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**SCHOOL OF HEALTH SCIENCES**  
**DEPARTMENT OF BIOKINETICS, EXERCISE AND**  
**LEISURE SCIENCE**

**PARTICIPATION OF ZIMBABWEAN FEMALE STUDENTS IN**  
**UNIVERSITY SPORTS**

**BY**

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**ORIGINALITY AND DECLARATION**

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**TITLE OF PROJECT:                      PARTICIPATION OF ZIMBABWEAN FEMALE  
STUDENTS IN UNIVERSITY SPORTS**

**DEGREE:                                      RESEARCH MASTERS DEGREE IN SPORTS  
SCIENCE**

**ACADEMIC YEAR:                      2014/2017**

**DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that this dissertation is all my own work and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others and it has not been submitted in any form to the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal or any other Institution.

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**RELEASE FORM**

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**DEDICATION**

*To Derick, Judith, Linda & Lydia*

*&*

*To you, the reader...*

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

BUSE	-	Bindura University of Science Education
CUT	-	Chinhoyi University of Technology
FGD	-	Focus Group Discussion(s)
GZU	-	Great Zimbabwe University
KWIC	-	Key Word in Context
LSU	-	Lupane State University
MSU	-	Midlands State University
NUST	-	National University of Science and Technology
QDAS	-	Qualitative Data Analysis Software
SPSS	-	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UKZN	-	University of Kwa-Zulu Natal
ZTISU	-	Zimbabwe Tertiary Institutions Union
ZUSA	-	Zimbabwe Universities Sports Association

## ABSTRACT

This study sought to establish the factors affecting the participation of female students in university sports and identify the measures that can help to increase the participation of Zimbabwean female students in university sports. Data was collected through a methodological triangulation of questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions from purposively sampled sports participants (n=125) and non-sports participant female students (n=125), Sports Directors (n=5) and Deans of Students (n=5) drawn from five of the eleven universities that are affiliated to the Zimbabwe Universities Sports Association (ZUSA). The resultant data was analysed by means of quantitative and qualitative procedures using Chi-square with  $p \leq 0.05$  for quantitative data and by NVIVO 11 Qualitative Data Analysis Software (QDAS). The study established that, although the participation of female students in university sports has improved drastically in the last five years, female students still participate less than their male counterparts. It was also noted that, although institution based constraints have played a part in shaping the current trends of sport participation in Zimbabwean universities, these trends were mainly shaped by the gender stereotypes in the wider Zimbabwean society. The study established that the levels of female student participation can be improved by adopting a national strategy where gender mainstreaming is incorporated in the primary and secondary school curriculum as a means to influence people away from the societal gender stereotypes that have produced the current gender disparities in university sports participation. The findings show that female students derive recreational, material, monetary and psychological benefits. The findings showed that there were no deliberate institutional efforts to try and improve the levels of sport participation by female students in the five case study universities. It was also established that the participation of female students in sports can be improved through the adoption of such institutional measures as; employing female coaches and female sports administrators to be in charge of female student teams, using female role models in campaigns to motivate females to participate in sport, instituting policy measures that redress gender imbalances in sport participation and availing campus accommodation and accessible sporting facilities.

**Keywords:** Gender stereotypes, Gender mainstreaming, Zimbabwe Universities Sports Association, Sports Participants, Non-sports participants, Feminine, Masculine, Gender, Sex.

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background

This study sought to establish the factors affecting the participation of female students in university sports and identify the measures that can help to increase the participation of Zimbabwean female students in university sports. This Chapter discusses the background and contextual issues relating to female participation in Zimbabwean university sports. The Chapter continues with the definition of the research problem, the research questions the study seeks to answer, the aim and objectives of the study, type of study and method, significance of the study and delimitations of the study.

Studies have shown that sport participation brings numerous physiological, psychological, educational and social benefits to the participants such as improving health, obeying the competition or societal rules and constraining delinquent behaviours; promoting societal values, integrity and building character; enhancing confidence, motivation, sense of empowerment, and self-esteem; providing social interaction, fun and enjoyment; offering opportunities for education and career in sports; expanding life experience and making more friends; knowing how to deal with failure and difficult situations, and developing life skills (Coakley, 2007; Eitzen and Sage, 2008; Hudson, 2000; Shaffer and Wittes, 2006; Woods, 2006; Woodruff and Schallert, 2008).

More specifically, Wolniak, Pierson and Pascarella (2001); Umbach, Palmer, Kuh and Hannah (2006); Williams, Sarraf and Umbach (2006) noted that there are many positive educational benefits accruing from intercollegiate sports participation. These studies indicated that collegiate student athletes were often more engaged in academic and campus activities than their non-athlete peers. Student athletes were also more likely to transfer learnt life and work skills, and self-esteem and character traits into their chosen career fields (Weis, 2007).

In the same vein Mixon, Trevino and Minton (2004), argue that successful athletic programs that consistently win more games attract student athletes and non-student athletes with higher academic scores, hence improving the academics of the institution as a whole. Despite the

acknowledged physiological, psychological, educational and social benefits of sport participation, studies carried out in Europe, Asia, North America and Australia have shown that women, when compared to men, participate less frequently in outdoor recreation, have different attitudes towards leisure, and their participation is decreased at an earlier age in life (Beashel and Taylor, 1996).

Kay (2002) state that the exploration of gender and sexuality issues in sport identifies barriers to female participation that still remain despite the widely legislated equality of access to sport and physical activity. Various forms of sexual harassment, homophobia and abuse experienced by women in sport and recreational contexts pose formidable barriers both to full female participation and to women's potential to develop and define sports in women centred terms. Historically, women have been viewed as something less than their male counterparts. In all societies throughout the world, women have been oppressed; and they continue to live in a world that is governed and controlled by men. Women have fewer opportunities and experience more barriers to participation than men.

Beashel and Taylor (1996) argue that some sports are still seen as unsuitable for women. Women do not think that playing sport will make them attractive to men. They go on to state that married women are expected to take responsibility for the home and children. This reduces the energy and time they have for sports. Sport for the mother is a low priority in family life. They do not always have an independent income to spend on sports or their own transport.

According to Ennis (1999), the physical education curricula generally include more activities that are considered mostly for boys (team sports) and include few, if any, activities that are viewed as primarily for girls (aerobics and dance). He goes on to explain that when girls feel that an activity is for boys, they may not have the confidence in their ability to be successful which will ultimately impact their potential for developing skills in a wide range of activities.

Whilst sport participation trends in Europe, Asia, North America and Australia have been subjected to a lot of academic enquiry, the nature and trends of female student participation in Zimbabwean university sports competitions has remained opaque and under-researched. However, ZUSA competition statistics have shown that there is a general lack of participation

in university sports by female students when compared to their male counterparts (ZUSA President Annual Report, 2012). It is against this background that this study was undertaken to increase knowledge levels on the nature, motives and benefits of female students' participation in university sports. The aim was thus to inform a strategic framework that can reduce the current gender disparities in sports participation in the country's universities.

## **1.2 Problem Statement**

In spite of the acknowledged health and social benefits of sport and physical activities to university students, preliminary investigations have shown that female students in Zimbabwean institutions of higher learning, when compared to their male counterparts, participate less frequently in outdoor recreation. This is clearly captured in the 2009-2013 Zimbabwe University Sports Association Games participation figures, which show that on average, 45% of the registered participants were female compared to 55% for their male counterparts. However, the factors responsible for shaping the nature and trends of female student participation in Zimbabwean university sports competitions have remained under-researched. This study was therefore inspired by the need to bridge these knowledge gaps. The ultimate aim was to identify the measures that can help to improve the participation of female students in university sports.

## **1.3 Research Aim**

This study proposed to investigate the participation of Zimbabwean female students in university sport, its antecedents and identify measures that can be put in place to improve their participation.

## **1.4 Research Objectives**

- i) To determine the current levels of university sports participation by Zimbabwean female university students.
- ii) To identify the factors responsible for shaping the current levels of female students participation in university sports.
- iii) To determine the perceived benefits that Zimbabwean female university students derive from participating in university sports.

- iv) To measure the perceived effectiveness of the approaches used by Zimbabwean university sports administrators to encourage female students to participate in university sports.

### **1.5 Research Questions**

- i) What are the current levels of participation in university sports by Zimbabwean female students?
- ii) What factors are responsible for shaping the current levels of female students' participation in university sports?
- iii) What are the perceived benefits that Zimbabwean female university students derive from university sports participation?
- iv) How effective are the approaches used by Zimbabwean university sports administrators to encourage female students to participate in university sports?

### **1.6 Type of Study, Method and Study Period**

This study was descriptive and exploratory in nature. Quantitative and qualitative mixed methods approach research tools were used i.e. questionnaires, semi-structured face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions. The study was completed in 18 months. The purpose of this study was to develop a clear understanding of the level of participation of Zimbabwean female students in university sports and the factors affecting their attitudes towards university sports. Hardly, any Zimbabwean study on the participation of female students in university sports has been published. Zimbabwean academic practitioners and tertiary sports administrators depend on literature from studies carried out in Europe, Australia, Asia and North American countries. Such studies may not accurately mirror the nature and motives of sports participation by female university students in Zimbabwe, given the vast socio-cultural differences. This study can therefore, contribute towards the resolution of this dilemma and develop an adapted Zimbabwean literature from which local academic practitioners and sports administrators can draw and apply in their operations.

### **1.7 Significance of the Study**

The study also sought to provide information that can help Zimbabwean tertiary sports administrators to understand the attitudes and motivational levels of female athletes and enable them to craft strategies that can enhance the participation of female students in

university sports. There are no known Zimbabwean experts on gender issues in sports participation. To this end, it is hoped that the study can equip this researcher with adequate knowledge and skills to enable her to exploit the untapped consultancy and research opportunities in the sector.

### **1.8 Study Delimitations**

The study focused on the following physical, social and mental boundaries due to financial, time and capacity constraints: The study focused on the participation of Zimbabwean female students in university sports in universities affiliated to ZUSA. The assumption was that female students' participation patterns and trends were clear enough to address the objectives of this study. Five of the eleven universities affiliated to ZUSA were investigated. It was however impractical to comprehensively cover all the Universities because of time and financial constraints, as these universities are dotted right around the whole country.

### **1.9 Outline of the Report**

This dissertation is organised into six interconnected chapters. Chapter 1 provides the research problem and its setting, while Chapter 2 reviews the relevant literature for this study. In Chapter 3, the research methodology used in the study is discussed and justified. Chapter 4 presents the empirical and qualitative data that was collected for the research as well as analysis and interpretation. Chapter 5 provides a detailed discussion of the results presented in Chapter 4. Chapter 6 outlines a summary of findings of the research and draws conclusions as well as recommendations emanating from the study.

### **1.10 Chapter Summary**

This Chapter gave an overview of the conceptual framework of the study and outline, its rationale and benefits to stakeholders, the possible constraints, mental and geographical boundaries of the research problem. The next Chapter shall thematically expound and evaluate relevant literature on the female participation in university sports.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

The previous Chapter introduced the research problem. This Chapter reviews the literature on the participation of female students in university sports. The ultimate aim was to identify the knowledge gaps upon which to ground the study. The Chapter commences with a detailed analysis of theoretical constructs on gender and sports participation. A detailed review of theoretical frameworks on female participation in university sports that were published in the last two decades was also undertaken. The structure of the literature review follows an inverted pyramid organisation whereby the review begins with a discussion of the related literature from a broad perspective. It then deals with more and more specific or localised studies which focus increasingly on the specific question at hand.

#### **2.2 Theories of Gender and Sport**

What is gender? Is it a thing people have or a process people go through (Messner and Sabo, 1990)? In this section, gender as well as a variety of theories used to examine gender including feminism and feminist theory will be explained. The central categories of analysis used to explore gender such as gender identity and gendered representation are also fleshed out. Gender has been taken up and applied by researchers in multiple sport domains such as feminist sport studies and masculinity in sport studies.

The terms sex and gender are often used interchangeably. However, this is not accurate. According to the American Psychological Association (APA) (2011), sex “refers to a person’s biological status” and can be identified by “sex chromosomes, gonads, internal reproductive organs, and external genitalia” while gender refers to “the attitudes, feelings, and behaviours that a given culture associates with a person’s biological sex” (APA, 2011). Sport sociologist Coakley (2009) suggests that gender is what is thought to be “masculine” or “feminine” in a society. In this gender binary system, everyone is classified into only two sex categories: male or female, with the assumption that if a baby is born male, he will be “masculine” and if a baby is born female, she will be “feminine.” Sex and gender, then, are inextricably intertwined and conflated in a gender binary system. Not only are these

categories set up to be “opposites,” but they are interpreted as “natural” categories where “male” and “masculine” are better than “female” and “feminine.” This is particularly true for cultures like the United States where males control “a disproportionate share of power and resources”. As Coakley (2009) wrote: Like Layton (2004) speculated that hegemonic masculinity and femininity (e.g., the dominant and “taken-for-granted” notions about “normal” masculinity and femininity) are likely to be the most powerful gender internalizations. Each is associated with its own modes of action and response in relationship. For example, the “traditional” modes of action for males in North American society are assertion, agency, and aggression; the “traditional” modes of action for females are restraint, constraint, and passivity. The “traditional” mode of response in relationship for males is non-responsiveness while the “traditional” mode of response for females is responsiveness.

Layton (2004) furthered that these “traditional,” dominant and hegemonic modes of action and relationship are not the only ones that people experience. Both males and females maintain not just one but multiple gender identities, each associated with its own unique modes of action and response in relationship. For example, the same girl could grow up to be “athletic in relation to an active mother or father, passive and small in relation to a caretaking mother or father, flirty in relation to a seductive or distracted mother or father”, depending upon her social environment. Further, an upper-class Caucasian girl, for example, will receive very different messages about how she can act and what she can do in the world as compared to a lower-class Caucasian girl, a girl of color, a middle-class Hispanic boy, etc. Lastly, Layton (2004) asserted that gendered experience is not fixed in stone at a particular age or stage of development; rather, gendered experience evolves with our evolving sets of developing relationships. In other words, gender is developed in relationship.

### **2.2.1 Feminism and Feminist Theory**

Hooks (2000), defined feminism as “a movement to end sexism, sexist exploitation, and oppression”. The basic goals of feminism are to promote women’s rights, transform society, privilege women’s ways of knowing, and include their voices in research (Andermahr, Lovell and Wolkowitz, 1997; Harnois, 2013; and Gardner, 2006). Feminist theory is an umbrella term for a variety of theories used to examine the social injustices, including sexism, sexist exploitation, and oppression, that many women suffer because of their gender.

Feminist theories have developed and evolved after women's experiences and perceptions were finally included in academic research after many years of being ignored. According to Harnois (2013), early approaches to feminist research in the social sciences aimed to transform traditional academic disciplines. Feminist scholars sought to centralize women's issues within the humanities, social sciences, and biological sciences. They introduced new questions and considered new sources of information. They challenged gender bias and sexism in the research process and worked to give intellectual legitimacy to a variety of issues related to women and gender more broadly.

## **2.3 Theories on Gender Imbalances**

There are several theories that fall under the discussion of gender imbalance namely social and psychological perspective, social cognitive theory of gender development and differentiation, cognitive theory of early gender development, gender inequality and higher education and many more. These theories are extensively discussed below.

### **2.3.1 The Social and Psychological Perspective**

These theories treat gender imbalances as a socially and psychologically constructed 'phenomena'.

#### **2.3.1.1 Social Cognitive Theory of Gender Development and Differentiation**

Bussey and Bandura (1999) state that human differentiation on the basis of gender is a fundamental phenomenon that affects virtually every aspect of people's daily lives. The theory presents the social cognitive theory of gender role development and functioning. It specifies how gender conceptions are constructed from the complex mix of experiences and how they operate in concert with motivational and self-regulatory mechanisms to guide gender-linked conduct throughout the life course. The theory integrates psychological and socio-structural determinants within a unified conceptual structure. In this theoretical perspective, gender conceptions and roles are the product of a broad network of social influences operating interdependently in a variety of societal subsystems. Human evolution provides bodily structures and biological potentialities that permit a range of possibilities rather than dictate a fixed type of gender differentiation. People contribute to their self-development and bring about social changes that define and structure gender relationships through their agentic actions within the interrelated systems of influence.

In the same vein, Martin, Ruble and Szkrybalo (2002) contends that the ability to differentiate the two sexes and to link them to different activities and their associated social sanctions is all that is necessary for children to begin to learn gender role stereotypes. The children choose activities that consistently precede gender self-identity, which already involves gender-linked stereotypes from having observed certain activities occur correlatively with abstraction of a set of gender attributes integrated into a more general role of the two sexes before they have a conception of gender.

### **2.3.1.2 The Meaning of Difference: Gender Theory, Postmodernism and Psychology - Paradoxes in Gender Theorizing**

Paradoxes arise because every representation conceals at the same time it reveals. For example, focusing on gender differences marginalises and obscures the interrelatedness of women and men as well as the restricted opportunities of both. It also obscures institutional sexism and the extent of male authority. The issue of gender differences has been a divisive one for feminist scholars. Some believe that differences affirm women's value and special nature; others are concerned that focusing on differences reinforces the status quo and support inequality, given that the power to define remains with men. A paradox is that effort to affirm the special value of women's experience and their "inner life" turns attention away from efforts to change the material conditions of women's lives and alleviate institutional sexism (Hare-Mustin and Marecek, 2015).

### **2.3.1.3 Gender Inequality and Higher Education**

Jacobs (1996) reviewed a diverse literature on gender and higher education. He states that gender inequality is more pronounced in some aspects of the educational systems than in others. The analysis distinguishes access to higher education; college experiences; and post collegiate outcomes. Women fare relatively well in the area of access, less well in terms of the college experience, and are particularly disadvantaged with respect to the outcomes of schooling. Explanations of gender inequality in higher education should distinguish between these different aspects of education and should explain those contexts in which women have attained parity as well as those in which they continue to lag behind men. David (2015) also argues that while there have been very welcome changes in higher education, such that there is a gender balance of undergraduate students in higher education, this does not mean that gender equality has been achieved.

### **2.3.2 Gender Imbalances in Sport**

There are several factors that contribute to gender imbalance in sports not only in Africa but the rest of the world at large. These factors are discussed below.

#### **2.3.2.1 Towards a Feminist Alternative to Sport as a Male Preserve**

Theberge (1984) contends that sport is a gendered cultural form that has been dominated by men and masculinity. The effects of this domination upon broader patterns of social relations have been misrepresented in much of the literature on sport and gender, where sport is often conceptualized as a static fact, rather than as a dynamic social practice. Analysis of sport as a social practice directs attention to the manner in which sport gives meaning to broader patterns of social relations. In the case of gender relations, sport as a male preserve has contributed to the oppression of women through the objectification and domination of their physicality and sexuality. A feminist alternative to sport as a male preserve challenges gender inequality by challenging sexual stereotypes and patriarchal control of women's bodies (Theberge 1984). This theory concentrated on two issues:

- i) The first and simplest way in which to indicate male dominance of sport is to examine gender differences in sport participation. Although there is evidence that the gap is still narrowing in rates of participation between men and women, in general, sport is still largely organised for men;
- ii) A second instance of sport as a male preserve is male dominance in the administration and organisation of sport. Historically, leadership positions in sport have been held almost exclusively by men. In contrast to the limited recent gains achieved by women in sport participation, in the past few years women have experienced losses in their proportion of leadership positions in sports.

In the same vein, Frey and Eitzen (1991) contend that sport and the values associated with sport have traditionally been those relevant males not females. Any research that did include gender typically assumed that there was an inherent conflict between being a woman and participating in sport. Thus, sport has tended to celebrate the achievements of men while marginalising the status of women by placing women in expressive, supportive roles such as cheerleaders, or relegating participation by women to a secondary status. Sport has been as a result largely a “male preserve” supported by institutional practices of discrimination against women.

Jarrat (1990) also agree with Theberge (1984) when she states that diverging feminist perspectives are examined in the scholarly literature on women and sports. One perspective aims at dispelling myths about women being athletically inferior to men. Another perspective emphasizes the benefits of athletic competition for women, claiming that female athletes maintain their feminine attributes while acquiring healthy, traditionally male behaviours and attitudes that enhance their self-concept. A third concept focuses on the defects of male-constructed athletics, and it calls for a new, more feminine approach to sports that elevates cooperation and community over competition.

### **2.3.2.2 Sports and Male Domination: The Female Athlete as Contested Ideological Terrain**

Messner (1988) explored the historical and ideological meanings of organised sports for the politics of gender relations. After outlining a theory for building a historically grounded understanding of sport, culture, and ideology, the study argues that organised sports have come to serve as a primary institutional means for bolstering a challenged and faltering ideology of male superiority in the 20th century. Increasing female athleticism represents a genuine quest by women for equality, control of their own bodies, and self-definition, and as such represents a challenge to the ideological basis of male domination. Yet this quest for equality is not without contradictions and ambiguities. The socially constructed meanings surrounding physiological differences between the sexes, the present "male" structure of organised sports, and the media framing of the female athlete all threaten to subvert any counter-hegemonic potential posed by female athletes. In short, the female athlete and her body has become a contested ideological terrain.

Cultural conceptions of femininity and female beauty have more than aesthetic meanings; these images, and the meanings ascribed to them, inform and legitimize unequal power relations between the sexes (Banner, 1983; Brownmiller, 1984; Lakoff and Scherr, 1984). Attempting to be viewed as feminine involves accepting behavioural and physical restrictions that make it difficult to view one's self, much less to be viewed by others, as equal with men. But if traditional images of femininity have solidified male privilege through constructing and then naturalizing the passivity, weakness, helplessness, and dependency of women, what are we to make of the current fit, athletic, even muscular looks that are increasingly in vogue

with many women? Is there a new, counter-hegemonic image of women afoot that challenges traditional conceptions of femininity?

## **2.4 Participation in Sports by Women in General**

### **2.4.1 Levels of Participation in Sport by Women**

According to Sandys (2007), women's participation in sport has a long history. It is a history marked by division and discrimination, but also one filled with major accomplishments by female athletes. These achievements were made in the face of numerous barriers based on gender discrimination.

In spite of these acknowledged achievements and benefits of sport to female participants, Beulens, Stolk, Van Der Schouw, Grobbee, Hendriks and Bots, (2005), notes that participation in sport is clearly dominated by males with four in every ten likely to participate in sports and only one in every ten females likely to participate in sports. Adeyanju (2013) also notes that there was low involvement of women in sports in Nigeria and attributed this to the long history of direct, and indirect systemic forms of discrimination and stereotyping as well as many other problems that women have to contend with. Chen, Fox and Haase (2010) echoes that a male-dominated culture was also reflected in the curriculum and sport participation in Taiwan.

Table 2.1 summarises a range of empirical research into girls' participation in sports and physical activities. These and other studies report a clear trend of decreasing levels of activity as girls get older, and a widening disparity between girls' and boys' physical activity behaviours. For example, one US study estimated that the decline in physical activity during secondary schooling is 7.4% for girls, compared with 2.7% for boys. Another report suggested that Australian female adolescents were approximately 20% less active than their male peers. Since sedentary lifestyles are associated with increased risk of ill-health, both during childhood and in later life, these figures are cause for concern.

**Table 2.1: Summary of Studies on Sports Participation by Gender**

Source	Country	Sample	Method	Key Findings
Benefice <i>et al.</i> (2001)	Senegal	40 girls (13±0.5)	Accelerometry	Estimated levels of activity high, but clear decline during three years of study. Girls attending school less active than non-attenders.
Saxena <i>et al.</i> (2002)	US	305 girls (12-21 years)	Survey	Low levels of activity in majority of girls. Factors associated with regular vigorous activity: friends exercising, involvement in sports team, trying to lose weight, believing in importance of exercise, and being under 17 years of age. Time constraints and laziness most common reasons given for inactivity.
Fitness and Lifestyle Research Institute (2004)	Canada	5,303 adults (15 years +)	Telephone interviews	Teenage boys twice as likely as teenage girls to meet international guidance on physical activity.
Lasheras <i>et al.</i> (2001)	Spain	1,358 children (6-15 years)	Re-analysis of survey data	Percentage of active boys higher than that of girls in all age categories.
Singapore Sports Council (2001)	Singapore	Singapore 817 (15-19 years)	Interview	Rate of sports participation higher among males than females. With exception of walking, participation rates for girls lower in all most popular activities.
Vilhjalmsson and Kristjansdottir (2003)	Iceland	1619 girls / 1651 boys	Survey	Survey girls' lower enrolment in organised sports fully accounts for gender differences in overall physical activity, and largely accounts for differences in frequency of strenuous activity.
Aaron <i>et al.</i> (1996) US	US	604 girls and 641 boys (12-16 years)	Questionnaire	Boys considerably more active than girls on all measures, and boys spent more time vigorously exercising and competing in competitive sports than girls.
Australian Bureau of Statistics (2002)	Australia	22,325 (5- 65+)	Interview	Males had higher participation in every age group, with the difference most evident in the 12-14 and 15-19 age groups.
Guerra <i>et al.</i> (2001)	Portugal	232 girls and 22 boys (8-13 years)	Interview	Physical activity decreased significantly for all groups. Boys reported significantly involved in more activities, except in 8-9 age groups.

Adopted from Bailey, Wellard and Dismore (2005)

#### **2.4.2 Factors Affecting the Participation of Women in Sport**

Adeyanju (2013) identifies inadequate education and awareness by women about the benefits of participating in sports and cultural and religious factors as the main hindrances to women's sport participation in Nigeria. This is corroborated by Murray and Matuska (2009) who note that sometimes religion is used by conservative societies and institutions to prevent females from participating in sport. Religion and religious attitude, as regards the free association of men and women and the exposure of parts of the body, especially that of women, is a major constraint to female participation in sports (Adeyanju, 2013). According to Murray and Matuska (2009), some religious groups use fanatical texts to demonstrate sport as inappropriate for girls and this often shames families whose daughters play or scares families into barring their daughters from playing out of fear of religious authorities.

Yoshihara (2007) states that many cultures consider sport to be a male domain. Girls are often barred from watching and participating in sport as societies assume that the physical and psychological qualities associated with athleticism, such as strength and competitiveness, are "masculine" (Ibid). According to Yoshihara, in many traditional societies, femininity is associated with being petite or soft, as a result girls are often reluctant to build muscle mass. Murray *et al.* (2009) capture this where they argue that a girl's perception of her own body and her relationship with her body image can influence whether she feels confident or comfortable enough to play sport. They note that in many societies, beauty is often considered the opposite of what a girl's body looks like when she plays sport.

Therefore, many girls are apprehensive to join sport programmes, out of fear that they will not look attractive and their bodies will become less "feminine" because of the muscles, and therefore they will not have a boyfriend or ever get married. Becoming a wife often means giving up sport or other leisure activities in traditional societies (Yoshihara, 2007). These attitudes about the role a girl should or should not play in society are imposed upon adolescent girls and, over time, adopted by them as well (Ibid). Chen, Fox and Haase (2010) also identify cultural factors that discourage women's participation in physical activity in China. They note that in ancient Chinese culture, the responsibilities of men and women were clearly defined: men had the responsibility for matters outside the family while women were responsible for domestic affairs. Due to the expectation and pressure from society and family, women had to contain their efforts within the family area, thus they seldom worked outside of

the home. Most of the time, they just stayed home to do the housework and handicrafts, which did not need a lot of strength to accomplish. As a result, these traditional expectations about women also indirectly impacted upon women's participation in physical activities. It was not necessary for Chinese women to be strong; hence, it was not a major concern for Chinese women (Chen, Fox and Haase, 2010). Adeyanju (2013) echoes this view by noting that there are physiological myths in Nigeria, like in many other parts of the world, where many people still believe that physical exercise by women has a detrimental effect on their reproductive organs and that women lose their femininity through active participation in sports. Similarly, within some Native American Indian cultures, sport may not "fit with the identity" of women and may elicit social stigmas for those who do exercise (Eyler *et al.*, 2002). Other cultural barriers stem from racist ideals that some societies hold. For example, many Black South African women avoid physical activity because women seen exercising are often viewed as "wasting time" or "wanting to be white" (Walter and Du Randt, 2011). In Pakistan, the lack of private space where girls can compete without being seen by men is an obstacle (Yu C, Liaw Y. and Barnd S, 2010). In Zimbabwe, girls are expected to dance, while football is reserved for men (Zvomuya, 2000).

According to Rimms (2001) girls from economically disadvantaged backgrounds can find the costs associated with equipment, transportation and competition unrealistic for their families. Additionally, playing sport can mean time away from paid jobs and work that generates income for a family, such as farming. Girls are often pulled out of school early to work and provide income for the family. The report notes that parents will be resistant to letting their daughter stop an activity that brings the family money and start an activity that, as many cultures regard, is a waste of time or won't get her anywhere.

Adeyanju (2013) argues that media coverage of female sporting events is rather shallow and infrequent compared to that of men. The media, by their mode of coverage and presentation of women sports, tend to reinforce existing societal perceptions about female participation in sports. Yoshihara (2007) state that men's sport dominates television screens and sports media. This results in a situation where there is a general lack of female role models to inspire young women to take up sport seriously.

### **2.4.3 Benefits of Sports Participation by Women in General**

Appleby and Foster (2013) state that sport participation can elicit physical, mental, and social benefits.

#### **2.4.3.1 Physical Benefits**

Women who participate in sports experience physical, mental, and behavioural benefits (Blinde *et al.* 1993; Staurowsky *et al.*, 2009). It has been suggested that women who participate in sports at elite levels feel a sense of empowerment and increased body image and self-esteem compared to their counter non-athletes who scored higher in drive for thinness and showed signs of anorexia and bulimia (Robinson and Ferraro 2004; Staurowsky *et al.*, 2009). Participation in sport may also have a positive influence towards minimizing negative health behaviours such as delinquency or drug abuse (Pate *et al.*, 2000).

Sandys (2007) contends that although many of the clinical trials and epidemiological studies in health research have excluded women, the data available suggest that women derive many health benefits from an active lifestyle. It can prevent a myriad of non-communicable diseases which account for over 60 per cent of global deaths, 66 per cent of which occur in developing countries (Ibid). For girls, it can have a positive impact on childhood health, as well as reduce the risk of chronic diseases in later life. For older women, it can contribute to the prevention of cardiovascular diseases, which account for one third of deaths among women around the world and half of all deaths among women over the age of 50 in developing countries. Physical activity also helps to reduce the effects of osteoporosis, which most women suffer from. The benefits for women and girls with disabilities are also well established. It has been noted that sport provides a double benefit to women with disabilities by providing affirmations of self-empowerment at both personal and collective levels (Shiina *et al.*, 2007).

#### **2.4.3.2 Mental Benefits**

Shiina *et al.* (2007) notes that apart from enhancing health, wellness and quality of life, participation in sport and physical activity can also facilitate good mental health for women of all ages. It can promote psychological well-being through building self-esteem, confidence and social integration, as well as help reduce stress, anxiety, loneliness and depression. Appleby and Foster (2013) agree with the aforementioned mental benefits and go on to state

that pride in physical accomplishments, increased self-satisfaction, improved body image, increased feelings of energy, improved confidence in one's physical abilities and decreased symptoms associated with depression, are also mental benefits associated with participation in sports. Taliaferro, Rienzo, Miller, Pigg and Dodd (2008) suggested that playing sports may reduce the chance of suicide among teens and young adults. On the other hand sport can also improve academic performance in people of all grade levels (Chomitz *et al.*, 2009) and promote emotional management skills in athletes (Hansen, Larson and Dworkin, 2003).

#### **2.4.3.3 Social and Cultural Benefits**

Bailey *et al.* (2005) argues that sport provides women and girls with an alternative avenue for participation in the social and cultural life of their communities and promotes enjoyment of freedom of expression, interpersonal networks, new opportunities and increased self-esteem. Appleby and Foster (2013) states that sport participation helps their children develop important social skills such as; teamwork, leadership, sportsmanship, and respect. These skills gained from sport participation can carry over into the daily interactions of life (Barnett and Weber, 2008). Participating in sport can also help one to develop positive personal characteristics such as stress management, communication skills, and the ability to work well with others (Barnett and Weber, 2008).

### **2.5 Participation of Female Students in university sport**

#### **2.5.1 Levels of university sport Participation by Female Students**

Attarzadeh and Sohrabi (2007) indicated that females usually participate in physical recreational activities less frequently than males. Bakhshinia (2004) notes that more than 60 percent of female Muslim university students do not participate in any sporting activities. Similarly, a study by Akindutire and Oyeniya (2012) noted that Nigerian women university students participate less frequently in sport than their male counterparts due to such inhibiting factors as; parental influence, unavailability of standard facilities and equipment, coping with academic stress and university policy on sports.

This is corroborated by Cortis, Sawrikar and Muir (2009) who argue that female students are under-represented in intercollegiate sports as compared to their male counterparts despite the fact that sport is the key leisure activity and is an integral component of national culture and social life. Similarly, Eccles and Harold (1999) note that despite recent increases in female

sport participation, boys and girls still do not participate equally in the same sport activities. They went on to report that, a survey of 712 High Schools in a large Midwestern State revealed a very different pattern of sports participation for boys and girls. Boys were mostly likely to play football (42, 999), basketball (26,662) and baseball (19, 368); in contrast, girls were most likely to play basketball (17,011), volleyball (16, 306) and outdoor track and field (13, 478). Thus, not only did the girls and the boys prefer different sports, the girls also participated in substantially fewer numbers than boys even in their most preferred sports. Girls and boys may also differ in the nature of their sports related play.

### **2.5.2 Factors Affecting the Participation of Female Students in university sport**

Regular physical activity is vital for both female and male students'; however there are differences in the barriers to participating in physical activity. Female students' experience many and varied barriers to participating in sport. Some scholars list them as follows:

#### **2.5.2.1 Age**

Bailey *et al.* (2005) and Cortis *et al.* (2009) contend that age is the dominant biological determinant of physical activity in girls. Overall, levels of activity steadily decline from about six years of age until adolescence, when activity levels drop more steeply. Whether this decline ought to be understood solely in terms of biological influences is dubious, and it is, perhaps, noteworthy that the decline in sporting or physical activities among girls around 11 or 12 years occurs almost simultaneously with the period when gender ideology sharply interacts with socialisation influences.

#### **2.5.2.2 Peers**

According to Bailey *et al.* (2005), a key factor in whether girls engage in and sustain physical activities was whether they had a same-sex friend with whom to participate. For girls, physical activities often become less important in their lives as they are encouraged by pressure from their peer group to seek other activities associated with their preferred perceptions of femininity (Murray *et al.*, 2009). However, a study by Keegan, Harwood, Spray and Lavallee (2009) found a strong influence from coaches and parents. Peer motivation was not as strong a factor as the other two social factors, yet peer motivation had strong influences on friendship, affiliation, group identities and belonging.

### **2.5.2.3 Perceived Barriers**

Bailey *et al.* (2005) identify unsuitable weather, school pressures, dissatisfaction with school physical education classes, reluctance to get sweaty or dishevelled, and inaccessibility or inconvenience of sporting provision as the major barriers to sport participation. In the same vein, Akindutire and Oyeniyi (2012) state that inspite of the importance of sports and physical activities to the female undergraduates, many factors seem to be hindering their participation. These include perceived barriers such as university policy on sports and coping with academic stress, availability of standard facilities and equipment. Zvomuya *et al.* (2000) also agrees with the above point when he notes that university sports policies appear in some cases to discriminate against female students.

### **2.5.2.4 Family Influence**

Bailey *et al.* (2005) identify fathers as playing the primary role in influencing children's participation in sports and physical activities. According to them, the nature and extent of physical play opportunities depend greatly on the set of beliefs and expectations held by the parents, and these beliefs are particularly significant in relation to gender. From an early age, many parents, in a range of cultures, treat boys and girls differently and encourage different styles of play in physical activity contexts, most commonly by providing gender-based toys and encouraging boys and girls to engage in gender stereotyped activities, usually with boys encouraged to play vigorously and girls quietly (Bailey *et al.*, 2005).

However, studies by Keegan *et al.* (2009) suggested that female college student athletes between 18-24 years of age may not be highly motivated by their parents, possibly due to the separation experienced in college and the developmental stage in life that they are currently in. In the same vein, a study by Akindutire and Oyeniyi (2012) revealed that parental influence is not a significant inhibiting factor to female participation in sports in Nigerian Universities. This may be due to the fact that majority of the students do not stay with their parents.

### **2.5.2.5 Role Models**

Bailey *et al.* (2005) note that role models that influence children's physical activity participation change over time. In early childhood, primary role models are parents, with friends and teachers becoming more significant as they enter school, and sports players,

coaches and celebrities gaining an influence in adolescence. Boys and girls tend to attribute role models differently, with girls being more likely to name parents as models, while boys more often named public figures, such as sports stars. This difference may be due, in part, to the evident lack of female sporting role models available to girls.

In the same vein, Payne *et al.* (2014) contend that there are significant gender differences in the way athletes are viewed as role models, with males being more likely to identify with successful athletes while females tend to identify with parents. Saini (2015) also contends that seeing good sports people on television and in newspapers makes them a role model for people to look up to.

#### **2.5.2.6 Physical Education**

Shiina *et al.* (2007) states that physical education can facilitate the development of a foundation of movement skills and positive attitudes towards recreational physical activities. However, inappropriate provision of physical activity can disaffect some students, especially girls (Ibid). Many girls reject an overly competitive teaching climate, even the very able and physically active, and prefer individual, creative or co-operative activities (Shiina *et al.*, 2007).

#### **2.5.2.7 Type of Activity**

Shiina *et al.* (2007), note that boys are generally more physically active than girls and attribute it to the fact that boys spend more time in activity-enhancing environments than girls, particularly out-of-doors. They also note that boys and girls often engage in different types of activities. Bedward and Williams (2000) and Bailey *et al.* (2005) contend that activities offered in institutions influence female participation in sport.

#### **2.5.2.8 Socio-Cultural Influence**

Shiina *et al.* (2007), contends that parents' fears and concerns regarding safety can be a powerful constraint on children's time and access to opportunities for physical activity. A number of studies have shown that girls' freedom to move is curtailed by cultural norms and conditions that determine where it is safe or appropriate for them to go. This explains why girls take part less in out-of-doors physical activities than boys. Melese and Rani (2016) states that physical activities are influenced by culture and this extends to concerns about public safety for girls from cultural diversity.

### **2.5.2.9 Emphasis on Academic Pursuits**

There are diverging views on the relationship between sport participation and academic performance. According to Chen, Fox and Haase (2010), today most Taiwanese parents seldom encourage their children, especially high school students, to become involved in physical activities because by doing this it takes away the students' study time and their concentration on academic pursuits. Bowen and Levin (2003) corroborate this by stating that athletics programmes are usually viewed as distracters in higher education. A study by Simon, Bosworth, Fujita and Jensen, (2007) revealed that student athletes are sometimes perceived negatively by their professors and fellow students.

The study also noted that reported faculty members had made a negative remark about athletes in class. This usually stems from the fact that student athletes frequently miss classes, in order to travel to scheduled sports events and faculty members who have little understanding or empathy for the special needs and requirements of student athletes, react negatively to this (Fletcher, Benshoff and Richburg, 2003). On the other hand, Melese and Ranis (2016) and Richards (2008) state that work and study commitments contribute to lack of time for physical activity for both male and female students. In addition to these commitments, female commonly have responsibility for organising and others within it. Fourteen percent of Australian female students attribute insufficient time due to family commitments as their main reason for not participating in sports or physical recreation.

### **2.5.2.10 Media Coverage (Female Invisibility-Media Representations)**

Richards (2008) notes that on average, only 4% of sports coverage in national and local print media is dedicated to women's sport. This is significant because the media plays a central role in informing our knowledge, opinions and attitudes about women and sport, which, in turn, influence participation levels. Sports women such as Kelly Holmes (former Olympic athlete) and Paula Radcliffe (World marathon record holder), have high media profiles, but in general, a lack of coverage of women's sports leads to a dearth of female role models to inspire sportswomen and create the next generation of healthy, active women. Given that athleticism and sports participation have historically been viewed as the purview of boys and men, Hardin (2005) and Pedersen (2002b) state that it is perhaps not surprising that female athletes and women's sports have traditionally received far less media attention relative to male athletes and men's sports (Cooky *et al.*, 2010).

Contrary to the aforementioned findings on female invisibility in media representations, Chin (2001), argues that with the increasing exposure to Western countries the importance of being physically active, women's participation in a range of physical activities are now widely accepted in Taiwan. Recently, the media has transformed sport into a different lifestyle in Taiwan. The media exposure about girls and women in sports has increased women's interest in sport and physical activities (Chin, 2001). Taiwanese women access the World Wide Web and real time sporting events to get the most up to date sports information. Women can even participate in aerobic exercise via the ESPN channel in Taiwan instead of going to a fitness centre. The global sports information and media have already made life different in Taiwan.

The Zimbabwe women's national field hockey team won the gold medal at the 1980 Summer Olympics in Moscow, the first female Olympic tournament. They also won the inaugural Hockey African Cup for Nations in 1990, followed by a silver medal in 1994 and a bronze in 1998 (Cathy, 2008), hence became good role models for Zimbabwean female teams. The likes of Kirsty Coventry, the Zimbabwe's swimming sensation and one of the most decorated athletes in the Olympic history, being televised the world over and seen in news have made her to be role model for people to look up to. Media coverage influence participation rates. Saini (2015) agrees with the above statements and when she stated that when British female teams do well in a sport at the Olympics, there is often an increase in grassroots participation. This societal change indicates some freedom for women, thus encouraging women's participation in physical activities. Several other factors have also brought about this phenomenon.

#### **2.5.2.11 Motivation**

Melese (2016) and Bailey *et al.* (2005) state that motivation have been found to be one of the predictors of sports participation by female students. Few studies have looked in-depth into the motivation of female sport participation, particularly at the college level. Medic *et al.* (2007) compared male and female non-scholarship athletes from Canada and the United States using the Sports Motivation Scale. Findings suggest that differences in motivation were dependent on scholarship status with minimal difference between genders.

### **2.5.2.12 Incentives and Sport's Gender Pay Gap**

Title IX is a federal law that requires high schools and colleges that receive federal funds to not discriminate on the basis of gender in the provision of any educational activity including athletics. Female athletes should be treated as well as male athletes.

Wigmore (2016) contends that women's treatment in sport has always been a manifestation of wider gender inequality and, as sports evolved and professionalised, became self-perpetuating. The huge funding disparity between male and female sport means that women have had fewer opportunities to play sport, have suffered from inadequate coaching and facilities compared with those enjoyed by men, and have been paid meagre sums, even for playing international sport. This has damaged the quality of sport and therefore the attractiveness of the product to fans and broadcasters in two ways. Those that have played have often not been professional, so had less chance to hone their skills; and the lack of financial rewards mean that many leading players have retired prematurely.

In the same vein, women on Boards (2016) states that, the most lucrative sports remain far away from equalising remuneration. Even in sports with equal prize money for marquee competitions, there are often huge discrepancies lower down. In tennis, Novak Djokovic, the men's number one, earned twice as much as Serena Williams, the women's number one, last year although both won three of the four grand slams, the less prestigious men's tournaments pay far more than the women's events. In football the differences are even starker: there was £22m in prize money for the last men's football World Cup, but only £630,000 for the women's tournament (Wigmore, 2016).

Tennis is perceived to have acted more decisively on gender equality than any other major sport; yet recent months have shown the differences in how male and female tennis players are perceived. Last year, a commentator asked the Canadian player Eugenie Bouchard to "give us a twirl" after her victory in an Australian Open match. This March, Ray Moore, the chief executive of the Indian Wells tournament, said that women should "get down on their knees" and thank Roger Federer for making tennis so popular. That prompted a debate about equal pay in tennis, whereby Djokovic said that male tennis players should be paid more than female ones, on the grounds that they generate more cash for the sport and, in grand slams, play over five sets rather than three, (Wigmore, 2016).

King (2011) also argues that female footballers are rewarded significantly less than their male counterparts. For winning this year's World Cup in Brazil, Germany received more than £21m more than Japan's women did after they were crowned world champions in 2011. "It's that combination of the athletes advocating for what's right, and then the administrators supporting them, creating the public awareness that more equality, and eradicating gender bias in sport, needs to happen."

### **2.5.3 Benefits of Sports Participation by Female Students**

Bailey *et al.* (2005) note that female students derive many benefits from participating in sport. Chen, Snyder and Magner (2010) states that athletic participation brings numerous physiological, psychological, educational and social benefits to the participants. These general benefits of athletic participation and spectatorship may include: improving health and exerting students' surplus energies; obeying the competition or societal rules and constraining delinquent behaviours (such as cheating, acting violently, consuming illegal substances, and drinking excessive alcohol, promoting societal values, integrity and building character; enhancing confidence, motivation, sense of empowerment, and self-esteem; providing social interaction, fun and enjoyment; offering opportunities for education and career in sports; expanding life experience and making more friends; knowing how to deal with failure and difficult situation, and developing life skills.

This is supported by Smith (2008) who notes that students who participate in a recreational sports program during their college years open themselves up to a wide range of life enhancing benefits. Such benefits include discovering ways of coping with stress, creating a sense of accomplishment, finding ways to control body weight and maintaining physical well-being, building friendships and close contacts, as well as improving various sporting skills.

In the same vein, Banta, Bradley and Bryant (1991) recognized eight responses that students most frequently gave when evaluating their motivation for participation in recreational sports. These include: stress reduction, feeling of physical well-being, and sense of accomplishment, weight control, sport skills, physical strength, fitness, and friendship. They also identified physical strength and fitness as additional benefits to participation in sports. Smith (2008) identified two ways in which physical activities can contribute to mental health in girls. Firstly, there is fairly consistent evidence that regular activity can have a positive effect upon girls' psychological well-being; indeed, some studies indicate that girls may respond more

strongly than boys in terms of short-term benefits. Secondly, research has indicated that physical activity can contribute to the reduction of problematic levels of anxiety and depression. Evidence is beginning to be gathered for exercise as a treatment for clinical depression, with studies finding that physical activity is as effective a treatment as antidepressants, and psychotherapy. Similarly, a variety of non-clinical studies, Craft and Perna (2004); Craft, Freund, Culpepper and Perna (2007), have found that higher levels of activity were related to lower rates of depression. A position statement of the International Society of Sport Psychology, Bailey and Dismore (2005) drew out numerous mental health benefits of physical activity from the research literature, including reduced state anxiety, neuroticism and anxiety, mild to moderate depression, and various kinds of stress.

According to Crouse (2007), there is considerable evidence of a positive relationship between girls' participation in sports and pro-educational values, although, at present, it is difficult to distinguish between correlation and causation. Studies from the United States, King (2011) report a host of encouraging findings including that girls who participate in sports are more likely to achieve academic success than those who do not play sports. Other studies have suggested that sports participation can help undermine traditional gender stereotyping in terms of academic aptitude, by demonstrating an association between girls' engagement in sports and improved performance in science and mathematics. However, Gaston-Gayles (2004) found negatively correlated grade point averages between college students who participated in sports and were highly committed and their counterparts who were not committed to athletics.

Gaston-Gayles (2007) contend that adolescent pregnancy and sexual ill-health are major social problems across the globe. Although there is a shortage of research in this area, early studies conducted in the US have found that adolescent girls who participate in sports tend to become sexually active later in life, have fewer partners, and, when sexually active, make greater use of contraception than non-sporting girls.

Talbot, Metter and Fleg (2000) contend that studies of women's experiences of sports participation can contribute to a more generalized feeling of empowerment. In many settings, adolescents may be encouraged to view their bodies as sexual and reproductive resources for men, rather than sources of strength for themselves. Physical activities may help them

develop a sense of ownership of their bodies and access the types of activity experiences traditionally enjoyed by boys. This may be because participation augments girls' self-esteem, or because being an athlete carries with it a strong public identity. Some female athletes report having a stronger sense of identity and self-direction which Talbot calls 'being herself through sport.'

From a psychological perspective, leisure activities involve social interaction. Interaction between social groups through leisure activities not only promotes physical and mental health, but can also reduce psychological pressure. Leisure activities can enhance self-esteem, thereby engendering a positive attitude and facilitating psychological development. Participating in leisure activities can also prevent the development of depression. Therefore, as recreational sports promote both physiological and psychological well-being, the promotion of recreational sports participation should be an important element in public health campaigns.

In addition to the educational benefits, participation in college sports is a unique privilege that only approximately 3% of college students are offered with an athletic scholarship to attend college (O'Shaughnessy, 2009). This privilege is supposed to be a fun and rewarding experience for student athletes. However, unfortunately, that experience can often be tainted by an excessive emphasis on winning and commercialization (Eitzen and Sage 2008; Herbert 2005; Chen, Snyder and Magner, 2010). Commercialization is evidenced when large college sport programs derive 60-80% of their revenues from commercial sources and corporate sponsors. It is also evidenced as millions of dollars are spent on the renovation and building of new sport facilities instead of increasing academic scholarships or educational funds (Herbert, 2005). The emphasis on winning is evidenced as more cheating and violations have been reported when recruiting and additional violations of academic fraud concerning student athletes' eligibility (Chen, Snyder and Magner, 2010). An additional indicator that participation in athletics can become tainted with emphasis on winning and commercialization is the high rate of turnover and escalated increases of salaries in coaching positions (Wolverton, 2009).

Additional negative consequences and psychosocial problems were found to be associated with collegiate athletic participation. Those problems included:

- i) Violence on and off the court (Fields, Collins and Comstock 2007); (Grabmeier 2002; Women Sports Foundation 2004);
- ii) Poor academic performance and low graduation rates among major revenue-generating sports (Eitzen and Sage 2008; Shulman and Bowen 2001; Miller, Melnick, Barnes, Farrell and Sabo 2005; Pascarella *et al.* 1995; Pascarella *et al.* 1999);
- iii) Alcohol and performance-enhancement substance abuse (Bacon and Russell 2004; and, Grossbard, Geisner, Mastroleo, Kilmer, Turrisi and Larimer 2009);
- iv) Depression and burnout (Meyer 1997; Coakley 2007);
- v) Hazing (Crow and Rosener 2002; Hinkle, Smith and Stellino 2007);
- vi) Gambling (Bacon and Russell 2004); and,
- vii) Lack of social life and experience (Eccles and Barber 1999; Miller and Kerr 2003).

## **2.6 Approaches Used to Encourage Participation of Women in Sports**

Simiyu (2010) states that student athletes face challenges of individual nature including their personal involvement in academic oriented activities, time constraints, class attendance, personal goal setting and career choices, physical and emotional fatigue, transition to college environment and academic grades, as well as external ones such as coach demands, institutional policies, discrimination; marginalisation from college mainstream activities; college mission and learning environment, and eligibility demands from National Collegiate Athletic Association and National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics. It is prudent for college administrators to purposely create an accommodating learning environment as well as striving to integrate the student athletes into college wide activities.

In pursuit of gender equality in the field of sports in Nigeria, government at all levels, in collaboration with relevant international agencies, women advocacy groups, NGOs, sports associations and other stakeholders should create an enabling environment for unfettered participation by women in sports and its management in Nigeria. Similarly, those factors which militate against women, especially in the areas of leadership, policies, structure, programmes, training, resource allocation, education, training, publicity, welfare and health issues, must be eliminated. The attainment of gender equality in sports will afford Nigeria the opportunity to actualise the vast potential that Nigerian women constitute (Adeyanju, 2013).

In order to create a successful sport programme for girls, leaders must first be aware of the challenges. Understanding potential obstacles leads to the development of positive, sustainable strategies. The most important step to understanding the obstacles girls in a specific region face is to go out in the community and ask parents and leaders their thoughts on girls playing sport.

### **2.6.1 Gaining Government Support**

Yoshihara (2007) contends that sport is a government-sponsored and regulated institution at local, provincial and national levels in many countries. In some places, sport exists almost solely within the context of the government. The governments, often run by a male majority, prioritise sporting opportunities for boys rather than girls. This bias occurs at all levels of government. In countries where government do not support sport opportunities for girls, independently run sport programmes fill an important void. Therefore, sports administrators are urged to solicit the help of individuals and organisations that can influence policy decisions in order to get government support for sports programmes. It is also mentioned that identifying and applying for government funding that is relevant to one's programme objectives may be explored.

Chen, Fox and Haase (2010) also suggest that the future prospects of Taiwanese women's participation in physical activities could be implemented in different areas. First, the rules and regulations from the government related to promoting women's participation in physical activities could make further opportunities for women. This could involve examining and measuring the physical abilities of women based on various age levels and providing appropriate suggestions for them. Furthermore, the government can provide physical fitness participation cards to cultivate good habits of lifetime exercise. Various sport and health symposiums could be held in villages and towns to upgrade the willingness of women to participate in physical activities.

### **2.6.2 Media Coverage**

Lopiano (2000) reports that the media plays a pivotal role in showing, or hiding, the images of strong, healthy women athletes who can serve as role models for younger girls. It is recommended that local media be invited to cover women sports programmes, events and participants. Also, encourage local media outlets to cover women's sports, write letters, send

emails and make phone calls to radio stations newspaper editors. Saini (2015) states that media brings sport to people who may not normally get to experience it otherwise. This can encourage women to get involved.

### **2.6.3 Policy vs. Action**

Johnstone and Millar (2012) note that opportunities in sport are not equal and that sport plays a key role in society, yet change is still slow to be realised. In part this is because some are uncertain over how to affect the changes that are needed, and in part because any implemented actions take place in a sports culture where norms, structures and processes remain unchanged. Policies are in place to support gender equality in sport and to navigate many of these remaining barriers. What is needed now is practical action - the decision to make a change and the will to follow through (Johnstone and Millar, 2012). Since sport participation may necessitate missing class, institutions have formulated policies to govern athletes' travel to competitions and protect student athletes from being treated negatively by faculty staff (Fletcher *et al.*, 2003).

### **2.6.4 Ideas for Recruiting Girls**

Designing a strategy for recruiting girls will depend on the particular cultural context of where the sport program takes place. However, there are some general guidelines that seem to be relevant for sport program across the globe (Austrian and Ghati, 2010):

- Understand and address all barriers to participation.
- Encourage girls to bring their friends. Word-of-mouth is a powerful recruitment tool. Programme partners report that over more than 50% of participants come from referrals from friends.
- Create partnerships with schools, religious institutions or other groups that serve girls.
- Post flyers in public places where girls and their caregivers are likely to be.
- Host tournaments. Pass out information. Have current members share their experiences.
- Meet with community leaders. Ask for their influence in spreading a positive word about the programme.
- Partner with other organisations that serve girls.

- Go door-to-door. Explain programme benefits and details to girls and their families. Solicit the help of trusted community women, as they might be more openly received in their neighbours' homes.
- Give financial incentives, when possible. If a girl can earn extra money by providing a service for the programme, such as cleaning uniforms or officiating, her caregivers might be more likely to support her participation.
- Advertise constantly. Post a sign outside your training facility. Wear programme t-shirts and encourage girls to do the same. Speak about the benefits of sport in the lives of girls to anyone who is willing to listen.
- When recruiting girls, rather than doing a general meeting to see who comes and signs up, advertise a try-out or selection day. This creates a sense of competition that could motivate the girls to come and feel as if they have “earned” a spot in the programme. However, this must be carefully considered since creating a competitive atmosphere could also alienate girls who have never played sports and or have low self-esteem, even if they are already guaranteed selection.

By necessity or by choice, there are times when boys and girls are integrated into a sport program (Murray *et al.*, 2009). It is important to remember that there are best practices to follow when mixing genders. Mixing genders should be carefully considered, making sure that the girls aren't marginalised in the process. In the end, girls and boys do need their own spaces to discuss sensitive issues if they come up or are part of the curriculum (Murray *et al.*, 2009).

### **2.6.5 Understanding Gender Roles**

Yoshihara (2007) reports that, when considering mixing boys and girls in a sport program, it is critical to first recognize the power dynamics that exist between genders in most societies. The term “gender” refers to the set of social norms, practices and institutions that regulate the relations between women and men (also known as “gender relations”). Gender relations involve a system of power relationships between women and men in the context of socio-cultural definitions of masculinity and femininity and economic relations. In many societies, the system of gender relations gives power and privilege to men and discriminates against women.

He goes on to state that a child's sex will determine his or her gender role, expectations, tasks and responsibilities, and personal belief in his or her potential. Characteristics of gender roles vary greatly across cultures. However, across cultures, girls are often given fewer opportunities, decreased access to public spaces, and less power than male peers. To effectively integrate girls and boys in a program, you need to have a complete understanding of the social distribution of power and social expectations of both genders for the culture in which you are working (Yoshihara, 2007).

### **2.7.6 Leadership and Role Models**

Kirby (2009) suggests that girls are also seriously lacking in female leadership role models. They need to see other women, like them, succeeding in these roles. Girls should also have more opportunities to be coached by women (as should boys), and sport should be a positive career or volunteering opportunity for more women in society. The development of female coaches and officials, as well as greater equality in boardrooms, remains an urgent priority in moving towards a more equal-sports.

Kirby (2009) goes on to state that girls are exposed to both positive and negative role models every day. A girl needs to see confidence, leadership and accomplishment in other women in order to envision herself with those qualities. A program designed to empower girls must provide powerful, positive role models. Strong role models can be women who are older, skilled athletes, coaches, community leaders, successful business people, celebrities, politicians, religious leaders, confident peers or any strong woman whose presence will resonate with the girls. Although there is power to showing girls women who are international heroines, there is also a power to exposing them to local people (Kirby, 2009). Murray *et al.* (2009) state that local examples provide more easily imaginable visions of success. A key component to presenting girls with role models is to make sure the success experienced by the role models is attainable and replicable in their minds. Research has shown that when individuals feel that the role model in front of them has attained a status unreachable to them, their presence can actually be demoralizing. If possible, find role models who exemplify an area in which girls have an interest and where they need help in personal development. Find a person who can share their personal experience with personal growth in that area. Men can certainly serve as positive role models; however, there is an inherent value in same-gender role modelling.

Lockwood and Kunda (1997), note that organisations can create opportunities for girls to learn from role models by:

- Organising events where role models speak to girls about their experiences.
- Pairing up individual girls with older mentors with the intention of creating long-lasting relationships.
- Taking girls to see athletic events with older participants. Arrange a meet-and-greet afterwards to allow girls to interact with players.
- Setting up guest coaching sessions with successful coaches from your region.
- Ensuring that all those in positions of power within the organisation are serving as positive role models for participants.
- Seeking role models outside of the sport arena. Invite a successful businesswoman or female politician to come to the programme and speak to the girls.
- Inviting men or women with a disability to come speak, as they often have a powerful impact on girls with and without disabilities.
- Discussing the concept of “negative role modelling” with girls, i.e., simply because a person is successful does not mean that they are worthy of being a role model.
- Challenge girls to evaluate virtues, values and expectations related to these role models.

### **2.7.7 Education and Marketing**

Cortis *et al.* (2009) argue that promoting the benefits of sport, and portraying sport as culturally inclusive, is an important strategy for encouraging female participants in sport. This can be achieved through launching educational campaigns by sports marketers.

### **2.8 Scholarship Gap and my Area of Study**

It can be noted that although literature on gender imbalances in society is prevalent, very few studies on gender disparities have approached the subject from a sport perspective. The few available studies on gender imbalances in sport focus on sport participation trends in Europe, Asia, North America and Australia. As a result, the nature and trends of female student participation in Zimbabwean university sports competitions has remained opaque and under-researched.

While the findings of the studies done in other countries have provided a variety of significant contributions to existing literature on female participation in sports, their findings may fail to accurately capture the nature and motives of sports participation by female university students in Zimbabwe, given the vast socio-cultural differences. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to explore Zimbabwean female students' participation in university sports and bridge the knowledge gaps identified in this section. It was assumed that the findings would yield results which are significantly different from results obtained in Europe, Asia, North America and Australia.

## **2.9 Conclusion**

In this Chapter, a number of aspects were covered to formulate a theoretical base that serves as a frame work for the research part of this study. In the next Chapter, the methodologies utilized in this study are explained in detail.

## CHAPTER 3

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

This Chapter presents in detail, methods used in carrying out the research with special focus on research design, target institutions, sampling used and analysis processes and techniques selected to analyse the data. This Chapter further clarifies how the study was done and why certain methods were chosen over others.

#### 3.2 Research Purpose

According to Robson (2011), the major purposes of this research are to explore, explain and describe a phenomenon of interest. This study was predominantly exploratory and descriptive. Exploratory research is the initial research conducted to clarify and define the nature of the problem when there are few or no earlier studies to which reference can be made for information. The aim is to gain familiarity with the subject matter for more rigorous investigation later. According to Babbie (2013), exploratory research helps researchers to design the research instrument to be used and also to formulate more focused research questions and hypotheses. The selection of the exploratory approach is informed by Gray (2009), who notes that exploratory studies are particularly useful when not enough is known about a phenomenon, as is the case with the participation of female Zimbabwean students in university sports.

It was noted in Chapter 1 that the nature and significance of female students' participation in Zimbabwean universities is unclear and remains under-researched. A comprehensive model does not exist. There are no published Zimbabwean academic studies on the subject. Zimbabwean practitioners depend on measurement strategies developed by European and North American scholars to solve their own female sports participation challenges. It is against this background that this study adopts an exploratory approach in a bid to gain a better understanding of female participation in university sports. This will provide some familiarity with the subject matter for more rigorous investigation later (Yin, 2003).

This study also follows a descriptive approach since it is a phenomenological investigation which seeks to describe female participation in Zimbabwean University Sports and its antecedents. Descriptive studies are undertaken to ascertain and describe the characteristics of the phenomena under investigation without seeking to explain connections between causes and symptoms (Dane, 2011; Royse, 2011; and Abiwu, 2015). According to Laws and McLeod (2006), descriptive case study presents a detailed account of the phenomena under investigation and is useful in presenting information about areas of education where little research has been conducted as is the case with female participation in University sports in Zimbabwe. Zikmund (2000), argues that descriptive research answers what, where, who, when and how questions. This study conforms to this reasoning since it is based on how and what research questions.

The research was exploratory and descriptive in nature where a pragmatic approach was used. Positivist investigation was used where quantitative surveys were used in questionnaires. Phenomenological investigation was also utilised in the qualitative strand of the research where focus group discussions and semi-structured interviews were used.

### **3.3 The Research Philosophy and Approach**

The study was based on a pragmatic philosophy. The pragmatic approach allows the mixing of different philosophical viewpoints within one study and ultimately applying a mixed research approach and mixed methods (Armitage, 2007). This explains why the study used a methodological triangulation of questionnaires, focus group discussions and semi-structured interviews, to collect data from five of eleven universities that are affiliated to the ZUSA.

Although this study follows a mixed methods research approach, it adopted positivism as its dominant paradigm generalizations (Saunders *et al.*, 2008). Saunders *et al.* (2008) argue that a researcher should select a positivist approach if there exists extensive literature within the problem area. It was noted in the background section that there is no published literature on gender disparities on sports participation on the Zimbabwean sports industry. This explains why positivist approach was used in a primary manner in this study. Although Noor (2008) identifies positivism and phenomenology (interpretivism) as the two basic methodological paradigms of research in social science. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2003) noted a recent movement towards mixed methods approaches which combine the positivist and

phenomenological paradigms. This development has influenced the adoption of the pragmatic philosophy as the guiding framework for this study in order to offset the effects of the weaknesses of positivist and phenomenological on the quality of the study and draw on their strengths. In a pragmatic approach, the research is often multi-purpose and therefore, this approach allows mixing different philosophical viewpoints within one study and ultimately applying a mixed research approach and mixed methods (Armitage, 2007).

Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2009) note that there have been numerous phases in research. In many disciplines, the positivist research paradigm, which incorporates multiple types of quantitative research designs, was the first and only research design choice in the 19th century (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2003). Fisher (2010) coined the term “**positivism**” to refer to the power science and rational thought to comprehend and manipulate the world. Positivism is based on the notion of a singular reality, the one and only truth that is out there waiting to be discovered by objective and value-free inquiry (Feilzer, 2010). It is an approach to the creation of knowledge through research which emphasizes the model of natural sciences where the scientist adopts the position of an objective researcher who collects facts about the social world and then builds up an explanation of social life by arranging such facts in a chain of causality (Finch, 1988).

The phenomenological approach was used in a secondary manner when focus group discussions and semi-structured interviews were used to complement the quantitative data gathering method. This was influenced by the need to give the study the scientific rigor associated with the objective nature of positivist research and neutralize the shortcomings stemming from the subjective nature of phenomenology.

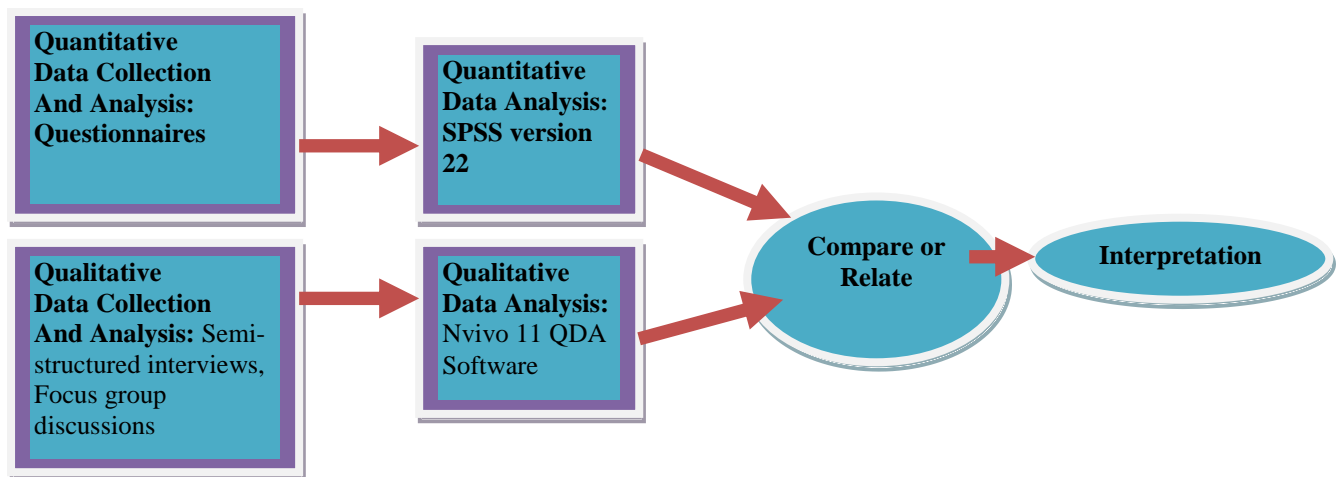
However, one of the main drawbacks of phenomenology is its emphasis on subjectivity, description and interpretation as opposed to the scientific emphasis on objectivity analysis and measurement (Denscombe, 1998). Phenomenological studies are also not good at addressing cause-effect research questions. The decision to employ mixed methods research was therefore influenced by the need to minimize the effects of the shortcomings of phenomenology on the quality of the study.

### **3.4 The Research Design**

Research designs are procedures for collecting, analysing, interpreting, and reporting data in research studies. They represent different models for doing research, and these models have distinct names and procedures associated with them. Research designs are useful, because they help guide the methods decisions that researchers must make during their studies and set the logic by which they make interpretations at the end of their studies. Once the researcher has identified that the research problem calls for a mixed methods approach and reflected on the philosophical and theoretical foundations of the study, the next step is to choose a specific design that best fits the problem and the research questions in the study (Charumbira, 2013).

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) define research design as procedures for collecting, analysing, interpreting and reporting data in research studies. Mouton (1996) argues that research design implies decisions which are taken beforehand to ensure that potential mistakes are eliminated, thereby maintaining the lowest possible cost with the aim of planning and structuring a given research project in such a manner that the eventual validity of the research findings are maximized. It is a detailed plan of how a research study is to be completed with precise specification of what the study intends to find out and the best way to do it determined.

The study was grounded on the convergent parallel mixed methods research design. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), the convergent parallel mixed methods research design occurs when the researcher uses concurrent timing to implement the quantitative and qualitative strands during the same phase of the research process, prioritises the methods equally, and keeps the strands independent during analysis and then mixes the results during the overall interpretation. In this study, quantitative data were collected by means of questionnaires while, simultaneously, qualitative data was collected through semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions as shown in the Figure 3.1 below.



**Figure 3.1: Summary of the Research Design - The Convergent Parallel Mixed Method Design, Adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark (2011)**

According to Denzin (1989), no single research method can completely capture all the relevant features of a research study. As a result, the mixing of quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques in this study sought to minimize the effects of the shortcomings of each method on the quality of the study. Such an approach has the potential to strengthen the validity of the results (Edwards and Skinner, 2009). Bryman (2009) also notes that combining different methodologies in a single study enhances the researcher’s claim for the validity of his or her conclusions if they can be shown to provide complementary results.

### **3.5 Time Horizons**

The study was a snap shot of the participation of Zimbabwean female students in university sport at the time of the study. There was no attempt to track the changes in participation trends levels over time. The selection of cross-sectional studies over longitudinal studies was influenced by such practical considerations as resource constraints and the time frames within which this study must be completed. Cross-sectional studies have however, been criticized for their failure to provide an adequate understanding of social change and provide adequate cause-effect explanations in explanatory studies (Denscombe, 2009). As a result, they cannot be relied upon to track and explain how female student’s sports participation trends have been changing over time in the Zimbabwean Universities.

### **3.6 Population and Sampling**

A population is “the total number of units from which data can be collected, such as individuals, artefacts, events or organisations” (Parahoo, 2014). Put differently, a population is the entire pool of possible subjects that have some common characteristics that are of interest to the researcher. The population of this study may be defined as all female students’ athletes and non-athletes, Sports Directors, and institutional administrators whose duties include the formulation of policies with a bearing on sport participation in the eleven Universities that are affiliated to the ZUSA. It was however, impractical to comprehensively cover all these subjects. As a result, participants were sampled from five institutions that have participated in university competitions for at least ten years. The assumption was that female student’s participation patterns and trends in these institutions were clear enough to address the objectives of this study.

#### **3.6.1 Sampling Design**

Convenience, snowball and purposive sampling techniques were applied where samples best suited to answer the research questions were used. Convenience sampling is a sample taken from a group you have easy access to. The idea is that anything learnt from that particular study will be applicable to the larger population (Elliott, 2005). According to David and Morgan (2008), snowball sampling uses a small pool of initial informants to nominate, through their social networks, other participants who meet the eligibility criteria and could potentially contribute to a specific study. In this study, Sports Directors from the participant universities were purposively selected to participate in the study. These Sports Directors then lead the research team to the female sports participants and non-sports participants from their respective institutions. The purposive selection of the participants was informed by the views of Edwards and Skinner (2009) who argue that purposive sampling studies do not aim to be statistically representative in the manner of formal probability sampling procedures. Rather, selection is based on the case’s potential to yield in-depth information on the problem under investigation.

For the purpose of the questionnaire survey in the quantitative phase of the study, the stratified convenience sampling strategy, which implied stratifying the study population into five sampling units in line with those institutions affiliated to the Zimbabwe Universities Sports Association and have participated in university competitions for at least ten years,

before utilizing the convenience sampling procedure to select the 250 participants that were included in the study. This sample is an insignificant percentage of the total number of female students who participate in University Sports. The rationale for using a small sample in the quantitative strand of the study is captured by Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) who argues that small samples can be used in quantitative research that represents exploratory research or basic research capture the rationale for its adoption. It is noted in Chapter 1 that the purpose of this study was predominantly exploratory and descriptive, and hence, it conforms to this reasoning.

### **3.6.2 Inclusion Criteria**

Accordingly, participants were drawn from Institutions that have participated in university competitions for at least ten years. The assumption was that the above sample gave a representative view of female (undergraduate) students' participation patterns and trends to address the objectives of this study.

### **3.6.3 Exclusion Criteria**

All male students and postgraduate students were excluded from the study.

### **3.6.4 Definition of a Participant**

The minimum criteria denotes participating in a club, practicing at least twice a week and playing regular matches/competitions at departmental level (lowest level), interfaculty, external league, inter-university, regional, national and international games (highest level).

### **3.6.5 Definition of a Non-Participant**

Not participating in a club, not practicing at least twice a week and not playing regular matches/competitions at departmental level (lowest level), interfaculty, external league, inter-university, regional, national and international games (highest level).

### **3.6.6 Study Setting**

This study took place at the campuses of five of the eleven Zimbabwean Universities that are affiliated to and have participated in university competitions for at least ten years, namely:

- Bindura University of Science Education (BUSE) - Bindura
- Chinhoyi University of Science and Technology (CUT) - Chinhoyi

- Great Zimbabwe University (GZU) - Masvingo
- Midlands State University (MSU) - Gweru
- National University of Science and Technology (NUST) - Bulawayo



**Figure 3.2: Zimbabwean Map Showing Study Sites - The Encircled Towns have Major Universities where Data was collected.**

### 3.6.7 Sample Size

As purposive sampling method was used, 260 participants were selected to participate. The sample sizes were informed by Sekaran and Bougie (2013) who proposed that as a rule of thumb for determining sample size; “sample sizes larger than 30 and less than 500 are

appropriate for most research". In summary, the samples in this research were decided on in consultation with an independent statistician and considered to be sufficient in size to represent and generalize to the research population. The sampling framework shown below assumes an acceptable level of confidence of 95% and a margin of error of 5%.

This is recommended for surveys in social research by such researchers as (Krejcie and Morgan, 1970).

A base population of 1000 sports participants and non-participants across each of the five selected Universities (200 students per university) was estimated. From this, a twenty five percent (n=250) purposive sample was drawn, evenly distributed per category across each of the five participating Universities. Accordingly, the respondents were made up from the following sub-sets of participants:

- Twenty five sports participants from each of the five selected Universities, thus totaling n=125.
- Twenty five non-sports participants from each of the five selected Universities, thus totaling n=125.
- One Sports Director from each of the five selected Universities, thus totaling n=5.
- One Dean of Students from each of the five selected Universities, thus totaling n=5.
- From the above, a Qualitative Focus Group was drawn with five students per category (sports participants and non-sports participants) per university, yielding ten focus groups in total.
- The Sports Directors (n=5) and Deans of Students (n=5) whose duties include the formulation of policies with a bearing on sport participation were also interviewed, yielding ten interviews in total.

### **3.7 Data Collection Procedures and Instruments**

The data collection process was divided into two phases. The first phase involved a pilot study at the Lupane State University (LSU) in Bulawayo. In the second phase of the study, questionnaire surveys, focus group discussions and structured interviews were used to collect data from female athletes, Sports Directors and institutional administrators at the five selected case study universities.

### **3.7.1 Pilot Study**

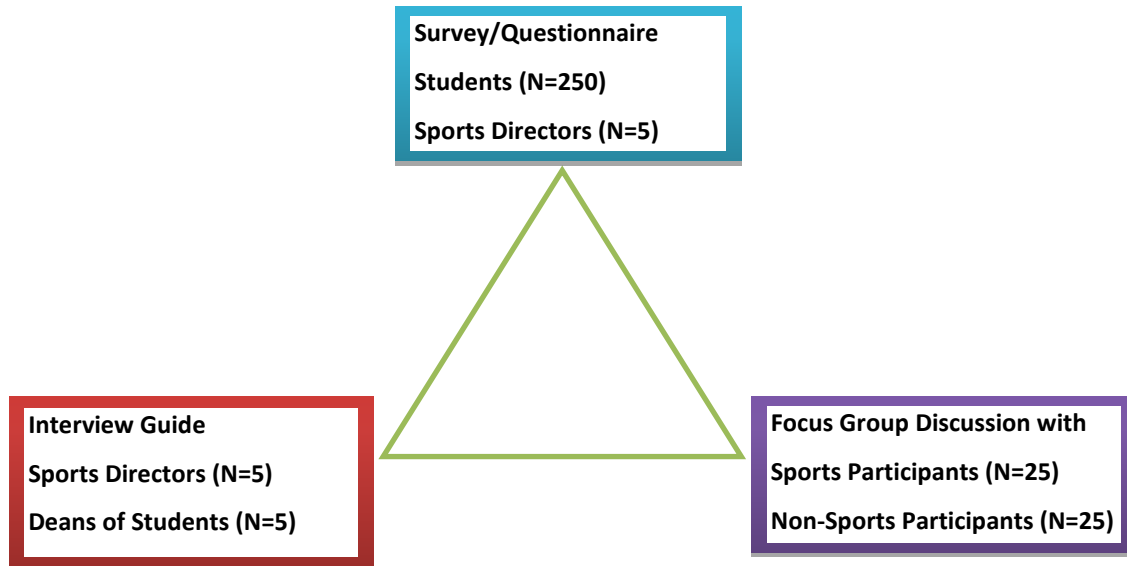
According to Arain, Campbell, Cooper and Lancaster (2010), a pilot study is a mini research which seeks to investigate the suitability of the research procedures or instrument before the larger study commences. Piloting the instruments is essential for identifying and removing weaknesses in the instruments and it also determines the approximate time required for the interviews to be done (David and Sutton, 2004). Pilot testing provide feedback to the researcher about the problems the respondent continue to face in item wording, format, and time needed to complete the instruments (Colton and Covert, 2007). A pilot study was conducted before questionnaires were fully administered. The interview guide was pre-tested for suitability before the actual data collection. The survey instrument was piloted in one university (Lupane State University), which did not form part of the sample for the main data collection. This was done to assess the utility of the instrument and eliminate ambiguous questions before the actual full scale study. Pilot testing enabled the researcher to refine the questions to a level that ensured that respondents understood the questions as well as the instructions.

The first round of tests was done using 20 female students as respondents (10 sports participants and 10 non-participants) while the subsequent and final pilot test was done with 20 respondents of the same categories, who were not going to be involved in the actual study. Focus group discussions were also done with 10 individuals (5 participants and 5 non-participants). The Dean of Students and the Sports Director of LSU were interviewed for piloting interview questions. The piloting was aimed at identifying ambiguities, clarifying the wording of questions, identifying omissions and making necessary amendments to the research instrument before actual field use. The pilot study resulted in the removal of technical terms related to female participation in sports and their substitution with non-technical terms, in order to enhance the utility, validity and reliability of the questionnaire, focus group and interview guides.

### **3.8 Data Collection Tools**

The nature of this study required the use of multiple data collection instruments. This approach of collecting data is called 'triangulation'. According to Ghrayeb, Damodaran and Vohra (2011), triangulation is used to assess and improve validity of research findings. It is therefore defined as art of using multiple approach in collecting data with the view gather

more information about a particular phenomenon or to reaffirm the findings of the study. The study employed the use of questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions. The use of triangulation in this current study is to assist the researcher to cross check the validity of the findings as suggested by (Abiwu, 2015). Figure 3.3 below illustrates triangulation.



**Figure 3.3: Triangulation Designs for Data Collection** (Source: *The researcher*)

### 3.8.1 Questionnaires

A questionnaire is a research instrument that consists of a series of questions and other prompts for the purposes of gathering information from respondents. Both face-to-face questionnaires were used. The questionnaire was chosen because it is cheap to administer as it does not require much effort. The use of questionnaires in this study was informed by the views of Bryman (2009) who notes their cheapness and quickness in terms of administration and the absence of the interviewer bias. The use of questionnaires also enabled the collection of standardized information from all the respondents.

Denscombe (1998) argues that questionnaires are best suited for collecting data on facts and opinions. This explains why they were used as a quantitative method to extract female students' opinions on the determinants of participation or non-participation in their strategic institutions. The decision to use questionnaires was also influenced by their ability to easily reach a geographically disparate sample population as noted by Neuman (2009), since the study covered the entire country.

### **3.8.1.1 Questionnaire Development**

Three different types of questionnaires were adapted from the researcher's previous work. The questionnaires started with a letter of introduction that stated the purpose of the research.

#### **i) Sports Participants Questionnaire**

The sports participants questionnaire (Appendix C) comprised fifteen questions in total of which six were demographic, three were categorical, two open-ended questions and four questions that employed a 5-7 point Likert-scale with the following anchors: strongly agree = 7, agree = 6, somewhat agree = 5, neither agree nor disagree 4, somewhat disagree = 3, disagree = 2, and strongly disagree = 1.

#### **ii) Non-sports participants Questionnaire**

The non- sports participants questionnaire (Appendix D) comprised eleven questions in total of which five were demographic, two were categorical, two open-ended questions and two questions that employed a 5-7 point Likert-scale with the following anchors: strongly agree = 7, agree = 6, somewhat agree = 5, neither agree nor disagree 4, somewhat disagree = 3, disagree = 2, and strongly disagree = 1.

#### **iii) Sports Directors Questionnaire**

The Sports Directors questionnaire (Appendix E) comprised fifteen questions in total of which six were demographic, two were categorical, five open-ended questions and two questions that employed a 5-7 point Likert-scale with the following anchors: strongly agree = 7, agree = 6, somewhat agree = 5, neither agree nor disagree 4, somewhat disagree = 3, disagree = 2, and strongly disagree = 1.

### **3.8.1.2 Questionnaire Administration**

The questionnaires were self-administered to the respondents to improve the response rate. To give the respondents freedom to express their perceptions and opinions on the questions asked, confidentiality was emphasized. Two hundred and fifty questionnaires were administered to female students in the 5 campuses, with 125 per category of sports participants and non-sports participants respectively. In the case of participants, the response rate was excellent as it yielded 100%. This was due to the fact that the distribution of participants' questionnaires was done during the Zimbabwean Tertiary Institutions Sports

Union Games (ZTISU) and collected at the end of games through the assistance of the coaches. In the case of non-participants, 120 questionnaires were recovered out of a total of 125 hence a response rate of 96%. This was due to the fact that some Universities were closed during the time of data collection so it was difficult to access them as compared to their counterparts. The questionnaires were also distributed to the five Sports Directors during the ZTISU Games and these were then collected after two days. The response rate was also 100%.

### **3.8.2 Interviews**

Researchers use interviews to elicit information in order to achieve a holistic understanding of the interviewee's point of view or situation and to explore interesting areas for further investigation. Turner (2010) define interviews as a data collection instrument where researcher asks the interviewees questions pertaining to the study. They involve asking informants open-ended questions, and probing wherever necessary to obtain data deemed useful by the researcher. It is also called qualitative interviewing as it involves qualitative data. They also allow the researcher to tap into the knowledge or experience of the respondents regarding their perceptions or opinions on the topic under investigation. Interviews were chosen because they were useful for untangling complex topics as they enabled the interviewer to probe deeper into a response given by the interviewees. Interviews also produce a higher response rate as the answers are gotten there and then.

#### **3.8.2.1 Developing Semi-Structured Interviews**

The process of developing the interview guide that was used to collect data from the Sports Directors and the Deans of Students was informed by the views of (Bryman, 2004). This explains why the interview guides were grounded on the research questions of the study. The same interview guide was developed for both the participant groups in order to address issues of female participation in their respective institutions. All the interview schedules were semi-structured, to allow the collection of standardized information from the selected respondents. This was meant to reinforce the reliability of the instruments. It enabled the researcher to collect in-depth information and meet the exploratory purpose of the study.

The interview guide comprised five demographic questions and eleven semi-structured interview guides (Appendix G) under the following themes:

- 1) Demographic information on the Sports Directors and Deans of Students;
- 2) Participation trends of female students in university sports;
- 3) Factors responsible for shaping current participation trends of university sports participation by female students;
- 4) Benefits of sports participation by female students and;
- 5) The availability of gender and sports policies in universities and the extent to which they promote participation of female students in sports;
- 6) Effectiveness of Institutional intervention measures designed to encourage female participation in university sports;
- 7) Measures that can be put in place to improve university sports participation by female students

### 3.8.2.2 Conducting Semi-Structured Interviews

Structured interviews were conducted with the five Sports Directors and relevant Institutional Administrators (Deans of Students) in order to get their views on the participation of Zimbabwean female students in university sports. An appointment was made prior to the visit through email and phone call and an interview guide was sent to them prior to the appointment date so that they could familiarise themselves with the questions to be asked.

**Table 3.1: Sample Size for Structured Interviews**

Strata	Number of Samples Included in the Study
a) Sports Directors	N =5; 1 per university
b) Institutional Administrators (Deans of Students)	N=5; 1 per university
<b>Total</b>	<b>N=10</b>

According to Guest *et al.* (2006), a minimum sample size of 8 participants is adequate to achieve data saturation in qualitative studies based on interviews. As a result, the sample of 10 interviewees was considered adequate to achieve data saturation, theoretical saturation, or informational redundancy since it was greater than the minimum threshold recommended by (Guest *et al.*, 2006).

### **3.8.3 Focus Group Discussions**

A focus group discussion is one of the most appropriate instruments for collecting qualitative data. It involves a small group of people ranging from 8-10 who focus their discussions on specific research questions (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013).

#### **3.8.3.2 Developing the Focus Group Discussion Guide**

The same focus group discussion guide was developed for both sports participants and non-sports participants. It comprised thirteen open-ended questions (refer to Appendix F), under the following themes:

- 1) Trends on female participation;
- 2) Motives of female participation;
- 3) Benefits of female participation;
- 4) Hindrances to female participation;
- 5) Gender and sports policy availability in institutions and their effectiveness;
- 6) Effectiveness of institutional measures; and,
- 7) Measures that can be put in place to improve participation.

#### **3.8.3.2 Conducting the Focus Group Discussions**

A total of ten focus group discussions were carried out to further explore the themes that emerged from the questionnaires. A sample of 10 focus groups is considered adequate to achieve data saturation, theoretical saturation, or informational redundancy since it is greater than the minimum threshold recommended. A focus group discussion guide was emailed to the selected groups prior to the discussion. This helped the participants to familiarise with the questions before responding.

The researcher conducted the focus group discussions with the help of one research assistant in each case. The moderator made it clear to all participants that their views will be valued and encouraged them to contribute to the discussion. The discussions were audio-recorded with permission from the participants so as to secure an accurate account of the conversations and avoid losing data since not everything can be written down during discussions. During the discussions, the researcher acted as a moderator and ensured that the discussions revolve around the female participation in university sports identified in the questionnaires and semi-structured interviews as well as the four research questions of the study. The discussions were

allowed to continue until all the perceptions relating to the study’s research questions were exhaustively addressed. Each discussion was approximately 30-40 minutes. The length of the discussion depended upon the participants of the session based on the amount of information that they have and their willingness to participate.

The population for the focus group discussions was also stratified into participants and non-participants per Institution. From each university, two focus groups of 5 members per category were purposively formed to discuss a wide range of issues related to the participation of Zimbabwean female students in University Sports.

**Table 3.2: Sample Size for Focus Groups**

Strata	Number of Respondents
a) Sports Participants	N=25; 5 per university
b) Non-sports participants (per university)	N=25; 5 per university
<b>Total</b>	<b>N=50</b>

The decision to conduct ten focus group discussions, on the other hand, was informed by the recommendations from Onwuegbuzie *et al.* (2009) who argue that 3-6 focus groups can generate adequate information to meet the exploratory objectives of most qualitative studies. Each focus group discussion comprised 5 participants or non-participants.

### **3.9 Data Analysis (Quantitative and Qualitative)**

The analysis of data generated by questionnaires was performed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) data analysis program, Version 22.0. Frequencies and relative frequency percentages were used as descriptive statistics reflecting responses to questions. In quantitative inferential statistical analyses a minimum level of probability was set at  $p \leq 0.05$ . The Chi-square inferential technique was used to determine significant differences between data sets of responses. The NVIVO 11 QDAS was used to analyse the data collected through structured interviews and focus group discussions.

### **3.10 Ethical Considerations**

It is a basic requirement that research involving human subjects always be guided by good clinical practice and human rights principles to ensure protection of participants. Ethics issues

were given a priority in this study. Accordingly, the study was submitted for ethical clearance via the Social Science and Humanities Ethics Committee (SHREC) of UKZN and full approval (Appendix J) for the protocol was granted (HSS/1562/014M) as well as approval from relevant gate-keepers' authorities in the Universities which were targeted for this study (Appendix K-P) and informed consent (Appendix B) was obtained from the potential participants. The authorities in the Universities targeted for this study and the participants were presented with a participant information sheet (Appendix A) with a brief background to the study.

Once permission was obtained, the participants were requested to sign an informed consent form, which was returned to the researcher. This helped to reduce suspicion and promote sincere responses. Ethical standards were also adopted in this research through coding all participants' identity and coding the name of the organisations they represented and further assurance was given to the participants prior to data collection that no information will be collected that can link them back to their questionnaire and that the data (*questionnaires and audio-tapes*) will be destroyed at the conclusion of the project. This was meant to guarantee confidentiality and anonymity.

The participants were also given right to withdraw from the project at any time without any disadvantage. They were assured that participation in the study was purely voluntary and that if one chooses to volunteer to be in this study, they may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. They may also refuse to answer any questions they don't want to answer and still remain in the study. Further to this, it was made clear to them that the researcher may withdraw them from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so. Full autonomy was also applied in the informed consent process, whereby the researcher provided a potential research participant with full disclosure about the nature of the study, the risks, benefits and alternatives, and an extended opportunity to ask questions before deciding whether or not to participate. However, the study did not include any procedures that were likely to be harmful to participants.

### **3.11 Data Management (Storage and Access)**

The data collected was stored in a computer which was password protected and only the researcher had access to it. The computer was locked in an office which was accessed by the researcher only. The researcher will dispose of the data after a period of 5 years.

### **3.12 Dissemination and Outcome**

The findings of the study will be disseminated through workshops for university administrators and Sports Directors, conference presentations and journal publications.

### **3.13 Conclusion**

This Chapter dealt with the overall scheme or plan of the investigation that was designed to provide answers to the research questions. It outlined the research philosophy, approach and strategy. Data collection methods have been presented and data analysis techniques have been outlined and explained in this Chapter. Issues of ethics as well as quality standards of the research were also discussed. The next Chapter presents the findings of the study.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

#### 4.1 Introduction

This study sought to explore the factors affecting the participation of female students in university sports and identify the measures that can help to increase the participation of Zimbabwean female students in university sports. In line with this goal, fieldwork was undertaken countrywide to collect data on the issues relating to female participation in Zimbabwean university sports. The methodology of this study was outlined and discussed in the previous Chapter. In this Chapter, results are presented following the four main objectives guiding this study. The first section outlines the study's response rate. The second section focuses on the demographic information on the subjects of the study. This is followed by a main data analysis and presentation section in which quantitative and qualitative data are presented separately.

#### 4.2 Response Rate

The study recorded a 96-100% response rate as summarised in Table 4.1. This can be attributed to the good working relations and rapport that already exists between the researcher and the Sports Directors and Deans of students of the participant university as a result of regular sport contact during university sports competitions.

**Table 4.1: Response Rate**

University	Permission Granted	Focus Group Discussions Successfully Carried Out		Interviews Successfully Carried Out (Sports Directors/ Deans)	Questionnaire (Sports/Non-Sports)		Questionnaire (Sports Directors)
		Sports	Non-Sports		Sports	Non-Sports	
University 1	Yes	1	1	1	25	22	1
University 2	Yes	1	1	1	25	25	1
University 3	Yes	1	1	1	25	25	1
University 4	Yes	1	1	1	25	23	1
University 5	Yes	1	1	1	25	25	1
<b>% Total Response Rate</b>	<b>100 %</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>100</b>

The questionnaires were thoroughly scrutinized and cleaned before analysis and 4 non-participant questionnaires which were not fully completed were excluded from the final analysis, leaving 96 usable questionnaires in that category, for an effective response rate of 96%.

### 4.3 Demographic Profile

#### 4.3.1 Age Distribution

For the sports participants, the respondents were between the ages of 16 and 39 years with the 20 to 29 years category being the most represented age range accounting for 62% of the study population, whereas 22% of the respondents were in the 16 to 19 years' category. The 30 to 39 years range constituted 16% of the study population. This implies that most of the female students at university level range between 20 to 29 years as shown in Figure 4.1 below. For the non-sports participants, the respondents were also between the ages of 16 and 39 years with the 20 to 29 years category being the most represented age range just like the sports participants, accounting for 75% of the study population, whereas 13% of the respondents were in the 16 to 19 years age category. The 30 to 39 years category constituted the least percentage of the respondents, 12%. There was no significant difference found ( $p > 0.05$ ) between the age categories of the respondent groups using Chi-square.

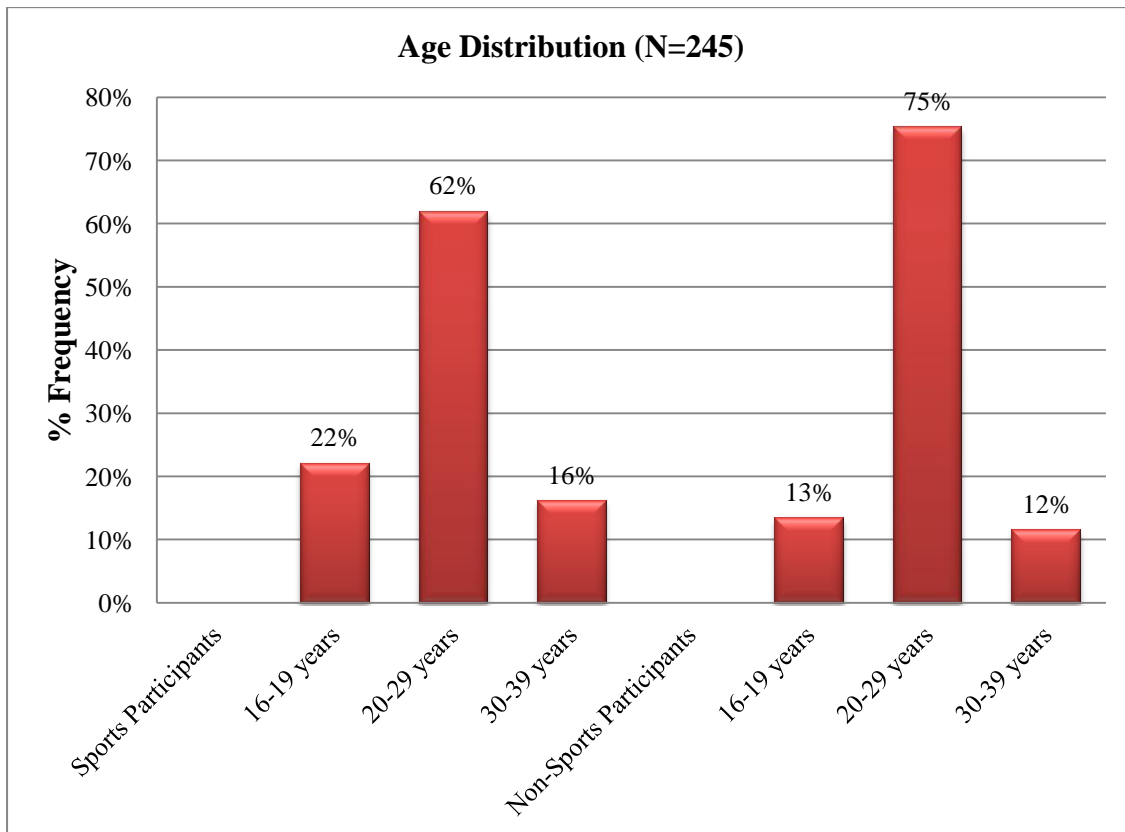


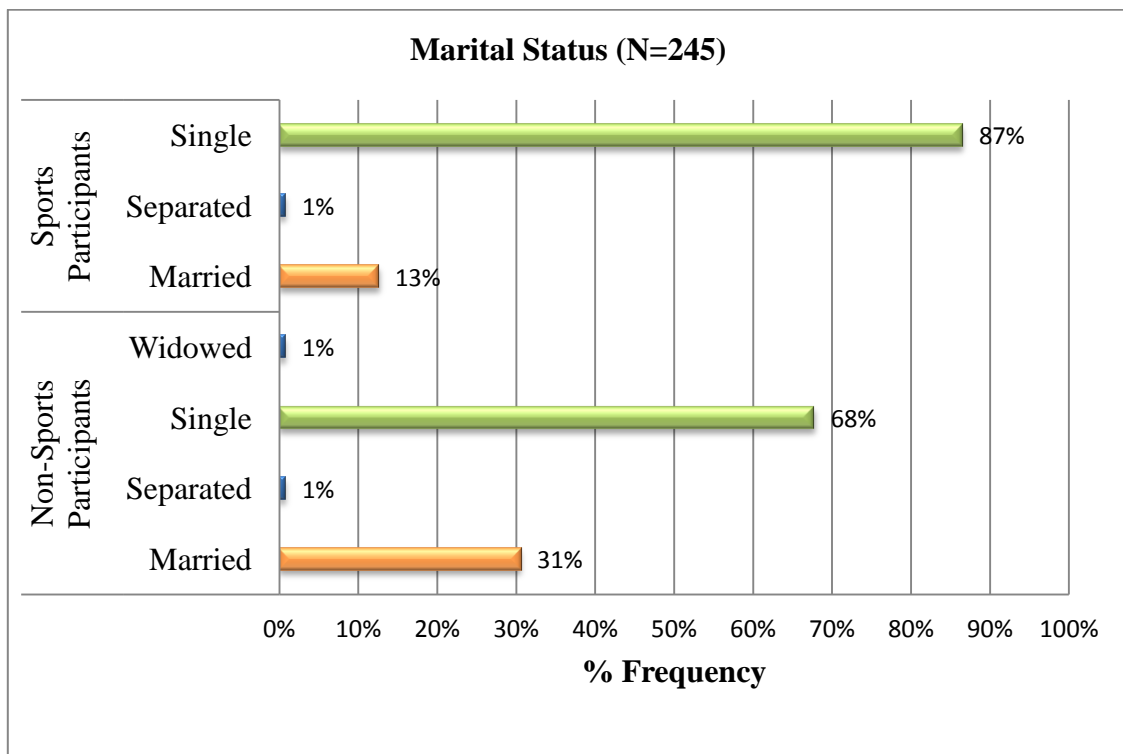
Figure 4.1: Age Distribution (%) among Sports and Non-sports participants ( $p > 0.05$ )

### 4.3.2 Gender of the Respondents

All the respondents to the questionnaire and focus group discussions in this study were female. Eighty percent of the respondents to the Sports Directors' questionnaires were male and 20% were female. The same figures applied to the semi-structured interview respondents.

### 4.3.3 Marital Status of the Respondents

Figure 4.2 below depicts marital status of both non-sports participants and sports participants. For sport participants, the respondent's marital status ranged from single, married, separated, widowed and divorced. There were 87% single respondents, 13% married and 1% separated. The majority of respondents were single ( $p \leq 0.01$ ). No respondents were recorded in the widowed and divorced categories for sport participants. For non-sports participants, the respondent's marital status ranged from single, married, separated, widowed and divorced. There were 68% single respondents, 31% married, 1% separated and 1% widowed. No respondents were recorded in the divorced category.



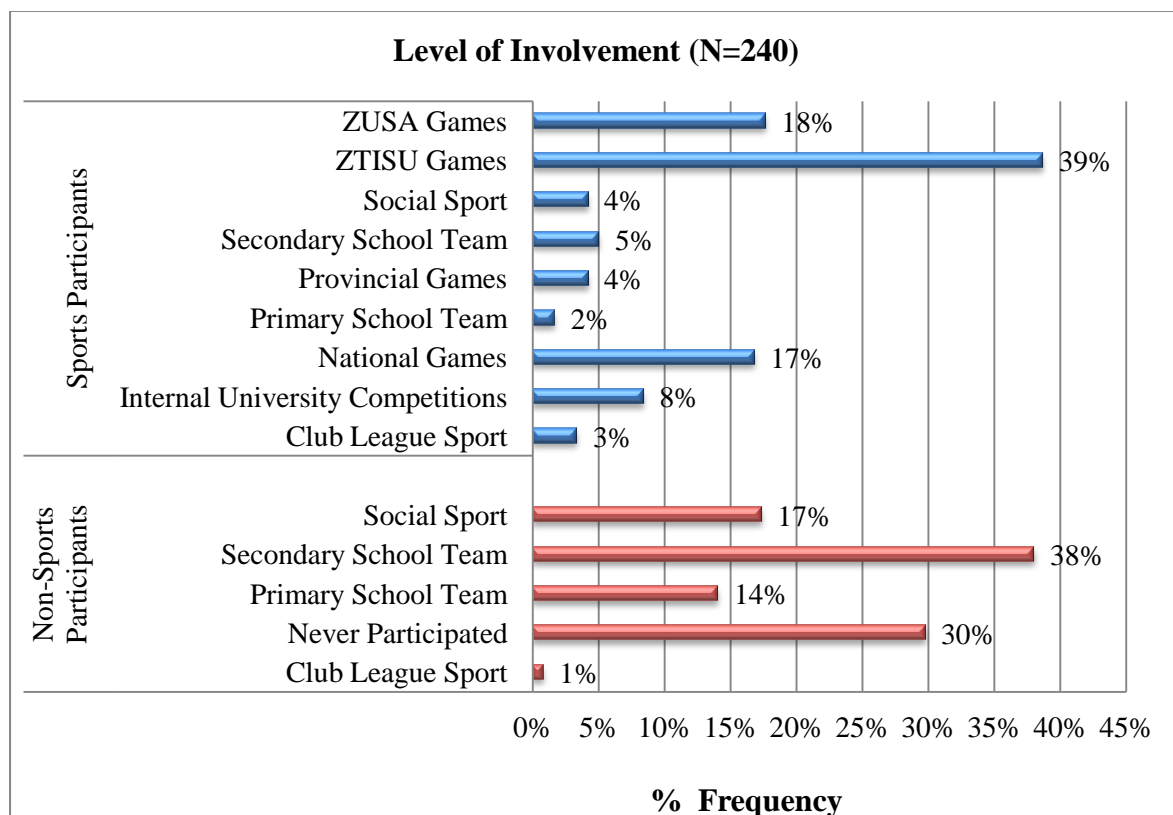
**Figure 4.2: Marriage Status Distribution among Respondents. Variations between Sports and Non-sports participants ( $p \leq 0.01$ )**

From the Chi-square test, the p-value is below 1%; therefore we can safely reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is sufficient statistical evidence that marriage status has an

effect on sports participation, therefore implying that a relatively smaller proportion of married students participate compared to their unmarried counterparts.

#### 4.3.4 Level of Involvement in Competitive Sports among Respondents

Figure 4.3 below shows the previous level of involvement in competitive sports among the respondents. There is an evident relationship between previous sports participation and the level of involvement in competitive sports. Non-sports participants poorly participated in primary school, secondary school and social sporting activities compared to sports participants and of course, they were not involved in university sporting activities as shown in Figure 4.3. It can also be noted that most ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) current participating students participated in ZTISU games (39%) followed by ZUSA games (18%). Fewer students participated in national games (17%) and internal (8%) university competitions. The p-value from Chi-square analysis was less than 1% meaning that there is a significant difference between sports participants and non-sports participants in terms of their levels of participation in sports.



**Figure 4.3: Level of Involvement in Competitive Sports by Sports and Non-sports participants ( $p \leq 0.001$ ).**

### 4.3.5 Length of Involvement in University Sports

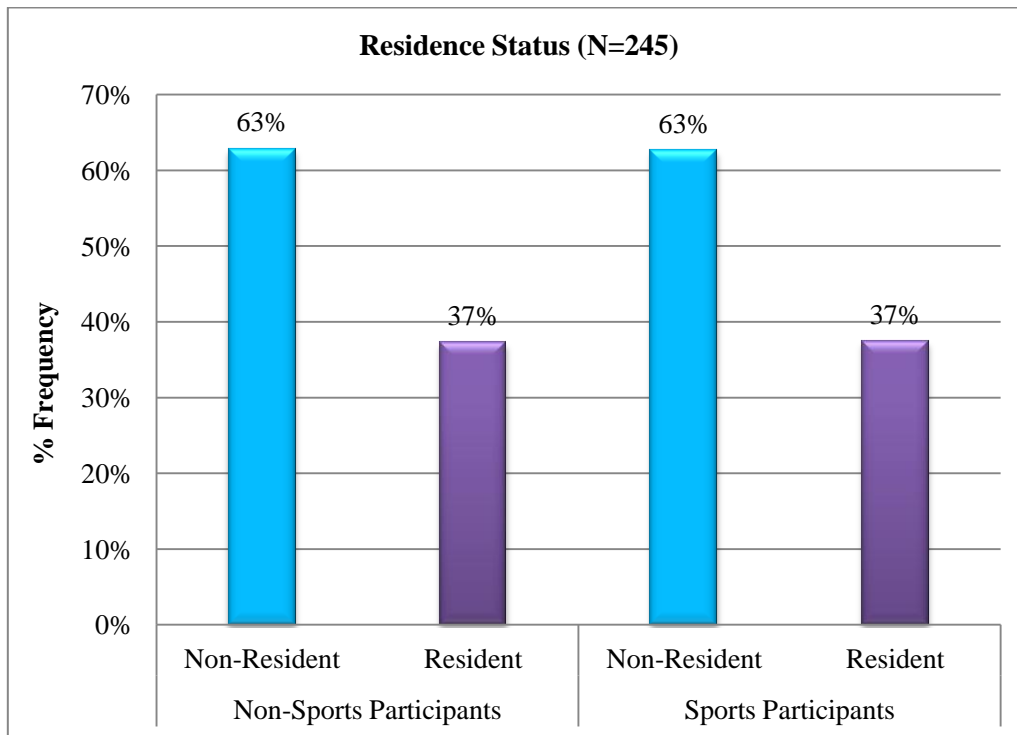
Sports participants were asked to indicate the length of time they have been involved in sporting activities. The respondents were also asked to indicate their length of involvement in university sport (See Table 4.2). Nearly half (49%, N=56) of the respondents indicated that they have been involved in competitive sport for a period of one to two years and this was the most represented category. Similarly 47% (N=54) constituted the three to five years category. As such cumulatively, 97% ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) of the 114 respondents had experience in sporting activities ranging from one to five years (Table 4.2). Only 4% (N=4) participated for five or more years in sporting activities at their respective universities. This appears to be contrary to the views of Cortis *et al.* (2009), who states that students in the first years of study may not be aware of the sporting activities available in the institution.

**Table 4.2: Sports Participants Length of Involvement in university sport (N=114)**

Length of Participation	Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1-2 years	56	49
3-5 years	54	97
5 years or more	4	100
<b>Total</b>	<b>114</b>	
$p < 0.001$		

### 4.3.6 Residence Status of University Students

The respondents were also asked to indicate their residence status. It can be noted from the Figure below that 63% of the sports participants were non-resident whereas 37% were resident students. These results seem to suggest that non-resident student participate more in university sports than resident students. However, this may be just a result of general skewness of the respondent characteristics and may not be an accurate reflection of the actual distribution of sports participants and non-participants in Zimbabwean universities by residence status.

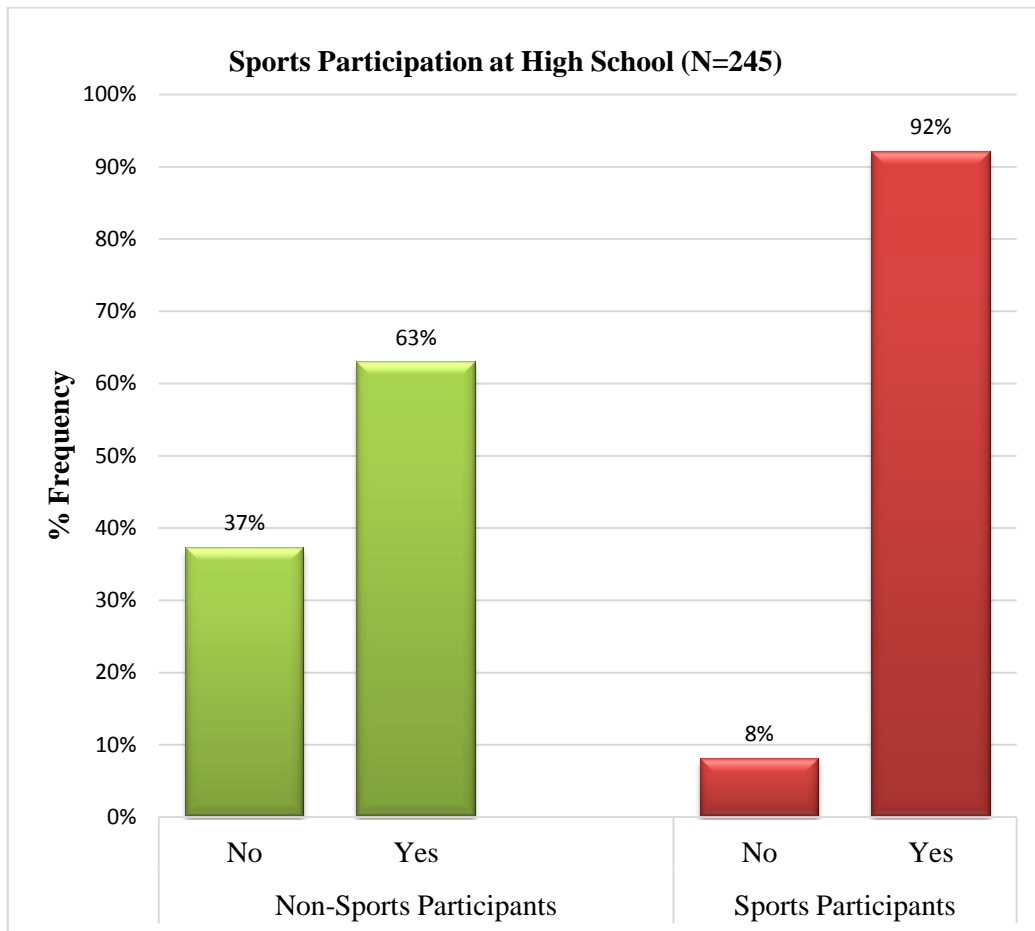


**Figure 4.4: Residence Status of University Students ( $p \geq 0.05$ )**

The p-value from the Chi-square analysis is greater than 5% indicating that there is no significant difference between residence status and sports participation of participants and their counterparts.

#### **4.3.7 Sports Participation at High School Level**

Respondents were asked to indicate if they had previous history of participating in sports at high school. Interestingly, most sports participants at university had previous experience in sporting activities at high school (92%) as compared to their counterparts with 63%, (see Figure 4.5). The results show that there were a lesser number of sports participants and non-sports participants who did not take part in sports at high school level, 8% and 37% respectively. Participation of female students in sports at university level was therefore inextricably linked to their previous history of sporting activities at high school ( $p \leq 0.001$ ).



**Figure 4.5: Sports Participation at High School ( $p \leq 0.01$ )**

#### **4.4 Presentation and Analysis of Data Linked to the Research Questions**

This section focuses on presenting data that directly answers the four research questions underpinning this study and is therefore structured as such. Both quantitative and qualitative data were used to present and analyse data pertaining to a respective research question. Where appropriate the comparisons were made with relevant literature to identify similarities and discrepancies in the findings as building blocks for future deliberations in this research area.

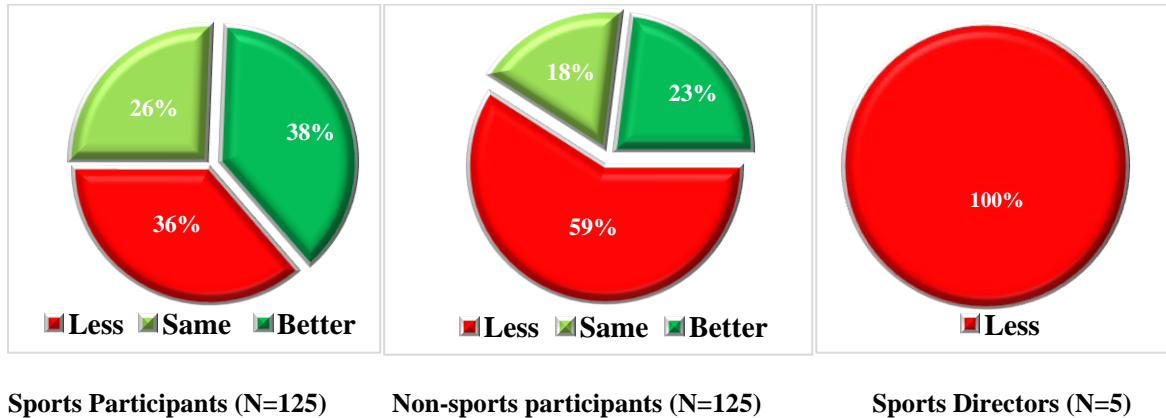
##### **4.4.1 Presentation and Analysis of Quantitative Data**

###### **4.4.1.1 Current Levels of Participation in University Sports by Zimbabwean Female Students**

###### **a) Female Student Participation in Sports in Comparison to their Male Counterparts**

The results from the questionnaire surveys with 125 non-sports participants and 5 Sports Directors showed that there was a large skew in favour of males when it comes to perceived

sports participation in Zimbabwean universities as summarised in Figure 4.6. However, the results also show that the 125 sports participant's questionnaire respondents marginally indicated that levels of sports participation among female students was better (38%) in competitive and recreational university sports competitions, than male students.



**Figure 4.6: Participation of Female Students in University Sports as Compared to their Male Counterparts, Perceptions from Sports Participants vs Non-sports participants ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) and Sports Directors**

The sports participants versus non-sports participants p-value from the Chi-square analysis was found to be less than 5% ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) implying that there was a significant difference between their views concerning female participation levels in university sports as compared to their male counterparts.

**b) Participation of Female Students in Various Sporting Disciplines**

The sports participants' questionnaire asked the respondents to indicate their rating of the levels of female student participation at their institutions in the listed sports codes which are offered in their institutions (Table 4.3).

**Table 4.3: Sports Participants' Rating of the Levels of Female Sports Participation in Various Sporting Disciplines**

Sports code	N	Not at all (%)	Low (%)	Average (%)	High (%)	Very high (%)	p-value
<b>Athletics</b>	118	4.2	19.5	46.6	16.1	13.6	p≤0.001
<b>Basketball</b>	117	8.5	22.2	37.6	18.8	12.8	p≤0.001
<b>Chess</b>	115	9.6	45.2	27.0	9.6	8.7	p≤0.001
<b>Cricket</b>	115	44.3	34.8	13.9	2.6	4.3	p≤0.001
<b>Darts</b>	116	19.8	28.4	31.9	11.2	8.6	p≤0.001
<b>Football</b>	117	13.7	15.4	21.4	21.4	28.2	p<0.005
<b>Golf</b>	116	43.1	25.0	7.8	15.5	8.6	p≤0.001
<b>Handball</b>	118	10.2	14.4	29.7	20.3	25.4	p≤0.01
<b>Hockey</b>	116	27.6	17.2	19.8	21.6	13.8	p>0.05
<b>Karate</b>	114	37.7	25.4	25.4	5.3	6.1	p≤0.001
<b>Netball</b>	117	3.4	4.3	17.9	27.4	47.0	p≤0.001
<b>Pool</b>	115	28.7	42.6	17.4	5.2	6.1	p≤0.001
<b>Rugby</b>	113	73.5	14.2	8.0	1.8	2.7	p≤0.001
<b>Swimming</b>	115	36.5	21.7	20.9	15.7	5.2	p≤0.001
<b>Table Tennis</b>	111	10.8	32.4	27.9	20.7	8.1	p≤0.001
<b>Tennis</b>	116	3.4	31.9	31.9	20.7	12.1	p≤0.001
<b>Volleyball</b>	119	10.1	4.2	24.4	31.9	29.4	p≤0.001

The findings show that most female students participated less in disciplines like cricket (44.3%), golf (43.1%), hockey (27.6%), karate (37.7%), rugby (73.5%) and swimming (36.5%) whereas participation in chess (45.2%), pool (42.6%) and table tennis (32.4%) was below average. On the other hand, female student participation rates in disciplines like athletics (46.6%), basketball (37.6%), darts (31.9%), tennis (31.9%) and handball (29.7%) were rated to be average. It can be noted that participation in disciplines like netball (47%), football (28.2%) and volleyball (31.9%) was very high among sports participants. It was concluded that there was generally a significant difference ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) in the distribution of female students who participate in each sporting discipline and those who do not. This is in exception of hockey where  $p > 0.05$  was noted.

**Table 4.4: Sports Directors' Rating of the Levels of Female Student Participation in Various Sports Codes (N=5)**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Athletics	5	2.40	.894	.400
Basketball	5	3.20	.837	.374
Chess	5	3.20	1.095	.490
Cricket	5	1.20	.447	.200
Darts	5	2.80	1.643	.735
Football	5	2.80	1.483	.663
Golf	5	1.80	.837	.374
Handball	5	3.20	.837	.374
Hockey	5	3.60	.548	.245
Karate	5	2.80	1.304	.583
Netball	5	3.20	.837	.374
Pool	5	1.80	1.789	.800
Rugby	5	1.00	.000 <sup>a</sup>	.000
Swimming	5	2.60	1.342	.600
Table Tennis	5	2.80	.837	.374
Tennis	5	3.00	.707	.316
Volleyball	5	3.80	.447	.200

The same question was posed to the Sports Directors and it yielded slightly different results as shown in Table 4.4. A One-Sample T test ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) with a test value of 3.0, indicating the midpoint of a 5-point Likert-type scale (not at all, low, average, high and very high), was used to rate the level of female participation in the listed sports codes.

- Any mean scores that are greater than the test value (3.0) indicate that there are high female participation rates in the sports code under consideration;
- Any mean scores that are less than the test value (3.0) indicate that there are lower female participation rates in the sports code under investigation;
- Mean values equal to the test value (3.0) indicate that female participation rate in the sports code under consideration is neither high nor low but average;

- Standard deviation shows the mathematical dispersion of the data set relative to the mean. The low standard deviation scores show some convergence in the respondent's view on the ratings of the levels of female participation in the sports codes under consideration. The high standard deviation and variance scores show that the respondents' views on the ratings of the levels of female participation in the sports codes under consideration vary significantly or are divergent.

As Table 4.4 above highlights, sport codes like basketball, chess, handball, hockey, netball and volleyball with mean scores that are greater than the test value (3.0) indicate that there are high female participation rates in the sport code under consideration. Female participation in tennis was rated to be average as the mean value was equal to the test value 3.0. On the other hand, sports codes like athletics cricket, dart, football, golf, karate, pool, rugby, swimming and table tennis were rated to be below average as their mean scores were less than the test value 3.0. This meant that female students felt that female participation rates in their respective institutions were less in these sports codes.

### c) Female Students Participation Growth Trends

The Sports Directors from the five participant universities were asked to indicate the growth trends for female student sports participation in Zimbabwean Universities. They all indicated that female student participation in Zimbabwean universities was improving as opposed to remaining the same or declining. This is summarised in Table 4.5 below.

**Table 4.5: Growth Trends for Female Student Participation (N=5)**

Response	Frequency
Improving	5 (100%)
Same	0
Declining	0

### d) Participation of Female Students in Internal University Competitions

Female students from the five participant universities were also asked to rate the participation of female students in internal university competitions. The majority, 63% (N=77) indicated that female participation in internal university competitions was average or low using a Chi-square of  $p \leq 0.001$ .

**Table 4.6: Female Participation Rating in Internal Competitions**

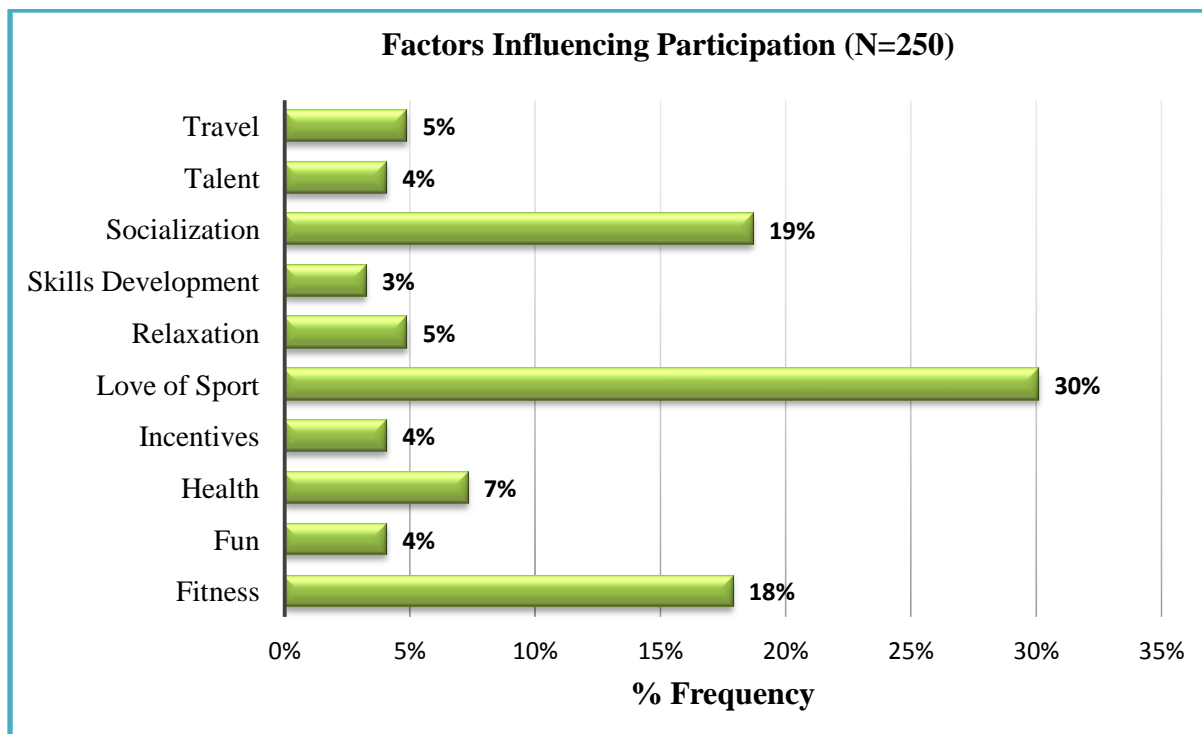
Response	Frequency	Percentage
Low	22	18.0
Average	55	45.1
High	20	16.4
Very High	25	20.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>122</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>p≤0.001</b>		

**4.4.1.2 Factors Responsible for Shaping the Current Levels of Female Students’ Participation in University Sports**

**a) Results from Sports Participants**

**Factors Influencing Female Sports Participation**

It can be noted from Figure 4.7 below that factors like the love of sport (30%), socialisation (19%) and fitness (18%), were regarded as the primary determinants of female participation whereas factors like health (7%), travel (5%) and relaxation (5%) were identified as the secondary determinants of female students participation in Zimbabwean university sports.



**Figure 4.7: Factors Influencing Female Students’ Participation in University Sports**

**b) Results from Non-sports participants**

### Inhibiting Factors to Female Participation

It can be seen that academic pressure (39%) and lack of interest (20%) are the primary inhibiting factors whereas team selection bias (10%) and limited access to facilities were identified as the secondary barriers to university sports participation in Zimbabwean universities by the female non-sports participants.

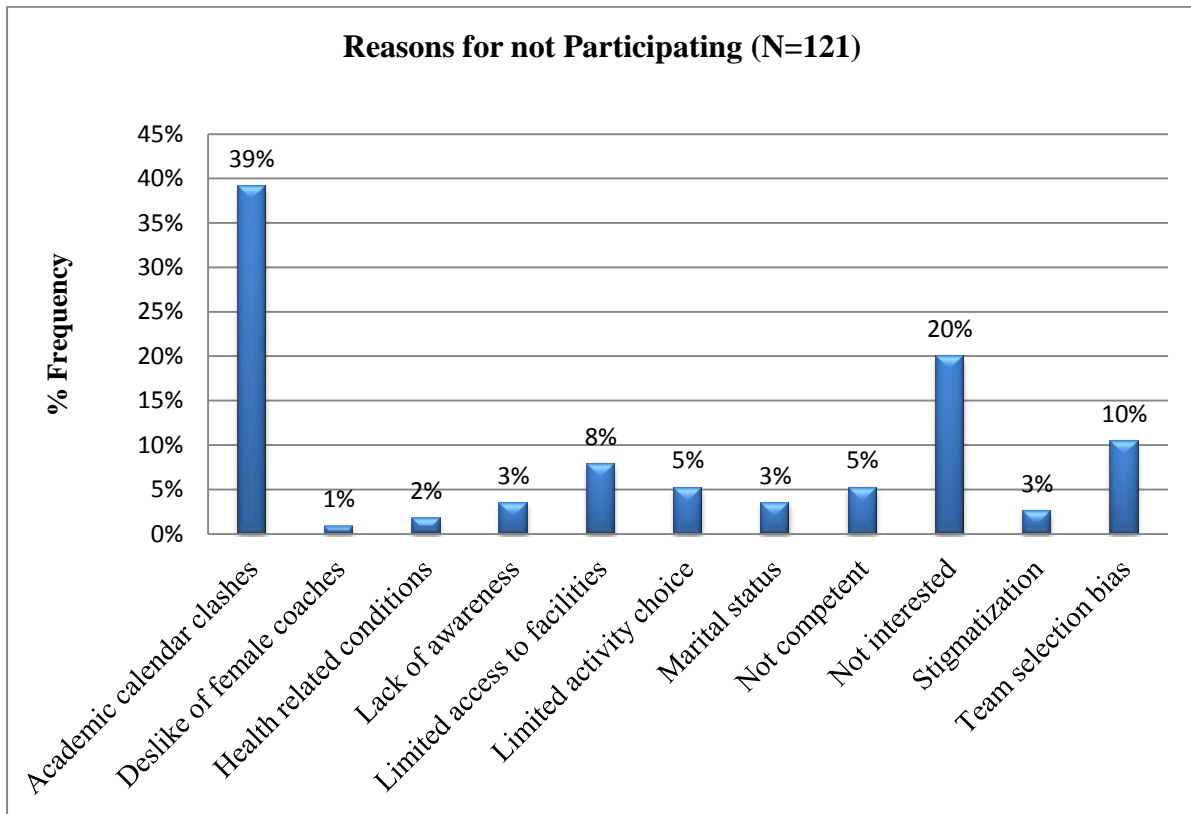


Figure 4.8: Inhibiting Factors to Female Student Participation

**c) Results from Sports Directors**

**Table 4.7: Societal and Institutional Factors Influencing Female Student Participation as Identified by Sports Directors (N=5)**

Category	Factor	Frequency	Percentage
Societal	Gender Stereotyping	4	80.0
	Socialisation	1	20.0
<b>Total</b>		<b>5</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Institutional	Positive Impact	3	60.0
	Negative Impact	2	40.0
<b>Total</b>		<b>5</b>	<b>100.0</b>

The Sports Directors identified such societal factors as gender stereotyping (80%) and socialisation (20%) as the main societal determinants of female student participation in Zimbabwean Universities. They also went on to identify institutional positive (60%) and negative (40%) impacts on female participation in sports by female students. Emphasis on the benefits of sport was the only positive impact identified whereas the negative impacts were gender stereotypes, lack of adequate and lucrative incentives and emphasis on academic pursuits.

**4.4.1.3 Attitudes towards Participation of Female Students in University Sports**

The findings showed that sports participants and non-sports participants have different attitudes towards sports participation, as captured in Table 4.8. The majority of the respondents (43.1% for sports participants and 30.5% for non-sports participants) agreed that participation in Zimbabwean tertiary sport is an important form for social interaction for female students hence it can be regarded as the important determinant of sports participation by female students. The majority of the sports participants (43.3%) strongly agreed that they play sport in order to win medals whereas the majority of non-sports participants (25%) were neutral about this statement.

Table 4.8 below also depicts that the majority of sports participants (27%) agreed that a coach influenced their participation in University sports whereas (33.1%) of the non-sports participants disagreed. Most of the participants (35.2%) strongly agreed that they would like to be sports professionals whereas their counterparts (22.4%) strongly disagreed. The majority of sports participants (22%) and non-sports participants (24.6%) were neutral about

their parents having an influential role on their involvement in University sport and (30.6% and 22.9% respectively) were also silent on encouraging their sons to marry prominent sports women.

With further reference to Table 4.8, it can be noted that the majority of the respondents (37.4% sports participants and 26.3% non-sports participants) agreed that sport enhances their social status and also that they would encourage their daughters to marry prominent sportsmen. Both the sports participants (52.8%) and the non- sports participants (31.9%) strongly agreed that they would take part in sport for health and wellness reasons, encourage their sons and daughters to participate in sports and that participation in University sport provides temporary escape from academic and psychosocial stress. Hence it can be concluded that these were also considered as important determinants of female students' involvement in University sports.

A higher percentage of the respondents (28.7% sports participants and 23.9% non- sports participants) strongly disagreed that women who take part in sport are viewed as of loose morals by their counterparts and (45.5% and 37.4% respectively) that participation in sport reduces the chances of getting married as shown by Table 4.8 below. They also disagreed with the fact that their peers were influential in their involvement in sport (22.8% sports participants and 28.8% non-sports participants). It can therefore be concluded that these were weaker determinants of sports participation by female students.

**Table 4.8: Attitudes of Sports Participants and Non-sports participants Towards the Participation of Female Students in University Sports (%)**

Statement	Sports Participants									Non-sports participants								
	N	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	p-value	N	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	p-value
1.Participation in Zimbabwean Tertiary sport is an important form for social interaction for female students	123	0.8	0.8	0.8	14.6	14.6	43.1	25.2	p≤0.001	118	9.3	9.3	4.2	11.0	15.3	30.5	20.3	p≤0.001
2. I want to win medals and trophies	120	4.2	2.5	5.0	7.5	8.3	29.2	43.3	p≤0.001	120	15.8	12.5	5.0	25.0	9.2	17.5	15.0	p≤0.01
3. A coach influenced my participation in University sport	122	13.9	13.1	4.9	18.9	9.8	27.0	12.3	p≤0.001	118	22.0	33.1	1.7	21.2	7.6	5.1	9.3	p≤0.001
4. I would like to be a sports professional	122	4.9	9.8	3.3	6.6	19.7	20.5	35.2	p≤0.001	116	22.4	19.0	7.8	14.7	6.9	13.8	15.5	p≤0.05
5. My parents want me to participate in University sport	123	11.4	9.8	2.4	22.0	17.9	19.5	17.1	p≤0.001	118	16.1	16.9	3.4	24.6	9.3	19.5	10.2	p≤0.001
6.Participation in sport enhances my social status	123	3.3	1.6	3.3	13.8	20.3	37.4	20.3	p≤0.001	118	14.4	11.9	5.1	13.6	8.5	26.3	20.3	p≤0.001
7. I would take part in sport for health and wellness reasons	123	3.3	0.0	0.8	3.3	13.0	26.8	52.8	p≤0.001	116	5.2	9.5	2.6	8.6	12.1	30.2	31.9	p≤0.001
8.Women who take part in sport are viewed as of loose morals by their counterparts	122	28.7	17.2	4.9	11.5	20.5	9.8	7.4	p≤0.001	117	23.9	23.9	4.3	13.7	12.0	9.4	12.8	p≤0.001
9.Participation in sport reduces the chances of getting married	123	45.5	20.3	5.7	9.8	12.2	1.6	4.9	p≤0.001	115	37.4	20.0	7.8	15.7	6.1	9.6	3.5	p≤0.001
10.I would encourage my son to participate in sport	123	2.4	4.1	0.8	4.1	8.1	27.6	52.8	p≤0.001	117	6.8	6.0	2.6	8.5	5.1	32.5	38.5	p≤0.001
11. I would encourage my daughter to participate in sport	123	1.6	3.3	0.0	8.9	4.9	31.7	49.6	p≤0.001	117	14.5	6.0	0.9	12.0	4.3	25.6	36.8	p≤0.001
12.I would encourage my son to marry a prominent sports woman	121	5.0	5.8	0.0	30.6	9.9	29.8	19.0	p≤0.001	118	16.1	11.9	7.6	22.9	5.1	20.3	16.1	p≤0.01
13. I would encourage my daughter to marry a prominent sports man	122	4.9	2.5	0.0	30.3	9.8	32.8	19.7	p≤0.001	118	16.1	7.6	5.9	25.4	8.5	22.0	14.4	p≤0.001
14. Participation in University sport provides temporary escape from academic and psychosocial stress	123	3.3	1.6	1.6	4.9	9.8	36.6	42.3	p≤0.001	118	11.0	6.8	2.5	10.2	12.7	24.6	32.2	p≤0.001
15.I was influenced by my peers to take part in sport	123	22.8	20.3	3.3	9.8	21.1	14.6	8.1	p≤0.001	118	22.0	28.8	4.2	19.5	7.6	10.2	7.6	p≤0.001

#### 4.4.1.4 The Perceived Benefits that Zimbabwean Female University Students Derive from University Sports Participation

##### a) Sports Participants' View on Benefits of Participation

Descriptive statistical measures were used to analyse data on the benefits that sports participant derive from sports participation. The results from Table 4.9 below show that health and wellness (83%), physical fitness (82%), social interaction (71%), travelling (56%) and escape from stress (54%) were perceived as the most important benefits derived from female students' sports participation in Zimbabwean Universities.

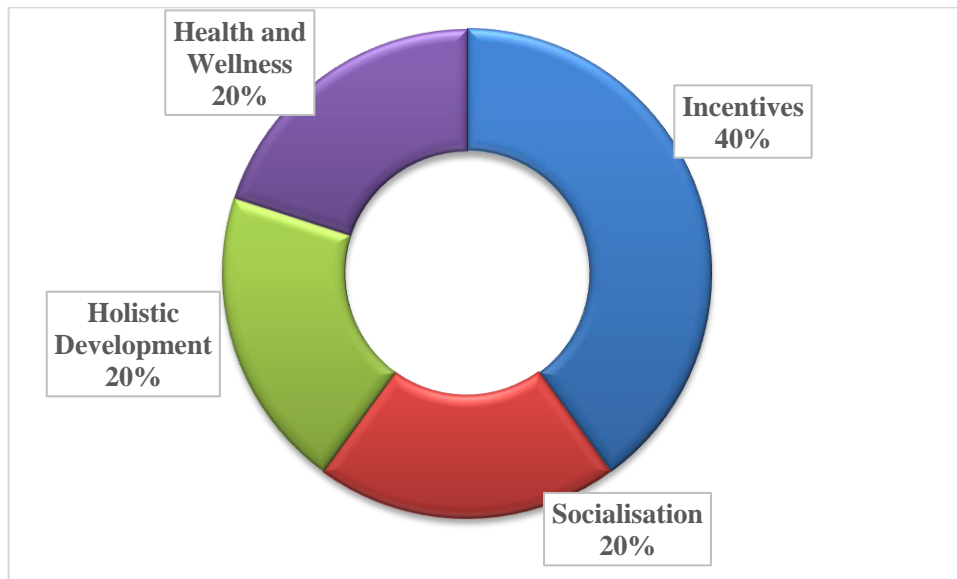
**Table 4.9: Sports Participants' View (%) on the Benefits of Participation in University Sports**

Benefit	N	No Benefit (%)	Minor Benefit (%)	Major Benefit (%)	p-value
Health And Wellness	124	0.8	16.1	83.1	$p \leq 0.001$
Physical Fitness	125	0.0	17.6	82.4	$p \leq 0.001$
Social Interaction	123	3.3	26.0	70.7	$p \leq 0.001$
Travelling	125	4.0	40.0	56.0	$p \leq 0.001$
Escape From Stress	124	4.8	41.1	54.1	$p \leq 0.001$
Esteem or Ego Enhancement	123	8.9	52.9	38.2	$p \leq 0.001$
Monetary Rewards	124	32.3	41.9	25.8	$p > 0.05$
Material Rewards	122	28.7	49.2	22.1	$p \leq 0.001$
Social Approval	121	13.2	42.1	44.7	$p \leq 0.001$

It can be noted that most p-values from Chi-square analysis were less than 5% meaning that there was a clear and significant view on the benefits of sports except for monetary rewards, with p-value greater than 5%.

##### b) Results from Sports Directors

The Sports Directors were asked to identify the benefits that female students in Zimbabwean Universities derive from sports participation. The results showed that female students derive health and wellness (20%), incentives (40%), socialisation (20%) and holistic development (20%) related benefits from sport participation as shown in Figure 4.9:



**Figure 4.9: Sports Directors Views on the Benefits those Female Students Derive from Participating in University Sports (N=5)**

**4.4.1.5 Effectiveness of the Approaches used by Zimbabwean University Sports Administrators to Encourage Female Students to Participate in University Sports**

**a) Sports Directors Results**

The Sports Directors were asked to rate the institutional intervention measures on a 7 point Likert-type scale and the results are summarised in Table 4.10 below, where any measures below the midpoint (neutral) were deemed to be ineffective. Measures above neutral were deemed to be effective.

**Table 4.10: Sports Directors' Views (%) on the Effectiveness of the Measures Designed to Encourage Female Participation**

Measure	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The facilities at the institution encourage the participation of female students in sport	20.0	40.0	-	-	-	20.0	20.0
Sports Administrators adequately promote and market sports in a way which encourages female participation	60.0	-	-	-	-	20.0	20.0
The institution ensures that all female student teams are coached by female coaches or gender sensitive male coaches	-	20.0	-	20.0	20.0	40.0	-
The institution offers adequate incentives and logistical support to encourage female students to participate in sports	20.0	20.0	40.0	-	-	20.0	-
My Institution has a sports policy which promotes the participation of female students in sports	20.0	40.0	-	-	40.0	-	-
My institution has a gender policy which promotes the participation of female students in sports	60.0	-	-	-	-	40.0	-
The university act encourages the participation of female students in sports	40.0	20.0	-	-	-	40.0	-
My Institution has put in place adequate measures to curb sexual harassment during sports competitions	60.0	-	-	20.0	-	20.0	-

**b) Results from Sports Participants and Non-Sports Participants Responses**

The sports participants and non-sports participants were asked indicate the extent to which they agreed with statements indicating that Zimbabwean universities were effectively promoting female student sports participation. Their responses are summarised in Table 4.11 below and they show that the respondents felt that the intervention measures were not effective.

**Table 4.11: Agreement with Effectiveness of Institutional Intervention Measures (%)**

Statement	Respondents	N	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	p-value
The facilities at the institution encourage the participation of female students in sport.	Sports Participants	124	11.3	13.7	7.3	16.1	8.1	25.6	17.7	p≤0.005
	Non-sports participants	120	15.8	18.3	7.5	10.0	11.7	25.0	11.7	p≤0.001
Sports Administrators adequately promote and market sports in a way which encourages female participation	Sports Participants	124	8.9	14.5	7.3	11.3	17.7	25.0	15.3	p>0.005
	Non-sports participants	120	10.0	16.7	2.5	19.2	11.7	30.0	10.0	p≤0.001
The institution ensures that all female student teams are coached by female coaches or gender sensitive male coaches	Sports Participants	124	21.0	21.0	8.9	20.2	4.8	12.9	11.3	p≤0.001
	Non-sports participants	118	11.9	21.2	6.8	30.5	11.9	14.4	3.4	p≤0.001
The institution offers adequate incentives and logistical support to encourage female students to participate in sports	Sports Participants	123	20.3	9.8	8.9	13.0	13.4	21.1	13.0	p>0.05
	Non-sports participants	120	12.5	21.7	2.5	15.8	14.2	26.7	6.7	p≤0.001

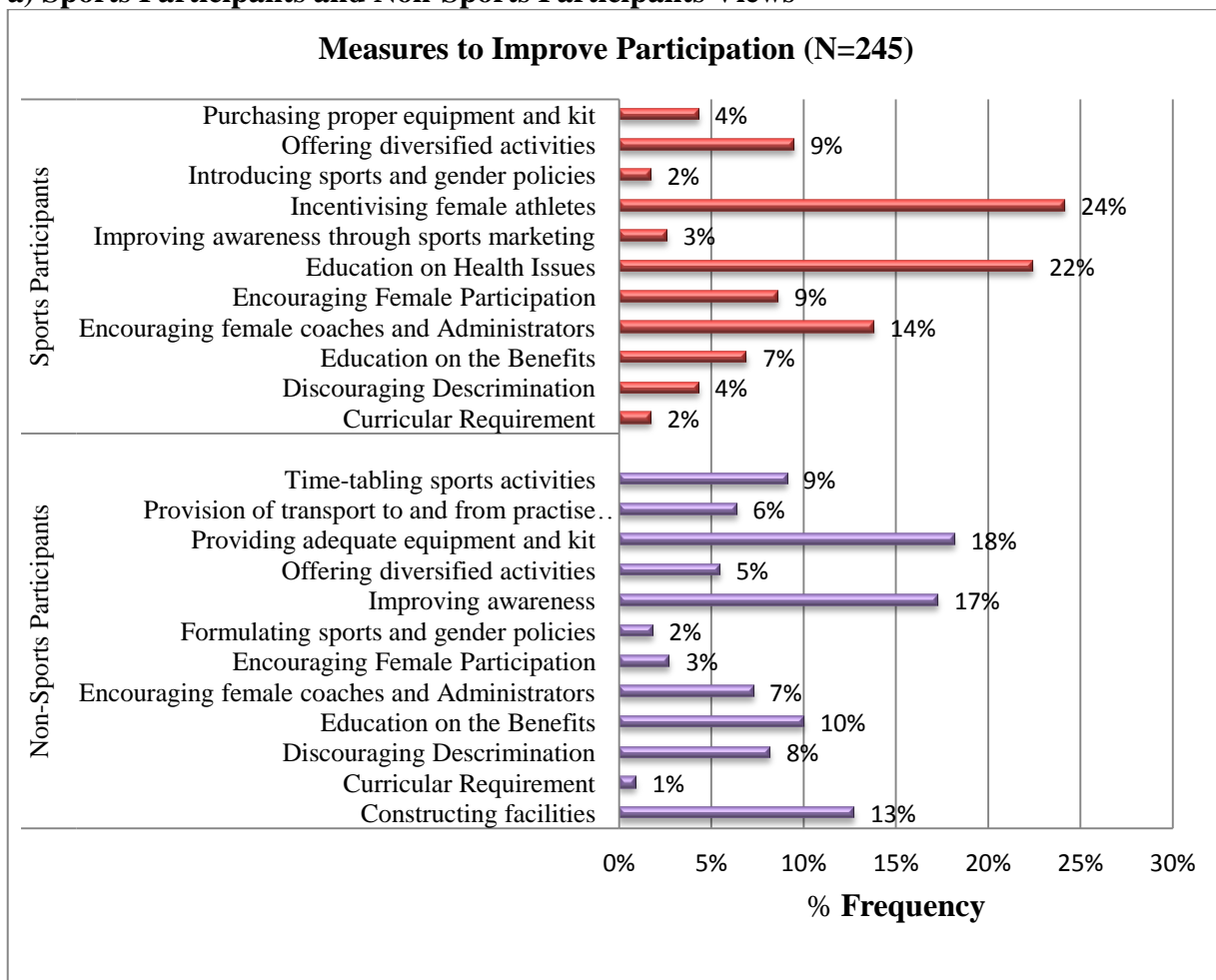
From the Table 4.11 above, a cumulative percentage of agreement of 51.4% of sports participants and 48.4% of non-sports participants across the three scores of agreement, agreed that the facilities at their institutions encourage the participation of female students in sport. A higher cumulative percentage of both respondents (58% sports participants and 51.7% non-sports participants) were in agreement to the fact that sports administrators adequately promote and market sports in a way which encourages female participation in sports. A positive cumulative agreement rating across the three scores of agreement was also seen in both groups where 47.5% of the sports participants and 47.6% of the non-sports participants agreed that their institutions offer adequate incentives and logistical support to encourage female students to participate in sports. It can therefore be concluded that the respondents were to a certain extent in agreement with the intervention measures which were in place at their Institutions to encourage female participation in sport. On

the other hand, it can be clearly seen that the cumulative disagreement percentage of the sports participants (50,9%) were not in agreement with the fact that their institutions ensure that female coaches or gender sensitive male coaches handle female student teams. The same applies to (39, 9%) of their counterparts were also in cumulative disagreement about the measure. A conclusion can then be drawn that this measure was not in place in most institutions or it was ineffective and less appropriate.

#### 4.4.1.6 Measures that can be put in Place to Improve the Participation of Female Students in University Sports

All the questionnaire respondents were asked to indicate measures that can be put in place at their institutions to improve female participation in sports. The sports participants and non-sports participants' views are summarised in Fig 4.10.

##### a) Sports Participants and Non-Sports Participants Views



**Figure 4.10: Measures to Improve Participation: Sports Participants vs Non-Sports Participants**

It can be noted from the Figure above that sports participants indicated that incentivising female athletes (24%), education on the health benefits of sports (22%) and encouraging female coaches and administrators to handle female teams (14%) were the most important and appropriate measures to encourage female participation in university sports. On the other hand, non-sports participants thought that providing adequate kit and equipment (18%), improving awareness on sports related issues (17%) and construction of proper sports facilities (13%) will go a long way in improving female participation in university sporting activities.

#### **b) Sports Directors Views**

The same question was posed to the Sports Directors and majority of them suggested that female student participation in university sports can be improved through the introduction of player incentives, provision of adequate facilities, provision of sports equipment, implementing the sexual harassment policy to protect the female students, the use of female role models, gender mainstreaming and formulation of policies that encourage gender mainstreaming.

#### **4.4.2 Presentation and Analysis of Qualitative Data**

In this section, data collected by means of such qualitative procedures as focus group discussions (sports participants and non-sports participants) and semi-structured interviews (Deans of Students and Sports Directors) are analysed and presented.

From Table 4.12 below, it can be noted that, among the five Deans of Students, only one of them was female and the rest were male; this was also the same in the case of Sports Directors. These findings are in line with those of Simmons (2011) who contends that even with the advancements that women have made throughout history, very few women have risen to the top of sports organisations. Previous research cites gender-based stereotypes, segregation based on job type, and the “old boys’ network” as causes for this trend. Their ages ranged from 30-65 years. There was one in the 30-39 years age group, none in the 40-49 and four in the 50-65 years age group. All of them were postgraduates. As with the Sports Directors, the 40-49 years age group was the most dominant followed by the 50-65 years with two Directors and the 30-39 years having none at all. In terms of their level of education, four of them were postgraduates and only one had a first degree. All the Deans of Students and the Sports Directors were the required audience due to their level of education.

**Table 4.12: Demographic Data for Interview Respondents (N=5)**

Title	Gender		Age			Level of Education	
	Male	Female	30-39	40-49	50-65	First Degree	Postgraduate
Deans of Students	4	1	1	0	4	0	5
Sports Directors	4	1	0	3	2	1	4

**a) Focus Group Discussion with Students**

Ten focus group discussions were conducted with sports participants and non-sports participants drawn from five Zimbabwean universities which are affiliated to the Zimbabwe Universities Sports Association.

The focus group discussions were based on the following five central discussion points:

- The nature and trends of female student participation in university sports;
- The factors responsible for shaping the trends of university sports participation by female students;
- The benefits that female students derive from university sports participation;
- The effectiveness of institutional intervention measures that were adopted to encourage female student participation in university sports; and
- The measures that can be adopted to improve the participation of female students in Zimbabwean university sports.

There were minor variations in the responses to these discussion points as most of the responses recurred across the ten focus group sessions.

The discussions were audio-recorded with permission from the participants, so as to secure an accurate record of the conversations. The ten audio files were then imported into the NVIVO 11 Qualitative Data Analysis Software, where data were analysed by coding directly on the audio file. The nodes used for coding were developed initially from a word frequency query, with themes being developed around frequently occurring words. Text Search Queries were also utilised in the theme development process to identify the contexts in which the frequently occurring words were used, as summarised in Figures 4.14, 4.15, 4.16 and 4.19.

#### **4.4.2 Focus Group Discussions Results: Female Sports Participation in Comparison with Males**

The focus group participants were asked to describe the nature and trends of female student sport participation at their respective institutions. The findings (Table 4.13) show that although the participation of female students in university sports has improved drastically in the last five years, female students still participate less than their male counterparts. The results show that females are now participating in sporting disciplines that were traditionally viewed as a preserve for men like football, darts, karate and pool. However, they still do not participate in cricket and rugby. It was also noted that female student participation in the five institutions which participated in the study, was sporadic since it was limited to official university teams and competitions. Male students, on the other hand, participate in both competitive and recreational sport throughout the year.

**Table 4.13: Views on Female Participation Trends in Comparison with Those of Male Students**

Non-Sports Participants	Sports Participants
<p>Males are given the first preference            I can refer to the last incident when we were about to go to the ZUSA games. It was announced in the final stages of the preparation that the females were supposed to reduce their numbers but the males were not affected            I noticed that most of the males enjoys sport, they do sport for fun and most of the time when they are not doing anything they engage in spots. They participate mostly even when there are no competitions            Most males participate in many sporting activities and in large numbers compared to females. They participate in basketball, volleyball, soccer and so on            Some ladies also participate when they know there is a prize or monetary compensation            More males participate in sport            There are more males but I do not think there is anyone to blame as we are given the same opportunity            The female participation in sports is way less to that of males. You find out that when there are competitions, males compete to be in teams because they are many of them and importantly, they are willing and enthusiastic to participate. Now when it comes to females they actually struggle to put a team together.</p>	<p>Males generally participate in many sporting activities than females but here female numbers in sports participation is generally higher.            The university has done a lot to support women in sports participation            Sporting activities in the main stream domain are generally considered as male activities even though some females participate. You can sense that females are just taking part but males are in the main event. For instance when it comes to the participation of females, they are not usually in the main event and even the interest of the fans is on the main soccer matches and not the other netball games that females take part in            I think they are equal as we are having same sporting activities that accommodate male and female students            From what I have noticed there is low participation and I also think females view sports as irrelevant or perhaps unnecessary            Generally I think most females who participate in sports do it for benefits, you know: ‘What will I get in return for doing this?’ That is the main question. For instance, most females do not participate in the second semester because we do not have ZUSA games. So they just come when they know there are allowances, travel or incentives            Few women participate in sports because there is less interested in sports activities performed by ladies. For instance in soccer, very few people to watch women’s soccer as compared to male soccer and this discourages other women from participating            I think some females do not participate in sports because they think that they will lose weight and through training develop a body that is not attractive            It appears that the male students participate more in sports than female students as they dominate in many disciplines and have opposing competitors to play with</p>

The results presented show that invariably, there was general understanding that female participation was low. The major factors raised around low participation of female students in university sporting activities include but are not limited to: Gender stereotyping; lack of motivation and incentives; demographic characteristics of university enrolments; lack of facilities and general unawareness of the benefits of sports participation.

### 4.4.3 Focus Group Discussions Results: Description of the Trends of Female Participation in University Sports between Sports and Non-sports participants

In order to understand the general state of sport participation by university students in the institutions studied, both sports and non-sports participants were asked to discuss their perceived level of female sports participation in their respective institutions. Table 4.14 shows the views expressed by these cohorts. As shown, similar sentiments between sports and non-sports participants with major themes coming out featuring but not limited to the following: Societal discrimination and gender imbalances; lack of financial incentives; fewer available female sporting disciplines; fewer female students on enrolment and general lack of willingness to participate.

**Table 4.14: Views on Trends of Female Participation in University Sports**

Sports Participants	Non-Sports Participants
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Most females participate in sport despite problems in sport despite the many challenges that are related to discrimination and societal discrimination</li> <li>Most women participate in sports. However, this occurs mostly during the times when competitions are set more than when they are not. Prize money is a great motivator for women to participate but this only comes during ZUSA competitions</li> <li>They are at best because everyone is accommodated and given an opportunity to participate</li> <li>I think the trends are increasing in a positive way as we have many new other sporting activities for women</li> <li>It has been changing quite noticeably over the years as we now see females participating in women’s soccer, basketball, swimming and tennis</li> <li>The number of female participants has grown over the years and is still growing</li> <li>Generally we have few female sports participants as compared to male sports</li> <li>Usually females do not participate in other sports disciplines as there won’t be any other teams to compete with from other universities</li> <li>Female participants are also usually dominated by students from lower levels like first and second year students because the fourth years are focusing more on academic projects</li> <li>Usually females are motivated by money or financial incentives to participate in sport</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Few female students</li> <li>Some participate at ZUSA games</li> <li>There is continuation of soccer games make males participate more</li> <li>Females participate seasonally</li> <li>I don’t usually see female students in the courts unless there are competitions</li> <li>They only participate when they are competitions</li> <li>They are but the majority of the participants are just boys</li> <li>There is no gender balance</li> <li>There is a female coach for female soccer</li> <li>Currently we do not have sporting facilities</li> <li>Nothing is happening in terms of sport</li> <li>Sporting activities by females is not consistent. It is seasonal, when there are ZUSA games that is when females are seen to be more active</li> <li>I think female sports participation is very low. I actually think that most females who participate in sport are actually doing sports, I mean those who are studying sports science and those who were very active from high school.</li> <li>When we go for games usually female teams usually struggle to put together a team as there are very few who are willing to participate in sport.</li> </ul>

### 4.4.4 Focus Group Discussions Results: Factors Affecting Female Participation in University Sports

The focus group participants were also asked to identify the factors that are responsible for shaping the current trends of university sports participation by female students at their institutions (Figure 11 and 12 below). The findings show that the current levels of sports participation by female students in Zimbabwean universities can be attributed to the gender stereotypes in society, where sports is generally perceived as a male domain. The study noted that, although the focus group participants were female students, they also shared the notion that female athletes are generally of loose morals and they do not make good wives since they spend most of their times training, playing sport and travelling instead of taking care of their families as expected. The non-sport participants also cited such barriers to sports participation as; fears of virginity loss through sports participation and the fact that the muscular body that athletes develop through sports participation reduces their attractiveness to men and hence diminishes their chances of getting married.

The focus group discussion participants also identified such institutional barriers to sports participation as; the fact that most female students are academically oriented and as a result they do not perceive sports participation as important. Other institutional barriers to female student participation include the lack of 'female friendly' sports facilities at most of the case study universities. The focus group discussion participants noted that female students generally want to be associated with "nice things". However, most sporting facilities used by Zimbabwean universities are either substandard or not easily accessible and this was identified as one of the reasons why female students' sports uptake is inferior to that of their male counterparts. The participants also noted that most female students prefer to be coached by female sports coaches. Currently, however, most university sports teams are coached by males and this was also cited as one of the reasons why some female students do not participate in sports.

The lack of accommodation at most universities was also identified as another hindrance to university sports participation by female students. This stems from the fact that most practice sessions are scheduled in the evenings thereby raising security concerns for female students who stay off-campus.

The following diagram shows Focus Group Discussions NVIVO extract of sports participants where factors responsible for shaping university sports participation trends were analysed.

- *Female staff participation in sports*
- *Sports participation is a big thing in sporting activities in universities*
- *Financial allowances, we are given good incentives, association as well as we are given a chance to interact with other sports persons and making new friends*
- *Lack of fitness*
- *Lack of motivation strategies that encourage females to participate. We have ma higher male participation in coaching than females and this reduces female confidence and morale*
- *Availability of facilities and equipment in the university. Like at our institution here, we are short of required sporting facilities for several sporting disciplines such as women's soccer, rugby and hockey*
- *Lack of qualified personnel such as coaches, particularly female coaches*
- *Lack of funding, which means there are not many rewards that are offered to students who participate in sport*
- *The female students lack motivation and we generally don't have a policy that support female students participation*

**Figure 4.11: Factors Affecting Female Participation among Sports Participants**

The following diagram shows Focus Group Discussions NVIVO extract of non-sports participants where factors responsible for shaping university sport participation trends were further analysed.

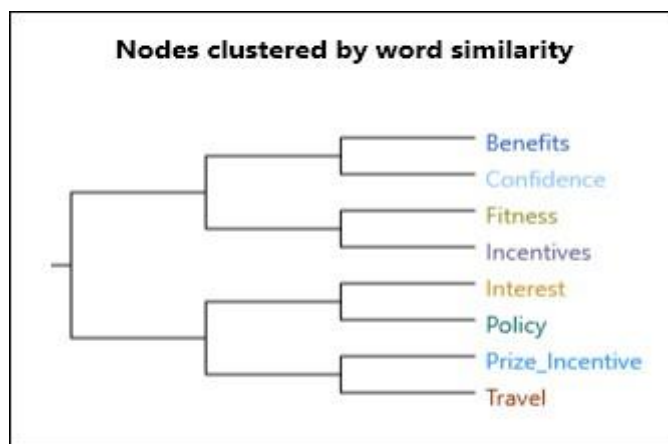
- *Some of the women just do not like sport*
- *They are not inspired*
- *I think maturity contributes to that, that we lose interest as we mature...we get married, we get into stable relationships, and sporting, we associate it with those women who want to be more independent*
- *Some of the female students do not have sporting background from high school and find it difficult to try it out at this level*
- *Lack of interest*
- *Encourage students from the authorities because they encourage the males mostly more than females*
- *Facilities are not available so sporting activities are not being carried out*
- *Our campus is still new and we do not have facilities particularly for practical sporting activities so it is an infrastructure challenge*
- *I think it is good if we have an authority who can talk to us about sports. They just say those who are well versed in hockey can you come so those of us who do not know about it are immediately left out*
- *I think the major one, not only in sports but in other places, there is lack of advertisement. For example, I do not know what happens in darts, rugby or hockey.*
- *There is a lot of school work to have time for sports*
- *Females are not aware of what is happening in sports because they generally lack interest*
- *By far the largest group of students, both males and females, we are not university residents and the time that we stay at campus is very minimal so that time to spare for sports is very little*
- *General lack of awareness*

**Figure 4.12: Factors Affecting Female Participation among Non-sports participants**

The findings from both focus group participants show that societal gender stereotyping (with more coding references) was the most significant determinant of gender disparities in university sports participation.

#### 4.4.5 Focus Group Discussions: Perceived Benefits

A text search query was also conducted to show how words were used together in the focus group discussions as summarised in Figure 4.13. It shows the nodes clustered by word similarity. Clustered thematic analysis of the benefits for female participation in university sports were developed from the results of focus group transcripts.



**Figure 4.13: Emerging Themes on the Benefits of Sports Participation**

The focus group participants noted that (Table 4.15) female students realize many benefits from sports and physical activity. Both respondents had similar views on the benefits of sports participation, these included financial benefits, exposure, health benefits, personal confidence and sports training and education.

**Table 4.15: Perceived Benefits of Participating in Sports by Females**

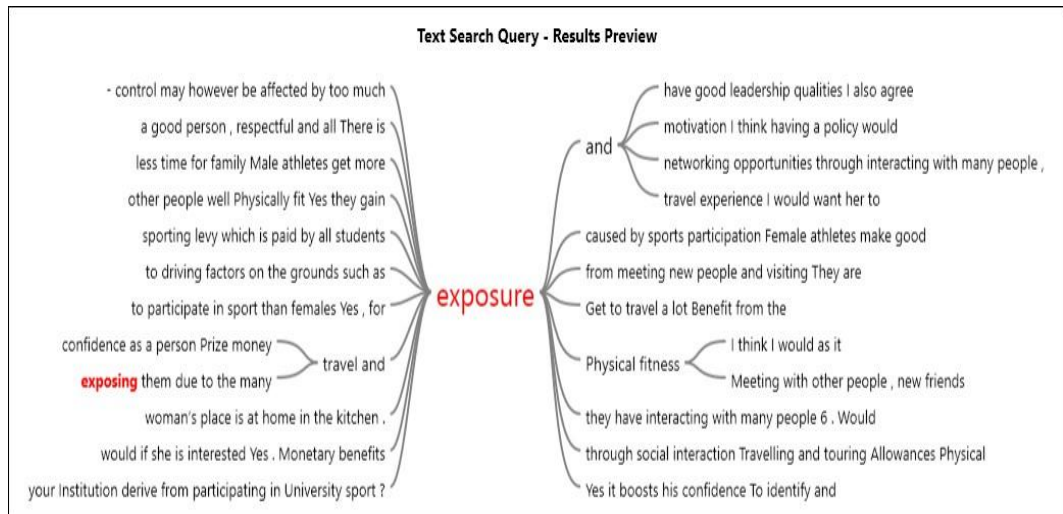
Non-Sports Participants	Sports Participants
Financially they can benefit through incentives and allowances when they travel	Exposure through social interaction
Social life they can benefit	Travelling and touring
Boosts your confidence as a person	Allowances
Prize money	Physical fitness, I can run seven kilometres
Travel and exposure	Fitness
Get to travel a lot	Allowances
Benefit from the sporting funds from the university such as the sporting levy which is paid by all students	Travel and tourism, visiting places that we wouldn't have gone
Exposure and networking opportunities through interacting with many people, students from other institutions creating a wider social networking	Health and physical fitness
It improves health through activities	They get to make more friends, met new people and get to learn other cultures from interacting with other people
Incentives and allowances	They get incentives for participating in tournaments
	Travelling benefits, going to other countries, particularly those in the developed world in Europe
	Acquire knowledge on how to coach other athletes within university set ups

**Colour Codes for Captured Benefits**  
**Blue** – Financial Benefits  
**Light Green** - Exposure  
**Green** – Health Benefits  
**Brown** – Personal Confidence  
**Purple** – Sport Training and education

Other benefits were health and well-being and social networking and interaction related benefits. It was also noted that sport molds character and equips students with important life skills. It also occupies student’s recreational time productively and protects them from social vices. The participants also noted that sports helps students to relieve academic stress. Students also reap substantial financial and material benefits from their sports involvement (Figure 4:14).

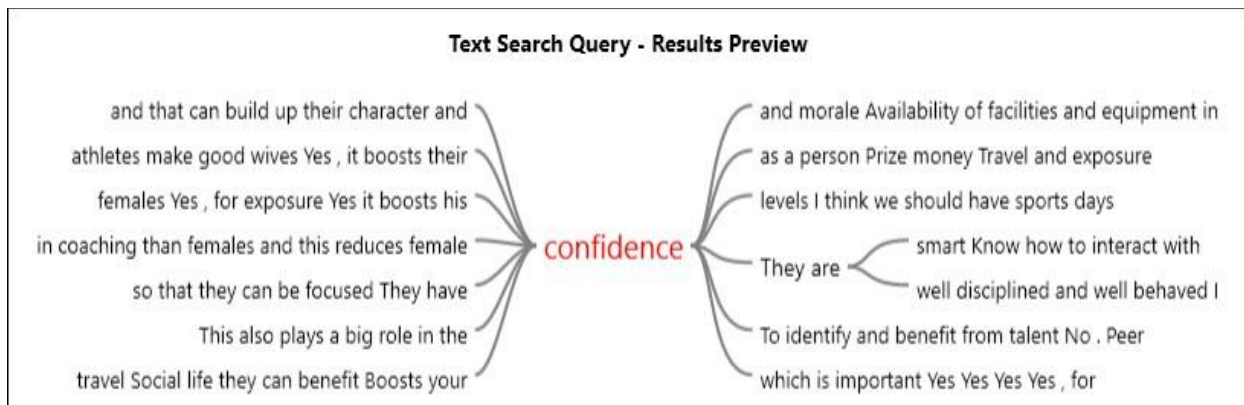
The following are Focus Group NVIVO extracts (Figure 4:14 and Figure 4:15) showing text search queries to support respondents' views on the benefits of female participation in sports.

a) Key Word In Context- Analysis of “Exposure” as a Benefit



**Figure 4.14: Text Search Query Results on the Benefits of Sports Participation (KWIC) – Exposure**

b) Key Word In Context- Analysis of “Confidence” as a Benefit



**Figure 4.15: Text Search Query results on the benefits of sports participation (KWIC) - Confidence**

**4.4.6 Focus Group Results: The Extent to which Gender Policies Promote Female Students’ Participation in University Sports**

Right across all the ten focus group discussions, it was generally felt that there were no deliberate intervention measures in place to try and encourage female students to participate in sports. They also indicated that the participation of female students in sports can be improved through the adoption of such measures as employing female coaches and female sports administrators to be in

charge of female student teams; using female role models in campaigns to motivate females to participate in sports; instituting policy measures that redress gender imbalances in sport participation; availing campus accommodation and accessible sporting facilities, among other measures.

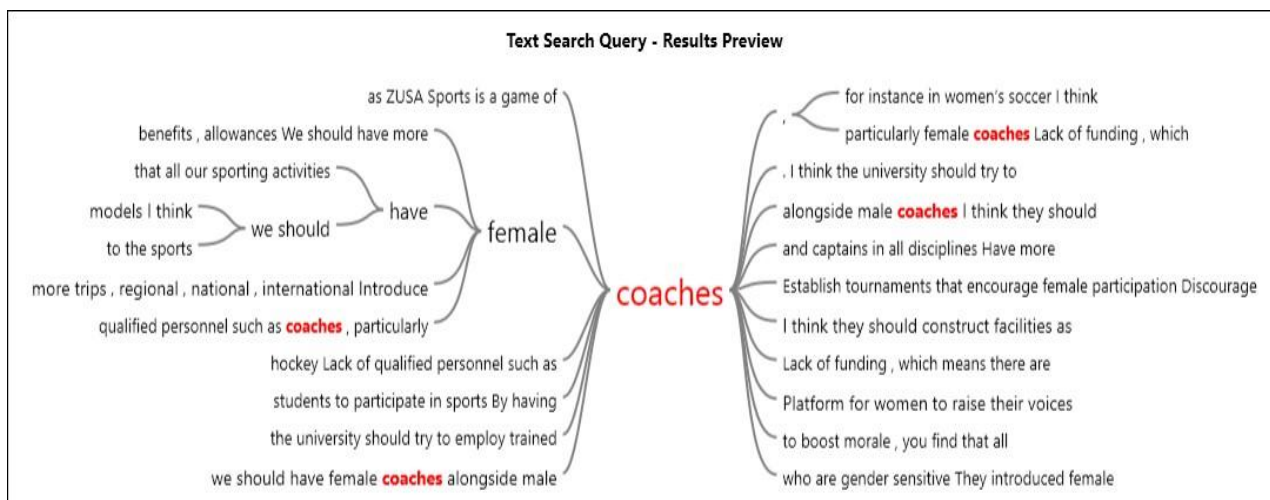
The Table 4.16 illustrates the extent to which the measures that were adopted by Zimbabwean universities to improve the participation of female students in sports were effective.

**Table 4.16: The Extent to which Gender Policies Promote Female Students’ Participation in University Sports**

Non-Sports Participants	Sports Participants
I really think the policy issue does not have any effect as it all boils down to driving factors on the grounds such as exposure and motivation	I think having such a policy can attract sponsors interested in growing female sport It sets standards for participation
I think having a policy would help. Taking it from my point of view, males dominate the sporting activities and a policy can help to encourage and foster female participation in sports	The policy could be there but it is not promoted and we are not even sure about its provisions
Yes, because the girls will know their rights	It will help female athletes to boost their confident and stand for their rights
I think the problem is on the women themselves who view sport as ‘men’s stuff’	It will help us to be good leaders of tomorrow. If you are exposed to leadership, it builds your leadership skills for different environments and people
It would improve it was there, through awareness, some of the girls are not informed on their rights so if they become sensitised and become aware, maybe they can grow interested	It will encourage more females to participate through policy protection on rights and needs
Most schools have these. Mostly the problem with policies is that they remain on paper and implementation is not effected.	<b>Colour Codes</b>
We tend to emphasise education more than spot.	<b>Green</b> – Positive, a gender policy would help
If the policy was there it would help. I am not sure what the policy will be like but if the policy was to stipulate regulation on sports participation for female students that would enforce some women to participate	<b>Orange</b> – Negative, a gender policy would not help
This would be compulsory sports though Follow up on participation of sports would be boosted	<b>Blue</b> – Unrelated comment

#### 4.4.7 Focus Group Results: Measures to Improve Female Students' Participation in University Sports

The Figure below depicts a Key Word in Context- Analysis of “Coaches” as a suggested measure.



**Figure 4.16: Text Search Query Results on Measures to Improve Female Students' Sport Participation (KWIC) – Coaches**

Figure 4.16 shows an NVIVO extract for focus group discussions on the measures to improve female participation in university sporting activities.

First, there should set up committees that involve females that plan events especially for female students only and not make men the central key position holders as they sometimes suppress the female voices – Have females in the planning committees There should be will in the top university management because we cannot do anything if they are not willing. I think resources are important. Inadequate resources are available to support sporting

Soccer is mainly supported

I have never heard of any support towards female students

Their sporting career dies when they leave the universities, there is not follow up after university so it should start even at the national level going down here

Make sport compulsory

Organise more trips, regional, national, international

Introduce female coaches

Platform for women to raise their voices about sport to the authorities

Advocates for the sport who can cheer us up will motivate me to go for sports

Introductions of training sessions especially in less participated sports such as hockey

I think constructing sporting facilities in different sporting disciplines and assigning people who can lead and co-ordinate those disciplines effectively

I think the first thing that they need to do is to construct the fields that are required for the sports as we do not have anywhere to do sporting activities

I think they should engage professional female sportswomen who can guide female university students as role models

I think we should have female coaches alongside male coaches

I think they should construct facilities as I love several sports such as basketball, netball etc. but there are no facilities for us to practice

Advertisements

The university should priorities sports and not leave it as a side dish that it currently is

I think they should introduce a sports league for the women instead of waiting for that one even which is ZUSA. Because waiting for just one sporting event disrupts continuity and involvement

If the institutions cannot fund such facilities, they should look for sponsors such as banks and providers of sporting facilities outside the university campus

Inter faculty games

**Figure 4.17: Measures to Improve Female Participation in University Sporting Activities**

## **b) Structured Interview Results with Deans and Sports Directors**

Semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from five Deans of Students and five Sports Directors drawn from five Zimbabwean universities that are affiliated to the Zimbabwe University Sports Associations. The output from the interviews was captured in audio files before being imported into the NVIVO 11 software for analysis by coding directly on the audio file. Word frequency and text search queries were used to develop the nodes that were used to code the data. The results were organised and presented in line with the study's four research questions.

The findings on the current trends of university sport participation by female students in Zimbabwean universities corroborate the findings from focus group discussions. They show that female student participation in university sports has been improving in the last five years. It was noted that before 2008, there never used to be female student teams in such sporting disciplines as football, darts, tennis, hockey, volleyball, basketball, chess, pool and golf in university sports competitions, but these teams are now in place in almost every university. However, universities still struggle to raise female teams in rugby, karate and cricket.

The interviewees noted that the gender stereotypes in the wider society, where women are expected to just have a place in the home, as mothers, looking after children are responsible for shaping the current trends of female university sports participation in Zimbabwean Universities. They noted that traditional female gender roles did not require strength. As a result women were not expected to take part in activities that require strength. Instead, they were expected to do menial jobs in the home. As a result, society does not expect them to take part in activities where strength is a major factor like sport. On the other hand, men were traditionally expected to do those domestic roles which required physical strength that is why society views it as normal for them to do sport.

The study established that the Zimbabwean society also views women as perpetual minors. They are not expected to make decisions. Most decisions about the selection of activities to embark on are made by men and in most cases these are made by people who do not expect them to take part in sport. The Deans of Students also noted that female students who did their secondary education in urban schools are generally outgoing and they participate in sport better than their counterparts drawn from rural schools who are socialised to be reserved. The interviewees also noted that female students had better access to alternative forms of recreation than their male counterparts. It was also established that a sizeable number of female students are either married or in relationships with people outside the university. As a result, their family and relationship engagements leave

them with very little to spare for sports participation. The study also established that most Zimbabwean academics still think sport is not important and these perceptions have a negative ripple effect on sports participation, since their opinions have a strong influence on student decision making and choices.

However, although the semi-structured interview respondents agreed that life at university reflects what is happening in society at large, they noted that female university students are free and a little more liberated from societal pressures. This explains why their sports participation levels are better than in the wider Zimbabwean population. Some of the interviewees felt that the low levels of female student participation in university sports were expected, given the fact that enrolment figures in most universities, especially those with a strong science and technology bias, were heavily tilted in favour of male students.

Like their focus group counterparts, the interviewees noted that female students derive a number of benefits from participating in sports. These include; health related benefits and life skills such as obeying competition rules, which can teach them to obey societal rules. Sport can teach them to accept failure in life and use their spare time productively, instead of indulging in antisocial activities. For some, especially those that are very good, it can encourage them to take up careers in sport.

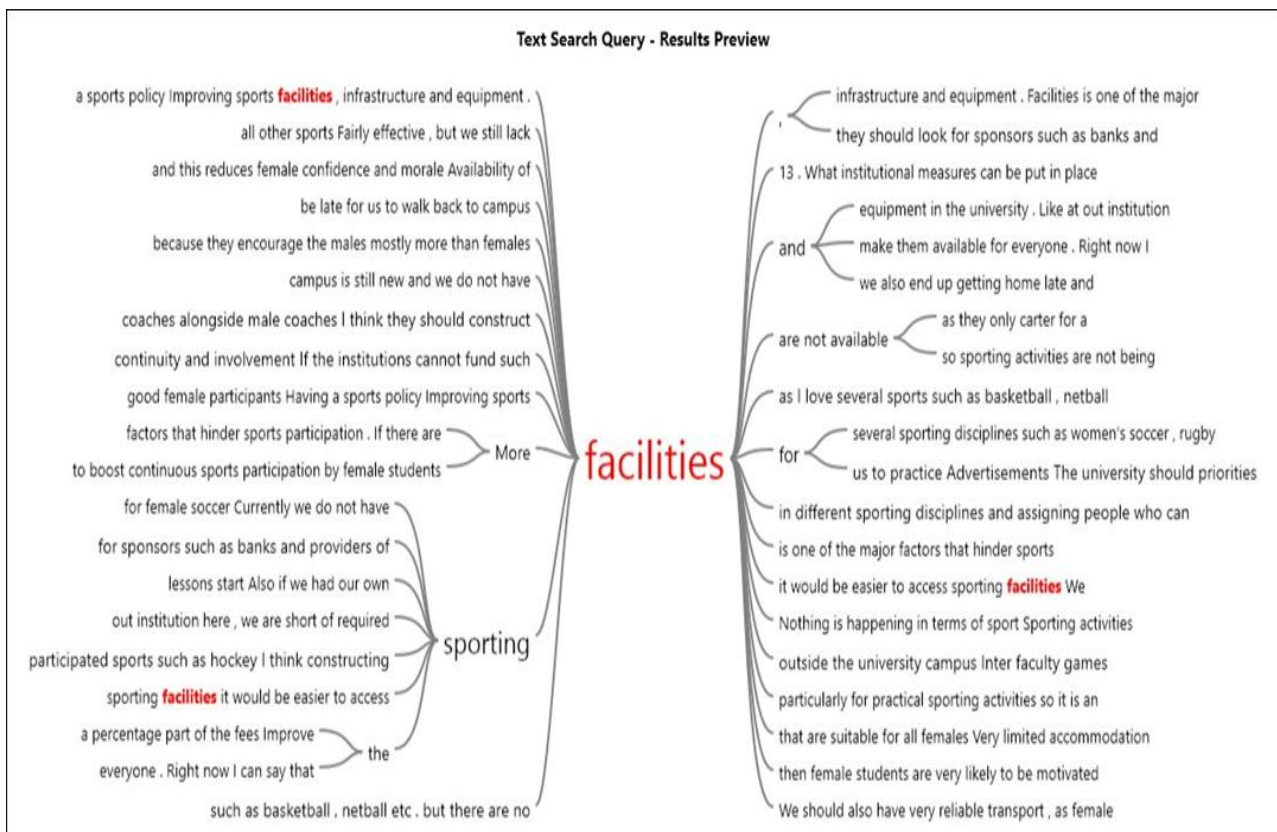
The Figure 4.17 depicts a word cloud analysis of interview transcripts on measures that can be put in place to improve female participation in university sports. These measures were further analysed in NVIVO. Initially, a word frequency query was used to identify the words that were most frequently used when the interview participants were discussing the measures that can be put in place to encourage female participation in university sports. The word frequency query results of the resultant data are captured in Figure 4.18.



To support this point, one of the Sports Directors said,

*“Formulation of policies that encourage gender mainstreaming and discourages sexual harassment at National and Institutional levels; formulation and implementation of a marketing plan focusing on the participation of female students in sport is an urgent task in all Universities to improve sports participation by female students”.*

The Figure below shows a key word in context (facilities) of interview transcript analysis of Deans of Students and Sports Directors.



**Figure 4.19: Measures that can be put in place to improve Female Participation in university sport (KWIC) - Facilities**

Other suggested measures included; incentivising female student participation by offering sports scholarships to outstanding female sports personalities, as well as, sending them to sports coaching and administration courses in order to help them develop careers in sport. The findings show that female student sport participation can be enhanced if universities organise sporting competitions specifically for female students and invite female sports icons to be guest speakers. They also recommended similar measures as those given by focus group participants. These measures are captured in Figures 4.16 and 4.17.

#### **4.5: Conclusion**

This Chapter presented the data collected from Sports Participants, Non-sports participants, Sports Directors and Deans of Students by means of quantitative and qualitative methods. The structure of the Chapter followed the sequence of the data collection process. The next Chapter provides a detailed discussion of the data presented.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DISCUSSION**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

The Chapter provides a detailed discussion of the results that were presented in Chapter 4. Efforts were made to discuss the findings in relation to the study's research questions. The answers to the study's four guiding research questions were obtained by mixing quantitative and qualitative data sets, so that together they form a more complete picture of the problem than they do when standing alone.

The Chapter is divided into four sections. The first section discusses the current levels of participation in university sports by Zimbabwean female students. This is followed by a section on the reasons pertaining to why Zimbabwean female students participate in university sports. In the third section, the discussion is on the perceived benefits that Zimbabwean female university students derive from university sports participation. The last section will be on the effectiveness of the approaches used by Zimbabwean university sports administrators to encourage female students to participate in university sports.

#### **5.2 What are the Current Levels of Participation in University Sports by Zimbabwean Female Students?**

The findings from both the quantitative and qualitative strands of the study showed that although the participation of Zimbabwean female students in university sports has improved drastically in the last five years, they still participate less than their male counterparts, as illustrated in Table 5.1. It can be seen that 74.8% of the study participants felt that the levels of participation for female students were less than those of male students. Interestingly, the Sports Directors and interview participants, who were members of staff whose duties involve coordinating sporting activities in their respective universities, unanimously (100%) agreed that the levels of sports participation by female students was inferior to those of their male counterparts. This view was shared by the focus group participants and the non-sports participants' questionnaire respondents.

**Table 5.1: Perceived Levels of University Sports Participation by Female Students Relative to their Male Counterparts**

Respondent Group	Response		
	Less %	Same %	Better %
Sports Participants	36	26	38
Non-sports participants	58	18	23
Sports Directors	100	0	0
Focus Group Participants	80	10	10
Interview Respondents	100	0	0
Average	74.8	10.8	14.2

These findings are in line with observations by Attarzadeh and Sohrabi (2007) who noted that females usually participate in physical recreational activities less frequently than males. In the same vein, Bakhshinia (2004) notes that more than 60 percent of female Muslim university students do not participate in any sporting activities. Similarly, a study by Akindutire and Oyeniyi (2012) noted that Nigerian women university students participate less frequently in sport than their male counterparts. This is corroborated by Cortis *et al.* (2009) who argue that female students are under-represented in intercollegiate sports as compared to their male counterparts despite the fact that sport is a key leisure activity and is an integral component of national culture and social life.

However, the results show that the sports participant’s questionnaire respondents marginally felt that female students participated better in competitive and recreational university sports competitions than male students. It appears that their perceptions may have been skewed by the fact that they were already sporting students and their views were influenced by experiences in the specific disciplines in which they were taking part, without a holistic view of all other activities as may be seen by the Sports Directors and Deans of Students of sporting activities at the universities.

The findings from the qualitative strand of the study show that the participation of female students in university sports has improved drastically in the last five years. It was noted that before 2008, there were no female student teams in such sporting disciplines as football, handball, darts, tennis, table tennis, hockey, volleyball, basketball, chess, pool and golf in university sports competitions, but these teams are now in place in almost every university. This corroborates the findings from

the quantitative strand where the Sports Directors unanimously (100%) agreed that the participation of female students in sport has improved in the last five years.

The results show that female student participation is limited to official university teams and competitions. Male students on the other hand, participate in both competitive and recreational sport throughout the year. Universities also struggle to raise female teams in pool, darts, karate, rugby and cricket. This is in line with the findings from a study by Coakley (2007) who indicates that some sports continue to be seen as less suitable for female than male students.

### **5.3 What factors are Responsible for Shaping the Current Levels of Female Students' Participation in University Sports?**

The study established that the gender stereotypes in the wider society, where women are expected to just have a place in the home as mothers looking after children, are responsible for shaping the current trends of female university sports participation in Zimbabwean Universities. The study noted that, although the non-sport focus group participants were female students, they shared the wider societal notion that female athletes are generally loose in morals and they do not make good wives since they spend most of their time training, playing sport and travelling instead of taking care of their families. In the same vein, the interview results supported this view in that respondents felt that female gender roles in Zimbabwe did not require muscular strength, hence women were not expected to take part in activities that require strength. They were expected to do menial jobs in the home. This explains why society does not expect them to take part in activities where strength is a major factor like sport. On the other hand, men were traditionally expected to do those domestic roles which required physical strength that is why society views it as normal for them to do sport. These findings closely mirror those from a study by Yu *et al.* (2010) which noted that in ancient Chinese culture, men had the responsibility for matters outside the family, while women were responsible for domestic affairs. These traditional expectations about women also indirectly impacted upon women's participation in physical activities since it was not necessary for Chinese women to be strong (Yu *et al.*, 2010).

The study established that the Zimbabwean society also views women as perpetual minors. They are not expected to make decisions. Most decisions about the selection of activities to embark on are made by men and in most cases these are made by people who do not expect them to take part in sport. This is in line with the findings from a study by Bailey *et al.* (2005) who identifies fathers

as playing the primary role in influencing children's participation in sports and physical activities. According to Bailey *et al.* (2005), the nature and extent of physical play opportunities depend greatly on the set of beliefs and expectations held by the parents, and these beliefs are particularly significant in relation to gender. From an early age, many parents, in a range of cultures, treat boys and girls differently and encourage different styles of play in physical activity contexts, most commonly by providing gender-based toys and encouraging boys and girls to engage in gender stereotyped activities, usually with boys being encouraged to play vigorously and girls quietly (Bailey *et al.*, 2005).

The non-sport participant's focus group discussions identified such barriers to sport participation as fears of virginity loss through sport participation. This corroborates the findings from a study by Adeyanju (2013) which noted that there are physiological myths in Nigeria, where many people still believe that physical exercise by women has a detrimental effect on their reproductive organs and that women lose their femininity through active participation in sports. Results from non-sports participants' focus group also showed that the muscular body that athletes develop through sports participation reduces their attractiveness to men and hence diminishes their chances of getting married. This view was also captured in a study by Murray *et al.* (2009) which established that a girl's perception of her own body and her relationship with her body image can influence if she feels confident or comfortable enough to play sport. They note that in many societies, beauty is often considered the opposite of what a girl's body looks like when she plays sport.

The study also established that most Zimbabwean academics still think sport is not important and these perceptions have a negative ripple effect on sports participation, since their opinions have a strong influence on student decision making and choices. These findings closely mirror those from a study by Simon *et al.* (2007), which revealed that student athletes are sometimes perceived negatively by their professors and fellow students. The study by Simon *et al.* (2007), also noted that faculty members had made a negative remark about athletes in class.

However, although the study showed that life at university reflects what is happening in society at large, the results also suggest that Zimbabwean female university students are free and a little more liberated from societal pressures. This explains why their sport participation levels are better than in the wider Zimbabwean population. These findings are consistent with the findings from a study by Pacheco, Soto, Olivárez and Avila (2013) which suggests that female athletes between 18-24

years of age may not be highly motivated by their parents, possibly due to the separation experienced in college and the developmental stage in life that they are currently in.

Although not captured in the qualitative depictions, the opinion was expressed that female students who did their secondary education in urban schools are generally outgoing and they participate better than their counterparts drawn from rural schools who are socialised to be reserved. This concurs with the findings from a study by Adeyanju (2013), which identified inadequate education and awareness by women about the benefits of participating in sports and cultural factors, as the main hindrances to women sports participation in Nigeria.

The study also identified such hindrances to university sports participation by female students as lack of interest, team selection bias and the fact that academic calendar clashes with the sports calendar. This closely mirrors the finding from a study by Bailey *et al.* (2005) which identified school pressures and lack of interest in physical education as some of the barriers to female student sports participation.

However, the results from this study were contradictory to those studies done elsewhere by such scholars as Adeyanju (2013); Murray and Matuska (2009); in that they did not identify religion as a major hindrance to female student participation in university sports in Zimbabwe. The semi-structured interview results also departed from the factors emphasized in literature in that some of the respondents felt that the low levels of female student participation in university sports were expected, given the fact that enrolment figures in most universities, especially those with a strong science and technology bias, were heavily tilted in favour of male students. The study also noted that Zimbabwean female students had better access to alternative forms of recreation than their male counterparts. It was also established that a sizeable number of female students are either married or in relationships with people outside the university and these family and relationship engagements leave them with very little to spare for sports participation. The results also show that Zimbabwean female students generally want to be associated with “nice things”. As a result, their low levels of sports uptake has been attributed to the fact that sports facilities in most Zimbabwean Universities are either substandard or inaccessible. This is in line with the study by Chappell (2004) which indicated that sports development is hindered by poor sport structures and inadequate facilities, these being typical problems in developing countries. The communities, especially in the rural areas, are usually limited to self-built facilities and a lack of the necessary equipment which results in limited opportunities to participate in sport (Goslin, 1996). The findings show that most

Zimbabwean female students prefer to be coached by female sports coaches. Currently, however, most university sports teams are coached by males and this was also cited as one of the reasons why some female students do not participate in sport.

#### **5.4 The Perceived Benefits that Female University Students Derive from Participating in University Sporting Activities**

The findings showed that female students derive a number of benefits from participating in sport. In the quantitative strand, descriptive statistical measures were used to determine the significance of benefits that female students derive from participating in sports on a three point scale. The results showed that the majority of respondents identified the major benefits of health and wellness, physical fitness and social interaction. Travelling, escape from stress, social approval, esteem and ego enhancement, monetary rewards and material rewards, were to a lesser extent regarded as minor benefits.

On the other hand, results from the Sports Directors' questionnaire survey identified health and wellness (20%), social interaction (20%), holistic development (20%) and incentives (40%) as the key benefits that female students derive from sports participation.

Similar results were also captured in the focus group discussions and semi-structured interviews where it was noted that female students derive health related benefits and life skills from sports participation. It was also noted that sports molds character since it teaches students to obey competition rules, which in turn can teach them to obey societal rules. The findings also show that sport can teach students to accept failure in life and use their spare time productively, instead of indulging in antisocial activities. The study also established that female students realize many social networking and interaction related benefits from their involvement in sport. The findings also show that sport helps students to relieve academic stress. Students also reap substantial financial and material benefits from their sports involvement. For those that are very good in sport, university sports participation can encourage them to take up careers in sports.

These results closely mirror those from studies by Chen, Snyder, Magner (2010) who established that athletic participation brings such benefits as: improving health; exerting students' surplus energies; obeying the competition or societal rules and constraining delinquent behaviours, promoting societal values, integrity and building character; enhancing confidence, motivation, sense of empowerment, and self-esteem; providing social interaction, fun and enjoyment; offering

opportunities for education and career in sports; expanding life experience and making more friends; knowing how to deal with failure and difficult situations, and developing life skills. This is supported by Smith (2008) who notes that students who participate in a recreational sports program during their college years open themselves up to a wide range of life enhancing benefits. Such benefits include discovering ways of coping with stress, creating a sense of accomplishment, finding ways to control body weight and maintaining physical well-being, building friendships and close contacts, as well as improving various sporting skills. In the same vein, Banta, Bradley, and Bryant (1991) note that participation in sports bring such benefits as: stress reduction, feeling of physical well-being, sense of accomplishment, weight control, sports skills, physical strength, fitness, and friendship to students.

However, the study did not identify scholarship as a major benefit linked to university sports participation in Zimbabwe. This is contrary to observations by O'Shaughnessy (2009), who noted that participation in college sports may result in some students being offered athletic scholarship to attend college. The results also differed from those studies done in other countries in that it identified travel and subsistence allowances as a major benefit linked to student sports participation.

## **5.5 How Effective are the Approaches used by Zimbabwean University Sports**

### **Administrators to Encourage Female Students to Participate in University Sports?**

In the qualitative strand of the study, Sports Directors were asked to indicate their perceptions on the effectiveness of the approaches used by Zimbabwean University sports administrators to encourage female students to participate in university sports. Their opinions were that sporting facilities in Zimbabwean Universities do not encourage the participation of female students in sports. The results also show that Zimbabwean universities do not assign female coaches or gender sensitive male coaches to coach female student teams. It can also be noted that institutions do not offer adequate incentives and logistical support to encourage female students to participate in sports.

It was also noted that the legislative and policy frameworks in these institutions do not adequately promote the participation of female students in sports. However, the findings show that measures put in place to curb sexual harassment during sports competitions have been ineffective and this shows that the approaches used by Zimbabwean University sports administrators to encourage female students to participate in university sports, are inadequate. This is out of line with a call by

the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport (1994) who invited all government institutions to ensure that women and girls have the opportunity to participate in sport in a safe and supportive environment that preserves the rights, dignity and respect of the individual.

This is corroborated by results from focus group discussions and semi-structured interviews which showed that there were no deliberate institutional efforts to try and improve the levels of sport participation by female students in Zimbabwean Universities. These results are in contrast to those from studies by Fletcher *et al.* (2003); Adeyanju (2013); Yoshihara (2007); Lopiano (2000); Kirby (2009); and Johnson and Miller (2012) which noted the existence of deliberate institutional intervention measures that have been put in place to encourage female students' sports participation.

## **5.6 Conclusion**

This Chapter discussed the research findings in line with the study's four research questions. The next Chapter will present an overview of the study, limitations, recommendations and the conclusions of the study.

## CHAPTER 6

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 6.1 Introduction

The purpose of the study was to investigate the participation of Zimbabwean female students in University sports and identify measures that can be put in place to improve their participation. In the previous Chapter, the research findings were discussed in relation to the study's research questions. This Chapter presents a brief overview of the study and the conclusions drawn from the analysis and discussions. After that, it presents the study's limitations and concludes with a discussion on the study's implications for management and directions for future research.

#### 6.2 General Summary

This study examined the participation of female Zimbabwean students in university sports. A review of relevant literature revealed that although literature on gender imbalances in society is prevalent, very few studies on gender disparities have approached the subject from a sport perspective. The few available studies on gender imbalances in sports focus on sports participation trends in Europe, Asia, North America and Australia. As a result, the nature and trends of female students' participation in Zimbabwean university sports competitions has remained opaque and under-researched. Non-Zimbabwean literature may fail to accurately capture the nature and motives of sports participation by female university students in Zimbabwe, given the vast socio-cultural differences. This explains why this was carried out to explore Zimbabwean female students' participation in university sports and bridge the knowledge gaps identified in literature.

Data was collected through a methodological triangulation of questionnaires, ten focus group discussion sessions and semi-structured interviews from purposively sampled sports participants (n=125) and non-sports participant female students (n=125), Sports Directors (n=5) and Deans of Students (n=5) drawn from five of the eleven universities that are affiliated to the ZUSA. The analysis of data generated by questionnaires was performed using the SPSS data analysis program, Version 22.0. The NVIVO 11 Qualitative Data Analysis Software package was used to analyse the data collected through semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions.

The study established that, although the participation of female students in university sports has improved drastically in the last five years, female students still participate less than their male counterparts. It also noted that although institution based constraints have played a part in shaping

the current trends of sport participation in Zimbabwean Universities, these trends were mainly shaped by the gender stereotypes in the wider Zimbabwean society. The study identified the health related, social, psychological and material benefits that female students realize from participating in sport and physical activity. It was also noted that there were no deliberate institutional efforts to try and improve the levels of sport participation by female students in the five case study universities. The study showed that the levels of female students' participation can be improved by adopting a national strategy where gender mainstreaming is incorporated in the primary and secondary school curriculum as a means to influence people away from the societal gender stereotypes that have produced the current gender disparities in university sports participation. It was also established that the participation of female students in sports can be improved through the adoption of such institutional measures as; employing female coaches and female sports administrators to be in charge of female student teams, using female role models in campaigns to motivate females to participate in sport, instituting policy measures that redress gender imbalances in sport participation and availing campus accommodation and accessible sporting facilities.

### **6.3 Conclusions**

The study achieved the four objectives that it sought to address. It noted that although the levels of female sports participation in university sports have recorded a marked improvement in the last five years, they are still lower than those of their male counterparts. It can be concluded that these patterns are socially constructed since they stem from the gender stereotypes in the wider Zimbabwean society. According to the findings, female students in Zimbabwean universities realise a number of health, social, psychological and material benefits from participating in sport. It can also be concluded that there are no deliberate institutional efforts to try and improve the levels of sport participation by female students in the five case study universities. The study provides a framework upon which intervention measures meant to encourage the participation of female students in sports can be grounded. Its findings can help to bridge existing theoretical knowledge gaps by adding Zimbabwean flavour to female sport participation literature.

### **6.4 Limitations of the Study**

The study was grounded on foreign literature. Such literature may fail to accurately mirror the nature and motives of sports participation by female university students in Zimbabwe given the vast socio-cultural differences. This explains why focus group discussions and semi-structured interviews were used in the study to allow the subjects of the study to express their lived

experiences with sports participation trends in Zimbabwean universities and capture the Zimbabwean socio-cultural flavour which is missing from foreign literature.

From a methodological perspective, the results from the qualitative strand of this study are based on small sample sizes. This raises questions about the representativeness of the data and how far it is justifiable to generalize from the qualitative findings. On the other hand, the findings from the quantitative strand may be too abstract and general for direct application into complex socio-cultural determinants of gender disparities in sport participation. As a result, a mixed methods approach was adopted, with a questionnaire based quantitative strand being used to neutralize the shortcomings of qualitative data and increase the validity of the results.

The limitations of the quantitative and qualitative methods used in this study influenced the researcher to integrate these methods as a measure to strengthen the validity of the results. However, like all mixed methods research work, this study was labour and capital intensive, since it used multiple methods. It is also difficult for a single researcher to have expertise in both quantitative and qualitative methods, hence the researcher engaged two research assistants with their associated high costs, to complement her efforts. In addition to this, mixed methods research approaches are a relatively new design and as such, some of the methodological details remain to be worked out fully by research methodologists. Despite these limitations, the research questions were answered and the objectives were met.

## **6.5 Recommendations**

### **6.5.1 Managerial Implications**

The findings of this study allow the following managerial implications to be derived for sustainable enhancement of female students' participation in university sports:

- adopting a national strategy where gender mainstreaming is incorporated in the primary and secondary school curriculum, so as to influence people away from the societal gender stereotypes that have produced the current gender disparities in university sports participation;
- instituting policy measures to address gender imbalances in sport participation by ensuring equal sporting opportunities and protection for female and male students;
- adopting motivational strategies grounded on publicising the activities and success stories relating to female student participation in sport;

- running campaign program targeting those academic practitioners who view sport in a negative light, so as to have a buy-in from all the stakeholders;
- incentivising female student participation by offering sports scholarships to outstanding female sports personalities, as well as, sending them to sports coaching and administration courses in order to help them develop careers in sport, among other things;
- organising sporting competitions specifically for female students and invite female sports icons to give talks on the values of sport;
- provision of adequate and appropriate facilities, sports equipment and kit;
- hiring of female coaches and administrators for female teams;
- making physical education compulsory to all students from early childhood learning right up to university level;
- adapting sports training demand to the physiology of women in order to cultivate interest in sports;
- running nationwide community sports programmes for women as a means to diffuse the societal stereotypes associated with women sports participation.

### **6.5.2 Implications for Further Studies**

During this study a number of research issues arose, however, due to limited time and resources, it was not possible for this study to cover some of the issues. As a result, the following areas of future research can be suggested:

- Future studies can be conducted on a larger scale covering all the Tertiary Institutions in Zimbabwe.
- Comparative studies can be conducted focusing on variations in sports participation by institution or by degree programme.
- Future studies can also focus on conducting positivist studies based on representative samples to validate the conceptual framework that was proposed in this study to bridge the knowledge gaps that were identified in literature.

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## APPENDIX A: INFORMATION SHEET FOR PARTICIPANTS



### SCHOOL OF HEALTH SCIENCES

## PARTICIPATION OF ZIMBABWEAN FEMALE STUDENTS IN UNIVERSITY SPORTS

### INFORMATION SHEET FOR PARTICIPANTS

Thank you for showing an interest in this project. Please read this information sheet carefully before deciding whether or not to participate. If you decide to participate we thank you. If you decide not to take part there will be no disadvantage to you of any kind and we thank you for considering our request.

#### **What is the aim of the research project?**

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Judith Siziba (BSc Honours in Sport Science and Coaching), from the School of Health Sciences at the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal (UKZN). This research project is part of Masters in Sport Science thesis. The aim of this study is to increase the participation rate or to promote participation of Zimbabwean female students in University sport.

#### **What Type of Participants are Needed?**

You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a Zimbabwean female student participating in University Sports or an administrator involved in University Sports and/or Institutional Management.

#### **What will Participants be asked to do?**

Should you agree to take part in this project, you will be asked to do the following:

- Complete a questionnaire
- Answer a few interview questions
- Take part in a focus group discussion

The interview will take approximately one hour. It will take place at your office or home or any location convenient for you. With your permission, the interview and group discussions will be audiotaped. The tape will be transcribed; your name or other identifying information will **not** be included on the transcript. Each exercise will take about 20 minutes of your time.

There will be no harm or discomfort to the participant. There will be no payments to participants.

Please be aware that you may decide not to take part in the project without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind.

#### **Can Participants Change their Mind and Withdraw from the Project?**

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

### **What Data or Information will be collected and What Use will be made of it?**

The data collected through questionnaires, interview sessions and focus group discussions will be analysed using specialized and relevant analysis software.

Zimbabwean Tertiary Sport Administrators and Governing Bodies depend on literature from studies carried out in Europe, Australia, Asia and North American countries. Such studies may not accurately mirror the nature and motives of sports participation by female university students in Zimbabwe, given the vast socio-cultural differences. This study therefore seeks to contribute towards the resolution of this dilemma and develop an adapted Zimbabwean literature from which local academic practitioners and sports administrators can draw and apply in their operations. This study also proposes to enable sports administrators to craft strategies that can enhance the participation of female students in University Sports.

Results of this project may be published but any data included will in no way be linked to any specific participant. You are most welcome to request a copy of the results of the project should you wish.

The data collected will be securely stored in such a way that only those mentioned above will be able to gain access to it. At the end of the project any personal information will be destroyed immediately except that, as required by the university's research policy, any raw data on which the results of the project depend will be retained in secure storage for five years, after which it will be destroyed.

### **What if Participants have any Questions?**

If you do not understand any questions that I will ask about our project, either now or in the future, I will be pleased to clarify, or provide a complete explanation. Please feel free to contact either:-

**Judith Siziba (Researcher)**

**Department of Sports Science**

**NUST, Bulawayo, Zimbabwe**

**Telephone Number: +263-9-282842 Ext: 2605 / 077 237 2484 email: [judiths24@gmail.com](mailto:judiths24@gmail.com)**

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**Department of Sports Science**

**UKZN, South Africa**

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**Tel: 031 260 3587**

**Fax: 031 260 4609**

## APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT SHEET



UNIVERSITY OF  
KWAZULU-NATAL  
INYUVESI  
YAKWAZULU-NATALI

School of Health Sciences

### PARTICIPATION OF ZIMBABWEAN FEMALE STUDENTS IN UNIVERSITY SPORTS CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS

I have read the Information Sheet concerning this study and understood what it is all about. All my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that I am free to request further information at any stage.

I know that:-

1. My participation in the project is entirely voluntary;
2. I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without any disadvantage;
3. I have received a copy of the participant information letter and this informed consent document;
4. An open-questioning technique and audio recording is involved;
5. The data [*questionnaires and audio-tapes*] will be destroyed at the conclusion of the project but any raw data on which the results of the project depend will be retained in secure storage (locked cupboard) for five years, after which it will be destroyed via shredding and/or incineration;
6. There will be no harm or discomfort to the participants;
7. There will be no payments to participants;
8. The results of the project may be published but my anonymity will be preserved.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this research.

.....  
(Signature of Research Participant)

.....  
(Date)

## APPENDIX C: Questionnaire for students (Sports Participants)



School of Health Sciences

### INSTRUCTIONS

1. Please note the information at the beginning of each section carefully.
2. When you are finished, return your questionnaire to the person administering this study.
3. If you have any questions, please ask the person administering this study.

### SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION (TICK WHERE APPROPRIATE)

**1. Institution:** ..... **Date:** .....

2. Age:		3. Marital Status:		4. Highest Level of Involvement in competitive sport:		5. Length of Involvement in university sport:	
16-19 years		Single		Never participated		1-2 years	
				Primary School Team		3-5 year	
20-29 years		Married		Secondary School Team		5 years or more	
30-39 years		Separated		Social Sport			
		Widowed		Club League Sport			
		Divorced		Internal university Competitions			
		Other (specify)		ZUSA Games			
				ZTISU Games			
				Provincial Games			
				National Games			
				International Student Games			

6. Residence Status:	
Resident Student	
Non-Resident Student	

### SECTION B:

		YES	NO
7.	Did you participate in sports at the High School level?		

8. Please indicate the levels of sport participation by female students at your institutions in comparison with their male counterparts by ticking in the appropriate box.

<b>PARTICIPATION LEVELS</b>	<b>TICK</b>
Less	
Same	
Better	

9. Please indicate your rating of the levels of female student participation at your institution in the following sports codes by ticking in the appropriate box.

SPORTS CODE	RATING OF PARTICIPATION LEVEL				
	Not at all	Low	Average	High	Very High
Athletics					
Basketball					
Chess					
Cricket					
Darts					
Football					
Golf					
Handball					
Hockey					
Karate					
Netball					
Pool					
Rugby					
Swimming					
Table Tennis					
Tennis					
Volleyball					
Other (Specify					

10. Rating of the participation of female students in internal competitions.

	RATE OF FEMALE PARTICIPATION				
	Not at all	Low	Average	High	Very High
How do you rate the participation of					

female students in internal competitions at your Institution					
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11. What factors influenced your decision to participate in University sport?

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12. Below are some statements about extra - curricular university sport. Please tick the box which best describes your attitude towards each statement.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.Participation in Zimbabwean Tertiary sport is an important form for social interaction for female students							
2. I want to win medals and trophies							
3. A coach influenced my participation in University sport							
4. I would like to be a sports professional							
5. My parents want me to participate in University sport							
6.Participation in sport enhances my social status							
7. I would take part in sport for health and wellness reasons							
8.Women who take part in sport are viewed as of loose morals by their counterparts							
9.Participation in sport reduces the chances of getting married							
10.I would encourage my son to participate in sport							
11. I would encourage my daughter to participate in sport							
12.I would encourage my son to marry a prominent sports woman							
13. I would encourage my daughter to marry a prominent sports man							
14. Participation in University sport provides temporary escape from academic and psychosocial stress							
15.I was influenced by my peers to take part in sport							

13. Please indicate the extent to which the following benefits of sports participation have influenced your decision to participate in sports by ticking in the appropriate box.

<b>BENEFIT</b>	<b>NO BENEFIT</b>	<b>MINOR BENEFIT</b>	<b>MAJOR BENEFIT</b>
Health and wellness			
Physical fitness			
Social interaction			
Travelling			
Escape from stress			
Esteem or ego enhancement			
Monetary rewards			
Material rewards			
Social approval			
Other (Specify)			

14. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by ticking in the appropriate box.

<b>Statement</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Somewhat Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Somewhat Agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
The facilities at the institution encourage the participation of female students in sport.							
Sports Administrators adequately promote and market sports in a way which encourages female participation.							
The institution ensures that all female student teams are coached by female coaches or gender sensitive male coaches.							
The institution offers adequate incentives and logistical support to deliberately encourage female students to participate in sports.							

15. What measures can be put in place at your institution to improve the participation of female student in sport?

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Thank you very much for your time. Please be assured that your identity remains completely anonymous.

**END OF QUESTIONNAIRE!**

**APPENDIX D: Questionnaire for students (Non-sports participants)**



**School of Health Sciences**

**INTRODUCTION**

My name is Judith Siziba and I am a Masters student of Sports Science at the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal. I am carrying out a research study on the **PARTICIPATION OF ZIMBABWEAN FEMALE STUDENTS IN UNIVERSITY SPORTS**. You are therefore being kindly asked to complete this questionnaire with correct information. Thank you in advance for your time and assistance.

Respondents are guaranteed that:

1. All the information supplied will be strictly confidential;
2. All the information supplied will be used for the purposes of this study only.

**INSTRUCTIONS**

1. Please note the information at the beginning of each section carefully.
2. When you finish, return your questionnaire to the person administering this study.
3. If you have any questions, please ask the person administering this study.

**SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION (TICK WHERE APPROPRIATE)**

**1. Institution:** ..... **Date:** .....

<b>2. Age:</b>		<b>3. Marital Status:</b>		<b>4. Highest Level of Involvement in Competitive Sport:</b>	
16-19 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	Single	<input type="checkbox"/>	Never participated	<input type="checkbox"/>
20-29 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	Married	<input type="checkbox"/>	Primary School Team	<input type="checkbox"/>
30-39 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	Separated	<input type="checkbox"/>	Secondary School Team	<input type="checkbox"/>
	<input type="checkbox"/>	Widowed	<input type="checkbox"/>	Social Sport	<input type="checkbox"/>
	<input type="checkbox"/>	Divorced	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>
	<input type="checkbox"/>	Other(specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>

<b>5. Residence Status:</b>	
Resident Student	<input type="checkbox"/>
Non-Resident Student	<input type="checkbox"/>

**SECTION B:**

		YES	NO
6.	Did you participate in sports at the High School level?		

7. Please indicate the levels of sport participation by female students at your institutions in comparison with their male counterparts by ticking in the appropriate box.

PARTICIPATION LEVELS	TICK
Less	
Same	
Better	

8. Please indicate why you are not participating in sport at university level.

.....

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.....

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.....

9. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by ticking in the appropriate box.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The facilities at the institution encourage the participation of female students in sport.							
Sports Administrators adequately promote and market sports in a way which encourages female participation.							
The institution ensures that all female student teams are coached by female coaches or gender sensitive male coaches.							
The institution offers adequate							

incentives and logistical support to deliberately encourage female students to participate in sports.							
---	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

10. Below are some statements about extra - curricular university sport. Please tick the box which best describes your attitude towards each statement.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.Participation in Zimbabwean Tertiary sport is an important form for social interaction for female students							
2. I want to win medals and trophies							
3. A coach influenced my participation in University sport							
4. I would like to be a sports professional							
5. My parents want me to participate in University sport							
6.Participation in sport enhances my social status							
7. I would take part in sport for health and wellness reasons							
8.Women who take part in sport are viewed as of loose morals by their counterparts							
9.Participation in sport reduces the chances of getting married							
10.I would encourage my son to participate in sport							
11. I would encourage my daughter to participate in sport							
12.I would encourage my son to marry a prominent sports woman							
13. I would encourage my daughter to marry a prominent sports man							
14. Participation in University sport provides temporary escape from academic and psychosocial stress							
15.I was influenced by my peers to take part in sport							

11. What measures can be put in place at your institution to improve the participation of female student in sport?

.....

.....

.....

.....

Thank you very much for your time. Please be assured that your identity remains completely anonymous.

## APPENDIX E: Sports Directors Questionnaire



**SCHOOL OF HEALTH SCIENCES**

### INTRODUCTION

My name is Judith Siziba and I am a Masters student of Sports Science at the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal. I am carrying out a research study entitled: **PARTICIPATION OF ZIMBABWEAN FEMALE STUDENTS IN UNIVERSITY SPORTS**. You are therefore being kindly asked to complete this questionnaire with correct information. Thank you in advance for your time and assistance.

Respondents are guaranteed that:

1. All the information supplied will be strictly confidential;
2. All the information supplied will be used for the purposes of this study only.

### INSTRUCTIONS

1. This questionnaire is divided into 2 sections. Please note the information at the beginning of each section carefully.
2. When you finish, return your questionnaire to the person administering this study. Thank you.
3. If you have any questions, please ask the person administering this study.

### SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION (TICK WHERE APPROPRIATE)

**1. Institution:** ..... **Date:** .....

**2. Gender:**

Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
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3. Age:	4. Level of Education:	5. Length of Involvement in university sport Administration:	6. Status of Respondent:
16-19 years	Certificate	1-5 years	Sports Officer
20-29 years	Diploma	6-10 year	Assistant Sports Director
30-39 years	First Degree	11-15 years	Sports Director
40-49 years	Postgraduate	16-20 years	Deputy Dean of Students
50-65 years	Other (specify)	21-25 years	Dean of Students
Over 65 years		More than 25 years	

**SECTION B**

7. Please indicate the levels of participation of female students in University sport in comparison of their male counterparts at your Institution by ticking in the appropriate box.

<b>PARTICIPATION LEVELS</b>	<b>TICK</b>
Less	
Same	
Better	

8. Please indicate the levels of participation of female students at your Institution over the past 5 years.

<b>PARTICIPATION LEVELS</b>	<b>TICK</b>
Improving	
Same	
Declining	

9. Please indicate your rating of the levels of female student participation in the following sports codes by ticking in the appropriate box.

<b>SPORTS CODE</b>	<b>RATING OF PARTICIPATION LEVEL</b>				
	<b>Not at all</b>	<b>Low</b>	<b>Average</b>	<b>High</b>	<b>Very High</b>
Athletics					
Basketball					
Chess					
Cricket					
Darts					
Football					
Golf					
Handball					
Hockey					
Karate					
Netball					
Pool					
Rugby					
Swimming					
Table Tennis					
Tennis					
Volleyball					
Other (Specify)					

10. What societal factors have influenced the participation levels of female students at your Institution in University Sports?

.....

.....

.....

.....  
 .....  
 11. What Institutional factors have influenced the participation levels of female students at your institution in university sports?

.....  
 .....  
 .....  
 .....

12. What measures has your Institution put in place to encourage the participation of female students in university sports?

.....  
 .....  
 .....  
 .....

13. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by ticking in the appropriate box.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The facilities at the institution encourage the participation of female students in sport.							
Sports Administrators adequately promote and market sports in a way which encourages female participation.							
The institution ensures that all female student teams are coached by female coaches or gender sensitive male coaches.							
The institution offers adequate incentives and logistical support to encourage female students to participate in sports.							
My Institution has a sports policy which promotes the participation of female students in sports							
My institution has a gender policy which promotes the participation of female students in sports							
The University act encourages the participation of female students in sports							
My Institution has put in place adequate measures to curb sexual harassment during sports competitions							

14. What benefits do female students at your Institution derive from participating in university sport?

.....

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

15. What measures can be put in place at your institution to improve the participation of female student in sport?

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

Thank you very much for your time. Please be assured that your identity remains completely anonymous.

**END OF QUESTIONNAIRE!**

## APPENDIX F: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE



### School of Health Sciences

#### *FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE (Sports participants & non- sports participants)*

1. How can the current trends of university sport participation by female students in your University be described?
2. How do these participation trends compare with those of male students?
3. What factors are responsible for shaping the current trends of university sport participation by female students in your Institution?
4. How far can the current levels of university sport participation by female students in your University be attributed to the gender imbalances in society?
5. How far do you agree with the following statements?
  - a) Male athletes make good husbands
  - b) Female athletes make good wives
  - c) Female athletes are promiscuous
6. Would you encourage your daughter to participate in sport at university level? Justify your answer.
7. Would you encourage your son to participate in sport at university level? Justify your answer.
8. What benefits do female students in your Institution derive from participating in University sport?
9. Does your institution have a policy on gender? If yes, how far does it promote the participation of female students in sports in your university? If not, how can the introduction of such a policy framework help to improve sports participation by female students in your Institution?
10. What Institutional measures have been put in place to improve the university sport participation by female students?
11. How appropriate are the measures (if any) that have been put in place by your Institution to improve the Sport participation by female students?
12. How effective are the measures (if any) that have been put in place by your Institution to improve the Sport participation by female students?
13. What institutional measures can be put in place to improve University sport participation by female students?

**APPENDIX G: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SPORTS DIRECTORS AND DEANS OF STUDENTS**



**SCHOOL OF HEALTH SCIENCES**

***INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR SPORTS ADMINISTRATORS AND INSTITUTIONAL ADMINISTRATORS***

**SECTION A: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION (TICK WHERE APPROPRIATE)**

**1. Institution:**.....**Date:**.....

**2. Gender:**

Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
------	--------------------------	--------	--------------------------

<b>3. Age:</b>		<b>4. Level of Education:</b>		<b>5. Status of Respondent:</b>	
16-19 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	Certificate	<input type="checkbox"/>	Sports officer	<input type="checkbox"/>
20-29 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>	Assistant Sports Director	<input type="checkbox"/>
30-39 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	First Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>	Sports Director	<input type="checkbox"/>
40-49 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	Postgraduate	<input type="checkbox"/>	Dean of Students	<input type="checkbox"/>
50-65 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	Other (specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>	Assistant Dean of Students	<input type="checkbox"/>
Over 65 years	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>

6. How can the current trends of university sport participation by female students in your Institution be described?
7. How do these participation trends compare with those of male students?
8. What factors are responsible for shaping the current trends of university sport participation by female students in your Institution?
9. How far can the current levels of university sport participation by female students in your Institution be attributed to the gender imbalances in society?
10. What benefits do female students in your university derive from participating in sport?
11. Does your institution have a Sports Policy? If yes, how far does it promote the participation of female students in sport? If not, how can the introduction of such a policy framework help to improve sports participation by female students in your Institution?

12. Does your institution have a policy on gender? If yes, how far does it promote the participation of female students in sports in your university? If not, how can the introduction of such a policy framework help to improve sports participation by female students in your Institution?

13. What Institutional measures have been put in place to improve the university sport participation by female students?

14. How appropriate are the measures that have been put in place by your university to improve sport participation by female students?

15. How effective are the measures that have been put in place by your Institution to improve University sport participation by female students?

16. What measures can be put in place by your Institution to improve the university sport participation by female students?

***THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME!!!***

## **APPENDIX H: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH-NUST (EXAMPLE)**

National University of Science and Technology  
P.O Box AC 939Ascot  
Bulawayo

07 August, 2014

The Registrar

Dear Sir

### **RE: AUTHORITY TO UNDERTAKE A RESEARCH ON THE PARTICIPATION OF ZIMBABWEAN FEMALE STUDENTS IN UNIVERSITY SPORTS**

I am a UKZN student currently working at NUST. I write to seek authority to undertake a case study research on the participation of female students in University sports. This is in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the Master of Sports Science (research) with the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal (UKZN).

As part of research, I seek authority to access the organisation's sports documents and interview selected respondents who include the Registrar, sports administrators, Coaches and the female students' body. I also request the current female enrolment so that I calculate my sample size. The information will be treated with strict confidentiality and will be used for the purposes of this study only. I will provide the University with the findings and recommendations of the study upon completion and hope that they will be useful in improving female participation in University sports.

I enclose a copy of the letter of admission from UKZN, confirming that I am a bona fide learner. Should there be need for any clarifications on this issue, the Postgraduate Officer (UKZN), will be pleased to assist. She can be contacted directly on telephone numbers stated in the enclosed letter.

The research will be done between January to April 2015. I would like to thank you in advance for facilitating this research. Will be looking forward to your response.

Yours faithfully

Judith Siziba  
0772 372 484  
[judiths24@gmail.com](mailto:judiths24@gmail.com)/ [judith.siziba@nust.ac.zw](mailto:judith.siziba@nust.ac.zw)

Cc: Sports Director

## APPENDIX I: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH – ZUSA

National University of Science and Technology  
P.O Box AC 939 Ascot  
Bulawayo

15 April, 2014

The ZUSA President  
University of Zimbabwe  
P O Box MP 167  
Mount Pleasant,  
Harare

Dear Sir

**RE: AUTHORITY TO UNDERTAKE A RESEARCH ON THE PARTICIPATION OF ZIMBABWEAN FEMALE STUDENTS IN UNIVERSITY SPORTS**

I am a UKZN student currently working at NUST. I write to seek authority to undertake a case study research on the participation of female students in University sports. This is in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the Master of Sports Science (research) with the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal (UKZN).

As part of research, I seek authority to access the Association's sports documents and interview selected respondents who include the Development Officer, Coaches and the female students' body. The information will be treated with strict confidentiality and will be used for the purposes of this study only. I will provide the Association with the findings and recommendations of the study upon completion and hope that they will be useful in improving female participation in University sports.

I enclose a copy of the letter of admission from UKZN, confirming that I am a bona fide learner. Should there be need for any clarifications on this issue, the Postgraduate Officer (UKZN), will be pleased to assist. She can be contacted directly on telephone numbers stated in the enclosed letter.

The research will be done between January 2015 and April 2015. I would like to thank you in advance for facilitating this research. I will be looking forward to your response.

Yours faithfully

Judith Siziba  
0772 372 484  
[judiths24@gmail.com](mailto:judiths24@gmail.com) / [judith.siziba@nust.ac.zw](mailto:judith.siziba@nust.ac.zw)

Cc: Vice President  
Development Office

## APPENDIX J: ETHICS APPROVAL – UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL



11 February 2015

**Ms Judith Siziba (213574553)**  
**School of Health Sciences**  
**Westville Campus**

Dear Ms Siziba,

Protocol reference number: HSS/1562/014M  
Project title: Participation of Zimbabwean female students in University Sports

### Full Approval – Expedited Approval

With regards to your application for ethical clearance received on 19 November 2014. The documents submitted have been accepted by the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee and **FULL APPROVAL** for the protocol has been granted.

**Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.**

**Please note: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.**

**The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.**

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

  
.....  
**Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)**

/ms

cc Supervisor: Professor Johan van Heerden  
cc Academic Leader Research  
cc School Administrator: Ms Phindile Nene

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### Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building

Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000

Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 3587/6350/4557 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4809 Email: [ximbap@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:ximbap@ukzn.ac.za) / [snymnm@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:snymnm@ukzn.ac.za) / [mohuno@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:mohuno@ukzn.ac.za)

Website: [www.ukzn.ac.za](http://www.ukzn.ac.za)



Founding Campuses:  Edgewood  Howard College  Medical School  Pietermaritzburg  Westville

**APPENDIX K: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT STUDY – C.U.T.**



**CHINHOYI UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY**

☒: P. Bag 7724, ChinHOYI ☎: 263-67-22203-5 📠: 263-67- 27214 E-mail : vicechancellor@cut.ac.zw

Vice-Chancellor's Office: Prof. D. J. Simbi - PhD, BSc, MIM, CEng, FZ'weE, FICorr, FZAS, Hons FZ'

25 February 2014

Judith Siziba  
National University of Science and Technology  
P O Box AC 939 Ascot  
**BULAWAYO**

Dear Judith Siziba

RE: **REQUEST TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH PROJECT AT CHINHOYI UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY**

We acknowledge receipt of your application letter dated 17 February 2014 seeking permission to undertake a research study under a case study research on the participation of female students in University sports.

You are kindly advised that permission to undertake your study is hereby granted. However, you are reminded to observe the University Official Secrecy Oath.

The University would also expect results of your research upon completion.

Thank you.

**T. A. Kaseke (Mr)**  
**DEPUTY REGISTRAR, HUMAN RESOURCES**



## APPENDIX L: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT STUDY - BUSE

REGISTRAR DEPARTMENT

BINDURA, Zimbabwe



Tel: 0271 – 7531-6, 7621-4  
Fax: 263 – 271 – 7534

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### BINDURA UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE EDUCATION

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#### HUMAN RESOURCES

14 March 2014

Ms Judith Siziba  
National University of Science and Technology  
P.O.Box AC 939  
Ascot  
**BULAWAYO**

Dear Ms J Siziba

**RE: APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT EDUCATIONAL  
RESEARCH IN THE DEPARTMENT OF STUDENT AFFAIRS**

Permission to carry out Research on:

#### **PARTICIPATION OF ZIMBABWEAN FEMALE STUDENTS IN UNIVERSITY SPORTS**

Bindura University of Science Education has granted you the permission on the following conditions.

- a) That in carrying out this research you do not disturb the programmes of the University.
- b) That you avail to the University a copy of your research findings.
- c) That the permission can be withdrawn at any time by the Registrar or by any higher officer.

I wish you success in your research work and in your University College studies.

Yours faithfully

  
TF Rumhuma (Mrs)  
**REGISTRAR**

**APPENDIX M: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT STUDY - GZU**



**Registrar**  
*Ms S. Tirivanhu*  
**P O Box 1235**  
**MASVINGO**  
*Tel: 039-252100*  
*Fax: 039-252100*

*Off Old Great Zimbabwe Road*  
**MASVINGO**  
*E mail: stirivanhu@gzu.ac.zw*

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**GREAT ZIMBABWE UNIVERSITY**

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4 March 2014

Ms J. Siziba  
National University of Science and Technology  
P.O. Box AC 939Ascot  
**BULAWAYO**

Dear Ms Siziba

**RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH ON  
THE PARTICIPATION OF ZIMBABWEAN FEMALE STUDENTS IN  
UNIVERSITY SPORTS**

The above matter refers.

This is to confirm that your request has been approved, but please note that we would request a copy of your findings too.

Wishing you good luck in your studies.

Sincerely

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to be 'S. Tirivanhu'.

**S. Tirivanhu (Ms)**  
**Registrar**



## APPENDIX N: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT STUDY – NUST



### National University of Science and Technology

P. O. Box AC 939, Bulawayo, Zimbabwe  
Cnr. Gwanda Road/Cecil Avenue

Telephone: 263-9-282842/288413/39/58  
Fax: 263-9-289057

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From Registrar F. Mhlanga Dip Edu, BEd, MSc(UZ); MBA (NUST)

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FM/sm

21 February, 2014

Ms J Siziba  
National University of Science and Technology  
P O Box AC 939  
Ascot  
**BULAWAYO**

Dear Ms Siziba

**RE: AUTHORITY TO UNDERTAKE A RESEARCH ON THE PARTICIPATION OF ZIMBABWEAN FEMALE STUDENTS IN UNIVERSITY SPORTS**

Reference is made to your letter dated 17 February, 2014 on the above request.

We would like to inform you that you have been granted permission to undertake a research in partial fulfillment of your Master of Sports Science research study on "***Participation of Zimbabwean female students in University sports***".

We would like to emphasize that all the information gathered should be for research purposes only and that confidentiality has to be exercised.

The University wishes you all the best in your research.

Yours sincerely

  
**F Mhlanga**  
Registrar



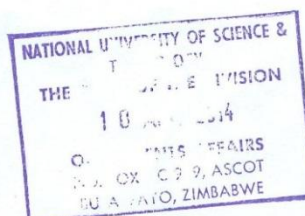
cc Director – Sports Office

**APPENDIX O: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT STUDY – MSU**

National University of Science and Technology  
P.O Box AC 939 Ascot  
Bulawayo

10 April 2014

The Registrar  
Midlands State University  
Private Bag 9055  
Gweru



Dear Mr E Mupfema

**RE: AUTHORITY TO UNDERTAKE A RESEARCH ON THE PARTICIPATION OF ZIMBABWEAN FEMALE STUDENTS IN UNIVERSITY SPORTS**

I am a UKZN student currently working at NUST. I write to seek authority to undertake a case study research on the participation of female students in University sports. This is in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the Master of Sports Science (research) with the University of KwaZulu Natal (UKZN).

As part of research, I seek authority to access the organisation's sports documents and interview selected respondents who include the Registrar, Sports Administrators, Coaches and the Female students' body. I also request the current female enrolment so that I calculate my sample size. The information will be treated with strict confidentiality and will be used for the purposes of this study only. I will provide the University with the findings and recommendations of the study upon completion and hope that they will be useful in improving female participation in University sports.

I enclose a copy of the letter of admission from UKZN, confirming that I am a bona fide learner. Should there be need for any clarifications on this issue, the Postgraduate Officer (UKZN), will be pleased to assist. She can be contacted directly on telephone numbers stated in the enclosed letter.

The research will be done between January 2015 to April 2015. I would like to thank you in advance for facilitating this research. Will be looking forward to your response. Will also appreciate emails for the sake of time.

Yours faithfully

*J. Siziba*

Judith Siziba  
0772 372 484  
[judiths24@gmail.com](mailto:judiths24@gmail.com)/ [judith.siziba@nust.ac.zw](mailto:judith.siziba@nust.ac.zw)

Cc: Sports Director



*Approved*  
*[Signature]*  
*RSS*  
*18/04/14*

## APPENDIX P: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT STUDY - ZUSA

<b>Office of the President:</b> email: <a href="mailto:lmaidza@yahoo.com">lmaidza@yahoo.com</a> phone: +263 772421774 bus phone: 303211 ext 21018	<b>Mr Liberty Maida</b> University of Zimbabwe P.O. Box MP167 Mt Pleasant Harare.
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<b>Date:</b> 15 OCTOBER 2014	 <p>Affiliated to ZTISU, FASU, FISU</p>
<b>To:</b> Ms JUDITH SIZIBA	
<b>Subject:</b> <u>REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH</u>	

The above matter refers:

This letter serves to grant you permission to undertake a research on the "Participation of Zimbabwean Female Students in University Sports" in our association as requested and also grants you authority to access sports documents and interview respondents of your choice within the Association.

Thank you



Liberty Maida

(ZUSA President)

Cc: Vice President

Development Officer

Running File



**ZIMBABWE UNIVERSITIES SPORTS ASSOCIATION EXECUTIVE:**  
**President:** L. Maida, **Vice President:** B. Nyamuziwa, **Secretary General:** T. Muzuva  
**Treasurer:** T. Madzvamuse, **Development Officer:** P. Musiwacho, **Marketing Officer:** J. Mpofu  
**Committee Members:** T. Munarwo, K. Zvapano