and connectivity among members. This can be a strong advantage when teams are challenged by size, geographic dispersion and functional diversity. When there is a conflict, for example, women exhibit more empathy and are better listeners. They express themselves well, and they understand the knowledge that can be embedded in relationships. These relationship qualities help create and build strong teams (Respondent, 2015).

4.9. INTERPRETATION OF THE FINDINGS.

This section of the dissertation seeks to answer the research questions and/or the stated objectives. As we interpret the findings of this research, a brief look at the objectives is imperative at this moment. Keeping in view the findings of the research, it was imperative to discuss their theoretical view point so that these might leave useful effect for the stakeholders. Since the research was mainly qualitative, having the component of interview and observation, the statistical findings were discussed qualitatively to enhance and enrich its impact.

The objectives of this paper are outlined as follow;

4. What roles do women fulfil in sports leadership?
5. What challenges do women in sports leadership encounter?
6. How do women in sports leadership overcome these challenges?

It is in line with the above stated objectives that the findings were interpreted.

There has been an increase in studies on women in sports leadership over the last years. What is seemingly clear, however, is that research on Zambian women in sports leadership is scarce or not yet fully done. So far, most of the research studies that provide insights into the varied experiences of women in sports leadership are grounded in the Western countries, Americas, Asia and Australia. For example, McAllister's (2006) study on female school principals revealed that they applied skills acquired from being competitive athletes into their leadership practices. This was

followed by Norman's (2010) study on women coaches in United Kingdom, which found women to be undermined and trivialized, and lesser qualified men were assigned superior roles, leaving out highly qualified female coaches.

Researches undertaken in the past reveal that participation of women in sports has been hindered by the patriarchy and gender allocation of roles, where women's roles were considered to belong to the private or domestic sphere (Couturier & Chepko, 2001). Victorian culture and the colonial heritage in Zambia, as is in many African countries promoted education and sport as exclusive to men only. This to a large extent prevented women from engaging in sport. As a result of this scenario there has been a very small and marginal women representation in leadership positions in sport. It is safe to conclude that colonial education in many African countries was designed to prepare men for leadership positions leaving women out. Chepyator-Thomson (2005:244) noted that:

In the contemporary societies of Africa, women's involvement in sports is depended upon their entry into school institutions. It was therefore not surprising that fathers played a prominent role in the socialization of the women into sports, with mothers having very minor roles.

These results are similar to Dixon et al.'s (2008) research on parental influence on women's career choices, where fathers served as coaches and mothers as transporters of their children to sports' activities.

Education for many has years has been a vehicle through which one can climb the world of leadership and social status in the recruitment of employees in various organizations. Educational achievements allow women to enter positions of leaderships in sports organizations. Due to the dynamic nature of institutions and organizations, and the need to keep up with the changes in governance, effective leadership requires one to constantly upgrade their leadership skills and ways of doing things in order to remain relevant within that institution or organization, hence

training and preparation for leadership roles have always been considered critical (Lafreniere & Longman, 2008). In line with this outlook, most of the respondents stated that leaders need to keep furthering their education and attended numerous refresher courses. The narratives of students and pupils who were interviewed and took part in this research demonstrated their parents' concern for academic excellence, with a majority of the elderly respondents emphasizing a balance between academics and sports. The findings in this study showed women to have successfully combined education and sports. Perhaps the excellent performance of the women leaders in sport and education was spurred by their ability on maintaining a balance between sport, family life and academics.

One of the underlying discoveries of this research is that in spite of good academic qualifications, lack of opportunities to practice what they learned prevents or slows women's advancement to leadership positions resulting in increased invisibility. This is related to the findings established by other scholars who undertook a similar research. However, in this study women seemed determined to stay competitive in sport leadership positions through personal and professional development, which involved attending various training courses and pursuing further education. Henry et al. (2004) has advised that women leaders in NOC organizations need to be availed more training opportunities as a way of enhancing their leadership practice. Therefore, the findings of this research affirm the view that leadership training is one of the ways of advancing women in leadership (Maürtin-Cairncross, 2009).

Various researches have indicated that the patriarchal nature of organizational structures and cultures to a large extent tend to value the male leadership styles, and may force women to adapt male styles of leadership (Oplatka, 2001). Although this study was not centred on gender differences between men and women's leadership styles, past researches have established that despite the biological differences between men and women, there have been some notable similarities in the leadership styles of men and women (Coleman 2003). It was quite interesting to note that

despite sport being a male dominated area (traditional), none of the respondents suggested adopting the masculine style of leadership. This study found it hard to dissociate women from their nurturing side which emerged from the way they handled their charges, taking into consideration the athlete's physical, psychological and social welfare. It was recognized in this study that women aligned themselves with transformational style of leadership, which focused on empowering, relationship building, inspiring and motivating others, communicating and power sharing (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2003).

Challenges and strategies for overcoming them.

Since sports institutions and organizations are viewed to possess hierarchal, patriarchal structures, where gender differences are maintained (Brown & Evans, 2004), women are bound to encounter various individual, relational as well as organizational challenges. One of the greatest hindrances to women accessing leadership is due to lack of confidence (Maürtin Cairncross, 2009). The feminine modesty theory, which is common among some scholars, best explains the ways in which women shy from creating their own visibility, which result in less women taking up leadership positions.

Marriage, motherhood and careers are often perceived as detrimental to the advancement of women into leadership or career development (Evetts 1988). Findings of this research highly support studies that show women as being overburdened with multiple roles as were noted by other researchers and scholars which results in family—work related conflicts. For a number of women leaders, multiple responsibilities threatened their marriages and family lives as already highlighted and indicated. In fact Branson (2007) has noted that a minority group of women took on more roles and responsibilities and that often felt overstretched and exploited to a very large extent. However, the number of women that have successfully combined marriage, motherhood and career in many countries, including Zambia, have tremendously gone up and increased.

Resistance to change and determination to maintain status quo for many years had impeded advancement of women into leadership positions. One of the most significant finding in this dissertation was the unavailability of a system that could enable women to advance into sports federations' leadership. This is resulting from older members who are reluctant to relinquishing power. One other interesting revelation is that it was not just men holding onto power, but also some women who had achieved high status seemed determined to keep other women out. Martel (2007) revealed that women leaders that had attained the top positions were reluctant to let go because they wanted to protect their turf. Branson (2007:67) refers to this as the queen bee syndrome “ Which occurs when the first women to reach a certain job classification or management level tries to exclude other women from the same level, status of job classification.” In this current research, most of the respondents viewed Zambian women as their own enemies. Respondents pointed out that instead of supporting each other women seemed or tended to be agents of their own discrimination. It has been observed that if the infighting among women persists, then the chances of women attaining equal representation in leadership would diminish. Northouse (2010) advised that women need to develop social capital and use it to marshal support for each other and acquire power.

The findings show that the empowerment of women seemed to stir a contradiction between culture and modern laws and policies. It seems that subordination of women was further augmented by cultural beliefs that were accepted as normal practices (Eddy & Cox 2008). Although the world bodies have for years propagated for equal opportunities, some of the cultural and imported post-colonial beliefs seem difficult to change, e.g., the beliefs that equated male athletes going for competitions to warriors going to battle were used to deny women the team manager position as it was considered culturally inappropriate for women to lead men to war. To a large extent these beliefs augment notion that cultural socialization can result in people accepting unequal treatment as normal, with no attempt to do anything to change it.

Basically, culture is critical in the construction and maintenance of gender roles and positions, and in this regard, it cannot be ignored. For example Julien et al (2008) study on the Aboriginal female leadership showed that women leaders respected and accepted their cultural practices, infusing the cultural values and beliefs within their leadership practices, hence conflicting with modern feminism. Other researchers have highlighted the importance of culture and proposed that leaders need to be cognizant of cultural practices within their institutions and organizations. Scholars like Sperandio (2010) recommend acknowledging the importance of, and respect for cultural beliefs, but also proposed a change in cultural attitudes that are more accepting of women as equals.

Laws and policies are critical to the development of women leaders. The advancement of women into leadership positions is attributed to the implementation of laws and policies such as the EOA and the Affirmative Action policies in the 1930's and 1960's respectively. Although a lot of organizations are yet to adopt or fully implement these laws and policies, some respondents observed that knowing the laws and applying them accordingly would help women in advancing into leadership positions. In addition, women leaders promised to advocate for the implementation of these above stated policies, through relevant government structures and laws. Past studies show policy as being responsible for the gains made by women in education and other social-economic as well as sports participation.

Conclusion

This chapter examined the experiences of women in sport leadership with emerging themes focusing on; roles and responsibilities, challenges, and the strategies developed to overcome these challenges. As a minority group in the male dominated organizations, women leaders were bound to encounter various barriers. These were of individual, relational and institutional nature.

Lack of confidence, family-work conflicts, discriminatory role allocation isolation, undermining and slander, women as own enemies, gender and cultural stereotypes, and lack of appropriate policies were among the challenges cited. In order to overcome these challenges, women leaders had developed various strategies, which included resistance to discriminatory practices, becoming agents of social change, creating a balance between family and work, developing social support networks, empowering women and effective use of media to promote women's agenda.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

This chapter deals with the summary, conclusion and recommendations made to stakeholders. It is, perhaps, important to point out here that ethical and moral values are the most prominent feature of a personality which would consider women for leadership in sports management and administration. Traditional and local customs have to give way to new ways of thinking in order to allow women participate and take charge of sports administration.

5.1. SUMMARY

Since there is scarcity of research that focuses on Zambian women in sport leadership, this study adds to the existing literature on women sports and also provides a new cultural perspective on understanding studies on leadership. It is also important to point out that the understanding of experiences of Zambian women in sport leadership requires an understanding of the historical as well as the social- political contexts.

While diverse feminisms have been used to advocate for equal opportunities for women, it is important to understand that each of the feminists takes into consideration the context of the phenomenon. For example, one of the most understated cultural conflicts between Zambian (African) and Western cultures is that unlike in the West where women that were bound by Victorian cultures were subordinate to men, the African traditional society operated a structure where women were empowered, held equal responsibilities and actively participated in the decision making process (Freedman 2002). This implies that the purposes and objectives for the women's rights would differ in that, while African women's efforts are in regaining their lost power, the European women are seeking power and equality that they had never experienced to before.

5.2. CONCLUSION

One conclusion made from this research is that lack of policies is the major impediment to women's empowerment, thus it is important that governments and their agencies implement empowerment policies and adopt them. These laws should include those that deal with access to opportunities and protection policies, as well as those that help create a safe sports environment for girls and women. Research studies indicated that women in leadership were highly educated individuals. This suggested that very high standards are required of those aspiring for leadership positions. Therefore it is imperative to have women leaders encouraged to attend professional development courses, as well as advance their education because this will enable them to remain relevant and contribute to the decision-making process within sports organizations.

5.3. RECOMMENDATIONS.

Recommendations are based on the results or findings. The findings are used to recommend what can be done to improve social actions, policies, activities, and behaviour change (Dube, 2011:124). The following are some of the recommendations that the researcher would like to put forward in the light of the above discussion and conclusion.

This research showed that schools and various institutions are critical in providing sports and socializing women into leadership. In view of this, schools need to emphasize the importance of PE and sports by providing opportunities as well as involving teachers and parents to provide social and material support to learners. In addition, PE teachers and community leaders can be used to start developing women leaders at the grassroots levels by engaging them in sport activities. In this regard, it would be important for PE teachers to work with the women's sports bodies across the nation, e.g., NSC, Coca Cola Cup, MTN Super league, to mention but few, to reach out to the women at the grassroots levels.

NSC needs to expand its activities, advertise more and have representatives throughout the country to help promote women sports. The success shown by women in sports leadership indicate that there is a unique perspective that women bring to organization and institutions which combines collaborative, nurturing and strictness which result in efficiently managing programs. Zambia and many other African countries need to tap into women's potential and special skills to help improve their programs.

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Appendix I: QUESTIONNAIRE for lecturers, PE Teachers, sports leaders.



HELLENIC REPUBLIC
UNIVERSITY OF PELOPONNESE
FACULTY OF HUMAN MOVEMENT AND QUALITY OF LIFE
SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF SPORTS ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT.

Dear Respondents,

I am **PHIRI TOMAIDA** a Postgraduate student number **6062201402030** at the **University of PELOPONNESE** in **GREECE** pursuing a Master's Degree of Faculty of Human Movement and Quality of Life Sciences in **“OLYMPIC STUDIES, OLYMPIC EDUCATION, ORGANISATION AND MANAGEMENT OF OLYMPIC EVENTS”**, I am carrying out a study to establish the experience of women in sports leadership in Sport associations in Zambia; that is, their leadership experience in sports. Kindly answer the following questions as honestly as you can. The information that you provide will be treated with all the confidentiality it deserves.

(a). Do not write your name.

(b). Kindly tick the best choice for you (Questions 1, 2, 3 and 4).

1. Male Female

2. Do you have sporting/ Physical Education activities at your institute?

A. No

B. Yes

3. Is sport/Physical Education important at your institute?
- A. No
 - B. Yes
4. Who is responsible for organizing the sporting activities at your institute?
- A. Men only
 - B. Women only
 - C. Both men and women.
5. Kindly list the roles women fulfil in sports leadership at your institute
-
-
-
6. What challenges do women encounter in sports leadership? (explain)
-
-
-
-
7. How do women in sports leadership overcome the challenges you stated above?
-
-
-
8. Should women be encouraged to take leadership positions in sports? Explain.
-
-
-

Thank you for your time.

Appendix II: Semi Structured Interview for Directors of Sporting Institutions.



HELLENIC REPUBLIC
UNIVERSITY OF PELOPONNESE
FACULTY OF HUMAN MOVEMENT AND QUALITY OF LIFE
SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF SPORTS ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT.

I am **PHIRI TOMAIDA** a Postgraduate student number **6062201402030** at the **University of PELOPONNESE** in **GREECE** pursuing a Master's Degree of Faculty of Human Movement and Quality of Life Sciences in **OLYMPIC STUDIES, OLYMPIC EDUCATION, ORGANISATION AND MANAGEMENT OF OLYMPIC EVENTS**. I am carrying out a study to establish the experience of women in sports leadership in Sport associations in Zambia; that is, their leadership experience in sports. I would like to have an interview with you on the experiences of women in sport leadership in sport associations in Zambia. I am happy to inform you that there is no right or wrong answer in this discussion. Kindly feel free to share your true feelings and opinions with me during our discussion. The discussion will be kept confidential. Kindly feel free to participate.

1. Do you have sporting/ Physical Education activities at your institute?
2. Is sport/Physical Education important at your institute?
3. Who is responsible for organizing the sporting activities at your institute?
4. What are the roles women fulfil in sports leadership at your institute?
5. What challenges do women encounter in sports leadership?
6. Explain how women in sports leadership overcome the challenges you stated earlier.
7. Should women be encouraged to take leadership positions in sports?

Appendix III: Letter of Consent.



HELLENIC REPUBLIC

UNIVERSITY OF PELOPONNESE

FACULTY OF HUMAN MOVEMENT AND QUALITY OF LIFE

SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF SPORTS ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT.

I am **PHIRI TOMAIDA** a Postgraduate student number **6062201402030** at the **University of PELOPONNESE** in **GREECE** pursuing a Master's Degree of Faculty of Human Movement and Quality of Life Sciences in **OLYMPIC STUDIES, OLYMPIC EDUCATION, ORGANISATION AND MANAGEMENT OF OLYMPIC EVENTS**, I am carrying out a study to establish the experience of women in sports leadership in Sport associations in Zambia; that is, their leadership experience in sports. I need to get your earnest opinion in order for me to accurately write on the topic. The Ministry of Health (Zambia) Ethics committee has given me the permission to conduct the study. I am assuring you that the information you are going to give will be kept confidential. If you are willing to take part in this study, please write your name in the spaces provided below. Should you fill at any point of the study, like during a discussion, interview or answering a questionnaire that you cannot continue, you are free to withdraw.

Participant's Name:

Signature:.....